

COMMUNICATION
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Living in — — Crisis Mode

Time to Reconsider Definition,
Meaning and Practice?

PROCEEDINGS —————

Editors:

Piet Verhoeven

Damir Jugo

Hrvoje Jakopović

Lana Ciboci

Edward Bernays University College

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Editors:

Piet Verhoeven, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Amsterdam School of Communication Research (ASCoR), College and Graduate School of Communication Science, University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Damir Jugo, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Edward Bernays University College, Croatia

Hrvoje Jakopović, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Faculty of Political Sciences, University of Zagreb, Croatia

Lana Ciboci, Ph.D., Edward Bernays University College, Croatia

English Language Editor: Adrian Beljo

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Ivana Bilić, Lana Ciboci, Gordana Buljan Flander, Damir Jugo, Danijel Labaš, Pero Maldini, Zdeslav Milas, Mario Petrović, Božo Skoko, Ana Tkalac Verčič, Dejan Verčič, Piet Verhoeven, Zoran Tomić

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CONTENT

PREFACE	1-2
PUBLIC RELATIONS	
• The Future of the Press Release as a PR Technique (<i>Marko Ćustić, Ivan Pakozdi</i>)	3-17
• Preserving the Profession in the Time of Rapid Changes Using Public Relations (<i>Draženka Stančić, Robert Posavec</i>)	18-36
• Crisis Communication Challenges of the Food Industry: Croatian Experiences (<i>Damir Jugo, Marta Takahashi</i>)	37-52
• Crisis Communication in Emergency Medicine (<i>Ivan Biošić, Maja Banovac Barić</i>)	53-76
• Adaptations to Communication Trends of the Public Sector in Croatia - Analysis of Croatian Pension Insurance Institute (<i>Filip Dujmović</i>)	77-100
• Crisis Communication in Tourism – Example from Spain (<i>Ivana Gažić, Dejan Gluvačević, Zvonimir Grgas</i>)	101-118
• Crisis Communication in Response to Terrorist Threat: Case Study of French Tourism (<i>Goran Pavelin, Maria Pedić</i>)	119-135
MEDIA & NEW MEDIA COMMUNICATION	
• Legislation as an Attempt to Manipulate Media Activity in Croatia in the Case of “the 25,000 Words Criterion” (<i>Snježana Barić Šelmić, Tomislav Levak, Saša Blažeković</i>)	136-163
• Communicating the Crisis: Main Croatian Political Parties on Social Media During 2015 Parliamentary Elections in Croatia (<i>Domagoj Bebić, Marija Volarević</i>)	164-181
• Crisis Communication and Social Media: A Case Study of a Crisis in the Retail Sector in Croatia (<i>Violeta Colić, Anita Klapan</i>)	182-200
• Exploratory Study of Words and Emotions in Tweets of UK Start-up Founders (<i>Ivan Dunđer, Marko Horvat, Sergej Lugović</i>)	201-224
• Crisis Communication on Social Media (<i>Mario Petrović, Vladimir Preselj, Maja Samardžić Gašpar</i>)	225-243
• Twitter as One of the Crucial Communication Tool in Donald Trump's Presidential Campaign (<i>Goran Pavelin, Maria Pedić</i>)	244-264
• European Refugee Crisis 2015: Press Coverage on Web Site Dnevno.hr (<i>Tihana Babić, Tamara Kunić</i>)	265-283



MANAGEMENT & MARKETING

- Corporate Activity on Social Media and Its Impact on Reputation Rankings (*Milan Mandić, Ivana Bilić*) 284-297
- Cross-Cultural Horizontal and Vertical Communications in Company with Rapid Growth (*Mila Ćosić*) 298-318
- Effectiveness of Lobbying in the European Parliament – Analysis of Views of Croatian MEPs (*Goran Bračić, Kristijan Sedak, Igor Vidačak*) 319-343
- The Impact of an Efficient Economic Diplomacy System on Economic Growth (*Radmila Pavličić, Gordan Ivan Šojat, Tajana Ozimec*) 344-362

INTERDISCIPLINARY COMMUNICATION

- Analysis of the Croatian Crisis Communications Academic Discourse with Particular Reference to the Refugee Crisis in 2015 and 2016 (*Mirela Holy, Nikolina Borčić*) 363-380
- A New Paradigm of the Relationship between Man and Science as a Prerequisite for Awareness Transformation (*Romana Lekić, Branimir Blajić, Nataša Mance*) 381-398
- Models of Design Science in Information Systems: A Visual Overview (*Sergej Lugović, Ivan Dunđer, Mile Čolić*) 399-417
- Fashion as a Means of Communication and Expression of Political Attitudes (*Martina Pandžić Skoko, Marija Volarević*) 418-440
- Political Communication of Beppe Grillo: Revolution of the Italian Populist Discourse (*Ivana Jeleč*) 441-464
- The Refugee Crisis Within the Context of EU Asylum and Migration Policies (*Maja Banovac Barić, Katarina Bekavac*) 465-485
- The Role of Intercultural Communication for the Migrant Integration in the Case of German Language Acquisition in Austria (*Petra Vujović*) 486-507
- Why Money Should Be Funny? Beyond the Crisis: Communication Strategies for State Lottery (*Kristina Posilović*) 524-540

PREFACE

The book of proceedings from the Second International Conference Communication Management Forum 2017 is especially devoted to the ongoing crisis in today's world. Title of this book “Living in Crisis Mode – Time to Reconsider Definition, Meaning and Practice?” brings the essence of what authors questioned, analysed and discussed in their papers. After reviewing process, we have agreed that some other topics and papers of good quality deserve to take part in this book. Therefore the book is not only restricted to crisis communication. It offers a spectre of topics related to communication, media and public relations. We feel that this additional content can enrich the understanding of professional communication and crisis processes. This book can come as a handy manual for discovering contemporary issues in communication management.

Communication is recognized as one of the most important mechanisms of control when dealing with crisis. In contemporary multimedia environment it is necessary to revise previous practices and protocols in crisis communication. Accuracy and responsiveness seem to be core values to make the effort in communication with the publics affected with crisis. The challenge of reconciliation of reactive, almost instant response to crisis, and strategic proactive communication remains something to cope with for communication professionals.

The authors have identified large number of issues in crisis communication. They recognize challenges for the food industry in Croatia and need to improve the level of preparedness. The results from the survey on crisis in emergency medicine show that 84% of healthcare workers handle crisis situations almost every day. Tourism is affected with different threats and for the last few years especially with terrorism attacks, which can be seen from the example of Spain. Moreover lessons in crisis communication can be learned from the case study on French tourism and terrorist threats. Retail sector in Croatia is also vulnerable to different crisis situations which can be seen from the case study on salmonella crisis which occurred in Croatia in 2016. One of the most challenging issues is how to deal with crisis on social media, which is the topic of the paper. The authors have analysed the discourse and the number of academic papers in Croatia that dealt with crisis communication in the period from 2005 till 2016. Readers can even go beyond crisis and see possible communication strategies for the state lottery.

The diversity of topics in this book helps in understanding how significant communication and communication professionals are in different sectors. The authors deal with the future of news release and argue will this PR technique survive in fast-changing media environment. Other question how public relations can help in preserving the profession of school librarian. Topics are related with the adaption of communication trends in public sector, in Croatian Pension Insurance Institute. The authors discuss legislation and manipulation in media activity through “25,000-words criterion” for daily newspapers. They analyse main Croatian political parties and their activities on social media during 2015. There is also an exploratory study on word frequency and emotions in Tweets. Twitter is observed as a powerful tool in Donald Trump's wining campaign. Media representation of the European refugee crisis in 2015, but also EU asylum and migration policies are one of the topics. The authors analyse the impact of social media corporate activity on reputation rankings. Readers can find interesting information on horizontal and vertical cross-cultural communication in fast-growing companies. The authors discuss European lobbying and its effectiveness. They question how could economic diplomacy boost economic growth. Others discuss relationship between man and science. They present visual overview of design science models in information systems. The authors argue how can fashion express and communicate political views. They analyse Beppe Grillo's communication. Learning and communicative methods are also the topic. Furthermore, the authors deal with myths in partnership cultures.

Many thanks to our contributors and everyone who took part in the production of this book.

Hrvoje Jakopović, Piet Verhoeven, Damir Jugo and Lana Ciboci

Editors

THE FUTURE OF THE PRESS RELEASE AS A PR TECHNIQUE

Marko Ćustić, bacc. rel. publ.

Millenium promocija, Zagreb, Croatia

marko.custic@mpr.hr

Ivan Pakozdi, M.A.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

ivan.pakozdi@bernays.hr

Summary

The press release, or the media release, has hardly changed format since its invention by Ivy Ledbetter Lee in 1906. The purpose of this paper is to explore how the increasing importance of social media and the gradual decline of traditional media affect practices and predictions in Croatian public relations practitioners relating to the media release as a public relations tool. Structured interviews were conducted with five Croatian public relations practitioners of differing backgrounds and experiences. The authors begin the research hypothesizing that public relations practitioners hold opinions indicating that the media release will have to change in the future due to the changing nature and format of the media. After analysing the interviews, it was concluded that the media release is here to stay as an indispensable tool for public relations, but is likely to change to a multimedia format or in other, unpredictable, ways due to technology change.

Keywords: press release, media release, public relations

1. Introduction

It is considered that the modern, classical version of the press release was invented by Ivy Ledbetter Lee, an American publicist and early public relations practitioner from the beginning of 20th century. He is credited for the development of a second “public information” model of public relations which was based on the principle of the transparent supply of prompt and accurate information about clients to the press and public. This principle was later reflected in a commonly used PR technique – the press release. To what extent Lee’s model of press release was accepted is reflected in the fact that Lee’s principle of writing press releases was kept until today, of course, with some changes appropriate for modern times.

Different modern authors define press release differently but they all agree that, from Lee’s time till today, the press release “has remained the most direct path to reach influential media sources” (Kennedy, 2014). Anthony Frangi and Mandy Fletcher (2002) define the media release as “a means of getting any relevant message or news to the media officially, clearly and efficiently”. Another author, Božo Skoko (2016), claims that media will deal with your business (in a positive sense) if you give them an incentive. You can give them a boost, among other things, by sending them a press release. In different countries, this public relations tool is called differently, but its purpose is always the same: to announce news, announce an event, present some facts and figures. By writing a report, we actually write the news or report that we would like to see in the media. On the one hand, we make it easier for journalists to work and, on the other hand, it is more certain that the media will convey our news just as we have designed it. Namely, a well-written press release is hard to misquote. As the press release is more similar to newspaper news, it is more likely to be published in the unchanged form. Ana Tkalac Verčič (2016) states that “the press release even today represents the tactic which is most commonly used in media relations, although the development of the Internet and social media has changed its basic purpose and form”.

The definition of press release by Mojica Alija (2001, 54) says “the main way to get to radio, television or newspaper is publication of the press release. The media announcement is just your novelty written using the journalistic style. Journalists and electronic media rely on such announcements to compile reports, articles, and shows.” An even simpler definition is given by Dennis Wilcox (1986, 511) who writes: “Basically, a press release is a simple written document that has the purpose of disseminating information in a form that is easy to publish.”

This definition is confirmed by Alison Theaker (2007, 175) who stated “in essence, the press release is a simple document that, as clear and open as possible, provides information that a journalist can use to write or broadcast a story”. Jill Treadwell and Donald Treadwell (2005, 18) also insist on publishing press releases. “A classical press release requires a structure consistent with the news editorial logic. That is, the story has to go from more important to less important data.”

“A press release, sometimes referred to as a news release, is one of the first documents for public relations practitioners to learn how to write. It is an informative document intended to encourage journalists to write a story. The idea is that the journalist reads the press release, gets interested in the topic and then writes the article with the help of the contents of the press release or other information he gathers himself. If you understand what formats and contents require press releases, you will be more likely to get through the crowd and into the media.” (Heath, Coombs, 2006, 358)

2. Current Position of the Press Release

Almost everything in the communications world has changed in the past few decades and yet one tool, more than 112 years old, still holds its position as one of the most popular PR tools of all times. While reviewing the above mentioned definitions and description of the press release, several features are listed as common by all authors. In principle, everyone agrees that a press release is a written document that is delivered to journalists and editors, which always contains the news that the organization wants to share with the public, and which aims to attract the interest of media professionals. It is most commonly noted that it is a document written using the journalistic style to make it easier for the journalist to adapt for publication. In that sense, a great press release is not something that prompts a journalist to write an article; rather, a great press release is published as an article.

The question that arises is whether the reach of a press release is really confined by what Lee used to print for newspapers in 1916? Or at least by what Professor Dennis L. Wilcox taught his students in 1986 at the University of San Jose some 30 years ago? Has anything changed because of the influence of the Internet and social media, and in what direction will this basic public relations tool develop in the future?

Janet Meiners Thaeler (2014, 1) believes that “today you can be in control of your own public relations. With online PR, you no longer have to work through others to get your story told.

Now you can tell it directly – to the entire world. Your announcement (e.g. press release) or story can be picked up not just by journalists but also on blogs, through press release sites, and ultimately by search engines.”

David Meerman Scott (2009) claims that the Internet has brought huge problems to public relations practitioners: thanks to the email, it is easy to find hundreds of journalists at once and to all of them suddenly send a press release. The consequence is that media professionals are overwhelmed with a growing amount of content which does not get enough attention, and in the end, not every press release reaches the public. Some of Scott’s advice, published under the subtitle “New Rules of Media Relations”, says “Unsolicited content is spam. Read the publication which you are sending before sending it. When you find out how a journalist thinks, send him individualized content specifically designed for his needs.” (Meerman Scott, 2009, 195) Scott recommends targeting a journalist, after studying what he published up till now. He also states that the journalist needs help to understand the broader picture and that a public relations practitioner must never forget that the journalist needs his content as well. “The point is that journalists want to know what you want to say to them. The fact that the problem of spam in PR is so great is really inconvenient, because it makes it harder for journalists to work.” (Meerman Scott, 2009, 198)

In a digitized world, the press release is used in innovative ways. The American online store Amazon pushes its engineers to write a press release before they make a technical solution (D’Onfro, 2015). If they fail to compile an attractive statement, Amazon thinks the product is not worth developing.

In the past few years, there has been a lot of discussion about adapting content to Internet search engines, especially to Google. As a leading search engine, Google has the power to destroy a website if it is out of its results or is of lesser importance. How to write a statement to avoid this scenario? Simply, considers You Mon Tsang, Senior Vice President of Vocus¹ who says “Write naturally, add links to quality content (...)” (Tsang, 2013).

¹ Vocus, Inc. is a company which provides cloud-based marketing and public relations software that enable companies to acquire and retain customers in the United States and Europe. Its cloud marketing solutions include a social media software solution that helps customers run social marketing campaigns, as well as monitor and analyze conversations across multiple social networks and other online websites; and a search marketing and news distribution solution, which helps customers increase their online visibility and organic search engine rankings with press releases.

The Italian company Vizy² creates a new generation of press releases. Their media releases are in video format and are generated through crowdsourcing. Anna Campellini, their chief of strategy, says: “When it comes to communication one on one, (the press release) is not dead, but it is dying. In a world of focused collaboration, content is increasingly created through different voices using different tools (...) It will become native content fully aligned with the environment in which it is published. Viewers will not be able to distinguish ‘press releases’ from the usual content.” (Coffee, 2015)

In this context, video content is viewed by up to 80 percent of the recipients, while only 20 percent of the recipients reach the end of textual items. Also, the life span of a written statement in the same online article of the AdWeek magazine is estimated at 9 days, while the multimedia announcement, according to that source, lives for 40 days. Press releases are no longer working for traditional media, but for social media, where dissemination can be done by users, and media professionals are overtaken in this process.

Many journalists today face special challenges in their careers that did not previously exist. Some of these challenges include cutbacks, development of technology and social media, and fake news. Confidence in PR is at a low level, while expectations of PR practitioners are rising continuously. Numerous innovative PR tools are brought up; multimedia is taking over the scene, so it brings into question whether classical press releases are still relevant and useful.

3. Research Methodology

Numerous theoreticians and practitioners have failed to agree about the future of the press release as a PR tool. Will it die or will it survive, and if it survives, will it have to change? To acquire answers to these questions the authors of this paper have conducted a series of five structured interviews containing eight open-ended questions which were prepared in advance. These types of questions could be answered by participants in many ways and could allow them to give elaborate, thoughtful answers. Interviews were conducted with five skilled PR practitioners from Croatia, four men and one woman, who have at least ten years of work experience and who are employed in different positions in the PR industry. Some of the

² Vizy is an Italian company which provides a global digital platform designed to help brands, agencies and businesses communicate through video.

participants are owners of PR agencies and some of them are consultants. Some of them have, in addition to public relations, achieved remarkable journalistic careers. The same set of eight identical questions was placed in the same order for all participants. The researcher did not ask any sub-questions. For convenience, instead of the name, they were given the letters of the English alphabet from A to E, so we speak of participants A, B, C, D and E. The authors' intention was to acquire detailed information about the thoughts of experts on the future of the press release.

The authors of this paper have put forward the following hypothesis: In most cases PR practitioners believe that press release will have to change in the future due to changes in the format and the nature of the media themselves.

The questions posed to participants were: Are traditional media becoming irrelevant due to social media to you as a professional in public relations? Is the press release dying? Can the media dissemination process be replaced by publications on social media? Have the form and contents of the press release changed over the past 10 years, and in what way? Did clients start abandoning press releases as a way to share news with stakeholders? What do clients ask from you when you disseminate press releases for them? Is there room for significant progress in the quality of content and the structure of press releases? What will the term "press release" mean in ten years?

4. The Experts' Discussion

4.1. Are traditional media becoming irrelevant due to social media to you as a professional in public relations?

None of the five participants agreed with the finding that traditional media have become irrelevant to them as professionals in public relations. Yet, they all warn of the diminished importance of traditional media in relation to social media. Some of them point out the specificities of the use of social media in the public relations sectors that deal with, for example, better social media feasibility for emotionally charged publications in the field of culture, or examples of successful use of social media status instead of press releases in public relations in politics. All five experts agreed that social media are closer to the people and that by their means one can acquire useful feedback. However, traditional media are still very significant

to clients because they cover huge media space, especially daily newspapers. “Network news is spreading faster and people like to share them. On the other hand, Trump’s campaign has shown that one cannot fully trust the Internet. For example, the allegation that Trump in 1996 stated that he would run for president as a Republican candidate, because Republican voters are the stupidest people in the world, is a lie. Trump did not give any media interview during that period”, stated participant A.

Participant B, however, believes that the importance of traditional media has diminished, that is, social media have taken over part of relevance. Traditional media have expanded the opportunity for interested citizens to become opinion leaders. In that sense they have reduced the importance of traditional media. A person who is not a journalist or editor in any of the traditional media can actually become the key opinion leader only through his activities and communication on social networks. However, traditional media are vigorous, so it is not a rare situation that those who profiled as the opinion leader became guest commentators and columnists in traditional media.

Nowadays it has become necessary to encode messages in different ways and to see which segment of the audience is still dominant in traditional media. Some research says that the number is shrinking year after year and that after the baby boomer generation, a generation that is accustomed to traditional media, the public trusting these media will disappear, and in the meantime some new media may be generated. For example, participant C believes that “the millennial generation consumes the traditional media significantly to a lesser extent, so it can be concluded that they do not experience it as relevant information source”.

Though social media gains more and more importance every day, traditional media will not lose their influence, furthermore, participant D thinks that the situation will change in favour of traditional media, and notes that he does not speak about traditional media in terms of the length of existence or the way of dissemination, so perhaps the adjective “traditional” should be changed to “structured”. Although many traditional media have “relieved” their rules of functioning, their advantage is precisely in structuring, editing, checking information... All this is not yet the case with social media. In the months and years ahead, we will witness an interesting transformation: social media will take some patterns of functioning of traditional media and thus become practically self-made traditional media, or the traditional media will

remain a reference point for accurate and verified information, while social media will continue to be an anarchic information playground.

“Ultimately, television still has not lost primacy; Internet portals besides social networks are still unmatched and will be all the more relevant. Radio was written off in terms of PR, and yet it is getting stronger now. Print has been pronounced dead, but it is still holding on, and we need it and consume it. Social networks are a good upgrade to communication, but the general belief that we consume them is not relevant and we often have to use other channels too. They can work complementarily, but social networks alone, for themselves, are not enough,” says participant E.

4.2. Is the press release dying?

Although all five participants basically agree that the press release is experiencing a crisis, they are not ready to write it off completely. Some believe that journalists do not use the press release in the right way, as stated by the participant A, who says: “I think the journalists’ approach to press releases is dead. It is no longer true that a journalist will ask for more information or ask questions on the basis of an acquired press release. It seems that the press release has lost real value. After the press release is sent, personal contact with the journalist should be made to interest him or her in the story.” But in 2017, editors and reporters are overloaded, and no one has time to read multiple paragraphs of a widely distributed release to figure out which bits are relevant to them. Some participants also point out that press releases are often sent to the media without concrete messages or it is unclear what the message is.

The other opinion that can be heard is that the techniques of narrative development and the creation of key messages in communication remain the same, and only the media is changing, and that publications on social networks is a form of press release. This stance is supported by the statement of participant B who considers that “the tool as such is not dead and will not be dead soon. It may eventually take on a different form, but the purpose of this tool will remain”.

More participants warn that the blame for the bad reputation of press releases should be put on public relations practitioners, who sometimes send overlong or incomprehensible statements, as can be seen from participant C’s statement:

“press releases often try to include a message that has more of an advertising-promotional character, than informative. We cannot place a sign of equality between all sectors and organisational sources. The press release must be more like traditional news; it must contain elements which make this news interesting. This is the biggest challenge and the biggest issue of press releases because you are in an almost impossible situation to reconcile the media’s interest and the interest of the person who sends this message. These interests are often not the same.”

This thesis is also supported by participant D, who believes that “many do not understand that the press release is not a piece, or, more often, five boring pages, of text that can easily be copied and pasted as a newspaper article. On the other hand, PR practitioners often forget that the press is just one of the tools that will interest a journalist to publish a story.”

Ultimately, respondents agree that the press release will continue to function as a tool, but in somewhat different formats. It will be enough to send journalists, in some group or inbox, initial information and allow them to ask for additional information if they really need it, because several pages of Word documents will cause a revolt with journalists rather than encourage them to use them for publication.

4.3. Can the media dissemination process be replaced by publications on social media?

Most participants believe that it is possible to replace the press release by posting information on social networks, on condition that this information is adapted in form and format. Although today there is a tendency to send initial information through social networks, and redirect journalists looking for additional information to websites or servers from where the rest can be downloaded, it is necessary to set certain limits in the expectation, because as stated by participant A “on social networks you are not sure whether all the media you want to follow you actually follow you”. By using only social networks one cannot cover everything, and there is too much information. In order for such a type of substitution to be successful, it is essential to know that key media practitioners are associated with the profile of the organization on social networks in order to achieve the coverage that is otherwise achieved by targeting emails to journalists and editors. One of the interviewees also warns that for the strong global brands, whose actions are subject of great public interest, social media coverage is enough, and that the same situation is with influencers.

Some experts, however, believe that social media cannot replace the classical press releases in a gradual manner and point out that “information should be adapted to the media, one type of

press release should be created for traditional media and a completely different one - shorter, more challenging - for social media”.

4.4. Have the form and contents of the press release changed over the past 10 years, and in what way?

A number of participants argue that the rule according to which the press release should be written to resemble a news item in order to be immediately published in the media has only recently been introduced to Croatia. Some also mention technological advances, from sending press release via fax machine to electronic mail. One participant emphasises the importance of multimedia content related to the press release, such as photographs and infographics, while for other participants the press release represents merely a textual document. However, the fact remains that an online press release is a press release written for a variety of audiences on the Internet and distributed online so it has all the elements of traditional press releases, but is often written less formally.

According to participant A,

“the form is always similar. While writing a press release, everyone has to answer questions such as who, what, where, when, how and why, but it seems that the tone is no longer so formal, and a bit more creativity is also allowed. It also depends on the client, sometimes the press release can be created more attractive for journalists, and with some clients the press release simply has to be sterile. I would say that the form has remained unchanged all the same.”

Besides the technology of sending press releases, which once were sent by fax machines, today it is unthinkable to send press releases which do not contain multimedia. A photo is mandatory as well as illustration or visualization and hyperlink to more information. Video is increasingly used and its importance grows daily and will probably be positioned as the most important form of information dissemination in the future. In addition to multimedia, in press releases there is a lot of novel content: infographics, short video clips, and research results.

However, the form did not change enough and this is the most frequent criticism of the press release. Journalists still receive enormous quantities of unwanted text, but there are also brighter examples – PR practitioners who send short, clear and interesting press releases. Participant E finds that press releases “are increasingly being written in the journalistic style. More and more professionals realize that it is important to write press releases whose style is closer to the journalistic style. The goal is to create a press release that a journalist could

easily copy and publish. That saves the journalist's time. In recent times, press releases weren't written in the journalistic style, but this has changed during the last few years. Today, the press release looks like news, with 5W elements, quality lead; very good hierarchy of information and an attractive headline."

4.5. Are clients abandoning the media release as a means for sharing news with stakeholders?

Most of the participants claim that clients insist on a media release being sent out in certain circumstances, although they would recommend the use of another, more appropriate PR technique, as is confirmed by the participant A's statement: "The feedback I am getting from the media is that their inboxes are full of media releases". However, some of them observe that media releases are partly replaced by posts on social media and other forms of communication. For instance, participant B says: "Companies are striving to communicate more through different associations, non-governmental organizations, direct meetings, one-to-one contacts. Media relations are not considered the primary means of communication here. They are more a kind of mediation method, and we witness that daily." Participant C says:

"Clients tend to use media releases less often and with specific aims in mind. The information they want to share with their target groups are distributed through other channels such as social media in the first place, and in Croatia that means predominantly on Facebook, Instagram and Twitter. Serious clients strive for a more professional relation and more precise communication. Within that context, the rule is to address each group differently – using a different channel and different tool. The media release is still current if you aim to reach, for instance, the business community. Its content can be published in traditional business media and reach business people".

In conclusion, several participants believe that the media release is an adequate technique in certain situations and attempts to reach certain target groups due to the fact that most clients ask for a media release to be sent out whenever a need arises to inform a target group.

4.6. What do clients ask for when you distribute a media release for them?

All participants claim that clients care about the result that is for all interested parties to receive the release and publish it in their respective media to achieve a measurable effect. This stance is confirmed by participant B's statement: "it doesn't matter anymore who published what amount of information, it matters what the final outcome was and how to measure it". The participants do not agree on whether the number of published items or reaching target

groups is the more important metric. When clients are concerned, there are no essential differences, aside from the fact that some of them prefer quantity (items published in wide reaching media), while others demand quality.

One of the participants warns that the success of a media release depends on how interesting the subject publishing the release is to the public. Another says that some releases achieve success even if they reach a single audience member, citing companies in search of an investor as an example.

4.7. Can the media release be significantly improved in the future in terms of content quality or structure?

Most participants agree that there is room for improvement, especially in terms of improving narratives. Some of them offer directions which the change should take. The introduction of multimedia such as online content, photographs, infographics and video are suggested, up to completely replacing the textual release with multimedia content. One of the participants says some information is easier to convey with an infographic or Facebook post. Another would gladly transform the media release into a short announcement with a hyperlink to more information.

However, not all participants support the idea of possible major improvements. Some of them remain sceptical to the idea and claim that the media release format is really limited and the form should be adhered to, as participant E opines:

“So much work has been done on the media release there is not much room left for improvement. When you send a traditional media release, which means a Word document nowadays, there is not much room for improvement, even if you opt to send it as a PDF file. You can add better titles and use attractive information, reduce unnecessary content, provide a hyperlink, but still, not much can be done to improve the form.”

4.8. What will the term “media release” mean in ten years’ time?

Participants provided the widest range of possible responses to this question: from predictions of total disappearance to attitudes that the media release will remain exactly the same as today, as supported by claims such as: “I think not even the form will change because the media release needs to stay short and informative to elicit a reaction from the media”. Others claim that the form and technology will change, but the meaning of the term will stay the same, or

they even announce the total disappearance of the media release as a tool used by public relations practitioners. Several participants are of the opinion that the media release could be replaced by social media posts as well as that the media release format could be preserved by the most conservative of institutions, such as government institutions acting in protocol situations.

A possibility is allowed that a new term would be coined for some different and leaner technique replacing the media release in communication with media and target groups. Other kinds of releases, whether multimedia, published on social media or both, are seen as having advantages in comparison with purely textual content. The media release may not be called that any more, since that term might remain reserved for the textual document sent as an email attachment, as is customary today.

5. Conclusion

Croatian public relations' professionals believe that the negative aspects of the media release include the oversaturation of media professionals with numerous releases and the clients' insistence on using media releases when other methods would be more appropriate or efficient.

Although they claim to be aware of the growing importance of social media, most of the participants still prefer traditional media when information needs to be distributed to target groups. Some of them claim that traditional media can be replaced with social media only when used by potent influencers such as leading global consumer brands. However, they are aware of the existence of new generations which are almost completely out of reach for traditional media and difficult to reach without use of social media, as well as of the fact that traditional media users are demographically dying out. In conclusion, they are keeping themselves informed on transformations and upheavals on the media market, and some of them anticipate a breakdown in distinctions between traditional and social media. Therefore, they announce the intent to keep their options open.

They are still not ready to renounce the media release as a technique of public relations. Moreover, most of them claim there are tasks which cannot be fulfilled without resorting to the media release. Opinions differ on what the term "media release" means today. Some of the participants claim it relates only to the textual form, others believe multimedia content such as

infographics, photographs and video to be integral parts of the media release or even replace it entirely. All of the participants believe that the media release will still be in use in ten years' time, for some under a new name or transformed into a multimedia experience. Others claim that certain institutions, especially ones that are driven to act conservatively due to the nature of their work, still will be using the standard textual media release.

Opinions on the media release's likely survival are grounded in experiences that participants had with their clients. Most of them recall occasions where clients demanded a media release to be sent out, although the PR professional's opinion was that another tool would better serve the purpose.

One participant suggests an approach which would transform the media release into very short information designed to incite the media professional into following a provided hyper-link, but they are in the minority. Most participants still see the media release as a single or two page textual document, as defined in public relations manuals consulted during the writing of this paper.

Ultimately, the PR professionals facing changes in the media market still foresee a future for the media release, at least for the following decade. The media release in 2026 will, if the interviewees are right in their predictions, still be recognizable to Ivy Ledbetter Lee.

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PRESERVING THE PROFESSION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIAN IN THE TIME OF RAPID CHANGES USING PUBLIC RELATIONS

Draženka Stančić, M.A.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

drazenka.stancic@bernays.hr

Robert Posavec, M.A.

Centre for Education Čakovec, Čakovec, Croatia

robert.posavec3@skole.hr

Summary

The topic of the paper relates to the insufficiently explored public relations niche – public relations of an individual profession. The paper presents an overview of the research conducted among school librarians on the visibility of their field. School librarians believe that the main reason for most of the problems they encounter during their work lies precisely in the lack of visibility of their field. Research has the role of partial analysis of the situation as a prerequisite for developing a plan to increase the visibility of school librarians. It is based on a survey conducted using an online questionnaire. In addition to confirming hypotheses, research has also shown that school librarians are often in charge of media relations and managing web content of the school. Research also enabled them to reflect on their activities from the public relations point of view.

Keywords: school librarians, visibility of the profession/field, identity, image, situation analysis, public relations tools

1. Introduction

Based on internal research, this paper deals with the field's visibility and with ways of preserving the profession of school librarians from the viewpoint of school librarians. It is a field that is intensely developing since Croatia's independence. The academic community recognized the need for education of school librarians by opening studies alongside work for those who were already part of the education system as school librarians. The profession received a kind of a help through legislation on education and on libraries. The legislation prescribed that each school must have a library and that one who works in the library must, after a certain period of time, acquire professional knowledge of librarianship. By opening jobs under such conditions, the field has been generationally renewed and become adaptable to new technologies. But this has also become a problem since this legal provision on the subsequent acquisition of expert knowledge has allegedly often been abused by school principals. There is also a legal inconsistency by which school librarians have to pass two professional exams – at the Ministry of Science and Education and the Ministry of Culture. School librarians have been unsuccessfully pointing to that fact for years. It is an obvious example of poor budget management since the authorities double finance the implementation of these examinations.

On the other hand, funding of school libraries for resource acquisition – a source of learning – is not precisely addressed. There is no regulation to provide regular funding for this procurement either from the level of the ministry or from the founder level, nor is it determined by the exact percentage of the school's material costs. There is great unevenness in the equipment of school libraries. As specialized information specialists, school librarians suffer from obsolete and incomplete work programmes, as for the secondary schools there are no programs at all, so school librarians are rather geared towards more creative individuals within the profession, willing to share their positive experiences with other colleagues. Colleagues and principals do not know the possibilities and role of librarians, and some librarians see the development of ICT and the appearance of e-books as a threat.

The development of academic and professional understanding of the role of school librarians is being developed in parallel, and it is very quickly implemented in schools. Awareness of quality work and concern for the profession over a whole range of issues largely remains within the field. There are some shifts in trying to solve problems through dialogue with our expert (ministries, professional associations and other educators) and other publics, but there is no real

strategy. This paper will show how school librarians see the problems and visibility of their profession and suggest solutions based on research findings.

2. Theme Development

2.1. Theoretical Framework

The subject of the paper deals with the insufficiently explored public relations niche. Literature on this subject is quite deficient. Tomić (2016) in the Public Relations Practice section that lists areas of public relations does not state the public relations of a field, occupation or profession. Therefore, the topic of research should include knowledge in the area of public relations of non-profit organizations, internal corporate communications, trade union and volunteer organizations, educational institutions, professional societies, lobbying, personal relations with the public and media relations.

2.1.1. Field, Profession

It is also necessary to consider the problem of defining school librarianship as occupation, call, field or professions. The Dictionary of the Croatian Language (Anić, 2004) does not differentiate occupation, vocation and profession. Although, it further qualifies the profession as “1. The main activity for whoever has a certain education and earns for life; interest; 2. All persons dealing with the same profession”, and the field as “1. The totality of theory and practice in dealing with some area of knowledge, practical work or performing a more complex work process; 2. the branch of human knowledge and skills, discipline”. Vocation is defined as “permanent occupation, field, profession”.

The Croatian Lexicon (Kovačec, 1996) distinguishes profession which is “intellectual or manual activity performed in the form of a permanent occupation and serves as a source of regular income for living expenses, for which usually a certificate or a diploma of the appropriate school is normally required; vocation” and occupation which is “specialized activity derived from social division of labour, which is carried out relatively consistently and represents a source of regular income and requires special knowledge or skills”. Profession and occupation are also common in earning income, but the profession implies the existence of certain certificates for doing business.

According to the National Classification of Occupations of the Central Bureau of Statistics (111/98), “occupation is a set of jobs and work tasks that are so closely related and linked to

the content and type of organization that are performed by an executor possessing the appropriate knowledge, capacities and skills. In the state statistics, occupation implies a job (employment) performed by a person for the purpose of acquiring resources for life.”

Skoko and Jelić (2012) wrote about the perception of public relations field, concluding that regulation of public relations is an essential precondition for professionalization of public relations. This regulation is seen according to Hornaman (2000, 15-16) in the realization of the following conditions: the existence of code of ethics and professional norms, dedication to serving the public interest and social responsibility, the existence of a body / knowledge base, the existence of a specialized and standardized education system involving postgraduate studies, technical and research skills, providing a unique service to organizations and communities, membership in professional organizations (associations), autonomy and freedom of decision-making within the organization. Skoko and Jelić (2012) argue that the public relations field has to go through the process of regulation - professionalization so that it can become a profession.

Aleksandra Horvat (1989, 103) recommends “a sociological definition that describes profession as an occupation characterized by a high degree of cohesion and self-control and the existence of ideology. Professionalization can then be interpreted as a process of acquiring control over occupation.” She thinks librarianship has no collegial control because it is left to state services and social institutions (Horvat, 1989). The “professionalization of librarianship is possible if the members of the profession find appropriate answers to key questions regarding the identity and future of librarianship and librarians, the relation to close but distinctive professions and the relation to contemporary technology and its application.” (Horvat, 1989, 103) Identity consciousness as a prerequisite for the development of a field’s positive image and thus achieving the status of the profession could not be better defined than in that sentence. Aleksandra Horvat refers to librarians in general.

In the following text we will use the term of school librarian field. Distinction of the profession: the field is not so strong in English as it is in Croatian, but in order to make a clearer difference we use the term *field*.

2.1.2. Identity, Image and Visibility

Skoko (2009, 16) cites definitions of identity, pointing out Huntington's (2007) by which identity is "an individual's or group's sense of self; it is a product of the self-consciousness that I or we as an entity possess some qualities that differentiate me from you and us from them". In other words, identity is what we are and by what we are different from others. Identity is unique and originally ours. It is what determines us. Opposite identity is the image that is our picture in the eyes of others, the reflection of reality, the reflection of identity. In order for a field to be more visible, it must be aware of its identity and its image and make a plan to change the situation on that basis.

Though a relatively new field, the same problems that can be solved by thoughtful, strategic communication are repeated in mutual (key word) discussions. In order to resolve them, it is necessary to get out of the circle of mutual discussions and to communicate with your public according to a plan. Also, there are no known surveys and papers related to school librarians and visibility.

2.2. Research Methodology

The purpose of the research, whose results will be presented in the paper, is to analyse the opinions of school librarians on the situation of long-term absence of problem-solving that shadows the field since the beginning of its more intensive development, relation to their public, and visibility and image of their own field. Research results will serve as a basis for strategic planning and implementation of the plan for enhancing the visibility of the profession, and also for the assessment of the effectiveness of the implemented programme according to Marston's RACE model planning for PR mentioned by Jugo (2012). To reach the desired data, it's decided to carry out a developmental, quantitative research. This survey is partially a SWOT analysis within the field of a school librarians with an educative component related to public relations practice, which is used in an unplanned way, i.e. reactively, in the school librarian's daily work. Three hypotheses have been proposed:

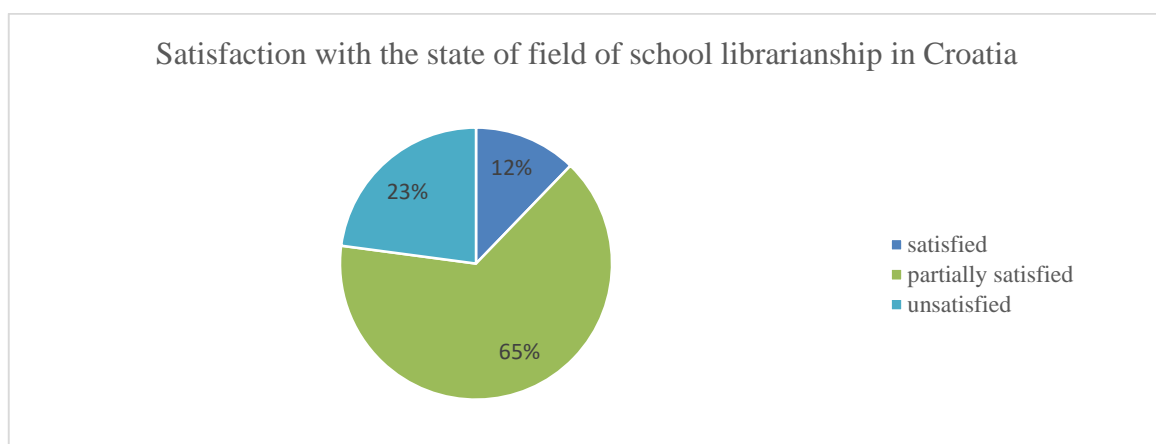
1. School librarians are not satisfied with the visibility of the field;
2. School librarians use PR techniques and tools in their work reactively, i.e. in an unplanned manner;
3. School librarians are not familiar with the possibilities of PR.

As a method of data collection it was chosen the questionnaire (survey). This provided us with faster data collection. The survey was set up in the Microsoft Forms tool, followed by a link with its address sent to school library advisers at the Education and Teacher Training Agency and to the heads of county councils of primary and secondary school librarians with a request to be forwarded to council members – school librarians to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was also set up in the Facebook Librarians group. There are 1310 school librarians employed in Croatia and they were the survey population. The sample refers to the number of school librarians who voluntarily completed the questionnaire upon invitation. The sample size was 262 or 20% of the total number of school librarians. Of these, 238 were female. Of total questionnaire population, 164 of them were primary school and 95 high school librarians.

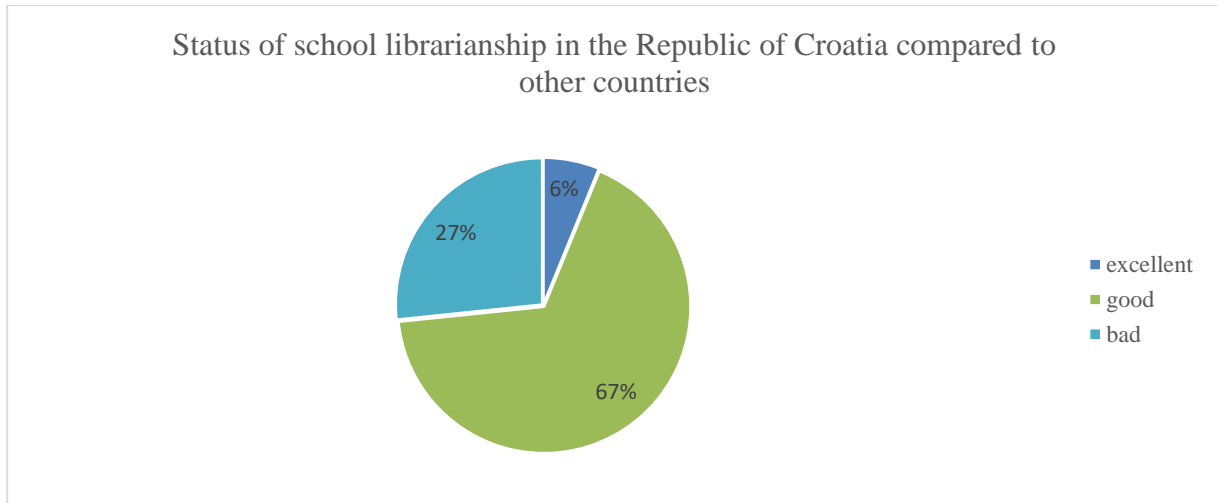
2.3. Research Results

One of the questions was how did the school librarians acquire work competencies? 149 completed their studies alongside work, 104 completed their full-time study, 6 are currently in the study alongside work, 1 school librarian pleaded not to have the necessary competences, and two did not respond. The question is raised since school librarians consider the possibility of employing anyone to become a school librarian as one of the most important problems for school librarians. As the jobs for school librarians are filled, and only one of the school librarians who filled out the questionnaire was without expert competencies, it turned out that this was not really a problem. When asked how satisfied they are with the state of the school librarianship field, 170 stated that they are partially satisfied, 32 were satisfied and 60 are not satisfied with the field's state.



Graph 1. Satisfaction with the state of school librarianship field in Croatia (N=262)

When asked to compare the state of school librarianship in the Republic of Croatia with respect to other countries, 174 answered that the state of the field is good, 16 that it is great, 69 that it is bad, and 3 did not respond. Only 6% perceived school librarianship's status as excellent.



Graph 2. Status of school librarianship in the Republic of Croatia compared to other countries (N=262)

Then we asked the respondents to rank the importance of problems related to insufficient visibility of the field in a way that the first selected answer is the most important and the last least important. The most important problem according to them is the insufficient care of both ministries (Ministry of Science and Education and the Ministry of Culture) with 166 choices, then insufficient visibility of the field's potential, 125 choices. Following are unsatisfactory work of associations representing the field, 99 selections; insufficient advocacy of the unions, 78; and insufficient work on the visibility of their own school library with 68 choices at the last place.

With an open question we asked them to list other problems related to the inadequate visibility of the school librarian's field. We received 107 responses: *from a different view on the very field, the lack of precisely defined librarians' tasks so they are turned into "a Friday girl", insufficient teachers' needs for librarian services, insufficient care of the founder, the need for librarian education in the field of marketing, disregard from colleagues, insufficient presence in public media, etc.*

Respondents also had to rank the importance of the reasons for dissatisfaction with the visibility of their own school library in a way that the first mentioned problem is the most important and the last least important.

Table 1. Ranking the reason for dissatisfaction with the visibility of your own school library

The reason for dissatisfaction with the visibility of your own school library	Number of respondents
Lack of budget resources of the founders and ministries for equipping the school library	167
Lack of knowledge and skills to advocate the interest of the school library	110
Lack of physical conditions for the implementation of more activities from the school librarian curriculum	98
Misunderstanding by the principal	67
Disinterest of the local community and parents	66
Misunderstanding from colleagues	61

In an additional open question, three school librarians said they are satisfied with the visibility of their own school library. In addition to the above-mentioned problems, the respondents had the possibility through an open type question to point out other problems that prevent them from making their library more visible. 61 answers were given. Some of them are: *The attitude of the society as a whole towards the humanistic values and the science and perception of the library as an remnant of the past; Lack of time to work with students within their schedule (especially in high school); Inadequate space and lack of IT equipment; Over-extensive curriculum; Lack of co-operation with colleagues, unless on my initiative; Insufficient presence in the media.*

Then the respondents listed the 6 most important publics among the listed librarian publics. 208 respondents selected the pupils as the most important public; followed by teachers, 196 respondents; the Ministry of Science and Education ranked third with 134 choices; followed by the public on the Internet and social networks, 123 selections; directors, 122; and the media, 118 selections. The local community was also highly ranked with 102 selections. An interesting result is that the virtual public of the school library is in front of the principal, but the difference in selections is not great.

Respondents could select 4 attributes from listed attributes of the school librarians that could best contribute to better visibility of the school librarian occupation.

Table 2. Selection of 4 attributes of the school librarian important for better visibility of the occupation

Attributes of the school librarian that can contribute to better visibility of the school librarian	Number of respondents
Knowledge and skills related to the development of information literacy (including digital and media literacy)	173
Knowledge and skills related to the design and implementation of cultural and public events and activities involving pupils	170
Communication skills and knowledge (oral and written communication) in order to ensure better working conditions and to promote the work of the library	157
Creativity	132
Knowledge and skills related to encouraging reading	113
Skills of collaboration and teamwork	95
Pedagogical, didactic and methodical knowledge	93
Expert knowledge on fund building and library management	85
Knowing the curriculum of other school colleagues for the purpose of collaboration and co-operation	55

School librarians have placed communication skills and knowledge at the top 3 positions, right behind those features that make up the basics of their work. Then the respondents ranked the importance of the conditions in the school library which could contribute to better visibility of the field in a way that the first selected answer is the most important, and the last, least important.

Table 3. Ranking of conditions in a school library that can contribute to better visibility of the occupation

Conditions in a school library that can contribute to better visibility of the occupation	Number of respondents
1. Attentive and cheerful school librarian	133
2. Enough library material – information sources	79
3. A pleasantly decorated space suitable to all users	75
4. Sufficient research space for students' work and shelves for books	69
5. Sufficient number of devices (computers, scanners, printers) for students' research work	70
6. Sufficient supplies and tools for students' work	140

The choice of an attentive and cheerful librarian as the most important condition that can contribute to the visibility of the profession in the library space, in relation to other terms of material origin, also refers to the importance of communication skills.

We also tried to find out what the attitudes of school librarians are about how the general public perceives them. We offered them more options and they could choose multiple answers. School librarians believe that the general public perceives them as an expert associate in whose place anyone from the educational system can be hired (167); Another item in the budget that can be reduced (113); A person who is obliged to justify his salary (101);

A person useless in education due to technology advancement (95); A person who, by involving students in cultural and public activities and by strengthening critical thinking, can contribute to the development of cultural and social competences and to the realization of the personal development of students (83); A person who is helpful for information research and the meaningful use of technology for the purpose of acquiring competences for lifelong learning (51); A person who, by providing access and critical deliberation of information, develops people who are questioning the world around themselves and recognize information manipulation (48); An important advisory associate who, with good legal regulation and financial support, can contribute to a positive difference in Croatian education (44); A person who, with good support of the system, can contribute to a positive difference in the education of the population (37); A person who, for information science knowledge, can enhance the competitiveness of future employees (22). It is evident in the responses that school librarians have more often chosen negative values (threats) than positive (opportunities). This fact suggests that the future strategic communication plan should devise activities for changing the way of thinking of the school librarians themselves.

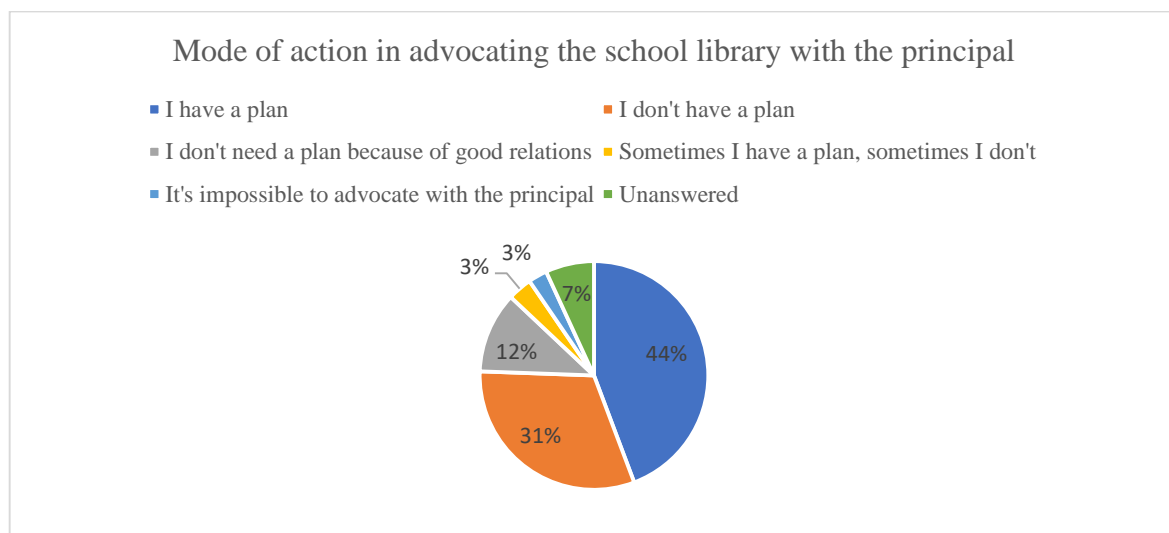
We asked the respondents who should work on the visibility of the school librarians' occupation, offering them 6 options, and they could select multiple answers. The distribution of the answers was the following: all school librarians for their libraries after education on this subject (219); (school) librarianship associations (195); Individuals among school librarians with knowledge and skills in the field of public relations (167); Renowned school librarians after education in the field of public relations (106); Trade unions (56); Specialized agencies funded by library associations (53).

We asked them in an open question to imagine the worst scenario – the disappearance of the occupation and to provide possible reasons for it. We obtained 219 responses, a good part of them are repeated in variants, and below are the most distinctive. *“Burden on state budget and low efficiency / success (reduced book and user numbers). City libraries took over the function of school libraries.” “Technology development and unwillingness to change and adapt. We are overwhelmed!” “The lack of cooperation between subject teachers and school librarians and the absence of use of potentials and opportunities that the library can and must provide on a daily basis as a support to pupils' learning. Absence of librarian curricula in school curricula in the form of information literacy.” “Ignorance of the role of librarians, i.e. perceptions of*

librarians as the ones only lending books from the library.” “Lack of finance.” “Wrong educational policy. “I do not believe it will disappear.”

After imagining the worst scenario - the disappearance of the occupation, we asked the respondents what reasons would be good for survival of the occupation. We obtained 222 responses, and below are the most interesting. The school librarian is *“an important expert associate who, with good legal regulation and financial support, can contribute to a positive difference in Croatian education and help in acquiring lifelong competences.”* *“I think we just need to put in good reasons for survival.”* *“Because this is a flexible occupation that promptly responds to all the changes and adopts them, we always fall on our feet.”* *“There is nothing more important than meeting soulmates in library.”* *“More and more focus to individualized learning adapted to each student.”* *“The oasis, the heart of the school.”* *“The school library is the backbone of every school, and the librarian is her heart. And no-one can live without a heart.”* *“School librarian as a navigator in the sea of information we are all surrounded by.”* *“Nobody at school is so versatile, helpful, friendly, well-read.”*

When asked about the advocacy of the school library with the principal, i.e. whether they have a specific plan to advocate for the benefit of the school library, 154 answers were given.



Graph 3. School library advocacy plan with principal (N=262)

We have added a following addition to the question above: Have you changed the tactic after the principal's rejection and succeeded in doing the same or something else through negotiation? 125 school librarians confirmed a change in tactics and a successful outcome. 26 are

sometimes successful after changing the tactics. 28 failed to score even after the change of tactics, 30 of them were never rejected by the principal, 1 respondent no longer attempted to advocate after being rejected by the principal, and a different response was given by 16 respondents. 36 respondents did not respond.

Asked to describe the successful tactics – the tools they had positively used in conversations with an open-minded manager, they provided 167 responses, including repetitions of the same answers. The most interesting tools were the following: *alliance with colleagues, alliance with students, compromise, stronger argumentation, persistence, "wellbeing of school, pupils, fellows", kindness, humour, good vibration, service for the service, casting, positive results, comparison with other schools, conversation in the library instead of the office, deliberately counting the immediate refusal for future consent to something that is more important to us, statistics, promotion of school and library, postponement for a short time, offering a solution to a problem, a proposal of activities whose implementation requires some conditions.*

Concerning successful co-operation with school colleagues, respondents were asked through an open-ended question to list four reasons why this collaboration was successful. 244 respondents answered. We list some of the characteristic answers: *"Convenience and openness to co-operation, the same opinion – work on student motivation, mutual help in some situations, willingness and enthusiasm on both sides in the realization of an event. Friendship, trust, loyalty, discussion of plans and results of work, appreciation, sense of equality, redistribution of tasks, respect for agreement, recognition of the importance of reading, understanding of the role of a school librarian, appreciation of independent students' research, willingness to do better, new and different things, good experiences of previous co-operation, similar sensitivity, flexibility, refinement, pleasant working atmosphere, timely agreement, assertiveness".*

When asked about how they inform students about services and events in the school library, it was possible to choose multiple answers and we were interested in the most frequent ones.

Table 4. Frequency of communicating with students using certain communication tools

Methods of communication with students	Number of respondents
By placing information on the school library / school bulletin board	210
Animating students in collaboration with teachers	205
By placing information on school or library sites on social networks and the web	201
Personal dissemination of information in a classroom	195
Information about activities that are sent to targeted classes	133
At the beginning of the school year	112
By placing information in groups on social networks	48
Sending students – members of extracurricular activities you lead to animate their classmates	39
Sending e-mails to students	15

They were then asked to describe which of the mentioned methods of communication with the students gave the best results. In addition to the given methods, they could add their own.

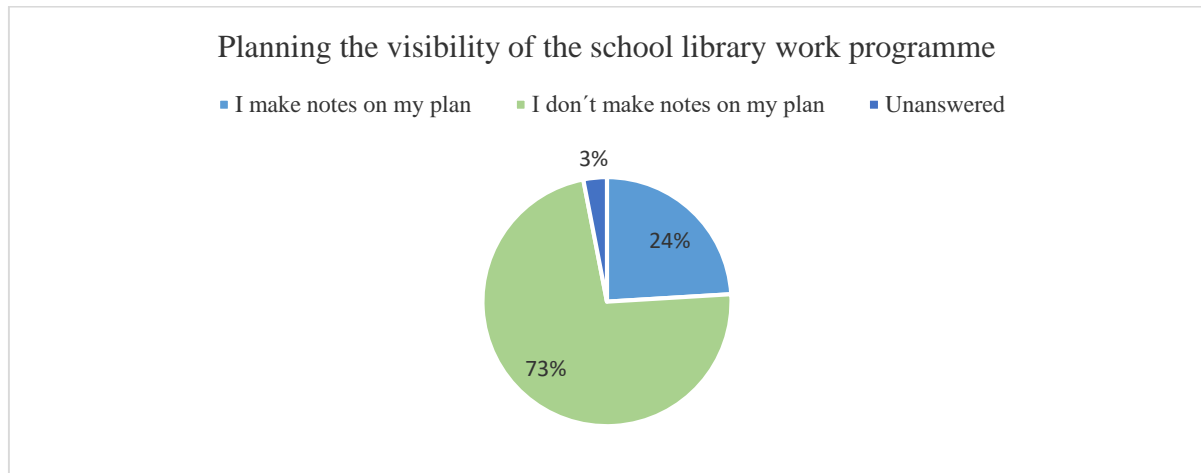
Table 5. List of the most successful methods of communication with students

Success of communication methods with students	Number of respondents
1. Personal dissemination of information in a classroom	123
2. Animating students in collaboration with teachers	84
3. By placing information on school or library sites on social networks and the web	30
4. Sending students – members of extracurricular activities you lead to animate their classmates	25
5. Information about activities that are sent to targeted classes	19
6. By placing information on the school library / school bulletin board	15
7. At the beginning of the school year	14
8. By placing information in groups on social networks	11
9. Sending e-mails to students	4

Respondents added the following methods of communication: *promotional material, incentives and praise, direct (mentor) work with students, discussion in the library, target groups and classes in the library and the Council of Students. Interestingly, there was also a kind of conclusion: "The more personal, the better, but also the different ways of communicating at the same time about the same programme because the children are inclined to oblivion".* If you compare the results of both student-related questions, it can be concluded that they use the bulletin board most often, and the most successful is actually personal information in class. Also, the significance of the result rather than the frequency of use is a method by which pupils animate their classmates.

63 of 254 respondents positively answered when asked whether their planning of the library work programme include a framework for the visibility of that programme (i.e. who should be

informed before and after the activities... parents, media etc.). In the answer to the question, they could put a comment, so some mentioned that such a plan works at the school level, then that it is unnecessary paperwork, some that they automatically record this information during implementation of the activity, and some mentioned that this research has prompted them to include such notes in future plans.



Graph 4. Planning the visibility of the school library work programme (N=262)

The next question was hypothetical and asked for respondents' assessment based on past experience: if you would work on the visibility of the school library, which of these techniques would make the most useful? More responses were possible.

Table 6. Ranking of public relations techniques considering their usefulness to school librarians

The Usefulness of Public Relations Techniques	Number of respondents
Creating and implementing events in the library (exhibitions, meetings, reading encouragement projects, forums and roundtables, book promotion ...)	204
The use of new technologies (social networking sites and websites, social networking sites groups - librarians and educational, online research)	196
Speaking techniques (verbal invitations for students and colleagues to participate in planned activities, formal and informal conversations with principal and colleagues, media statements and interviews, lectures and workshops in your own library at conferences and SGIs)	135
Written techniques (written notices of planned events, writing of events and success stories, reports, gathering media coverage)	127
Visual techniques (statements and TV interviews on library activities, photos and / or films about your library activities, post-announcement activities)	124

We were interested in how librarians recognize PR techniques as important to the visibility of the profession. The most important technique is the creation and implementation of events in

the school library. This technique also enters into a prescribed description of the work of the school librarian and its term in the domain of the field of school librarianship is cultural and public activity and immediate work with students. The use of new technologies is of paramount importance, which confirms the fact that this field always strives to be up to date with the progress of civilization.

In the last, also hypothetical question, the respondents had to choose the 8 most useful PR tools from 22 listed – for planned work on the field's visibility. School librarians recognized as the most important 9 tools with over 100 selections.

Table 7. Selection of public relations tools most useful for planned work on field's visibility

The most useful PR tools for planned work on field's visibility	Number of respondents
Reports on quality librarians and examples of good practice	196
Lobbying, i.e. advocacy of the field with the aim of influencing the governing structures	170
Creating events for the general public (finalization of reading promotion projects, main events of the school days/the year, etc.), exhibitions of antique bookshelves, etc.)	153
Press releases (media)	140
Statements and media interviews (press, radio, television, Internet portals)	138
Writing comments or columns in media on topics that will promote field and lighten the problems	134
Informing the public on web sites and social networking sites that promote school librarianship	127
Participation of renowned school librarians at state gatherings of other educational fields and at conferences related to education and training	126
Applying for tenders for work in groups that work on educational, professional and legal documents about training and education, or librarianship in general	105

School librarians have not recognized some of the tools recommended by experienced PR experts.

2.4. Discussion

Questions were designed to give, above all, the school librarians' general assessment of the state of the field in the country and in relation to other countries. They are mostly not satisfied with the state of the field, but are aware that it is better than in other countries. In the part of the questionnaire related to the visibility of the field or the visibility of their own libraries, they ranked the importance of problems that prevent better visibility of the field and the library. The most important considerations are the inadequate care of both ministries and insufficient visibility of the field's potential and the lack of budget resources and physical conditions for the work of the school library.

The analysis of internal strengths and weaknesses has shown that respondents are well aware of their most important public, and they are aware that communication knowledge and skills as attributes of a school librarian can contribute to better visibility of the field. When ranking school library conditions that enhance the image of a library, it was more important to have a friendly and well-versed librarian than good material conditions. When assessing external conditions, respondents were confronted with options that can be characterized both as opportunities and as threats. They believe that the wider public is more likely to perceive us in a negative rather than in a positive light. Bearing in mind that it is easier according to Kotler and Gertner to “create new positive associations than to try to resolve old ones if you want to fix your image” (Skoko, 2009, 42), the future strategy needs to focus on building a new positive image of school librarians. School librarians recognize the priority public that they can influence as individuals, which is evident from the question asking them to rank school librarians’ key public.

Questions that dealt with imagining the worst scenarios of field disappearance or good reasons for its survival gave a whole set of options for reflection that make it easier to direct action to specific audiences. Good reasons for survival can be used as slogans and positive messages in future strategic thinking of preserving and developing the field into a profession in the time of rapid development of technology and automation.

The answers to questions revealed a full set of tactics and tools developed by school librarians in successful communication with individuals or with groups such as principals, colleagues and students. It is also visible that school librarians sometimes use tools that do not necessarily provide the best result. Useful tools were also identified, such as personally informing students, collaboration with teachers and class-action towards the students. School librarians do not even have a rough outline about the visibility of their work programme, and to a lesser extent their schools plan their media plans. The only thing that exists is the unspoken variety of communication rules. As a possible most successful technique that could contribute to the visibility of the school library, they recognized the creation and implementation of events in the library, “event management”. Stories about quality librarians and examples of good practice, lobbying, i.e. advocacy of the field, and implementation of public events are considered the most important tools for planned work on visibility of the field.

Dissatisfaction with the condition is long-lasting, but librarians mostly talk about it one to another. To make things better, communication needs to be better geared towards the school librarians’ public.

The research questioned the communication of a school librarian – an individual in relation to his specific public, and communication of the field of school librarians to its public. Hence, the designing of a strategic plan of communication of quality and importance must have in mind both categories, and much of the activity of this plan should be the education of school librarians in the field of communication. In answering the question who should work on the visibility of the field, it is clearly confirmed that it is the school librarians themselves, their associations, renowned individuals and those with more pronounced communication skills and knowledge should work on it.

When designing a plan, it is important pay attention on the education and to decide which potential communicator will in charge of specific stakeholder. An important part of the plan is targeting the public and adapting the content and key messages of communication to each public in particular. Communication needs to be two-way and proactive and based on the research about school librarians' public in order to obtain good feedback for improving performance. Promoting good practice and successful individuals among school librarians breaks up stereotypes about the field and is also a mandatory segment of the strategic plan.

3. Conclusion

The analysis of research results has shown that school librarians are not satisfied with the visibility of their field. The first hypothesis was confirmed by that. The reason for dissatisfaction is the long-term failure to solve a whole set of problems that accompany this field. Therefore, it is in a kind of permanent crisis. Evidence of this is regular, frustrating discussions on problems at all major professional meetings of school librarians. It is necessary to make a turn, change interlocutors, or intensify communication with those who can contribute to solving problems, and in parallel enhance the field's image.

Regarding the hypothesis that school librarians use techniques and tools of public relations in their work reactively, i.e. in an unplanned manner, research has shown that $\frac{1}{4}$ of them write down some notes regarding the visibility of the school library work programme. Conversations with the principal are mainly planned depending on the situation and the requirements that they have or do not plan at all. In addition, they stated that they lack public relations knowledge, whose performance implies planning, two-way communication, and proactivity. The second hypothesis is confirmed by these arguments.

The fact that they themselves found that they lack knowledge is also valid for the argument for the third hypothesis that school librarians are not familiar with the possibilities of public relations in relation to strengthening the visibility of the field. This is also noticeable in the research results where the frequency of use of the communication tools does not correspond to its success, e.g. in relation to the students, then in the non-recognition of certain methods/tools as potentially successful for planned work on the visibility of the field that the experienced expert in PR would recommend, e.g. how to produce a quality journalist folder with information about the field, its achievements, potentials, problems and opportunities, contacting the “opinion makers”, organizing field gathering with examples of collaboration between school librarians and other educational staff, creating and publishing guides at school libraries on the associations’ web.

The research has shown that school librarians are often in charge of media relations and managing web content of the school. Research also helped them to reflect on their work on public relations. School librarians have recognized communication as an important feature of the school librarian’s success, and thus its visibility. Good communication is associated with successful co-operation with colleagues and good emotions.

In order to be proactive in the promotion and the visibility of the school librarianship, a wide range of public relations knowledge has to be used only by those school librarians who are professional in the field of public relations. They should be active in communication, but also in the education of other interested librarians. Another option is that professional associations of school librarians engage a public relations agency, but there is the problem of funding, which may eventually be solved by a fundraising campaign.

To raise the level of the field’s visibility and thus the conditions for more successful work and survival of the field in times of rapid change and technological progress, it is necessary to strategically manage this visibility. Analysis of the situation from a librarian’s perspective is a good start. In addition to this analysis, it is necessary to make an analysis of the perception of school librarians in their professional public; because school librarians feel that they are not sufficiently recognized in the professional public. The situation is more complex because school librarians have a dual professional public; the one in the educational and the one in the literary-cultural segment.

After that is done, it is necessary to make a strategy to strengthen the visibility of the school library profession based on both researches. Strategy needs to elaborate all possible directions

of action: education on lobbying and the use of public relations techniques in educational institutions, non-profit / non-governmental organizations, personal and internal relations with the public and relations with the media. In addition, the strategy needs to include recommended guidelines for school librarian senior advisers, school librarian associations, school library county council leaders, school librarian mentors and advisors, and all other school librarians.

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CRISIS COMMUNICATION CHALLENGES OF THE FOOD INDUSTRY: CROATIAN EXPERIENCES

Damir Jugo, Ph.D.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

damir.jugo@bernays.hr

Marta Takahashi, M.A.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

marta.takahashi@bernays.hr

Summary

This paper analyses the crisis communication of the food production companies in Croatia. Operating in an industry that is under significant public scrutiny and prone to various crisis situations, food production companies often face the challenge of discretely and proactively handling various crisis situations. Besides providing a theoretical overview of organizational crisis relevant for food production companies, this paper provides an analysis of the communication propensity of those companies. A survey among communication personnel is also conducted to determine their company's preparedness for various crisis situations, which showed that most of them were half-prepared for crisis situations; had a crisis plan, expected one crisis per year at the most, most likely product recalls and various complaints, and dominantly communicated reactively. The paper concludes that these companies, due to the specific characteristics of the industry they belong to, need to significantly improve their preparedness and the level of strategic communication during crisis situations, which are expected to become much more frequent for them in the very near future.

Keywords: crisis, crisis plan, crisis communication, reactive crisis strategies, food industry

1. Introduction

A crisis can be defined as any internal or external event that disrupts regular operations of the organization and which, if inadequately managed, can ruin a hard-earned reputation and business operations (Vidović, 2011). Crisis management is a process in which the objective is to contribute to maintaining market share, reduce risk in business operations, and create new opportunities, as well as successfully manage the company's reputation to the benefit of its shareholders and the company itself (Novak, 2001, 132). A well-prepared organisation perceives a crisis as a challenge that can encourage the analysis of existing business results and find ways for their improvement (Bačić, 2010, 140). Those who accept a crisis as an opportunity know that, in a crisis, the weak will disappear, and the stronger ones will strengthen even more, increasing their market share (Legčević, Taučer, 2014, 199).

This paper aims to provide a detailed insight into the way that food production companies deal with various crisis situations. The World Health Organisation (WHO) declared accidental and deliberate food contamination as the greatest health threat in the 21st century because food is highly sensitive to contamination agents of various origins. Furthermore, there is an increasing number of food sources, and the global food market is expanding explosively. It would appear that, today, the greatest food poisoning threat is the intentional contamination of food for economic benefit (Antunović et al., 2011, 33).

Having this in mind, it seems justifiable to explore and analyse the structure of the communication infrastructure of food production companies, especially the way they are likely to communicate and act during the various crisis situations they are exposed to. The food and beverage industry in Croatia employs over 65 thousand people, possesses serious production capacities and achieves the largest total revenue within the processing industry (Agency for Investments and Competitiveness, n.d.). Therefore, the food industry, in terms of number of employees and revenues achieved, can be described as the most important processing branch in Croatia and the fifth largest export branch of the processing sector (Rašić Bakarić, 2015, 3).

This paper analyses food industry companies based in Croatia, the crises they are faced with and the methods they use in approaching crisis situations. The strategy for the development of specific economic branches, such as, for instance, agriculture and tourism, evidently shows the food sector assuming an increasingly important place in Croatia's economy as a whole (Kovačević, 2003, 315; Brščić et al., 2005, 76). The goal of this paper is to analyse to what

extent attention is given to crisis situations in the food industry, how often they encounter crises, what types of crises do they face, what is the level of preparation of companies for crises, and how do they react to them. This paper is structured as follows: the first chapter provides a theoretical overview of the crisis communication with a special emphasis on strategic communication and specificity of communication within the food production sector. This chapter is followed by methodology description as well as the findings from the research. Discussion and conclusion follow as well as further research suggestions.

2. Literature review

By uncovering the symptoms of the crisis, it is possible to determine its causes, and by solving its causes, the crisis can be controlled. Accepting the existence of a problem in operations is the first step when facing a crisis situation (Osmanagić Bedenik, 2010, 109). “There is pressure on a crisis team to acquire information and to process it into knowledge quickly and accurately if the team is to operate effectively in a crisis. Understanding and coping with the information and knowledge demands of a crisis is part of crisis management.” (Coombs, 2012, 118) The main enemy, the main barrier to be overcome, is denial, which can be overcome if organisations are doing their best to be better prepared for major crises and thus to manage crises before they occur (Mitroff, 2001, 8-9).

Besides all known theoretical knowledge about crises, organizations and companies are still insufficiently aware of the dangers that crises can represent nor are they aware of the importance of preventive activities in the process of crisis management. Regardless of all benefits that derive from proper preparation for various types of crises, companies are still unprepared for their emergence, and this is the reason why a large majority of crises are actually hidden crises whose symptoms could have been noticed in a timely manner (Jursik, Huskić, Čendo Metzinger, 2014, 519).

Crisis management is typically a system-based combination of operational units brought together to manage a particular situation, but it does not require that all personnel, or even a large number of personnel, stop functioning to address a given crisis. In essence, effective crisis management provides an organisation with a systematic, orderly response to crisis situations (Darling, Seristö, Gabrielsson, 2009, 346).

The causes of crisis situations in companies are either external or internal. Companies do not have more significant influence on external causes. Considered here is the general economic

crisis, changes in the market, changes in the branch of industry, political changes, changes to legislature, natural disasters etc. (Jugo, 2017a, 59).

Internal causes of crises are located in the company itself. They are: unprofessional management, inappropriate management competences, immoral acts by management, inefficient activities of the management function, underestimating public opinion, inefficient communication system, poor organisation of work, lack of motivation of employees etc. (Jugo 2017a, 59).

Many companies do not have crisis communication plans, and when they exist, most employees encounter them for the first time when a crisis erupts and they are not trained to act according to the plan. Companies that prepare detailed plans in peaceful times when there is no threat of a crisis can prudently contemplate all possible company inadequacies, all of the advantages and possibilities, and elaborate each step of the plan (Bačić, 2010, 150). A crisis communication plan is a major part of the larger crisis management plan, and covers such information as how to reach various stakeholders and the creation of pre-crisis messages. A crisis management plan also includes methods and means for documenting what is said and done during a crisis. It can include reminders, in checklist form, of key actions that are typically taken during a crisis (Coombs, 2012, 91).

In each crisis situation, the assessment on who will appear and when on behalf of the company must be made by the person responsible for corporate communication upon agreement with the president of the board and with the engagement of selected expert individuals from the company. Regardless of who communicates, in a crisis situation, the only source of information to the media must be the company, that is, the person responsible for communication. Along with the increase in the severity of the crisis, also increasing should be the rank of the person communicating with the public (Gavranić, 2015).

2.1. Strategic approach to crisis communication

Among the key elements of crisis communication activities is the selection of the appropriate strategy by which the organisation will fend off a crisis and its specific characteristics (Jugo, 2017a, 201). Different types of crises require different approaches and activities for their resolution (Čendo Metzinger, 2013, 900). Although there are different typologies of reactive crisis communication strategies, the Heath and Coombs typology is used for the purpose of this paper. Denial strategies claim that there is no crisis or attempt to prove that the

organization is not responsible for the crisis (being punished for the mistakes of others); reduction strategies attempt to minimise the responsibility of the organisation (apologising) and/or severity of crisis (justification); rebuilding strategies offer compensation and/or apology for crisis; reinforcement strategies include a review of previous good behaviour (support) and praising the subjects (flattery). Reinforcement strategies are only supplementary and must be used with one of the other three strategies (Tomić, 2013, 100-101).

In order for a company to communicate better with its stakeholders struck by a crisis, to express its views and methods for resolving the crisis, as well as minimising the damaging consequences to its reputation and operations, significant assistance can be provided by crisis communication plans prepared in advance, thinking about possible questions from journalists and other publics, competent and prepared spokespersons, management and employees (Čendo Metzinger, 2013, 900). Stakeholders want information about what is being done to prevent a repeat of a crisis and to protect them from a future crisis. They want to know that their safety is a priority and they are reassured when they know the crisis situation is being controlled (Coombs, 2012, 142).

The media are one of the channels used to communicate with the public and all interested parties. Communication by means of public communication (press, television, radio and Internet) must serve to form the right picture of the crisis in the eyes of the public. If they do not handle them efficiently, the other side of the story might never be heard. Or, even worse, the company's reputation may be public attacked by someone hostile (Luecke, 2005, 144, 162). If an organisation or individual is pre-empted in the announcement of what happened or perhaps went wrong, their official version will certainly not be the best for their reputation (Jugo, 2017a, 204). When developing a crisis plan, attention should be directed to protecting people, communication and reducing damage to facilities and equipment (Kešetović, Toth, 2012, 45).

Planning contributes to efficient operations, encouraging long-term vision of the organisation and saving resources, which during a time of crisis, additionally gains importance, maintaining the company's proactivity (Jugo, 2012, 9-10).

Strategic planning is long-term planning focused on the organisation as a whole. Strategic management is, on the other hand, a process whereby the organisation is guaranteed the existence and benefit of using the appropriate organisational strategy. In this definition, the appropriate strategy is the one that is most appropriate for the requirements of the organisation at a specific time (Certo, Certo, 2006). "When acting passively and reactively,

companies clearly miss out on using all of the benefits that strategic communication offers them in these situations. Instead, they give in to the simplest way of communicating, often causing them additional problems among their publics.” (Jugo, 2017b, 211)

2.2. Food industry and public relations in Croatia

The bond between public relations as a whole and the food industry in Croatia is evident by the fact that Podravka was the first known company in Croatia to have employed a full time public relations specialist in 1968 (Jugo, Borić, Preselj, 2012, 39).

In the food industry, states of crisis could have significant economic consequences, even if they are caused by an incident of relatively small proportion. An increase in the level of preparedness to crisis states in this sector is important for their prevention, procedures when they occur, as well as reducing their consequences. Prevention measures, increased supervision and means for adequate response in the case of an intentional or unintentional incident, better monitoring of food and the possibility of their rapid withdrawal from the market, two-way communication of government services and the food industry, anticipated scenarios that ease the distribution of resources and the simple establishment of priorities in the case of an incident, as well as coordination between the industry and the government in communication with the public, should be prepared for a potential crisis in this economic branch (Antunović et al., 2011, 31, 43).

Due to limitations in the literature dealing with guidelines for communication on food-related risks, the European Food and Safety Agency (EFSA) posted on their website a guide whose goal is to create a framework for assistance when making decisions on the appropriate communications approaches in a broad range of situations that could occur when assessing and communicating risks related to food safety in Europe (European Food and Safety Agency, 2012). This role in the Republic of Croatia is played by the Croatian Food Agency (HAH). In its activities, the HAH is guided by examples of developed systems concerning food safety in countries of the European Union and responds to the challenges of globalisation. Its goal is professional and scientific support in the area of Croatian health safety of consumers, as well as building confidence in food safety and supply (Croatian Food Agency, 2015).

By a regulation of the European Parliament and the Council from 2002 on determining the general principles and conditions of the food act, introduced was the term “crisis

management” and established was the foundation for adopting a “general plan” for food/feed crisis management by the European Commission, and in cooperation with the European Food Safety Agency, as well as member countries of the European Union (Ministry of Agriculture of the Republic of Croatia, 2014, 3).

Crisis situations for food/feed safety at the national, regional or local level include the following:

“the appearance of a serious direct or indirect risk to the health of people and/or in question is such a perception amongst the public or could be considered and/or be presented as such in the public: a risk that has spread or could spread through a large section of the food chain; a high probability that the risk will spread to a large portion of the territory of the Republic of Croatia, EU member state and/or third countries” (Ministry of Agriculture of the Republic of Croatia, 2014, 6-7).

3. Methodology

The research conducted for the purpose of this paper was stimulated by three specific research questions: (1) What are the most common types of crisis situations faced by food sector companies operating in Croatia?; (2) To what extent and how they prepare in advance for possible crisis situations; (3) How do they react in crisis situations when they occur? To answer these questions, a detailed research was conducted among food production companies operating in Croatia. A survey was conducted among public relations professionals in charge of public relations of food production companies listed in the publication “1000 Largest Companies in Croatia by Revenue in 2015”. This publication included a total of 65 companies from the food industry in Croatia with the largest level of so-called newly created value (Lider, 2016, 90-92).

An invitation to participate in the survey was sent to all companies from this list that had a designated individual responsible for public relations. A total of 49 invitations to participate in the study were sent out in June and July 2016, while a total of 16 respondents completed and returned the survey form, 8 of them refusing to participate and the rest ignoring the invitation, which concludes an average response rate of a total of 32.6 percent.

A look at the profile of food production companies whose personnel participated in the research shows all of these companies being bigger than 50 employees, most of them employing between 50 and 249 employees (62.5%), while 37.5% have more than 250. In private domestic ownership are 81.3% of the analysed companies, while the rest are in private foreign ownership. Most companies in this research are in the business of food production

(87.5%), and only a smaller number (12.5%) produce both food and beverages. A total of 37.5% of analysed companies achieve up to 50% of sales in foreign markets, while 31.3% are exclusively oriented to the domestic market. The remaining achieves up to 20% of sales (18.8%), that is, over 50% of sales (12.5%) in foreign markets.

On the other hand, a profile of the respondents shows 62.5% of them were women and 37.5% men, mostly aged from 30 to 39 (50%), equally aged from 20 to 29 (25%) and aged from 40 to 49 (25%). The vast majority of the respondents (75%) had university qualifications while a 12.5% had Master of Science degrees. Each fourth respondent (25%) completed a post-graduate specialist study programme, while 37.5% completed an integrated undergraduate and graduate study programme. 18.8% of the communications experts completed undergraduate studies, and 6.3% have only secondary school qualifications. A one-third of respondents have been working in public relations from one to five years, and the same amount has been working from five to ten years (31.3%). A total of 18.8% of respondents have been working only one year, and the same amount have been working ten years or more.

The questionnaire for the requirements of the implementation of the survey research in this paper consisted of a total of 19 questions (17 closed-type questions and two open-type questions), and designed so as to form four sets of questions based on the objectives of the paper.

The first set of four questions investigated the gender, age, education and work experience, that is, the demographic characteristics of respondents. The second set of four questions referred to company characteristics in which the respondent was employed. The third set of questions investigated the relationship of the company towards crisis states (six questions).

The fourth, final, set of five questions referred to the planned actions of the company in possible crisis situations.

4. Communication infrastructure of food production companies

The research showed participants of this research in their everyday work most often deal with strategic communications (37.5%), followed by digital (online) communication (31.3%), media relations (25%) and, least frequently, crisis communication (6.3%). More than two thirds of respondents (68.8%) know who the members are of the communication team in crisis situations in the company where they are employed, while the remaining (31.3%) do not know, although they should be helping them inspirationally and operationally. Most

respondents (43.8%) encountered a crisis situation in the company in which they are employed only once, followed by those who encountered crisis situations two or more times (31.3%). Finally, 25% of the respondents have not encountered any crisis situations in their companies.

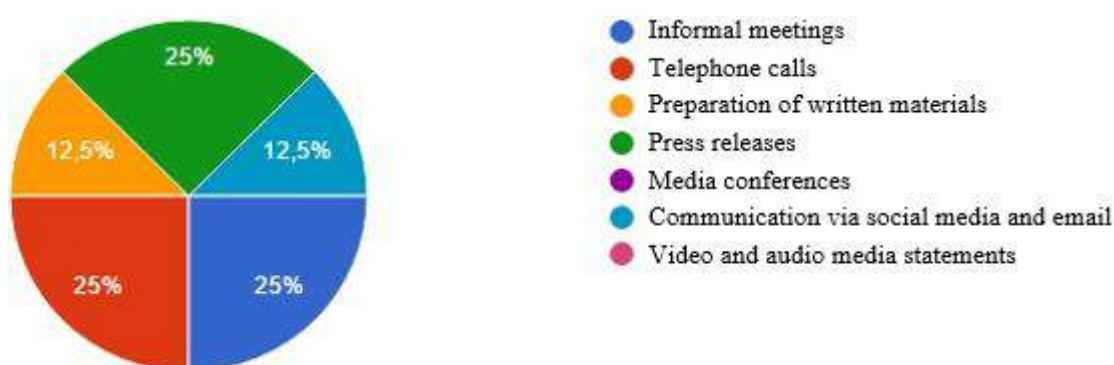
Product recalls are the most frequent crisis situations that respondents and their companies encounter was stated by a total of 25% of them. Less frequently, they encounter refunds, complaints and quality issues (18.7%), while a surprising number of respondents, 31.2%, did not state specific crisis situations they encounter, most probably because they encountered none so far.

In the analysis of the specific strategies they are likely to use during crisis situations, half of the respondents of this research (50%) noted they used the “rebuild” crisis response strategy (compensation and/or apology were offered), followed by those who most frequently used the “diminish” crisis response strategy (providing an excuse or justification, an attempt was made to minimize organizational responsibility and/or severity of crisis – 37.5%). Finally, 12.5% of the respondents used the “deny” crisis strategy (the crisis was denied or an attempt was made to prove that the organisation was not responsible for the crisis) without any additional communication or statements during crisis situations.



Graph 1. Strategies the respondents used most frequently in encountered crisis situations (N=16)

When it comes to various PR techniques and tools that they use in crisis situations, the research showed that 25% of them most commonly used informal meetings, telephone calls and media releases, while a small number (12.5%) communicated via social media and email, and just as many (12.5%) used prepared written materials.

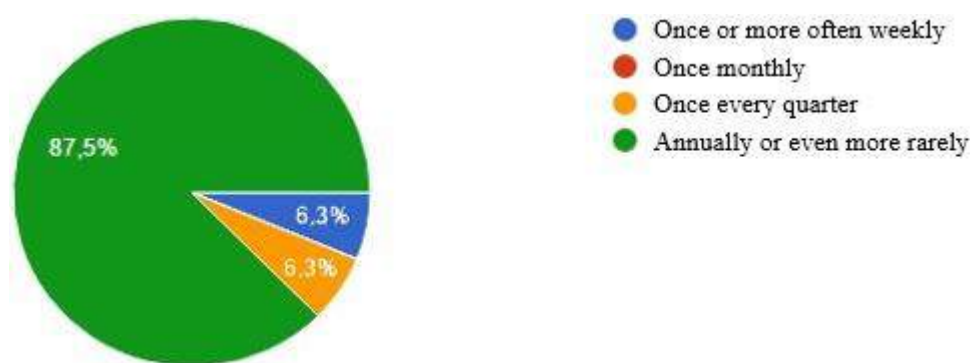


Graph 2. Communication techniques that respondents most frequently used in crisis situations (N=16)

The research also analysed whether food production companies have an official plan of procedure in crisis situations. More than half of the respondents (56.3%) noted their companies to have an official crisis plan as a document while 18.8% of them responded that their companies do not have a plan. The most problematic group of respondents (25%) stated they do not know whether the companies whose crisis communication they are supposed to handle have a crisis communication plan or not. Furthermore, it is also surprising that the research showed that a whole third of respondents (31.3%) did not know whether the crisis plan in the company they are employed is updated regularly. Over half of the respondents (56.3%) stated their plans to be regularly updated, while the minority of the respondents (12.5%) stated the plans are not updated in a proper way.

The research also showed that barely a half of the respondents (56.3%) who are members of their companies' crisis teams are regularly trained and educated for handling crisis situations. The finding that a worrying percentage of 43.8% of communication staff of these companies receives no training for crisis situations at all shows a big problem within these companies.

A large majority of those surveyed prepare for possible crisis situations once annually or even rarer than that (87.5%). Only one respondent does this once or more weekly and, furthermore, only one prepares for possible crisis states once every quarter.



Graph 3. Frequency of preparing respondents for possible crisis situations (N=16)

Completely unexpected are responses to the question of how respondents prepare in advance for possible crisis situations. This is done by education and analysis by 43% of research respondents (“education and internal meetings”, “planning, remedial activities and risk analysis”, “agreement at meeting”, “research, preparation, planning, education”, “attempts to find the best options before problems arise”, “documented handling procedures, training of employees”). Only one person replied that they perform this by preparing a crisis plan, and furthermore, only one person replied that they use a simulation of a crisis situation. It should be noted that six respondents (37.5%) did not answer this question, one respondent answered “I don’t know” and furthermore, one respondent responded that they do not prepare for possible crisis situations. Given that, today, there are programmes for simulating crisis situations, this result is quite surprising.

Taking into account the previously stated, it is evident that companies of the food sector in Croatia are not appropriately prepared for a future crisis (although the majority have a crisis plan and most update it), that is, crisis management in companies is insufficiently developed.

The research conducted for this purpose provides a clear path for answering the raised research questions. The answer to the first research question that raised the issue of identifying most common crisis situations that food production companies encounter is evident; product recalls being the dominant type of crisis. The surprising finding however was the fact that a large number of respondents failed to identify the specific crisis which suggests them encountering no such situations or being excluded for handling such situations which would be an even worse scenario. The second research question addressing the issue of advanced preparation for crises can be answered as well; with the majority of companies (87.5%) noting that they prepare themselves for possible crises once annually or even more rarely, while only 13.6% of the respondents noted that they prepare in advance more often than once a year. These preparations are conducted primarily by means of education and

company risk analysis (43.1%), and only one company does this by means of a simulation of a crisis state, that is, by preparing a crisis plan.

The third research question dealt with the issue of specific activities these companies are likely to undertake while in a crisis situation. The vast majority of the respondents will opt to use various versions of the so-called “rebuild” strategy which presumes providing various compensations or apologies to the stakeholders or publics affected by the crisis. The next group of respondents (37.5% of them) are likely to use “diminish” strategies aimed at minimizing the organization’s responsibility, while only 12.5% of them most often deny their overall responsibility which can be viewed as a completely reactive and unstrategic approach.

5. Conclusion

The food industry is the most important processing branch in Croatia and, according to number of employees and revenues that it achieves, is the fifth largest branch in the processing sector. For this reason, the aim of this paper was to gain insight into the crisis communication infrastructure of companies from this sector, to determine the extent of attention they give to various crisis situations, how often and what types of crises they encounter and how they try to prepare for various crises.

As noted in the previous chapters, this research among public relations professionals responsible for communications in food production companies clearly showed certain shortcomings when it comes to the level of preparedness for potential crisis situations within these companies. The most common crisis situations for these companies are various product recalls and complaints, most companies prepare for possible crisis situations once annually or less, mainly through education and company risk analysis, and only exceptionally with a simulation of a crisis state and preparation of a crisis plan. Most of the analysed companies do have a crisis plan, which they periodically apply and update, but a worrying percentage of them have no plans at all or their staff are not aware of their existence. Finally, when it comes to application of crisis strategies, they mainly use rebuild and diminish strategies and are prone to implement the denial strategy, but rarely. When it comes to the most commonly used tools and techniques, informal meetings, telephone calls and media releases are dominant, while social media, emails and prepared written materials are used less frequently.

It is fair to say that food production companies, due to their importance to the society as a whole, are more prone and exposed to crisis situations, so their responsibility to prepare

themselves better in advance is much more evident than in other sectors of the economy. Therefore, it can be said that these companies should have much more detailed procedures prepared in advance in order to be ready for potential crises. If a company does not have its own crisis plan, and according to this research, there are a fifth of them in the food sector (in addition, a fourth of respondents do not know whether the company in which they are employed have a crisis plan), it would certainly be recommended to consult the general plan for food/feed crisis management prepared by the Ministry of Agriculture in the Republic of Croatia, which is prepared specifically for management in such exceptional crisis situations.

A communication strategy must be prepared to include: notification content in written form and time of notification, naming of person who will communicate with the public, use of existing national and European communication channels, use of media (TV, radio, Internet, press), establishing of contacts with interest groups and enabling the exchange of information with institutions of the European Union, competent authorities of countries of the European Union, as well as third countries. On crisis states related to food, especially to food poisoning or food poisoning threats, the public is especially sensitised and for this reason, a systematic, consistent and methodical approach is especially required for this question so that public perception does not go out of control. However, this caution should not be taken too far because, due to fear of a possible crisis resulting from food poisoning, food producers set safety periods for the spoiling of products that are too high. For this reason, large amounts of food suitable for consumption are discarded every day. It is true that this goes in favour of food producers because consumers end up buying new products with “newer” dates, and “old” products end up being thrown in the garbage.

Although according to the consulted literature and results of this research, companies dealing with the production of food and beverages in the Republic of Croatia are insufficiently prepared for possible crisis situations, it can be expected that they will be better prepared in the future. Namely, in recent times, numerous Croatian food producers stand shoulder to shoulder with global brands, and this entails large profits, meaning that more can be invested in the prevention of crisis situations, that is, in a proactive approach to crisis communication. The situation is similar with the production of beverages, especially with drinking water, the fastest growing, strategic export product of the Republic of Croatia in the 21st century, and possibly a currency for the future. Also, it seems justified to steer future research in this field towards identifying and formulating much more detailed recommendations for companies from this sector on how to prepare themselves for possible future crisis situations. Until then,

this paper can serve as a sort of a warning sign for all individuals practicing public relations within the food production sector about the level of (un)preparedness for crisis situations.

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CRISIS COMMUNICATION IN EMERGENCY MEDICINE

Ivan Biošić

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

ivan.biosic@outlook.com

Maja Banovac Barić, M.A.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

maja.banovac@bernays.hr

Summary

Today's healthcare faces numerous challenges in the area of communication, and most often these challenges are related to crisis communication. Each situation for the medical team represents a kind of crisis, therefore, very important is the manner in which information is received and sent to target audiences. Often, communication skills are neglected and all communication is left to healthcare workers themselves, which often leads to misunderstandings in the healthcare worker – patient relationship. The aim of this paper was to highlight the importance of timely and proper communication in emergency medicine, and the purpose of the conducted research was to gain insight into the communication skills of healthcare workers in emergency medicine and their behaviour in crisis situations. The research was conducted by means of a survey questionnaire distributed to eighty-two emergency medicine healthcare workers in the area of the City of Zagreb. The results showed that 84% of healthcare workers find themselves in some kind of crisis situation on a daily basis, 67% of physicians consider that the introduction of "Communication in Medicine" should be an obligatory course "as soon as possible", and 59% of respondents think that they should improve their communication skills.

Keywords: emergency medicine, healthcare worker, patient, crisis communication, communication skills

1. Introduction

Young physicians, future healthcare workers, medical students and students of related studies, are often insufficiently educated in communication and familiar with the communication skills that they should apply. Being a healthcare worker is an extremely stressful job given that, at its very core, it is interwoven with crisis situations. In order to manage a crisis situation, it is also necessary to communicate in a proper and timely manner. The human body is a complex mechanism, which makes the job of healthcare workers unpredictable. It should be noted that communication in emergency medicine requires a highly proactive approach. Speed, in addition to empathy, is the key to emergency medicine.

At the arrival to the scene of an event or accident, the emergency medicine healthcare worker must simultaneously communicate with patients, their families, other participants and/or witnesses, as well as with their own colleagues and the workers of other emergency departments. For healthcare workers, this set of factors represents pressure and affects their communication skills. Healthcare workers' awareness that they are responsible for their actions, that they have the patient's trust and that the patient's life depends on their actions, make communication more difficult. Emergency medicine is preceded by first aid. If the first-aid provider establishes good contact with the potential patient, this will facilitate the medical interview with the physician, or healthcare worker. If the healthcare worker arrives at the scene of the accident unprepared, the crisis situation will deepen. In crisis situations, answers are expected here and now, which the patient often does not receive due to the complexity of the situation, and first aid is largely omitted from practice and too few citizens are trained for this. Proper communication skills can prevent panic attacks, further short-term loss of consciousness, the patient going into shock, and other conditions that the injured or suddenly ill individual may undergo. Psychosocial support in practice on the part of the first-aid provider, i.e. the emergency medicine physician, is often impoverished, whereby patient trust is lost. Psychosocial support and its quality performance are based on communication skills of healthcare workers. As described, Maša Bulajić (2011, 89) claims that good communication reduces the feeling of insecurity, has positive outcomes on patient understanding on illness and increases patient confidence and satisfaction. Also, she determined that when healthcare workers have shaped their communication skills, communication can make things easier in everyday stressful surrounding (Bulajić, 2011, 89). Therefore, communication is primary and

indispensable. One of the problems is the unawareness of witnesses calling emergency medical services. The problem actually lies in laypersons who are insufficiently informed about the problem and the state of the patient. Certainly, the stated issue creates the most confusion for the medical dispatcher, who requires a quick, brief, systematic, and quantitatively and qualitatively accurate report from the scene of the accident or event, so that the information could be conveyed to a specific emergency medical team. The layperson, often in a panic, cannot express even the few necessary pieces of information, which additionally aggravates the situation. The emergency medical team that will be sent to the scene of the accident needs specific information. Proper preparation is already half of the work, especially when talking about psychosocial stability and preparation. Proper communication skills can improve and significantly accelerate the diagnosis of illness or injury in accidents.

This paper attempts to explain the importance of quality communication within the framework of emergency medicine, and beyond. The purpose of the paper is to explain the importance of understanding the complexity of crisis situations, with an emphasis on proper communication and the conducting of a medical interview as the key exchange of information. In this direction, examined will be to what extent medical workers in emergency medicine possess or do not possess communication skills that are necessary for quality and timely reactions in crisis situations. The research was conducted using the survey questionnaire method among one hundred emergency medical employees in the City of Zagreb.

2. Historical Development of Emergency Medicine

The oldest documents on healing using alternative medical methods were discovered in China, where acupuncture was used at the time – a method of inserting fine needles in the skin at specific stimulation points, which was brought into question – “Is acupuncture a placebo-therapy?” (Horvat, 1986, 12). After China, there is Asclepius, who, according to Greek mythology, is the god of medicine, known for his staff – used as the symbol for medicine due to its connotative meaning. Medicine then began to increasingly develop in Egypt, where the first medical school opened. Antiquity is marked by one of the most important scientists and philosophers – Hippocrates. He is accredited with being the creator of

59 significant medical works, gathered into a collection and stored in Alexandria. The collection of works is called *Corpus Hippocraticum*. Bochut stated that these works are “a testament to all of the previous medical generations (as cited in Klarić, Jurdana, Klarić, 2007, 127). It is worth noting that Hippocrates separates medicine from magic and superstition, directing it towards the empirical system. After Hippocrates, Galen arrives to the formulas of various medicines by using chemical processes, which were incomprehensible at the time. During his life, he wrote about 300 works, of which approximately 150 have survived in whole or in part (Hrvatska enciklopedija, n.d.). The Roman physician and philosopher, in his works, developed learning that derived from Hippocrates, as well as other naturalists and physicians. He wrote about specialist branches of medicine, such as surgery, pharmacology and dietetics, as well as so-called basic, i.e. preclinical branches such as physiology and anatomy. He established the thesis of the dependence of health on the four humours. Galen’s system was followed up until the 16th century when it was refuted.

The first and leading medical school was founded as the School of Medicine at the University of Padua. Thomas Nelson et al. (1945, 118) described that this was the first department with an anatomical theatre so that all students could have the opportunity to see human body dissections. Furthermore, in the 16th century, the English physician William Harvey, with his experiments and work *Exercitatio anatomica de motu cordis et sanguinis in animalibus*, disproved Galen’s system. Most people even today remember his words *omne vivum ex ovo* – every living thing comes from an egg.

Significant discoveries from Harvey’s discoveries all the way to the middle of the 18th century were scarce. Next, modern medicine is preceded by Sigmund Freud and his assumptions about mental illnesses and their treatment. He developed the young branch of medicine – psychiatrics, and listens to the first mental ill patients. Communication begins, at least in that segment, to gain significance. “Looking at the history of public relations in healthcare, the *good times* of public relations in healthcare were from 1950 to 1960” (Tomić, 2016, 461). In the stated years, external and internal communication in healthcare was not common practice. Public relations practitioners had the clear knowledge that the public, i.e. their fellow citizens were sufficiently aware and inclined towards healthcare organisations and that, in accordance with this, publicity and promotions for explanations were unnecessary (Tomić, 2016, 461). “The first comprehensive emergency unit was introduced in the hospital in Rijeka, Bolnica

Braće dr. Sobol. Used to analyse patients according to levels of urgency was the Australasian Triage Scale” (Zeidler, Lončarek, 2013, 438). Fred Zeidler and Karmen Lončarek (2013, 438) recount how, thanks to the conceptual idea of the anaesthesiologist at the time, Primarius Ljubomir Ribarić, and two surgeons, Prof. Andrija Longhin, MD, and Primarius Željko Najman, on the basis of the requirement that all emergency patients should be received at one location in the hospital, the emergency unit was spatially and functionally conceived, built, equipped and, under the name “Hitna medicinska služba”, opened on 4 January 1984, and soon the concept spread throughout Croatia.

3. Communication Research in Medicine

“21st century medicine is medicine focused on the patient in all its aspects: organic, psychological, social and spiritual” (Milunović, Polašek, 2011, 7). And this is truly so, at least in developed countries with high standards of living. The psychosocial approach in medicine has increasingly begun to take hold due to mental health itself. Communication in medicine is a relatively unresearched concept in Croatia and beyond. The state in emergency medicine research is even more discouraging. Searching various databases, most of the discovered papers were written in the form of reviews or short articles, while abroad there are institutes that are responsible for communication in healthcare, whose missions are to improve the quality of communication in all fields of medicine through training and research. Vibor Milunović and Ozren Polašek (as cited in Đorđević, Braš, 2011, 7) claim that, despite the small number of research papers, the dominant nature of communication, cultural differences in communication and, generally, the presence of medicine focused on patients in Croatia remains unknown. In Croatia, there is still a strong emphasis on one-way communication. Placed in front of patients, as individuals, very often are their illnesses. The patient becomes an object from which emotions and empathy are not expected. Most often, communication in medicine, i.e. the physician – patient relationship is analysed with the *Roter Interaction Analysis System (RIAS)*. The stated system has, for now, proven to be methodologically superior due to the possibility of collecting quantitative data, statistical processing, and the possibility of generalising results on a similar population, explain Polašek and Milunović (as cited in Đorđević, Braš, 2011, 9). Also, for quality researches in medicine, Polašek and Milunović (as cited in Đorđević, Braš, 2011, 9) mention a kind of microanalysis based on

Mishler's paper "The Discourse of Medicine", which on very small group analyses non-verbal signs of communication, and brings conclusions based on gender and social roles on the doctor – patient relationship. "As RIAS is comprehensive, microanalysis is more specific, but, for now, there are no theoretical directions that would minimise the negative sides of following methodologies and that would bring together all good sides" (Milunović, Polašek, 2011, 9). Milunović and Polašek (2011, 10, 12) claim that access of modern medicine to communication in the 21st century is more integrated in ideology and the political sense rather than on evidence-based medicine, and add that the influence of communication on clinical treatment still is not known.

3.1. Crisis Communication in Medicine

The term *crisis* is not defined the same everywhere. A crisis for one organisation, i.e. person or team in this case, does not have to represent a crisis for others; it may only represent a small problem or risk. Damir Jugo (2017, 21) describes that a crisis is a simultaneously important and unpredictable event with potential negative outcomes, which means that a crisis in emergency medicine can consequently lead to exposing life to danger or, even worse, cases of death. Medicine, as an area that is characterised by dynamic social relations, everyday encompasses crisis situations and crisis communication in its very essence. However, such a characteristic does not necessarily imply that the actors possess the essential and required knowledge and skills. In that direction, it is important to research how this important segment that reduces uncertainty is approached, which makes the outcome of crisis management positive. When a crisis situation appears, often it cannot be avoided, but it is possible to reduce damage. Also, it is important to point out that cooperation inside the emergency medicine team is the key of successfully resolving a situation. Damir Lučanin describes respect as the starting point of good and healthy cooperation in the professional team, and he points out that every "member" of every profession needs to understand and appreciate the role of the colleague with whom they are working (2010b, 155). The appearance and flow of crisis situations in emergency medicine can be defined according to the following order of events: **Unexpected call**. Medical dispatchers cannot presuppose the incoming call, just as they cannot presuppose the severity of illness or injury of the patient or accident, i.e. unexpected event. Medical dispatchers, by means of a structured interview, find out the

necessary information, which they pass on to the emergency medical team. Medical dispatchers often do not come from the medical profession, therefore, it is necessary to provide accurate, truthful and essential information. From the above, it can be concluded that active listening is extremely relevant for this step. For active listening in the health system, Lada Perković (2010) says that it is a process during which a healthcare worker is not just listening to facts, but is trying to understand and form views. Also, the medical dispatcher needs to decode the meaning of the message which is in the process of transmission during the crisis and affected by various communication noises. All noises make that communication difficult and not understandable at all. Arnold and Underman Boggs (2003 according to Perković, 2010, 79), have defined that the decoding of the message, feedback and listening to patients are the main components of the active listening skill for healthcare workers. Lučanin describes that we cannot predict some obstacles in communication, for example, social and cultural differences, limited abilities of understanding and memorising, and especially limited communication possibilities (2010a, 127). The patient's condition, illness or injury can represent a special type of distractor, in which case communication is fully influenced by the medical condition and it is questionable whether that information is verifiable. **Non-verifiable information.** Medical dispatchers cannot know whether the information is accurate and/or true. Already at this step, the emergency medical unit must prepare itself that it might not encounter what has been relayed to it and that it may have to react differently than planned. As Lučanin states (2010), communication with people during a crisis, stress or some severe illness is challenging for both the healthcare worker and the patient. **Public – patient interaction.** Time elapses even after the call to the emergency unit, so it obvious that witnesses will react at the scene of the accident, and they now represent a dependent variable towards the future complexity of communication in the healthcare worker – patient relationship. Depending on the communication, psychological and social relationship of eyewitnesses with the patient, as an outcome, we receive the patient's behaviours and communication towards the healthcare worker. **Arrival and triage.** With the arrival of the emergency medical team, necessary is the proper order and assignment of urgency called triage. The arrival itself of the emergency medical team can be mitigated or compromised by the amount of procedures performed by witnesses. Gordana Slavetić and Damir Važanić (2012, 20) explain that the complex process of communication always occurs influenced by several factors that affect information quality and accuracy. For effective communication,

Slavetić and Vazanić further claim that the medical technician needs to understand the factors that can affect the quality and success of communication (2012, 20). The stated is true for scenes of automobile accidents, natural disasters and events, but not for emergency medical household calls. It is important to mention “white coat hypertension”. This is a state of fright that appears when patients are in the presence of a healthcare worker and that is why it is important to create good communication and avoid deterioration of the patient’s state or symptoms as a result of an ambulance being called. **Transport and internal communication in the vehicle.** The patient feels isolated, uneasy and shocked. It is key to achieve quality conversation and to conduct a part or at least a good portion of the medical interview so that, upon reception at the emergency unit, reactions could be timely and as quick as possible. **Stakeholders and the case.** Each case, i.e. patient has its stakeholders who actually, quite often, due to their curiosity, worries, and need for information, aggravate the entire situation. Bulajić describes all this stakeholders and publics with two opposite terms, internal and external publics (2011, 89). Internal public can be described as the physician’s immediate work surrounding with assigned responsibility for every individual. Contrary to internal, external publics consists of different groups of message recipients, for example, patients, patient surrounding, other emergency services and media (Bulajić, 2011, 89). **Disseminating information.** The provision of information must be moderate, accurate and truthful. Furthermore, the way that information is disseminated must not be ignored. If good communication is not established with publics of the case or patients, a real crisis may appear, i.e. a crisis that will not only affect the physician and his team, but will affect the entire healthcare institution and its surroundings. Such cases are infrequent, however, when they appear due to human error or, for instance, corruption, we can be certain that the crisis will not be short or easy. Therefore, Jugo (2017, 40) claims negative outcomes for the image of an organisation appear when the expectations of stakeholders are not met so the public starts to lose a positive perception. When disseminating information to patients and the wider audience, for instance, if news on some accident is reported, it is necessary to explain everything in a lay manner with few specialised terms because they are not understood by publics who are not medically educated, and patients can be frightened by that same information if they do not understand it or the treatment process.

When arriving at the scene of the accident or event, the emergency medical team, after conducting the triage, begin providing the necessary assistance. Due to the necessity of a

quick reaction, the lack of communication skills is often highlighted in communication with patients. However, one should also reflect on crisis communication of healthcare institutions, which, due to rashness and incompetence, can cause crisis situations that have direct consequences on the institution itself, its employees and patients. In this segment, there are countless examples of such communication specifically for vague and totally incorrect information. The key to better resolving a crisis is to provide information to the public and media in a quick and timely manner. Bulajić claims that healthcare workers need to know how to communicate well because poor communication can lead to a series of medical, ethical and law problems (2011, 89). Also, inaccurate and non-verifiable information will deepen the crisis and damage not only the reputation of the organisation, but the medical brand itself.

3.2. Communication Skills in Medicine

Future healthcare workers, young physicians and students of medical and related programmes are insufficiently educated and familiar with communication skills. Being a healthcare worker is an extremely stressful job that takes place every day in crisis situations. Health and the human body often function unpredictably, which represents an additional obstacle for healthcare workers. Of key importance is a quality approach to patients from the communication aspect because, during the medical interview and similarly structured discussions, gathered is information that is quite important for establishing a diagnosis and proper therapy. “Physician – patient communication is the most important skill in medical practice on the road towards a successful diagnosis and healing, and establishing a relationship with a patient” (Đorđević, Braš, 2016, 3).

Future physicians in Croatia at the School of Medicine in Zagreb, in terms of communication, obtain their education by enrolling in the elective course “Communication in medicine”, which carries only 1.5 ECTS credits. Although communication forms an important component of their future activities, the study programme does not offer the possibility of acquiring the adequate knowledge. Veljko Đorđević and Marijana Braš (2011), in their book, “Komunikacija u medicini” (Communication in Medicine) describe how the communication with patient aspect has a significant effect on the outcomes of treatment, which has been substantiated by research. Đorđević and Braš (2011, 3) write that one physician in 40 years of work has about 200 thousand consultations, which confirms the previously stated, that the

education of physicians in that direction must be intensified because that fact places communication at the top of all skills for physicians and healthcare workers with direct patient contact. The healthcare workers who should have the best communication skills are those healthcare workers who are specialised in the field of emergency, family, school and sports medicine. In emergency medicine, the most important factor is communication. Medical technicians and physicians, with proper communication, exchange, in a timely manner, information of importance to the patient's life, and when patients are in a poor state, dialogue is what keeps them conscious. Healthcare workers in family medicine often send patients on the wrong tests precisely due to lack of empathy and conversation. The emphasis is on family medicine precisely because they achieve first contact with patients doubting their state of health. "The World Health Organisation has defined quality communication as one of five skills that are essential for a healthy and happy life" (Brkljačić, 2013, 137). There are several types of communication skills described by Đorđević and Braš (2011, 27): *Content-related types* that are related to communication within the medical staff or team, and providing, linking, reasoning and discussing information related for the patient's treatment procedure, i.e. diagnostics. This is followed by *process skills* that speak about the elements of communication between the physician and the patient and vice versa, analysis of non-verbal symbols, as well as micro-facial expressions, resolving the situation in discussions with patients, as well as structuring questions (selection of closed and open questions) (Đorđević, Braš, 2011). Process skills are a higher level of understanding communication with the patient. At the reception in the emergency unit, often in question are difficult cases that represent a certain crisis situation, where manner of communication is very important. Everything is measured in seconds, which is why communication must be direct, simple and with understanding, and this between healthcare worker and healthcare worker, and between healthcare worker and patient. The first relationship, the relationship of the healthcare worker and patient, will be handled under perceptual skills because they imply empathy and control of emotions, and for proper communication between two or more healthcare workers, exclusively necessary is direct and clear communication because in question are not days, not even hours; in most cases minutes, if not seconds. *Perceptual skills* encompass the "internal struggle" of patients, self-assessment and control of feelings, compassion for the patient (empathy). This type of skill is often observed in isolation, and it is nearly impossible to observe individually, one skill at a time. Essential is the uniting of all three skills and their

integration in everyday use by healthcare workers. Furthermore, Brajković, Braš and Đorđević (2011, 27) state that problems arise when separating the learning of content from process skills because appearing then are two conflicting models of medical interviews.

Đorđević and Braš (2011, 28) as the first conflicting model of medical interview state the traditional medical history, and the second type of model is the communication model, as the alternative interview method with a list of skills that describe the meaning and significance of the medical interview, the development of patient – healthcare worker relationship, obtaining information described in traditional medical history and discussion of these analyses and alternative treatments with the patient. “Apart from the mentioned types of communication skills in everyday work and communication with patients, extremely important is respecting the rules of communication in healthcare” (Brkljačić, 2013, 141).

3.2.1. Medical Interview

“The medical interview is the complex process of obtaining information with the goal of establishing a diagnosis, and it is an extremely important factor in establishing the physician – patient relationship. It is an excellent opportunity for the patient to share with the physician information about him- or herself, and for the physician to get to know the patient as a person, and not only as a medical problem or diagnosis.” (Brajković, Braš, Đorđević, 2011 as cited in Đorđević, Braš, 2011, 33) During crisis situations, the medical interview must be fast, accurate and directed towards the patient because the end goal is to save lives. Brajković et al. (2011) state that the physician has approximately five sequential tasks in the medical interview: beginning the interview, collecting data, physical examination, explanation and planning with the patient, closing the encounter; as well as two simultaneous tasks of the medical interview: providing structure and relationship with the patient (as cited in Đorđević, Braš, 2011, 28).

Beginning an interview is a routine communication task and usually it begins with private questions that ask how the person is doing, how other members of the family are, and whether there was anything new in the person’s life. Collecting patient data is the second sequential task of the physician, i.e. the first for emergency medicine physicians, given that there is no time for private questions. When collecting data, the focus is on what happened and how it

happened. Collecting data as a sequential task of the medical interview is extremely important for the physician. The physician, if asking appropriate questions, will obtain the necessary answers.

Everything in this sequential task is related to the interview directed on the physician, while the interview directed on the patient is often neglected, and it represents an important segment in the final outcome of the medical interview. The interview directed at the physician – more on this in the first part of this section – is key for establishing a diagnosis and setting a therapy, as well as creating the experience itself and building a relationship between healthcare worker and patient. This is one of the simultaneous tasks of the medical interview, creating a real, firm and individual relationship with the patient.

Lovorka Brajković, Marijana Braš and Veljko Đorđević (2011, 33) elaborate and prove that understanding interaction enables, of course, better treatment and diagnosis, as well as develops a better feeling, and provides security and demands gratitude for the physician's efforts. Therefore, we can speak about two types of interview: the physician-directed interview, and the patient-directed interview. The first, the physician-directed interview has the purpose of diagnosing, and consists of asking the patient specific questions. The second, patient-oriented interview, to everything also adds personal patient data, their "personal" feelings and emotions, however, it is often neglected.

3.3. Healthcare Worker – Patient Relationship

Iva Sorta-Bilajac and Josip Sorta (2013, 583) define communication as a process of creating some meaning between two or more people. Sorta-Bilajac and Sorta (2013, 583), in their professional paper, write about how the healthcare system is based on relationships. Mentioned is the "physician – patient relationship" in the "healthcare worker – patient – environment". The specific and determined relationship defines communication between healthcare worker, patient and the environment. If the physician, medical technician or some other healthcare worker behaves properly towards the patient, the environment will positively react to it.

According to Sorta-Bilajac and Sorta (2013, 584), there are four communication "positions" as a general framework within which taking place is nursing communication in medicine and

healthcare: cooperative communication (I'm OK; you're OK) – the nurse behaves towards the patient with respect, understanding, patience and attempts, through cooperation and agreement to resolve the problems that may arise; inferior communication (I'm not OK; you're OK) – the nurse behaves towards the patient with uncertainty, with lack of confidence in herself and her capabilities); superior communication (I'm OK; you're not OK) – the nurse looks down on the patient, with disrespect, underestimates; in a work collective, such a person is inclined to impose autocracy and awe; contestation (I'm not OK; you're not OK) – in the nursing profession is totally dysfunctional; this is so-called negative, nihilistic communication, which belongs to the most undesirable “position” of communication (as cited in Sorta-Bilajac, Sorta, 2013, 584). Of the stated communication positions, the most desirable is the first cooperative “strategy” of communication, where the patient and the medical technician, that is, nurse are equal, however, healthcare workers, with their respect, regard and cooperation, attempt to resolve the problems that arise. Undesirable, but often present, are the fourth and the fifth position.

Healthcare communication must be pleasant, honest and empathetically oriented on what of the four stated models is most emphasised in the first, cooperative communication method, which represents psychotherapeutic importance, where the nurse has more contact with the patient than the physician, but is not more significant. “The ability to communicate as a process, as well as establishing adequate (healthy, pure) communication as a means, represents the foundation of the patient – healthcare work relationship” (Sorta-Bilajac, Sorta, 2013, 589).

Patient dissatisfaction, according to Mladen Havelka (2002, 26), can derive from two main sources: scarce and unintelligible communication – physicians say what they want, set a diagnosis, therapy, and do not provide sufficiently good information; second, insufficient communication in terms of content – there are no instructions to the patient for additional sources of information on the illness, social or psychological relation of illness to family anamnesis. The first form of communication is frequent in healthcare worker communication, not only of physicians, but medical nurses and technicians, physiotherapists and many other, related activities. Thereby formed in patients is awe, which causes a feeling of closed and negative attitudes in certain cases. Havelka (2002, 27) explains that the next thing that is brought into question is the manner and timeliness of notification of patient on the illness.

Although the physician's discussion is probably not as essential as the implementation of the medical treatment, Havelka uncovered, through the research that a longer and more indirect conversation with the patient than the actual topic of the consultation leads to creating a closer relationship with the patient. To conclude, it is clear that communication can be placed at the highest hierarchical level of the pyramid, because proper communication not only creates a closer physician – patient relationship, but could also certainly be much more economical for the healthcare institute.

4. Methodological Framework

The goal of this research is to determine the existence of awareness of the importance and quality of communication skills in medicine, especially in units specialised for emergency medicine. Given that, according to all segments and circumstances in which emergency medicine physicians communicate with patients – crises for them is part of their work, which only additionally points to the need for quality, direct and accurate communication. The hypotheses that were confirmed or refuted by this research were:

H1: Most healthcare workers have received, during their education, the necessary knowledge on how to deal with patients in crisis situations;

H2: Most healthcare workers consider that they find themselves in crisis situations on a daily basis, in which appropriate and timely communication is important;

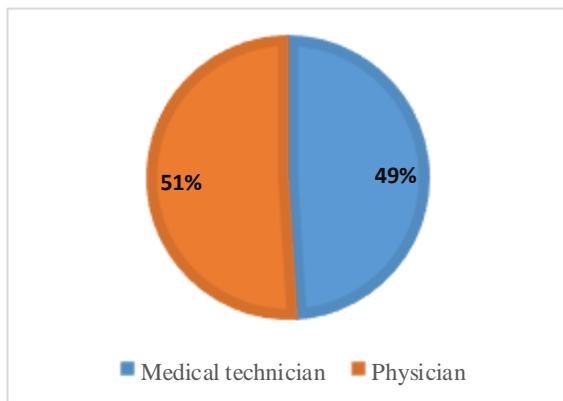
H3: Healthcare workers consider that it is important to possess communication skills in emergency medicine.

The research was conducted among healthcare workers of the City of Zagreb in emergency medicine units and clinical centres with emergency units by using the questionnaire survey method during May and June 2017. The questionnaire consisted of open and closed questions (general information on respondents; satisfaction with the environment in which they work; difficulty of profession; impact on psychosocial stability; content of acquired education at the School of Medicine, University of Zagreb, self-critical assessment of communication quality and circumstances with patient). The first part of the questions was related to the demographic, social and educational characteristics of the respondents, such as age, gender, profession

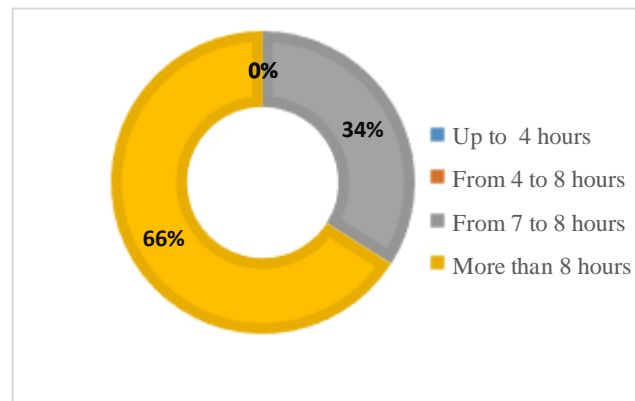
and educational level. The second part of the questions was related to work conditions and circumstances, such as working hours, satisfaction with monthly income and assessment of difficulty of profession, as well as influence of all work circumstances on psychosocial stability, including educational outcomes related to communication. The third part of questions involved a self-critical assessment of communication quality on the work conditions and difficulty such as opinion on crisis situations, quality of communication with patients, as well as delivering bad news. The fourth part of the questions was related to the influence of communication on the outcomes of treatment and expressing or not expressing the need for improving and further training related to communication skills. Furthermore, questioned was respondents' relationship towards the importance of communication. The survey questionnaire was completed by a total of eighty-two healthcare workers, forty-two physicians and forty medical technicians, of the 120 questionnaires sent in total.

5. Results and Discussion

The survey questionnaire was completed by 51 % men and 49 % women. The largest group of healthcare workers who filled out the survey questionnaire were 32 years old or more on average, fewer than 27% of healthcare workers were under 30 years of age. The survey questionnaire was completed by 49% of medical technicians, of whom 33% with high school qualifications, 6% undergraduate qualifications, 9% graduate qualifications for acquiring the medical technician qualification. The remaining respondents, 51% of them, are physicians, of whom 19.3% have graduated from the School of Medicine, as well as 21.5% specialising in emergency medicine (Graph 1).



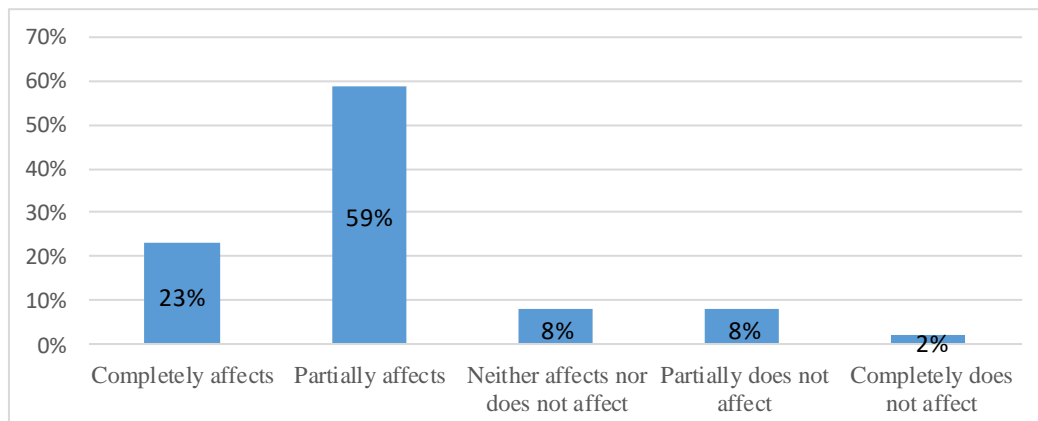
Graph 1. Profession of respondent (N=82)



Graph 2. Average working hours of respondent (N=82)

Of the 21.5% of physicians being educated in this area, 13.3% of them are currently doing their specialisation, and only 10.8% of the survey questionnaires were completed by individuals with a master's or a PhD. A worrying figure is that 66% of medical workers spend more than 8 hours at the workplace or in the field, and, according to the research results, leading the way are physicians at 61% (Graph 2). In this manner, reduced is productivity and increased is the susceptibility of the employee to stressful situations, which can affect the flow and outcome of the crisis situation itself. On the other hand, 49% of medical technicians stated that they work on average over 7 hours. It is interesting to note that, according to the research results, no healthcare worker worked less than 7 hours per day. Bearing witness to dissatisfaction with income in Croatia is the fact that only 16% of physicians and 13% of medical technicians expressed satisfaction with their monthly income. Related to issues in the survey questionnaire, they were asked to provide the reason for the expressed dissatisfaction, whereby they most frequently stated that they were insufficiently paid for their workload, level of education and invested effort, as well as that responsibility and psychological burden is too high. As an additional burden, they state working in shifts, with 63% of them believing that this also affects their communication outcome with patients and other stakeholders.

To the question, "Does your daily work affect your psychosocial stability?" obtained was a large number of positive answers. 23% believe that it completely affects, and 59% that it partially affects. Only 2% of healthcare workers stated that their daily work completely does not affect their psychosocial stability (Graph 3).

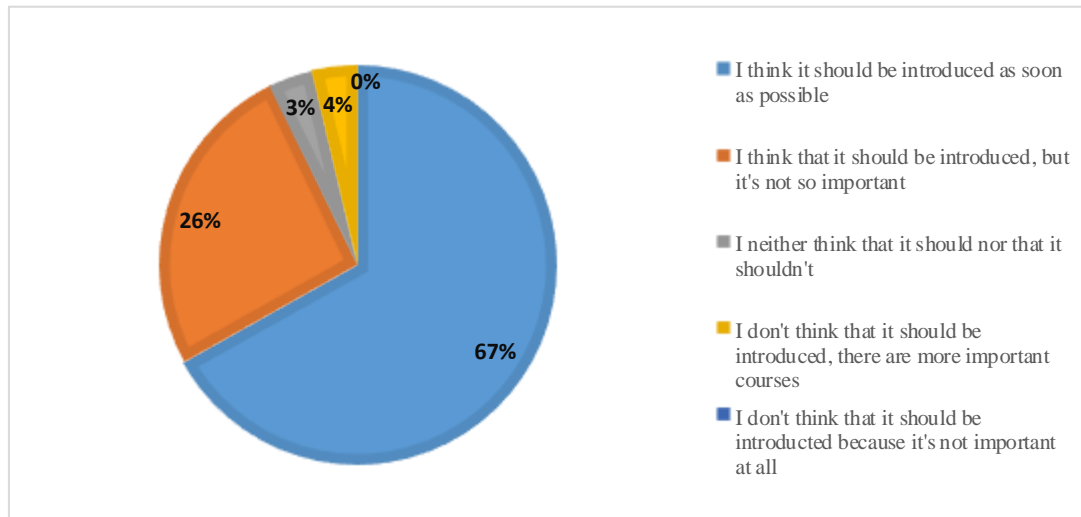


Graph 3. Effect of daily work on psychosocial stability (N=82)

It is questionable even how there could be quality communication with the most important stakeholders in the treatment process, patients, if 82% of physicians believe that their daily work in some manner affects their psychological and social stability. Each step, in terms of communication, can be observed in the work of healthcare workers, from their enrolment in university to driving in ambulances and saving lives. At the School of Medicine in Zagreb and at faculties and universities granting related qualifications, it is obvious that they do not agree, which would be indicated by the answers to the question “Do you consider that, during your education, you have acquired sufficient knowledge and skills in the area of communication in accordance with your profession?” Very similar answers to this question were provided by physicians and medical technicians. Only 22% of healthcare workers remained reserved, with 47% of medical technicians replying positively to this question, while a high 31% of physicians explicitly replied “No”. It is noteworthy that, of the remaining 69% of physicians, only 50% replied “Yes”. However, the stated reasons both for an affirmative and a negative answer were the following: not enough practice and learning communication skills; enough practice; insufficient lectures on the psychological aspects of dealing with patients; continuous professional development, seminars, congresses, lectures.

According to the results of the conducted research, it can be concluded that, at the School of Medicine, it is necessary to introduce much more than the one elective course teaching students exclusively about communication and its outcomes. In that direction, 93% of physicians “Believe that the course ‘Communication in Medicine’” should be introduced as an obligatory course. 67% of physicians consider that this should be done “as soon as

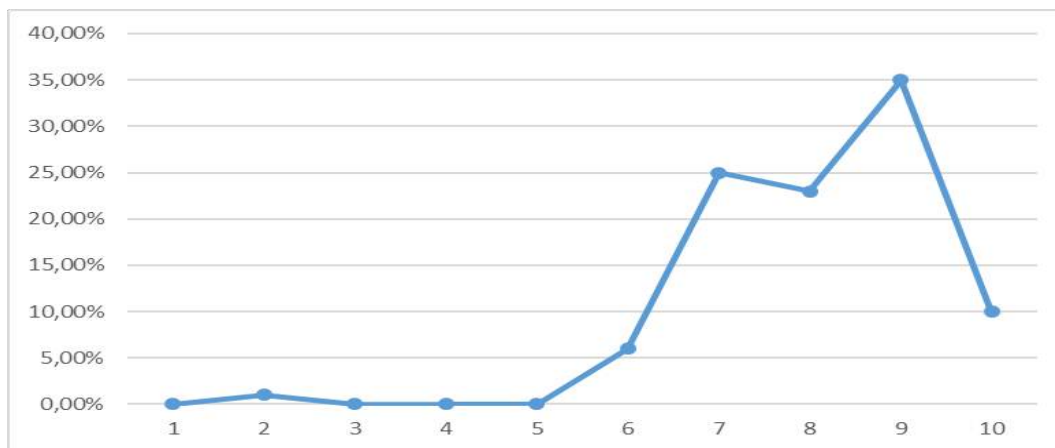
possible”, while the remaining 26% consider that it is necessary, “but it is not so important” (Graph 4).



Graph 4. Introduction the obligatory course “Communication in Medicine” at the School of Medicine in Zagreb (N= 82)

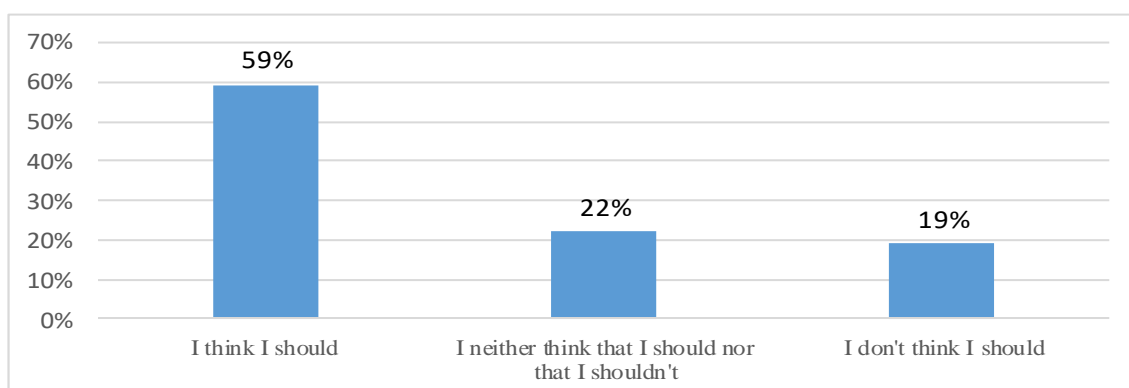
To the question “Do you believe that you find yourself, on a daily basis, in some kind of crisis situation, in which appropriate and timely communication is essential?” a high 84% of respondents answered affirmatively, whereby the importance of the need to introduce the obligatory course “Communication in Medicine” can additionally be seen, in order for communication in crisis situations to be direct and clear, so that even greater and serious consequences can be avoided. Respondents ranked their own quality of communication with patients on a scale from one to ten, where one denotes a low degree of quality communication with patients and ten a high degree of quality communication with patients. Of the total number of respondents, 93% of them assessed their communication with a score of seven or higher, and the remaining respondents, 6% of them, circled the score six, whereby they lie in the upper half of the scale, offering patients quality communication. Only 1% of respondents circled the score two, thereby expressing a low degree of quality communication with patients. When the results are examined separately for each profession, physicians opted, in 95% of cases, for a score of seven or higher, while 90% of medical technicians assessed their quality of communication also with a score of seven or higher. A high 60% of physicians assessed their communication with a score of 9 or 10, while medical technicians are

significantly more self-critical, and only 33% of them assessed their communication with such a high score (Graph 5).



Graph 5. Assessment of quality of communication with patients (N= 82)

It is interesting that a high 59% of healthcare workers believe that they should improve their way of communicating with patients, and 19% replied that they do not believe that they should improve their way of communication (Graph 6).

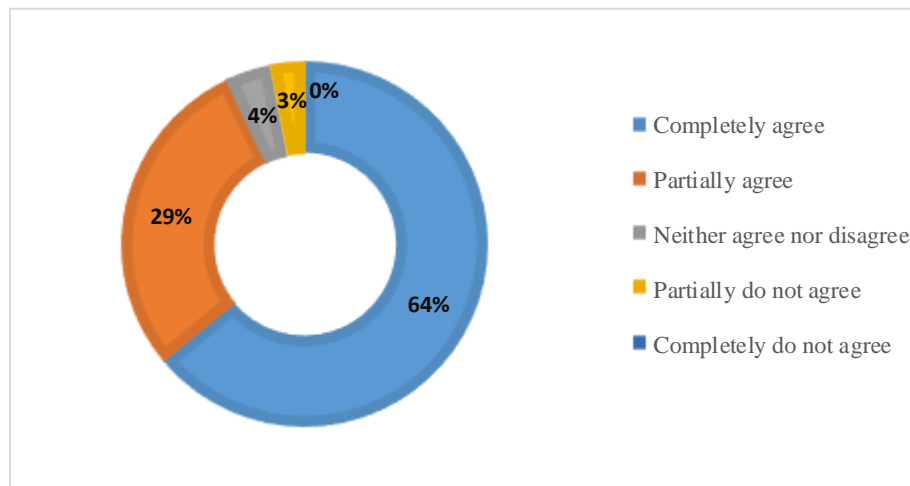


Graph 6. Need to improve way of communicating with patients (N= 82)

At the request that they point out the important characteristics of quality communication in emergency medicine, respondents emphasised most accuracy, honesty, understanding, respect, patience and empathy, and visible were answers such as two-way communication, knowing oneself and cordiality.

Respondents also answered the question “Do you agree that the communication skills of healthcare workers can contribute to preventing ‘difficult conditions’ in patients, such as:

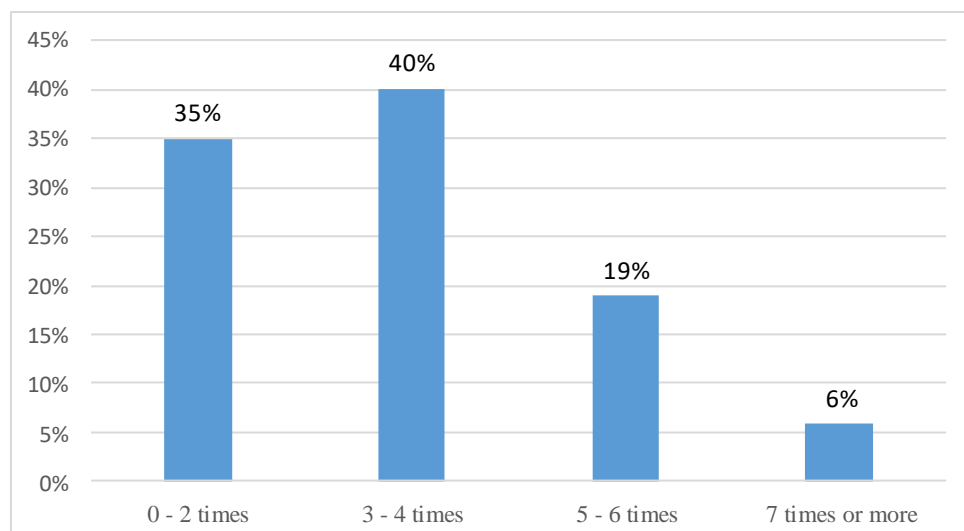
various types of shock (traumatic, hypovolemic, anaphylactic etc.)?”, to which a high 65% of respondents answered that they completely agree, while 29 % of them partially agree (Graph 7).



Graph 7. Contribution of communication skills in preventing difficult patient conditions (N= 82)

Furthermore, to the question that they assess the importance of the role of communication in patient treatment, recovery and rehabilitation processes, 95% of respondents assessed communication to be extremely important. A large number, 70% of healthcare workers, assessed communication in this segment with scores of 9 or 10, which emphasises the importance of communication in all aspects of medicine. To the open question of how, in their opinion, patients would assess communication with them, they replied most often with the word solid, good and very good, while some wrote commendable. In one part, it is possible to assess that physicians have a somewhat more difficult task when it comes to announcing bad news, where on average medical technicians on a weekly basis gave either no bad news or up to 4 instances of bad news, while physicians, 79% of them, gave more than 3 instances of bad news, all the way up to 7 or more (Graph 8).

To the question of whether they consider possessing communication skills one of the primary skills for healthcare workers, 87% of respondents replied affirmatively, while 13% answered neither yes nor no. Similarly, it is essential that healthcare workers are informed and up to date with what is changing in the profession. To the question of whether they were aware that the World Health Organisation assessed communication as one of the primary skills of healthcare workers, 70% of respondents answered affirmatively.



Graph 8. Number of instances of bad news reported weekly (N= 82)

6. Conclusion

The integration of communication and opinions on its importance are necessary, however, obviously also, to a certain extent, they have been purposefully conducted. Namely, the results of the research partially confirm the first research hypothesis – most healthcare workers have received the necessary knowledge in dealing with patients in crisis situations during their training. The majority, 47%, of healthcare workers, stated that they consider that, during their education, they received sufficient communication knowledge and skills, in accordance with the profession. However, in the explanations of their answers, often the positive answer was explained as being due to various additional training sessions, experience after university, as well as congresses and sometimes by stating the characters of healthcare workers themselves, which deviates from education at a higher education institution.

Crisis communication in terms of emergency medicine is a significantly more complex term than crisis communication in an organisation because, in a short period of time, the healthcare worker must reach the patient, conduct a medical interview, communicate with several stakeholders, establish a diagnosis and begin treatment. All of the stated segments give importance to the healthcare worker – patient relationship, which is why communication in emergency medicine is considered as crisis communication on a daily basis. Bearing witness to what extent healthcare workers are exposed on a daily basis to crisis situations is the fact that 84% of respondents consider that they find themselves on a daily basis in some kind of crisis situation, whereby the second research hypothesis is confirmed.

The awareness of the importance of communication and being informed were confirmed by the overall results of the research, but especially the 87% of healthcare workers who answered affirmatively to the question to which extent it was important to possess communication skills in emergency medicine, whereby the third hypothesis was confirmed. In that direction, it is once again important to emphasise that it is necessary and important to train young people on this issue already at the very beginning of their education. Therefore, it is essential as soon as possible to introduce the obligatory course “Communication in Medicine”, as well as other courses where young physicians would develop and learn communication skills in medicine at the School of Medicine, University of Zagreb.

Physicians and medical technicians have to regularly improve in various professional and occupational aspects, including communication. An overview of the results of the research provides insight into the very essence of the topic, as well as the opportunity to consider the similarities and the differences in approach and thoughts of physicians and medical technicians. The initial goal of the research itself was the tendency of receiving feedback from healthcare workers on the importance of this topic in their everyday work, as well as the training they were provided and which is still on-going. In this manner, enabled is an insight into the numerous elements that are neglected in this area, and which are essential for the quality functioning of the system. After the first phase of the research, planned is a series of studies in order to gain a deeper insight into the topic and in order to be able to introduce new parameters that enable a comparison.

With the introduction of new courses and updates to the old ones, a step would be taken towards the improvement of communication competencies of healthcare workers, especially physicians.

The relationship in which healthcare workers enter with patients is often short, which additionally aggravates the forming of quality conversations and the entire communication process. It is necessary to emphasise that crisis situations are becoming an everyday occurrence for the average person, and opposite to them are healthcare workers, who obviously encounter them at the workplace on a daily basis and on several occasions.

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ADAPTATIONS TO COMMUNICATION TRENDS OF THE PUBLIC SECTOR IN CROATIA - ANALYSIS OF CROATIAN PENSION INSURANCE INSTITUTE

Filip Dujmović, Ph.D.

Croatian Pension Insurance Institute, Zagreb, Croatia

filip.dujmovic@gmail.com

Summary

One of the key goals of public relations in public administration is creating and preserving a positive public opinion of public administration as competent and effective. Since public authorities have neither commercial interest nor competition, but are primarily a service for citizens, the function of communication is functional and perceptual. The main task is to build identity, maintain the desired reputation with key stakeholders (citizens), and to provide information in a transparent and comprehensive way. Strategic public communication has been recognized as a key goal for the majority of state institutions in the Republic of Croatia. Public administration should be recognized as a service to citizens, and as a channel through which citizens are informed about their rights, as well as their duties. The Croatian Pension Insurance Institute, as a part of public administration with the largest budget in the Republic of Croatia (around 39 billion HRK in 2017), interacts with a broad range of target audiences. Almost all Croatian citizens are customers, or will become customers of the Institute. The main communication issue the Croatian Institute for Pension Insurance confronts is that pension insurance is usually recognized as complicated. Messages do not reach citizens, until just before retirement, when it is almost always too late for active involvement in managing pension funds. In order to reach target groups, and in particular young people, it is necessary to monitor communications trends and to modify communication tools. By using qualitative and quantitative analyses, the author will show the current communication of the Croatian Institute for Pension Insurance, its evolution in the last few years and suggest guidelines for further improvement in accordance with communication trends.

Keywords: public relations, public sector, pension insurance, Croatian Pension Insurance Institute

1. Introduction

With the fall of Berlin Wall began the process of transition, the change of social order of the former socialist countries. But the transition has not only led to political and economic changes but also to cultural ones, which may have been most apparent in the relationship and communication from society toward individual.

At least in principle, the attitude towards an individual has changed and an individual's opinion has become important. The reputation, profitability, achievement of goals, and the implementation of an organization's policy and even survival, largely depend on targeted public support. Success in achieving goals is proportional to the success of developing relationships with the environment. Therefore, in most organizations, public relations experts are those who ensure that the organization "speaks one language". Public relations also include analysis and understanding of all factors that affect people's attitudes towards the organization, building a mutual relationship that will ultimately help the organization to achieve its goals. Public and state administration has the goal to create and preserve an individual's impression of public authority as competent and effective.

Since the public authorities do not have a commercial interest (nor competition), but are the service of citizens, the main task of public communication is to reach and preserve the desired reputation and opinion of the key publics (citizens / voters) and provide them with clear information that has a direct impact on them.

In the Republic of Croatia, PR did not enter politics in our region until 1990 when the Information Office was established within the Government of the Republic of Croatia, which was the forerunner of today's public relations offices and spokespersons in all Croatian ministries and government institutions (Skoko, 2006, 15). Similar organizational units have been established in other state and public administration bodies.

Although often taking roots from former information services that had existed in larger organizations and that dealt mostly with the issuance of workers' and trade unions internal newspapers, there is virtually no public authority today that does not have a department dealing with public relations as its primary activity. The need for adequate public communication has been recognized as a strategic interest in most public institutions. This is logical as citizens are ultimately the ones who pay for those services through taxes.

Today, communication is an important part of the business process in organizations, which usually have their own departments or at least people in charge of public relations activities. Generally, public relations is practiced at the operational level by specialized professionals, or individuals from related professions such as journalism, politics and similar study programmes in the social sciences. All these people, regardless of basic education, strive to develop effective two-way communication with key audiences in order to support effective citizen service.

2. Theoretical Framework

According to research and data of the International Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the state refers to the general state in accordance with the definition of the National Accounts System. The general government includes ministries, government offices and agencies; publicly owned non-market institutions such as public hospitals, public schools, institutes or pension and health insurance services. There are united all levels of government, including regions, provinces and municipalities (Bratić, 2010, 10).

UNDP (1997) states that the state consists of three pillars (forms of government): economic, political and administrative. Economic refers to the decision-making process that affects the economic activities of the country and its relationship with other countries. The political pillar is the policy-making process based on decisions making, and administrative is related to the application of this policy. This administrative pillar is a public administration.

Inge Perko-Šeparović defines public services as the totality of structures and processes with the ultimate goal of initiating and implementing policies that achieve public interest, i.e. the general good (Lozina, 2007, 311-313).

According to Lamza-Posavec (1995, 14), in the early use of the word “the public”, there are two basic meanings, one contained in the term “res publica” (public matter), and refers to the general availability of openness and accessibility to the people. The second meaning is related to things of general interest or even more precise with civil and state affairs. Public service as a wider term implies institutions financed out of the state budget - primarily institutions with public powers by which the Republic of Croatia fulfils their rights and duties.

Cutlip, Center and Broom (2003, 488) states that government institutions are present in all aspects of society, and literally all aspects of state institutions are closely related to public relations.

In the context of providing information to interested public, one of the key roles plays the Right of Access to Information Act (RAIA). RAIA provides the right of access to information to any domestic or foreign natural or physical or legal entity that requires access to information from the public authorities, with few exceptions (e.g. personal information). According to RAIA, in the Republic of Croatia about six thousand public authorities have the obligation to communicate with the publics, it is clear that public relations in public institutions are one of the most prominent functions.

The Media Act (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia¹ 59/04, 84/11, 81/13, Article 6 Par. 1) requires the disclosure of information through media to executive, legislative and judicial authorities, and to the bodies of local and regional self-government, as well as to the other legal and natural persons performing public service and/or duty, and is obliged to provide accurate, complete and timely information on matters within their scope.

2.1. Public Relations in Public Services

As stated in the introduction, communication plays an increasingly important role in modern public administration and requires an ever-greater engagement. Due to changes in understanding and functioning of public administration, external communication is of great importance in the public-sector management. The services are more open, transparent, accessible and more willing to cooperate (Yeomans, 2009, 640).

“Public administration theory, conversely, has long recognized that managing government organizations is quite different from managing corporate and non-profit organizations” (Allison, 2004; Beckett, 2000; Lee, 2001), perhaps most famously with Wallace Sayre’s often quoted “law” that “public and private management are fundamentally alike in all unimportant aspects” (Allison, 2004, 396). “The time also has come for public relations theory to

¹ “Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia” – henceforth in the text “OG”.

recognize that different models must be developed for studying the public sector” (Liu & Horsley, 2007, 391).

Cutlip, Center and Broom (2003, 491) state that government public relations independent of the state administration level have at least three common goals:

1. Inform the voter body about the activities of the state institution
2. Ensure active co-operation in government programs
3. Retain citizen support for policy and programs

The significance of communication is one of the characteristics that differentiate the public and private sector. For private sector managers, co-operation with the media and participation in communication is a choice, while for public officials it's obligatory. Freedom of press and freedom of information obliges by law public officials to be responsible for news and the publics. A special attention is paid to the openness and transparency. Since public services are mainly funded by public funds, a large number of media regularly informs citizens about what is happening in government institutions. Media relates to the government as "guard dog" (Alaburić, 2003, 11), assists in responsible state governance, investigates the work of politicians and civil servants, and holds them accountable for their acts, helps uncover corruption and points out public issues. Media are often focused on how much money is spent on individual projects, and on the need and justification of those projects.

Yeomans (2009, 640) states that public relations in public institutions informs the population and the media about policy decisions and issues affecting all members of society. It is a legal and moral obligation and refers to the transmission of information of public importance, responsible business - the justifiability of spending public money, and the preservation of the political context.

The objectives of public relations in public institutions by Cutlip, Center and Broom (2010, 406) are to inform citizens about the activities of an institution, to ensure active co-operation in state programs, to encourage public support for politics and programs, to serve public administrators as public attorney, to internal information management, to facilitate relations with media and community and nation building.

In modern public administration, officials are increasingly involved not only in strategy development but also in dealing with public relations. They are expected to deal with the outside world, for example with different interest groups, other institutions and organizations, the public and the media.

Božo Skoko (2006, 109) points out that setting goals is necessary, as this determines which results want to be achieved in public relations. Main and overall goals need to be set, as well as auxiliary goals. All goals should be clear, measurable, achievable, and have a defined schedule.

As information is more accessible to the public, and more precise, there are more opportunities for a transparent and accountable Government. In the absence of such approach, confidence in the public institutions is in danger.

Numerous researches, as we will show below, acknowledge the importance of public relations in public administration.

Diana Knott and David Martinelli (2005, 52-58) were investigating activities of public information on state bodies, particularly in the field of transport. Fairbanks, Plowman and Rawlins (2007, 23-37) have developed a model of transparency in government communication, while Motschall and Cao (2002, 152-180) have analysed the role of public information in police administrations.

Kaufman (2001, 29) in his review summarizes the role of public administration in modern society and points out the importance of media. "Many of them (modern journalists) assume that they have special responsibility for discovering everything in government and politics, and that is all fair play. What they publish can deeply affect the fate of those who are they writing about. Everyone has to be aware of its power, public administration included. Therefore, the public administration officers work hard to maintain good relations with members of the fourth force" (Kaufman, 2001, 29).

Holden (1996, 35) states that "the potential link between public opinion and the success of public administration is one of the realities in which political science must yet focus its attention".

Gregory (2006, 18) points out that the mode of public relations management is related to the environment in which the organization operate. “Each sector has its own opportunities, threats and limitations”. (Gregory, 2006, 18) Due to differences between the public and private sectors, the role of management in public sector differs, especially because of the large number of various public.

Public relations in public administration, therefore, serves primarily as a support in securing a democratic atmosphere. The authors Melton-McKinnon, Tedesco and Lauder in their work *Political Power through Public Relations* quote that communication links public relations and politics. “Having the basic prerequisites for the candidacy, electoral fate largely depends on the quality of communication with the public, especially with the media” (as cited in Tomić, 2011, 239). Public relations are the link between administration body that provides the information, the media that conveys the information and the citizens who need this information.

Successful public relations in public administration institutions have several good sides. Skoko (2004, 92-101) concludes that “the organization (subject) has all the prerequisites for effective (professional) communication with the environment, the media as creators and information carriers get a good source of information and the public gets the advocates and promoters of their interests in the organization (right to information and public debate, transparency in functioning on the market or in society)”.

In addition, Skoko (2004) states that the professionalization of the public communication system is manifested in the way of packaging and placing messages, i.e. the creation of prerequisites for the information availability, the alignment of messages with the media technologies and the nature of the media (as channels), and the encouragement of communication management in the organization and between the organization and the public, or between the organization and the media, which often represents the key public.

Public relations experience shows that the global public relations objectives in public and state administration can be divided into the following segments (Manojlović, 2008, 16):

- systematic, continuous, in time and correct public information (via media and / or other means) about the relevant activities of the institution,
- promotion of general image of the institution and its reputation in the public,

- promotion of concrete actions, initiatives, services or products of the institution,
- consistently and systemically tracking public opinion (with special reference to the relevant target groups), data analysis and its use in planning communication projects and initiatives.

2.2. Public Relations of the Croatian Pension Insurance Institute

The Croatian Pension Insurance Institute (CPII)² is a public authority with respect of resolving the rights and obligations from the mandatory pension insurance (I pillar) and child allowance. CPII is a legal successor to former insurance funds for workers with a ninety-year tradition. It is organized on a territorial basis in the Central Service located in Zagreb, regional offices (5) and offices (14), usually located in towns, county seats, and offices (92) located in towns and municipalities. Due to a wide territorial distribution and the number of service users, the Institute should provide timely communication with almost all public entities, so that users can use their right as easy as possible (pension insurance and child allowance). Since these funds/rights are essential to a large number of citizens, it is a service of great importance for the entire society (CPII, 2017b).

Employees, farmers, craftsmen, self-employed, veterans, i.e. insured persons, including pension rights beneficiaries (old-age, invalidity and survivors' pension), professional rehabilitation beneficiaries and children allowance beneficiaries, are all clients of CPII.

According to CPII data on December 31st 2016 there were 1 232 959 pension beneficiaries and 1 440 188 insured persons, as well as 172 238 child allowance beneficiaries for 322 870 children (CPII, 2017b).

At December 31st 2016, the Institute had total of 2597 employees, and the annual budget amounted to 38.6 billion HRK, 95.15 % of which serves for payment of retirement benefits and 3.83 % for child allowance payment (CPII, 2017b).

² Hrvatski zavod za mirovinsko osiguranje (HZMO)

2.3. Public Relations Department in CPII

The Public Relations Department is a special Central Service Unit under the direct authority of General Director, and acts according to the principle of division of business functions. The job is deployed by areas, which means that every employee is in charge of a particular group of jobs. The Department is engaged in media relations and promotion, web and publishing, user information centre and management support. The department has a total of 24 employees (CPII, 2017b).

Public Relations plays an important role in achieving the goals of the organization and contributes to the final outcome. In the Public Relations Department goals are closely linked to Institute's goals (mission and vision statement).

CPII's communication goals are:

- building and maintaining positive image of the institution (CPII, 2012),
- mutual communication, understanding, cooperation and acceptance between Institute and the publics,
- prevention and anticipation of crisis (improving knowledge about the Institute and its issues),
- representation of responsible management, which is in service of public interest (with ethical and professional communication),
- creating the perception of the Institute as a responsible employer,
- CPII as an example of quality, progress and modernization of the public sector in Croatia.

In short, the Department's task is to determine the approach or strategies needed to be implemented in order to achieve goals, improve communication and build better relations with internal and external public.

From the usual duties, the Department provides support to the CPII management. These duties include preparation of strategic documents, plans, programs, reports and record keeping. Also, the Public Relations Department is in charge of crisis communication management and cooperation with pensioners associations.

3. Research: Trends in Public Relations of CPII

3.1. Defining Research Problems and Methodologies

The aim of the research is to show the adjustment to communication trends in public relations of the public services in Croatia by analysing public relations of Croatian Institute for Pension Insurance.

The author started the research by determining communication trends. For this purpose, the research “Elements of European Communication Monitors 2016 – Strategic Issues and Communication Channels”, one of the most comprehensive public relations and communications consulting services in the world, has been used (Zerfass et al., 2016).

Further research included analysis of the main audience profile with which CPII communicates and collecting data by the communication processes over the past five years (CPII, 2017a), as well as media coverage in the same period. The audience data were extracted from official statistical publication and annual report of CPII.

Author monitored media on daily basis through five-year period (2012-2017) and collected data on media mentioning or involving CPII. Other data was collected from official statistical publication and five-year annual report of CPII.

Data for official social media channels were collected through administration tools of Facebook and Tweeter, and for official web site from Google analytics.

Data were put into the context of establishing communication trends using quantitative method by comparing CPII communication data with the results of the European Communication Monitors 2016 research.

3.2. Objectives and Hypothesis of the Research

The main goal:

To show whether the public relations of the Institute is adapted to communication trends by analysing the communication with the main audiences of the Croatian Pension Insurance Institute over a period of five years.

Pragmatic goal:

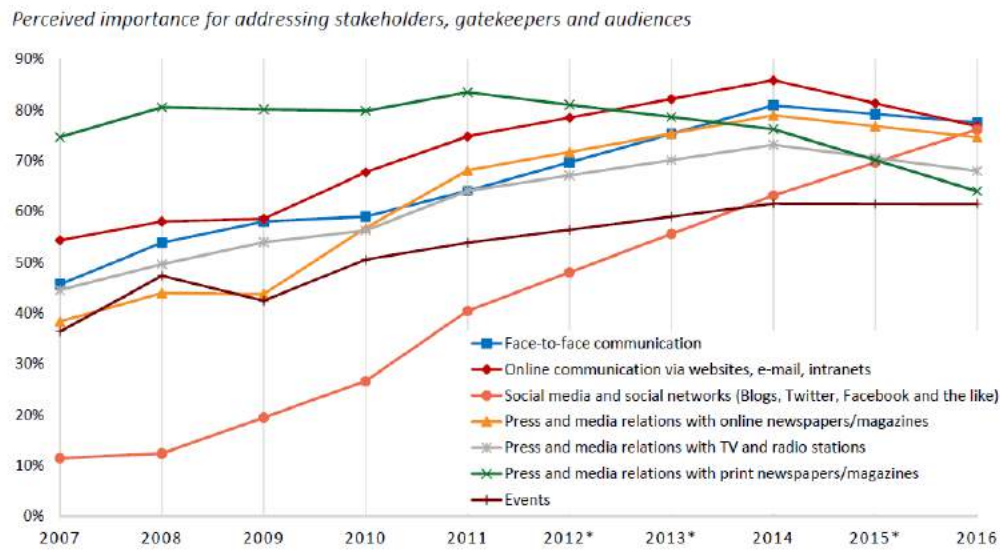
Public relations in public institutions is not sufficiently scientifically affirmed. Since the Republic of Croatia is, through the system of public and state services, the largest employer of public relations professionals, the goal of this paper is to promote more extensive research in this branch of public relations.

3.3. Starting Point

The starting point of the research was data from the European Communication Monitor 2016 - Strategic Issues and Communication Channels. The ECM 2016 is based on responses from 2,710 communication professionals based in 43 European countries. They have responded to a questionnaire that collects a large number of independent and dependent variables: demographic, education, job status, experience; features of the organization (structure, country); attributes of the communication department, the current situation regarding the professional and his / her organization, as well as perceptions on developments in the field. The questions and the research framework have been derived from previous empirical studies and literature (Zerfass et al., 2016, 9).

The ECM 2016 survey shows that over the past ten years there has been a tremendous increase in the importance of communication across social networks, and this trend is expected to continue in the future. At the same time, the importance of communication through print media is decreasing. At the top is online communication but also face-to-face communication, which according to the graph has a downward trend (Graph 1).

Changing relevance of key channels and instruments during the last 10 years



Graph 1. *No data collected in these years; figure shows extrapolated values. Longitudinal evaluation based on 13,709 responses from communication professionals in 43 countries (Zerfass et al., 2016, 60)

Graph 2 shows what is perceived importance of communication channels/instruments today and in 2019 in various types of organizations. As we can see, the importance of press and media relations with print newspapers/magazines will continue to fall, as well as corporate media publishing. On the other hand, the importance of everything connected with online media will continue to rise, especially mobile communication. All expected trends are more or less similar to all types of organizations, except for communication through TV and radio stations in governmental organizations that are expected to stay higher than in other types of organizations. What is interesting, the importance of face to face communication is expected to remain high.

Governmental organisations express the strongest belief in the future relevance of TV and radio as important channels for public relations

Perceived importance in various types of organisations

	Joint stock companies		Private companies		Governmental organisations		Non-profit organisations		Consultancies & Agencies	
	2016	2019	2016	2019	2016	2019	2016	2019	2016	2019
Press and media relations with print newspapers/magazines	66.5%	29.9%	64.7%	28.8%	61.6%	30.5%	61.9%	28.2%	64.1%	31.6%
Press and media relations with online newspapers/magazines	75.6%	85.5%	76.1%	85.3%	71.8%	83.3%	76.8%	83.2%	73.9%	81.6%
Press and media relations with TV and radio stations	61.6%	52.5%**	60.8%	46.3%**	72.6%	63.5%**	64.1%	52.2%**	74.4%	58.6%**
Corporate publishing/owned media (customer/employee magazines)	39.3%**	40.0%	44.8%**	42.9%	33.8%**	33.6%	35.3%**	34.4%	36.6%**	42.5%
Online communication via websites, e-mail, intranets	75.9%	83.1%	79.0%	82.8%	83.0%	83.5%	85.7%	88.8%	71.5%	80.8%
Social media and social networks (Blogs, Twitter, Facebook and the like)	70.6%	89.2%	75.6%	87.7%	75.0%	88.5%	86.1%	93.6%	76.6%	88.0%
Mobile communication (phone/tablet apps, mobile websites)	61.1%	91.6%	65.7%	91.2%	65.0%	92.9%	68.9%	94.0%	62.2%	89.5%
Events	62.3%	58.4%	65.8%	64.6%	58.4%	56.5%	68.1%	63.2%	58.1%	55.5%
Face-to-face communication	81.3%	78.8%	80.0%	78.2%	74.9%	78.5%	80.5%	79.1%	74.5%	76.6%
Non-verbal communication (appearance, architecture)	42.1%	51.2%	50.0%	57.1%	42.8%	53.6%	42.7%	48.8%	44.2%	51.5%

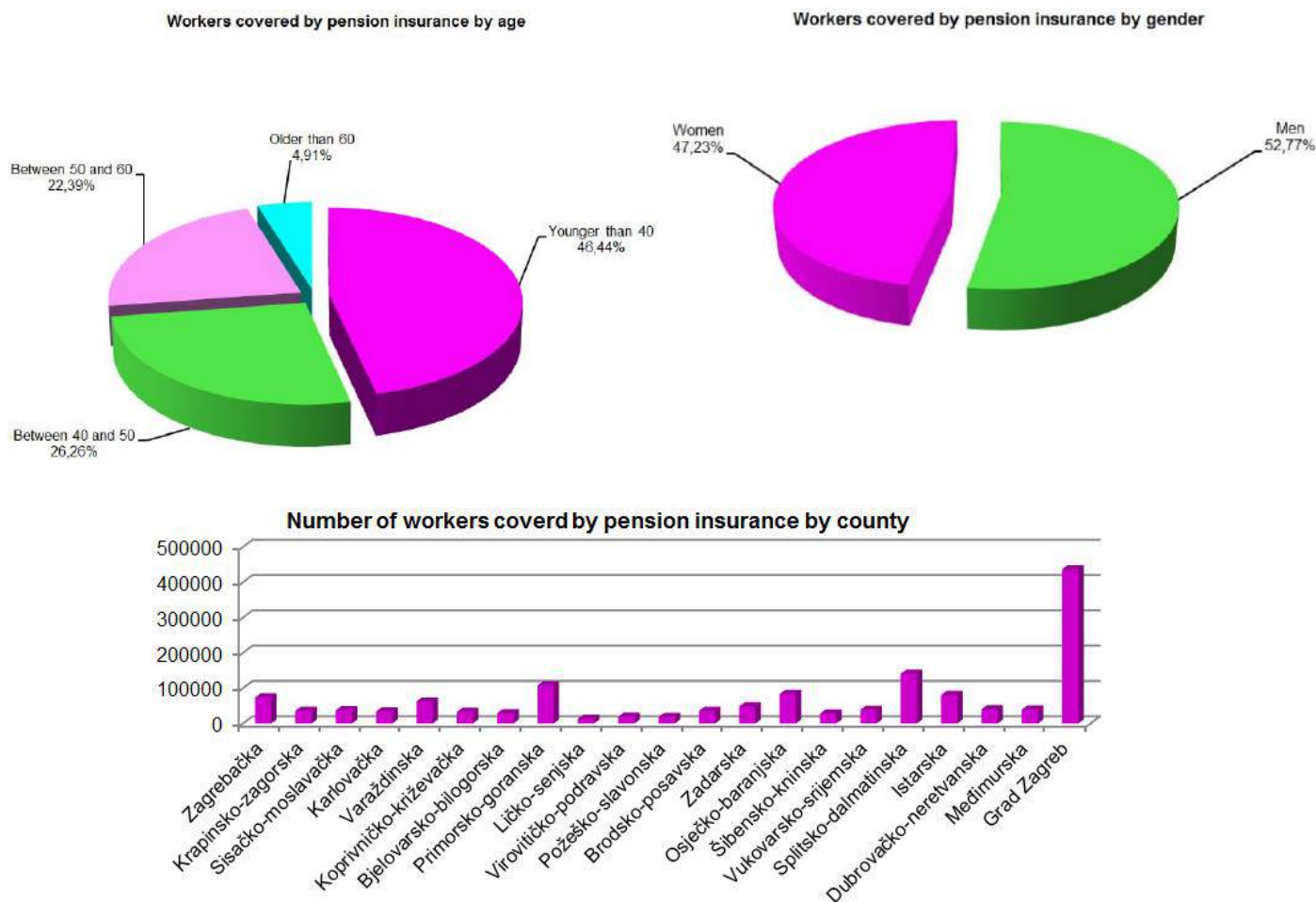
Graph 2. ** Highly significant differences for the relevant year (chi-square test, $p \leq 0.01$) (Zerfass, 2016, 65)

3.4. Main Audience Profile of the Croatian Pension Insurance Institute (CPII)

Croatian pension insurance institute has three main audience groups: pension beneficiaries, workers covered by pension insurance (future beneficiaries) and child allowance beneficiaries.

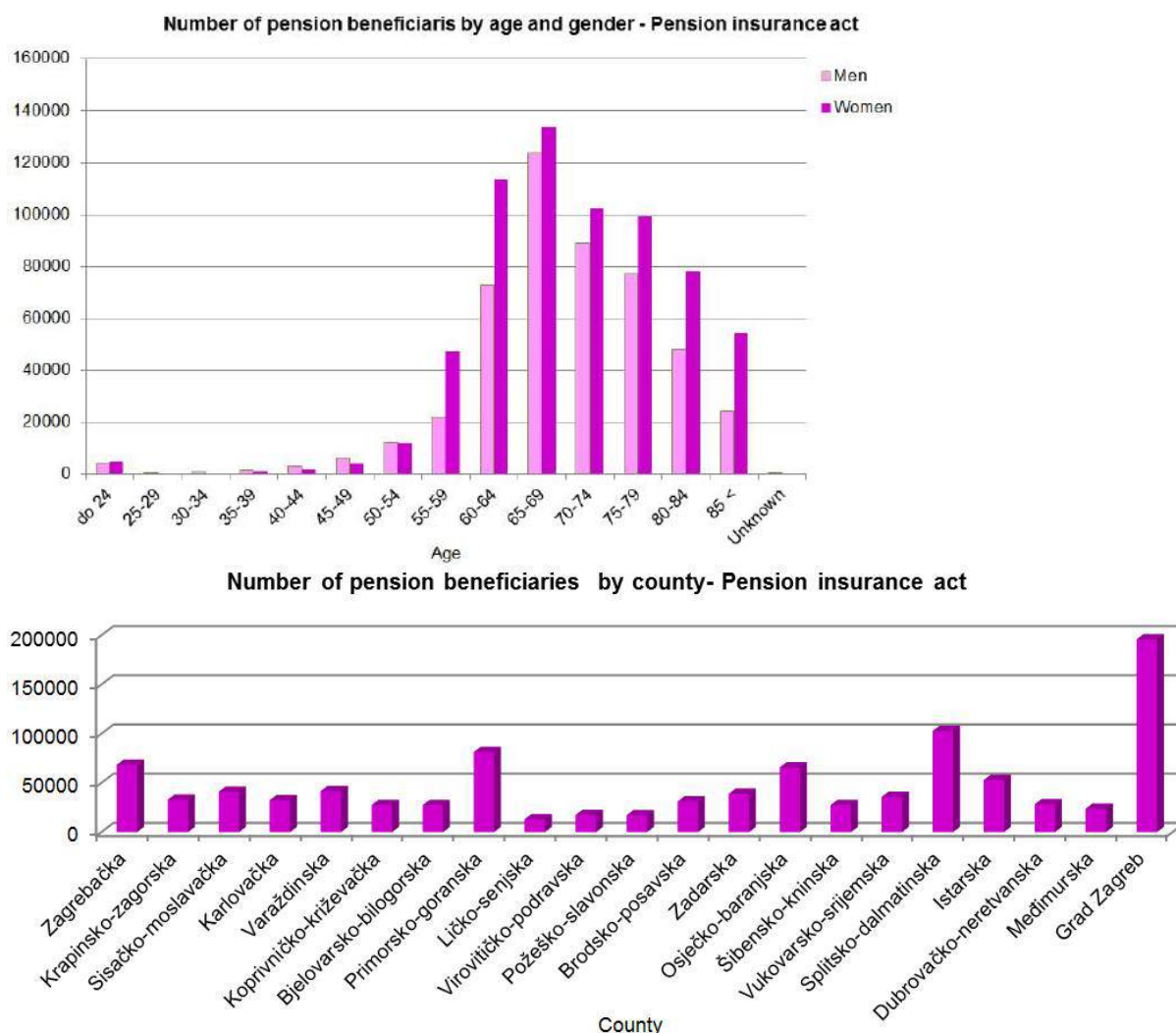
On December 31st 2016, there were 1 440 188 workers covered by pension insurance, 1 232 959 pension beneficiaries and 172 238 child allowance beneficiaries (for 322 870 children), which is 2/3 of the Croatia's population (CPII, 2017a). These audiences represent almost all social and demographic groups in Croatia, which means that CPII has to communicate through every available communication channel.

Typical worker covered by pension insurance is younger than 50 years, and lives in urban areas. Males and females are equally represented (Graph 3).



Graph 3. Demographic structure of workers covered by pension insurance (CPII, 2017b)

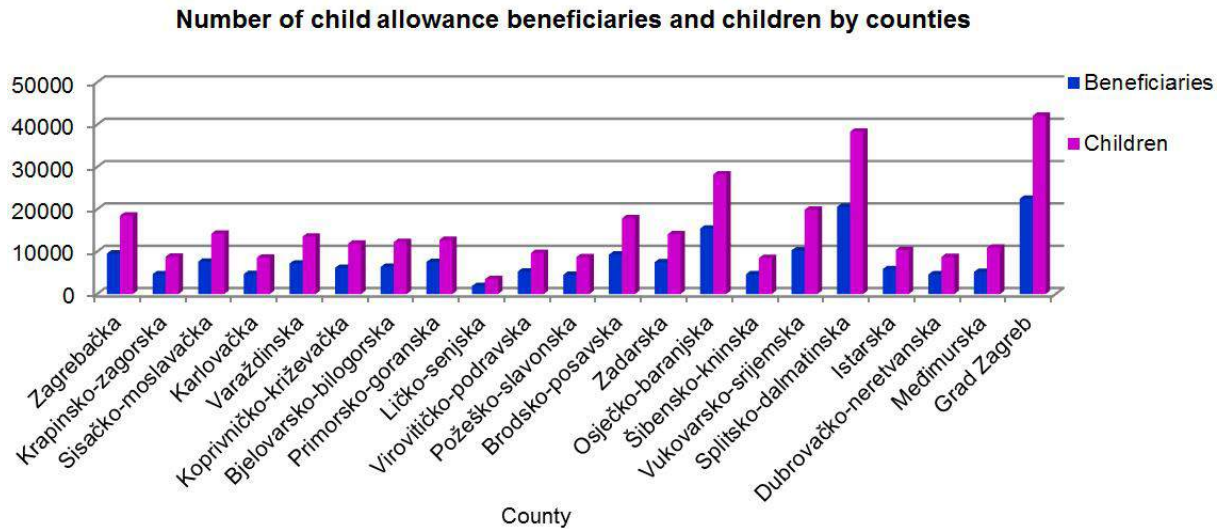
On the other hand, pension beneficiaries are the population which is typically older than 65 years (almost $\frac{3}{4}$ are older than 65) and 57 percent are women, who mostly live in urban areas (Graph 4).



Graph 4. Demographic structure of pension beneficiaries (CPPI, 2017b)

We can see that workers and pension beneficiaries are two main audience groups that are very different and are likely to be interested in different communication channels, and require different communication approaches.

Third main audience are child allowance beneficiaries, parents of preschool and school age children (up to 18 years old). They mainly live in urban or less developed areas (Graph 5).



Graph 5. Child allowance beneficiaries by Croatian county (CPII, 2017b)

3.5. Analysis by Communication Channel and Process in CPII

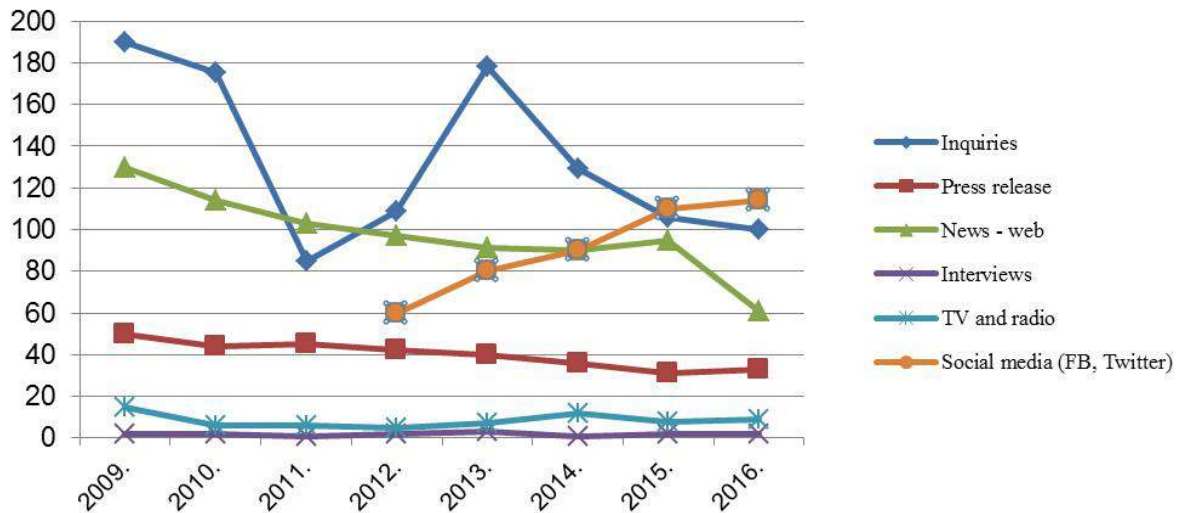
Media relations

Media relations and promotion activities are carried out large part in house, with exception of special activities which are held out by an external agency. Most common activities are presentations of the Institute's projects and services, co-operation with the media, presentations at professional conferences and conferences, and visual design of the Institute's visual identity.

As part of its relationship with the media, the Department of the Public announces current information on work and business, on the work of the body and the expert service. Daily media inquiries are answered the same or next day, i.e. according to the search, and press conferences and press conferences are held by the head of the Institute and media experts, etc.

Croatia pension insurance institute communicates with media through variety of channels.

Since 2012, the number of media enquiries has decreased. So, from nearly 200 queries fell by 50 percent in 2016. Also, the number of official press releases has fallen for a third (from 42 to 33) and web news (97 to 61). On the other hand, there is a large increase in the number of social network releases (Graph 6).



Graph 6. Number of media publications by CPII channel (CPII, 2017a)³

Information that would normally be published on company's web site, are channelled on the social media, the official Facebook and Twitter page, and the results are reduced number of news information on the web and increasing number of posts on social media. Number of press inquiries is also decreasing in the last four years, since the web site was slightly redesigned and Facebook page introduced. All other channels are constant due to their official purpose, for example official press releases are mandatory released twice a month when the pension and child allowance payment starts.

User INFO centre and information requests by Act on the Right of Access to Information (ARAI)

With insured persons and service users, employees of the Public Relations Department communicate by info phone, using electronic media, i.e. responding to users' inquiries over the internet and email, in writing, by solving requests by ARAI and response to petitions and complaints and publishing information materials, as well as via social networks Facebook and Twitter. The most frequent communication with the users is by phone, but the number decreases every year, with 60 890 calls in 2013, it fell to 30 075 calls in 2016. As far as e-

³ The graph was created by the author according to collected data and official annual reports.

mail communication is concerned, the number of inquiries is about 6682 in average per year in the past five years, With the exception in 2015 (8361). The number of petitions and complaints is relatively small compared to the other channels, which is an average of around 100 per year, as well as inquiries based on the Act on the Right of Access to Information, which are about 30 per year (Graph 7).



Graph 7. CPII user INFO centre by channel and number of information requests (CPII, 2017a)⁴

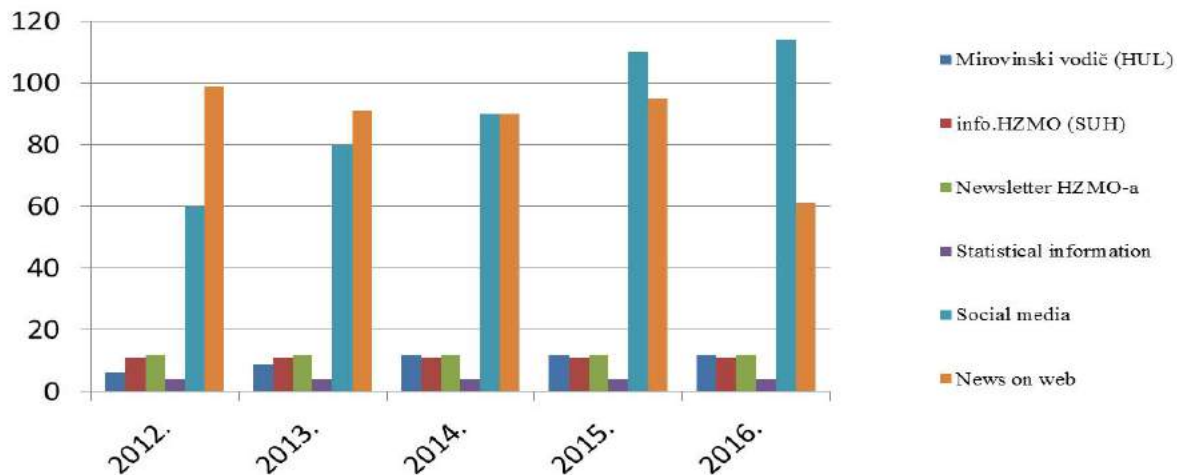
Official publications and website

The basic information and data of the CPII are published on the Institute's website. The site reports on the work of the Institute and current events. Workers of the department are in charge of editing and publishing information and supplementing the current content.

From standalone publications, the Department issues monthly publication; "Newsletter CIPI" quarterly "Statistical information CPII" (*Statističke informacije HZMO*) and monthly newsletter for the employees. Information materials, leaflets and brochures are issued for the needs of info counters or promotions. The Department is also preparing two supplement which is published monthly in two pensioner magazines (*Mirovinski vodič i info.HZMO*).

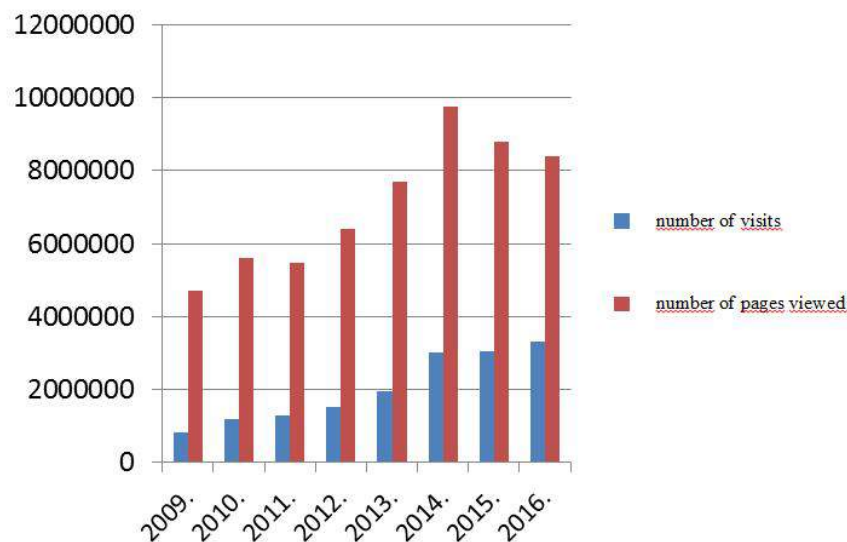
⁴ The graph was created by the author according to collected data and official annual reports.

These publications are issued regularly on a monthly or quarterly (*Statistical Information*) level, and the release number does not vary. The most popular contributions are in pensioners' sheets and the publication of Statistic Information (Graph 8).



Graph 8. Number of official CPII publications by year (CPII, 2017a)⁵

After the initial growth of visits to the website, in the last three years, visits are slightly higher than 3 million per year. The number of viewed pages is about 8.5 million per year (Graph 9).



Graph 9. CPII web visits by number of users and viewed pages, by year (CPII, 2017a)⁶

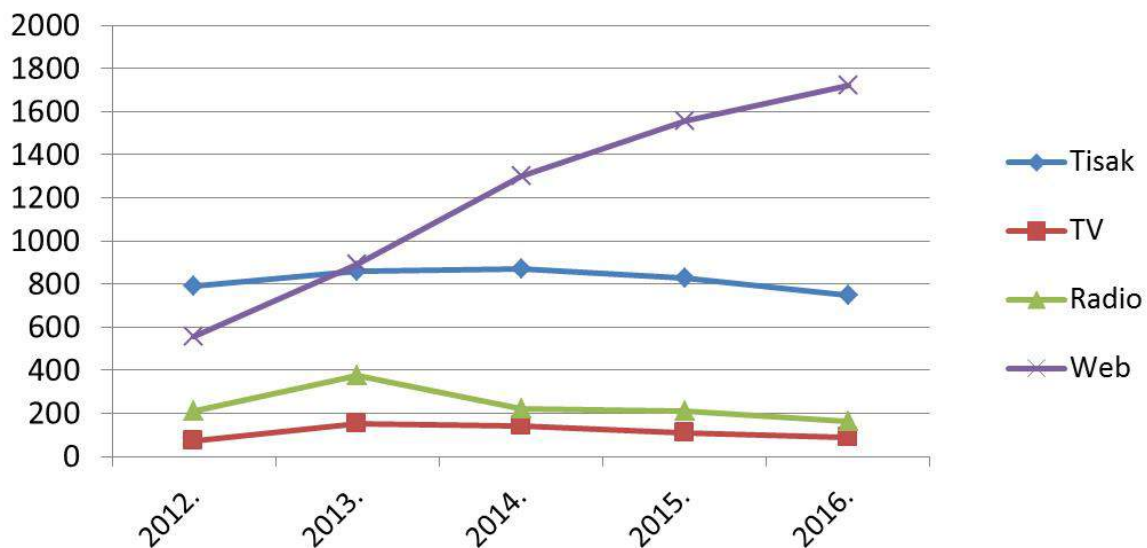
⁵ The graph was created by the author according to collected data and official annual reports.

⁶ The graph was created by the author according to official annual reports.

In last five years CPII's web site has an increased number of visits and pages viewed. In addition to the User Pages, the most visited sections are: "Child care", "When can I retire", "Forms", FAQ, "Claims", "Pension Insurance Rights" and "Contacts". One of the biggest drawbacks is that the page does not have a customized version for mobile browsing.

3.6. Media Clipping Analysis

The media clipping analysis over the last five years shows that interest for CPII's is constant in traditional media, but it is also as expected to have remarkable growth on online platforms, which has been tripling over five years (from 556 in 2012 to 1724 announcements in 2016). The second most widely-used media is print media that runs on average with about 800 announcements a year, and in the last year there is a drop to 749 announcements. The number of broadcasts on radio and television is constant and ranges on average 191 on radio and 112 on television per year. Individual deviations are possible in election years when the issue of pension insurance is somewhat more prominent (Graph 10).



Graph 10. CPII media appearance - The number of media clippings by type of media, in five-year period (CPII, 2017a)⁷

⁷ The graph was created by the author according to collected data and official annual reports.

4. Conclusion

The Croatian Pension Insurance Institute as a public institution for the implementation of pension insurance of generational solidarity and children allowance is obliged to communicate with almost all audience groups in Croatia, from the pension beneficiaries, workers covered by pension insurance to child allowance beneficiaries. Thus, all age groups and the entire demographic and cultural spectrum are represented. Accordingly, the Communication Department uses all available communication tools and channels, but traditional tools are more developed than modern ones.

As we have shown in the introductory section of the research, the communication trends of European countries are primarily focused on strengthening online communication and social networks, especially by using mobile devices. Also, personal, face-to-face communication is also recognized as very important.

The Institute's publishing and communication through traditional media (Radio, TV, press) is developed, but on the other hand, the website does not fully follow the latest design and content trends, regardless of the fact that it has large number of views. Communication through social networks requires improvement; it is used solely as an additional channel for publishing official announcements and news, rather than as a two-way communication channel. Also, apart from Facebook and Twitter, other social networks are neglected, especially YouTube, which is, today, the standard in online communications.

Communication by audiences follows channels. Thus, communication with pension beneficiaries is well developed, and most channels are tailored to that target group (traditional channels). On the other hand, an exceptionally large target group such as insured persons are not sufficiently represented in communication, which is reduced to ad hoc projects rather than on planned educational communication.

Child allowance beneficiaries are different from the previous two groups since child allowance is a social benefit for low income individuals, and communication requires a specific strategy. This strategy is not clearly elaborated.

CPII somewhat follow communication trends, but further modernization is necessary, especially in the social media department. Since the CPII website is not adapted and suitable for use on mobile devices, this should be the first step in modernization and development in particular, because communication through mobile platforms is one of the modern communication imperatives.

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CRISIS COMMUNICATION IN TOURISM – EXAMPLE FROM SPAIN

Ivana Gažić, Ph.D. Candidate

Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Osijek, Croatia

ivana.gazic@zse.hr

Dejan Gluvačević, Ph.D.

Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Osijek, Croatia

dejan.gluvacevic@hotmail.com

Zvonimir Grgas, Ph.D. Candidate

Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Osijek, Croatia

grgas.zvonimir@gmail.com

Summary

Tourism as one of the fastest growing sectors in the globalized world represents a very important economic and social resource for a large number of countries, regions and cities. Like all other sectors in the globalized world, tourism also is not invincible and immune to the crisis. Terrorist attacks, natural disasters, technological accidents and technical failures, the irresponsibility of the individual or collective, health crisis, economic crisis and political crisis can be a cause of a crisis in tourism. Considering that, in order to ease the crisis, it is necessary to be prepared in advance and to have developed methods of communication during crisis. Such thing(s) may reflect on the future activities in the tourism sector, regardless of whether we speak about tourist offices, hotels and other accommodation, social community and all other stakeholders involved in tourism. The importance of crisis communication in tourism, as well as the most common types of crises and crisis communication in tourism, is the purpose of this paper. As a reminder, Spanish tourism, as a fast growing sector, in the last 40 years until today, represents one of most the important tourist markets and areas world

wide. With 68.2 million international tourists and 56.5 billion USD in revenue in 2015, Spanish tourism cannot afford to ignore any type of crisis which could reflect on their tourism sector (UNWTO, 2016, 6). Therefore, the paper presents the example of one of the biggest Spanish crisis communications in the tourism sector during the last two decades.

Keywords: crisis communication, crisis, tourism, globalization

1. Introduction

In the recent decades tourism positioned itself as one of the fastest growing industries and, at the same time, a significant driver of socio-economic progress (Weber, Mikačić, 2007, 44). In recent years, tourism generated 9% of global GDP, while 9% of working people globally are employed in the tourism sector (UNWTO, n.d.). Since tourism plays an important role in global processes, it, as all other industries, is not immune to crisis.

Crisis in tourism is rather specific since tourism is a phenomenon that attracts significant attention, and there are very few crises relating to tourism that can go unnoticed. One of the most frequent causes of crisis in tourism in the last two decades is terrorist attacks that can significantly influence the tourist season of a certain destination or a country in general. Coping with such types of crises is a big challenge and there is no universal solution yet. According to Canel (2012, 215): *a terrorist attack is considered a direct cause of crisis communication and it includes risks and uncertainty, and it takes on an important communication dimension and involves the reputation of organisations by questioning reputation of a government as one of the chief stakeholders in the given situation.*

The very choice of a destination that is to be attacked is frequently determined by ideological causes that relate to different values, cultures and socio-economic spheres, and therefore, tourists are a goal in a political sense since they are representatives of “hostile nations” (Pettyford, Harding, 2005, 28).

Due to the mentioned reasons and also for the purpose of successful management of one’s own image as a tourist subject, it is important to be prepared for strategic crisis communication. For the purpose of this paper, along with a theoretical review and correlation between terrorism and tourism, the example of the terrorist attack of 11 March 2004 on the Madrid railroad station will be presented so as to show how Spanish and Madrid authorities dealt with the crisis caused by a terrorist attack.

2. Crisis Communication in Tourism

Tourism as an industry is very vulnerable and not resilient to crisis and disasters such as natural disaster or crisis caused by wars, rebellions, terrorist attacks, etc. The consequences of such crises definitely have a negative effect on the image of the affected destination and, therefore, all destinations should have scenarios prepared for crisis communication. However, this is not the case, and not only that they are not prepared for a crisis situation, but the effects of the crisis and their end vary from destination to destination, depending on their preparation, length of crisis and other parameters that influence it (Tyrrell, Johnston, 2006, 5). Mutual prosperity of tourist industry is of the interest of all stakeholders since interest groups and the local economy depend on perception, which is derived from outside of the tourist destination. Natural disasters or disasters caused by men can lead to a tourism crisis that can have a domino effect and negative consequences for destinations where tourism is a very important industry in the economy. Therefore, the local and national tourist industry must find efficient measures against consequences that occurred, otherwise, they can end up in economic recession with damages more complex and difficult to handle (Atkins et al., 2003, 262). There is a saying that good news travels fast and bad news even faster. An increase in the number of crisis and accidents over recent years are the reason to implement crisis communication that takes up a strategic place in the life of companies and institutions (Tomić, 2008, 362). A crisis as such can happen to anyone, anywhere and anytime, and to deal with crisis in a better manner, it is important to be prepared in advance for various crisis scenarios. Tomić (2008, 362) states that branches most vulnerable to crisis are the field of energy (power plants, oil pipelines, gas pipelines, mining, oil refining, etc.), but also those relating to tourism such as air traffic and railroad traffic. However, it is indicated in practice that only one third of companies worldwide conduct regular checks and trainings in case of a crisis (Zaremba, 2010, 13). Crisis communication as such is a stressful activity that requires a proactive approach, calmness and well preparedness in case of a crisis. To better deal with a crisis, Zaremba (2010, 13) states that it is necessary to possess skills needed for crisis communication (e.g. proactivity, acting rapidly, calmness, etc.), to be transparent, to be aware of the possibility of crisis occurrence, to set up an organisation culture that will not jeopardize crisis plan and to be acquainted with the golden rule of crisis communication that refers to ethic principle of individual conduct towards people in a manner that an individual expects to be treated himself. Even though a crisis causes damage and losses, if one is prepared for the occurrence of a crisis and

successfully overcomes it, it is possible to transform the crisis into one's advantage in certain situations.

As in the case of the term *tourism*, the term *crisis* also has several definitions which overlap to a greater or lesser extent. Krystek (1987 as cited in Tomić, 2008, 362) defines crisis as *an unplanned and unwanted processes of limitation duration and influence possibility with ambivalent outcome*. Moreover, Božidar Novak (2001, 28) defines a crisis as *a serious incident that has influence over personal safety, environment, products or organizations, and hostile media attitude towards the crisis is characteristic of such incident*. Pearson and Clair (1998 as cited in Tomić, Milas, 2007, 139) observe a crisis through comparative aspect and define it as *a low probability and high effect event that threatens an organization's life force, and it is manifested in unclear causes, consequences and means for achieving a solution, as well as persuasion that decisions need to be made urgently*. Furthermore, the Crisis Management Institute defines a crisis as *any deviation or disturbance in business activity that attracts public and media attention and disables the normal work of an organization* (Tomić, Milas, 2007, 140). According to the referenced definitions, it is clear that a crisis is an unplanned and unexpected occurrence with a frequently unknown cause that can have a negative effect in case of unpreparedness. If we were to define a crisis through the aspect of tourism, we could say that a crisis is *any negative occurrence that directly or indirectly affects a tourism subject's business and can, in the short-term or long-term, affect the public image of a tourism subject* (Gluvačević, Grgas, 2015, 870).

Now that the term of crisis has been defined through the aspect of tourism, it is necessary to perceive what causes a crisis. As it has been mentioned, a crisis is unpredictable and its causes may differ. Semantics of the terms makes it clear that outer causes are the ones that originate from outside an organization and have no significant effect on the organization, e.g. natural disasters, accidents, politics and social changes, economic crisis, recession, market changes, safety environment, etc. (Tomić, 2008, 363). On the other hand, an organization can influence the inner causes of a crisis. Causes of such types of crises are frequently invisible outside the organization. The following could be specified as certain inner causes: poor work organization, disrupted interpersonal relations, incompetence and lack of ethics of the management, corruption, lack of communication, poor working conditions, etc. (Tomić, 2008, 363). Moreover, unlike Tomić, Luecke (2005) uses a different approach to crisis classification and differentiates between five types of crisis. Luecke (2005, 24-30) states the following: 1) accidents and natural disasters, 2) crisis relating to health and environment, 3) technological incidents,

4) economic and market forces, and 5) out of control employees. Cutlip, Center and Broom (2003, 389) state somewhat broader crisis typology and differentiate between 1) natural crisis, 2) technological crisis, 3) conflict-related crisis, 4) malice caused crisis, 5) crisis caused by management values, 6) deceit caused crisis, 7) crisis caused by poor management, and 8) business and economic crisis.

Considering the many divisions of the crisis and observing them through the aspect of tourism, crisis in tourism can in principle be divided into direct and indirect crises. Direct crises would be those that directly affect the business and create an image of a particular tourist subject (e.g. financial malpractice at a hotel is a direct cause of the crisis in this tourism subject). Indirect crises, on the other hand, would be those crises that indirectly affect the tourism facility (e.g. political instability in a particular country can indirectly affect the crisis in the tourism of that country). Taking into consideration the above mentioned, the authors list eight different types of crises that are reflected through direct or indirect causes and one cause can simultaneously appear in several types of crises¹.

Table 1. Types of crises in tourism with examples

Type of crisis	Direct cause	Indirect cause
1) Natural disasters	Tsunami in South-East Asia in 2004	Volcano eruption in Iceland in 2010
2) Crisis of economic nature	Bankruptcy of Bizovačke toplice (spa) in 2013	Collapse of banking system in Cyprus in 2009
3) Crisis caused by technical malfunction	Technical malfunction that caused a fire in Solaris marina in Šibenik in 2010	Plane crash of Malaysia Airlines plane in 2014
4) Environmental crisis	Fire in National Park Tara in Montenegro in 2012	BP oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico in 2010
5) Crisis caused by intent, error or recklessness	Stranding of Costa Concordia cruiser in 2012	
6) Crisis caused by political, security or organisation instability	Strike of "Marina" Hotel employees in Selce in 2011	Arabian Spring in Tunisia and Egypt from 2010 to 2014
7) Crisis caused by terrorism	Bomb attack on Bardo Museum in Tunisia in 2015	London metro attack in 2005
8) Health crisis	High presence of malaria in sub-Saharan Africa	Ebola epidemics in West Africa in 2014

¹ For example, in Table 1, the oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico in 2010 was an indirect cause of an environment crisis and also a crisis caused by intent, error or recklessness.

A terrorist attack is considered a direct cause of crisis communication and involves risks and uncertainties, and occupies an important communication dimension and involves the reputation of an organization by questioning the reputation of a government as one of the chief stakeholders in the emerging situation (Canel, 2012, 215). When terrorists choose the location to attack, they often select tourist locations, which, along with media coverage, contributes to creating fear and confusion, thus destabilizing the local or national economy (Pleterski, 2010, 28). Tourism is an important socio-economic activity and terrorist attacks cause the income to drop, thus directly affecting the government of the country affected by terrorism because potential tourists would rather stay home or select a safer destination (Evans, Elphick, 2005, 28). The selection of a destination that would be a site of a terrorist attack is often determined by ideological goals which relate to different values, cultural and socio-economic spheres, and tourists represent a goal for terrorists since they are representatives of “hostile nations” (Pettyford, Harding, 2005, 28). For terrorists, symbolism, good publicity and value of news relate to international travellers and represent essential importance to achieve advantage in their goals so as to create a global problem from a terrorist aim (Pettyford, Harding, 2005, 28).

The type, i.e. the cause of crisis, serves to determine a crisis and to manage it in a timely and proper manner. It serves as a framework to base strategic activity of crisis communication thereon. Unlike other forms of communication, crisis communication functions in accordance with different rules and norms on communication with target audience and media due to specific situations. For crisis communication to be more successful, it is essential to have a crisis plan. Luecke (2005, 69) specifies five levels that assist in creating an efficient crisis plan, as follows: 1) to gather a planning team, 2) to estimate the proportions of a problem/crisis, 3) to draft a plan, 4) to test a plan, and 5) to update a plan. Black (2003, 167-179) also provides instructions on how to draft a crisis plan and it consists of the following six steps: 1) to analyse possible causes of crisis, 2) to prepare a plan, 3) to select staff, 4) to prepare communication capacities, 5) to train the staff, and 6) to simulate crisis situation. Miholić (as cited in Tomić, 2007, 374-376) lists ten steps of crisis communication: 1) to select a crisis communication team, 2) to appoint a spokesperson, 3) to prepare a spokesperson, 4) to define communication channels within the company, 5) to possess one's own list of journalists, 6) the golden triangle rule – “What happened?”, “What are short-term measures?” and “What are long-term measures that will serve as preventive measures in the future?”, 7) to determine the most important target audience, 8) to establish key recommendations, 9) to select communication

methods, and 10) to analyse the crisis. Therefore, it is necessary to be prepared in advance for the crisis by analysing potential threats, creating solutions to get out of the crisis, to educate staff and simulate situations so as to overcome the crisis as successfully as possible.

There are four key variables in all referenced steps of setting up a crisis plan and it is necessary to designate them as precisely as possible before a crisis occurs. These are: 1) to select a person to convey the message, 2) to whom is the person addressing, 3) in what manner, and 4) with what message. Persons conveying the message in a crisis are usually spokespersons of organisations, but, when possible, it is prudent for the role to be taken over by highly positioned employees of the organization such as president of the management board, CEOs and even relevant Ministers.

Given the fact that every crisis is unique, it is difficult to completely decide which audiences should be addressed even in the case of tourism where relevant audiences are more or less known. The public/audience is defined depending on the cause and type of crisis. In general, it is possible to divide the tourist sector in two basic categories – primary and secondary, consisting of four groups of tourist subjects. These are tourist subjects that, in the case of crisis communication, can be an audience (i) which we address or which addresses us. The primary category consists of one group which is made up of tourists, domestic or foreign. The secondary category consists of the remaining three groups; institutions involved in the tourism industry such as ministries, institutes, tourist boards, tourist schools, information centers, etc. Furthermore, the third group consists of service providers such as hotels, hostels, restaurants, cafes, souvenir shops, museums, galleries and other tourism facilities that provide food and beverages, fun, education and other services. The fourth group consists of operative service providers such as travel agencies, transport providers, tourist guides, etc.

Once it is established which audience/public is to be addressed, it is necessary to select the channels, i.e. tools of communication that also depend on the types of crises that occurred, so as to provide timely and true information on the crisis to the target audience. In case of a crisis, the most frequent manner of communication is via press releases, giving statements, press conferences, interviews, etc., and radio and Internet have proven to be the fastest media in disseminating information.

Messages to the public are sent based on the selected strategy, and Heath and Coombs (2006, 205) list four strategies to be used as a response to crisis:

1) *denial strategy* – by which there is denial or an attempt is made to prove that an organization is not responsible for the crisis

2) *derating strategy* – by which it is tried to minimize the responsibility of the organization and seriousness of the crisis

3) *rebuilding strategy* – by which an organization offers compensation and/or apology for the crisis

4) *enhancement strategy* – strategy which, in combination with one of the previous three, includes a presentation on good and successful actions in the past

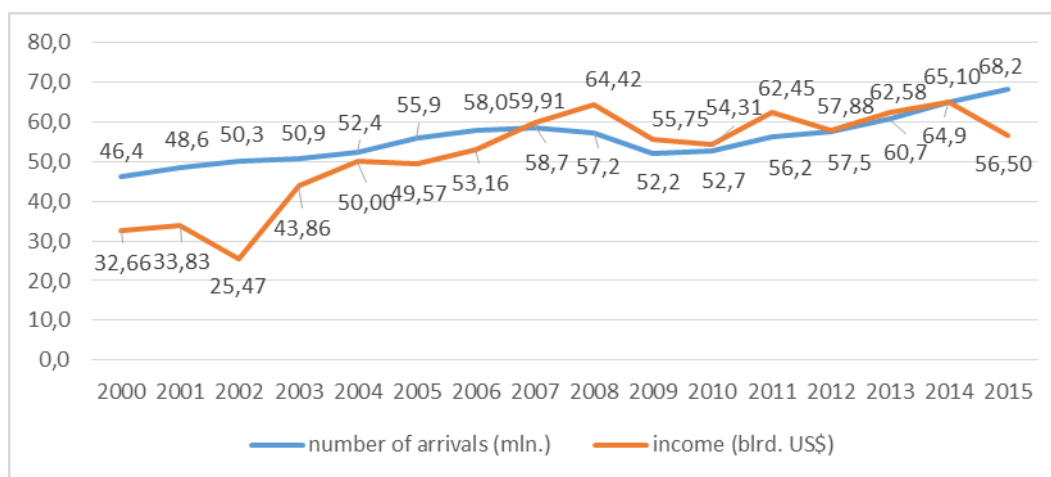
When discussing crisis and crisis communication in tourism and in general, one must not neglect relations with the media during the crisis. It is a well-established rule that the first 24 hours are crucial once crisis breaks, and reactions to the crisis depend on the causes. However, numerous experts list general instructions on behaviour during the crisis and Novak (2001, 159) specifies instructions to follow when a crisis occurs; namely, to acknowledge the existence of a crisis and face the crisis, to activate the crisis communication team, to activate the crisis communication centre, to define facts, all persons involved in communication should convey the same message, to convene a press conference as soon as circumstances allow it, to try to remove damage that occurred and to write down everything that is going on. Essex (2006, 150) states six rules we have to follow if we want to manage a crisis situation successfully, and the rules are: 1) convey your story first, 2) tell it yourself, 3) convey it in its entirety, 4) provide new information as often as possible, 5) if there is something you do not know, say so, and 6) be available.

Therefore, depending on the size and significance of the crisis, in order to have the media on your side, it is prudent to have an information centre that will disseminate new information to the media and that will be available to the media as much as the circumstances allow it. The reason for such conduct is the fact that it is quite difficult to avoid the media, which view the crisis as a “good” story and one of the top five events from the media’s perspective (along with disasters, conflicts, crimes and corruption) (Tomić, 2008, 371). If the media is given valid information in a timely manner, we can decrease the possibility of spreading rumours and speculations regarding the crisis and therefore control the course of communication. Once the crisis has finished, it is necessary to gather the existing communication team that dealt with the crisis situation and analyse the situation so as to reach certain conclusions.

3. Example from Spain: Crisis “Non-Communication” during Terrorist Attacks – Attack on the Atocha Railroad Station in Madrid (2004)

3.1. Importance of Tourism in the Spanish Economy

As mentioned earlier, tourism as one of the fastest growing industries in the world plays an important role in the promotion of a country, its image, and it is an important factor of the national economy. In 2015, tourism in Spain generated 16% of the national GDP, and approximately 2.9 million people were employed in the industry, which makes tourism one of three most important economic branches in Spain (UNWTO, 2016, 3-4). The fact that Spain has is third most visited country in the world bears witnesses to this. In 2015, Spain recorded 68.2 million arrivals, and only France (77.5m) and United States of America (84.5m) achieved better results (UNWTO, 2016, 6). The significance and development of tourism in Spain in the last 20 years is substantiated by exact data referring to the number of tourist arrivals and generated income. Namely, in the period from 2000 to 2015, the number of arrivals increased by 47%, while income increased by 73%. The course and development of these two parameters is presented in the chart below.



Graph 1. Number of arrivals and income in Spain (2000 – 2015) (The World Bank, n.d.; UNWTO, 2016)

3.2. Terrorist Attack in Madrid and Communication Blockage

The terrorist attack on the Atocha central railroad station in Madrid was a series of bomb explosions in public railroad traffic that occurred on 11 March 2004, exactly two-and-a-half

years after the 9/11 attack on the World Trade Centre in New York (11 September 2001), and three days before parliamentary elections in Spain. 191 people were killed in the attack and there were 1800 wounded (Buie, Murray, 2012, 124). The attacks are considered as one of the largest terrorist attacks in the European continent. These were not the first terrorist attacks on Spanish soil. Basque separatists Euskadi ta Askatasuna, known as ETA, and certain minor Islamic groups from Morocco and Algeria, executed minor terrorist attacks in Spain from time to time. The attack in Madrid consisted of 10 bomb explosions which were hidden in luggage, and it occurred early in the morning (between 7:37 and 7:40). The luggage was located in four city trains (*Cercanías*) and the bombs went off during rush hour (Buie, Murray, 2012, 124). At the very beginning of the attack, chaos broke loose and no one knew exactly what happened, and as time went by, the number of victims rose. Fast intervention was needed at the time, from providing assistance to the wounded to informing the public and finding a solution to the crisis situation.

During the terrorist attack, crisis was managed from two directions without any synergy thereof and a lack of strategy to deal with the situation. The crisis situation was being dealt with without any plan. On one hand, the Government of the Kingdom of Spain managed the crisis and, on the other hand, Madrid city authorities did so as well and both stakeholders proved inadequate to cope with the crisis.

The Spanish Government headed by the Prime Minister José Maria Aznar, accused ETA for the attack, and the Basque terrorist group soon rejected all responsibility. Shortly thereafter police found a van with the detonators and verses from Quran and suspected Islamic extremists of the attack (Griffin, 2014, 73). It did not take long before Al-Qaeda took responsibility for the attack and the alleged reason was the Spanish interference in the war in Iraq, which was one of the current topics in the political campaign for the parliamentary elections. Namely, the then Government, headed by the *Partido Popular* (PP) party, which was also a great favourite for winning a new term in office felt the Spanish military intervention should be continued, while the leading opposition party *Partido Socialista Obrero Español* (PSOE) objected the idea and advocated for the Spanish Army to withdraw from Iraq.

During the first hours of the attack in Madrid, the Government was unanimous in blaming the attack on ETA, and this information was published by the Spanish Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the afternoon. One of the reasons why the Aznar Government considered ETA responsible was because the opposition led by PSOE was negotiating a tri-party government with parties that supported left political options which advocated independence of Catalonia and Basque

(Canel, 2012, 126). On the other hand, it did not suit the Aznar Government that Al-Qaeda was behind the attack since that would be an additional argument for the withdrawal of the Spanish Army from Iraq, and that was not what the Aznar government wanted. This would also be perceived as a serious criticism against the Aznar Government for not taking the threats of Osama bin Laden and Al-Qaeda (end of 2003) more seriously when they threatened to attack Spain if Spain did not withdraw from Iraq. Therefore, on the very first day, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs indicated ETA's responsibility for the attacks (Canel, 2012, 218).

In order to express their concern for the current situation but also to express their patriotism, the Aznar Government published the slogan "With victims, with Constitution for the defeat of terrorism". They invited citizens to join a protest march against ETA (Canel, 2012, 217). The public was not satisfied with such treatment of the situation and the communication of the Government. Protests were indeed organised a day before the elections where people accused the Government of lying to the voters and blamed the attacks on them. They had banners with the inscriptions "We want to know the truth before we vote", "Murderers", "Your wars, our people dead", "Liars, liars" (Canel, 2012, 217).

The next day, i.e. second day of the attack, an investigation indicated suspicions of Al-Qaeda involvement based on the van that was found and a video-recording with Quran verses. Prime Minister Aznar defended himself by saying that they did not possess sufficient information when they blamed ETA and that caused negative reactions in the public because the public was confused and not satisfied with the Government that is not well informed and that it failed to inform them adequately (Canel, 2012, 219). Also, activities of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Interior Affairs were considered suspicious, and in mass demonstrations held a day before the elections, people requested the Government to be transparent (Canel, 2012, 219).

It turned out that the Aznar Government did not know how to handle a crisis situation. In 2002, they were also faced with an oil spill in Galicia, in the proximity of La Coruña, and also demonstrated their inability to cope with crisis situations. During the first three days of the attack, until the parliamentary elections, communication of the Aznar Government was apparently too patriotic, and this is considered as one of the reasons why the Aznar Government did not win another term (Canel, 2012, 214-215). Also, the Government was reproached heavily due to the lack of strong initiative at a given moment and better crisis management. In the end, poor government communication ended with failing to frame the problem, and the issue

was shifted from the question of who had attacked to the question of who had lied, which turned on election campaign (Canel, Sanders, 2010, 458).

Besides the Government of the Kingdom of Spain, during the crisis communication was also conveyed by the Madrid City Council that coordinated police, fire departments and emergency services such as *Servicio de Urgencias Médicas de Madrid*² (SUMMA) and *Servicio de Emergencias de la Comunidad de Madrid* (SERCAM), which collected field information at the very beginning of the crisis (Buie, Murray, 2012, 124-125). Since the attack came as a great surprise to all stakeholders, the communication among them was somewhat difficult since they did not use the same communication channel and had to communicate “face to face” or by using personal mobile phones which cannot adequately make up for infrastructural deficiencies in interpersonal communication, especially so because the concern of the Spanish citizens additionally overburdened Spanish mobile service providers (Buie, Murray, 2012, 125). Communication problems did not end there. Dispatch centre employees thought that the attacks on Atocha and Téllez (near-by train station) was a single attack, i.e. that these were two different names for one place, and therefore, police, fire department, medical and other units were sent only to Atocha (Buie, Murray, 2012, 126). The lack of effective communication and overload created additional problems not only for emergency services and authorities but also the public (Buie, Murray, 2012, 126).

On the first day of the attack usage of fixed and mobile phone rose by 725%, which burdened provider networks, creating interference in communication. Usage of Internet rose as well and caused numerous servers to break down in Spain (eDemocracia.com, 17 March 2004). Until 17 March 2004, the website of the *Ministry of Inferior Affairs* was visited by more than four million people to check the list of victims that was published on the Ministry’s website. This caused frequent server breakdowns (El País, 17 March 2004). It is evident that neither the Madrid City Council nor the Government of the Kingdom of Spain were prepared for the attack. There was no predetermined scenario, intervention units were not sufficiently trained, and infrastructure was not prepared for the terrorist attack, which, in the end, resulted in a huge communication chaos filled with different misinformation in the first days of the attack.

² SUMMA and SERCAM are emergency services of Madrid community (City of Madrid and its surroundings), managed by the regional authorities. SUMMA is a medical service only, while SERCAM is an emergency service in general, including fire department, police, etc.

3.3. Consequences of the Terrorist Attack in Madrid

The terrorist attack in Madrid reflected on the tourism as well – while, on one hand, it did not have a direct effect on tourism in Spain, on the other hand, tourism in Madrid faced negative consequences. Due to the terrorist attack, tourists were afraid to visit Madrid and the hotel sector experienced a considerable decrease in the number of stays, between 15 and 20%, in the first few months after the attack, while a decrease of 10% to 15% was experienced in later months (Hosteltur, 10 September 2004). Also, a shock in the Spanish tourism sector occurred after the attacks employment-wise. A sudden decrease in the number of people employed in the sector was visible in the first months after the attack (Hosteltur, 7 March 2005). However, Madrid soon retrieved old figures in tourist arrivals, and according to José Luis Priet, president of the *Traveller's agencies union in Spain*, the royal wedding that took place on 22 May of the same year had a great role therein and neutralised the negative image of Madrid (Hosteltur, 10 September 2004). Also, according to the *World Tourism Organisation* (UNWTO), overcoming the negative influence and avoiding further decrease in number of stays lies with the fact that one of the main tourist markets in Spain are Great Britain and Germany that belong to the “same cultural space” and which viewed the terrorist attack as an isolated event that could have happened anywhere (Hosteltur, 7 March 2005). Negative effects were most evident in the markets of Japan, USA and Mexico, which are rather large receptive markets for Spain (Hosteltur, 7 March 2005). Fortunately, according to Mr. Francesco Frangialli, General Secretary of UNWTO, the terrorist attack influenced tourism in Spain in a limited and temporary manner (Hosteltur, 7 March 2005). Finally, Spain recorded its record-high tourist season in 2004 with 53.6 million international tourists, an increase of 3.4% in comparison to the year before (Hosteltur, 7 March 2005). However, the question remains how much higher the increase would have been if the terrorist attack which affected Madrid, one of the most visited tourist destinations in Spain along with Barcelona, did not happen.

What were the consequences of the terrorist attack on the tourism in Spain is probably best presented in the Exceltur study. Namely, Exceltur is a non-profit organisation consisting of 23 directors of leading tourist agencies in Spain from the field of airline companies, cruises, hotel industry, travel agencies, tour operators, rent-a-car, and etc. It was founded in 2001 with the aim of raising awareness and promoting better knowledge and understanding of the socio-economic importance of tourism and promoting and encouraging higher-level of competitiveness of Spanish tourist industry (Exceltur, n.d.). Soon after the attack on Madrid, Exceltur conducted a research (between 15 March and 8 April) among tourist stakeholders (over 1200)

that dealt with the sale of travel packages in Spain. The research results indicated that the Spanish tourism industry managed to avoid much greater negative effects than expected, especially if we compare it with the negative effects of terrorist attacks that occurred three years earlier in New York, Bali, Kenya, Djerba and Moscow (Zoreda, 2004, 2). Namely, 34% of stakeholders noticed that the terrorist attack in Madrid had negative effects on their sale of travel packages; 10.5% stated that sales dropped 5-10%, while 8.6% stated that sales dropped more than 10% (Zoreda, 2004, 2). This negative effect was noticed the most in stakeholders from Madrid (82%), Valencia (56%) and Catalonia (35.9%) and Andalusia (33.8%) (Zoreda, 2004, 3).

Shortly after the attacks, the royal wedding was held in May 2004 and the event was globally transmitted which neutralised the negative image still present in the international public. In order to additionally neutralise the negative perception caused by the terrorist attack, the local government published their candidacy to host the 2012 Olympic Games, but since they noticed that the negative image was quickly neutralised, and due to the lack of financial and logistical means, they desisted from the idea (Travelmole, 11 May 2004). Also, since the unfortunate event, a change in the mutual communication system occurred. Security checks similar to ones in the airports were introduced to Railroad stations in Madrid regardless of the fact whether the train is traveling to or from Madrid (Travelmole, 11 May 2004). After Zapatero won the elections in 2004, the Government of the Kingdom of Spain directly communicates with the police, intelligence services and sets up new procedures so as to increase efficiency of the security system.

4. Conclusion

As referenced by Atkins and associates (2003, 262), *the mutual well-being of the tourist industry is in the interest and purpose of all stakeholders since interest groups and the local economy depend on the perception derived from outside of the tourist destination*. Natural disasters or those caused by man can lead to a tourist crisis that can have a domino effect and negative consequences on destinations where tourism is an important industry. Therefore, a local but also national tourist industry must find efficient measures against such consequences, otherwise, they can end up in an economic recession where damage caused is much more complex and difficult to solve (Atkins et al., 2003, 262). Coombs (2010, 17) states that the reality of crises leads to the need for preparation and readiness to respond – crisis manage-

ment, and also that the critical component in crisis management is communication. Prepared communication strategies for crisis communication are a necessity so as to neutralise consequences caused by a crisis. With the provided example, the authors indicated that one of the problems that appeared after the terrorist attack in Madrid was the lack of preparedness for such a situation, i.e. there was no institution/organisation that would deal with the matter, nor was there any strategy for crisis communication. More precise protocols before the crisis will be more useful during a crisis. The problem in Madrid was that it was unknown at the very beginning who was behind the attack, who was responsible for starting to solve the crisis, etc. (Canel, 2012, 215). Numerous earlier studies, as well as practice, indicate that a terrorist attack on a tourist destination is a short-term event, i.e. that the consequences are felt in next three to twelve months, and, afterwards, a tourist destination, especially a very popular one, is able to neutralise the negative image caused by the terrorist attack. An example of the mentioned statement is the attack in Madrid in 2004 that was presented in a short case study, but also a terrorist attack during a concert in Paris that occurred in November 2015. Both terrorist attacks, as well as numerous other attacks on tourist destinations showed that these destinations recover relatively quickly, they neutralised the negative image and retained and continued with their continuous growth in regard to the number of arrivals. Of course, this refers to examples where terrorist attacks, i.e. any type of crisis, are not very frequent in a certain country since frequency of the attacks unavoidably causes a tourist destination to lose its potential and strength and also stagnate in development. This is best seen on the example of the countries of the Middle East and North Africa that, due to the frequent crises, no longer are attractive tourist destinations as they were before the crises occurred.

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CRISIS COMMUNICATION IN RESPONSE TO TERRORIST THREAT: CASE STUDY OF FRENCH TOURISM

Goran Pavelin, Ph.D.

Department of Tourism and Communication Studies, University of Zadar, Zadar, Croatia

gpavelin@unizd.hr

Maria Pedić, B.A.

Department of Tourism and Communication Studies, University of Zadar, Zadar, Croatia

mariapedic@gmail.com

Summary

France. Cote d'Azur. Versailles. Paris. For decades all of those have been the crème de la crème when it came to top global tourism destinations to visit. However, in recent years with many unexpected terrorist attacks and threats, this high end status is quickly fading away. After Islamic bombings, the industry has lost more than €750 million and counting as continuous threats seem to strike over and over again. Frédéric Valletoux, head of the Comité Régional du Tourisme Paris Île-de-France stated "It's time to realize that the tourism sector is going through an industrial disaster. This is no longer the time for communication campaigns but to set up a relief plan". That statement speaks volumes as it reinforces the notion that French tourism is going through a rough patch and that there needs to be a set strategic plan for maximum safety including strong a communication strategy geared towards the audiences. Audiences being citizens, tourists but also much broader public as this terrorist phenomenon has become of global concern. The authors will give an insight into how the head institutions of French tourism and mainstream French media are handling crisis communication. The role of both is of crucial relevance as they can be seen as important public opinion holders. It is up to those authorities to pick up the pieces and guard the image of France as a safe tourist destination. Additionally, the authors will examine possible threats that stand in the way of the previously mentioned institutions as they try to establish and preserve credible and timely communication with the general public.

Keywords: top tourist destinations, terrorism attacks, industrial disaster, strategic communication plan, audiences, crisis communication, public opinion holders

1. Introduction

French authorities have been on high alert ever since the Paris attacks of 13 November 2015 that left some 130 citizens dead and many more wounded according to France's Europe 1 Channel (Europe 1, 2016). The attacks were attributed to radical Islamic terrorism, which prompted the French government to declare a state of emergency that is now slated to be lifted at the behest of France's newly-elected President Emmanuel Macron, *Français-Express* reports (*Français-Express*, 2017). However, in that same report, critics have already come out with warnings that President Macron is merely making a PR attempt to boost his ratings among disillusioned French citizens by putting an end to the state of emergency and yet proposing legislation that would set it in stone, legally speaking. One cannot help but wonder how tourism is supposed to unfold within the confines of a budding police state without some sort of backlash on the tourism demand side.

Speaking of tourism, the aftermath of the abovementioned terrorist attacks boded ill for France, especially for the Île-de-France region which according to a study carried out by France's government-funded INSEE saw up to 6.8% and 12.2% fewer guests staying in hotels and other accommodation respectively (INSEE, 2015) in the year 2015. Adjusting the data for international visitors points to a rate of 36.6% fewer foreigners to have travelled to Paris. Arguably, it was not just the mass shootings that drove tourists away from Paris but the execution of French authorities' crisis management plan as well. *Le Monde* had reported then-Prime Minister Valls as saying that terrorism in France was here to stay and that "there would be other attacks to come". (*Le Monde*, 2016) It is no wonder that letting tourists know their beloved destination will see much more terror and bloodshed leads them to change their travel plans at once. Naturally, Mr. Valls' crude remarks came to tourism officials as an unpleasant surprise, which is also stated in the same article. A lapse in crisis management that authorities normally unaffiliated with tourism are entrusted with can wreak havoc on the whole tourism sector, which goes to show that there can be no effective response to terrorism without both parties working closely together to match their policies and statements.

2. Latest Stats on Tourism and Terrorism in Paris

Having drawn attention to the circumstances under which tourism in Paris has had to take shape, the next chapter deals with the latest figures from Paris and the greater Paris area with respect to tourist arrivals. The tables found below have been put together using official stats and offer insight into the ramifications of the recent terror attacks. It is worth noting however that several whistleblowers' statements on the French government's statistics cast doubt on their overall truthfulness. How this bears on the analysis is discussed in further detail in Chapter 4. Of course, the same cannot be said of the studies carried out by independent think-tanks, parts of which have lent themselves to the analysis. The following data have been taken from a study by INSEE:

Table 1. Tourist arrivals and overnight stays in Greater Paris hotels in 2016 (INSEE, 2017)

	Arrivals in 2016	Change from 2015	Overnight stays in 2016	Change from 2015
Foreigners	10 429 390	-8,3%	25 687 160	-11,5%
French	10 748 484	-0,5%	18 328 914	-3,3%
Sum	21 177 874	-4,5%	44 016 074	-8,2%

The first thing to catch the observer's eye is how sharply the number of arrivals and overnight stays has fallen among the foreign population. Whether the drop has to do with foreign news media blowing the terror threat out of proportion calls for another paper on the subject, however a quick search will lead to institutions such as the US State Department issuing travel alerts for all of Europe saying that "US citizens should always be alert to the possibility that terrorist sympathizers and self-radicalized extremists may conduct attacks with little or no warning." (U.S. Passports & International Travel, 2017). While European governments are hard at work fighting terrorism and keeping tabs on potentially dangerous individuals as the travel alerts would have tourists believe, INSEE's aforementioned study paints a starkly different picture of travellers' eagerness to visit Paris. The table below has also been drawn up on account of its data from 2016:

Table 2. Change in arrivals and overnight stays in Greater Paris made by foreign tourists (INSEE, 2017)

Country	Change in arrivals (2016/2015)	Change in overnight stays (2016/2015)
USA	-5,5%	-9,5%
Russia	-28,1%	-29,1%
China	-13,4%	-13,7%
Japan	-41,2%	-39,9%
Belgium	+1,0%	-3,4%
Netherlands	-2,1%	-6,0%
Italy	-25,3%	-29,1%

Although a correlation between lower travel propensity and distance from France to the country of origin can be safely ruled out (an overseas nation such as the United States did not see much change in arrivals as opposed to neighbouring Italy), it should be pointed out that far-away countries such as Russia, China and Japan lent far fewer tourists to Greater Paris in 2016. A survey by the Levada Center (Unian Information Agency, 2017) found that no more than 25% of Russians looked favourably on the European Union back in 2015. The results lend support to the claim that overseas countries like Canada and the US feel bound to Europe's culture, heritage and values. Obviously, the NATO alliance and free trade agreements are the crown jewels of such kinship. Meanwhile, other peoples are not necessarily fond of such a mishmash of tolerance, open borders and terror threats looming over one's shoulder. In fact, Russian Head of Federal Migration Service Konstantin Romodanovsky did not pull any punches calling EU's multiculturalism a failure as reported by the Daily Mail (The Daily Mail, 2016). Not only is tourism a matter of security but it is also a hotbed of cultural exchange where travel can be seen as a silent act of approval of the destination country's ways. In other words, if Russians or Japanese dislike multiculturalism they will not travel to tourist destinations that put it on a pedestal because their consumption of goods and services is taxed, which gives multiculturalism the funds it needs to carry on.

Stopping short of calling it warfare, a clash of civilizations might be taking place in the realm of tourism. Although the year 2015 may have been dreadful as far as tourism demand for Paris, Radio France Internationale (Radio France Internationale, 2016) recently wrote an article on tourism forecasts having been dead wrong about whether tourism in Paris would sink even further below. It also tries to answer why the doomful forecasts had not come true thanks to two things. One is that two major events, the UN Climate Change Conference (also known as COP21) and the Euro 2016 soccer tournament were held without incident the previous year as

security measures had apparently been carried out with flying colours. The other is that countries such as Brazil, Japan, Russia etc. are believed to overcome their recent economic hardships and that their citizens will have more disposable income for meeting tourist needs afterwards. Of course, such a positive outlook does not account for any other terrorist attacks happening on French soil.

If the French tourism sector wants to get back on its feet on the international stage, the first thing it will worry about is the safety of its visitors. Not only does the French government together with the police and counterterrorism units have to take extra steps to keep them out of harm's way, but it must also win their trust back insofar as shootings, road rage and bombings are no longer commonplace because such horror gives the tourist destination a lot of bad press. Before the paper gets on with crisis communication it should be noted that the current climate in Paris begs a few questions. The first is: How safe do the citizens of France feel in their own country? A survey undertaken by Odoxa-Fiducial (Odoxa-Fiducial, 2017) in early 2017 dug just deep enough to find out whether citizens had the heart to go about their daily lives after everything the country had been through. As it turns out, 48% of respondents feel threatened occasionally whereas 13% of the study sample said danger sought them out frequently. In that same vein, 55% of survey participants harboured little or no hope that the French government could ensure their safety. Upon further inquiry respondents overwhelmingly said no to whether terrorism, theft, violence and other sorts of crime could be curbed by the newly formed administration. Former president Hollande was met with poor ratings as 65% of the people surveyed were unhappy with the way he had dealt with threats to national security. Although 41% and 23% of the responses were in favour of voting for rightwing and far-right candidates for President, the outcome of French presidential elections would usher in political outsider Emmanuel Macron. Nevertheless, more people are on board with his security policy since December 2017 according to survey results.

Having scratched the surface on security, INSEE's study on Paris (INSEE, 2017) ought to be dug into one last time. Some 7000 foreign tourists, 93% of whom had never been to Paris before were asked if they thought Paris was a safe place to be. Not more than 64% of them agreed with the statement and interestingly enough the data was gathered in May 2015, that is to say months before the deadly November 13 attacks. Coincidentally, it is the latest data available from INSEE at the time of writing this paper so there is no way to know if the number has gone up or down in the meantime (admittedly, previous studies from INSEE on

tourism in Paris have not asked questions about security, which makes it hard to make a timeline and calculate trends).

Part of this chapter has gone on at great lengths about surveys and what ordinary citizens had on their minds. It would only be fair to see what experts have to say on the issue of security in Paris. The Economist and the Intelligence Unit came out with a joint report (The Economist & Intelligence Unit, 2015) in 2015 sharing their findings on urban security. A total of 50 cities were ranked by overall safety tallying scores in 4 major categories: (1) digital security, (2) health security, (3) infrastructure safety and (4) personal safety. Having weighted all 4 categories, Paris comes in 23rd in the rankings and is beaten by cities such as Brussels, Madrid, Frankfurt and Washington DC, but not by a wide margin. Further to the rankings, Stockholm is the safest city in Europe whereas Tokyo, Singapore and Osaka have the highest scores in overall safety. The next table shows Paris' score weighed against the individual safety indicators along with the winning city:

Table 3. Paris' score in 4 major categories compared to leading cities (The Economist & Intelligence Unit, 2015)

Category	Paris	1 st Place
Digital security	#32, 58.4/100	Tokyo, 87.18/100
Health security	#5, 76.95/100	Zurich, 79.05/100
Infrastructure safety	#26, 78.22/100	Zurich, 92.63/100
Personal safety	#24, 71.29/100	Singapore, 90.42/100

First and foremost, the category "personal safety" owes the reader an explanation. The Safe Cities Index (The Economist & Intelligence Unit, 2015, 36) says it "considers how secure individual citizens are from theft and violence. On the input side, the index takes into account factors such as the level of police engagement, the use of data-driven crime prevention and the overall political stability of the country where each city is located. On the output side, the index takes into account the prevalence of petty and violent crime as well as drug use, and how safe people feel in the city". The score Paris was awarded is by no means a low one. Citizens may be worse off in some areas such as digital security and infrastructure safety but there is hard proof that Paris is still a far cry from the world's worst slums.

Moreover, a team of experts over at Verisk Maplecroft have put together a list of the world's biggest hotbeds of terror. Even though data itself is locked behind a paywall, the Daily Mail (The Daily Mail, 2015) has taken it upon itself to disclose a smidgen of the study. For example, the top 10 cities where terrorists are most likely to strike are nowhere near Europe, much less France:

Table 4. Top 10 list of cities with elevated terror threat (The Daily Mail, 2015)

City, country	Rank (from most likely to least)
Baghdad, Iraq	1
Mosul, Iraq	2
Al Ramadi, Iraq	3
Ba'qubah, Iraq	4
Kirkuk, Iraq	5
Al Hillah, Iraq	6
Peshawar, Pakistan	7
Benghazi, Libya	8
Quetta, Pakistan	9
Hassu Khel, Pakistan	10

While the table above bears good news for European tourist destinations Verisk Maplecroft did not turn a blind eye to such cities that may or may not be in the crosshairs of various terror cells. It is important to look at the next table from a global standpoint so as to not jump to the wrong conclusion. If Verisk Maplecroft's intelligence is anything to go by, the vast majority of European destinations have a long way to go before sinking to Baghdad's level.

Table 5. Top 10 list of cities in Europe by terror threat

City, country	Global rank (from most dangerous to least)
Belfast, Northern Ireland	90
Paris, France	97
Athens, Greece	113
Brussels, Belgium	117
Berlin, Germany	214
Nicosia, Cyprus	239
Pristina, Serbia	257

Tirana, Albania	314
Skopje, Macedonia	323
Monaco	340

Clearly, all it takes is one glance to understand that there are many tourist destinations on the list (Athens, Berlin...) that owing to terrorism have had to compete for safety, which inextricably binds tourism to local and national law enforcement, intelligence agencies, counterterrorism operations and public relations workers for the sake of its future growth and development.

3. Crisis Communication

Tourism just like any other activity, profession or trade can be taken by storm whenever bad things happen irrespective of who or what may be behind them. Oftentimes it is not easy walking in the shoes of a corporate employee, as Anthonissen (2008, 8) is quick to put it: “It almost goes without saying that publicly listed companies are extra-sensitive to bad news.” The same author (2008, 8) did not shy away from acknowledging the wide gap between corporate and political life:

“Politics also has its share of crisis situations. Crises are an essential component of the political world. Party politics is, in fact, a political conflict model. The House of Commons in Britain is the best illustration of the point: the members of parliament of the majority and the minority parties sit facing one another. It is therefore desirable to conclude that crisis situations in political life are desirable, planned or created. This is an essential difference with business. Competing companies also torment one another mercilessly, but management is primarily concerned with avoiding crisis situations or, if possible, preventing them entirely.”

That said, because tourism blurs the line between politics and economy it is, as a rule of thumb, compelled to eke out a living trying to find common ground for both worlds. Another thing worth spelling out is the plethora of stakeholders that follow each enterprise closely. Inasmuch as Anthonissen (2008) put corporations in his sight, much of what he writes about carries over into tourism very easily. So-called stakeholders are not just limited to shareholders. Today’s business has to bend its knee to a slew of parties that watch over a particular company’s activities. Said author (Anthonissen, 2008, 10) put many such actors on a shortlist: “trade unions, environmental associations, animal rights organizations, action groups of all kinds, the unavoidable TV, radio and printed press, the bloggers, but also, bankers, financial

analysts, securities watchdogs, governments and parliaments with investigative commissions”. To put it briefly, there is no shortage of people who will rally against the slightest misstep a (travel) company makes because it gave them the cold shoulder. The digital age breathes life into a golem that is made of many cogs and gears which have been conveniently named stakeholders. Those who shake their heads disapprovingly and say otherwise are in for a rude awakening given that Anthonissen (2008, 11) lay out what he calls ‘annoying threats’ to companies that are ill-equipped to deal with crises in a series of bullet points:

- boycott of the company’s products or services;
- collapse of the share’s price;
- serious legal claims;
- the loss of credit;
- possible bankruptcy;
- serious damage to the company’s image and reputation;
- threatened loss of corporate senior and middle management;
- possible closure of the company or parts of it.

Whether owners like it or not, companies either answer to society at large for their actions or disrespect it at their peril. The beginning of this chapter undoubtedly beats around the bush when it comes to shedding light on crisis management in tourism. Henceforth, the next few paragraphs will deal exclusively with tourism. Glaesser (2003, 14) writes that “anywhere where competitive advantage is easily open to attack or can be destroyed by negative events, preventive crisis management plays a particular role. This applies, in general, for tourism, which, like no other sector, works with imaginary values and making dreams come true”. Therein lies the answer to why tourism should be held to different standards with regards to crisis management. Imaginary values are part and parcel of businesses that sell services, however tourism goes the extra mile to help travellers live out their dreams as best as it can. Whoever sets lofty goals is open to attack and travel companies fit the bill like no other. Glaesser (2003) taps into the immaterial nature of tourism, a property that makes it hard for buyers to make up their mind on a tourism product seeing that they owe their uncertainty to the distance between the location of purchase and the location of consumption. Glaesser (2003, 17) was also kind enough to broach the term ‘tourism product’ from an information-economic angle

saying it is “a belief or trust product that demands that the supplier is able to reduce uncertainty and risk, above all, in relations with potential customers”. Crisis management is therefore all about building bridges between potential customers who feel uneasy about the tourism product and the seller who soothes their worries whenever a crisis breaks out.

Glaesser (2003) makes an effort to frame crisis management within the bounds of communication. In theories such as conviction assessment, mass media takes so much credit for shaping the recipient's opinion on a given piece of news that many have blown the whistle out of fear for its supposed cunning. Interesting as it might sound, most researchers have dialled back on conviction assessment and begun thinking about the strengthening hypothesis instead. According to the hypothesis, recipients of information from mass media generally look no further than what they have already learned about a certain event so any new information will only embolden the recipient's opinion so long as the news does not run contrary to their prior stance on the event, in which case the input from mass media will fly right over their head. Lastly, the agenda-setting approach has been at the centre of media research for some time now. Glaesser (2003, 26) explains that “by making certain events a subject of discussion, the media decides whether there is a place for them in public discussion. This is awarded a selection function, which applies, above all, if it concerns topics outside of the recipient's personal sphere of experience. Once this selection takes place, the media structures the themes that are subjects of the discussion by assigning them preferences.” Consequently, those who draft an effective crisis response plan are well aware of the news media's inner workings and how such foreknowledge can ward off or overcome negative coverage altogether.

What are some negative events that put a tourism product in jeopardy? Glaesser (2003) lays them out across two axes: (1) degree of control and (2) speed of onset. Even though ‘events’ are normally thought of as sudden happenings that catch those bearing witness off guard, the author also points to events that are not fully set off until long after they begin. Examples of such negative events that can beset tourism are fires, hurricanes, reduction in number of bookings, earthquakes, terrorism, hotel overbooking, crime waves, water pollution, currency fluctuations and epidemics.

For the purposes of this paper, it is important to build the framework of communication policy from which crisis policy draws much. Glaesser (2003, 223) states that “the principle task of communications policy is to convey information with the aim of influencing and guiding consumer behaviour, opinions and expectations.” Glaesser (2003) also hints that traditionally,

most of the aforementioned information has been geared towards consumers in the sales market, but nowadays the boundaries have shifted to include the wider social environment and the employees of the organization. This is particularly true of tourism where a negative event may compel it to reach out to a large swath of such a communication sphere. Speaking of risk communication, it seeks to keep the company in good stead with customers and let them know what exactly could hurt their trust or put a strain on such friendship in the long run. Glaesser (2003, 224) asserts that “crisis communication, on the other hand, begins suddenly. It describes the attempt, after a negative attempt has occurred, to minimize its consequences with the instruments of the communication policy and steer to such an extent that credibility is retained for product relaunch activities”. There are a number of instruments of communication policy at an enterprise’s disposal. Glaesser (2003) starts with the reputation aspect which is said to fulfil an important role even under ordinary circumstances. Reputation is built on the organization’s past actions and undertakings. If it has a good track record and no major incidents have sullied its image, there is a greater likelihood that initial media coverage will spare the organization any misgivings on the condition that journalists and investigators be met with consistent statements and steadfastness, which makes reputation an invaluable asset and the most powerful instrument of crisis policy. Conversely, it only shines through in critical situations that do not take place repeatedly. Despite the fact that guidebooks and manuals on crisis communication tell readers to be wary of negative events, conventional wisdom in the field suggests organizations seize the moment while it is getting free press in the wake of an incident. Kroeber-Riel (1993 as cited in Glaesser, 2003, 229) seems to confirm this in “that consumers only take notice of 2 per cent of general media and 5 per cent of advertising information due to information overload”.

Heath (2010, 7) warns not to allow managerial bias to lead the crisis response team off track. Namely, prior to putting the finishing touches on the crisis communication directed at those who are still reeling from an unfortunate event care should be taken to bear all involved parties (victims) in mind. If it misses the mark when it comes to addressing the public’s calls for transparency, the offending company will have surely set itself up to reap a bad harvest for its good name and standing.

Drawing on Heath’s warning much the same could be said of travel/hospitality companies that have had to dust off their crisis communication handbooks after a slip-up or botched arrangement, some of which may have at worst harmed tourists physically or claimed a few

lives. While shareholders and others with stakes in the business will gnash their teeth at the thought of losing their precious assets, in the grand scheme of things they are by far much better-off than the aforementioned tourists. The crisis response team therefore has to tread such ground carefully because making statements that appease only one set of stakeholders (in this case investors, creditors etc.) is bound to leave tourists scratching their heads as the company seems more worried about its earnings than their welfare.

Covello (2009, 147-148) digs into media reporting as a factor in the risk management equation laying bare the framework that fosters an environment where the desire for accurate reporting is overawed by professional and organizational policy. Journalists and reporters are beholden to newsworthiness in that editorial guidelines are rigged in favour of emotionally charged stories as they are thought to boost television ratings, readership, attract lots of attention etc. Naturally, such reporting is rife with omissions and inaccuracies. Headlines are in many cases written by someone other than the author of the article and their job does not necessarily have anything to do with keeping the record straight. To top it off, journalists are in all likelihood not know-it-alls on subjects like chemistry, biology, ecology, statistics or engineering. Work is often shuffled from one desk to another and journalists are expected to write about topics they may not know the first thing about. Furthermore, media organizations are oftentimes short on resources to carry out in-depth research on subject matters their readers or viewers would like to learn more about.

All of the above should come as a friendly piece of advice to crisis management. Losing sight of the news media's shortcomings most assuredly means running the risk of fumbling the crisis response in general and thereby putting the company's trustworthiness at stake. Further below is testament to the ills that can strike not just a particular company but an entire country as a travel destination when the effort to win back tourists' trust miscarries.

4. Crisis Communication in France

Irrefutably, an in-depth analysis of France's crisis communication policy has been called for many times throughout the paper and already done to a particular degree. Given the theoretical knowledge and numerous studies that have been broken down into language palatable to someone who is well-versed in tourism, the only thing left on the agenda is to go through the record set by French officials and key stakeholders in French tourism as far as crisis

communication up to the time of writing this paper. For the analysis to kick off to a good start, a trendsetting spokesman for all of France should be given the spotlight. Naturally, that would be President Macron who has certainly had a lot of peculiar things to say since even before his inauguration. Leading UK news outlet The Guardian (The Guardian, 2017) ran a story on then-Candidate Macron in late April 2017 who was quoted as saying terrorism would be part of the nation's daily life for years to come. Whether such words rolled off the tongue exactly the way he had intended for his listeners is a hot potato for interpreters, however Glaesser (2003, 230) has much to say on the content of crisis communication: "In first place is the portrayal of the responsibility and dismay of the organization. Here, it should be underlined that the incident is taken so seriously that it is the highest level of authority that is responsible and manages the situation." Despite the well-established fact that France has been the staging ground for a number of terrorist attacks (as well as foiled terror plots), the highest level of authority embodied in the role of president seems to have been dragged into the gutter whilst its present occupier thinks lightly of responsibility. The president also seems to be on board former Prime Minister Manuel Valls' train of thought who, according to Le Figaro (Le Figaro, 2015), told a group of students to "get used to living with the threat of terrorist attacks". Even if the content of their crisis communication is poor by Glaesser's standards because there is not a dash of dismay from authorities, it is nevertheless consistent. Europe 1's (Europe 1, 2015) interview of Matthias Fekl, Secretary of State, candidly casts him as yet another official who toes the line of relativism and puts a positive spin on recent events singling out Paris as one of the very few tourist destinations in France to have recorded fewer overnight stays. The narrative also shifts towards collective responsibility of the European Union for failing to keep terrorism at bay, as if national governments had been abolished after the succession of individual states to the Union. Les Entreprises du Voyage (Les Entreprises du Voyage, 2017) have slapped together a set of propositions for the French presidential candidates to bear in mind as one of them wins the presidential race and comes up with a new policy on tourism. The document raises an interesting point in that two major events such as COP21 and the Euro 2016 championship put French authorities back on the map security-wise. It proved naysayers wrong when they thought more people were going to be hurt. If the French government had highlighted successful events in terms of security some more instead of releasing dubious statements, such content of crisis communication would have lifted disenfranchised travellers' spirits.

Scaglione (2007, 21) strikes out on her own with a different approach to negative events. Her definition is that „these events vary in their seriousness, and the difficulty of overcoming them. What is common to these situations is the need to:“

- deal immediately with the crisis itself
- respond to the concerns and needs of the people directly affected
- minimize the damage which might result from adverse publicity and consequent loss of custom; and
- resolve difficulties with suppliers and other business partners

In light of everything that has been dealt with in this chapter, there is ample reason to believe French authorities did not think much of bullet points #2 and #3. The other lesson to learn here is that the news media will give no quarter to those who do not get their crisis communication policy right. L'Express (L'Express, 2017) recently came out with a headline poignantly titled 'the hidden face of the new French record' getting to the bottom of the latest watershed moment in France's tourism industry. Although forecasts look promising and formerly discouraged travellers are supposedly enthralled with France once again, the article goes in depth about statistical flaws in French tourism recordkeeping. For instance, 45% of tourists will only stay in the country for one or two days and many of them are just passing through to Italy or Spain. On top of that, a single visitor coming to France several times a year (such as a foreigner who owns property in France) will be counted as a unique visitor every time they enter the country. The sum of tourism receipts has been in freefall since 2014, which pulls the rug from under the official narrative and makes it seem like a lot of hot air. Didier Arino, director of the Protourisme board, makes it clear that it is nigh impossible to have such an influx of visitors and yet at the same time see revenue from tourism dwindle at a constant rate. Thanks to the government's makeshift crisis communication policy, the news media have been all too eager to look for flaws and inconsistencies in its factbooks while other public figures seem happy to help the media dismantle the 'feel-good' narrative it tries to shore up. In the end, workers and officials in the tourism industry are left to fend for themselves with hasty attempts at damage control.

5. Conclusion

For the record, the goal of this paper was to come up with an answer to a tourism industry breaking at the seams. Regrettably, much of what was taken from interviews, the news, manuals, studies and analyses boiled down to pointing out mistakes and bad moves in crisis management. Virtually all of the tourism industry's stakeholders have dropped the ball trying to bring back a climate of trust and security. From the government giving up on cracking down on terrorism on live television and citizens speaking out about their perceived insecurity on the streets to tourism experts lashing out at authorities for publishing misleading data, there is no shortage of things to be upset about.

Presumably, this unfortunate chain of events was set off at the highest levels of authority when there had apparently been no crisis response plan for years to terror leaving its bloody mark in France's top tourist destinations. The tourism industry has become a victim of its own success seeing that expectations run high for it to fill in any gaps left behind by other industries with receipts while its woes fall on deaf ears because it is not in a position of authority. Despite that, lobbying, no matter how insignificant at first, can yield enviable results as long as it is kept up. Without good will or an establishment to back it up, the government is unlikely to feel the need for a coordinated crisis communication policy. For this reason, Didier Arino's jabs at slowpoke government, aided and abetted by the news media, seem to be the best way to go about changing its views on whether terrorism can be successfully fought.

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LEGISLATION AS AN ATTEMPT TO MANIPULATE MEDIA ACTIVITY IN CROATIA IN THE CASE OF THE “25,000- WORDS CRITERION”

Snježana Barić-Šelmić, M.A.

Doctoral School of the Josip Juraj Strossmayer University in Osijek, Osijek, Croatia
baricselmic@kulturologija.unios.hr, snjezana.baric@gmail.com

Tomislav Levak, M.A.

Doctoral School of the Josip Juraj Strossmayer University in Osijek, Osijek, Croatia
tlevak@kulturologija.unios.hr, tomo.levak@gmail.com

Saša Blažeković, M.A.

Doctoral School of the Josip Juraj Strossmayer University in Osijek, Osijek, Croatia
sasa.blazekovic@epikratos.hr

Summary

Despite establishing a multi-party democratic system since Croatian independence in 1990, there have been several cases when state authorities directly or indirectly tried or failed to control the media, or to interfere with editorial policy. One of the most famous cases occurred in June 2013, when the Parliament adopted a new VAT Act, proposed by the Government. According to the Act, a reduced, 5% VAT rate was imposed only on those daily newspapers considered to be general information press, who published journalistic contributions amounting to at least 25,000 words per issue. In the opinion of professionals and the public opinion, this proposal was directly aimed against the tabloid newspaper *24sata*, often publishing critical articles about the then Prime Minister Milanović and the ruling SDP. The case quickly ended before the Constitutional Court, suspending the provision's implementation, followed by its withdrawal in November 2013.

This unique “25,000-words criterion” case is analysed as a case study, using several methods: description and analysis of selected daily newspapers (*Večernji list*, *Jutarnji list*, *24sata*, *Glas Slavonije*). The authors attempt to determine whether and to what extent such legal provisions were directed specifically at *24sata*, and the interpretative framework of each of the parties involved – politicians, media, corporations and the public.

Keywords: media, *24sata*, “25,000-words criterion”, manipulation, media policy, legislation

1. Introduction

The development of a democratic society and *the media society* is today justifiably brought into correlation, primarily due to the emergence and rapid expansion of different types of media, especially those contributing to a faster flow of information, while at the same time deeply penetrating the society and having an apparent influence and impact on it and the citizens (Čerkez, 2009, 28). Michael Kunczik and Astrid Zipfel (2006, 125) state that mass communication affects the behaviour and experience of their recipients. Attention is primarily directed at the strong influence mass media have on society, as they represent the most influential mediators in forming the citizens’ general interests, values and political orientations (Čerkez, 2009, 28).

According to the same author (2009, 30), “the multiparty system, the tripartite government, respect for human rights and media freedom, are the basic features of democracy”. The media’s role is transmitting information and representing an information channel in the political sphere, with media freedom being one of the facets of democratic regulation. Quinn (1999, 11-12) states that there is no institution more important to the development of democratic societies than free media. Such would be the situation in ideally established societies. However, many media practitioners and experts, emphasize that we live in an information society, concluding that the claim “he who governs information – governs society” is correct (Čerkez, 2009, 29). Also, since “the media are a large and lucrative business” (Tomić, 2016, 695), it is unsurprising that media freedom is often directly or indirectly endangered.

The functioning, objectivity, level of independence and even the level of popularity of media often depend on their relationship with the political authorities of the local community, state or region in which they operate. One of the best examples is the current national government in Russia led by President Vladimir Putin, which has owned or controlled almost all television stations and news agencies since 2000 (Kovalev, 24 March 2017). In Croatia, the last major attempt by state authorities to directly influence the media occurred in 2013, when the Parliament adopted a new Value Added Tax (VAT) Act, whereby a reduced VAT rate of 5% was used to tax only those daily newspapers that published at least 25,000 words per issue. In the opinion of professionals and the public, the proposal was directly aimed against the daily tabloid newspaper *24sata*, which was often critical towards the ruling Social Democratic Party (SDP) and their Prime Minister.

The authors analysed this unique case, known as the “25,000-words criterion”, from several aspects, as a case study, using a multimethod approach. Given the lack of scientific literature on this relatively new example, many sources were consulted, primarily relevant daily newspapers and online news outlets, to obtain the most accurate answers to the proposed research questions.

2. Media Policy – Definitions, Attributes and Actors

According to Nada Zgrabljić (2003, 62), “media policy is, in the broadest sense, society’s attempt to legally determine the media discourse in the social discourse system”. Since this is a broad term, whose more detailed elaboration would exceed the scope of this paper, the authors considered only its most important components, i.e. by providing basic definitions, features and actors of media policy, with a brief overview of the situation in Croatia.

Garnham (1998) believes media policy is the way in which public authorities form or try to form structures and practices in the media, while Freedman (2008) describes the term as “a shortened description of formal and informal strategies, supported by special interests, values and goals that shape mechanisms for creating structure, direction and behaviour in particular media environments”. These definitions are combined by Kurtić (2014, 277), arguing that media policy is the way public authorities (governments and public administrations) use regulatory and administrative measures that are binding at the national and international level

to shape media structures and practices in order to achieve various economic, political and socio-cultural interests and goals.

The main protagonists in media policy are the media industry, governments and parliaments (national political system), intersectoral institutions, political parties, media associations, trade unions, transnational participants, regional and local actors (Kurtić, 2014, 279). This particularly applies to at least one of the two groups of media policy-makers with specific goals and interests: (1) protagonists led by political interests, to whom the control and regulation of mass media primarily represents the control over political discourse, and political orientation of voters; (2) protagonists motivated by economic interests who “are in favour of a deregulated market of information, communication and entertainment, where media content will be treated as any other commodity” (Kurtić, 2014, 279). An overview of conditions in Croatia in recent years indicates that all listed participants are represented in the Croatian society, and their situation and media relations largely depend on the *media society*.

2.1. Croatian Media Policy in Recent History

Although freedom and openness of the media to different ideas and the critical role of the media in the political and social system (Antunović, 2000, 45) were erected as the main goals of media policy creation in Croatia nearly two decades ago, they are still not realized, and media policy is still not fully defined. Croatia’s media stage is plagued by an unsatisfactory value system for creating media policy that would respect its specific political, cultural and economic responsibilities, as well as comply with European democratic standards (Zgrabljić, 2003, 60).

There are several major problems, e.g. the Croatian media are still largely in the gap between public and private, since it remains undefined whether the primary interest is for the media to be owned by the government, controlled or commercialized (McChesney, 2003, 132). Furthermore, in the age of globalization, stakeholders influencing media policy are not just members of national governments but are part of supranational bodies and transnational networks and corporations (Chakravartty, Sarikakis, 2006, 6). The third issue is rooted in the decade following the first parliamentary elections of 1990 in Croatia, when institutional and

legal democratic frameworks were set up and many media laws were adopted, but there was no emancipation of media from politics and state power (Peruško Čulek, 1999).

The current legal and media regulation indicates that almost no legal act followed the immense changes in the sector. The Media Act (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia¹ 81/13) and the Electronic Media Act (OG 94/13) were last amended in 2013, the Croatian Radio and Television (HRT) Act (OG 76/12) saw the last serious intervention a year before that, while The Croatian News Agency (HINA) Act has not been amended since 2001 (OG 96/01). The case is similar for media regulations adopted by the Croatian Electronic Media Council. On the other hand, the Journalists Code of Honor as an umbrella self-regulatory media act and regularly updated by the Croatian Journalists' Association (HND) (Hnd.hr, 2016), is often not properly applied in practice, much like the codes of honor of some media newsrooms.

These laws are often violated during implementation, e.g. the law establishes HRT as a “public institution” that “promotes public interest”, “is responsible to the public” (Article 13) and autonomously manages its functioning without political interference (Article 14). (Zgrabljic, 2003, 67) Although the provisions have not changed in the meantime, HRT's administration is unreservedly elected and co-opted by the ruling political authorities, and commercial content of questionable public interest is often aired. Considering all this, it is unsurprising that since Croatia's independence in 1990 there have been a number of cases in which state or local political authorities directly or indirectly attempted to control the media or to interfere in their editorial policy.

3. Attempts by Croatian Authorities to Influence the Media

Leading political authorities reacted or tried to intervene mostly in newspapers as “the initial hothouse of public opinion” (Inglis, 1997, 25); specifically, “print media, in such cases of transitional media turmoil, remain linked with politics and politicians who manipulate them, because journalists are dependent on information and sources in their competition for readers” (Zgrabljic, 2003, 65). Media privatization was mostly carried out under political pressures (as

¹ “Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia” – henceforth in the text “OG”

evidenced by the example of *Slobodna Dalmacija*) and without establishing mechanisms of ownership transparency and public oversight to prevent concentration and monopolization.

This phenomenon is defined by Splichal (2000) as “political capitalism” and characterizes all transitional countries in Central and Eastern Europe (Zgrabljčić, 2003, 65). The analysed case of the *24sata* daily newspaper, as well as several current events on the Croatian media scene, proves that the situation has not changed much, despite the emergence of new media.

3.1. The “Feral Tribune” Case

Before the introduction of the “25,000-words criterion”, the most famous example of attempts to influence certain Croatian media dates back to the early 1990s. The great dissatisfaction of the then state government, headed by the Croatian Democratic Union (HDZ) and Croatian President Franjo Tuđman, with the exceptionally critical writing of the Split-based political-satirical weekly magazine *Feral Tribune*, of leftist political orientation, had become a latent and open public conflict. Magdalenić Bantić and Šeparović (2015, 300-301) point out that Tuđman and other authorities dealt in various ways with the editors and journalists of the magazine. *Feral Tribune*’s chief editor, Viktor Ivančić, was suddenly mobilized into the Croatian Army in the spring of 1994. In July 1994, the Ministry of Culture determined the magazine had to pay a high turnover tax of 50%, otherwise intended for pornographic content, a decision abolished in 1995 by the Constitutional Court. In 1996, a new Criminal Code was adopted, according to which “the State Attorney’s Office was solicited to protect the head of the state – the President, Prime Minister, Head of the Parliament and the President of the Constitutional Court from insults and defamation” (Magdalenić Bantić, Šeparović, 2015, 302). Based on that, several journalists from *Feral Tribune* were taken to court for defamation and emotional distress. The government attempted to put pressure on *Feral Tribune* in other ways as well, with the magazine experiencing many other unpleasanties from its opponents. To illustrate, in June 1995, a group of bullies in Split had ripped away issues of the magazine from street vendors and citizens, burning and throwing them away (Tomičić, 9 June 2013). Despite all this, journalists of *Feral Tribune* continued to write critically and provocatively after Tuđman died in December 1999, even after 2003 when the government was taken over by a leftist coalition. Due to financial problems, the magazine stopped being published in June 2008.

3.2. The “Radio 101” Case

Another important case remembered as a clear intention of “disciplining” undesirable media by the government is the famous event from autumn 1996 involving Zagreb’s *Radio 101*, provoking fierce reactions of the domestic and foreign public.

“On 20 November 1996, the Telecommunication Council, under the control of the then government, decided to take away the broadcasting concession of *Radio 101*, one of the few independent electronic media that criticized the authoritarian rule and violation of civil and media freedom, primarily freedom of speech. This decision had led to a culmination of dissatisfaction and an outcry by citizens belonging to all political options and ideological attitudes” (HINA, 21 November 2016).

A day later the largest Croatian civil demonstration for the freedom of media and public speech was held, at which “120,000 citizens with candles in their hands gathered at Ban Jelačić Square” (HINA, 21 November 2016). Magdalenić Bantić and Šeparović (2015, 305) describe how “Zagreb rose as never before”, pointing out that many foreign organizations and institutions reported on the situation: British Foreign Office, German and French Foreign Ministry, EU, US State Department and others. The heads of state, especially President Tuđman, were extremely dissatisfied with these negative, critical reactions, caving under pressure and *Radio 101* received its concession. Unlike *Feral Tribune*, *Radio 101* still exists, albeit with far less impact and popularity than at the time of the mentioned demonstrations.

4. Methodological Approach, Research Objectives and Results

The authors believe that the “25,000-words criterion” is a unique, complex and, in many of its features, specific media case in Croatia, requiring an in-depth approach. It is analysed as a case study, combining within it several qualitative and quantitative research methods. In the observed period – 30 May to 30 November 2013 – four daily newspapers (*24sata*, *Jutarnji list*, *Večernji list* and *Glas Slavonije*) were analysed, encompassing 55 articles directly or indirectly dealing with the “25,000-words criterion”. The source of the analysis was the content of four Croatian daily newspapers, where *Večernji list*, *Jutarnji list*, *24sata* and *Glas Slavonije* were selected for study. The basic criterion for choosing the first three newspapers was the readership share, i.e. their sales and national reach. As for *Glas Slavonije*, it was chosen for three reasons: a) although it is nominally a daily newspaper of regional character, it is also distributed through the national sales network; b) along with *Glas Istre*, it is the most widely read regional daily in Croatia (AZTN, 17 November 2017) and c) the authors wanted

to determine how a daily newspaper not belonging to either of the leading two print media groups in Croatia approached the main topic.

4.1. The “25,000-words Criterion” Case Study

According to Tkalac Verčić, Sinčić Ćorić and Pološki Vokić (2010), “a case study method is used to analyze in depth an occurrence, process, institution, person, group or event (...). The method is appropriate if one wishes to answer ‘how’ and ‘why’ certain circumstances/facts/situations/events occurred”. In a case study there needs to be an analysis “of the case itself (its features), the historical perspective of the case (if important for the case) and the social context in which the case occurred” (Tkalac Verčić, Sinčić Ćorić, Pološki Vokić, 2010). The authors hold that these elements are met within the research scope, with the multimethod approach assuring the research can be described as a case study.

The research included two basic methods: the descriptive method and analysis of selected daily newspapers over a given time period. The authors wanted to answer three research questions: a) Has the government tried to influence media freedom in Croatia, under the guise of harmonizing legal regulations with the *acquis communautaire* and the supposed promotion of higher quality journalism (in-depth, investigative and analytical)?; b) Was the “25,000-words criterion” actually an attempt to punish only one media outlet (*24sata*) which criticized the government more than other media? and c) Did *24sata* and *Večernji list*, as part of the same media group that was directly affected by the government through the above-mentioned legal provisions, report more on this issue and more negatively than other Croatian daily newspapers? In addition, by identifying the political and social context of the case and by comparing it briefly with similar cases (*Feral Tribune*, *Radio 101*), the authors wanted to determine what was (and why) the interpretative framework of the “25,000-words criterion” for each party involved – politics, media, corporations and the public.

4.1.1. Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive method describes the appearance of a subject or the course of an event. “By listing the attributes of particular concepts, we do not determine their mutual relationship and

rank. Science devotes a lot of attention to the description of facts (data, phenomena), because all other stages of research depend on an exact depiction (description)” (Žugaj, Dumičić, Dušak, 2006, 98).

Almost all media outlets in Croatia reported that on 29 May 2013 the Government decided to submit a proposal for a new VAT Act into the parliamentary procedure. The proposal, inter alia, stipulated under Article 38, Paragraph 2, that VAT will be calculated and paid at a reduced rate of 5% for the supply of the following goods and services: “(...) g) Newspapers by publishers with media status, that are printed daily, on paper and which, as general information press, publish journalistic authored texts in the range of at least 25,000 words per copy of a daily issue, aside from those that fully or for the most part contain advertisements or consist of advertising (...)” (OG 73/13). The proposal caused many reactions in the following months because, in the opinion of many members of professional circles, a portion of the public and a number of opposition politicians, it was directed against the most read daily newspaper in Croatia, the *24sata* tabloid. Said newspaper often reported negatively on the then-Prime Minister Zoran Milanović and the ruling SDP, and, as a rule, had less than 25,000 words per published daily issue, which according to the new law, meant paying twice as much VAT – 10%.

For example, HDZ’s MP Martina Dalić said at the time that “this proposal is clearly a wish to favour one, at the expense of other daily newspapers”, and her party colleague Ivan Šuker was convinced that the government “introduced favoured and disfavoured media” and that “those who had dared to write critically about the Government have obviously been punished”. Branko Vukšić, then a member of the Croatian Labour Party, called the “25,000-words criterion” discriminating and pointed a finger directly: “Those who wrote this ‘Criterion’ have no idea how the *24sata* newsroom works. If we analyse the genesis of newspaper writing, it is visible that the papers that laud the Government’s magnificent achievements will be rewarded and those that write critically about the Government will be penalized by a higher rate of VAT” (HINA, 14 June 2013). The ruling politicians tried to defend their proposal and deny such claims, primarily Slavko Linić (SDP), the minister of finance, who repeatedly claimed on record that this legal provision had nothing to do with *24sata*’s relationship towards the Government. As justification, he solely suggested “social and economic logic”, i.e. the significantly different costs of publishing newspapers with higher or smaller content size

(Šurina, 14 June 2013). It is noticeable that in the first few days, while the topic was still current, many citizens publicly commented and mostly criticized the attitude of the government, via social networks, internet fora and other media channels, but subsequently the public's interest decreased significantly.

The new Act, along with the disputed provision, was adopted by the Croatian Parliament at the 14 June 2013 session, with 70 votes “in favour”, 21 votes “against” and five abstentions. Media experts had condemned this decision, and even the International Federation of Journalists (IFJ) and the European Federation of Journalists (EFJ) reacted. They put forward a joint open letter to Croatian leaders, warning that the provision is discriminatory, violating the Constitution and a series of Croatian and European laws, documents and directives, thus requesting its immediate amendment (Stojmenović, 21 June 2013). *Večernji list* and *24sata* submitted a joint motion to the Constitutional Court to institute proceedings for reviewing the compatibility of the disputed legal provision with the Constitution, emphasizing in a comprehensive explanation, *inter alia*, that “the Croatian legislator differentiated between newspapers in a constitutionally unacceptable manner” and that the differentiating criterion (number of words) – is absurd. In its 16 July decision, the Constitutional Court considered their request to be grounded, suspended the application of the “25,000-words criterion” and requested a further expert analysis of the case (OG 99/13). However, after a few more months of controversy, the Parliament, at its 29 November 2013 session, voted to delete the disputed provision from the VAT Act (OG 153/13), meaning it was never implemented in practice.

4.1.2. Content Analysis

Content analysis refers to the study of the contents of various types of communication, most often in mass media. “Communication content usually relates to the frequency of certain content appearances, the way in which the content is displayed (positive, negative, neutral), those the content (message) is intended for and the like” (Šundalić, Pavić, 2013, 205). Due to its characteristics, this method can be both quantitative and qualitative, with distinguished elements: 1. source of the analysis, 2. categories of analysis, 3. analysis sample and 4. unit of analysis (Tkalac Verčić, Sinčić Ćorić, Pološki Vokić 2010, 91-94). The authors have designed and applied the method accordingly, using a pre-structured analytical matrix.

The source of the analysis was the content of four Croatian daily newspapers: *Večernji list*, *Jutarnji list*, *24sata* and *Glas Slavonije*. The basic criterion for choosing the first three papers was the readership share, i.e. their sales and national reach. Namely, according to the Croatian Competition Agency (AZTN) data from November 2017, *24sata*, *Jutarnji list* and *Večernji list* had for many years been the most popular daily newspapers in Croatia. Despite the continued decline in the sales of all the general information dailies, *24sata* achieved the largest sales volume in 2016 (as in the previous four years), achieving a market share between 30 and 40%. It was followed by *Jutarnji list* with a market share between 20 and 30%, and *Večernji list* with 10 to 20% (AZTN, 17 November 2017). An additional criterion was the reporting on the “25,000-words criterion” by media belonging to two leading rival media groups on the Croatian market, namely the Styria Group Croatia (*24sata* and *Večernji list*) and the Hanza Media Group (*Jutarnji list*). *Glas Slavonije* was chosen for reasons already explained.

The content analysis was conducted in a predetermined six-month period between 30 May 2013, when the first article on the “25,000-words criterion” was published in printed editions of daily newspapers, and 30 November 2013, when the press reported on the withdrawal of the disputed provision from the new VAT Act. For better and more detailed insight, all news articles on this case published in printed editions of the four selected daily newspapers were analysed in the said period, as units of analysis – hence, the entirety of the texts rather than a sample.

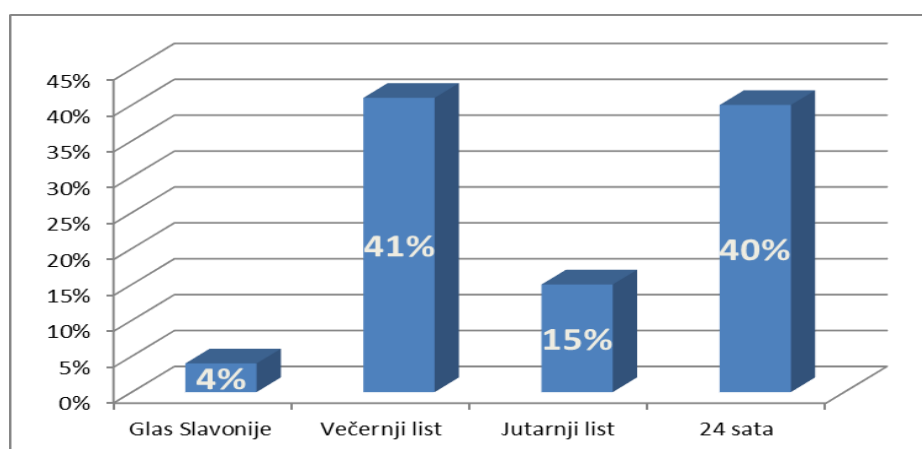
Due to the uniqueness and complexity of this case, the matrix contained a total of 35 analysis classification categories. These are: the total number of articles/contributions/newspaper texts; ordinal number of article; publication date, name of media (newspaper); day of publication; month of publication; size of article; type of journalistic text; author; section in which article was published; position of published text; main topic of article; relationship towards main topic; “depth” of analysis of main topic; currency of article; number of information sources in article; singleness – plurality in choosing information sources; bias of information source towards the “25,000-words criterion”; information source/s in article; main information source in article; unnamed source/s of information referred to in article; clear distinction between information and attitude; use of statements and quotes; use of statements and accounts quotes when several persons are quoted in article; media exposure of person/s giving

statements; interpretative frame of article from author’s point of view; aspect of topic analysis; announcement of article on front page; connectedness between headlines and text on inner pages; value orientation of headline; difference between front page headline and article headline, according to message sent to public; type of graphic equipment; number of images; connectedness between images and text; and headline of analysed article.

4.2. Research Results and Discussion

Considering the comprehensiveness of the research and space constraints, the authors present an overview and interpretation of selected results and answers related to the set research questions.

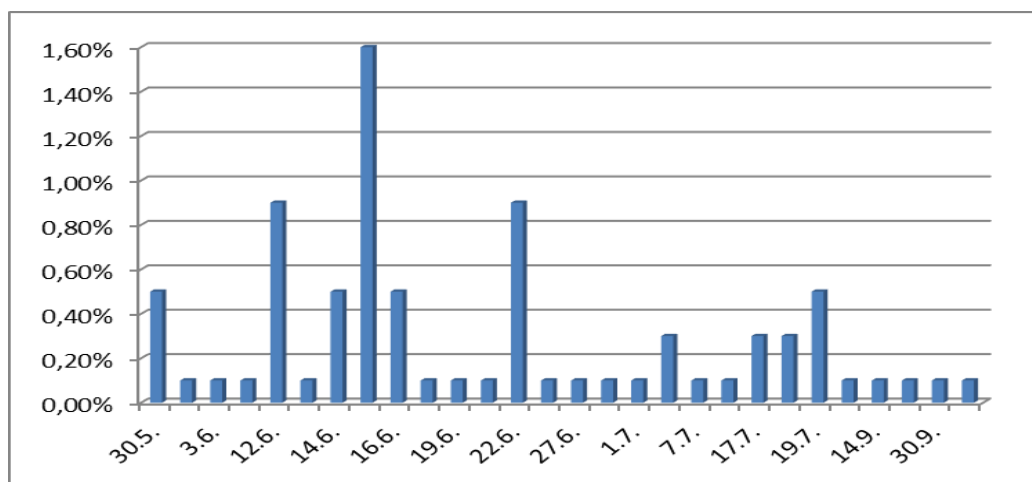
4.2.1. Results of Content Analysis of Selected Texts in Four Croatian Newspapers



Graph 1. Percentage of published articles by newspaper (N=55)

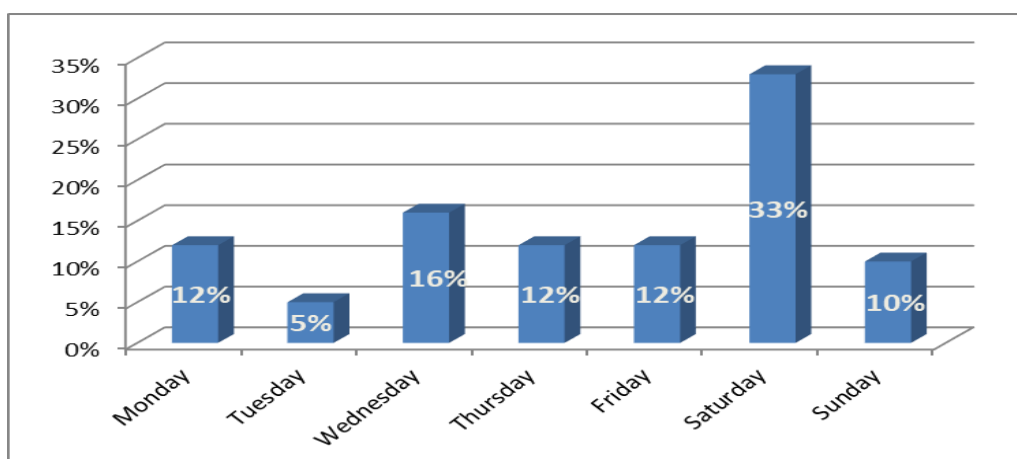
In the observed period, a total of 55 articles directly or indirectly dealing with the “25,000-words criterion” were analysed. Of that number, a noticeably higher percentage of texts was published in *Večernji list* and *24sata* (22 and 23 contributions or approximately 40% each), than in *Jutarnji list* (8 texts or 15%) or *Glas Slavonije*, which published just two (4%) of the total number of articles. (Graph 1) It is already apparent that *24sata* was most interested in monitoring and processing the topic, as the new legal provision directly affected it, along with

Večernji list as an affiliated newspaper. Conversely, *Jutarnji list* occasionally provided attention to this issue, while *Glas Slavonije* recorded only three key events regarding the case: submission of the new legal provision draft, adoption of the new VAT Act and withdrawal of the disputed provision.



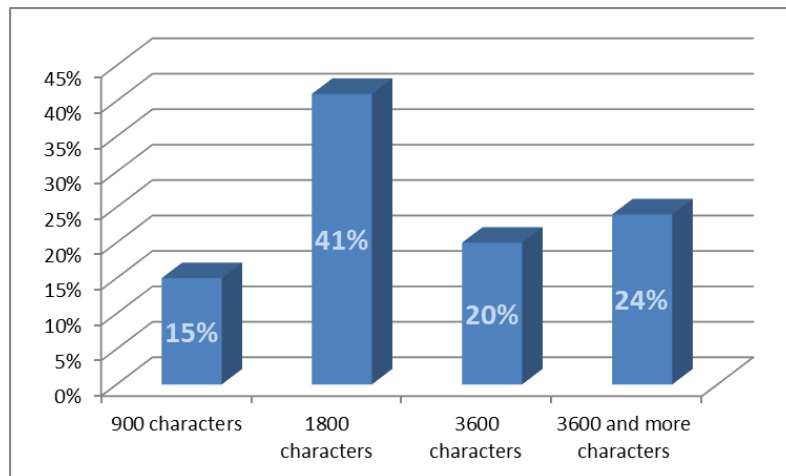
Graph 2. Structure of published articles by date of publishing (N=55)

The structures of published articles by date, (week) day, and month of publication also indicate logical results. The topic is mentioned most in June 2013 (54% of the total number of contributions), when there was the biggest controversy over the new provision arose, specifically, mid-June (Graph 2).



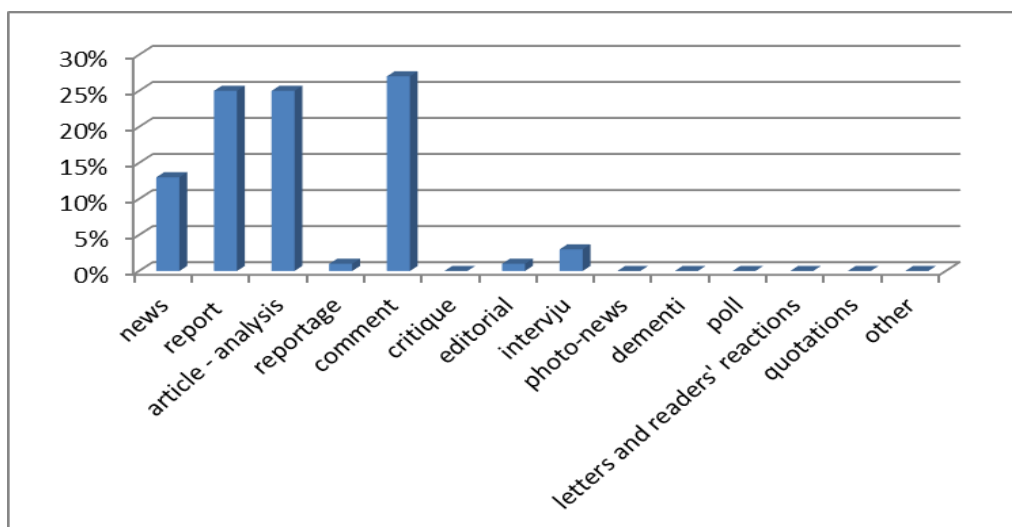
Graph 3. Structure of published articles by day (in a week) of publishing (N=55)

Also, most contributions were published on Saturdays (18 texts, or over one third), particularly in *24sata* and *Večernji list*, when printed media are most read (Graph 3), ensuring the highest possible reach. Considering Saturday issues are read throughout the weekend, it is also certain that the topic is read with caution and attention.



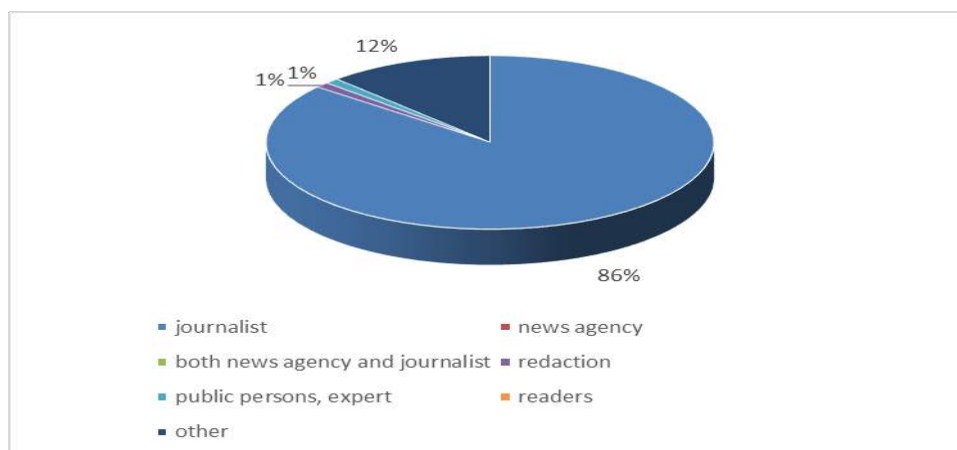
Graph 4. Structure of published articles by size of contribution (N=55)

Looking at contribution size (Graph 4), most texts are one author page in length, or 1,800 characters (31 out of 55). Thus, short forms are generally more represented, although a significant number of articles ranged from two to four pages (or more), such as analyses, reports or interviews. It shows that the topic is quite thoroughly investigated and presented considering the length of the articles.



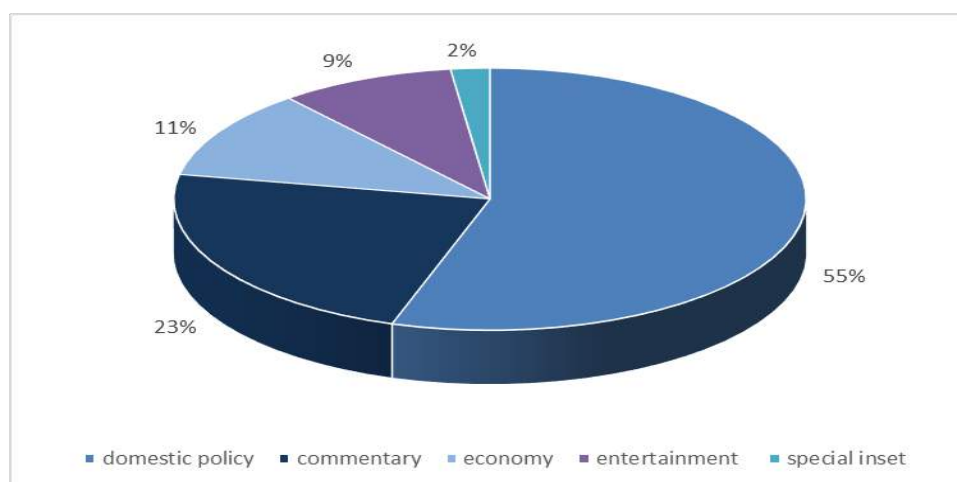
Graph 5. Structure of published articles by type of contribution (N=55)

According to contribution type (Graph 5), four categories came ahead: news, report, analytical article and journalistic commentary. *Večernji list* is the highest contributor in the last category, since columns and comments are its trademark. The types of articles most represented i.e., report, analysis and comment, show the seriousness of the approach to the topic. Those are the forms that require lots of research, investigation, data collecting, etc.



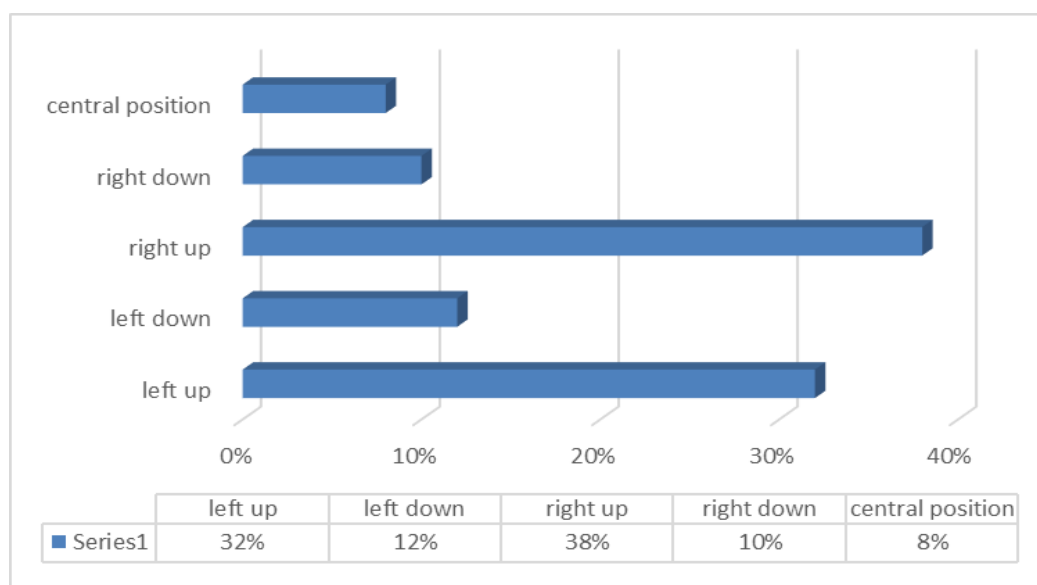
Graph 6. Structure of published articles by author (N=55)

As shown in Graph 6, journalists are authors of most articles (47 or around 86%), while there are significantly fewer texts authored by the editorial board or expert-commentators – just one each (2%). This was largely expected because a journalist’s signature under a text generally extends more credibility and leaves a more powerful impression than an article by an agency or editorial board.



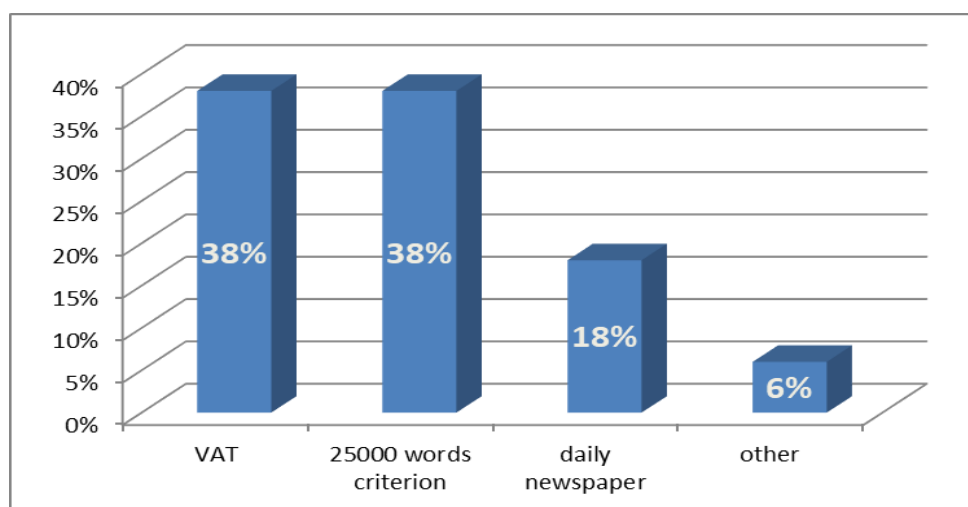
Graph 7. Structure of published articles by news section (N=55)

Over half of all texts (54.5%) were published within internal politics/actuality/news sections, or on the front pages (Graph 6). Alongside *Večernji list*, interestingly, *Jutarnji list* usually extended the same treatment to these articles, giving a degree of importance to a case not concerning it directly. Nearly a quarter of the contributions were published in the columns/comments sections (owing to *Večernji list* again), while 11% were placed in the economy section. Determining sections in *24sata* was quite difficult, as it is not divided accordingly, but beholden to ‘the most interesting news’ criterion.



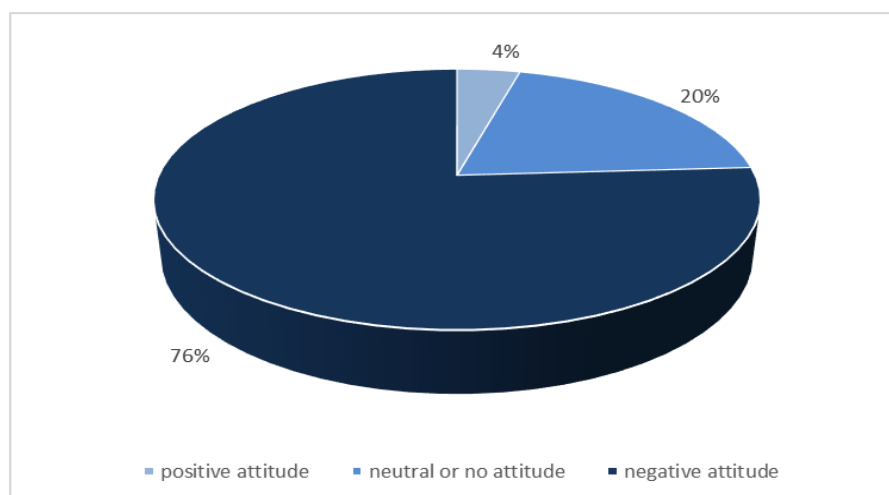
Graph 8. Structure of published articles by position of published text (N=55)

The observed newspapers also indicate their relationship towards the topic and the government policy through the placement of articles in certain positions on a page (Graph 8). Attempting to draw the attention of the public to this case – which was, truthfully, more interesting to the media than to most citizens – *24sata* and *Večernji list* positioned critical texts in the upper right-hand corner of a page (the most visible position in a newspaper) in 38% of cases. *Jutarnji list* did the opposite, positioning news on the “25,000-words criterion” mostly in the upper or lower left-hand corner (almost 45%), while *Glas Slavonije* mostly used the neutral centre of the page (around 8% of all articles).



Graph 9. Structure of published articles by main topic (N=55)

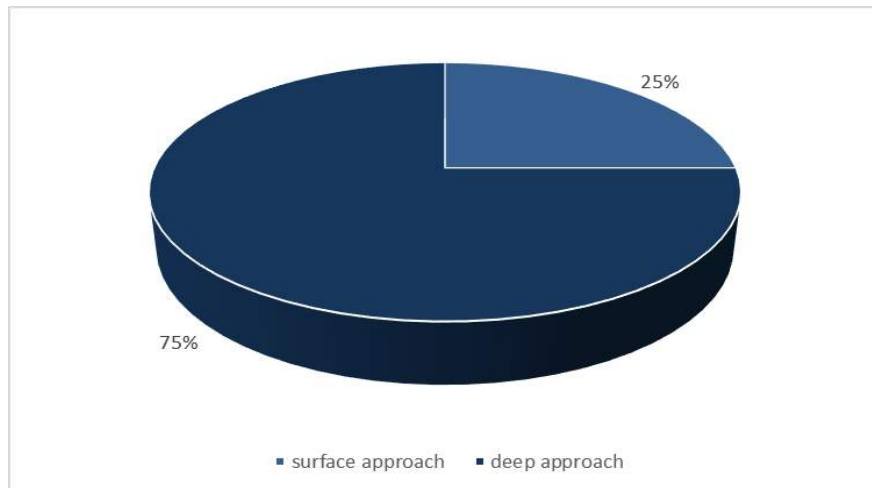
The “25,000-words criterion” and “VAT” appeared as the main topics of articles equally (38%), while “daily newspapers” is slightly less represented (18%). (Graph 8) *24sata* regards the “25,000-words criterion” almost exclusively, followed by *Večernji list*, which besides the mentioned topic, also deals with the topics of “VAT” (emphasizing countries with 0% tax rates) and “daily newspapers”. *Jutarnji list* mainly dealt with the topic of VAT, analysing other EU countries’ tax policy on daily newspapers.



Graph 10. Structure of published articles by relationship towards the main topic (N=55)

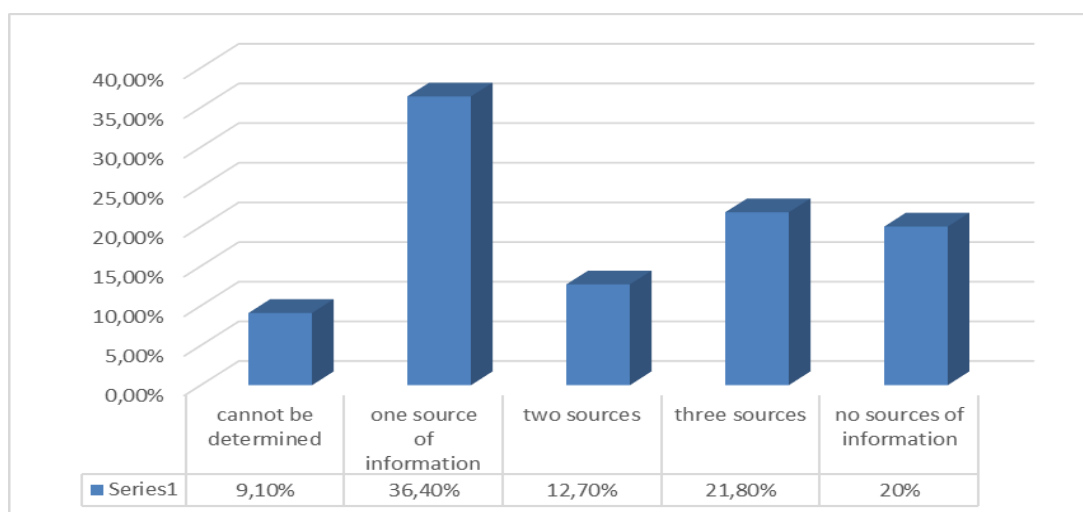
The attitude towards the main topic is generally negative (in as many as 76% of articles), 20% of texts present a neutral attitude, while a positive attitude prevails in just 4% of contributions (Graph 10). Positive and neutral attitudes appear predominantly in *Jutarnji list* and *Glas*

Slavonije, the negative attitude dominates in *Večernji list* and *24sata*, again logical regarding the situation.



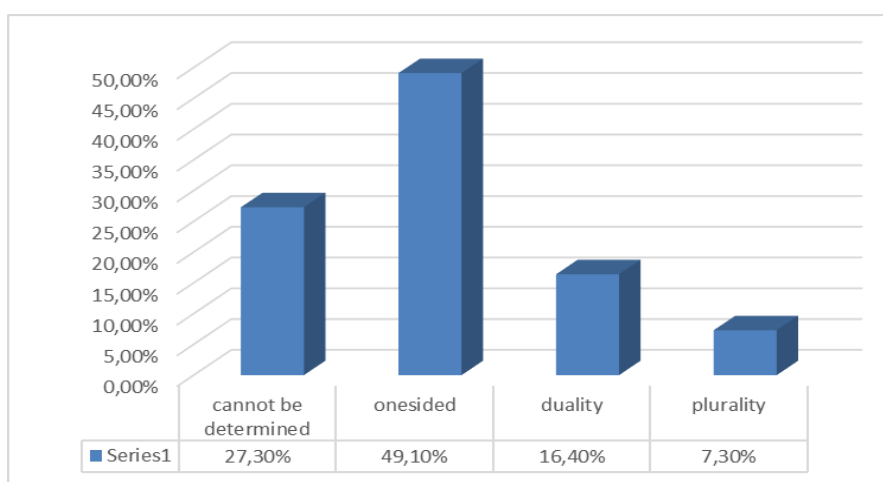
Graph 11. Structure of published articles by “depth” of analysis of the main topic (N=55)

Of the total number of texts, three-quarters approached the topic “deeply” (Graph 11), delving into causes, predicting consequences, and considering the problem in the wider context. Only 25% of texts are “superficial”, giving just a description of the phenomenon, event, or person. Such results are understandable, given that the complexity of the case required a deep analysis. The relevance of the texts is satisfactory since 56% of them are primarily related to current events, while 44% regard events older than one week.



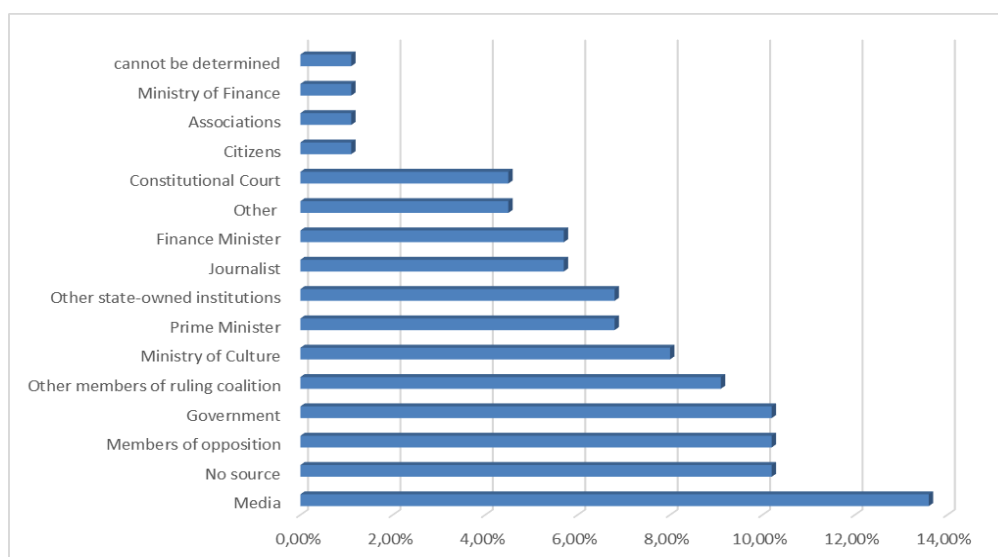
Graph 12. Structure of published articles by number of information source(s) (N=55)

According to the number of information sources mentioned, only one source of information appears in 36.4%, followed by three or more sources in 21.8% of articles (Graph 12). Three and more information sources are mostly present in *Večernji list* and *24sata*, while *Jutarnji list* usually contains only one source. This shows a plurality of sources, and although the highest percentage has one source of information, almost 35% of articles had more than one source, indicating objectivity and relevance.



Graph 13. Structure of published articles by singleness-plurality of information sources (N=55)

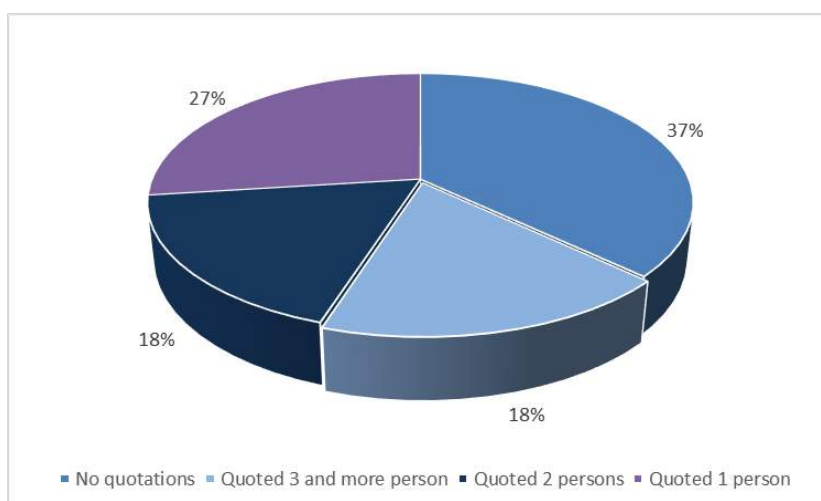
The one-sidedness of information sources appears in almost half of all contributions (49.1%), with plurality present in 7.3% (Graph 13), only in *Jutarnji list*, which partially compensates for the fact that almost all texts on this subject are based on just one information source.



Graph 14. Structure of published articles by all information sources (N=55)

Information sources were mostly opposed to the proposed measure (41.8%), with 30.9% in favour of the proposal, and 1.8% neutral. The structure of published articles by all information sources (Graph 14) shows there were a total of 88 different sources. The media, i.e. media professionals and representatives – most usually Boris Trupčević, then president of the Newspaper Publishers’ Association, and chairman of the board at *24sata* – were the most represented (found in 13.6% of texts as information sources). Members of opposition parties, notably Martina Dalić and Ivan Šuker (former HDZ finance ministers), members of the Croatian Labour Party and several independent PMs, were sources of information in 10.2% of contributions, equal to government representatives. Other members of the ruling coalition were represented in 9.1% of cases, the Ministry of Culture in 8%, other state institutions (Tax Administration) in 6.8%, Prime Minister Milanović in 6.8%, journalists and Finance Minister Linić in 5.7% cases each, etc. Overall, regardless of their attitudes, the four dailies analysed offered to the public the opinions of many representatives from both sides, with emphasis on those opposed to the provision.

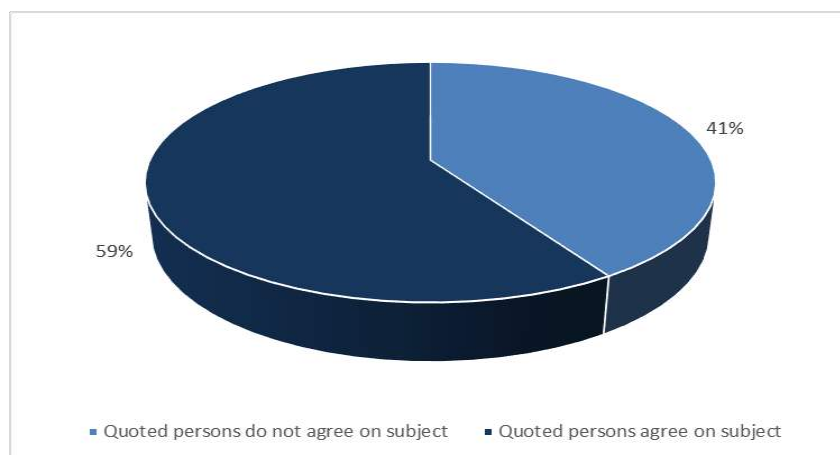
In 73% of the analysed contributions, there was no clear distinction between information and attitudes contained in the texts, primarily in those published in *24sata*, especially in columns and comments. By contrast, information clearly differs from attitudes in 18% of articles, mostly published in *Jutarnji list* and *Glas Slavonije*.



Graph 15. Structure of published articles by use of statements and quotes (N=55)

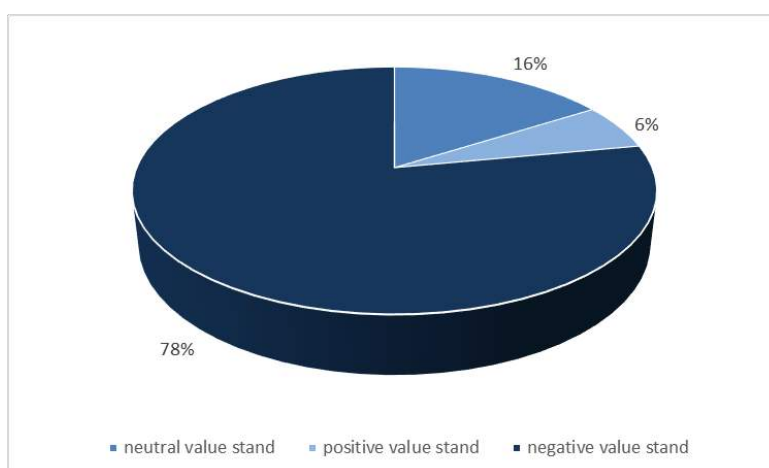
Considering the use of statements and quotes, only 37% of articles contain no quotes, mostly columns or commentaries. The remaining 63% quoted persons: 27% of articles quoted only

one person, 18% two persons and 18% three and/or more people (Graph 15). This distribution seems appropriate, but a further breakdown of the structure yielded interesting results.



Graph 16. Structure of published articles by use of statements and quotes when more than one person is quoted (N=55)

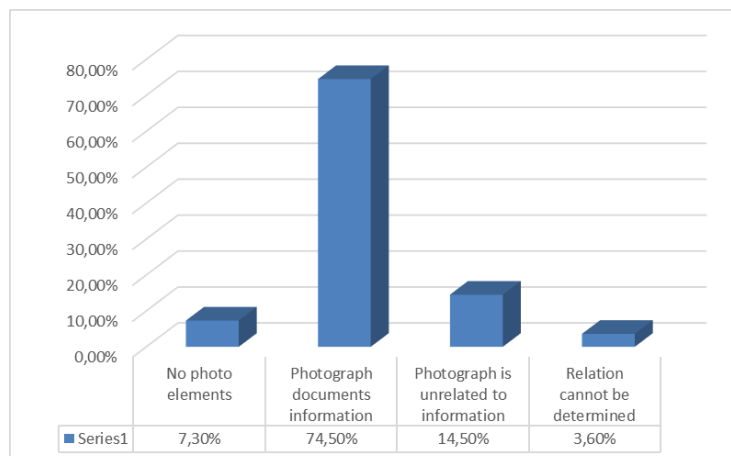
Namely, in articles using statements and quotes of two, three or more persons (Graph 16), as many as 59% of quotes belonged to persons with similar opinions, and only 41 % of articles quoted persons who disagreed on the topic. In other words, there is the phenomenon of simulating plurality by citing several sources, whose attitudes are often identical. Thus, a journalist's or editor's viewpoint is imposed on the readers, as best seen in *24sata* and *Večernji list*. No contradicting attitudes or opinions are offered, enabling readers to make a conclusion based on an objective disclosure of facts.



Graph 17. Structure of published articles by the interpretative framework of articles (N=55)

The authors also found that in 69% of the texts the person giving a statement already has media exposure, i.e. is known to the wider public. This is unsurprising, given that those in the public light have certain credibility and authority, and by citing them, newspapers tried to shape and direct public opinion.

The interpretative framework of articles, analyzed by the way the topic was interpreted and displayed by the author(s), was negative in 78% of published texts. Neutrality was observed in 16%, while only 6% of the texts were positively intoned (Graph 16). The percentages are almost entirely consistent with the proportion of texts in the four daily newsletters. It is clear that *24sata* and *Večernji list* mostly have a negative attitude towards the provision, while *Jutarnji list* and *Glas Slavonije* relate the topic mostly neutrally or positively. In this case, as in many others, there is an obvious ideological-political polarization between the leading print media into more conservative and right-oriented daily newspapers (the best example is *Večernji list*, opposed to the then government) and more liberal, left-oriented media, such as *Jutarnji list*, mostly a proponent of the government's actions.

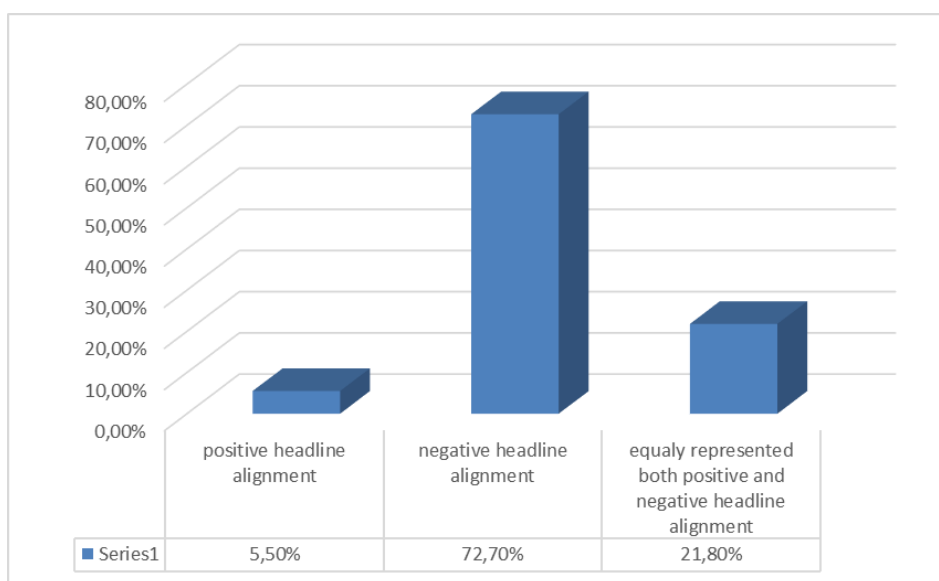


Graph 18. Structure of published articles by connectedness of images and text (N=55)

The review of the graphic equipment of published articles indicated that the vast majority of texts (up to 92.7%), including columns, are equipped with only one photograph, attracting readers especially in today's visual media age. A portion of the (longer) contributions was also equipped with two or more photographs, while some (mostly short news or authored columns) included no images (Graph 18). Also, images follow information in 74.5% of articles, as there is a connection between images and text. For 14.5% of articles the image is

unrelated to information, the connection cannot be determined (3.6%), or the texts are unaccompanied by photographs (7.3%).

Since editors use the front page to emphasize content they consider to be important, and article headlines are among the most effective ways of attracting readers, particular attention was paid to these elements in the analysis. Interestingly, of the total number of published articles, 89% have not been announced on the cover. Among the remaining 11% there was only one small announcement on the cover of *Večernji list* (interview with the Tax Administration Director, prompted by this case), and the remaining examples can be found in *24sata* which, among other things, announced the topic on the cover of a special edition dedicated to all “falsities” of Prime Minister Milanović. This is evidence that the editors were aware that the “25,000-words criterion” was not too important to the wider public.



Graph 19. Structure of published articles by value orientation of headline (N=55)

In almost 90% of cases the headlines are derived from the content and tone of the text (Graph 19). The negative focus of the headline is prevalent in 72.7%, the headlines aimed for neutrality in 21.8%, while a positive headline orientation was found in 5.5% of the contributions. These numbers correspond to previous data, primarily the interpretative framework of articles. Thus, the headlines and the texts themselves, in *Jutarnji list* and *Glas Slavonije* are mostly characterized by neutral or positively intoned textual constructions. Some of the examples include: “VAT for daily newspaper five percent, not including tabloids”, “HNS divided: some in favor of ads as a criterion, others in favour of 25,000

words” and “Constitutional Court suspends 25,000-words Act” (*Jutarnji list*), “Lower taxes for newspapers publishing more than 25,000 words” and “Encouraging writing” (*Glas Slavonije*).

Negative orientation of headlines and texts was, as expected, mostly present in *24sata* and *Večernji list*. Hence, typical criticisms in *Večernji list* were “Trupčević: The Government criterion is bizarre”, “Reduce VAT for everyone, not just few”, “Does the Government dislike short texts or strong criticism?”, “Prime Minister’s revenge: VAT for newspapers again at 10 percent”, etc. *24sata* was the sharpest and most straightforward, playing with its somewhat sensationalist style and tabloid-like headlines such as “Milanović punishes critics with taxes”, “Bomb for disfavored newspapers...” and “Chaos in Parliament due to media”. It often uses sarcasm and irony (“He is the greatest son” and “Dear leader, thank you for leading us through darkness” – directed at Milanović), and it accompanied the withdrawal of the statutory provision by an article titled “Zoki counted words in vain...”. The acrimoniousness of *24sata*’s owners and editors over the provision is understandable, with their usual journalistic style similar to the one mentioned. However, the authors believe this direct assault strategy and “clash” against the government and the prime minister is still exaggerated and shows low value, i.e. is below the level of a newspaper claiming seriousness, even though it uses its populist style to, amongst other things, ensure its high position in readership ratings.

5. Conclusion

A detailed and comprehensive case study of the “25,000-words criterion”, conducted over a period of several months, by combining several research methods, yielded affirmative answers to all three research questions.

Although none of the responsible persons or representatives of the competent institutions ever publicly admitted this to be the intention (which was assuredly difficult to expect); the authors believe they have been able to prove that the government, by proposing the new VAT Act in 2013 directly tried to limit the freedom of press in Croatia. Indeed, the research results have unambiguously demonstrated that setting double the VAT rate for printing a daily issue under the 25,000-word limit primarily referred to the popular *24sata* newspaper – critical towards the then state government – aimed at pushing it out of the market, and possibly, perhaps even

its elimination. Logically, *24sata* reported more often and more negatively on this topic than other Croatian daily newspapers, since it was directly affected by the provision, along with *Večernji list* as a member of the same media group. *24sata* spearheaded the fight fiercely and directly, not mincing words when dealing with Prime Minister Milanović, believing him to be the biggest culprit.

What is surprising is the inexplicable clumsiness and mismanagement of the state government when deciding on the disputed provision. Instead of trying to implement the planned introduction of higher VAT rates, explaining it in a wiser and more acceptable manner – e.g. that the funds raised are to be invested in developing higher quality, investigative journalism – the government insisted on the “25,000-words criterion” that was unsustainable due to the violation of a series of rules and regulations. In addition, this was done without a public debate or an elaborate methodology, and without answering a number of questions such as “Who will count the words?”, “Who will control the counting?”, “What are the sanctions and who will determine and implement them?”, etc. Therefore, subsequent events – the suspension of the provision application, and its final withdrawal – were an expected denouement.

At first glance, it may seem that the “25,000-words criterion” is comparable to the cases of *Feral Tribune*, *Radio 101* and others, when political authorities in Croatia had tried to influence the freedom of certain media, but the authors believe that there are several key differences. The “25,000-words criterion” took place almost 20 years after the mentioned cases, when the level of Croatian democracy was supposedly at a much higher level, during the rule of a left-wing government, expected to act in more liberal manner. Instead, the authorities – just before Croatia entered the EU – used legal provisions to “discipline” a disfavoured publisher. Despite the fact that *24sata* was granted constitutional protection, in the present situation – in which Croatia is still a transitional society with major problems, and inadequate legal and media regulation – the authors must warn that a similar attempt to limit media freedoms might possibly be repeated, which is an extremely worrying thought.

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MAIN CROATIAN POLITICAL PARTIES ON SOCIAL MEDIA DURING 2015 PARLIAMENTARY ELECTIONS IN CROATIA

Domagoj Bebić, Ph.D.

Faculty of Political Science, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

domagoj@edemokracija.hr

Marija Volarević, Ph.D. Candidate

Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

marija@edemokracija.hr

Summary

There is ever growing interest in social media and the electoral processes. In this study, the aim is to reveal how political parties in Croatia use social media in election campaigns. Relying on the optimistic idea that social media can improve communication between representatives and those they represent, we shall be looking at the official Facebook fan pages of the main political parties in Croatia during the 2015 parliamentary elections to determine how willing the parties were to engage in communication with citizens via social media. Using content analysis, this research will analyze the Facebook status messages of the main Croatian political parties in order to reveal which themes were encouraged by the parties and which themes were the main focus of status messages. The goal is to examine whether the main political parties used social media to communicate social and political issues with the users in their status messages or just to promote their activities and accomplishments during the official parliamentary election campaign.

Keywords: social media, political parties, parliamentary elections, themes, political promotion, Croatia

1. Introduction

The end of 2015 brought a dynamic and interesting political context to the parliamentary elections in Croatia. While everybody thought that this would be a standard political fight between the two main Croatian parties, the Social Democrats (SDP) and the Conservatives (HDZ), the political context was disturbed by a few citizen initiatives that seriously influenced the election outcome, the formation of Parliament, and all political events and issues in the last two years in Croatia. With the rise of new political initiatives like MOST and Živi Zid, the Croatian political landscape was significantly disturbed and the changes introduced in the 2015 election campaign still influence political and social issues in Croatia.

In Europe and in Croatia, new political initiatives are using the Internet and social media platforms to attract audiences and to promote their messages and values. This gives them a platform to communicate directly with users and to share their views without a mediator. Loveland and Popescu (201, 686) explain that “ever since the Internet emerged, researchers have been interested in how it has been utilized by politicians”. With the rise and popularization of social media, there is a completely new platform for politicians and political initiatives to communicate directly with users, to influence the community, and to spread their messages. As Gurevitch, Coleman and Blumler (2009, 170) mention, “politicians no longer need to focus only on television cameras, studios, and other formats as they seek to promote their messages and control their images”. The viral energy of the blogosphere, social network sites, and wikis constitutes a new flow of incessantly circulating publicity in which reputations are enhanced and destroyed, messages debated and discarded, and rumors floated and tested. How parties, politicians, and crucial political institutions use these new communication platforms and how they directly engage with audiences and voters has become an interesting research area for political communication scientists.

Relying on the optimistic idea that the use of social media can improve communication between representatives and constituents, the goal of this paper is to determine how the main political parties in Croatia used Facebook to communicate with users. According to the data of Internet World Stats (2017), Facebook is the most popular social media network in Croatia, with 1,800,000 active users; therefore, the analysis focused on this platform to determine the main communication trends. Using content analysis, our goal is to analyze the Facebook status messages of the main political parties in Croatia during the 2015

parliamentary election campaign. Because the 2015 election campaign was crucial in the subsequent political context in Croatia, we focused on determining the themes and issues that the main political parties in Croatia shared on their official Facebook pages. This paper will analyze the use of social media in political communication by the three main political parties in Croatia—the HDZ¹, the SDP², and MOST³—during the 2015 official Croatian parliamentary campaign. Diehl, Weeks and Gil de Zúñiga (2015, 1875) explain that “an ideal context for political persuasion to occur is through conversation”. This is why this paper will seek to answer whether the main political parties in Croatia used official Facebook accounts to communicate the important social and political issues and themes with citizens or whether they just used Facebook to promote their activities and accomplishments.

2. Theoretical Part

2.1. Social Media as a Transformer of Political Communication

The last decade has brought an obvious shift in all communication professions from the media to public relations, marketing, and political communication. Today, we are exposed to instant information and news with no time or geographical limitations or boundaries. As Dahlgren (2009, 35–39) states, the media landscape is changing profoundly because of globalization, commercialization, the concentration of media corporations, the deregulation of media ownership, and digitalization. All of this is influencing communication professions like never before, and social science researchers are increasingly analyzing social media to find answers and trends to detect and explain main communication models and behavior on social networks.

The Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism Digital News Report (Newman, Levy, Nielsen Kleis, 2016) based on a survey of more than 50,000 people in 26 countries is the largest ongoing comparative study of news consumption in the world. The 2016 report

¹ HDZ - The Croatian Democratic Union (Croatian: Hrvatska demokratska zajednica) is a conservative political party and the main center-right political party in Croatia (HDZ, 2017)

² SDP - The Social Democratic Party of Croatia (Croatian: Socijaldemokratska partija Hrvatske) is a social-democratic political party and the largest party of the Croatian center-left (SDP, 2017).

³ MOST - The Bridge of Independent Lists (Croatian: Most nezavisnih lista) is a party platform in Croatia founded in 2012. The party was founded as a regional one but in 2015 became a national political initiative (MOST, 2017).

revealed that half of the examined sample (51%) use social media as a source of news. Facebook is by far the most important network for finding, reading/watching, and sharing news. Social networks are not just important for discovery, but they also encourage discussing and sharing news. Approximately a quarter of Internet news readers (24%) share news via social media during an average week; these are people who tend to be passionate about subjects such as politics, business, technology, and the environment. The research confirms that users use social media as a tool for finding and consuming news but also for sharing and discussing political and social issues. This is why it is important to detect and analyze the practices of politicians in relation to social media.

In the last decade, we have witnessed the growing role of social media in political communication worldwide as a new communication tool in political communication, especially during elections. Gurevitch, Coleman and Blumler (2009, 3) state that “in the United States, Barack Obama’s presidential campaign relied heavily on the viral capabilities of social networking sites as a way of overcoming perceived mass media obstacles. Tom Watson, Britain’s Minister for Transformational Government, has stated that ‘the challenge is for elected representatives to follow their customers and electors into this brave new world’”.

According to deliberative theorists Gastil (1993) and Ryfe (2005), the ideal social media context would include a shared text, a set of issues to discuss, the opportunity to speak and debate, and exposure to diverse opinions. Social media offer shared text (in the form of news and other political information) and provide easy opportunities to discuss politics, even if their primary motivation for using these sites is social. Lee, Choi, and Kim (2014) and Gil de Zúñiga et al. (2013) state that “social media also promote other potentially deliberative attributes, such as diverse networks” and as Kim, Chen, and Gil de Zúñiga (2013) mention “exposure to discussion disagreement”.

Accompanying the new media and new communication platforms is an ongoing debate about their effects and the persuasion model of these new communication tools. In recent years, researchers and theorists have defined new models and practices relating to the role of social media communication in mobilizing voters and to the impact on users and election outcomes. In the context of political democracy several authors like Shah, Kwak and Holbert (2001), Johnson and Kaye (2003), Kenski and Stroud (2006), Xenos and Moy (2007) and Shah et al. (2005) conclude that voters who go online to seek information, interact with campaigns, and

share their views with other citizens are likely to feel better informed, more politically efficacious, and more willing to participate in the democratic process.

2.2. Political Parties on Social Media

Several authors like Farrell and Webb (2000), Gibson and Römmele (2001) and Norris, (2000) mention that depending on the technological possibilities, political parties have communicated with citizens in various ways during different stages of their development. With the rise and popularization of the Internet and social media, political parties worldwide have used these platforms to engage with users and share their messages. Vaccari and Valeriani (2016, 295) explain “social media platforms have become central hubs in contemporary flows of political communication across Western democracies”. Because social media can connect political parties directly with users/citizens without a mediator it has become one of the most common communication tools for all political actors, including political parties. Römmele (2003, 10) mentions “political parties are able to control the content and ‘dosage’ of political information that they emit via the Internet and so can offer unfiltered information to the public and to more specific target groups”. Moreover, Chadwick and Stromer-Galley (2016, 284) conclude “the role of digital media practices in reshaping political parties and election campaigns is driven by a tension between control and interactivity, but the overall outcome for parties’ organizational form is highly uncertain”.

According to Chadwick and Stromer-Galley (2016, 285) the societal contexts and organizational practices of parties are undergoing remarkable change, and the uses of digital media are of vital importance in this process. Chadwick and Stromer-Galley (2016) say that in that process there is much at stake; voting and persuading others to vote are arguably the most fundamental forms of political engagement. Römmele (2003, 3) mention “above all, during election campaigns the Internet constitutes a strategically important tool because not only is it an additional channel for the distribution of material and a medium for campaign management, it also enables region-wide mobilization of the active party base”.

Between social researchers there is a growing issue regarding political activities online and offline. Researchers are keen to determine whether offline and online communication differ, especially in election campaigns. In his research, Karlsen (2009, 186) says that the

“contradiction between how political actors talk about interacting with citizens via communication technology compared to their actual campaign behavior is paradoxical”. Furthermore, Karlsen (2009) mentions that “several studies have documented how direct dialogue with voters is mentioned as one of the main motivations for political parties and politicians to use social media”. This confirms that social media has become one of the most important communication tools in political communication not only for representatives but also for social science researchers.

2.3. Croatian Political Context in 2015

Croatia held a parliamentary election on 8 November 2015. Crobarometer (Dnevnik.hr, 2015) brought the data “in the eighth parliamentary election since Croatian independence, candidates representing 45 parties ran for Parliament seats. The most popular parties were the growing coalition led by the then Prime Minister Zoran Milanović and the Patriotic Coalition led by Tomislav Karamarko”. LSE blog (2015a) on the topic of Croatian election wrote “2015 Croatian elections have tended to be dominated by excessively combative campaigning from the country’s two largest parties—the Social Democratic Party of Croatia (SDP), which was in government by the time of elections, and the opposition center-right Croatian Democratic Union (HDZ)—and the 2015 elections have continued this trend. Both parties, which contest the elections as part of electoral coalitions ‘Croatia is Growing’ for the SDP and the ‘Patriotic Coalition’ led by the HDZ—have fought an increasingly confrontational campaign, largely dodging key political issues in favor of personal attacks on each other”.

The final election results were very surprising because the 2015 election rise the new political option in Croatia, MOST. MOST started as a regional political party in 2012 but with the parliamentary election in 2015 became a national political initiative that gathered other local and regionally dependent political initiatives and actors. Furthermore, LSE blog (2015b) reported “The HDZ’s Patriotic coalition secured 59 seats, including 3 seats representing the Croatian diaspora, while the SDP’s Croatia Grows coalition reached 56, while also being able to count on 3 seats pledged to them by a regional party, IDS. The elections also saw the rise of a strong third contender, MOST Nezavisnih Lista (Bridge of Independent Lists), who secured 19 seats and could act as potential kingmakers in coalition negotiations”.

The lack of a clear winner in the 2015 Croatian parliamentary election set off a scramble to cobble together a majority coalition. Politico.eu (2015) published some of the most significant takeaways from the Croatian election: (1) Croatia faces difficult coalition negotiations to form a stable government, (2) the economic outlook is still gloomy, (3) the election is unlikely to have a dramatic impact on the migrant crisis, and (4) comparisons with Poland and Hungary should be handled with caution.

As was evident, by the time of the 2015 election Croatia was facing important issues. In addition to a migrant crisis and a political crisis, the country was affected by economic problems such as low GDP growth. With all that in mind, the goal of this paper is to determine what the main political parties in Croatia communicated on their Facebook pages during the parliamentary election campaign and whether they communicated about the evident crisis with users. Another goal is to determine whether political parties in Croatia used Facebook accounts to promote campaign activities.

3. Methodology

In conducting content analysis, this paper seeks to determine how the main political parties in Croatia used their official Facebook accounts during the parliamentary election campaign, for example, as a promotional tool or as a platform to communicate social and political issues to citizens. As Yang and Miller (2008, 689) define, “content analysis is the systematization of text analysis. It analyses the form and substance of communication”. Underlying meanings and ideas are revealed by analyzing patterns in elements of the text, such as words or phrases which Holsti (1969, 3) explains, “communication content is transformed through objective and systematic application of categorization rules into data that can be summarized and compared”.

The main objective of this study is to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: How and to what extent have political parties in Croatia used social media to engage citizens on social media?

RQ2: What were the main themes in the status messages of the main political parties during the 2015 parliamentary election campaign?

We analyzed the N=250 status messages of the main political parties in Croatia, HDZ, SDP, and MOST. The study was conducted during the election campaign from October 21 to November 8, 2015.

Research Plan

The analysis was divided into three main parts. With the first part we wanted to determine the structure of the status messages, that is, the use of text, photos, and videos in the status messages and the number of likes, comments and shares for each status message. Also in the first part we coded status messages as political or more personal and the dominant type of appeal used in the posts—emotional, logical, or ethical. With these categories, we wanted to analyze with what types of status messages political parties in Croatia engage citizens in communication on social media and what the response rate (number of likes, comments and shares) was for each status message.

With the second part of the analysis we wanted to determine the main focus of the status messages, and the main tone.. With these categories we wanted to determine if political parties in Croatia used Facebook to promote their activities or to communicate main issues and crisis situations in the 2015 parliamentary campaign. We coded to determine the main themes of the status messages that main political parties communicated during the campaign. In addition, we coded the status messages as constructive, supportive, or cynical to determine in what tone and context each theme was mentioned. We coded these categories based on Bebić and Vučković (2011), as follows:

Constructive: those status messages that directly referred to a certain issue/policy and had positive or negative connotations with supporting arguments or that contained alternative solutions or propositions with supporting arguments or that provided an informed opinion and applicable solutions to the issues addressed.

Supportive: those status messages that contained notes of support or congratulations, without expressing any opinion or giving any arguments.

Cynical: those status messages that consisted of negative/cynical/insulting messages without any supporting arguments and without referring to the issues addressed and those in which a party or the candidate expressed disbelief in another party, candidate, or policy.

In the third part of the analysis we coded status messages to determine if political parties used other social groups (like NGOs, candidates, experts, regular citizens, or other interest groups or people) and if so in what context, for example, to promote their policies, to raise awareness about a certain issue, or to communicate certain problems and issues. With these categories, we wanted to determine the usage of certain people or groups in status messages and the context in which they were used to engage users on Facebook.

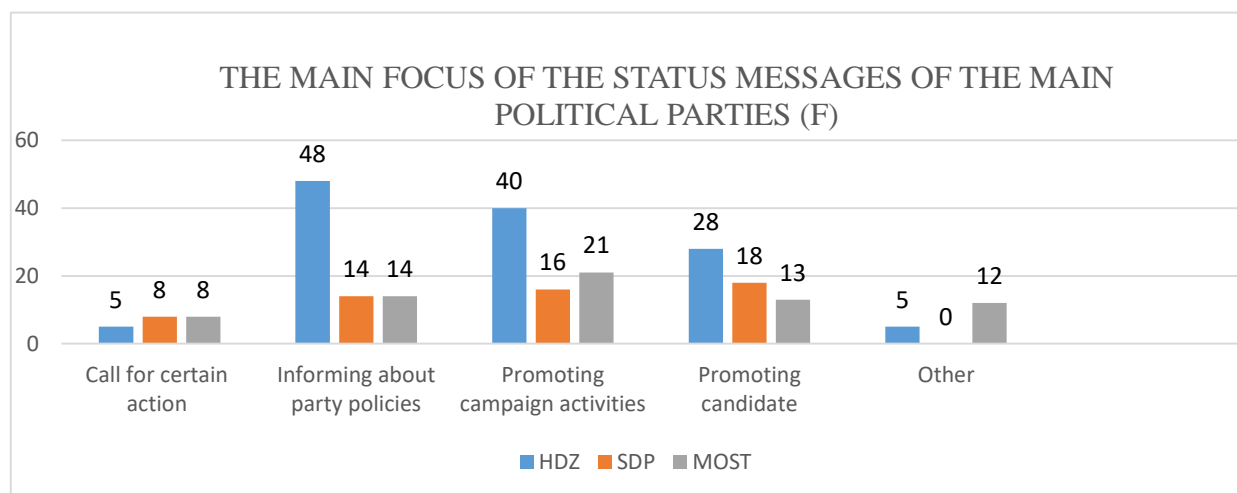
4. Analysis

Analysis of the Facebook posts revealed that the HDZ communicated the most status messages in the 2015 parliamentary election campaign (N=126). Most of those messages were accompanied by a special photo or video content promoting certain political activities or information and party accomplishments. Most of the status messages were political and a very small number were more personalized status messages with candidates or special issues mentioned in a less political sense.

The SDP had the least number of status messages on their official Facebook page during the campaign (N=55). In most cases, the SDP used plain text with a certain photograph as a recognizable status message layer to engage users. All status messages that the SDP communicated during the campaign were political in context, and they did not use the platform to communicate with candidates or other interest groups in a personal context.

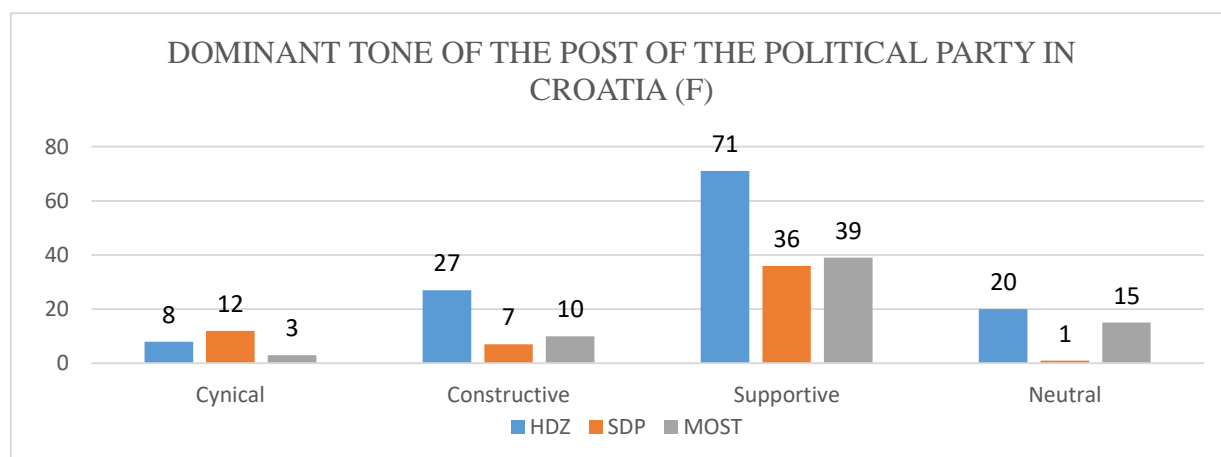
MOST (N=67) communicated less frequently in the form of status messages compared with the HDZ and the SDP. While the HDZ and the SDP had a recognizable form of status message with text and a specially designed photo or video, MOST had a less recognizable structure for the status messages on their official Facebook account. Most of the messages consisted of text and a link to other sources (mostly other media). MOST shared mostly political status messages but compared with the HDZ and the SDP had a significant number of personal status messages in which they communicated about their candidates or certain issues in a personalized context.

An analysis has determined that the main focus of the status messages of all the main political parties during the official parliamentary election campaign were promotional. While the HDZ mostly used Facebook to inform users about party policies or to promote campaign activities, the SDP and MOST in most cases promoted campaign activities and candidates.



Graph 1: The main focus of the status message of the main political parties in Croatia

While most of the status messages were primarily promotive in nature, the dominant tone of the posts was supportive of the party policy, candidates, and party and campaign activities. The SDP had the most cynical status messages, especially in referring to the other parties (mostly the HDZ).



Graph 2: Dominant tone of the post of the political party in Croatia



Photo 1: Example of cynical status message by HDZ Hrvatska⁴



Photo 2: Example of constructive status message by HDZ Hrvatska



Photo 3: Example of supportive status message by HDZ Hrvatska⁵

⁴ Translation: [Unemployment rate] In the last two months, 33 thousand citizens lost their jobs. This data is connected with SDP's motto "500 new jobs weekly". In last two months, on a weekly basis, 4125 citizens lost their jobs. With a 17.3% unemployment rate in October, Croatia is the country in the EU with the highest unemployment.

⁵ Translation: [CHANGES] 5 more days to a better Croatia... FOR A STRONG CROATIA



Photo 4: Example of cynical status message by SDP Hrvatska



Photo 6: Example of supportive status message by SDP Hrvatska



Photo 5: Example of constructive status message by SDP Hrvatska



Photo 7: Example of cynical status message by MOST

⁶ Translation: Tonight you can be scared but on 8 Nov find the courage and tell them that #Croatia-is-growing and there is no return to the old.

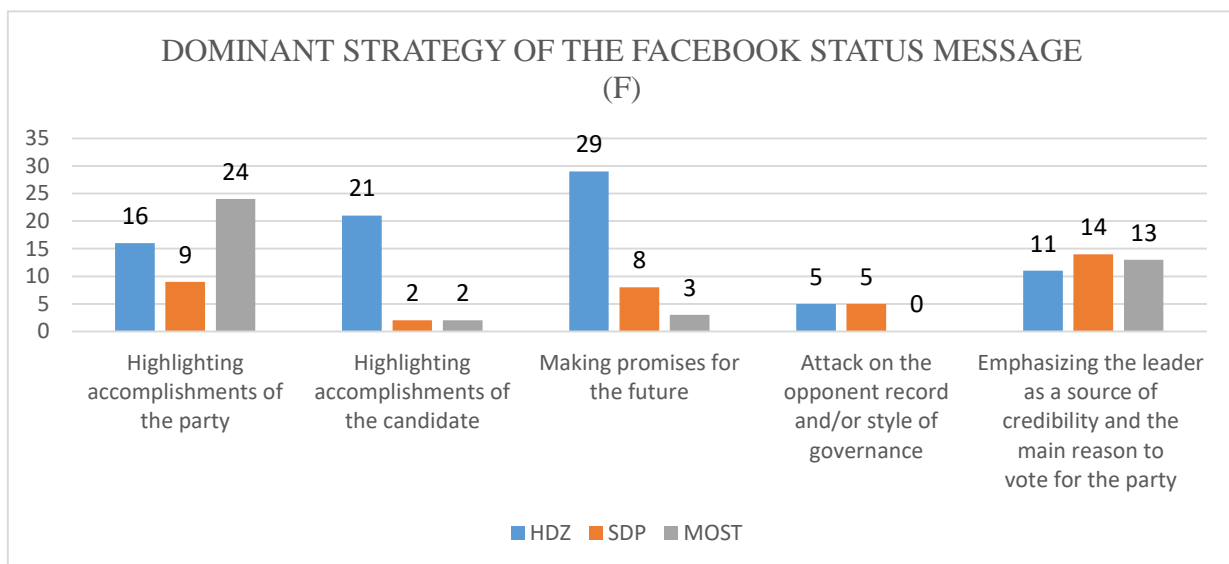
⁷ Translation: Croatia is growing! According to available data on the growth of industrial production and personal consumption, BDP growth is 2% in the third quarter. We have led the country out of the crisis. There is no going back.

⁸ Translation: Great atmosphere tonight in Split. This city has never lacked humor and creativity.

⁹ Translation: A vote for HDZ is a vote for SDP! Voting for MOST is a vote for changes!

Photo 8: Example of constructive status message by MOST¹⁰Photo 9: Example of supportive status message by MOST¹¹

The dominant strategy of the status messages of all political parties during the research period was a positive context and enthusiasm regarding the party activities and accomplishments. In most cases, the HDZ used Facebook to highlight party accomplishments and the candidate and to make promises for the future. The SDP mostly used Facebook for empowerment and to emphasize the leader as a source of credibility and the main reason to vote for the party. MOST used Facebook mostly to highlight party accomplishments, especially at it became a national party based on a few local initiatives.



Graph 3. Dominant strategy of the Facebook status message

¹⁰ Translation: New elections will cost less than 4 more years of robbery and incompetence of a two-headed snake.

¹¹ Translation: Greetings from the new Government!

None of the analyzed parties promoted certain activities, such as voting, watching some material on other media, or getting involved in a project. The parties were focused mostly on campaign promotion. MOST had a significant number of status messages focused on media promotion of party accomplishments.

In referring to the other interest groups in their status messages, all examined political parties mostly referred to their party members and candidates, especially their candidate for prime minister. In a few cases, the parties referred to the other interest groups. MOST referred to regular citizens but in the context of confirming to their policy. The HDZ referred to experts but also in terms of confirming of their policy.

5. Discussion

The data showed that during the 2015 parliamentary election campaign the main political parties in Croatia mostly used their Facebook accounts to promote and communicate their projects, plans, and achievements. A large number of the status messages were supportive of parties' policies, accomplishments in the campaign, or of the candidates.

Furthermore, this research showed that the parties were mostly promoting their activities and were not inviting users to engage in specific actions, such as inviting them to view some material, to comment, answer questions, or to engage in some offline action (to vote, to watch some material on other media, or to get involved in a project). In the examined time period there were no user's posts on the Facebook wall of all main parties and candidates.

The analysis revealed that during the campaign the most active party on Facebook was the HDZ (had the most status messages). All parties usually shared political status messages focused mostly on the party policies or on promoting their campaign activities and less on communicating crises and other political and social issues occurring at the time of the campaign.

The HDZ had the most planned and technically equipped status messages (special photos, links, promotions of their policy and activities). However, the SDP and MOST had higher user engagement in terms of more likes. While all political parties had mostly supportive

status messages, there were also a significant number of cynical status messages referring to the bad policies of the parties and insulting the party leaders.

6. Conclusion

From the 2015 Parliamentary elections until today, the political landscape in Croatia has never been more dynamic and diverse. With constant tensions and the inability to create a stable government, the parliamentary elections in 2015 set a completely new political context in Croatia. With the rise of the third political option MOST, the two main parties, HDZ and SDP, faced difficulties in creating a stable government. This led us to examine the communication of the main political parties on their official Facebook pages during the election campaign. Maireder et al. (2015, 129) explain that “social media have changed the way citizens, journalists, institutions, and activists communicate about social and political issues”. Kalsnes (2016) mentions that the “Internet has become a popular intermediation channel for political communication during election campaigns and social media platforms in particular have been hailed for their participatory and interactive potential”. Moreover, Johnson (2011) concludes that “the potential for political parties to connect, communicate, mobilize, fundraise, and affect the news agenda through social media is one of the strategic reasons why political parties are increasingly engaging in online politics”.

The goal of this analysis was to determine what the main political parties (HDZ, SDP, and MOST) communicated with users during the 2015 election campaign. We wanted to determine if they discussed certain social and political issues that were ongoing in Croatia at the time of election campaign or if they used their Facebook accounts to promote their campaigns and political activities. A content analysis of the 250 Facebook status messages of the three main political parties in Croatia during the campaign was undertaken.

The analysis revealed that by the time of the election campaign all political parties used their Facebook accounts to promote their political activities and accomplishments. In addition, the main tone of the posts for all parties was supportive of their political actions and plans for the future. Overall, the analysis showed the lack of strategy on social media for all political parties. Instead, social media was used only for promotion. Another interesting fact is that the analysis revealed that the 2015 parliamentary election campaign posts on social media were

political and not personal. All political parties communicated political status messages in most cases and only in a few did they promote their political candidates.

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CRISIS COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL MEDIA: A CASE STUDY OF A CRISIS IN THE RETAIL SECTOR IN CROATIA

Violeta Colić, M.A.

Communications Office Colić, Laco & Partners, Zagreb, Croatia

violeta@commoffice.hr

Anita Klapan, M.A.

Communications Office Colić, Laco & Partners, Zagreb, Croatia

anita@commoffice.hr

Summary

Apart from the traditional media, new media and social networks in crisis communications are attracting increasing attention. Except for the well known Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT), a Social-Mediated Crisis Communication (SMCC) model has been developed which takes into consideration the interaction between the traditional and the new media. Hence, the focus of this study was to determine which strategies and communication channels had been used in managing the crisis communication with respect to a specific salmonella crisis which occurred in Croatia in 2016, and to what extent had the retail companies communicated on social networks. The results show that retail chains used the rebuilding strategy, provided information to potential victims, and communicated product recalls offering compensations. Communication was limited to the media and in a few cases the companies' websites. Although active on Facebook, this channel was ignored, except in the case of a single retail chain gaining the highest number of negative comments. This study points that the role of social media in different type of crisis should be further researched.

Keywords: crisis, crisis communication, crisis management, communication channels, social media, retail

1. Introduction

Crisis is perceived as a “breakdown in a system that creates shared stress” (Perry, 2007 as cited in Coombs, 2015, 2) and depending on how a company deals with a crisis, it can have significant losses, but also gains, both business- and reputation-wise. One of the main elements of good crisis management is to engage and communicate the organisation’s response regarding the crisis (Modéus, Paulsson, Olsson, 2012) and do so accurately and timely. Crisis communications managers should keep in mind that with the technological advancements the media environment has significantly changed over the last decade. This is in particular true for the online and social arena since they have become an inevitable element of any communication. In a crisis situation, the public oftentimes turns to the internet and participates in the debate, using the existing platforms to ask questions, express emotions, or call for immediate action. If crisis communicators decide to opt out of these platforms and ignore them or fail to utilise their potential and possibilities, the communication in the online world will continue without the organisation’s voice being heard (Veil, Buehner, Palenchar, 2011).

Despite theoretical and practical importance, organisations still find it challenging to use social media effectively for crisis communication (Roshan, Warren, Carr, 2016), and this field is still largely understudied, although their use during a crisis situation is increasing (Pew Internet & American Life Project, 2010 as cited in Jin, Liu, Austin, 2014). Therefore, the focus of this study was to examine the use of social media in crisis communication by analysing a specific salmonella-related crisis in Croatia.

2. Crisis communications and social media

Crises occur relatively frequently (Verhoeven et al., 2014), and public relations professionals must be prepared and skilled to address them appropriately. Providing adequate, accurate and quick response is of utmost importance, and taking into consideration all the relevant stakeholders and attention to communication channels is pivotal. Social media in that respect are no exception, especially since in recent years they have become integral part of everyday life for many people (Ellison, Steinfeld, Lampe, 2007). Their use and effects have been studied widely in the domain of interpersonal communications, while studies on the corporate

use of social media remain largely descriptive (e.g. Lovejoy, Waters, Saxton, 2012; Waters et al., 2009 as cited in Utz, Schultz, Glocka, 2013). In the coming years, this trend is expected to change, since practitioners and academics highlight the importance of insight into and better understanding of corporate crisis situations.

2.1. Crisis and response strategies

There is a consensus on what constitutes a crisis - an unpredictable event which disrupts organisation's normal operations, stimulates the attention of the media and potentially has a number of significant impacts on business or operations (Barton, 1993, Fearn-Banks, 1996, Gower 2006 as cited in Kim, 2015; Coombs, 2015).

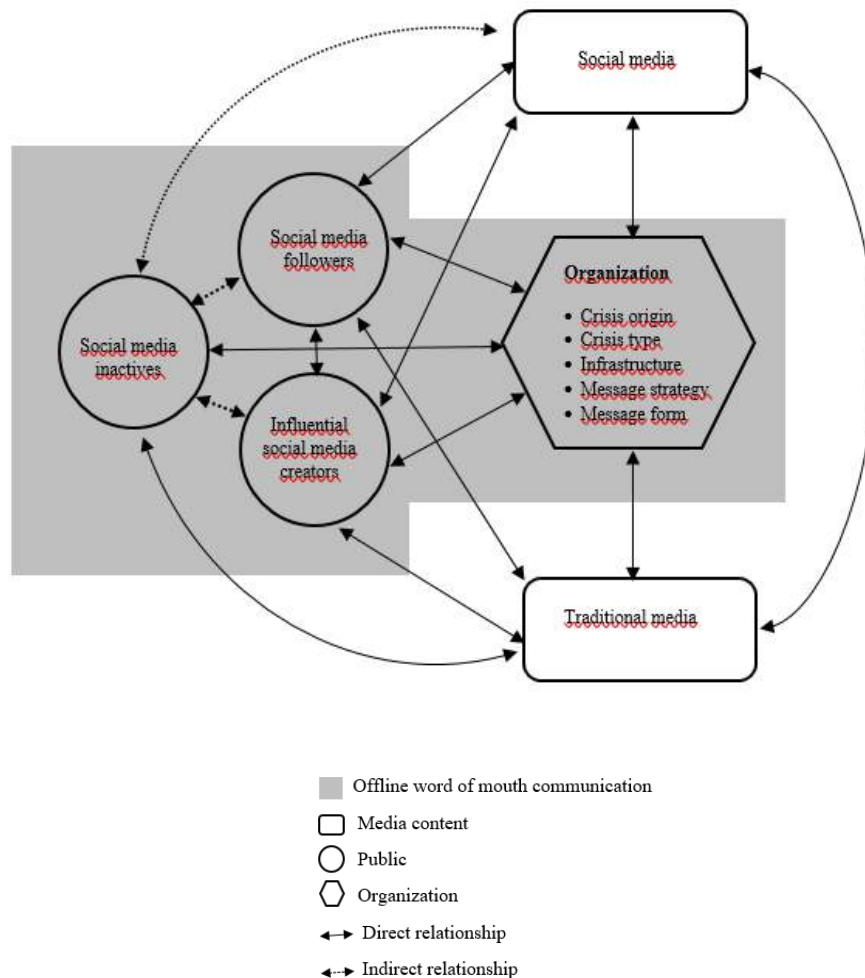
Having in mind the detrimental effect a crisis might have on an organisation, adequate communication and crisis management otherwise are necessary to prevent the organisation suffers more damage than it already has. Crisis communication may be defined as "the collection, processing, and dissemination of information required to address a crisis situation" (Coombs, 2010 as cited in Kim, 2015, 61). Today, the best known model for dealing with crisis situations is the Coombs's Situational Crisis Communication Theory (hereinafter: SCCT). It focuses on three crisis clusters based upon attribution of crisis responsibility by crisis type – the victim cluster, with weak attribution of crisis responsibility and the organisation viewed as a victim of the event; the accidental cluster, where the organisation has minimal attributions of crisis and the event is considered unintentional or uncontrollable by the organisation; and the intentional cluster, with very strong attributions of crisis responsibility to the organisation and where the event is considered purposeful. Following the model, Coombs (2011 as cited in Roshan, Warren, Carr, 2016) identified four clusters of crisis response strategies: denial, diminishment, rebuilding and bolstering, while from the Claeys and Cauberghe's (2012), point of view the selection of a crisis response strategy is related to crisis responsibility attributed to the organisation.

Table 1. Match between crisis types and crisis response strategies (adapted from Coombs, 2007 as cited in Claeys, Cauberghe, Vynche, 2010)

Crisis types	Crisis response strategies
Victims cluster	Deny strategies
Natural disaster	Attack the accuser
Rumour	Denial
Workplace violence	Scapegoat
Product tampering / Malevolence	
Accidental cluster	Diminish strategies
Challenges	Excuse
Technical-error accidents	Justification
Technical-error product harm	
Preventable cluster	Rebuild strategies
Human-error accidents	Compensation
Human-error product harm	Apology
Organisational misdeed with no injuries	
Organisational misdeed management misconduct	
Organisational misdeed with injuries	

Regardless of the strategies selected, the impact of different media on the effects of crisis response strategies is understudied. Furthermore, there are ongoing intense discussions about the integration of the internet and the social media into crisis communication and crisis management (Schultz, Utz, Göritz, 2011), which is not taken into consideration in the SCCT model.

The SCCT model, provides detailed input on specific steps in a crisis situation, but it does not take into account the interaction between the traditional and the new media. That is to say, with organisations going online via their websites and social media as the next level (Coombs, 2015), the latter should also be taken into consideration and utilised in managing crises.



Graph 1. Social-Mediated Crisis Communication model (Liu et al. as cited in Jin, Liu, Austin, 2014)

The model embracing the new media is the Social-Mediated Crisis Communication Model (SMCC) (Graph 1) which additionally focuses on the fact that the social media should also be a part of the strategy in managing crises as Derani and Naidu (2016, 650) extrapolate, “in order to communicate with the public to convey current information about an issue or crisis in the fastest and easiest way while building and maintaining the trust and the relationships with the stakeholders”.

As seen in the SMCC protocol, both old and new media have practically the same relations towards the company and other publics, and are complementary and essentially the same (Rand, Rodriguez, 2007 as cited in Veil, Buehner, Palanchar, 2011). According to Coombs (2015, 155), crisis managers have historically used what he calls “traditional crisis communication channels, including the news media, advertising (newspapers) and websites to

deliver the crisis response to stakeholders”, but nowadays, new media, that is, social media, must also be considered.

2.2. Social media and crisis management

Social media represent a “group of internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0 and allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content” (Kaplan, Haenlein, 2010, 61). It is a collection of the new online media technologies that is interactive, instant and allows users “to share insights, experiences, and opinions with one another” (Safko, Brake, 2009 as cited in Coombs, 2015, 18). According to some authors, nowadays publics consider the internet to be the most reliable source of news, good for generating timely communication, unique information and interactive conversations (Seltzer, Mitrook, 2007; Taylor, Perry, 2005). Social networks and blogs account for one in every four and half minutes spent online worldwide (Social networks/blogs, 2010, as cited in Liu, Austin, Jin, 2011). In addition, more than 70% of online adults use specific social media platforms, which provide and further distribute information (Pew, 2014 as cited in Spence, Lachlan, Rainear, 2016). This is also true for crisis situations, where social media usage has increased, and in some cases publics perceive it as more credible than the traditional mass media crisis coverage (Procopio, Procopio, 2007; Sweetser, Metzgar, 2007 as cited in Liu, Austin, Jin, 2011).

Nevertheless, numerous organisations still have not managed to embrace social media into their strategic communication. Only 29% of US companies have formal social media policies (eMarketer, 2010 as cited in Liu, Austin, Jin, 2011), while the majority of public relations practitioners do not believe social media are credible or as accurate as mainstream media or do not know how to obtain management support for social media (Hathi, 2009 as cited in Liu, Austin, Jin, 2011).

Research shows that 92% of communication practitioners believe that blogs and social media influence mainstream news coverage (Solis, 2009 as cited in Veil, Buehner, Palenchar, 2011) but only 13% say they have incorporated social media in their organisations’ crisis communications plans (Russell Herder & ethos Business Law, 2009 as cited in Veil, Buehner, Palenchar, 2011). Furthermore, communication practitioners tend to still prefer the one-to-

many approach to communication and are often apprehensive of the public setting the agenda (González-Herrero, Smith, 2008).

3. Problem

Prevalence of social media has changed the contemporary information media landscape in terms of information transmission and accessibility, which in turn affect possibilities and range of interventions and crisis management (Lin et al., 2016). While most theoreticians nowadays believe that organisations no longer have a choice about integrating social media into their crisis management, the question remains how much is that being implemented in practice.

The study analysed how the largest retail chains operating in Croatia had communicated and used traditional and social media communication tools during the said crisis. Our background overview within this research paper and the field of our interest resulted in the following research questions:

1. What is the dominant strategy/approach in the crisis situation and the type of channel dominantly used in crisis communication management?
2. Have the social media been recognised as a communication channel in a crisis situation?
3. Do social media increase the presence of two-way communication during an organisational crisis?

4. Methodology

We analysed the communication of the retail chains during the salmonella-related crisis in Croatia. The crisis which lasted from mid-October until the end of December 2016 was one of the biggest crisis for retail chains, importers and producers. It generated enormous publicity and sparked considerable interest from the media and the general public - 789 news reports in November alone (Ja trgovac, 2016).

Bearing in mind the intensity of the crisis and that it affected a large number of consumers, we decided to analyse the use of social networks and websites as well as traditional media as

communication channels during this particular crisis. In doing so, we focused on the retail chains as they are in a direct, daily interaction and communication with the consumers through social networks, among others, and are, under the existing legislation, co-responsible for the safety of the food that they are selling.

Crisis communication of the retail chains during the period from the start of the crisis on October 17 until the end of the year has been analysed. We carried out a qualitative analysis of 300 articles in traditional, print media (in 19 print media including the leading national and regional newspapers such as *Jutarnji list*, *Večernji list*, *Novi list*, *Glas Istre*, *Glas Slavonije*, *Slobodna Dalmacija*, *24sata* and other) as well as 75 TV reports (on all three national TV stations, *Croatian Radio Television – HRT*, *Nova TV* and *RTL*) in the period from 17 October until 31 December 2016.

At the same time, we undertook a content analysis of the websites for the same observed period as above and of the Facebook platforms for the period from 1 October until the end of the year, in order to get insight into period before and during the crisis.

Facebook is by far the strongest social network on the Croatian market, with nearly 1.9 million users (Arbona, 23 November 2016), and the number keeps going up. Twitter, for instance, has mere 50,000 users (Jasno&Glasno, 5 November 2016). We analysed the crisis communication of all the retail chains where salmonella-infected products had been found in the period considered: Billa, Boso, Kaufland, Konzum, Lidl, Metro Cash&Carry, Plodine and Spar.

The analysis was carried out in March and April 2017.

5. Results and discussion

The salmonella crisis began on 17 October 2016 with news reports on the death of a boy following a possible salmonella infection caught from imported eggs purchased at Kaufland (Table 2). The retail chain in question resorted to reactive communication and on 18 October, *Jutarnji list* published its reaction to the claims, expressing regret over the boy's death and stating that all the eggs that had been suspected of being the source of the infection had been immediately removed from the shelves (*Jutarnji list*, 18 October 2017, *Salmonella eggs*

prompted extensive investigation). In its response, Kaufland stressed it was cooperating with all the relevant institutions in the ongoing investigation, adding that the analyses of the eggs taken from its store had not shown any presence of salmonella. Kaufland also said that high-risk foodstuffs should be carefully handled and properly thermally treated before consumption.

A month later, the crisis spread to other retail chains as well. On 16 November, Jutarnji list reported that, at the time of the crisis involving eggs purchased at Kaufland, salmonella had been detected in the poultry meat sold at Lidl but that the public had not been informed about it (Jutarnji list, 16 November 2017, *We are exposing new scandal with contaminated food - Covered up case of salmonella in chicken*). The Ministry of Agriculture explained that the said poultry meat had expired before they had received the results of the analysis carried out by Lidl, which was why the information about salmonella's presence had been sent to the European system RASFF (Rapid Alert System for Food and Feed) as information for attention, rather than an alert, which would have included informing the consumers about it. The minister of agriculture reacted to the statement, admitting he had learned about salmonella in chicken and duck meat sold at Lidl from the media. He immediately initiated the dismissal of the head of the Veterinary and Food Safety Directorate. Lidl reacted by issuing a press release stating that they had sent the meat for a routine inspection at an authorised laboratory. Upon receiving positive test results, Lidl informed the Ministry of Agriculture and "implemented the statutory measures". The retail chain also said it sold only originally pre-packaged products, urging buyers who perhaps still had the infected meat to return it and receive a refund of the amount paid even if they had no receipts.

On 17 November, one day following the news reports on salmonella at Lidl, Konzum issued a proactive press release, stating that salmonella had been detected in one of the veal products. Konzum apologised to its buyers and invited them to return the product in question, stressing that immediately upon detection measures had been taken to confirm that it had been an isolated case.

After Konzum, Kaufland also came out with a notice on recalling the salmonella-infected chicken meat and offering the consumers to return the product and for a refund. At the same time, the media announced that an autopsy had confirmed that salmonella was indeed the cause of death of the five-year-old boy. On the occasion, on 21 November, Kaufland's

spokesperson made a statement to RTL, one of Croatia's national TV stations. That was the only statement made on TV by any retail chain during the crisis, seeing as they all used written communication exclusively.

The next day, the Ministry of Agriculture issued a statement saying salmonella had been detected in turkey burgers sold at Plodine as well, and the same product was on offer at Kaufland and Spar. A day later, on 23 November, a recall of the latest salmonella-infected products was ordered for Metro Cash&Carry and, once more, Kaufland.

On 24 and 25 November, all the print media and TV stations that we analysed ran reports on the findings of the inspections at ten distribution centres of the said retail chains and some importers and producers. Salmonella was detected at Kaufland, Metro Cash&Carry, Lidl, Plodine and Billa, while irregularities in handling food were found at Lidl, Konzum and Spar. That same day, following reports on inspection findings, Lidl issued a press release mentioning only its problem with maintaining cleanliness and not the reported salmonella detection in one of the products.

By year-end, the media reported on salmonella presence in products sold at Billa, Boso (Ministry of Agriculture), Metro Cash&Carry (Croatian Food Agency) and Kaufland (Kaufland).

On 29 December, Večernji list published an article saying that retail chains were not ready to make official statements in the salmonella case but only unofficial ones (Večernji list, 29 December 2017, *Poultry meat sales in stores fell 40 percent, more fish is purchased*). The article also ran one such statement on the drop in sales of all meats by up to 50%. The said sales decrease was higher even than the decrease posted during the avian flu or mad cow disease affairs, which had been around 20% (Jutarnji list, 22 November 2017, *Inspectors found large amounts of contaminated food*, head of Croatiastočar Branko Bobetić).

Table 2. Overview of the retail chains and their communication in response to media queries and communication via press releases¹

Date	Retail chain	Type of reaction	Content
Oct 18	Kaufland	Response to a media query (Jutarnji list)	Expressing regret over the death of the boy. Stating that they immediately took all the necessary measures to remove the possibility of infections. Kaufland is in contact with the Croatian Public Health Institute and the egg producers, and cooperates with all the relevant bodies, including both sanitary and veterinary inspections. Drawing attention to the fact that in case of high-risk foodstuffs, such as eggs and fresh meat, it is important to transport them and store them at appropriate temperatures until use and to thermally treat them prior to consumption. Appeasing the buyers by saying that their eggs are safe and that the buyers can continue to consume those purchased at Kaufland.
Nov 16	Lidl	Press release by Lidl	Stating that the meat was sent to a routine safety and wholesomeness meat inspection, adding that after receiving positive findings they immediately contacted the Ministry of Agriculture and took the appropriate measures. Highlighting the fact that Lidl offers only originally pre-packaged products, and that they cannot in any way influence the products' possible contamination. To maintain the safety and wholesomeness of the products, it is necessary to maintain the cold chain from the moment of the products' production to the moment of their sale at Lidl. The said cold chain undergoes multiple direct temperature checks, which are then routinely logged. Adding that buyers who still have the product in question can return it and receive a refund of the amount paid, whether they have the receipts or not.
Nov 17	Konzum	Press release by Konzum	Apologising to their customers and urging them to return the products in question in any shape or form, regardless of the expiration date, as a precautionary measure. Stating that they have no information on anyone experiencing any problems after consuming the said product. Highlighting that they have taken additional measures across their retail network to make sure this has been an isolated case.
Nov 17	Kaufland	Press release by Kaufland	Kaufland is recalling the infected chicken meat by the Polish producer Animexfood sold loose. Even though it is yet to be determined if the detected salmonella belongs in the hazard category, the release states that Kaufland has recalled the product in question from all its stores as a precautionary measure. The buyers can return the product to any Kaufland store and receive a refund of the amount paid, even without receipts.
Nov 18	Kaufland	Statement for the media (RTL Danas)	On the one hand, we have self-inspections, which we use to comply with all the rules and regulations. On the other hand, we demand that all our suppliers of raw meat and chicken provide us with certificates from the global food safety initiative.
Nov 25	Lidl	Press release by Lidl	Stating that the inspection at Lidl was carried out during the busiest part of the day, and that the cleanliness issues referred to the remains of the packaging and parts of wooden pallets used by the forklifts. Lidl was the first to detect noncompliant products and immediately inform the Ministry of Agriculture about it.

¹ The analysis does not contain the notices by the Ministry of Agriculture/Croatian Food Agency.

Following inspection of the retail chains' websites² and their use of that particular channel to provide information to their buyers, it was noted that they posted notices on informing the consumers of product recalls either sporadically or not at all (Table 3).

For instance, on three different occasions Kaufland posted consumer notices on. At the same time, Konzum and Metro Cash&Carry posted one and two product recall notices respectively. The other retail chains, namely, Lidl, Plodine, Billa, Spar and Boso, had no product recall notices or appeals to consumers to return the products in their news archives at the time of the inspection of their respective websites.

Table 3. Overview of retail chains and their communication with the consumers via their respective websites

Date	Retail chain	Content
Oct 20	Kaufland	Consumer notice on recalling eggs produced by Mesna Industrija Braće Pivac over concerns about product safety. Consumers can return the product in question to the nearest Mesna Industrija Braće Pivac stores and other stores where the product was purchased and receive a refund of the amount paid, without having to present their receipts.
Nov 20	Kaufland	Consumer notice, based on the news reports and information from the Ministry of Agriculture's website about the turkey burgers with rosemary being recalled from the Croatian market, on Kaufland Croatia recalling the said products at their own initiative and as a precautionary measure. Urging the buyers to return the product in question and receive a refund of the amount paid.
Nov 23	Kaufland	Consumer notice on recalling turkey breasts over salmonella presence, based on a decision of the ministry of Agriculture. Urging the buyers to return the product in question to Kaufland and receive a refund of the amount paid.
Nov 17	Konzum	Consumer notice stating that Salmonella spp has been detected in one of the meat product samples (<i>ćevapčići</i>). Apologising to consumers and urging them to return the product in question.
Nov 23	Metro Cash&Carry	Consumer notice on recalling frozen chicken breast fillets over salmonella presence. Informing the buyers who have purchased the product is ongoing. Urging the buyers to return the product in question to Metro Cash&Carry and receive a refund of the amount paid.
Dec 2	Metro Cash&Carry	Consumer notice on recalling frozen chicken fillets over salmonella presence. Informing the buyers who have purchased the product is ongoing. Urging the buyers to return the product in question to Metro Cash&Carry and receive a refund of the amount paid.

² Source: <https://tvrka.kaufland.hr/mediji/izjave-za-medije.html#kontakt>, <https://www.konzum.hr/O-Konzumu/Obavijesti-za-kupce/>, <https://www.metro-cc.hr/priopcenja-za-medije>, <https://www.lidl.hr/hr/press.htm>, <http://www.plodine.hr/>, https://www.spar.hr/hr_HR.html, <https://www.boso.hr/category/novosti/>

As part of the analysis' third segment, we inspected the social networks of all eight retail chains.

All the retail chains have Facebook³ pages with large number of followers and an active communication (Table 4). Konzum is the only retail chain with a Twitter⁴ account, however, the account is inactive seeing as the last post was tweeted in June 2013. At the same time, Instagram⁵ is used by Konzum, Lidl and Metro Cash&Carry. As regards YouTube⁶, the only retail chains without accounts on that particular social network are Boso and Plodine.

Table 4. Overview of retail chains and their respective social media accounts

Retail chain	Facebook	Twitter	Instagram	You Tube
Billa	120 401	-	-	59
Boso	5 432	-	-	-
Kaufland	189 090	-	-	-
Konzum	235 632	269	4 177	N/a
Lidl	345 976	-	23 200	1 004
Metro Cash&Carry	20 725	-	722	291
Plodine	131 334	-	-	-
Spar	57 433	-	-	169

A total of 905 posts were made on Facebook in the period between 1 October and 31 December, demonstrating activity on this specific social media.

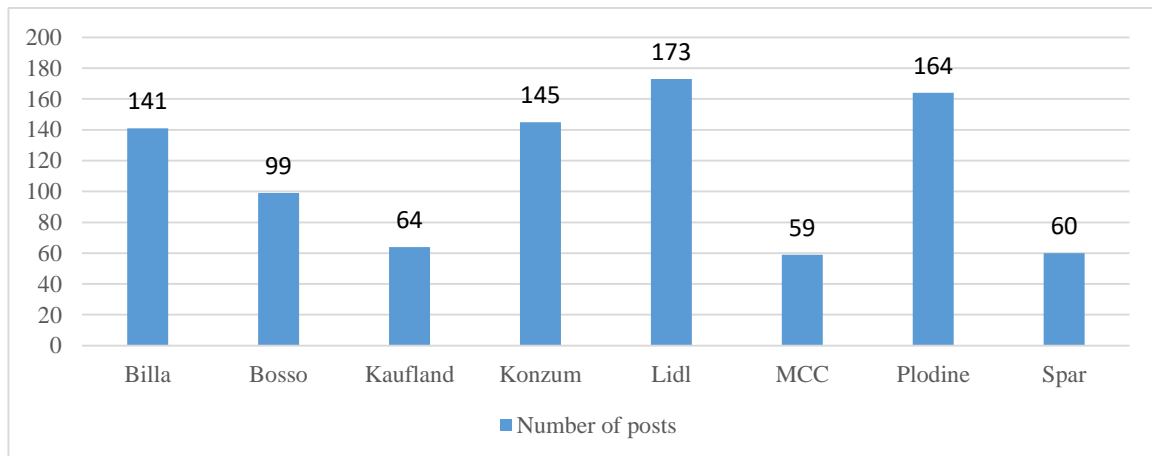
As evident from Graph 2, Lidl was the most active retail chain with 173 posts; the only other retail chains with three-digit posts were Plodine (164 posts), Konzum (145) and Billa (141). In the last quarter of 2016, Boso Vinkovci had 99 posts, while posts by Kaufland (64), Spar (60) and Metro Cash&Carry (59) were less frequent.

³<https://www.facebook.com/BILLA/>, <https://www.facebook.com/boso.vinkovci/>,
<https://www.facebook.com/KauflandHrvatska/>, <https://www.facebook.com/Konzum/>,
<https://www.facebook.com/lidlhrvatska/>, <https://www.facebook.com/MetroHR/>,
<https://www.facebook.com/PlodineHrvatska/>, <https://www.facebook.com/SparHrvatska/>

⁴ <https://twitter.com/konzumhr>

⁵ <https://www.instagram.com/konzumhr/?hl=hr>, https://www.instagram.com/lidl_hrvatska/?hl=hr,
https://www.instagram.com/metro_hr/?hl=hr

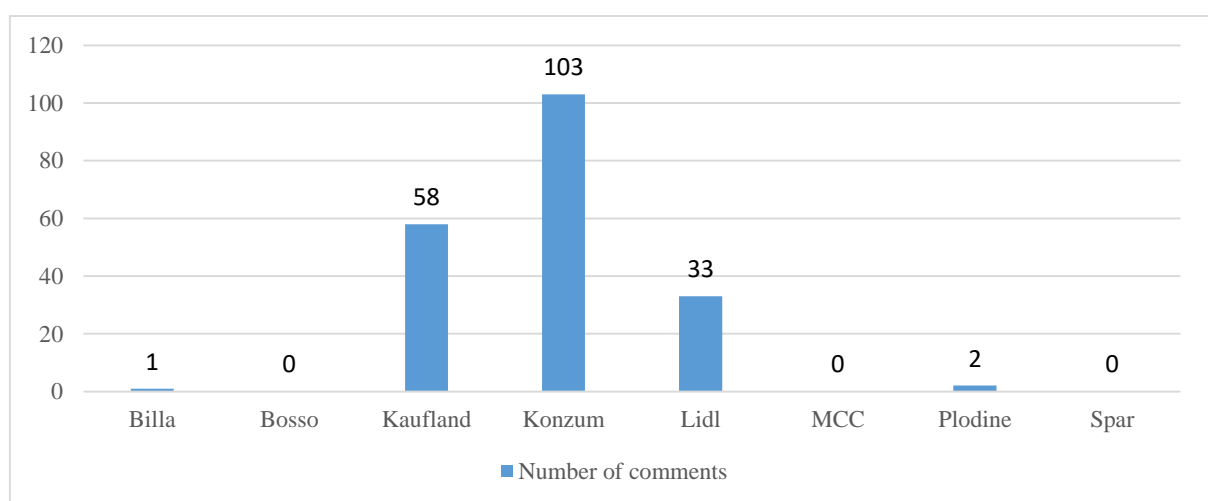
⁶ <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCIDYlcepfXUXO8PXIMi2z0w/featured>,
<https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCwnssOgo70sUQfa27kGHdGg>



Graph 2. Illustration of the retail chains' activities and number of posts on their Facebook pages (1 October – 31 December)

There was only one post that mentioned salmonella and product recall, and it was proactively posted by Konzum.

During the period considered, there were 196 followers' comments on the subject of salmonella, which were selected by looking only the comments starting the discussion on salmonella and every comment within that discussion. Most of the comments on the said subject were found on Konzum's Facebook page (103); Konzum is followed by Kaufland (58), Lidl (33), Plodine (2), and Billa with a single comment. At the time of the analysis, there were no salmonella-related comments on the Facebook pages of Spar, Bosso and Metro Cash&Carry.



Graph 3. Illustration of the number of comments on the subject of salmonella (n=196) on the retail chains' Facebook pages

The analysis showed that retailers almost completely ignored and did not replied to visitor and consumer comments on their Facebook page.

Table 6. Overview of activities on the retail chains' Facebook pages

Retail chain	Salmonella-related status	Salmonella-related comments and reactions by their followers	Retail chain's reaction
Billa		1 comment	Ignoring
Boso		-	-
Kaufland		58 comments	Ignoring
Konzum	+	300 likes, 238 shares, 103 comments – 94 negative comments	Ignoring Responding to a question on product return
Lidl		33 comments	Ignoring comments Responding to a question on infected eggs
Metro C&C		-	-
Plodine		2	Liking comments
Spar		-	-

6. Conclusion

The crisis involving frequent incidence of salmonella, according to information from the retail chains and HGK's relevant bodies, had a negative impact on business results. For the duration of the crisis, there was, according to media sources, a drop in sales of poultry and other types of meat by 30 – 50% (Glas Slavonije, 25 November 2017, *Salmonella detected at the street market in Županja as well*; Večernji list, 22 November 2017, *Poultry meat sales in stores fell 40 percent, more fish is purchased*).

Under the SCCT model, this crisis belongs to a group of crises that could have been prevented, and where the responsibility is carried by organisations. In this particular case, retail chains were required by law to control food safety, but the inspection determined there were certain irregularities.

Analysis shows that the retail chains, just as the SCCT model suggest for preventable crises, were employing the rebuilding strategy and provided information for potential victims via warnings and safety options.

During the crisis, not a single retail chain apologised, except for Konzum, but all used proactive communication to inform the public on pulling certain products off shelves after

salmonella had been detected, offering consumers who bought the products in question the option to return them and get refunds or compensation. Kaufland and Lidl pointed out suppliers' responsibility ("we only sell packaged products", "we require that suppliers provide... certificates"). However, the communication used limited channels and targeted the traditional media and the Ministry of Agriculture as mediators to further distribute the information. Apart from the media, only in several cases was the information published on retail chain websites. The communication towards the media was in writing only, with only one TV statement.

Even though most of the observed retail chains have active Facebook pages used prior to and during the crisis, on a daily basis, only Konzum used Facebook to inform the public on product recall, inviting the largest number of comments, mostly negative ones. No other retail chain used this channel to communicate the information. Although most retail chains received negative comments about the salmonella during the crisis, as a rule they did not react, except in two cases: in one, Lidl and Konzum replied to a question, while Plodine liked two comments by their followers.

Analysis of the overall Facebook communication in the period leading to and during the crisis shows that retail chains, as a rule, except for Plodine, are not practising two-way communication with their followers. Even though they were active through daily posts, with the exception of Konzum's announcement, retail chains completely ignored the social networks as a channel of communication. This is contrary to the recommendation that "the response to the crisis should be communicated by any channel that the organisation used before the crisis broke out" (Coombs, 2015, 157) and the recommendation that "organisations should react proactively, using official social media channels in order to secure authority and availability of information if the organisation is not the cause of the crisis" (Jin et al., 2014, 78), since some of the retail chains pointed to suppliers as responsible parties. Not a single chain used their own communication channels (websites or social media) to offer more detailed information on how they were controlling the food and the procedures to warrant safety, or to further educate consumers on handling sensitive foodstuffs.

In this case, by law and public perception, retail chains bore the responsibility for the appearance of salmonella. Higher perception of a company's responsibility results in higher reputational damage, but this case is specific in that all the leading retail chains on the market

were involved in the crisis. Responsibility could not be ascribed to just one organisation. Whether (and how) this crisis and the mode of communication reflected on the reputation of Croatian retail chains is at this moment not known.

The analysis suggests that further studies of the social media communication in times of crisis is necessary. The only chain that proactively communicated information on salmonella on its Facebook page in the end attracted the largest number of negative comments. Although the crisis had high publicity in traditional media and was relevant to a large number of consumers, resulting in a significant drop in meat sales, retail chains' Facebook pages registered relatively low number of negative comments.

Based on the analysis, it may be said that there is a discrepancy between theoretical recommendations and expected results of taking the same approach to social media channels and all the other channels, actual practice, and end results. In order to ascertain a clearer connection between the crisis, the social networks and potential consequences for a company's reputation, further and more detailed correlation studies are required.

7. Limitations and recommendations

This analysis is not without some specific limitations derived from the specific crisis included in this research. We analysed a crisis in one single market, a specific crisis which engaged all the main retail chains. There was no actor clearly responsible for the crisis, thus not one retail chain was to be blamed, and they all shared the responsibility. The analysis was carried out a few months after the crisis subsided. Future research is recommended and would be welcomed to focus on a crisis relating to one subject with a clear notion of the responsible agent.

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EXPLORATORY STUDY OF WORD OCCURRENCES AND EMOTIONS IN TWEETS OF UK'S START-UP FOUNDERS

Ivan Dunder, Ph.D.

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

ivandunder@gmail.com

Marko Horvat, Ph.D.

Zagreb University of Applied Sciences, Zagreb, Croatia

mhorvat1@tvz.hr

Sergej Lugović, Ph.D. Candidate

Head of SAP HANA lab, Zagreb University of Applied Sciences, Zagreb, Croatia

slugovic@tvz.hr

Summary

There is clear evidence of intense activities concerning start-up companies and their founders. In particular, EU governments play an active role in investing taxpayers' money into start-ups, which are, by their very definition, high-risk business ventures. To evaluate such market interventions, interested parties have to develop precise methodologies and measures. In order to solve this problem, the authors applied machine observation of start-up founders' Twitter accounts. The aim of this paper is to investigate the capabilities and the usefulness of two analytical methods used for the purpose of machine observation of start-up founders' Twitter activities. The first method is rooted in Natural Language Processing, particularly in statistical analysis of word usage in tweets. The second method relates to Affective Computing, in particular, mining of emotional states of start-up founders by visually analysing their Twitter profile pictures. The authors correlated the data with the dynamic properties of Twitter accounts, attributes such as number of tweets, number of followers, and following accounts.

Keywords: information and communication sciences, natural language processing, affective computing, analysis of start-up founders' communication, text and emotion mining, social networks

1. Introduction and Motivation

Recently, the EU commission and individual country governments started to spend more on funding start-ups and their founders. But these are high-risk business ventures, and currently, there is no clear definition that could describe start-up companies in quantitative terms.

NESTA (Dee et al., 2015) defines start-ups as “[A] young, innovative, growth-oriented business (employees/revenue/customers) in search of a sustainable and scalable business model”. This definition expands Steve Blank’s (2013) definition of start-ups as organisations formed to search for repeatable and scalable business models. The Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation (Fairlie et al., 2015) defines start-ups as “employer firms less than one year old employing at least one person besides the owner”. Low and MacMillan (1988) suggested that research into entrepreneurial behaviour should consider contextual issues and identify the processes that explain, rather than merely describe, the entrepreneurial phenomenon.

Having in place a clear set of variables is crucial to evaluate market intervention effectiveness. The EU is stimulating the market with billions of euros, but the authors of this paper found serious flaws in the available data. For example, the EU commission mapped recent start-up ecosystems in various towns (Startuphubs.eu, 2015). It was reported that 1.49 million people work in start-up companies in London alone. Such numbers have to be accepted with caution, since a total of 4.876 million people worked in the greater London area in 2014 (Cityoflondon.gov.uk, 2015). At the same time, European investment funds stimulate entrepreneurial activities in the EU by distributing money to private equity funds with the hope that those investments will stimulate more investments (Eif.org, 2015).

Another source shows that, in the EU, only 70 companies that received a venture capital investment higher than 100 million euros and 883 companies with venture capital investments in the range between 10 and 100 million euros add up to 39.2 billion euros in total investment

for all 953 companies (Tech.eu, 2015). The EU plans to invest 21 billion euros to stimulate the market that reached almost 40 billion euros of total investment. This is 53% of the total money invested so far. One can see evidence of “the politics of attention” since the media frequently mention start-up companies (Ft.com, 2015), political speeches and European commission programmes (Ec.europe.eu, 2015), but venture capital funds in the EU are increasing activity (Grilli, Murtinu, 2014).

There is a clear need to support new companies leveraging technological advances, but at the same time, there is also a need to monitor and measure the impact of policies that rely on taxpayers' money. And one of the potential avenues to implement monitoring and measuring procedures is using machines to support the process of gathering, organising, synthesising, selecting, and distributing information through all stakeholders' ecosystems.

In order to learn more about start-ups as a phenomenon, the authors of this paper decided to focus on what start-ups and their founders do, rather than what a start-up actually is. And to learn more about their behaviour, the authors chose to use machine-based observation in order to support the research inquiry.

2. Related Research and Theoretical Background

In a previous research, the authors explored the Twitter usage among European start-up founders on the country level and the total investment into start-ups per country (Lugović, Ahmed, 2015). The authors looked for how long start-up founders use Twitter, inspected the number of tweets they posted, the number of followers they have, the number of start-up founders with more than 100 tweets and followers per country, and the percentage of start-up founders that have a personal Twitter account. Then, they correlated those findings with the total investment and investment per capita in a particular country. The research showed that there are fewer than 10000 start-up founders with more than 100 tweets and more than 100 followers. So, a start-up founder's engagement is relatively low, while government engagement is relatively high: The European Fund for Strategic Investments (EFSI) will benefit from a guarantee financed by the EU budget of 16 billion euros, while the European Investment Bank (EIB) is contributing a further 5 billion euros to EFSI in cash (Eif.org, 2015).

The very same research showed statistically significant correlations between the total number of start-up founders in a particular country who have more than 100 tweets and more than 100 followers with the total investment per country and percentage of the start-up founders with personal Twitter profiles presented in the F6S database (F6s.com, 2015) and the total country investment. There was no statistically significant correlation between the number of start-up founders' tweets, the followers, and the time spent on Twitter and investments start-up founders receive on the country level. So, the stronger a Twitter ecosystem in a country is, the more investment a country gets. But looking into the number of tweets that are actually messages, and the lack of correlation with the investment a country receives, opens up questions related to the production, distribution, interpretation, storage, and control of the messages and messengers (Capurro, 2003).

Literature addressing investor relations (IR) and social media point to the importance of Twitter in that process. Three out of five financial bloggers use Twitter as their primary news source (Palanissamy, 2014). Twitter is the most widely used channel to communicate investment materials for the purpose of IR (Joyce, 2013) and Twitter, along with LinkedIn and blogs, is the most valuable social media resource for investors (Niri.org, 2013).

Another study showed that there is a relation between tweet content and start-up performance, including raised funding (Tata, Martinez, Brusoni, 2015). Another important aspect of the investment decision process is related to the founders' characteristics. A recent study showed that the information about the characteristics of the founders is more important than the information about the company traction (sales volume and user base) and the information about who else already invested in a particular company (Bernstein, Korteweg, Laws, 2017).

If the content of the messages, i.e. tweets, and characteristics of start-up founders are important in the investment decision-making process, the question is how this process could be supported by using machines. One can see a clear social benefit in applying machines, especially if taxpayers invest money. This way, machines could monitor how the start-ups spend money and what the impact of that spending is.

In this paper, the authors would like to explore two possible techniques for that purpose. One is statistical analysis of word usage, i.e. word occurrences in tweets, which is rooted in Natu-

ral Language Processing (NLP), whereas the other one is emotions mining from the Twitter profile pictures of the start-up founders, which is related to Affective computing (AC).

Since this is an exploratory study of the aforementioned techniques, no specific research hypotheses and questions were formulated, as the entire focus is on the particular techniques, and the analysis is done on a smaller data set extracted from the larger data set, for which the collection started in July 2015. From the authors' perspective, this is a necessary step before applying the mentioned techniques on the whole collected data set. The statistical analysis of the used words is a language-independent method and provides critical descriptive statistics of the content of the messages, i.e. tweets that are being collected by the authors for all 28 EU member states.

The main goal of this paper is investigating the capabilities and the usefulness of the described techniques for the purpose of machine observation of start-up founders' Twitter activities. This paper also explains the overall data retrieval process, while the discussion of results and the conclusion appear after the presentation of the two different techniques and the related methodologies.

3. Research Methodology, Results and Discussion

The authors retrieved the necessary data related to EU start-up founders from one of the most widely used databases (with 2 million unique visitors a month), F6s.com, which lists more than 110000 companies in the database (F6s.com, 2015). In total, the authors retrieved data for 50433 founders from 29 EU countries (including Norway) with the assistance of four freelance workers hired through the UpWork (Upwork.com, 2015) platform. Out of those 50433 start-up founders, 15912 submitted private Twitter account information into the F6s.com database. Then, the authors checked those 15912 accounts manually.

Furthermore, the authors collected data about the date the founders joined Twitter, how many tweets they posted, how many accounts they were following, and how many followers they had. Then, they selected Twitter accounts that had more than 100 tweets and more than 100 followers. When filtered, the authors' team entered those accounts into the Twitter Archiving

Google Sheets (TAGS) retrieval system (Hawksey, 2013), which the authors set to retrieve data on a daily basis from those filtered accounts. In total, 9696 start-up founders had more than 100 tweets and more than 100 followers, and those accounts were the input for the TAGS system. Still, the data from the second half of July and the beginning of August 2015 was collected manually, but since then, the data retrieval was automatic with the help of the TAGS system.

For the purpose of the exploratory analysis presented in this paper, the authors decided to extract a smaller, not representative set of the followed Twitter accounts. The authors decided to analyse only start-up founders' accounts from the UK and selected the first 40 accounts stored in the authors' database. Then, those accounts were checked manually to ensure that they were really private accounts or company accounts. Founders when registering with F6s.com have the option to submit company and private Twitter accounts, but some of them put their company Twitter account in the field intended for private account.

Out of those 40 accounts, there were 22 that belonged to real founders, while others were Twitter accounts of companies or did not exist anymore. After the identification of real start-up founders' accounts, their tweets were extracted automatically with TAGS in the period from August 3 until November 17, 2015. In total, there were 16332 tweets. The authors also collected profile pictures from those 22 founders in order to conduct an emotion analysis of their facial expressions.

3.1. Natural Language Processing Approach: Statistical Analysis of Word Occurrences in Tweets

The initial data set the authors acquired consisted of 16322 retrieved tweets, posted between 3 August and 17 November 2015. The tweets were from 22 start-up founders from the UK and were selected by the highest number of followers. Once they were stored in a text file, the authors carried out the process of normalisation. At first, all the unnecessary variables were removed, such as ordinal numbers, Twitter usernames, dates, language identifiers, country codes, numbers of followers and retweets etc.

The data set was then lowercased in order to eliminate multiple variations of the same word. Then, the words beginning with “http”, “https”, “@”, or “#” were removed as they represent links to web pages, Twitter usernames, and keywords or topics in a tweet, respectively. Finally, the data set was searched for duplicates (such as retweets) and blanks, after which the remaining tweets were stored into a plain text file with UTF-8 encoding. After the normalisation process, 12834 tweets remained, which were used for all subsequent research analyses later on. The statistics of the data sets are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the selected data sets

Before normalisation	
Number of tweets	16322
After normalisation	
Number of unique tweets	12834
Number of characters (with spaces)	710111
Maximal tweet size (in words)	30
Minimal tweet size (in words)	1
Standard deviation (in words)	6.04
Total number of words	130696
Unique words (vocabulary size)	22111
Average tweet size (in characters)	55.33
Average tweet size (in words)	10.18
Total number of words/unique words (vocabulary size) ratio	5.92
Characters in tweets	alphanumeric characters: abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz0123456789
	special characters, e.g.: !."\$%&'()*+,-./:;=?[\]^_`~€,...†‡‰” “”•—~ŁłĄł\$”©\$«¬-®°±¹µ·»

Table 1 shows that the normalised data set consisted of roughly 131000 words comprised of cca. 710000 characters, while more than 22000 words were unique, indicating relatively rich vocabulary, i.e. a large number of specific content words. This is also reflected in a relatively low total number of words/unique words (vocabulary size) ratio, which is less than six.

The tweets contained not only standard alphanumeric characters but also special characters, such as currency symbols, different types of punctuation marks, intellectual property marks etc. The largest tweet consisted of 30 words; the smallest (normalised) tweet was only 1 word, which was expected.

This resulted in a standard deviation equalling approximately six words. Average tweet size was 55.33 characters (cca. 10 words), even though Twitter enables users to disseminate 140-character tweets. This is quite interesting, as this suggests that the analysed start-up founders used only cca. 40% of the character limit to express their thoughts and ideas on Twitter. The reported statistics will serve as a reference point for future exploratory analyses on larger data sets.

The distribution of words over frequencies is given in Table 2. More than 14000 words appear only once in the entire data set and make up cca. 65% of all unique words and almost 11% of the total number of words in the normalised Twitter corpus. Words that appear more than 10 times make up 72% of all words.

This is largely due to the very frequent use of function words, which are presented in Appendix 1. One should also note that the 20 most frequent words are function words, such as articles, auxiliary verbs, conjunctions, pronouns etc.

Table 2. Distribution of words over certain frequencies

Frequency	Number of words	% of unique words (vocabulary size)	% of total number of words
1	14325	64.79	10.96
2	3046	13.78	4.66
3	1185	5.36	2.72
4	734	3.32	2.25
5	487	2.20	1.86
6	334	1.51	1.53
7	256	1.16	1.37
8	193	0.87	1.18
9	147	0.66	1.01
10	117	0.53	0.90
>10	1287	5.82	71.56

The following figures, i.e. Figures 1, 2, 3, show different concordance plots for content words that were subjectively handpicked without any contextualisation and are representative only for the normalised data set. Namely, the intention of the authors is not to inductively overgeneralise the importance of the selected words, as the normalised data set is only an excerpt of a much larger Twitter corpus that the authors started to collect in July 2015.

The barcode-like concordance plots are a visual representation of concordances and depict the position in the data set where a hit occurred. The length of the corpus is normalised to the width of the plot and each hit is shown as a vertical line within the plot (Anthony, 2014). The asterisk operator that appears in the figures shown below represents the Kleene star and is normally used in regular expressions to match any number of characters (zero or more), while the adjacent words (terms) on the left represent the KWIC (key word in context) (Church et al., 1991). Figure 1 shows concordance plots of five business-related terms. The second, fourth and fifth plot imply that the terms “startup*” (with its alternative form “start-up*”), “business*” and “entrepr*” are relatively evenly distributed throughout the whole normalised data set. Variations of the word stem “econom*” is more frequent in the second half of the corpus.

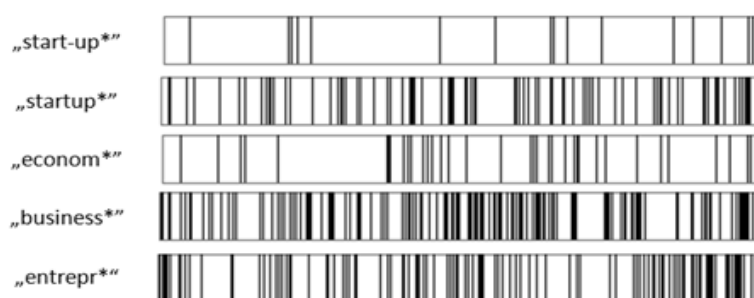


Figure 1. Concordances of business-related terms

Figure 2 shows concordance plots of five finance-related terms. These selected terms are important in investor relationship management, since the user can crawl swiftly and analyse them for the purpose of communication with potential investors.

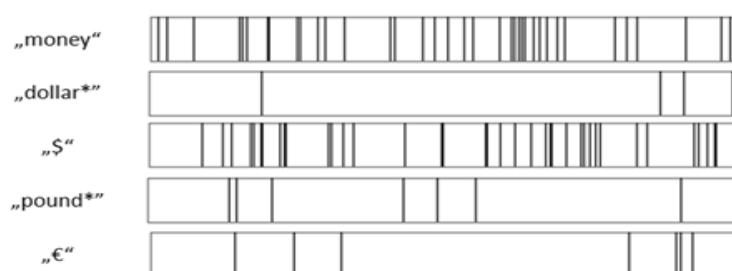


Figure 2. Concordances of finance-related terms

Surprisingly, terms such as “dollar*” (together with “\$”) or “pound*” appear only a few times within the Twitter corpus. The very rare occurrence of the euro symbol (“€”) is astonishing, whereas the semantically important finance-related term “money” appears occasionally in the corpus. Still, the authors of this paper expected finance-related terms to appear much more often throughout the entire data set.

Figure 3 shows remarkable distributions of the words “love” and “help*”. This is completely surprising, as the authors did not expect those terms in such a frequent way in this particular business-related Twitter corpus.



Figure 3. Unexpected occurrences of some words

The authors would also like to emphasise that the conducted quantitative statistical analysis is focused overall on data that most explicitly emerges from a given corpus – frequency, which cannot by itself provide deeper insights into qualitative characteristics of the Twitter corpus. Therefore, more extensive analyses on the larger data set are necessary because putting everything into relation to each other is essential for the statistical significance of various claims.

3.2. Affective Computing Approach: Emotion Mining

All people, regardless of gender, race or culture, possess the inherent ability to express a small set of emotions in exactly the same way through facial expressions (Ekman, Friesen, 1971). Furthermore, a series of studies shows that the same expressions are universally and spontaneously recognisable. In this innate behavioural mechanism, emotionally triggered facial expressions provoke similar affective responses of different intensities but identical polarities in observers (Matsumoto, Yoo, Nakagawa, 2008). This complex phenomenon has deep underlying neurobiological and even genetic causes.

Because of the continuous progress in the fields of psychology and computer science, the technology of automated emotion estimation from facial expressions has matured enough in

the past decade to provide reliable and highly accurate use (Bartlett et al., 2003). With appropriate tools, pictures of faces become a rich and reliable channel for studying the impact they may have on observers.

In this study, the authors collected the accounts' Twitter profile pictures for the purpose of emotion estimation from facial expressions. Based on the analysis of facial features and expressions, the pictures were classified according to six discrete emotion states or emotion norms: anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise. Finally, the mined emotions were compared to the numbers of posted tweets, new followers and accounts the founders were following during the same time period.

The visageSDK FaceReader application accomplished the emotion facial expressions analysis of Twitter profile pictures. The visage|SDK is a set of powerful software tools that support development of a wide variety of face and head tracking and eye tracking applications, including facial expression analysis.¹

The FaceReader application can identify human faces and facial features in still images or videos. Face detection outputs, in addition to quantitative estimate of six discrete emotions, also include 2D and 3D head pose (translation and rotation), facial feature coordinates in global 3D space, relative to the head or in 2D image space, 3D gaze direction (gaze vector), eye closure and 3D model of the face in the current pose and expression returned as single textured 3D triangle mesh. The automatically classified feature points are specified according to the MPEG-4 FBA standard. The input images may contain one or more human faces in any skin colour, but should be preferably in frontal or at least near-frontal poses.

The application works equally well with colour, black and white, and even near-infrared images. Although the recognition algorithm is fairly robust, in our evaluation it could not analyse partly covered faces with eyewear (such as sunglasses or reading glasses), beard, moustache, hand, veil etc. Consequently, some founders who were more than 50° from the camera or had obstructed faces could not be analysed.

¹ The facial expression analysis software is available at: <http://www.visagetechologies.com/products-and-services/visagesdk>.

In this study, the authors collected 22 Twitter profile pictures and analysed them for facial features. Discrete emotions could be estimated in 15 of those pictures. Central tendency measures, mean value, standard deviation (std), minimum and maximum for six basic emotions were calculated for 15 profiles.

Overall, the most dominant emotion was happiness (avg=0.39; std=0.25), and the least important norms were anger (avg=0.13; std=0.08), fear (avg=0.09; std=0.04), and surprise (avg=0.09; std=0.03). The complete results on the cumulative distribution of emotions ordered by their statistical significance are provided in Table 3.

Table 3. Cumulative distribution of discrete emotions in founders' profile pictures

Rank	Emotion	Mean	Std. dev.	Max	Min
1	happiness	0.39	0.25	0.85	0.08
2	sadness	0.23	0.13	0.6	0.06
3	disgust	0.21	0.1	0.46	0.08
4	anger	0.13	0.08	0.32	0.06
5	fear	0.09	0.04	0.16	0.05
6	surprise	0.09	0.03	0.16	0.05

As intuitively expected, happiness, as a basic emotion with continually positive valence, is the most appealing for a profile picture required to attract large audiences. The maximum value of happiness is 0.85 which is 41.67% more than the second most prevalent emotion, and 84.78% more than the third. It's interesting to note that the second and third desirable norms are sadness and disgust. At first this may be surprising, but in different areas of applied psychology, for example, such as in content marketing, studies have irrefutably shown that opposing visual cues that trigger contrasting emotions motivate an audience to see what you want them to see, feel what you want them to feel, and to do what you want them to do. The use of visual cues also affects the content usability. Therefore, sadness and disgust are motivating emotions, which together with the most prevalent emotion, i.e. happiness, help to direct and shape the followers' attention. The least desirable emotions embedded in profile pictures are anger, fear and surprise, which obviously all have negative valence and trigger unwanted connotations in observers.

Another obvious feature in the data set is strong fluctuation of emotions between different profile pictures. Happiness is the most varying emotion with std=0.25, almost twice as much

as with sadness. Fear and surprise constantly have low values and vary the least, only 0.04 and 0.03, respectively. Furthermore, minimal values of all emotions are similar between 0.05 and 0.08. Respective maximal values are consistent with rank, which implies strong consistency between mean, maximal and standard deviation of emotions. The values of statistical correlation (Pearson's r) between the difference in number of tweets, following and follower profiles, and basic emotions estimated in the start-up founders' Twitter profile pictures are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Correlation (r) between the difference in number of tweets, following and follower profiles, and basic emotions in start-up founders' Twitter profile pictures

	Anger	Disgust	Fear	Happiness	Sadness	Surprise
Tweets	-0.14	-0.11	-0.19	0.45	-0.07	-0.36
Following	0.07	0.04	0.45	-0.45	0.29	0.19
Followers	-0.13	-0.1	-0.43	0.55	-0.55	-0.12

The difference in the number of followers is most significantly related with happiness and sadness, although the overall correlation is not strong. The number of followers is positively related to happiness and negatively with sadness, implying that the basic emotion of happiness, at any level, contributes in attracting more followers to a profile, while sadness drives them away. Fear functions in a similar way as sadness, but at even lesser significance. Furthermore, happiness is positively correlated with the number of tweets the founders posted and negatively with the number of other profiles they were following. The emotion of fear has some relation with the number of the following profiles. A more detailed exploratory analysis, including dominant emotions present in each profile picture, is planned for future work.

All founders do not follow the same emotional strategy in creating their profiles. From the available data, the authors identified three groups of founders. The first group wants to induce happiness as a clearly dominant and strong emotion, while the second group chooses a mélange of happiness and sadness. Finally, the third group of founders tries to remain neutral and tries not to provoke emotions at all. Their personal image is controlled with a specific content, intended meaning, and connotations. In the third group elicitation of emotion is secondary, while semantics is the most important. But apparently in all strategies, fear and surprise are avoided as undesirable emotions. Arguably, the most successful Twitter founders do

not succumb to anger or fear and do not act surprised. They are almost always positive, visibly calm, sure of themselves, with a touch of sadness and a noticeable unfocused aversion.

4. Future Research

A new metric called “t-factor”, based on the h-index, was proposed for measuring the impact of publications (and other entities) on Twitter (Bornmann, Haunschild, 2015). The authors of this paper plan to investigate the possibilities of applying this novel metric for the purpose of monitoring the impact of investments in start-ups on Twitter.

One study applied machine-learning concepts, such as support vector machines (SVM), conditional random fields (CRF) and naive Bayes (NB) in order to construct a classifier that can determine positive, negative, and neutral sentiments for a given data set (Pak, Paroubek, 2010). Furthermore, some have used data sets consisting of tweets for investigating the reliability of existing sentiment-mining tools (Lawrence, 2014). Since sentiment-mining and sentiment analysis can provide important information on attitudes towards some business-related aspects, ideas, thoughts and opinions regarding certain people, brands or companies, the authors of this paper plan to investigate the aforementioned machine-learning concepts and sentiment-mining tools in future experiments.

One research project proposed a new method to collect, group, rank and track breaking news from Twitter applying a sequence of tasks, such as sampling, indexing and grouping tweets according to their mutual similarity using term frequency–inverse document frequency (TF-IDF) (Phuvipadawat, Murata, 2010). This method will be investigated later on for the purpose of topic detection and categorising tweets in larger data sets.

Previous research also showed that collecting vast amounts of tweets and normalising out-of-vocabulary (OOV) words using maximum entropy makes even very noisy Twitter data useful in the process of statistical machine translation, where machine translation output is measured with BLEU (Saloot et al., 2015). Also, constructing useful Twitter corpora needed for building n-gram language models by calculating entropy and perplexity is also proposed (Agrawal et al., 2014). Both approaches are for later investigation, as automatic machine translation

systems strive to overcome language barriers that might hinder potential investments in start-up companies.

Any tweet can generate positive, negative or neutral emotions of varying intensity and duration (Coan, Allen, 2007). The authors would like to explore in more detail the complex relationship between sentiments and emotions in tweets and images available on founders' profiles using dimensional and discrete models of affect (Peter, Herbon, 2006). The corpora necessary for a deeper exploratory analysis of emotions are in affective multimedia databases (Horvat, Popović, Ćosić, 2013). Because of their commonplace usage in elicitation of emotion, they're also called multimedia stimuli databases. The databases' content was systematically collected in rigorous psychological experiments and may be considered as the ground truth on affective meaning of multimedia (Marchewka et al., 2014). The available modalities include emotionally and semantically annotated data sets of text, images, videos and sounds, which are completely compatible with requirements for mining of social networks. Affective multimedia databases are particularly useful for research of emotion and attention in many interdisciplinary fields, such as affective computing and human-computer interaction (HCI), but they are oftentimes employed in psychology, neuroscience and cognitive sciences for studying different mental disorders, in particular those related to stress (Horvat, Bogunović, Ćosić, 2014).

In computer systems, two predominant theories describe the knowledge about affect: the discrete category model (Ekman, 1992) and the dimensional model (Russell, 1980). The former model is also referred to as emotion norms or basic emotions set, while the latter is also called the circumplex model of affect or pleasure arousal dominance (PAD) (Mehrabian, 1996). Both theories of affect can effectively describe emotion in digital systems and are not mutually exclusive. All affective multimedia databases are characterised according to at least one of these models, and some data are available from both models (Peter, Herbon, 2006). Annotations from both models are useful, as they provide a more complete characterisation of affect in Twitter profiles. This direction of future research would continue the authors' work, which positively identified presence of coupling between sentiments and emotions in existing affective picture databases (Horvat, Popović, Ćosić, 2012).

The authors would once again like to point out the importance of the conducted statistical analyses. Namely, the results of the presented statistical analyses of word occurrences in the data set will become a benchmark for future exploratory studies of larger Twitter corpora. Not only that such an analysis gives valuable feedback on the “nature” of the corpus, it is also language independent, as opposed to other natural language processing tasks such as sentiment analysis. Language independence makes a statistical approach to data set examinations especially useful when it comes to cross-language corpora studies, which are also planned for future research.

5. Conclusion

Nowadays, there is an apparent lack of definition of start-ups in terms of their quantitative description. This problem is the main focus of the authors' ongoing research. Instead of trying to answer what start-ups are, or emphasise their descriptive attributes, a dynamic observation of what start-up founders actually do on social media, in this case Twitter, could point out important aspects of the whole start-up phenomenon. Twitter is one of the most important social media tools used in investor relationship management, whereas observing words and their frequency in tweets could possibly provide valuable insight into how start-up founders use this channel for communication with various investors.

This paper presents an exploratory study focusing on available techniques and leaves no space for any bold conclusions. But what the author can conclude is that the statistical word analysis is useful to overcome language barriers in analysing tweets, and that it is possible to discover insights in correlations between emotions expressed in the profile pictures and the account performance in terms of number of followers. Twitter usage among private companies' employees is used as their performance indicator impacting their income through different incentives.

Furthermore, one could use social media data for the purpose of risk evaluation in the insurance industry. The analysis of Twitter data and the performance measurement of Twitter accounts are becoming an everyday practice. Since there is a lot of public money already invested and more to come in start-ups in the near future with the aim of improving social

conditions in the EU, the need to develop the tools that could support the observation of those investments and its impact is self-evident. Such tools and techniques are not there to control, but to support the overall learning process. By learning what is actually working and what is not in terms of investor relations, society could increase the effect of public money invested on the macro level and improve the performance of start-up companies on the micro level.

But there are strong ethical issues to consider. For example, if an entrepreneur uses public money, is he a public person? Or, if private equity investment funds receive public money, what are the instruments for observing their performance that are available to the public? Where is the trade between privacy concerns and public benefits generated by learning from Twitter (or other social media) data?

But to evaluate potential benefits of using machine observation of human behaviour, one would have to explore what available technologies are applicable for these tasks. And this is exactly what the authors tried to do in this paper.

At this stage, the research focus is primarily on Twitter data and, at the moment, the authors are collecting tweets from almost 10000 Twitter accounts of start-up founders. The authors set up a system based on data available on the Internet that can retrieve tweets from start-up founders from all EU countries. Namely, the authors collected more than 16000 tweets from August to November 2015 from 22 UK start-up founders selected by the number of followers starting from accounts with the largest number of followers. The results in this exploratory research are based on a sample of a larger data set. The authors presented an analysis of distribution of words over certain frequencies, the analysis of the 500 most frequent words used in the data set, concordance plots etc. Furthermore, the authors collected profile pictures of Twitter accounts for facial emotion analysis and emotion mining. Classified emotional states were then compared with the number of tweets posted and the number of new followers during the same time period.

The authors also hope that exploring new technologies and conducting planned research activities in the future will shed some more light on the potential rewards and risks of implementing the mentioned techniques as it becomes more apparent that one can learn by observing the systems all people are part of.

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7. Appendices

Analysis of the 500 most frequent words

Note: interesting content words are marked in bold and are subject to deeper analyses in the future

Rank	Frequency	Word	Rank	Frequency	Word
1	3911	the	201	84	girls
2	3557	to	202	84	media
3	3230	rt	205	83	days
4	2527	a	206	83	facebook
5	2149	you	207	83	find
6	1985	i	214	79	code
7	1965	in	215	79	everyone
8	1793	of	217	79	working
9	1726	for	228	74	young
10	1503	it	242	70	entrepreneurs
11	1495	and	243	70	inspiring
12	1378	s	246	69	sharing
13	1377	on	268	62	friend
14	1266	is	269	62	future
15	977	this	270	62	google
16	866	with	271	62	news
17	825	at	281	59	school

18	759	that	293	58	marketing
19	719	my	299	57	tweet
20	706	be	312	54	blog
...			327	51	win
22	660	great	334	49	start-ups
29	550	can	336	48	company
32	501	thanks	339	48	power
40	395	good	340	48	start-up
49	345	love	343	47	congratulations
51	339	new	352	46	money
54	330	today	357	46	service
55	329	get	368	45	technology
57	304	like	370	44	article
60	303	women	371	44	leaders
61	295	people	393	41	companies
62	293	day	395	41	entrepreneur
66	251	time	402	40	awards
68	245	thank	403	40	favourite
69	238	awesome	406	40	ideas
74	220	social	407	40	interview
77	216	london	412	39	friday
78	215	know	421	38	birthday
81	205	looking	422	38	ceo
82	204	work	424	38	fantastic
83	203	need	426	38	iphone
84	202	some	427	38	leadership
91	180	business	428	38	link
93	179	tech	429	38	mobile
94	178	amazing	430	38	online
96	177	make	442	36	bbc
99	175	think	444	36	game
101	172	life	445	36	huge
102	172	week	446	36	inspired
106	168	world	453	35	advice
109	163	live	467	35	office
111	160	best	468	35	programme
115	149	help	469	35	saving
117	146	cool	472	35	visit
119	144	year	473	35	worth
126	132	morning	474	34	apply
127	131	event	475	34	brand
150	113	twitter	476	34	british
153	111	book	477	34	challenge
157	109	night	479	34	founder
159	106	apple	482	34	inspiration

162	105	start	484	34	moment
164	103	digital	487	34	success
176	97	park	488	34	talent
177	97	support	492	33	conference
178	97	video	494	33	exciting
181	95	app	496	33	kids
183	94	happy	497	33	music
199	86	free	499	33	party
200	86	tv	500	33	role

CRISIS COMMUNICATION ON SOCIAL MEDIA

Vladimir Preselj, M.A.

Millenium promocija, Zagreb, Croatia

vladimir.preselj@mpr.hr

Maja Samardžić Gašpar, M.A.

Millenium promocija, Zagreb, Croatia

maja.samardzic@mpr.hr

Mario Petrović, M.A.

Millenium promocija, Zagreb, Croatia

mario.petrovic@mpr.hr

Summary

Social media are, today, undoubtedly an essential communication channel, not only for private individuals, but also for different companies and organisations. They are primarily a two-way communication channel enabling updated user feedback. Communication takes place in real time and everyone has the possibility of taking on the active role of communicator, regardless of competence, knowledge or experience. This characteristic of social media helps in building relationships with the desired target group, as well as image; however, it is also a major challenge when it comes to adverse situations like crises. When it comes to commenting on social media, users can be desired allies, but also loud enemies. Negative user comments are not uncommon, so community managers must handle the communication in order to minimize potential negative consequences. However, what happens when the negative comments become a crisis and unwanted content goes viral, and when the crisis transfers from social media to traditional media? In this case, are the professional rules which prescribe exactly how to react valid or do those rules no longer apply when it comes to a crisis on social media? The authors of this paper analysed several cases of crisis situations on social media covering crisis situations whose sources were on social

media, which subsequently spilled over into traditional media, as well as situations when social media followed developments in traditional media. Furthermore, during the analysis, the most important segments of successful crisis communication management will be referred to, such as reaction rate, mode and tone of communication, prompt information to the public, i.e. users, and the establishment of a crisis communication plan.

Keywords: social media, communication models, crisis communication, online communication, crisis management, traditional media

1. Introduction

Crisis communication, i.e. crisis communication management is certainly the most demanding and challenging form of organisational communication, both towards internal and external publics. Although the fundamental rules of crisis communication have been defined long ago, it is essential to continuously revise and update them in order to be up to date with the times and context. One of the most significant challenges which crisis communication has faced in recent times is certainly the contemporary digital communication platforms, i.e. social media. For this reason precisely, in this paper, the emphasis will be placed on comparing the traditional approach to crisis communication and its digital transformation, which followed as a reply to contemporary trends and possibilities.

2. Defining the Term “Social Media”

According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary, social media are forms of electronic communication (such as websites for social networking and microblogging) through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages, and other content (such as videos) (Webster, 2011 as cited in Tomić, 2016, 735). The same author emphasises that the term social media is actually used as the name for digital technologies that enable people to connect, interact, produce and share content. Additionally, this name includes social networking, sharing media, new media, digital media etc.

Apart from personal use of social media, a much more important novelty from the communications aspect is the use of social media for connecting with stakeholders, for

placing information and the latest news on the part of corporation and organisation, as well as the promotion of products and services. In other words, social media have become an unavoidable communication and marketing channel, equally interesting for PR practitioners and marketing experts.

Given the elements highlighted in the above stated definitions, social media can be defined as communication tools, available exclusively in cyber-space. Thanks to these tools, all users can: communicate with each other; share various types of content (videos, photos, pictures, texts, sounds etc.); build/strengthen connections in one or several areas (professional, social, cultural, religious, political, etc.) and develop and define its social media identity (Montagnese, 2012, 5 as cited in Musladin, 2012).

Online media or new media, as they are also called, with their emergence, have changed the way individuals and corporations communicate. The greatest change is reflected in the manner of understanding mutual communication, which has become similar to an uninterrupted circle, in which intertwining are several communication methods and channels. Users are constantly connected, i.e. online, which has become a new lifestyle. This trend has not only caught on with private individuals, but with corporation, organisations, government administration bodies, politicians, public figures and many others. In a relatively short period of time, the new trend has encompassed all social structures and, consequently, imposed new methods of planning and managing communication.

In other words, with the appearance and popularisation of numerous social media, PR practitioners have obtained another communication tool, along with the previous, traditional media, i.e. another channel that must be taken into consideration when planning communication activities, but with completely different rules.

The initiator of this trend is certainly the Internet and the World Wide Web, which originated back in 1989 at CERN in Switzerland, while the greatest turning point was brought about by social media, whose popularisation and number of active users is rapidly growing on a daily basis. Until the beginning of social media development, i.e. the appearance of the first social media SixDegrees.com, the concept of searching the Internet and the Web was, in general, oriented only on the passive browsing of content on various sites (Boyd, 2007, 2 as cited in Musladin, 2012).

Today, more than 2 billion Internet users use social media on a daily basis; furthermore, it is estimated that this figure will grow given the rise in smartphones, which have today become the primary screen. In July 2017, Facebook is the most popular network with 2.05 billion monthly active users; the second most popular is YouTube with 1.5 billion monthly active users; followed by WhatsApp, known as an instant messaging application; while the popular network Instagram takes seventh place, with 700 million monthly active users. These figures confirm that, due to their everyday presence in the lives of their users, social media have an exceptionally strong social influence. Consequently, the line between the offline real and virtual life, as well as the concept of digital and legal identity, has become very thin, which could certainly be a topic for some future research.

Stanojević (2011, 165) highlights that the Internet and, thereafter, social media changed human understanding of communication. Social media as we know them today gave new meaning to the term communication. They have changed the impulses of why people go on the Internet. In the past, it was because they wanted to be informed, they wanted to see and experience, read and learn. The reason why people today go on the Internet is because they want to be part of communication, they want to participate in it, they would like to be present, they want people to read about them and they want to read about others.

Numerous companies, government administrations and others have accepted this possibility with enthusiasm and optimism, realizing in this manner McLuhan's utopian global village. Others take this in a somewhat more negative manner, being led by fear of losing privacy, autonomy and deviations of society. There is some truth in both theories, emphasises Tomić (2016, 733). The greatest changes that social media have brought with them can be seen in the understanding and consummation of communication, which has indirectly affected PR practice.

As Dubovečak (2011, 6) emphasises (as cited in Tomić, 2016), the concept of social media has, in recent years, become unavoidable, when talking about changes that they have brought about in the sphere of communication.

3. What Is a Crisis and How Does It Reflect on Business

The concept of crisis today has different meanings, and therefore, defining crisis is related to the context in which the crisis is being considered. Although the concept of crisis is often linked to situations that are of an extremely negative character, there are various gradations and situations of its use. Therefore, for instance, a crisis in the United Kingdom will most often be related to accidents of catastrophic proportions, while that term in China will designate “danger” and “opportunity”. As we will see later, linking crisis situations and “opportunities” is not unusual, even when a crisis is considered business related. Generally speaking, a crisis designates that a certain system, as a result of some event, stops functioning, also the cause itself of the dysfunction is often not immediately identifiable (Bundy et al., 2016). When defining a crisis, often emphasised is the importance of making a decision, which is actually not that unusual if we take into consideration that the word crisis in ancient Greece meant exactly that, “to decide” (Osmanagić Bedenik, 2010, 103); however, the meaning of the word itself primarily refers to a breaking event, i.e. an exceptional and challenging state in the natural, social and thought process (Filipović, 1989, 182). When defining a crisis and a crisis situation, often emphasised is the danger and threat to security, and so the London School of Public Relations (LSPR) defines a crisis as a “serious event that affects the person’s safety, the environment, products and reputation of the organisation” (Novak, 2001, 28).

When talking about a crisis in the context of business operations, it can be said that “it is an event with a potentially negative outcome that affects an organisation and its publics, services, products and/or its name” (Heath, 2001, 480), and which can imply “political, legal, financial and government influence on a company’s operations” (Verčič et al., 2004, 132). When business crises are in question, often highlighted in the definitions is media influence, i.e. extensive media coverage that is stimulated by a crisis event (Schwartz, 2006, 12). Another significant segment when defining a crisis is the development process itself, “on which it possible to only slightly impact, and which could develop in various ways” (Novak, 2001, 28).

Given that, as part of this paper, we will be concerned with crises in business organisations, it should be emphasised that a crisis for a company primarily presents an extraordinary situation in which regular business operations are, to a larger or lesser extent, impossible, and which

may, consequently, cause material and reputation damage. However, as was previous emphasised, the outcome of the crisis itself does not necessarily have to be irreparable damage, because a crisis is also an opportunity, i.e. a “turning point, not necessarily burdened by irreparable negativity, but characterised by a certain degree of risk and insecurity” (Tomić, Milas, 2007, 141). Therefore, a crisis in business operations should also be considered a turning point in the life of a company, as well as an opportunity to improve if the appropriate steps are taken.

4. Crisis Sources and Causes

In order to be able to successfully deal with a crisis, i.e. to be able to anticipate it successfully and to be able to undertake steps that will prepare the company for crisis events, it is important to be familiar with possible sources and causes of the crisis. A crisis in business operations can be caused by external and internal factors (Sučević, 2010, 15). The outbreak of a crisis originating from an external factor (for instance, disruption in market and regulatory environment) generally cannot be prevented; however, such a crisis can also be foreseen and mechanisms can be developed to overcome such crises. Concerning internal sources of crises, they derive from the organisations themselves and their operations, therefore, it is logical to suppose that such crises are easier to anticipate and, therefore, prevent. However, it has been shown that internal crises are, nevertheless, the most frequent, and thereby, the most dangerous for business organisations, which is illustrated also by the fact that management is responsible for the failure of companies in 60 to 80 percent of cases (Osmanagić Bedenik, 2010, 25).

The causes themselves can be diverse, but highlighted as the most frequent are natural catastrophes, mechanical problems, human errors and decisions by management (Schwartz, 2006, 12), while some authors emphasise other causes, such as technology, conflicts, malice or decisions by company management (Cutlip, Center, Broom, 2003, 389). The emergence of the crisis is often related to inertness or incompetence of company management, i.e. its failure to adapt operations to developments in the environment and newly arising circumstances.

Although a crisis most often surprises the organisation facing it, this does not mean that the crisis could not have been foreseen. For example, if there is a crisis in operations, certain

symptoms in the early phases could be recognised due to reduced revenues, cash flow or liquidity, accompanied by increased indebtedness. Crisis symptoms could also be observed according to various areas (Osmanagić Bedenik, 2007, 21-22), so, for instance, it is evident that there are problems with employees if they express dissatisfaction, organise strikes and if the company has a high level of fluctuation among employees. Although crises are often easily noticeable already in the early phases, a study by KfW (KfW Economic Research, 2013) shows that an astoundingly high 68% of small and medium-sized enterprises in a crisis seek expert assistance only after over a year's time from the appearance of the first crisis symptoms, and as possible causes of delay, they emphasise ignorance, fear of change, and management overburdened by everyday business operations. When the company faces a crisis, quality communication significantly comes to the fore, especially for the reason that organisations in a crisis have the tendency not to communicate, both externally and internally. Crisis communication management also has to be approached professionally because inadequate communication could deteriorate and expand the development of the crisis. Similarly, when there is no official communication, there is increased danger of the appearance of gossip, which is more often than not more interesting than the facts, and which fill in the void that has appeared (Tench, Yeomans, 2009, 436), and which, generally, do not contribute to solving the crisis situation.

5. Crisis Management

In the early crisis stages, before its escalation, as well as in the later phases of the crisis when the damage becomes evident, it is essential to maintain control over the situation and functionality of the system. Coombs and Holladay (2010, 20) see the role of crisis management equally in suppressing crisis situations and remediation of damage, i.e. with its application the organisation “attempts to prevent or reduce the negative outcomes of the crisis, in that manner protecting the organisation, stakeholders and/or industry from damages”. Crisis management encompasses a wide spectrum of business activities directed at the crisis, from preventive activities prior to the appearance of the crisis to crisis management after its appearance, all the way to adapting new solutions and procedures in crisis situations. Successful crisis management implies:

- Crisis management with early warning systems, analysis of potentials, risk management and application of flexibility policies;
- Crisis identification, i.e. crisis recognition when it emerges and precise assessment of its intensity and range, and

As for the crisis management application process itself, i.e. its “life cycle”, it is possible to identify and clearly separate three phases: a) pre-crisis phase that is marked by efforts to prevent the crisis and to prepare for its curbing if there is no success, b) crisis phase, in which the organisation faces the crisis, and c) the post-crisis phase, in which the organisation analyses the previous activities and adopts knowledge for upcoming crisis situations (Coombs, Holladay, 2010). It is simple to notice that these phases are in accordance with the phases of the “life expectancy” of the crisis, during which the beginning, culmination and end of a crisis can most often be discerned, while Regester and Larkin (1998) introduce an additional element and define four phases of a crisis:

- Source or possible danger;
- Strengthening or growing crisis;
- Real or critical crisis;
- Solving or calming the crisis.

6. Crisis Communication Management

One of the most important components of crisis management is certainly crisis communication, i.e. crisis communication management. As was mentioned earlier, organisations faced with a crisis often have a tendency to stop communicating with stakeholders, internal and external publics, which then logically leads to the spreading of speculations and unverified information. Such an approach and its consequences, can significantly deepen a crisis, as well as cause additional damage to tangible and intangible assets.

Crisis communication can also be described as a dialogue between an organisation and its publics in all phases of a crisis situation, and such a dialogue actually determines the

strategies and tactics that are conducted with the objective of protecting the reputation and image of the organisation (Jugo, 2017).

The tasks of crisis communication management can be differentiated depending on the phases of the crisis. Prior to the escalation of the crisis, activities are directed at analyses, assessing communication risks, collecting information and training the crisis communications team; when the crisis escalates, activities are directed at controlling communication and its exploitation with the purpose of suppressing the crisis; and after the crisis finishes, implementation of communication activities continues, for instance, by placing messages, whose goal is to revitalise the position of the organisation facing the crisis. Furthermore, collected and analysed are data on conducted activities, with the objective of increasing competence when facing other possible crisis situations (Coombs, Holladay, 2010, 20).

Thereby, it should be taken into account that the success of crisis communication is always limited to the totality of the activities of the organisation facing the crisis, i.e. the crisis management that was initiated in such situations. Also agreeing with this is Argenti (2009), who concludes that the disruption to an organisation's reputation can be reduced if the corporate strategy is in correlation with corporate communications, and it is precisely for this reason essential that communication experts be included in all activities of crisis management (Argenti, 2009, 61).

Besides remaining silent in crisis situations, another huge mistake is communicating false information, which often occurs when an attempt is made to reduce the severity of the crisis by communicating with the media and publics. Apart from such behaviour being ethically, morally and professionally unacceptable, if it is determined that the organisation was not honest and credible, its reputation will suffer significantly greater damage. Therefore, in crisis situations, it is necessary to communicate responsibly, truthfully, in a timely manner, voluntarily, and communication must be directed towards all stakeholders and placed in an appropriate context (Hearit, 2006, 64).

In order for an organisation to be able to successfully deal with a crisis situation in the communication sense, an essential precondition is the existence of a communication plan. The establishment of a crisis communication plan in many ways depends on the "skill of anticipating and describing a whole range of possible future states" (Cutlip, Center, Broom,

2003, 388), and preparing a crisis plan means defining in advance all procedures and tools through which activities can take place in crisis situations.

Some of the obligatory parts of a crisis communication plan are a clearly defined crisis communication team, defined crisis communication goals, communication activities and protocols, and defined publics which the organisation must address in a crisis. The goal of such an approach is to shorten the response time during a crisis, as well as to increase the efficiency of the team managing the crisis. Nevertheless, it should be taken into consideration that sometimes one has to move away from the given frame, which of course depends on the specific characteristics of a crisis situation.

As for as the crisis communication team, Anthonissen (2008, 29) considers that it should consist of a minimum of two spokespersons (main and deputy), CEO or company owner (the decision-maker), main communications expert (head of corporate communications), as well as external PR agency team, led by the account manager.

Quality communications with media, when in question is a crisis stirring significant public interest, is certainly of significant importance, therefore, it is necessary for the communicators to be trained for communicating in extraordinary circumstances (Coombs, 2007). Crisis communication management, if it is conducted in a professional and adequate manner, is subject to certain laws, which are usually adhered to:

- It is necessary to take over control of communication and to participate proactively in communication processes because, when an organisation does not communicate with the media, the other stakeholders turn to other sources, which could damage credibility, reputation and position of the organisation;
- Information should be presented in an understandable manner because, if communication is unclear, the stakeholder could misinterpret the information or suspect that the organisation is intentionally covering up certain information;
- In front of the media, it is necessary to appear calm and self-confident because the manner in which communicators present information is largely reflected in the perception of success of the organisation itself in managing the crisis;
- All communicators must have the latest information and must be coordinated when placing the key messages to the public;

- All employees are potential communicators; therefore, it is necessary to ensure that the internal public receives all of the relevant information in a timely manner because, otherwise, the information could be obtained from other sources that do not care about the well-being of the organisation;
- The organisation must show a responsible approach to the crisis situation, as well as concern and regret, depending on who is affected by the crisis and in which manner;
- The organisation must provide prompt and adequate support to the injured parties (Coombs, 2007).

In crisis situations reaction speed is often crucial, and so many emphasise the importance of the first 24 hours of the crisis, when much is defined, including attitudes of the media and public. A system for the early detection of a crisis, if in place, could be of significant assistance, which is one of the more important features of a successful crisis management system (Jugo, 2017). If the organisation does not immediately place itself as a key point for informing the media and public or refuses to communicate, the media will soon turn to other sources, and some of those sources could have false information or could place information with the conscious intention to cause damage to the organisation. Organisations that continuously build media relations are in a better position than those who communicate with the media only when they have to, because media will have more consideration for those organisations, and will spend more time and energy in checking information prior to making it public (Argenti 2009, 162).

What should not be neglected in a crisis is internal communication. An organisation that finds itself in an extraordinary situation is further burdened with communication towards external stakeholders, first of all the media, and often in such situations, internal communication takes on a secondary role. Moreover, numerous studies have shown employee and management dissatisfaction with mechanisms of internal communication even in regular circumstances.

7. Crisis Communication Management on Social Media

Today, crisis management, like risk management, is also increasingly implemented in the area of new communication technologies, such as social media, which have significantly changed

the way in which organisations communicate with their stakeholders (Hallahan, 2010). It is a fact that no one is immune to crises and that they appear in various forms, usually when they are least expected. Corporations that approach crisis situations in a strategic and planned manner most often, at its emergence, have a prepared crisis action plan that encompasses steps that must be taken in the first 24 hours, which are crucial in a crisis.

A crisis is most frequently defined as an unplanned and unwanted process of limited duration with an ambivalent outcome (Krystek 1987, 6 as cited in Tomić, 2008). In spite of this, crisis situations are by no means an everyday occurrence; they frequently appear completely unannounced with limited duration, having a beginning and end. Thanks to the Internet and social media, the situation is considerably different.

Subjects who communicate in the online world are exposed to potential crises on a daily basis. Actually, they can occur at any time. According to the authors' professional experience in public relations agencies, a crisis on social media does not begin by some unplanned, unfortunate event such as a plane crash; more often it begins with a negative comment or reference by some user, manifesting itself in the form of a hate comment, trolling or channelling negative emotions. If the company does not communicate in an adequate manner and does not manage the communication processes, then notably increasing is the possibility of the emergence of certain crisis situations.

Experience has shown that the greatest advantage of communication on social media is that, at one location, gathered are diverse target groups that are located, literally on hand, and thanks to which social media are a very favourable communication platform. On the other hand, the greatest challenge for communication on social media lies in their directness and the possibility of obtaining rapid feedback. This is, at the same time, a huge risk that requires quality preparation, planning and management of communication.

Quality crisis management, in traditional circumstances, is defined through several important steps that encompass:

1. Informing the highest executive level of the corporation,
2. Activating the crisis action plan,
3. Gathering a crisis team consisting, among others, of lawyers and communications experts,

4. Collecting available information,
5. Naming the person who will appear on behalf of the corporation,
6. Defining media allies and potential enemies,
7. Planning the first reactions and media appearances.

According to the unwritten rules of the profession, the peak of the crisis lasts up to 72 hours, when it takes a secondary role in media interest, and the first 24 hours are the most important for planning reactions and appearances, although this time is often significantly shorter. In other words, a crisis situation enables a certain separation, which can be smartly used for thinking about and planning the first step. Subjects have the possibility of consultations with independent communications experts, who are most often impartial, and calmly advise and decide, which is certainly the greatest advantage when handling crisis situations.

The authors' long-time experience of working in public relations agencies proves that crisis situations on social media have a significantly different course, often exploding in an instant, and the peak appears very quickly, in only a few minutes or within an hour, and this usually spills over to other media. They do not allow for a separation of 24 hours because users have to be provided quick, timely, up to date information, and this must be done immediately. There is not time for collecting information, analysis, thinking and planning. Furthermore, the time reserved for consulting with external advisors (communications experts, lawyers) is significantly reduced or practically does not exist. The same goes for the time necessary for gathering a crisis team and preparing responses. It does exist if all of this can be conducted in a few minutes to a maximum of one hour. Thereby, a quick reply is not a guarantee that the crisis will not ignite and spill over to other media.

The very essence of crisis communication on social media consists of replying to inquiries and user comments, i.e. managing communication, for which Community Managers, who communicate with users on social media, are responsible. Often depending on them is the entire course of the crisis, i.e. their assessment and reaction. They assess whether in question is a potential crisis which demands a response or a passing situation that does not.

In order for Community Managers to be able to make such a decision, they have to be thoroughly prepared and familiar with the company's philosophy of operations and communications, as well as its area of activities. Thereby, it should be taken into account that each individual social network is specific, and gathers various profiles of users requiring a

different style and manner of communication, and consequently the process of administration and management of communication and of the community of users/followers. A basic ignorance of how social media function and management of crisis situations on them is a main precondition for creating crisis situations. Some companies today are familiar with how to manage crisis situations on social media and do this as best they can by transforming a negative situation into opportunities for further connecting with their target audiences and building their image, while many, unfortunately, have not recognised the elementary differences in managing crisis situations in “newly emerging” circumstances, which ultimately often means deepening crisis situations and their transferring from social media to traditional media.

8. Examples of Social Media Crisis Management

8.1. Croatia Airlines Case Study

Croatia Airlines is a Croatian carrier that actively communicates on social media. Consequently, Croatia Airlines has nearly 135 thousand followers on the most popular social network, Facebook. In September 2016, the company faced negative comments by a well-known public figure, who commented on the company's service. The person posted a comment on the fan page, which is followed by over 57 thousand followers, whereby the post achieved significant organic reach. In a relatively short period of time, the post generated 927 likes, 17 shares and 70 comments, which, to a large extent were negatively oriented towards the company. In the following 12 hours, the negative comment became the topic of media reports, which were also negative, whereby the crisis spilled over into the traditional media.

8.1.1. Reactive Approach to the Situation

In that period, the company took on a reactive position and did not respond to the negative comment and to the media reports. Over 24 hours after the posting of the controversial comment, the company responded on the fan-wall, where they presented their position, which went in the direction of explaining the situation that resulted. Although by that point, the negative comment ceased being a “hot” topic, with its response the company once again

returned in the focus of social media users and the media, as a result of which the online discussion once again became current. The result of this was a continuation of the negative media reports and the generating of negative comments by regular users, as well as independent experts, who certainly did not show any sympathy for the company. The company once again opted for a reactive approach, and after a kind of “denial” on social media, it withdrew from the public debate, which was certainly not going in favour of the company.

8.1.2. Consequences and Conclusion

In a period lasting over 72 hours, the altercation between the company and the person who left a negative comment was the topic of media reports. The company received negative media publicity, as well as a series of negative comments on social media. Namely, the company followed the rules of the profession on how to react in potential crisis situations – it collected all of the information, analysed the situation, prepared a response that was aligned with all of the required levels, and which was then placed in the public within 24 hours. The company’s only oversight was that the crisis was not taking place in traditional circumstances, but rather on social media, where the users themselves are the creators of content, who were not inclined towards the company in this case. In this concrete situation, the company showed sluggishness in planning and managing communication on social media, a failure to react quickly and to adapt to the new communication circumstances imposed by new media and social networks. Furthermore, the greatest oversight manifested itself in the lack of communication with users on social media. Namely, social media are, first of all, a two-way communication channel, and they must be treated as such, which is why it is of utmost importance to provide users with feedback, regardless of whether in question is a negative or a positive comment.

8.2. Leggiero Bar

Leggiero is a chain of coffee shops, usually located within the food court in shopping centres. The bar interior is divided into a few zones, usually for tobacco product consumers, who have their designated area as part of outdoor terraces, and zones that are not. In November 2016, a

Leggiero Bar employee made a careless mistake by not allowing a visually impaired person accompanied by a guide dog to enter the coffee shop, calling on the coffee shop's no dogs policy. By law, visually impaired persons have the right to access public places, such as offices, hotels, restaurants, banks, post offices, theatres, concert halls, sports facilities, markets, shops, schools, higher education institutions etc. with guide dogs. Not long after the incident, the Croatian Guide Dog and Mobility Association sent a letter to the aforementioned coffee shop in which it highlighted that the rights of persons accompanied by a guide dog, as well as the employee's morally questionable reaction.

8.2.1. Negative Public Reactions

In a very short period of time, the employee's conduct caused a series of negative public reactions, including social media users, who very harshly condemned that stated event. The positive public image and perception of the public to that point for the popular coffee shop was brought into question. Furthermore, the coffee shop chain generated negative media publicity.

8.2.2. Company Reaction and Consequences

Not long after the topic became current, on that same day, the company reacted by placing an apology in traditional media by means of a press release, and an apology on its official Facebook page, which was followed by about 25 thousand users at the time. They focused their reaction on the apology and on emphasising the need for further training of their employees. The communication took place in parallel on traditional and online media. A few days after the event and the prompt reaction on its official Facebook page, they posted that they had initiated a training programme for their employees on the Act on movement of visually impaired persons and their guide dogs in order to further train on methods and how to communicate with visually impaired and disabled individuals. In the emerging crisis situation that could have seriously damaged the company's image, the company showed the ability to react quickly, communicating at the same time through several available communication channels in order to reach as many users as possible. The company proceeded correctly with its decision that it is necessary to present the truth and to apologize for the oversight.

Certainly the most important step was the quick answer that followed after the crisis began spreading on all channels, and an additional benefit of the redemption process was the training programme.

9. Conclusion

Social media today are certainly an essential communication channel, not only for private individuals, but for various companies and organisations as well. With them, communication between corporations and their publics have become two-way in the full sense of the word. Two-way implies the quick flow of information, a low-level of communication control, as well as the possibility of obtaining quick feedback. Certainly the most important feature is that anyone can take on the role of communicator. Communication takes place in real time and everyone has the possibility of assuming an active role as communicator, regardless of competence, knowledge and experience. This feature significantly helps in building relationships with the desired target group, and consequently, image; however, it also represents a significant challenge when it comes to unfavourable situations such as crises.

Crisis communication is certainly the most demanding and most challenging form of organisational communication, both towards internal and external publics. Although the fundamental roles of crisis communication have been defined long ago, practice has shown that they must be revised and updated in order to be in tune with the times and context. Namely, the existing rules of crisis communication today, unfortunately, are not applicable when it comes to communication on social media. A further issue is situations in which the existing rules of crisis communication are applied to the new media, which in most cases results in two scenarios: a continuation of the crisis or its spilling over to the traditional media.

Today, there are numerous recommendations and guides on what to do, i.e. what not to do when a crisis emerges on social media; however, it is certainly recommended to collect those recommendations and rules and to consolidate them. Furthermore, in order to prevent these unfavourable scenarios from occurring, it is crucial to set new, or better said, to update and enhance the rules of crisis communication to social media, which certainly must become a part of the literature on crisis management.

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TWITTER AS ONE OF THE CRUCIAL COMMUNICATION TOOLS IN DONALD TRUMP'S PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN

Goran Pavelin, Ph.D.

Department of Tourism and Communication Studies, University of Zadar, Zadar, Croatia
gpavelin@unizd.hr

Maria Pedić, B.A.

Department of Tourism and Communication Studies, University of Zadar, Zadar, Croatia
mariapedic@gmail.com

Summary

With 317 million active users and counting, Twitter can easily be considered one of the leading social networks in the world. In 140 characters or less, it allows for quick and easy communication with broad and dispersive audiences. Considering its substantial social influence, it is no wonder it quickly became one of the crucial “weapons” in Donald Trump’s presidential campaign that was launched in 2015. Often scrutinized by the mainstream media, formerly known as just another celebrity and businessman, Donald Trump decided to break with tradition by using the Twitter platform to its full potential. Ditching traditional media outlets such as press releases or press conferences, Twitter allows for a more unconventional route to communicate and get the message across. Trump took to Twitter in a successful bid to put the US public at odds with the news media. And while many would beg to differ with his methods and especially communication strategy, the whole case might just be going in his favour, as he accomplished the ultimate goal – becoming the US president. Through 2016 he rocked the political stage and stirred up the usual monotony of traditional political discourse. By opting for more down to earth and simple language on Twitter, Trump directly initiated a rapport with his audiences and made mainstream media coverage almost irrelevant. Having cast a long shadow over well-established political correctness, Trump’s unconventional communication strategy might just pave the way for future generations of political figures to come.

Keywords: Twitter, social influence, Trump's presidential campaign, political discourse, communication strategy

1. Introduction

Donald Trump – a man who completely rejected the well-established and known rules of a political campaign and thereby managed to secure the ultimate presidential chair in the White House. Presented in the traditional media as the main American villain, he quickly turned to social media tools such as Twitter to prove his point and to present his side of the story (Shorenstein Center, 2016). One of the strong suits of Trump's presidential campaign that officially launched on 16 June 2015 was in fact the Twitter platform, which served as an effective instrument against negative publicity in the mainstream media. This completely free social media tool provided a quick and easy opportunity to connect with millions of people, including important audiences such as potential voters. It could be said that he spent less, and got much more than his main rival during the presidential race – Hilary Clinton. While she spent millions of dollars on the so-called “celebrity endorsements” and similar strategies which used famous celebrity figures and social media influencers, Trump was using Twitter to address the public directly, without any mediators or media filters, which were a common case in the traditional mainstream media outlets. By analysing Trump's way of communicating through Twitter it is obvious he remained consistent with his brand and did not “hide” behind the traditional political correctness and promises political figures are often seen recycling in delicate situations. Taking into consideration the global crisis context, an important notion unveils. One cannot simply pinpoint the key factor in Trump's presidential campaign that secured him the ultimate win. However Trump's unconventional ways of political communication and connection with his target audiences are elements that should not be merely disregarded. Moreover, future analysis of his political discourse on the Twitter platform could shed new light on the importance of using social media in fields such as politics, especially when it comes to presidential campaigns.

2. Communication in Political Campaigns

Successful communication with the public should be the foundation of any political campaign. Through planned and well-thought-out communication, politicians are able to affect the public and public opinion to a certain extent. As Bernays once (1923, 71) noted “the influence of any force which attempts to modify the public opinion depends upon the success with which it is able to enlist established points of view”. Based on that, media represent an indispensable communication tool of political campaigns. It is almost impossible to imagine an effective political campaign without at least some form of media usage. Through them politicians then communicate and present their ideas and programmes to the general public. Furthermore, media plays a crucial role in the eyes of the public- voters, as it represents the main source of information. Solely based on the media coverage public opinion and perception of a certain political figure or party can dramatically change. That is only enhanced during various political elections, when the media coverage often scrutinises the political scene and pays attention more closely. That is why media representation is of great importance and should not be simply overlooked. Politicians are well aware of that, hence they put effort into cultivating and maintaining well-balanced relationships with the media and the public (Stromback, Kiosis, 2011, 95).

One of the main goals of a political campaign is to reach as many people as possible. A political campaign involves communication through public speaking and engagement in the media world in order to reach specific target audiences to achieve their agendas (Kernell, 1997, 115). By organizing various live events, no matter how large the response is, the message will reach only a certain number of people. However by using media outlets, it is possible to achieve greater coverage and attention. The media spectrum that can be used in media work is wide. It extends from the classic daily newspapers and local radio stations through newspapers, weekly magazines, Internet editions, professional journals to regional studios of public and private television and radio station (Priručnik za predizbornu kampanju, 2010, 70).

Free media coverage

Free media coverage that contains exclusively positive connotations and comments is very hard to come by. As explained in the Konrad Adenauer Foundation's campaign handbook

(Priručnik za predizbornu kampanju, 2010, 72), that kind of coverage demands tremendous efforts to convince not only the public but also the journalists that a certain political idea or figure is worth that kind of media attention. Presidential candidates are the ones that most often compete for media attention so that they can stay relevant and so that people are constantly reminded of their ideas and words they are communicating into the world. Media coverage after every interview or other media appearance is not simply guaranteed. Moreover, the guide (Priručnik za predizbornu kampanju, 2010, 72) adds that another downfall of this type of media coverage is the inability to control all the tidbits of content.

Paid media coverage

As the name would suggest, this kind of media coverage is a costly way of becoming the news however it has its own perks that ultimately make it applicable. By paying for media coverage, political figures have complete control of the content media shares with the public. Benefits include recognition of the political figure as well as building a positive image in the eyes of the public. According to the abovementioned campaign manual (Priručnik za predizbornu kampanju, 2010, 102) when it comes to specific political elections depending on whether they are local or parliamentary, it is necessary to choose the appropriate medium to be used to influence the target electoral group. When it comes to local elections, it is quite unnecessary to spend a lot of money covering as much of a population as possible if these people can not or will not vote for a particular candidate. However if the focus is on the presidential elections, then spending some extra money for full-on media coverage would be of interest to the political figures.

3. Communication Channels in Political Discourse

Regarding political campaigns, political parties and their experts use various types of communication outlets to efficiently reach as many potential voters as possible. Tomić, Spahić and Granić (2008, 130) divide fundamental communication channels that are used in political campaigns as follows: electronic media (radio and television), print media (daily and weekly newspapers, magazines, magazines), exhibition media (billboards and similar), interpersonal communication channels (personal contact) and internet.

3.1. Internet and Social Media

Over the last few decades, rapid growth of Internet usage has changed many segments of human life, including traditional ways of planning and leading political campaigns. In the early 90's during the Bush and Gore campaigns in the United States, the Internet played a huge role as both candidates at the time used e-mail for their political purposes (Kaid, Holtz-Bacha, 2008, 210). Back then e-mail was seen as the revolutionary communication tool in politics as it provided over 400,000 e-mail addresses to political figures. Throughout the years the research on ICT usage in political campaigns has only grown stronger. Many experts would agree that 2000 was the year which marked the first out of many to combine Internet and political campaigning in a more visible manner (Mareek, Wolfsfeld, 2003, 41). Fast forward to 2017 and Internet possibilities for political usage have widely expanded. Due to its high popularity among younger generations that percentage does not seem to be on a downward track. Politicians as well as many others have followed and acknowledged those behavioural trends and hence they have adapted and migrated to social media. These days social media platforms play an important role in political campaigns, as they aid political figures to better their communication and relationship with their audiences. All the latest information and updates on political campaigns are within close reach and just a click away. As previously mentioned younger generations spend a good amount of their time on the Internet, and so they have naturally become an easy but also one of the crucial target markets for political figures. By opening social media accounts, politicians intend to reach out to their audiences, become more relatable and better connect with them. As Stromback and Kiouisis (2011, 293-296) acknowledged, social media platforms such as Twitter drive voters' engagement that participate and involve in political discourse. By regularly updating their page and overall social networking, politicians want to create a certain impression- an impression through which the public feels they really know the political candidate, not just on the superficial level. Through social media, potential voters can also freely express their opinions and political stance. Another important factor are the electoral polls that are often conducted on the Internet. Based on those statistics a political party or figure gets an estimate for the outcome of their political campaign. With busy and hectic 21st century lives people tend to lead, it is more likely for them to fill out a questionnaire or a poll on the Internet from their smart devices than through a printed survey or something similar. Tomić, Spahić, Granić (2008, 468-469) emphasized how political presence on social media platforms can definitely have its benefits and hence it be

comes crucial if one wants to observe their audience's response first hand. By closely following and monitoring social media engagement, specific changes can be implemented into the communication strategy if needed in order to improve the results of the political campaign. In that context social media can be described as a political compass that guides politicians through their campaigns.

While social media may seem to offer more elbow room to fledgling political activists, Jeffares (2014, 3) is quick to let readers know that the rules of competition are not lost on services running social networks. Policy ideas spelled out on there vie for attention and reputation just as fervently as anywhere else. What sets it apart from traditional competition is that the ideas leave a digital footprint which is virtually always at the fingertips of market analysts and computer scientists looking to learn more about public sentiment, to make forecasts or to glean data for other kinds of research.

The lure of social networks as a channel of communication for political purposes has drummed up a perfect storm where the court of public opinion, politics and business unfold together in a way that may not be best outcome for the user. Gainous and Wagner (2014, 32) draw attention to this key thought pointing out how people stick to the beaten path in terms of their beliefs and convictions so as to keep the harrowing consequences of cognitive dissonance at bay. It is generally understood that uncalled-for exposure to information that chips away at the recipient's cognitive structure makes them feel uneasy about themselves, which leads them to look for news debunking what they may have just read, heard or been told.

Arguably, laymen and scientists alike will cut such people some slack because cognitive dissonance strikes fear of the unknown in those undergoing it. However, there is an off-chance that new revelations could boost their mental faculties and help them meet their goals more easily. Does this mean the Internet as a hub of free-flowing information has made social networks bow to its founding principles?

According to Gainous and Wagner (2014, 32), the answer is a resounding no. While such an answer may have been laughed off just a few years ago given that there is an overarching media presence creeping into citizens' day-to-day lives, social networks have seen a rise in apparatuses that shape their users' news feeds as they would see fit, which means that a potentially useful but initially upsetting piece of news is buried by headlines that only serve to keep users glued to the screen. From a business standpoint this makes sure consumers of social media

protocols come back for more as failure to uphold selective exposure would lead users to stay away from them altogether. Sometimes such content filters are switched on unbeknownst to the social media user.

Whether withholding information from largely unwitting users is ethically sound will not be dealt with in this paper, although it goes a long way towards showing how and why political events such as campaigns and elections heighten the stakes for profit-driven companies to keep hateful election chatter from spilling over into customer satisfaction. Also, it raises the notion there might be a back door ill-scheming parties could use to influence election coverage on social media networks by tampering with users' news feeds.

4. Communication Strategies on Twitter

One of Twitter's main strengths lies in its ability to create new venues of communication and connection with stakeholders (Coupland, 2005). That dimension changes the relationship and communication style between organizations and stakeholders as we know it, in this case politicians and the public. In comparison to other web pages that offer one-sided communication, Twitter's interactive features shine through all too easily (Etter, 2014). As Fieseler, Fleck and Meckel (2010) explain: "Web 2.0 technology provides significantly higher potential for symmetric communication and for relationship management because social media tools have almost no gate-keeping mechanism, enabling conversation without formal hierarchies". As part of the Internet, Twitter and its possibility for two-way communication ultimately provide instant feedback that every wise politician will recognize as a positive and rich source of information (Selnow, 1998, 31). Moreover, follower feedback could be used as an integral component that helps build a better political communication strategy and overall better political campaign.

Social networking on Twitter for political figures will include many challenges of communicating online to a large number of people. Moreover, that same large number of people, i.e. adverse publicity on the Internet, represent a whole new challenge for public relations (Zerfass, Van Ruler, Sriramesh, 2008, 305). Based on those challenges, various communication strategies can be used. According to Etter (2014), three different communication strategies have been developed over the years. There are three different basic strategies that are

prevalent. First being the strategy that allows for one-sided communication. In other words, sending out the information but not reacting to possible questions that might arise. It can be described as a broadcast strategy (Etter, 2014). The second one includes replying and reacting to questions; however, there is a lack of proactive approach. This strategy can be described as a reactive one. Last but not least is the one Etter (2014) describes as the “engagement” strategy which combats all the downfalls of the two that were previously mentioned. Through this strategy one can react to questions and remarks and also communicate with Twitter users more freely and directly. By opting for the engagement strategy, one can not only share information they want but also show interest in responding to their audiences on Twitter. That paves the way for successful and well-established two-way interaction between, in this case, political figures and their audiences. To summarize, Etter (2014) goes on to explain how ditching the traditional broadcast strategy then provides a positive outcome for both the political figure and the public. Throughout the years a clear development when it comes to communication styles on Twitter has taken place. In US politics, Trump's predecessor Barack Obama was one of the first politicians that integrated Twitter as part of their online presence and communication strategy in 2008. Back then Twitter proved to be a smart choice as it helped the Obama campaign's fundraising efforts immensely (Hendricks, Denton, 2010, 47). Moreover, Hendricks and Denton (2010, 47) explain how Obama and his team used Twitter mainly to direct their Twitter traffic and following to the official campaign web page, where donors could make even the smallest contributions. Besides that, tweets were also focused on updating Obama's current location and latest visits as he toured all over the United States during his presidential campaign. In comparison to Trump's tweets during his presidential campaign in 2016, one can see the obvious difference between communication styles and how the focus from topics such as official statements, announcements etc. shifted towards a more candid and informal approach, which Trump often used.

4.1. Twitter and Free Media Coverage

Based on the results analysed during February 2016 (The New York Times, 2016), Trump spent \$10 million on advertising and media coverage, which is small change in comparison to his opponents such as Jeb Bush (\$82 million), Marco Rubio (\$55 million), and Ted Cruz (\$22 million). Without knowing the context, many would be left surprised as to how at the end his

strategy still secured him the presidential chair. However, if one closely looks over his social media usage through Twitter which led to superior free media coverage, it is no wonder he obtained the ultimate win. Trump earned around \$2 billion in free media attention, which is twice the amount that his main opponent Hillary Clinton received (The New York Times, 2016). Data from the Tyndall Report, which tracks news content, through February 2016, showed how Trump accounted for more than a quarter of all 2016 presidential election coverage on the news of CBS, ABS and NBC to name just a few. As many news companies saw a correlation between increased ratings and viewership with Trump stories, his airtime exponentially grew bigger. That being said, the majority of mainstream media coverage had negative connotations, however, that still cannot dispute all the free media coverage Trump received. On the flip side, Trump quickly turned to Twitter to fight against all the backlash from the mainstream media. He often used extremely unhinged language and talked about many controversial topics such as illegal immigration. Fast forward to recent times where Internet and social media are all the rage and according to The Guardian (2016) “a presidential candidate without Twitter is a losing candidate”. As a famous and well-known personality who has been in showbusiness for a long time Trump soon realized that and used Twitter to its full potential. Just by using his classic but at the same time unconventional political communication strategy he was able to reach millions of Twitter users and also get a ton of free mainstream media coverage. In an article from 2015 Forbes describes Trump's communication strategy as a simplified political language. He spoke simple and direct language that many, especially his Twitter followers could easily understand. Forbes (2015) continues: “another typical Trump move also included bad-mouthing the competition”. In that case, communication had no limits and was often done in an impolite way. The previously mentioned observations prove that Trump's communication strategy was in so many ways different than the ones from his competitors or predecessor Barack Obama; however, from a public relations standpoint, it is one that proved to be a winner and, based on that, should be further analysed to draw new conclusions.

5. Research Results

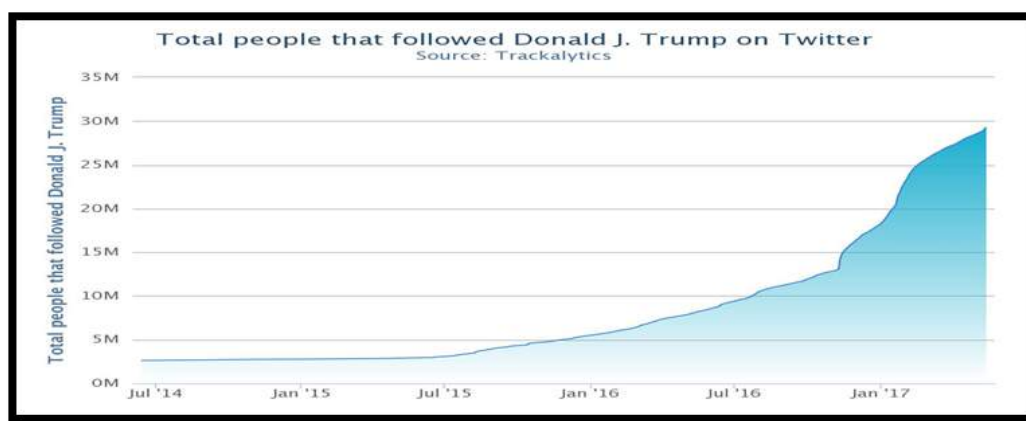
The aim of this research was to collect specific data which helped better understand the method behind Trump's Twitter account, which was undoubtedly one of the most popular and talked about Twitter accounts in 2015 and all throughout 2016. Analysed data showed ways in which Trump used Twitter and turned it into a powerful weapon against negative publicity from mainstream media. Some of the charts and tables have been downloaded directly from readily available sources while others represent data crunched by the authors for certain variables lending weight to the conclusions drawn at the end of the paper. The analyses have been partly carried out by their respective authors on the Internet whereas the paper sets out to synthesize their findings into a well-fleshed-out piece of research. Via the Twitter platform Trump was able to communicate and get his messages across on his own terms without any filters.

Information based on factual numbers and percentages presented in the following paragraphs will include Trump's general Twitter stats which demonstrate his Twitter growth since the early stages up until 2017 where he gets more than 40,000 new followers each day. Furthermore, data includes a comparative analysis of Trump's and Hilary Clinton's Twitter accounts. They are compared side-by-side based on parameters such as: average tweets per day count, methods of tweeting, number of tweets and followers etc. In this way the authors hope to bear out the difference between winning and losing the presidential race. The side-by-side comparisons are also meant to shine the limelight on Clinton's performance and where she may have gone wrong as opposed to her rival. Lastly, the analysis reveals who constitutes Trump's Twitter following and which are the most covered topics through Trump's tweets that also consequently drive the most engagement amongst Twitter users.

5.1. General Twitter Stats

Donald Trump officially became a part of the Twitter community in 2009 when he sent out his first tweet into the world. Before running for President of the United States he was known as a celebrity and successful millionaire with his own TV show called "The Apprentice". Trump's first ever tweet stated: "Be sure to tune in and watch Donald Trump on Late Night with David Letterman as he presents the Top Ten List tonight!" (Business Insider, 2017). Since then, he has acquired a following that counted more than 8 million followers at the

official beginning of his presidential campaign in June 2016. According to official data collected from Social Bakers' (2017) web page, at the end of the campaign he succeeded to gain an additional 4 million for a total of 12 million. Statistical data shows that Trump's sudden growth in followers happened around August when the campaign was at its peak. In recent events in 2017 Twitter Counter's official website shows that Trump is almost at 30 million followers and counting as the Twitter account has around 47,000 new followers each day. Based on those numbers it has earned 41st place on Twitter's worldwide rankings list.



Graph 1. Trump's follower count on Twitter from July 2014 until January 2017 (Trackalytics, 2017)

After his victory, as the newly-elected president of the United States he has started using a new Twitter account @POTUS, the official Twitter account of the President of the United States. That account was first created during the Obama administration. Regardless of the new account being available at his disposal, he has stated that he still prefers his original account, from which he has sent more than 34,900 tweets to date (Twitter Counter, 2017).

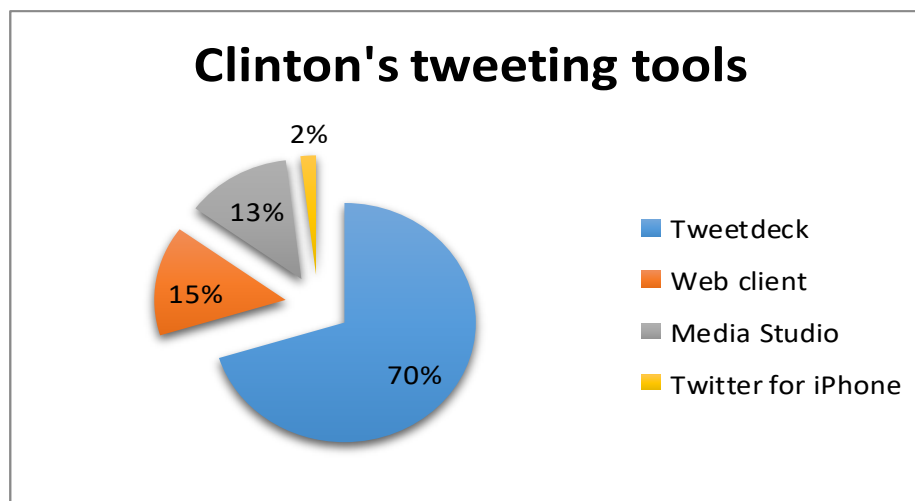
5.2. Comparative Analysis of Trump's and Clinton's Twitter

The next paragraph reveals the main differences in the Twitter approach between the two presidential runners, Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton.

Table 1. Twitter approach of Hilary Clinton and Donald Trump during 2016 presidential campaign
(Author, based on data from The Wall Street Journal, 2016)

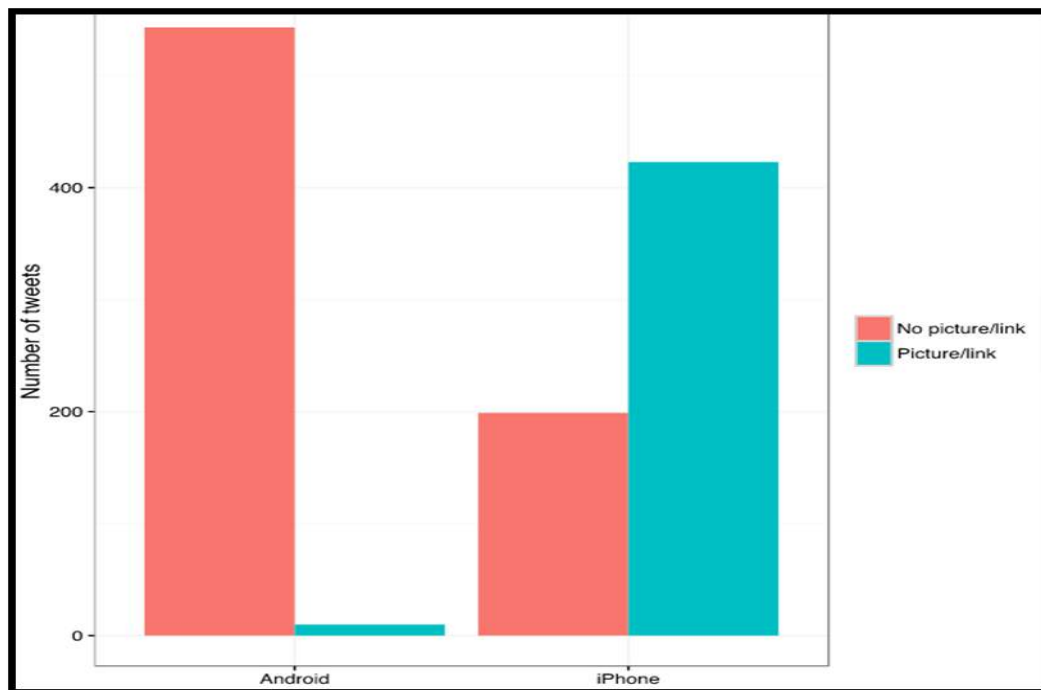
Presidential candidate	Hilary Clinton	Donald Trump
Official Twitter handle	@HillaryClinton	@realDonaldTrump
Followers Count	14,664,061	29,340,138
Tweet Count	9,850	34,906
Joined	2013	2009
Longest time gap between tweets	12 hours 56 minutes and 16 seconds	1 day 18 hours 48 minutes and 7 seconds
Record number of daily tweets	78 tweets (10 October 2016)	87 tweets (19 October 2016)
Average number of tweets per day	27	11
Method of tweeting	Tweetdeck, Twitter Web client, Twitter for Iphone, Media Studio	Twitter for Android, Twitter for Iphone

Data experts and scientists have collected the information that has somewhat debunked the myth of who exactly writes and posts the tweets of these political figures. According to Jon Keegan from The Wall Street Journal more than 70 % of the tweets sent from Clinton's account are published by utilizing software called TweetDeck. This software is actually a desktop tool that is favoured by many social media professionals suggesting that Clinton did not personally write and post the tweets on her official account. Other tools Clinton's team used included Web Client (14.8 %), Media Studio (13.0 %) and Twitter for iPhone accounting for 2 percent (The Wall Street Journal, 2016).



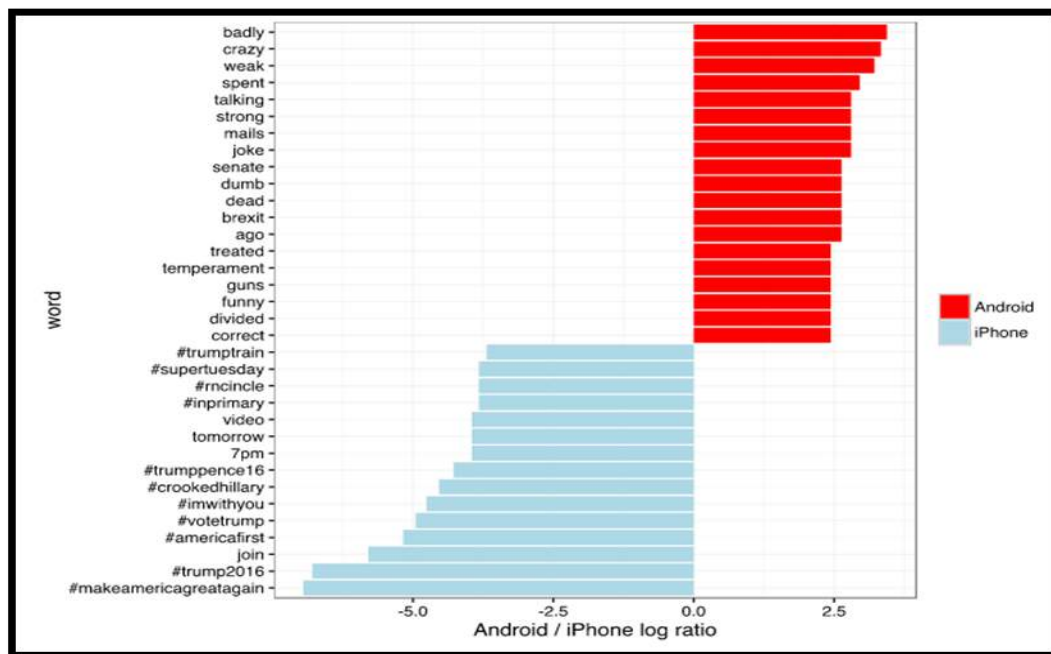
Graph 2. Hilary Clinton's methods of tweeting (Author, based on data from The Wall Street Journal, 2016)

On the other hand David Robinson used his expert data skills to analyse Trump's unconventional political tweets. The Independent published those findings and in conclusion according to them revealed two different approaches and styles of communication depending on who tweets, Trump from his Android device or Trump's Public Relations staff from their iPhone devices. Robinson revealed that tweets vary depending on platforms from which they were sent. Certain trends were noticed such as tweeting different times of the day, using different key words, using different hashtags etc. Tweets that were sent from an iPhone device were more formal and included pictures and announcements, whereas tweets sent from an Android included a different communication style filled with "angrier and negative" tone (The Independent, 2016).



Graph 3. Pictures and links in Trump's tweets according to iPhone/Android utilization (Variance Explained, 2016)

The above graphs show the relation between usage of pictures and links according to different device utilization (iPhone/Android). According to VarianceExplained.org's analysis (2016), tweets sent from an iPhone device were 38 times more likely to include at least a picture or some kind of link. Based on that hypothesis the tweets from an iPhone device were sent by Trump's PR team whereas tweets sent from an Android were in fact the work of Trump himself.



Graph 4. Usage of different hashtags according to Android/iPhone utilization (Variance Explained, 2016)

Hashtags also varied depending on Android or iPhone usage. As graphically presented above, most hashtags were sent via iPhone. On the other hand, hashtags sent from an Android were a rarity. Words like badly, crazy and weak replaced the common hashtags that were previously used from iPhone such as #trump Pence16, #makeamericagreatagain and #trump2016.

3. Trump's Twitter Following – Target Markets

As previously stated Trump's Twitter account gets thousands of new followers each day, which contributes to his existing fanbase of about 29+ million followers. These masses of people have definitely played an important role during his presidential campaign and battle however it is worth noting that Trump is no stranger to the Twitter platform as he has used it even before the official election and presidential campaign. To be specific he has been using Twitter as one of his communication tools with the public and other shareholders since 2009. Trump has since then developed his own unique communication strategy and way of connecting with his audiences. The first step in finding a suitable communication style should be knowing the target audiences. That is crucial as it provides a basic framework and helps in molding the most suitable strategy. In Trump's case it is worth analysing in further detail all

the 20+ million twitter followers he has. Analysts that used the Affinio platform, with the help of cutting-edge software were able to search all the followers' accounts and identify certain categories such as average age, gender, interests etc. Regardless of the technology that was used, certain things need to be taken into consideration as limiting factors. Even though Trump's Twitter account has a remarkable 20+ million followers that still does not mean all of those accounts are active and posting. Many of those accounts could also possibly be so-called spam Twitter accounts or bots (Forbes, 2017). By using a handful of filters such as geography tag filters, data scientists were able to narrow down and specify the number of real domestic USA Twitter users who are a part of Trump's potential electoral base in the USA. Furthermore, data showed how 52% of that base was male and 48% female with the majority of those falling into the age category from 24 to 34. Less than 30% were 35 to 44 years old and about 18% were older than 45 (Forbes, 2017).

Through Affinio software, key words in Twitter account biographies were also taken into consideration. Those results showed a certain trend in keywords (such as life, husband, sports, wife, father etc.) when it came to the description in followers' biographies. The graphics down below show those results.

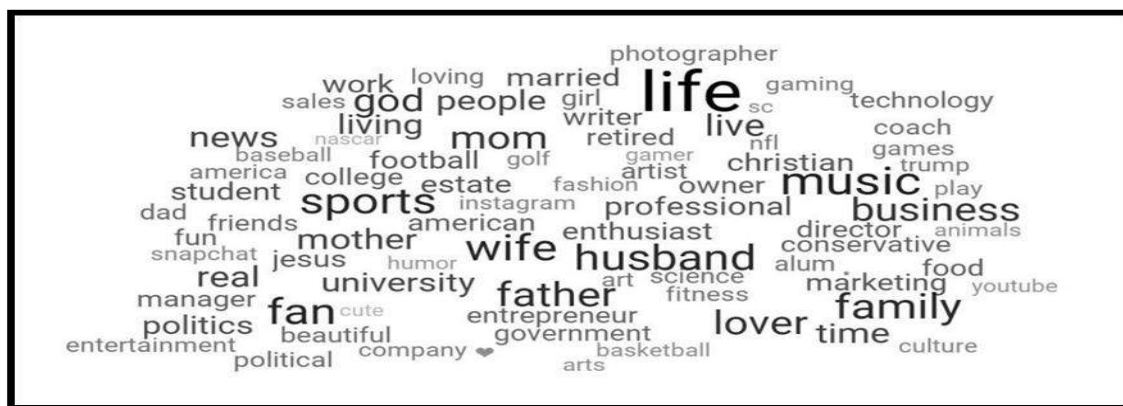


Figure 1. Affinio results of keywords from Trump's Twitter followers biographies (Forbes, 2017)

Additionally, data showed Trump's followers according to certain categories or better called clusters. The main one that dominated was the cluster called "Faith, Family and Football". This cluster included more than 20% of total active Trump followers, making it the biggest cluster. According to Forbes research users in this category were 55% male and described

themselves in their twitter biographies as “husbands”. They also accentuated words such as family, Christian and God in their bios.

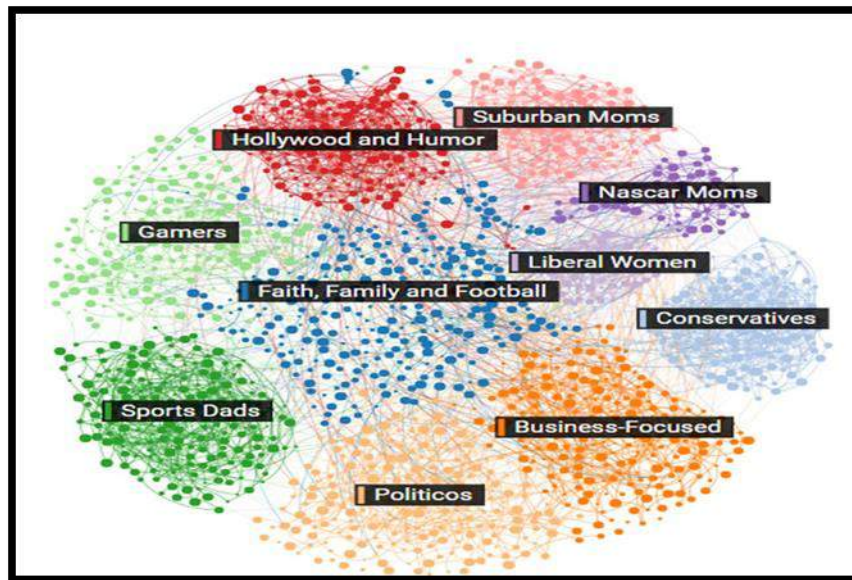


Figure 2. Trump's active domestic followers grouped into specific categories (Forbes, 2017)

5.4. Most Covered Topics and User Feedback

Another analysis that was conducted took more than 3 thousands tweets from the official @realDonaldTrump Twitter account starting from 5 November 2015 until the month of June in 2016. The focus of the research was to identify topics that dominated his feed as well as to identify which topics were received the best in the eyes of the public i.e. his Twitter followers (FiveThirtyEight, 2016). That was based on the numbers which showed the amount of likes and retweets that boosted engagement to his account page. Furthermore tweets were categorized according to their content. Categories varied as there were many topics covered. Topics ranged from personal attacks against other opponents or famous public figures to specific policies that were mentioned such as immigration policy and foreign policy (FiveThirtyEight, 2016). Depending on the individual tweet, it could fit into more than one category. This data analysis did not include specific tweets such as announcement tweets for special media appearances and tweets that were simply retweets from different authors from other twitter accounts. That type of data fell into the category “other” (FiveThirtyEight, 2016).

Judging by the retweets and overall engagement, Trump's policy tweets seemed to be a true hit. Trump tweeted about policies as much as he entertained the general public with his vicious twitter attacks on his rivals, however, surprisingly, policy tweets received more "love", around a quarter of overall retweets. Based on that, a notion that Trump followers were more interested in tweets that covered serious topics and offered action prevails.

Table 2. Trump's topic tweets and retweets from 15 November 2015 until the month of June 2016
(FiveThirtyEight, 2016)

What Trump talks most about on Twitter		
TOPIC	SHARE OF TRUMP'S ...	
	TWEETS	RETWEETS BY OTHERS
Policy	17%	25%
Republican candidates	16	17
Polls	11	9
Attacking media	11	9
Democratic candidates	7	12
Attacking women (excluding Clinton)	3	3

Includes tweets from Nov. 5 to June 2, excludes retweets. A tweet can count in more than one category.

SOURCE: TWITTER

The most favourite and most retweeted tweet from the official @realDonaldTrump account was the one made on 5 May, wishing everyone: "Happy #CincoDeMayo! The best taco bowls are made in Trump Tower Grill. I love Hispanics!" (Trump, 2016). The tweet also included a photo and a link to his Facebook page. The Tweet gathered a whopping 95,100 retweets and another 127,537 likes, which is ironic if one takes into consideration the context of mainstream media often portraying Trump as a racist against many other different cultures and races including Hispanics (FiveThirtyEight, 2016). That tweet soon went viral and made the day's headlines as many mainstream media news picked it up giving Trump plenty of free coverage once again.

6. Conclusion

Ever since 2015, Trump's journey to the White House has been a true rollercoaster. Often scrutinized by the mainstream media he quickly took to Twitter which became his main

“battlefield” and helped him accomplish a political discourse on his own terms. Twitter became an ideal communication tool to utilize during his presidential campaign. Some out of many Twitter benefits include low cost usage, brevity with just 140 maximum characters and instant swiftness and connection with an unlimited number of people from all around the globe. Taking into consideration all these unique features, Twitter dominates other social media platforms when it comes to politics, instant political discourse and connection with potential voters. During the last 2016 presidential race in the United States, politicians increased usage of Twitter and pushed boundaries that had once been established and respected on the political scene. Trump was the one who led the “anti-political correctness” movement and wrote new rules for the game. Based on the collected data from his official @realDonaldTrump account, a few observations can be made. Firstly, the main focus of his communication strategy was to use simple language. He ditched the usual political talk and the heavy political vocabulary that came with it. Instead Trump kept it simple. That way he was able to reach more and more people as he used the type of language that was the most relatable to dispersive and broad audiences. Another detail that was noticed was Trump’s authenticity. As a politician, he stayed consistent with his message which he additionally reinforced with constant tweeting. Tweets that were the most popular and noticed by the public and the mainstream media were tweets linked to policy. On the other hand, probably better known were the tweets in which he tackled his rivals and anyone that stood in his way. That kind of political discourse on social media made by a career politician was a rare sight before Trump came onto the political scene in United States. Regardless of the negative connotations those types of tweets were filled with, they still created a certain element of surprise and thus everyone – the public and mainstream media – were watching and waiting for Trump’s next move or tweet. Many political experts never expected Trump to win, and some of them are still in a state of shock. However one cannot dispute his communication strategy that paved his way to the White House. Another factor that might have played a role is the global crisis and political uncertainty across the globe. As a result of that, the general public seems to lose more and more faith in politicians. What was once acceptable political discourse and communication amongst politicians and the general public (voters) has now lost its meaning. Trump’s Twitter communication strategy and ultimate success with voters clearly reflected a certain shift in America’s mindset, which might set new standards and rules in the world of political public relations for generations to come.

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EUROPEAN REFUGEE CRISIS 2015: PRESS COVERAGE ON THE WEBSITE DNEVNO.HR

Tihana Babić, M.A.

Algebra University College, Zagreb, Croatia

tihana.babic@algebra.hr

Tamara Kunić, M.A.

Newsroom d.o.o., Zagreb, Croatia

kunic.tamara@gmail.com

Summary

The Croatian Constitution guarantees the freedom of speech, but hate speech or discrimination based on race, religion, nationality and ethnicity is forbidden. During and after the European refugee crisis in 2015, a series of articles which contain stereotypes, religious and racial discrimination were published in Croatia and presented to a large public. We selected the website Dnevno.hr for our case study because prior researches suggested that their articles contain discriminatory and hate speech (Hoffman, 2015; Biželj, 2017). Our research question was: Are articles written on the website Dnevno.hr in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of Croatia and professional standards when writing about the refugee crisis? Words used in 453 articles were analysed through categories which were derived from the legal norms of human rights in Croatia and five such articles were found. The results showed that, in the Croatian public space, articles that discriminate can be published and that journalists can write about the most vulnerable social groups, which is contrary to the national laws.

Keywords: European refugee crisis, European migrant crisis, hate speech, hate media, press coverage, website Dnevno.hr

1. Introduction

The topic of this paper is the European refugee crisis in 2015 and the aim of this case study is to examine if there are characteristics which can be considered as hate speech in articles published by the Croatian news website Dnevno.hr during press coverage of the European refugee crisis in the year 2015. The 2006 European Commission report has shown that “public perception of migration is more negative across Europe” and that feelings of insecurity are linked to migration (Beutin et al., 2006, 2). This should not be surprising given that, in recent years, public debate on migration in many European countries has been strongly influenced by anti-immigration policies and negative reporting on refugees (Berry et al., 2015, 14). Media coverage can strongly influence how the parties, both inside and outside, relate to conflict and the “players” within it by the choice of stories that are covered or omitted, the sources used, and the stand that is taken toward ethical reporting (Gardner, 2001, 301).

In such an atmosphere, so-called “hate media” can appear. They can be defined as those who support violent activities, tensions or hatred between racial groups, ethnic groups or social groups, countries to achieve political goals or intensify conflicts by displaying only one, biased side, or opinion, and to divide the public. Hate media are an example of how freedom of speech is used to intentionally worsen existing tensions between and within countries, fuelling nationalist feelings and/or ethnic hatred (Gardner, 2001, 304).

Such a negative way of reporting about refugees during last year and later on, appeared in some Croatian media. This paper gives an overview of the Croatian legislative framework related to hate speech and research on hate speech during the refugee crisis in Croatia as well as in the world. The case study analysed texts on the daily web portal Dnevno.hr to find out whether there are contents that are directed against refugees.

2. The European Refugee Crisis 2015

The European refugee crisis (also named the European migrant crisis) began in 2015 when rising numbers of people arrived undocumented in the European Union (EU), travelling across Mediterranean Sea or overland through Southeast Europe. The conflict in Syria was and continues to be by far the biggest driver of migration, but also the ongoing violence in Afghanistan and Iraq, abuses in Eritrea, as well as poverty in Kosovo are also leading people to

look for new lives out of their countries (BBC News, 4 March 2016). The crisis is often referred to as worst refugee crisis since World War II (UNICEF, March 2016). There were more than 65 million people forcibly displaced globally and boat crossing of the Mediterranean until July of 2016 (Edwards, 11 July 2016), and more than 3.700 people lost their lives in the Mediterranean in 2015 (Glakoumopoulos, March 2016). These people are called migrants, asylum seekers and refugees (Glakoumopoulos, March 2016).

According to the UNHCR's viewpoint, the terms 'refugee' and 'migrant' are frequently used in media and public discourse, but there is a difference between them, and it is important:

- **refugees** are persons fleeing armed conflict or persecution, and for them denial of asylum has potentially deadly consequences. At the end of 2015, there were 21.3 million of them worldwide;
- **migrants** are persons who choose to move not because of direct threat of persecution or death, but mainly to improve their lives by finding work, or in some cases for education, family reunion, or other reasons. They are also called economic migrants. Unlike refugees who cannot safely return home, migrants will continue to receive the protection of their government if they choose to return home (Edwards, 11 July 2016).

This difference between these two terms can have serious and deadly consequences for the lives and safety of refugees, and it can undermine public support for refugees and the institution of asylum at the time when more refugees need such protection than ever before. It is very important to treat human beings with respect and dignity; the human rights of migrants must be respected, and an appropriate legal response for refugees must be provided.

So when we ask a question: which of them are the large number of people arriving in recent years by boats in Europe: refugees or migrants? The answer, in fact, is: they happen to be both. The majority have been from countries mired in war and for whom protection is needed, and smaller proportion is from elsewhere and the term "migrant" would be correct for them (McConnell, 2016).

According to the Eurostat, in 2015 1.255,600 first-time asylum seekers applied for international protection in the Member States of the European Union (EU), and that number is more than double that of the previous year. Croatia is among the EU countries with the lowest rates time asylum applicants: 453 in 2014 and 211 in 2015 (Eurostat, 15 March 2017). In 2016 the number

of asylum seekers in Croatia increased as the transit to Western European countries became more difficult. As of 10 May 2016, 391 persons sought asylum in Croatia (Muižnieks, 5 October 2016).

3. Freedom of Expression vs. Hate Speech

Freedom of speech and expression is the concept to express oneself through literature, art, words of mouth or any other medium of communication, and it is often regarded as an integral concept in modern liberal democracies. The debates about censorship, hate speech, defamation are not the debates about free speech but are generalized debates about whether these harms outweigh the assumptions of a right to free speech. However, the question thus arises that how far the “free speech” is justified and what is the nature of free speech (Arushi, 2017)?

Balancing between fundamental rights and principles, including freedom of expression and the defence of human dignity, is very complex, and hate speech lies in a complex nexus with freedom of expression, individual, group and minority rights, as well as concepts of dignity, liberty and equality (Arushi, 2017).

The phenomenon of hate speech calls into question some of the most fundamental principles of each society and their ability to balance between freedom of expression and respect for equality and dignity. For example, the United States of America has protection of freedom of expression that stretches well beyond the boundaries of speech that is tolerated in Europe. Numerous European countries, including Germany and France, have adopted instead an approach that not only bans forms of speech because of their likelihood to lead to harm, but also for their intrinsic content (Gagliardone, Gal, Alves, Martinez, 2015).

There are many different ways of describing hate speech in more detail, but one definition is as follows:

“Hate speech is defined as a bias-motivated, hostile, malicious speech aimed at a person or a group of people because of some of their actual or perceived innate characteristics. It expresses discriminatory, intimidating, disapproving, antagonistic, and/or prejudicial attitudes toward those characteristics, which include gender, race, religion, ethnicity, color, national origin, disability, or sexual orientation. Hate speech is aimed to injure, dehumanize, harass, intimidate, debase, degrade, and victimize the targeted groups and to foment insensitivity and brutality against them.” (Cohen-Almagor, 2013, 28)

4. Legal Framework and Terminology

4.1. Constitution of the Republic of Croatia

The Constitution of the Republic of Croatia guarantees as basic provisions: freedom, equal rights, national and gender equality, peace-making, social justice, respect for human rights, inviolability of ownership as the highest values of the constitutional order of the Republic of Croatia (Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia¹ 41/2001, Article 3).

Also, guarantees protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms as common provisions: “All persons in the Republic of Croatia shall enjoy rights and freedoms, regardless of race, colour, gender, language, religion, political or other conviction, national or social origin, property, birth, education, social status or other characteristics. All persons shall be equal before the law” (Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, OG 41/2001, Article 14). So as: “Equal rights for the members of all national minorities in the Republic of Croatia are guaranteed”. Equality and protection of the rights of national minorities shall be regulated by a constitutional act to be enacted under the procedure stipulated for organic law. Over and above general suffrage, the right of the members of national minorities to elect their representatives to the Croatian Parliament may be stipulated by law. The freedom of the members of all national minorities to express their nationality, to use their language and script, and to exercise cultural autonomy shall be guarantee (Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, OG 41/2001, Article 15).

Personal and political liberties and rights are guaranteed: “Respect for and legal protection of each person’s private and family life, dignity, reputation shall be guaranteed” (Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, OG 41/2001, Article 35). Also: “Freedom of conscience and religion and the freedom to demonstrate religious or other convictions shall be guaranteed” (Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, OG 41/2001, Article 40).

4.2. The Criminal Code of the Republic of Croatia

Hate speech is public expressions which spread, incite, promote or justify hatred, discrimination or hostility towards a specific group. They contribute to a general climate of intolerance which in turn makes attacks more probable against those given groups. The Criminal Code of the

¹ “Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia” – henceforth in the text “OG”

Republic of Croatia defines the criminal offense of incitement to violence and hatred in the paragraph 1. of Article 325:

“Whoever, through the press, radio, television, computer system or network, at a public meeting or otherwise publicly incites or publicly makes available leaflets, pictures or other material that call for violence or hatred directed against a group of persons or a member of a group because of their racial, religious, national or ethnic affiliation, origin, colour, sex, sexual orientation, gender identity, disability or any other characteristics, shall be punished by imprisonment of up to three years” (Criminal Code of the Republic of Croatia, OG 41/2001, Article 325).

5. What Does the Profession Say?

5.1. Code of Honour of Croatian Journalists

In their work, journalists are obliged to defend human rights, dignity and freedom, respect pluralism of ideas and views, contribute to strengthening of the legal state and as democratic part of publicity participate in controlling the performance of government and politics.

Journalists shall abide by the Constitution and the positive laws of the Republic of Croatia, the Statute and Acts of the International Journalist Federation (IFJ) as well as the acts of the Council of Europe on freedom of expression, informing and human rights (Code of Honour of Croatian Journalists, 27 November 2009).

5.2. Ethical Standards

Also used in the discussion was the classification of Philip Patterson and Lee Wilkins, also quoted by Gordana Vilović in the first monograph book in Croatia that has successfully tackled the complex issue of ethic controversies in Croatian journalism (Vilović, 2004), which states that “ethical prudence”, which every journalist should have, is perceived by the following elements of ethically correct newspapers type:

1. Dignity (leave the person we write about with as much dignity as possible)
2. Reciprocity (deal with others the way you want others to deal with you)
3. Sufficiency (provide sufficient information on important topics)
4. Accuracy (data must be accurate: use the right words and put them in context)

5. Perseverance (when the theme is important, you do not spare the effort to reach all sources equally)
6. Righteousness (treat justly and equally all sources)
7. Community (evaluate aggregate achievements as well as individual)
8. Diversity (report on all segments of society fairly and appropriately)

5.3. Hate Media

The term “freedom of speech” is used to capture those discursive acts – often political in nature – that can be imparted or received, without constraint or censorship, particularly on the part of government authorities. It is also known according to other 3 terms such as “freedom of expression”, or in certain legislative contexts, “freedom of the press” (Elliot et al., 2016, 6).

Croatia has of its own free will agreed to recognize and respect all European democratic standards (including those concerning the media and the freedom of thought and expression) and set as its goal joining all European and international integrations. Naturally, this means it has had to adapt its legal system to the achievement of that goal. The Croatian Journalists’ Association has put in much effort to ensure that the laws concerning the media and journalists should include the guarantees (and mechanisms) of freedom of expression, in line with those in other European democratic states (Alaburić, 1997).

5.4. Agency for Electronic Media

Council

The Electronic Media Council manages the Agency for Electronic Media and carries out the duties of a regulatory body in the area of electronic media, regarding the Electronic Media Act.

In Article 12, it states that

“in all audio and/or audiovisual services it shall be prohibited to promote, favour the promotion of and spreading of hatred or discrimination based on race or ethnic affiliation or colour, gender, language, religion, political or other belief, national or social origin, property, trade union membership, education, social status, marital or family status, age, health condition, disability, genetic heritage, native identity, expression or sexual orientation, as well as anti-Semitism and xenophobia, ideas of the fascist, nationalist, communist and other totalitarian regimes” (Electronic Media Act, OG 153/09, 84/11, 94/13).

The hate speech is explained in more detail in media law (see the Media Act, the Electronic Media Act and the Law on Croatian Radio and Television).

6. Reporting about the Refugee Crisis – Previous Research

The 2015 report by Berry, Garcia-Blanco and Moore for United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) at Cardiff School of Journalism showed how journalists reported about refugees in five different European countries - Spain, Italy, Germany, Great Britain and Sweden. Researchers have analysed thousands of articles written in 2014 and early 2015. They found great differences between countries, what sources and language journalists and the solutions they had suggested. For example, Germany and Sweden used “refugees” or “asylum-seekers”, while Italian and British preferred the word “migrant”. In Spain, the dominant term was “immigrant”. The media also differed in the topics they dealt with. For example, humanitarian topics were more frequent in Italian than in British, German or Spanish newspapers. Threats (such as social assistance or cultural threats) prevailed most in Italy, Spain and Britain. Swedish newspapers were the most favourable for refugees and migrants, while reporting in the UK was the most negative (Berry et al., 2015, 1). The topics that emerged in the UNHCR survey and related to refugees are very similar to the topics that appeared on Dnevno.hr. Discussion on refugees and migrants as a cultural threat or threat to the community prevailed most in British newspapers (10.8%) (Berry et al., 2015, 9).

The refugee crisis was a part of the research in Croatia. The hate speech project covered the period from the beginning of October 2015 until the end of September 2016, and was conducted by GONG. The research methodology was based on monitoring the sample of electronic and print media based on work definitions of hate speech, discriminatory and stereotyping speech (Hoffman, 2015, 1). Most of the texts with hate speech have been found on the Dnevno.hr website, which has repeatedly shown the tendency to publish news containing words that point to discriminatory intonation, humiliating and insulting speech, and point to the appearance of non-European refugees and migrants as criminals and rapists (Croatian Journalists' Association, 2017).

Dnevno.hr is a Croatian website, founded in 2012, and registered as an electronic publication with the Agency for Electronic Media (Agency for Electronic Media, 2017). Their content is

often characterized as radical Croatian nationalism, and often have been the subject of accusations of promoting pre-scientific ideas and marginal conspiracy theories (Hoffman, 2015; Index.hr, 2015). Civil society organisations (GONG, Human Rights House and Association for Independent Media Culture) have carried out a project “Enough of the Hate” during 2015 and 2016, and wanted to raise the level of awareness of discriminatory public speech. According to project data, most hate speech was recorded on the portal Dnevno.hr (dostajemrznje.org, 2017), so that is why Dnevno.hr was selected as a case study. Research conducted by Biželj (2017) showed that Dnevno.hr uses discriminative and intolerant speech (Biželj, 2017, 47).

7. Goals and Methodology

Goals

This paper seeks to determine whether the website Dnevno.hr obeys the Croatian Constitution, the Criminal Code of the Republic of Croatia, the Croatian Code of Ethics and the ethical norms by Patterson and Wilkins, when reporting on a refugee crisis. The purpose of this paper is to investigate whether there is hate speech in Croatian media toward the most vulnerable social groups, refugees. Likewise, the aim is to explore how the Agency for Electronic Media, which is responsible for monitoring Internet websites, monitors and sanctions such practice.

Research Questions

- Are articles written on the website Dnevno.hr in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, the Code of Honour of Croatian Journalists when writing about the refugee crisis?
- Do they relate to sensitive social groups and refugees with dignity, protecting their right to racial, religious, national and ethnic affiliation?
- Do they use stereotypes, pejorative expressions, humiliating representations, and invoke or support discrimination?

Methods of Research and Data Collection

In this paper, we answered to research questions by qualitative analysis of the content. We selected Dnevno.hr for our study because the prior researches suggested that their articles contain discriminatory speech and even hate speech (Hoffman, 2015; Biželj, 2017). On the Dnevno.hr website, the texts were found by inserting the keyword “refugee” or “migrant” into the search engine on the page. Between 18 September 2015 and 18 September 2016, 453 texts were published on Dnevno.hr website with these key words. That time frame was selected because that was the period when a large quantity of articles about refugees was published in Croatia because, at that time, refugees travelled in large groups through Croatia. The end date of 4 September was selected arbitrarily, to end a period of one year. Words used in articles, in all 453 of the articles, were then analysed through analytical matrix categories which were derived from the legal norms of human rights in the Constitution of the Republic of Croatia and the Criminal Code of the Republic of Croatia and the Code of Honour of Croatian Journalists. According to these definitions, five categories were created, by which the texts were classified. These are: *stereotypes, pejorative expressions, humiliating or dehumanizing appearances (violations of dignity, reputation and honour of persons), direct or indirect encouragement of hatred, direct or indirect encouragement or support of discrimination*. The category directly or indirectly invoking hate was added based on Article 325 of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Croatia. Articles which contained at least four categories of negative expressions in the very body of the text (not only in title or subtitle) were selected for further analysis. Only five texts that had at least four categories of negative expressions were found, and were additionally analysed and all expressions containing some of the elements from the analytic matrix were allocated. The texts that contained negative speech in the title, subtitle and textual details were not used in the analysis if they did not have negative connotations in the body of the article itself.

8. Analysing Press Coverage of the European Refugee Crisis 2015 on the Website Dnevno.hr

Analysis of the chosen articles showed that the use of stereotypes, like “dressed in the dangling clothes typical for the population to which he belongs”, pejorative expressions, like “animals”, humiliations and encouragement of discrimination and hate can be found (Table 1). In almost

all cases, journalists, in only one text, use at least four categories of negative connotations that can be related to hate speech (Table 2) and they do not obey ethical standards (Table 3).

8.1. Article against Islam and Refugees

In the text published under the title *CROATIA, WHY ARE YOU BEING QUIET? The media “crucified” the priest who merely dared to say “the truth” about Islam and “refugees”*, and provided the headline: *“THE END OF FREE THOUGHT!”* (Kasapić, 2015) expressions that point to the use of stereotypes, pejorative expressions, humiliating or dehumanizing appearances, direct or indirect encouragement to hatred and direct or indirect support of discrimination were found.

The word refugee is put in quotation marks, stating that the subject of the text, the priest whose story is being transmitted, has not seen so-called real refugees, thus questioning their refugee status, which is classified as a category of humiliating or dehumanizing representation. The stereotyped “suffering faces” was also noted, suggesting a biased attitude, a simplified opinion and an uncritical assessment (Allport, 1935), and suggests that a person who escapes from a war-affected area must look in a certain way.

In this text, ethical standards have been violated, which state that journalists should write with dignity. The other side of the story was not provided by the subject of the article and the diversity of the social group about which it was written was not taken into account.

8.2. Assaulting Refugees Is OK?

On the website Dnevno.hr, the following article was published: *Look at how brave Finnish girl deals with immigrants! (VIDEO)* The headline of the text is: *Go, Girl!* (Holjevac, 2016). The video shows a woman fighting with a man, and the title and details support the assault on the immigrant, and sends the message that this woman is “brave” and suggests to the readers how this is a desirable behaviour, which directly promotes hatred, and also justifies violence against a particular social group. The text also contains stereotypes described by the author in the text “dressed in the dangling clothes typical of the population to which he belongs”, “does not look like the typical blond Scandinavian”, which may suggest his uncritical assessment and biased attitude towards the entire population from which the man comes. It is not written with dignity

or respect towards refugees. The source of the media from which the video was taken is not specified, nor is its authenticity specified. The accuracy of the data is questionable; no sources are provided nor is the other side provided the opportunity to respond.

8.3. Publishing Parts of Research that “Fit”

In an article with the title: *SHOCKING! GERMAN RESEARCH: These ‘refugees’ are not fleeing ISIS*, (Kasapić, 2015), the author puts refugees within quotation marks, leading to questioning their refugee status, which is classified into the category of degrading or dehumanizing representation. There is also an emphasis on stereotypes, as the author of the text argues that “we cannot wonder why they largely support the radical killers”, “they consider the brutal ISIS as their liberators”, indicating a biased stance that all refugees support “radical killers” and ISIS terrorists, but this can also be linked to indirect hate against a particular social group, as the text speaks of refugees in general. Refugees are pejoratively called “soldiers of one army”, which places them in the category of soldiers, not civilians affected by the war (Berry et al., 2015, 1).

They published only one part of the research, the part that supports direct or indirect encouragement of discrimination and hatred of the refugees. Data quality, as well as their adequacy, is questionable.

8.4. Only One Resource Talks about Refugees Bad Behaviour

Website Dnevno.hr released text entitled: *BMW offers 20 jobs to immigrants - no one has applied!*, adding: *They are all engineers* (Holjevac, 2015). In the text, the refugees are marked by pious expressions, suggesting that the terms “engineers, Nobel laureates, atomic physicists” ironically try to offend them. There was also an emphasis on stereotypes, i.e. simplified thinking, that “where the influence of a parent is absent they are more willing to work”, suggesting that the entire social group of refugees is lazy and that they are traditionally reluctant to work. The sentence: “And it is unlikely that some of the people coming to Germany will be the new Steve Jobs: more likely is a new Jihad John - or maybe Hezbollah Hans”, suggests that terrorists are among the refugees, indicating direct or indirect hate toward them.

It is noted that, in this text, there is no respect for the diversity of the social group of immigrants. Only one subject who does not support the immigrants is used in the text, and the other side has not been given any chance of response. All of the theses are supported by the author and further filled with stereotypes and encouragement for the intolerance of immigrants.

8.5. The Controversial Letter

In the text: *DOCTOR'S LETTER REVEALS THE HORRIBLE TRUTH? 'Help, migrants are nothing but animals, They spread AIDS and syphilis, beat us, and we have to remain silent!'*, published on 22 October 2015; the subtitle was: *Everybody is hiding this! Alarming condition in German hospitals about which it is forbidden to write* (Kasapić, 2015).

The title and text details suggest pejorative expressions, and there is a dehumanizing representation of immigrants in which they are called animals, and stereotypes are seen in statements that they “spread AIDS and syphilis”.

The article states that “Muslim and African immigrants are people with a difficult character, with whom it is not easy to work”, “most of these people are completely incompetent. Some of them do not have any education. Their women do not work at all.” and that “many migrants come to Europe with AIDS and syphilis and a bunch of exotic diseases with which we do not know how to treat.” These expressions are classified into the category of stereotypes. There is a sentence in the group that encourages discrimination: “You do not understand that the minds of these people are washed out, that they are not humane at all and that they accept nothing but the law of Allah or Muhammad, and they are terrible, inhumane ...”, which suggests that Islam is a dangerous religion.

In this text there is no source or person behind all the theses. The statements are provided as truth without any accuracy, checking of the data, without the other side of the story, as well as questioning the adequacy of the data. The whole text recounted the “unnamed source”, with additional commentaries of the author as though he was certain that the data was completely accurate.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

In democracies, nothing can be absolute, so free speech also cannot be absolute. As the famous American judge Learned Hand once said: “Liberty lies in the hearts of men and women; and when it dies there, no constitution, no law, no court can save it; no constitution, no law, no court can even do much to help” (as cited in Dworkin, 1996, 342).

The analysis of the articles published on the website Dnevno.hr has shown that in the Croatian public space, articles that discriminate by religion, race, culture can be published and that journalists can write about most the vulnerable social groups using stereotypes, pejorative expressions, invoking discrimination and hatred, contrary to the laws of the Republic of Croatia, but also to the ethical standards of the profession. Additionally, given that the texts have become available to a large number of people, it is necessary to deal more closely with hate speech and discrimination on websites because a large number of people read them, and they can form their views based of those texts. The Agency for Electronic Media, which is responsible for controlling the content published in electronic publications, has never punished Dnevno.hr for hate speech during the refugee crisis.

The results of this research are limited and we cannot make general conclusions on hate speech on the website Dnevno.hr because not all texts have been analysed. However, these findings can be indicative and serve as a guide to research that would focus on other Internet sites and ultimately serve for better media self-regulation, as well as regulation by the Agency for Electronic Media.

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11. Appendices

Table 1. Examples

<i>Categories:</i>
<i>Stereotypes:</i> “dressed in the dangling clothes typical of the population to which he belongs”, “does not look like the typical blond Scandinavian”, “they consider the brutal ISIS as their liberators”, “where the influence of a parent is absent they are more willing to work”
<i>Pejorative expressions:</i> multiculti, animals
<i>Humiliation or dehumanizing appearances:</i> “The wish to succeed in Germany is, according to our experience, very, very low, especially among adult immigrants. Participating in German language courses is a very frustrating experience, especially for volunteers”, “most of these people are completely incompetent. Some of them do not have any education. Their women do not work at all.”
<i>Directly or indirectly invoking the hatred:</i> “And it is unlikely that some of the people coming to Germany will be the new Steve Jobs: more likely is a new Jihad John - or maybe Hezbollah Hans”, “if they do not get the medicine they are ready to kill”
<i>Directly or indirectly encouraging or supporting discrimination:</i> “What is the greatest evil that humanity has suffered in its entire history? Islam, which is currently entering our lives by the back door, and without any doubt surpasses all tragedies of humanity”, “You do not understand that the minds of these people are washed out, that they are not humane at all and that they accept nothing but the law of Allah or Muhammad, and they are terrible, inhumane ...”,

Table 2. Sum analysis of the texts on Dnevno.hr according to the 5 categories derived from the Constitutional and legal acts

Article 1: CROATIA, WHY ARE YOU BEING QUIET? The media “crucified” the priest who merely dared to say “the truth” about Islam and “refugees!”

Article 2: GO, GIRL! Look at how brave Finnish girl deals with immigrants! (VIDEO)

Article 3: SHOCKING! GERMAN RESEARCH SHOWS: These “refugees” are not fleeing from ISIS!

Article 4: ALL ENGINEERS: BMW offers 20 jobs to immigrants - no one has applied!

Article 5: DOCTOR’S LETTER REVEALS HORRIBLE TRUTH? ‘Help, migrants are nothing but animals, they spread AIDS and syphilis, beat us, and we have to remain silent!’

<i>Categories</i>	<i>Article 1</i>	<i>Article 2</i>	<i>Article 3</i>	<i>Article 4</i>	<i>Article 5</i>
<i>Stereotypes</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Pejorative expressions</i>	+	+		+	+
<i>Humiliation or dehumanizing depictions</i>	+		+	+	+
<i>Directly or indirectly invoking hatred</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Directly or indirectly encouraging or supporting discrimination</i>	+	+	+		+

Table 3.

Sum analysis of the texts on Dnevno.hr according to 7 categories derived from Philip Patterson's and Lee Wilkin's classification of ethically correct newspapers:

<i>Categories</i>	<i>Article 1</i>	<i>Article 2</i>	<i>Article 3</i>	<i>Article 4</i>	<i>Article 5</i>
<i>Dignity</i>	+	+		+	+
<i>Reciprocity</i>	+	+			+
<i>Sufficiency</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Accuracy</i>	+	+	+		+
<i>Perseverance</i>	+	+			+
<i>Righteousness</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Community</i>					
<i>Diversity</i>	+	+		+	+

CORPORATE ACTIVITY ON SOCIAL MEDIA AND ITS IMPACT ON REPUTATION RANKINGS

Milan Mandić, M.A.

Profico (Innovatio Profit d.o.o.), Split, Croatia

milan.mandic@outlook.com

Ivana Bilić, Ph.D.

Department of Management of Faculty of Economics, University of Split, Croatia

ibilic@efst.hr

Summary

Social networks are increasingly present in the everyday life of people and as a corporation's communication channel with its stakeholders. Although all corporations have not recognised the importance of social networks, the vast majority did and they incorporated them into their marketing strategy. Even if social media bring many advantages and benefits, with no real strategy and management, it can cause a lot of damage to corporations, especially in terms of reputation. Furthermore, reputation is, along with the knowledge, perhaps the most important intangible assets of any corporation. Corporate reputation has an impact on many aspects of business. Corporations with a good reputation tend to achieve higher sales; they attract investors and high-quality workforce more easily. Corporations that do not manage reputation become more vulnerable than ever before with higher probability of failing. For these reasons, the key question in this paper is: What is the real impact of social networks on corporate reputation? For the purpose of a scientific research, measurable data on a corporation's reputation is needed. In addition to this, data from the Reputation Institute's annual reports of 100 corporations with the best reputation were used. In a further step of this research, publicly available posts from the Twitter and tools for text mining were employed. Finally, collected data were compared with rankings made by the Reputation Institute. The results showed that there is a significant impact of posts on social networks with the changes of a corporation's reputation

ranking. Despite the problems that have arisen during data collection and processing, including the small sample of corporations, the results clearly show that the proper social network strategy can have a positive impact on a corporation's reputation.

Keywords: social networks, social media, corporate reputation, text mining, reputation institute

1. Introduction

The Compact Oxford Dictionary (Simpson, Weiner, 2009) defines reputation as “the beliefs or opinions that are generally held about someone or something” and as “a widespread belief that someone or something has a particular characteristic”.

Fombrun (1996) observed corporate reputation as “the total perceptions of all stakeholders towards a corporation”. Reputation of one corporation is not the result of the current situation but it is built over a longer time period as a result of previously mentioned attributes, stakeholder experience with the corporation, “word of mouth” as a communication channel of high credibility and all information gathered through other media (Bilić, 2011).

Chun (2005) presents corporate reputation as an “umbrella” construction for corporate image, identity and desired identity. This definition and distinction from other concepts is important when researching the impact of social media on corporate reputation. Furthermore, because of new communication channels, like social media, it is of significant importance for corporations to adapt their traditional way of communication to the new online environment (Grützmacher, 2011).

Research conducted by Stelzner (2014) showed that corporations are aware of the importance of social media. This research showed that 97% of corporations are present on social media. If we compare this result to the one from eMarketer (Williamson, 2010) research from 2010, where only 40% of corporations were using the most popular social network Facebook to communicate with its stakeholders, there is no doubt whether businesses are aware of the importance of their social media presence, but what is important is how they use social media in practice, which is in the focus of this research.

For this purpose, appropriate tools need to be employed, such as text mining or text analytics. The Oxford English Dictionary (Stevenson, 2015) defines text mining as the process or practice of examining large collections of written resources in order to generate new information, typically using specialised computer software. It is a subset of the larger field of data mining. To put it simply, text mining is one way to make qualitative or “unstructured” data usable by a computer.

Prato (2013) explains that qualitative data is descriptive data that cannot be measured in numbers and often includes qualities of appearance like colour, texture, and textual description. Quantitative data is numerical, structured data that can be measured. However, there is often a dilemma between qualitative and quantitative categories. For example, a photograph might traditionally be considered as “qualitative data”, however, it can be broken down to the level of pixels, which can be measured. The introduction of the text mining tools gives the opportunity to corporations to dive into the never-ending pool of data that social media offer.

2. Social Media and Their Role in Corporate Reputation

Nowadays, no one questions the role and importance of social media in everyday life of an individual or business. According to eBizMBA data (2016), the most popular social network attracts more than 1,100,000,000 unique visitors monthly. According to them, the 3 most popular social networks are: 1) Facebook, 1,100,000,000 - Estimated Unique Monthly Visitors | Last Updated 1 September 2016; 2) YouTube, 1,000,000,000 - Estimated Unique Monthly Visitors | Last Updated: 1 September 2016; and 3) Twitter 310,000,000 - Estimated Unique Monthly Visitors | Last Updated 1 September 2016.

Social media have changed the way of communication between corporations and the customer. Instead of one-way communication, social networks have brought the possibility of two-way communication, creating a great channel of communication that enables customers and the public in general to express both positive and negative critics. The way how corporations manage that communication will have an effect on their reputation, but it also gives them critical feedback that can result in improving their products and services (Haselmayr, 2014).

Although Twitter attracts less unique visitors than Facebook, for example, for many businesses, it is the number one communication channel. One of the reasons for that can be found in the fact that Twitter attracts a younger demographic than Facebook (Jackson, 2015), with different communication preferences. The younger generation prefers to receive information in bite-sized pieces and as soon as possible. Great examples are 1) Hudson River plane crash in 2009; 2) Boston Marathon bombing; or 3) Osama Bin Laden's death, and so a lot of important news was reported on Twitter before being published anywhere else. News and discussions spread over Twitter faster than on any other social media (Shonteli, 2013). This is the main reason why corporations are putting a lot of effort in managing their Twitter presence.

There are lot of examples where great social media campaigns boosted business results, but it is also possible to find even more examples where poor or no social media strategy may have resulted in negative effects. An example of a great social media campaign is Old Spice's campaign from 2011 when the corporation introduced the new Old Spice guy called Fabio. The main communication channel was YouTube and the campaign was a hit. The end result, as was reported by Media Measurement (2014), was a boost in sales of 107%.

3. Methods and Materials Used for Research

The two main sources used in this research are the following: 1) Reputation Institute's Annual Ranking of the 100 Most Reputable Companies Worldwide (Reputation Institute, 2014); and 2) Twitter: one of the most popular social networks in the world (N.B., 2016).

The Reputation Institute is the world's leading research and advisory corporation for reputation, founded by university professors Charles Fombrun and Cees Van Riel in 1997. They are most known for their RepTrak model that is base for their annual ranking calculations. RepTrak® is the standard for reputation measurement, providing a one-of-a-kind measurement of how the public views the world's best-known corporations, examining 15 stakeholder groups in more than 25 industries and more than 50 countries for more than 7,000 corporations (About Reputation Institute, 2016).

RepTrak is called the “beating heart” of corporate reputation that provides a total assessment of reputation health of each corporation. Using a scale from 0 - 100, it provides a global normative basis for benchmarking corporations. The Reputation Institute’s categorizes corporations based on their score in the following categories (About RepTrak - The Gold Standard for Reputation Measurement, 2016): 1) 80 + Excellent Reputation; 2) 70 – 79 Strong Reputation; 3) 60 – 69 Average Reputation; 4) 40 – 59 Weak Reputation; and 5) 0 - 39 Poor Reputation.

The results are further broken down into seven dimensions of rationality, which define why consumers feel the way they do. The dimensions are: 1) Products/Services, 2) Innovation, 3) Workplace, 4) Governance, 5) Citizenship, 6) Leadership, and 7) Performance (About RepTrak - The Gold Standard for Reputation Measurement, 2016).

The RepTrak System evaluates the degree to which each dimension has an effect on the emotional bond between a group of stakeholders and the corporation. With that information in place, they are able to determine which dimensions have the biggest effect and support. Having all that in mind, it is clear why such information is of crucial importance for a corporation. It enables them to define their current perception, their key effects on reputation and gives them an opportunity to actively work on the area most important for them.

On the other side, we have Twitter (www.twitter.com), a social network that attracts more than 300,000,000 unique users every month (Top 15 Most popular Social Networking Sites, n.d.). This social network soon became popular all around the world and, at the end of 2012, it had more than 100 million users who generated more than 340 million tweets per day (Launden, 2012). Research conducted by Dolan (2014) showed that 64% of Twitter users will buy a product from the corporation they follow over one from a corporation that they do not follow on this social network. This result is one of the best arguments why a planned social media strategy is important for today’s corporations.

This research was performed in two phases. The first phase was performed with the aim of collecting all the necessary data (i.e. tweets) from Twitter in a format that is suitable for text mining. The tool used in this phase was RapidMiner. In the next phase of the research, we needed to identify the percentage of tweets which are communicating message connected to one of the 7 RepTrak components. This was done by using MindCloud, a tool for analysing surveys, tweets and comments directly from spreadsheet which we populated in step one.

Using the Meaning Cloud's functionality to identify precisely what the text is about, we were able to detect which tweets have content connected to RepTrak components. The Reputation Institute conducted the survey at the beginning of the year in order to get the result for that year. Having that in mind, it was important to compare reputation ranking results with the twitter data from previous year. For example, when we were researching the impact of tweets on ranking in 2014, we used tweets published in 2013. The main focus of this research was to detect if the change in percent of tweets connected to RepTrak components (from now on: relevant tweet) through years affected corporations RepTrak rankings.

Before getting to the research results, it is important to define specific terms in order to improve understanding:

- *Relevant tweets:* a relevant tweet is a tweet that communicates a message about one of the RepTrak dimensions. In other words, those are tweets that contain key word/s specifically selected for each corporation.
- *Relevant keywords:* Relevant keywords are those words specifically selected for each dimension of RepTrak and for each corporation. The reason why key words were not the same for each corporation is because of the "product and services" dimension of RepTrak. It was necessary to make a research and get the list of the product/services names and include them in the keyword list for that corporation.
- *Relation between the Reputation Institute's reports and relevant year of tweets:* As the survey for the RepTrak rank list is conducted at the beginning of the year for which the rank list is made, it was decided that the relevant tweets will be the ones in the previous year. The reason is that in order for the tweets to have some effect they need to be done prior to the survey. So, for example, the report from 2014 is compared with the tweets from 2013.

4. Research Sample Overview

As mentioned before, research was conducted among the corporations that were ranked among the best one hundred on the Reputation Institute Report from 2014. These corporations are world leaders in their areas and some of them are:

- a) Food product corporations that achieved sales of 21.14 billion euros in 2014;
- b) Fashion retailer with more than 2000 shops all around world, their income in 2013 was around 10 billion euros;
- c) Multinational technology corporations in 2014 achieved profits of around 66 billion dollars and had more than 53 000 employees;
- d) Consumer product corporations which, in 2013, had more than 17 billion dollars in revenue;
- e) World leading tire manufacturers, with more than 180 facilities in 26 countries.

The numbers presented above showcase their power on today's market and are probably the best one to do research on.

5. Software Tools Used to Conduct Research

Following tools were used for conducting this research:

1. RapidMiner

RapidMiner is a software solution that offers integrated system for machine learning, data mining, text mining, predictive analytics and business analytics. It is mostly used for business purposes, but also for research, education and application development. RapidMiner is developed on business model, meaning that the core and prior versions of the software are available under OSI-certified licence on the "Sourceforge" (Hofmann, Klinkenberg, 2013).

2. MeaningCloud

MeaningCloud (MeaningCloud, n.d.) is a free tool used for: 1) Analysing unstructured content; 2) Meaning extraction from tweets, social media posts, opinions on forums, surveys, news and different conversations; and 3) Automation of content classification by subject, names, corporations and brands.

RapidMiner was used in order to fetch all tweets from the corporations selected for this research. This data was collected and organised in excel spreadsheets, in a format needed for analysis by MeaningCloud. By using MeaningCloud functionalities to determine meaning and classification by corporation and keyword, we were able to determine which tweets were communicating messages about specific RepTrak components.

6. Results

As the aim of this research was to detect any possible connection between a corporation's Twitter activity and their ranking on Reputation Institute rank list two main hypotheses were defined for this research:

H1: The change in percentage of relevant tweets in 2013 compared to 2012 had an impact on change of rankings in 2014 compared to 2013.

H2: The change of percentage of relevant tweets from the 2012 – 2014 reporting period had an impact on the rankings in the above mentioned time frame.

6.1. Testing the hypothesis: “The change in percentage of relevant tweets in 2013 compared to 2012 had impact on change of rankings in 2014 compared to 2013.”¹

From the total possible sample, 17% of corporations were eligible for this research (due to one or more of the following reasons: presence in both ranking reports, having twitter account, number of tweets etc.).

¹ Additional details are available at: <http://research-cmf.milanmandic.xyz>

The research showed that 76% of corporations had a positive correlation between change in percentage of the relevant tweets and change of their rankings in above mentioned years. For example, corporations like Google, Boeing and Zara, which increased their percentage of relevant tweets, also improved their rankings. On other hand, corporations like Nestle, Bridgestone or Colgate, which decreased their percentage of relevant tweets also noted lower rankings. When these results were taken into account, the following conclusion was made: The research hypothesis was accepted and the conclusion is that there is a correlation between the change in percentage of relevant tweets in 2013 compared to 2012 and rankings in 2014 compared to 2013.

6.2. Testing the hypothesis: “The change of percentage of relevant tweets from the 2012 – 2014 reporting period had an impact on the rankings in above mentioned time frame.”²

From the total possible sample, 11% of corporations were eligible for this research (due to one or more following reasons: presence in both ranking reports, having twitter account, number of tweets etc.).

When looking the results for the 3 years period, positive correlation occurred in 78% of all corporations. In other words, 78% of all corporations that were eligible for this research had the same direction of change in percentage of relevant tweets and rankings. Although in this case the research period was longer and sample was smaller, the result was almost the same.

When these results were taken into account, the following conclusion was made: The research Hypothesis was accepted and the conclusion is that there is a correlation between the change of percentage of relevant tweets for the 2012 – 2014 reporting period and change in rankings for the abovementioned time frame.

² Additional details are available on: <http://research-cmf.milanmandic.xyz>

6.3. Additional researches

With the same data collected for this research, two additional researches were conducted:

a) Impact of change in average number of retweets on change in the rankings:³

Twitter offers users to share other users' tweets (process commonly known as: retweeting) and because the usual reason for retweeting is a positive attitude towards the same, it was interesting to see if the reputation itself could be connected to the number of retweets. Research showed that 68% of corporations had a positive correlation between change in the percentage of relevant tweets and change in the average number of retweets (2013 and 2014). In other words, in 2/3 of corporations there is the same direction of change in relevant tweets and retweets.

b) Impact of change in the average number of retweets and change in share of relevant tweets for the 2013 – 2014 reporting period:⁴

The main idea behind this research was to find out whether corporations that tweet more about one of the dimensions of RepTrak have a higher number of retweets and vice versa. The research showed that, in 62% of corporations, there is correlation between change in ranking and change in average number of retweets.

7. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

When doing the research, some significant limitations have arisen. First category of limitation is connected with corporate presence on Twitter, and there are two situations that resulted in elimination of some corporation from research: 1) The corporation does not have an official Twitter account, and 2) The corporation has an official Twitter account but not long enough to be acceptable for this research (i.e. less than 2 years for which research was conducted).

³ Additional details are available on: <http://research-cmf.milanmandic.xyz>

⁴ Additional details are available on: <http://research-cmf.milanmandic.xyz>

The second category of limitation causing the most problems was that open source software that is available for doing data mining was not completely suitable for this research.

There are two categories in which we can sort this software: 1) Tools that can both fetch and analyse data, but have limitations on the amount of data they can process; and 2) Tools that can only analyse the data. Because of these reasons, we had to use two different software solutions in order to do the research. As there were limitations on the amount of data, it was impossible to do research on more than three years, and even with that, many corporations could not meet even the two-year criteria.

If any commercial solution was available, the research would be made with a much bigger sample and it would be possible to conduct a research on over three years, something that would be definitely interesting to do. Having that in mind, our main suggestion for future researches would be to use one of the commercial solutions, if possible, and to expand this research in a way to investigate more on each dimension of RepTrak individually.

8. Conclusions

Social networks are increasingly present in the everyday life of people and as a corporation's communication channel with its stakeholders. Although all corporations have not recognized the importance of social networks, the vast majority did and they have incorporated them into their marketing strategy. Although social media bring many advantages and benefits, with no real strategy and management, they can cause a lot of damage to corporations, especially in terms of reputation.

Reputation is, along with the knowledge, perhaps the most important intangible assets of each corporation. Corporate reputation has an impact on many aspects of business. Corporations with a good reputation tend to achieve higher sales, attracting more easily investors and a high-quality workforce. Corporations that do not manage reputation are doomed to fail.

But what is the best way of managing social media presence in order to get the best effects on their reputation? Getting the answer to that question was the main motive for this research.

To do a scientific research, measurable data on the corporation's reputation is needed. Such a source was found in the Reputation Institute's annual reports of 100 corporations with the best reputation. By using tools to collect posts on Twitter and text mining, we managed to obtain the data needed to compare with rankings made by the Reputation Institute. The results showed that there is a significant impact of posts in social networks with the movement of corporations in the aforementioned rankings list.

There are many conclusions that can be drawn both from the results of the research and the information presented in the theoretical part of this paper. The importance and power of social media today cannot be doubted. Social media are not only important as a channel of communication but much more than that, they are vital for reaching younger demographics who obtain most of their information directly from social media. The research conducted by the American Press Institute and the Associated Press-NORC Center for Public Affairs Research (2015) shows that 86% of millennials (adults aged 18 – 34) obtain their news and information from different social media sites.

This research leads to the following conclusions: 1) the content of social media updates are important, and 2) it is also important for corporations to communicate more about their products, services, employees etc. in order to obtain better business results. These results can help managers, CMs and everybody involved in both reputation management and social media business. Having a social media presence strategy in place is more important than ever. Numerous studies have shown that it could be of vital significance for businesses to either improve their position or to fail.

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CROSS-CULTURAL HORIZONTAL AND VERTICAL COMMUNICATIONS IN A COMPANY WITH RAPID GROWTH

Mila Ćosić, Ph.D. candidate

Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia

mcosic@unios.hr

Summary

An energy service company that presents the subject of this manuscript, in the last three years has accomplished a rapid growth. Company provides energy services as a group in three countries: Croatia, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Group's business behaviour is characterized by organic structure, and includes following: low level of vertical differentiation, low level of formalization, decentralization, high level of participation in generating decisions, innovation strategy and non-routine technologies. Group operates in extremely dynamic and turbulent environment. Rapid growth and turbulent environment significantly influence Group's business operations, and consequently its network information circulation. The goal of this manuscript is to examine horizontal communications and vertical communications in cross-cultural business atmosphere of energy service group that has generated a rapid growth in the last three years. A research regarding horizontal and vertical communications has been carried out by survey methodology in three Group's subsidiaries: central office in Croatia, sister company in Serbia and sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Results have been presented in table format and have been interpreted by text. Comparison of results concerning vertical communication in three Group's subsidiaries have been carried out by comparison method and have been presented in graph format. Description of the research is preceded by scientific insights regarding cross-cultural business communications, short Group's description, its structure and design. Central office in Croatia

has accomplished the best results in vertical communications. The loss of information between Group's management board and its first next low management level (heads of sections) is 10%. This fantastic results indicates Management board high involvement in business operations and is for surely one of initiators of rapid growth. The lowest result in vertical communication is performed by sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Keywords: business communications, vertical upward and downward communication, horizontal communication, cross-cultural management

1. Introduction

A company in the energy field, which represents the subject of this paper, in the last three years, has experienced rapid growth. The company operates as a group in three countries: Croatia, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The company's activities are carried out in a dynamic and turbulent environment. The rapid growth and dynamic environment significantly influence the company's business operations, as well as the network of information exchanged within the company.

The purpose of this paper is to examine horizontal communications and vertical upward and downward communications in the business cross-cultural atmosphere of a company in the energy industry that is characterised by a rapid growth. Using the survey questionnaire method, research regarding the aforementioned communications has been carried out. Descriptions of working places that represent the subject of the survey have been compared with the descriptions of working places described in the *Policies of the inter-group rules* (30 September 2016). The results have been presented in table format and have been interpreted by text. The description of the research is preceded by scientific knowledge regarding cross-cultural business communications and a short Group description. The short Group description includes information concerning its structure and design, which have been presented in the below-mentioned sources, as well as by using the oral interview method. The respondent in the oral interview was one of the Group's management board directors.

2. Cross-Cultural Business Communication

In late 1973, Canadian academic Henry Mintzberg presented in his study named *The Nature of Managerial Work* that the average manager spends 60% to 90% of his work time in verbal communication (Hofstede, 1991). Management is carried out through communication. Output that management will deliver depends on the quality of business communication. Communication represents the fundamental core of the business operations of every entity. The whole business habitus, in order to be continuously and promptly adjusted to current market conditions, needs to continuously exchange information outside and inside of the organisation.

The flow of information in business communication inside the organisation includes: vertical upward communications, vertical downward communications, horizontal communications and diagonal communications (Fox, 2001).

Vertical downward communication covers information flow from employees positioned on higher organisational structures to employees positioned on lower organisational structures. Vertical downward communication is communication between manager and other employees. It is characterised by issuing orders, spreading ideas and communication knowledge (Turkalj, Fosić, 2009). Problem in vertical downward communication presents information filtering. Information that is initiated by a manager passes through series of hierarchical levels, and each information recipient can shape information in its own way and style (Jurković, 2012).

Vertical upward communication covers information flow from lower organisational structures towards higher organisational structures. It is mostly used for sending information connected with the system of propositions, employee opinions, work insights, and relationships and problems with employees (Turkalj, Fosić, 2009).

Horizontal communications covers information exchange between employees on the same hierarchical level, whereas diagonal communication takes place between employees of different hierarchical status in the organisation (Fox, 2001).

In 1959, Edward T. Hall for the first time used the term cross-cultural communication. Hall had differentiated cultures based on the way they transmit and accept communication

(Gudykunst, Ting-Tomey, 1988). Gudykunst and Ting-Tomey (1988) in their book, *Culture and Interpersonal Communication*, define the term cross-cultural business communication as the communication with and between business sides that include partners from more than one culture, without including territorial partiality.

3. Description, Structure and Design of the Group

3.1. Description

The Group whose horizontal and vertical upward and downward communications present the subject of this paper is a business entity with regional headquarters in Republic of Croatia, and with sister companies in Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The main business activity of the Group is power and natural gas supply. Additional activities of the Group are energy efficiency projects and power production from renewable resources projects (Group, 2016). In 2015, 51% of the Group's share capital was acquired by a Swiss company whose main activities are: power, natural gas, oil and coal trading (Group, 2016). Until the aforementioned takeover, the Group was in 100% Croatian ownership.

The head office in Zagreb was established in 2010. In August 2012, the office started with its activities (Director of the Group, 2016). The Zagreb office employs 21 employees. In 2015, the total revenues of the Zagreb office amounted to HRK 336,928,300.00, and total assets amounted to HRK 99,851,300.00 (Business Croatia, 2016). Based on the above listed financial indicators and by the Accounting Law of the Republic of Croatia, the headquarters of the Group is classified as a middle-sized company (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 78/15). The nominal capital of the Zagreb office amounts to HRK 5,000,000.00 (Sudski registar, 2016). In the period from 2013 to 2015, the Zagreb office experienced rapid growth. Nominal capital increased by 355% (from HRK 1,100,000.00 in 2013 to HRK 5,000,000.00 in 2015) (Sudski registar, 2016), number of employees increased by 950% (from 2 employees in 2013 (Business Croatia, 2016) to 21 employees in 2015) (Director of the Group, 2016), total revenues increased by 137% (from HRK 141,961,300.00 in 2013 (Business Croatia, 2016) to HRK 336,928,300.00 in 2016 (Business Croatia, 2016), and total

assets increased by 158% (from HRK 38,676,800.00 in 2013 (Business Croatia, 2016) to HRK 99,851,300.00 in 2016 (Business Croatia, 2016).

Its sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina with central office in Sarajevo employs four employees. It was established in 2010. In 2014, the company started with its activities. In 2015, total revenues amounted to KM 64,303,464.00 (Director of the Group, 2016). Data regarding total assets and nominal capital are not available. Its sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina, just as the Zagreb office, also experienced rapid growth. The number of employees in 2015 increased by 300%, from 1 employee in 2014 (Director of the Group, 2016) to 4 employees in 2016. Total revenues have increased by 77%, from KM 36,373,685.00 in 2014 (Director of the Group, 2016) to KM 64,303,464.00 in 2015. Its sister company in the Republic of Serbia, with central office in Belgrade, employs 6 employees. It was established in 2014, and started with its activities in 2016.

3.2. Structure

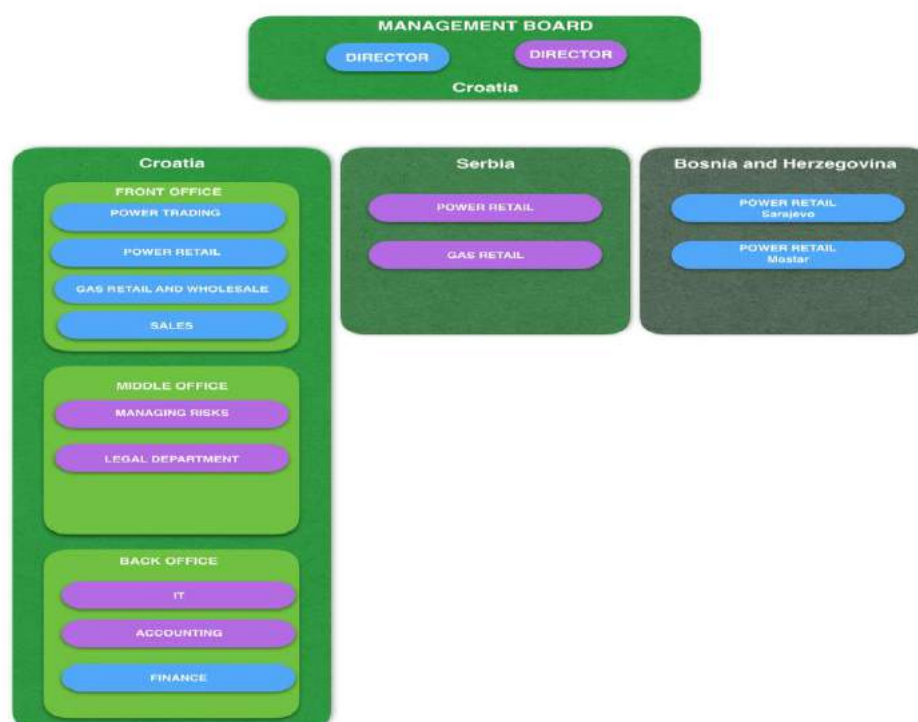


Figure 1. Group's structure (Based by description provided in Policies of the inter-group rules, 2016 document)

Figure 1 shows that at the top of the Group is the Management Board, which is comprised of two directors. The director marked by blue colour is responsible for the sections that are shown in blue, while the director marked by purple colour is responsible for the sections that are shown in purple. The work is divided in a way that sections answer to only one of the two directors. The “blue” director is, besides “blue” sections, also responsible for commercial activities that are connected to daily-based operations and for business strategy development. The “blue” director has a stake in the Group’s ownership. The two directors in the Management Board mutually cooperate very well (Director of the Group, 2016). Their fields of authority overlap only in one segment – authorisation of payments towards banks (Policies of the inter-group rules, 30 September 2016). As there are two directors, it cannot be concluded that business decision unity exists in the group. However, the presented Group is extremely flexible (described below), and the flexibility of the company results from unstrict compliance of business decisions unity (Robbins, 1992).

The regional centre in Croatia, besides the Management Board, consists of *Front office* (oriented towards consumers), *Middle office* (relies on *Front office*’s and *Back office*’s resources), and *Back office* (administrative, technical and financial support). Sections are divided according to functions (Figure 1). The legal department and IT department function according to the outsourcing principle. Therefore, their work activities are not included in this manuscript. The managing risks department is in the process of establishment, and at the moment, there are no employees in the department. Therefore, the managing risks department and its business activities shall not be included in this manuscript.

The sister company in Serbia consists of two departments (Power retail and Gas retail). Both of the aforementioned departments are included in research presented in this manuscript.

The sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina consists of two departments. Both of the departments cover the business activity of power retail. One department covers the area of Herzegovina, while the other covers the area of Bosnia.

The Group is characterised by a high level of horizontal differentiation. The heads of departments who have been included in this research are of different professions, mostly with university degree (masters of economics, electrical engineers, master of kinesiology and oil mining engineer), and three heads of sections has secondary school background.

A low level of vertical differentiation is present in the Group. Respectively, there are not many hierarchical levels between the Management Board and operative departments. The head of aforementioned sections report directly to a director in the Management Board.

In Croatia, three departments have one employee that at the same time is a head of department. (Power trading, Accounting and Finance). Two departments (Power retail and Gas retail and wholesale) have two employees. Sales department is the largest with ten employees. Each of nine employees in Sales department responds directly to head of sales department.

Spatial differentiation is low in regional centres in Croatia. All 21 employees work at the same address in the same office. For the most part, employees of each department sit together in the same room (Sales and Gas retail and wholesale). Employees that are in departments with only one person employed, sit together in the same room (Power trading, Accounting and Finance). Communication, coordination and control according to spatial differentiation can only be problematic inside of the Power retail department. In the aforementioned department, the head of the department sits in his own room, and the administrator of the department sits in the room with employees of the Sales department. Two directors in the Management Board share the same room. Hence, communication and coordination at the managerial level are high.

In Serbia, the Power retail department employs four workers, while the Gas retail department employs one worker. Due to the fact that all six employees work at the same location and in the same room, the level of spatial differentiation is low in Serbia.

Spatial differentiation is high in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Two employees are situated in Sarajevo (Head and Administrator of Power retail department), and the other two are situated in Mostar (Head and Administrator of Power retail department).

The Group is characterised by relatively low level of formalization. In that light, employees are given a considerable freedom in decision making process.

The highest level of independence in generating decisions is present in Zagreb. Trading department possesses independence in generating decisions of 95%. Trading department is followed by the Accounting department, which possesses 90% of independence in decision

making processes. The third place is taken by Finance department with 70%. Gas retail and wholesale department holds 60% of generating decision independence, while Power retail department holds 50% independence. The lowest level of independence in decision making process is 20% and it is held by Sales department (Director of the Group, 2016).

In Serbia the highest level of independence in generating decisions is possessed by the Power retail department, and amounts 60%. The Gas retail department in Serbia holds 40% independence in generating decisions. It must be stressed that the Gas retail department is in the process of being established in Serbia (Director of the Group, 2016).

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the highest independence in decision making is held by the Power retail department located in Sarajevo, amounting to 60%. The Power retail department located in Mostar possesses 50% independence in generating decisions. (Director of the Group, 2016).

Based on the aforementioned analysis, it can be concluded that decentralization is present in the Group. Employees mostly generate decisions by themselves.

3.3. Design

The Group is mostly characterized by organic structure. Robbins defines that organic structure is characterized by: 1) low level of organisational structure complexity; 2) comprehensive network use (use of horizontal communications, as well of upward and downward vertical communications); 3) high level in participation in generating decisions processes 4) coordination is reached by constant and continual communication and unformal communication is present; 5) low level of horizontal differentiation (Robbins, 1992).

The description that follows confirms that organic structure is present in the Group. As it is above mentioned, 1) complexity is at a low level. Six of nine departments that have been included in this research have one employee that responds directly to one of two directors in the management board; 2) Horizontal and vertical communications of the Group that are presented in the next chapter; 3) As it has been mentioned in the section above, decentralization and low level of formalisation are present in the Group; 4) Two directors

share the same room. An open door policy is present. Employees, among other means of communication, also communicate by mobile applications; 5) High level of vertical differentiation is present in the Group. Heads of departments mostly possess university degrees and are of different professions (mentioned in the Structure section).

Strategy of innovation is present in the Group. Strategy of innovation is characterised by: 1) organic structure; 2) low level of formalization; 3) decentralization; 4) limp structure; 5) low level of division of labour (Robbins, 1992). The description that follows confirms innovation strategy in the Group. 1), 2) and 3) have been described above. 4) When the Swiss company acquired a major stake in the Group and its share capital, the structure of the Group changed, and the Group gained one more director. 5) Six departments employ one employee. Due to an employee deficit, there are situations in the business operations of the Group present when employees from one department cover the business activities of the other department.

The Group employs 31 employees (Director of the Group, 2016). According to Robbins, if an organisation has more employees, it is more likely that it will use a mechanical structure (Robbins, 1992). Respectively, it is concluded that if an organisation has fewer employees it will use an organic structure, as is the case of the Group in this research.

The organisational structure adjusts itself toward its technology. Technology answers the question how organisation transforms its inputs into outputs. It presents the main determination of an organisational structure. Organisations adjust in order to protect their technology from uncertainty.

Business surroundings represent everything that is outside of the business utility. For example, institutions or forces that impact on work performance of an organization, and above which organisation has very little control (Robbins, 1992). Disturbed reactive surroundings are present in the Group.

There are seven competitors in the Croatian energy market. All of the competitors gravitate towards similar goals. A state owned utility for power retail and distribution is a current market maker, and an ex-monopolist. It dominates the industry, and it determines prices. National regulations in the Croatian energy market change quickly. Since Croatia's accession to European Union excise duty has been introduced. The new market regulations have been

adopted on 1 December 2015, and from January 2016, the new price for power that suppliers are obliged to repurchase has been adopted (Director of the Group, 2016). In December 2016, the Croatian government has prolonged that mandatory repurchase for 2017. In April 2017, the Croatian gas supply market for households has become liberalised.

There are four competitors in the Serbian power market. The market has become liberalised in January 2015, while the Serbian gas market will become open in 2017.

The power market in Bosnia and Herzegovina has started the liberalisation procedure in January 2016. There are seven competitors present in the power market of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The gas market in Bosnia and Herzegovina has not yet started with liberalisation.

The power market in the three countries in which the Group operates is still going through liberalisation. Hence, energy surroundings are disrupted and reactive. Robbins concludes that the more the surroundings are dynamic, the organisation structure should be constituted organically (Robbins, 1992).

4. Cross-Cultural Business Vertical and Horizontal Communication Analysis

4.1. Methodology

A research covering cross-cultural business horizontal communications and vertical upward and downward communications has been conducted in an energy company (regional centre in Croatia and sister companies in Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina). The research has been conducted by using the survey questionnaire method. The questionnaire has been filled out by the heads of the aforementioned departments of the Group. It covers ten departments (six in Croatia, two in Serbia, and two in Bosnia and Herzegovina). Two heads of departments did not deliver answers to the questionnaire (Power trading department from regional centre in Zagreb and Power retail department from sister company in Sarajevo). Of the ten heads of departments, six are male and two are female (Finance department in regional centre in Zagreb, and Gas department in sister company in Belgrade). Seven heads of departments have

university degrees, while three have secondary school background (Sales department in regional centre in Zagreb and Power retail departments in sister company in Sarajevo and Mostar). The questionnaire was delivered by e-mail. It is composed of five open-ended questions. Respondents were asked to provide answers regarding: educational degree, name of their work post, business activities and tasks that are a part of their work scope, business activities and tasks that are a part of work scope of the person that is their superior and business activities and tasks that are a part of work scope of heads in other departments. Respondents' answers related to the work scope of the Group have been compared to descriptions of work scopes listed in the Policies of inter group rules 2016 document. The results have been obtained by the percentage account method. If the aforementioned work scopes overlapped completely with the work scopes listed in the Policies of inter group 2016 document, the result amounted 100%. On the other hand, if the work scopes did not overlap at all with the work scopes listed in the Policies of inter group rules 2016 document, the result amounted 0%. The work scopes listed in the Policies of inter group rules 2016 document are considered to be the work scopes that both of the directors in the management board connect with one work place.

4.2. Results of the Research

The research results of the regional centre in Croatia are presented in Table 1. The research results of sister company in Serbia are presented in Table 2, and the research results of sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina are presented in Table 3. Graph 1 shows vertical upward and downward communication comparison of the Group.

Table 1. Horizontal communication and vertical upward and downward communication questionnaire results of regional centre in Croatia¹

WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	GAS RETAIL AND WHOLESALE	SALES	FINANCE	POWER TRADING	ACCOUNTING
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:							
POWER RETAIL	80%	60%	50%	67%	100%	/	/
WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	POWER RETAIL	SALES	FINANCE	POWER TRADING	ACCOUNTING
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:							
GAS RETAIL AND WHOLESALE	70%	40%	40%	33%	100%	50%	100%
WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	POWER RETAIL	GAS RETAIL AND WHOLESALE	FINANCE	POWER TRADING	ACCOUNTING
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:							
SALES	100%	40%	20%	/	100%	50%	100%
WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	POWER RETAIL	GAS RETAIL AND WHOLESALE	SALES	POWER TRADING	ACCOUNTING
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:							
FINANCE	100%	60%	20%	25%	60%	50%	100%
WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	POWER RETAIL	GAS RETAIL AND WHOLESALE	SALES	POWER TRADING	FINANCE
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:							
ACCOUNTING	100%	40%	20%	25%	33%	50%	100%

¹ Remark: Head of Power trading department did not deliver answers to the survey.

By observing vertical downward communications, respectively the communications that “move from one particular level toward one lower” (Vrdoljak-Raguž, 17 November 2015), that is, in the Group’s case, from one director in the management board towards heads of departments, it is concluded that the above mentioned communications is on a very high level in regional centre in Croatia. Heads of the departments are aware of 90% of assignments that are assigned to them by the management board. Vrdoljak Raguž asserts that a 44% loss of information is achieved in an information transfer procedure from a higher level in an organisation towards a lower level in an organization (Vrdoljak-Raguž, 17 November 2015). Hence, it is concluded that the Group, in the above mentioned segment of communications, achieves a remarkable result because only 10% of the information is being lost in the communication transfer procedure from the management board towards heads of departments.

By observing vertical upward communications, respectively communications that “move towards higher organisational levels” (Vrdoljak-Raguž, 17 November 2015), that is, in the Group’s case, from one head of department towards one director in the management board, it is concluded that the aforementioned type of communication is on the middle level in the regional centre in Croatia. Heads of departments are 48% aware of assignments assigned to them by the management board.

By observing horizontal communications, respectively communications “between members of the same organisational level” (Vrdoljak-Raguž, 17 November 2015), that is communications between heads of departments, it is concluded that the best horizontal communication is present in heads of Finance and Accounting departments. Work scopes that all of the heads of departments that were included in the research have adduced for Finance and Accounting department overlap in the amount of 100% with the work scopes listed in the Policies of inter group rules 2016 document. Finance and Accounting are followed by the Sales department. Horizontal communication between the head of Sales and other heads of departments is 48%. The lowest level of horizontal communication is with the heads of Power retail and Gas retail and wholesale departments. Work scopes heads of departments listed for Power retail and Gas retail and wholesale departments overlap with the work scopes listed in the Policies of inter group 2016 document in the amount of 25% and 33%, respectively.

Based on the results presented in Table 1 it is concluded that the best business awareness of regional centre in Croatia is possessed by the head of Gas retail and wholesale department. Descriptions of work scopes of heads of departments, as well as of work scopes of directors in the management board, overlap in the amount of 67% with the work scopes that head of Gas retail and wholesale has listed in its description. Head of Gas retail and wholesale is followed by heads of Sales and Finance, whose work scopes description overlaps in the amount of 59%. Power retail and Accounting achieved the lowest results. Their results are 51% and 52%, respectively.

Heads of departments possess 56% information of business activities of regional centre in Zagreb.

Table 2. Horizontal communication and vertical upward and downward communication questionnaire results of sister company in Serbia

WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	GAS RETAIL
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:			
POWER RETAIL	80%	33%	80%
WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	POWER RETAIL
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:			
GAS SUPPLY	80%	25%	70%

By observing the vertical downward communications in sister company in Serbia, it is concluded that the aforementioned communications are on a high level. Heads of departments are aware of business assignments assigned by the management board in the amount of 80%.

By observing vertical upward communication, it is concluded that the aforementioned communications are on a low level in sister company in Serbia. Heads of departments are aware of business assignments of the management board in the amount of 29%.

By observing horizontal communications, it is concluded that the aforementioned communications are on a high level in sister company in Serbia. The head of the Power department is aware of business activities of the Gas retail department in the amount of 80%, while the head of the Gas retail department is aware of the business activities of the Power

retail department in the amount of 70%. One of the causes of such a high score is spatial differentiation; heads of both departments share a same room. The other cause is in fact that business activities of sister company in Serbia has started recently, and current business volume allows heads of the departments for a better awareness of each other's work scopes.

Table 3. Horizontal communication and vertical upward and downward communication questionnaire results of sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina²

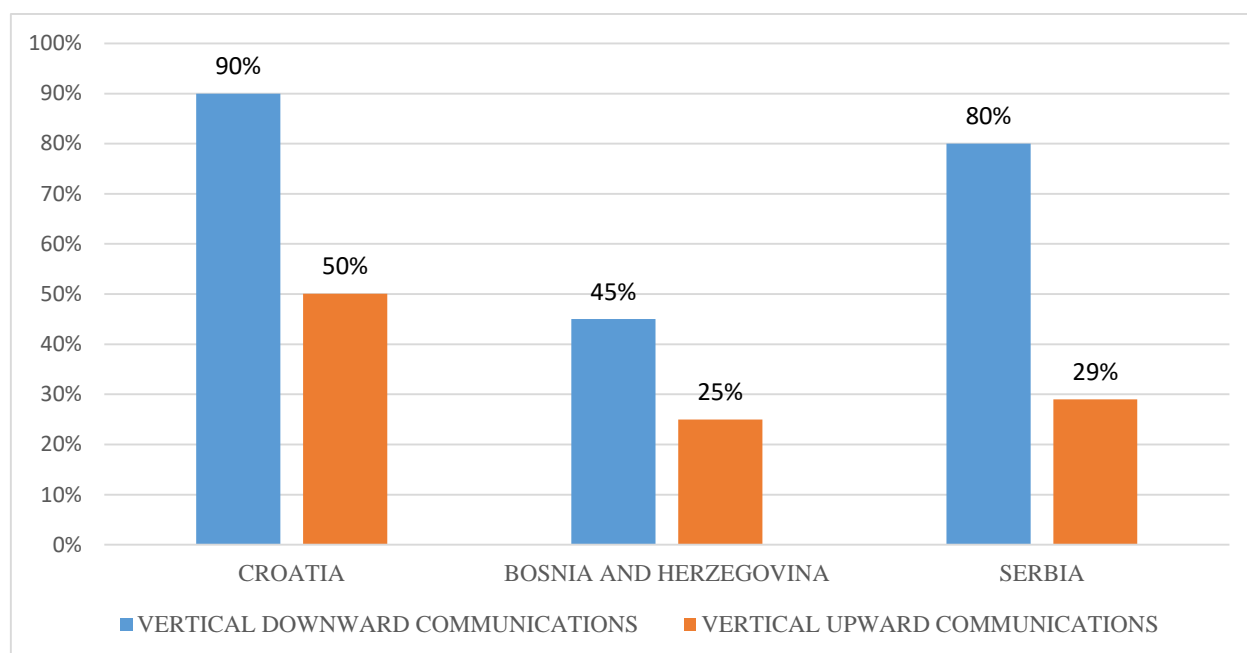
WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	POWER RETAIL in Mostar
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:			
POWER RETAIL in Sarajevo	/*	/*	/*
WORK SCOPES:	OWN	SUPERIOR	POWER RETAIL in Sarajevo
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:			
POWER RETAIL in Mostar	45%	25%	45%

By observing the vertical downward communications in sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina, it is concluded that the aforementioned communications are on a low level. The Group's vertical downward communications are the lowest in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The head of the Power retail department in Mostar is aware of business assignments assigned by the management board in the amount of 45%.

By observing vertical upward communication, it is concluded that the aforementioned communications are on a low level in the sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The head of department is aware of the business activities of the management board in the amount of 25%.

By observing horizontal communications in the sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina, it is concluded that the aforementioned communication is also on a low level. The head of Power retail in Mostar is aware of business activities of the Power retail department in Sarajevo in the amount of 45%. The head of the Power retail department in Sarajevo has not delivered answers to the survey.

² Head of Power retail department in Sarajevo did not deliver answers to the survey.



Graph 1. Comparison of vertical downward and upward communication in the Group

By comparing results of the research, it can be concluded that the highest level of vertical communications are present in the regional centre in Croatia, and the lowest level of vertical communications are present in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Such fantastic results of vertical communications in the regional centre in Croatia are the outcome of a low level of spatial differentiation. The location of the management board is at the same address. Hence, heads of departments and directors in the management board communicate more often than their colleagues in sister companies in Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The excellent results in vertical upward communications, considering the high level of spatial differentiation, is present in the sister company in Serbia. The aforementioned indicates the high involvement of the management board in business activities in Serbia. The highest loss of information in vertical communications is present between the management board and the sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Spatial differentiation between the management board and the sister company in Serbia, as well as the one between the departments in Mostar and Sarajevo, is certainly a variable that affects the results. Besides spatial differentiation, it must be stressed that the other variable of low vertical communications results lies in the fact that heads of departments in Bosnia and Herzegovina have secondary school backgrounds.

5. Conclusion

Although the Group is characterised by a high level of vertical differentiation, which is typical for mechanical structures, the Group possesses an organic structure. The organic structure of the Group is confirmed by: low level of vertical differentiation, low level of formalization, decentralization, high level in the decision-generating process and presence of innovation strategy and non-routine technologies. The disturbed reactive surroundings in which the Group operates make the Group more flexible and more adjustable to the business energy environment. The comprehensive communication network, one of the elements of an organic structure, is present in the Group.

Horizontal communications in the regional centre in Croatia are at the highest level with the heads of Finance and Accounting departments. This result is expected, while in the aforementioned departments, routine technologies are mostly present. Routine technologies are an exception in the Group's business activities, while, as stated above, non-routine technologies are mostly present in the Group. A fantastic result in horizontal communications has been achieved by sister company in Serbia. One of causes of such a high score is in spatial differentiation, since the heads of both departments share the same room. The other cause is in fact that business activities of sister company in Serbia have just started recently, and the current business volume allows the heads of the departments a better awareness of each other's work scopes.

The best result in business cross-cultural downward communication has been achieved by the regional centre in Croatia, where the loss of information from the management board towards heads of the departments amounts to 10%. It is noticeably less than the average 44% loss of information mentioned by Vrdoljak Raguž. This remarkable result of the low information loss in vertical downward communications is the outcome of high involvement of the management board in the Group's business activities, and is certainly one of the initiators of the rapid growth. Such fantastic results of vertical communication in regional centre in Croatia are the outcomes of a low level of spatial differentiation. The location of the management board is at the same address. Hence, heads of departments and directors in the management board more often communicate than their colleagues in sister companies in Serbia and Bosnia and

Herzegovina. Communication between the management board and the sister company in Serbia has also been on a high level. In the communication channel only 20% of information are being lost.

The lowest level of cross-cultural vertical upward and downward communications are the ones between the management board and sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina. However, it must be stressed that business results in Sarajevo and Mostar have marked growth. In the period between 2014 and 2016, revenues have grown by 77%. The negative impact on vertical communications between the management board and departments in Bosnia and Herzegovina, as well as the negative impact on horizontal communications, the one between departments in Sarajevo and Mostar, lies in spatial differentiation. The departments are situated in different cities. Recently, the centre of the sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina has been moved from Mostar to Sarajevo. Another negative impact on communications certainly lies in education structure. Both heads of departments have a secondary education background. The example of the sister company in Bosnia and Herzegovina points to the fact that one of the variables that is the cause of a low communication network level is a difference in cultures. Will the management board strive to adjust the organisational culture to the cultural surroundings of Bosnia and Herzegovina, or will the management board strive to steer its efforts to encourage employees to adjust to the organisational culture of the Group, depends on the business surrounding of the Group.

Since the Group business activities have been characterised by rapid growth and the fact that the Group operates in disrupted reactive surroundings, as well as in compliance with *Harvard Business Review*'s recommendation policies, that do not treat a culture as a culprit or cause, but rather as an outcome (Lorsch, MxTague, 2016), it can be expected that the management board will direct its focus toward the development of new business processes and structures, and leave culture space to develop at higher levels.

The presented company has been chosen due to: 1) a high rapid growth that it experienced; 2) energy market where the company operates; and 3) beginning of the liberalisation process of the market. It is important to note that during the researched period macroeconomic outlook of Croatia was not too positive. In 2015 and 2016 Croatian economy was marked by deflation.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF EUROPEAN LOBBYING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF CROATIAN MEMBERS OF EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Goran Bračić, Expert Professional of PR

Fervens d.o.o., Croatia

goran@fervens.hr

Kristijan Sedak, Ph.D. Candidate

Catholic University of Croatia, Zagreb, Croatia

kristijan.sedak@gmail.com

Igor Vidačak, Ph.D.

Faculty of Political Sciences, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

ividacak@yahoo.com

Summary

The accession of Croatia to the European Union has opened up a completely new environment for lobbying for a large number of interested stakeholders from civil society and the business sector, requiring proactive action in a multi-level, dynamic process of creating European public policies. Due to its indispensable role in the legislative process at the EU level, the European Parliament has been continuously exposed to high interest and pressure of lobbyists from almost all spheres of socio-economic life of the Member States of the EU and beyond. In view of insufficient representation of this topic in the academic literature in Croatia, this paper aims to provide insight into the most commonly used methods of lobbying in the European Parliament and the perception of the effectiveness of these methods from the perspective of Croatian Members of European Parliament (MEPs). The research conducted for the purpose of this paper has shown that the effectiveness of lobbying methods depends on many factors, but primarily on the type of interests represented and the personal skills of

lobbyists. Croatian lobbyists compared to other European lobbyists are generally considered to be less proactive. From the response of interviewed MEPs, it can be concluded that the contribution of lobbyists is significant in terms of providing timely information on the situation on the ground and the possible impact of new legislation on individual sectors, which contributes to improving the quality of European policies.

Keywords: lobbying, European Parliament, Croatia, MEPs, interest groups

1. Introduction

In modern democracies, lobbying is considered a legitimate advocacy of interests and an attempt to influence the policy-making procedures. It is generally considered that lobbying helps to raise awareness of decision-makers, which ultimately leads to better and more practicable decisions and regulations and more effective public policies. For different interest groups, lobbying is a very important tool in achieving their interests, and there is often not enough clarity in the public between what is allowed and what is not allowed, legal and illegal. With the accession of Croatia to the European Union, a whole new lobbying environment opened up for a large number of stakeholders from the civil society and the business sector, which requires a proactive action in a multilevel, dynamic process of shaping the European public policies.

There are two main channels of influence on decision making processes at the EU level – national and European, both of which involve interaction with a multitude of institutional and political actors. Lobbying of interest groups through national channels of influence depends on the importance of the role of the member state's institutions in the decision-making process in the EU. Although it is usually difficult to track the influence of organized interests, preferences of strong interest groups are often reflected in the formal positions of representatives of government bodies in the EU policy making arenas. With the deepening of the process of European integration, the decision-making and interest advocacy processes are becoming much more complex, which requires the interest groups to have a multi-dimensional strategy of simultaneous action at several political levels, or through several channels of influence.

As the only institution whose members are directly chosen by EU citizens, the European Parliament is considered to represent the voice of the people and to advocate their interests. Without the consent of the European Parliament, no European regulation concerning the internal market, agriculture, transport, consumer protection, energy, environmental protection, civil rights and a number of other areas where the co-decision procedure is established can be accepted. Due to the highly important role of the European Parliament, there are an increasing number of accredited lobbyists who seek to establish communication with Parliament members.

In view of Croatia's recent entry into the EU, there is still a general lack of research of Croatian MEPs' views on the EU policy making environment and dynamics of interactions of the European Parliament and different interest groups. Our initial assumption is that, in line with the results of the earlier work in this field, lobbyists use effective methods and channels of influence on European parliamentarians, which contributes to the better formulation of European public policies. The purpose of the article is to enable better understanding of relations between lobbyists and Croatian MEPs and to present their perspective on the effectiveness of lobbying efforts in the European Parliament. Consequently, in this article we will seek to address the following questions: What are the main channels of influence on the members of the European Parliament? What are the most commonly used and most effective methods of lobbying in the European Parliament? To what extent do lobbyists contribute to better quality of European policy making? In which sectors are the lobbying activities most effective? What are the greatest benefits of lobbying for the work of members of the European Parliament?

Given the nature of the research problem, the purpose of the research, and the limitations related to the size and the homogeneity of the sample (11 Croatian MEPs), we decided on a qualitative research and the method of semi-structured interviews, which gave us more flexibility in collecting the data that is delicate by its nature, and the research itself involved actors who can be reserved when it comes to revealing relations with lobbyists.

Although the question of influence of interest groups and effectiveness of lobbying is essential for better understanding of policy making processes, the conceptualization and measurement of influence has been one of the most serious challenges to empirical studies of interest groups. For the purpose of this paper, measuring the lobbying effectiveness or

influence in European Parliament means the degree to which lobbyists are successful in achieving the control over policy outputs, such as legislative initiatives, amendments or parliamentary debates. Due to its relative simplicity and ability of covering various channels of influence, we rely on the “attributed influence” method, despite a number of limitations related to the empirical study of the perception of influence of lobbyists, such as possible bias of respondents and tendency to exaggerate or minimize influence of lobbyists from different sectors (Dür, 2008).

Since there have been no similar studies in Croatia, we hope that, despite the mentioned limitations, this qualitative pilot research will provide a useful basis for possible wider surveys among a larger circle of interest groups from Croatia, which communicate with the European Parliament.

2. Interest Groups and Channels of Lobbying Influence on the European Parliament

The number of lobbyists and lobby offices in Brussels started to grow exponentially in the late eighties and early nineties of the last century with the adoptions of the Single European Act and Maastricht Treaty, which represented the beginning of stronger political and economic integration of Europe. The establishment of a single European market in 1987 marked the beginning of the weakening of diplomatic lobbying at the EU level, which was dominant until then, and the gradual development of strategic lobbying and the development of new advanced lobbying techniques (Guéguen, 2007). Parallel to that, there was an increasing worry in the public due to a growing perception of susceptibility of European public policies to an increasing influence of special interest groups. The European Parliament was the first to react by introducing a mandatory Lobbyist Registry in 1996, which included a low degree of regulation, with just the name of the company and the name of the lobbyist, without the additional information on clients and financial indicators. In 2005, the Commissioner Siim Kallas presented European Transparency Initiative (ETI), which was followed by the introduction of voluntary lobbyists register in 2008, the so-called Registry of Interest Representatives. Following much criticism from non-governmental sector and the

public, the Register of European Parliament and Commission combined to Transparency Register in 2011, while the EU Council continues to refuse to participate in this process¹.

European Parliament is usually considered to be the second most important lobbying address within the institutional framework of the EU, which meant that parallel with the increase in the authority of the Parliament, there was an increase of the circle of lobbyists who tried to achieve their influence through this institution. This interaction usually takes place during informal conversations, where members of the Parliament or staff employed in the services meet with the representatives of interests, who have access to the buildings of the European Parliament thanks to their accreditations. In these interactions, those lobbyists who have been interacting with the European Commission since the beginning of the legislative path of a legal act are always in a privileged position. Since they are often called upon as experts or the representatives of a sector to express their opinion in the European Commission in the process of drafting a law, they are also desirable interlocutors in the European Parliament (EP), where they can better assess the political climate for adopting new legislation (Krsmanović, 2013, 32-33).

The research by Earnshaw and Judge (2004) demonstrates that lobbying in the European Parliament is very uncertain and depends on a number of factors, and that the outcome of lobbying greatly depends on the dynamics of inter-institution interactions, national interests, public policies, types of legislations, as well as the style of lobbying, strength of the coalitions which form around specific legislative proposals and the resources used by the lobbyists themselves (Earnshaw, Judge, 2004).

The research on corporate lobbying in the European Parliament shows that national business/trade associations have almost the same degree of access to the Parliament as the European associations (Bouwen, 2003, 11). Furthermore, Bouwen (2003) points out that the degree of collective access through European and national associations is much greater than the individual access of corporations and consultants. This shows that the European parliamentarians are more inclined to communicate with lobbyists who are members of associations than with individual corporations and consultants. In addition, Bouwen's theory of access goods describes exchange (supply and demand) model between interest groups and

¹ More information on goals, content, and mode of functioning of the Transparency Register is available at: https://ec.europa.eu/info/about-european-union/principles-and-values/transparency/transparency-register_hr

EU institutions implying that interest representation groups can only gain access under the condition that the EU institutions have a demand for access goods, which consist of expert knowledge, information about European encompassing interest and domestic encompassing interest (Bouwen, 2002, 369).

Among the main channels of influence on the European Parliament are permanent parliamentary committees, which are the first to consider the legislative proposal of the Commission, i.e. all the initiatives of the Parliament itself. Along with the president of the committee and the secretary office of the committee, which is in constant communication with various interest groups, the most relevant person for the lobbyists is the rapporteur, who is preparing the draft of the report on the proposed initiative of the Commission. Marshall points out that in the EP committees informal rules supersede formal procedures to favour the influence of policy-oriented MEPs (Marshall, 2010, 557).

In addition, political groups are another important subject of parliamentary lobbying, especially since the vote on a certain question usually depends on the prior agreement of the political groups, but also because of the fact that political groups have an important role in the functioning of the Parliament, since the composition of every committee and body, as well as the president of the Parliament himself, depend on the strength and number of political groups. However, previous research (De Fouloy, 2001) shows that parliamentary lobbying is much more focused on the staff close to the rapporteur and committee secretariat, than to the secretariat of a political group. In the analysis of his approach to effective lobbying in the EU, known as “triple P”, Van Schendelen puts an emphasis on positional and personal aspects of lobbying, pointing to the choice of rapporteurs in parliamentary committees as one of the important steps in lobbying efforts of interest groups (Van Schendelen, 2010).

EP inter-groups, composed of MEPs concerned about particular issue from at least three different European party groups, are considered by Van Schendelen as perfect access points for lobbyists – first, because their meetings are open, and second, because the goals of their meetings is to create European-minded legislation which often results in pushing for common resolutions on plenary sessions or exerting pressure on the European Commission to draft legislation on particular issue (Van Schendelen, 2010, 87).

In a research published in 2015, Transparency International introduced a new tool for control of lobbying in Brussels, which is claimed to show that the meetings between lobbyists and policy-makers of the EU are dominated by corporate interests².

This tool combines the information on meetings with lobbyists provided by the European Commission and the data from the EU Lobbyist Registry in one place. The results of the research indicate that there are a large number of lobbyists who are still not registered in the European Parliament Registry, even though they have registered offices in Brussels. Those include 14-20 of the world's largest law firms. Likewise, it is interesting that 11 out of 14 of these law firms are registered in Washington DC, where registration is legally required. As for the Croatian lobbying actors in the European Parliament, there are a total of 54 organizations registered in the Registry, with non-government organizations dominating, followed by corporations, consultants and think tanks and national structures.

With the expansion of the EU to 28 members, lobbying in the European Parliament has become extremely demanding. After the public scandal known as "cash for amendments"³, which brought into light the insufficient transparency of relations between the interest groups and Members of the European Parliament, the MEPs' code of conduct got much stricter, especially regarding their communications with representatives of the interest groups.

3. Challenges of Measuring the Influence of Lobbyists in the European Parliament

The analysis of the parameters of the interest groups' influence in the EU shows that the stronger and more effective interest groups share one of the following features: economic and political importance, large membership, adequate human and material resources, internal cohesion and organization, expertise and awareness etc. It is undisputed that decision-makers in the EU must take into account the views of economically important interest groups,

² All information is published on www.integritiwatch.eu, which can be used to monitor integrity of members of the European Parliament. For more information, see Transparency International (2015), Lobbying in Europe: hidden influence, privileged access, http://www.transparency.org/whatwedo/publication/lobbying_in_europe.

³ More information on the "cash for amendments" case, which resulted in criminal proceedings against several members of the European Parliament, is available at: <https://corporateeurope.org/2011/03/cash-amendments-scandal-tip-iceberg>.

primarily because their co-operation is often necessary for the implementation of particular policies, for example for encouraging investment across the EU or employment growth in less developed regions. In that context, it is almost unnecessary to point out that the impact of interest groups on the decision-making process in the EU directly depends on the strength of the sector in which they operate (Sidjanski, 1995; Vidačak, 2007). Strong material and human resources are undoubtedly an important factor, which was confirmed by some of the earlier studies of cases of European trade associations' lobbying (Kohler-Koch, Quittkat, 1999). Findings from those studies point to the direct link between the material, financial strength of the interest groups on the one hand and the frequency of their contacts and the level of interaction with the EU institutions on the other. In addition, trade organizations with high budgets can hire more staff and improve their lobbying strategies. Given the increased significance of high information and communication technologies, a specific knowledge, expertise and information are becoming an important factor of influence (Van Schendelen, 2003).

The issue of measuring the influence of interest groups on the EU institutions is greatly important for better understanding of the EU policy making processes, but also in the context of discussions on the democratic legitimacy of the EU. Among a relatively small number of researches on the issue, the study by Dür is especially relevant. It differentiates between the three general approaches to measuring the interest groups: the monitoring of key steps in the lobbying process (*process-tracing*), "attributed influence" assessment and gauging the degree of preference attainment, warning that due to the weaknesses of each of the methodological approaches, the only way to further knowledge in this area is to combine them (Dür, 2008).

Measuring the influence of lobbying through tracking various stages in the EU policy making process is additionally complicated due to the existence of a large number of possible channels of influence, the involvement of lobbyists in different stages of decision making, as well as parallel lobbying from opposite sides.

In relation to the "attributed influence" method, which is based on the respondents' perception of the influence of particular interest groups, and which is especially relevant in the context of this paper, it should be noted that one of its major advantages is its relative simplicity, as well as its ability to encompass all the channels of influence. On the other hand, the disadvantages of this method lie in the possible bias in assessment, where there is often a tendency to

minimize or exaggerate the influence of particular groups, but also in the difficulty in formulating a response due to the lack of information and analytical capacities. A number of authors points out that maybe the greatest weakness of this method of measuring the influence is that it measures the perception of influence, and not the influence itself (Polsby, 1960 as cited in Dür, 2008). In addition, the surveys and interviews conducted in this method generally do not reveal substantive information about the content or type of influence of interest groups, that is, what they have changed in the real world. Additionally, with questions about the general influence of specific categories of interest groups, it was often required from the subjects to evaluate the average influence in specific sectors (or to rank it numerically on a predetermined scale), where the memory of the subject, researcher's bias and the subjects' tendency to avoid extreme grades, while neglecting potential specific differences from one sector to the other or categories of interest groups working within those sectors, all play significant role. Among the recent studies on civil servants and officials of the EU institutions perceptions of lobbyists, the research conducted by one of the largest lobbying agencies in Brussels, Burson-Marsteller, should be mentioned. It brought to light a number of interesting findings on transparency and effectiveness of lobbying, but it also confirmed the prevailing attitude of the EU institutions that lobbying is a useful and necessary part of open and democratic process (Burson-Marsteller, 2013).

4. Results of Research on the Views of Croatian MEPs on the Effectiveness of Lobbying in the European Parliament

In the research on the views of Croatian MPs, the focus was on six topics: (1) the effectiveness of individual categories of lobbyists; (2) the effectiveness of lobbyists in individual sectors; (3) the main channels of lobbying influence; (4) lobbying methods; (5) differences between European and Croatian lobbyists; and (6) the contribution of lobbyists in shaping the European public policies. Out of eleven MPs, ten agreed to participate in the study. Since the survey was anonymous, the MPs were marked with numbers from 1 to 10 in the result analysis. When analysing the collected data, we used qualitative content analysis, where the interview was the unit of analysis. Besides deepening our understanding of the subject, the qualitative analysis can also indicate and refer to that which is hidden by subjective experiences and inaccessible by other means (Milas, 2005). For the purpose of organizing the collected data, we used the coding procedure that entailed three different

procedures, which were preceded by familiarization with the data and transcript creation: a) attribution of codes (importance) to empirical material; b) associating related codes into categories; and c) terms and categories meaning analysis. When organizing the collected data according to the above procedure, every interviewed MEP was associated with the number representing him/her, and which will be marked in the brackets when showing the obtained results. During the qualitative data analysis, quantitative indicators were also observed, so they were collected and presented. When it was concluded that the data was fully used, its interpretation followed.

4.1. The Perception of Croatian MEPs on the Effectiveness of Lobbying by Interest Groups in the European Parliament

The analysis of the responses given by Croatian MEPs shows that the effectiveness of lobbying in the EU parliament greatly depends on two factors: the type of interests represented by lobbyists and the skills of the lobbyists themselves.

Three MEPs (1, 6, 8) say that the lobbyists will be successful in their endeavours if the ideas and interests they represent are the same as the interests and the work of the members of parliament themselves. MEPs are elected on the basis of their programs which are usually based on working for the benefit of certain interest groups, economic activities etc. This is why they often take the time to talk to lobbyists which might help the member fulfil the goals which they promised their voters. Lobbyists whose interests do not match the MEP's most likely won't even get a chance to talk to the member or be effective in their actions. This finding corresponds with results of an earlier research conducted by Michalowitz who point out that "lobbying actors are only likely to score if they are in line with politicians and institutions driving the issue" (Michalowitz, 2004, 270).

The next three MEPs (5, 6, 7), stressed the importance of the lobbyists' skills when it comes to their effectiveness. They say that lobbyists who can present their arguments well are more successful. The arguments have to be well-thought out and convincing enough to help change a law, part of a law or achieve another similar goal. They also mention the lobbyists' ability to express themselves, the way they formulate their requests, even the way they compose their speech in terms of using punctuation.

The responses of the MEPs show that the effectiveness of lobbying is also greatly influenced by the topic of the lobbying (2, 7). A lobbyist has a greater chance of succeeding if the topic he is representing is currently being discussed in the Parliament and if it is a popular topic among EU Parliament members and matches their preferences. This finding confirms arguments of some authors emphasizing that interest representatives are most successful when they know the policy preferences of members of various EP committees (Marshall, 2010, 557).

Some other factors for which members said influence how successful the lobbyists will be are the lobbyists' good organization skills, their involvement in the process, how informed they are on the topic they are advocating and the value systems they represent.

With the topic of the factors which influence the effectiveness of the lobbying by interest groups explained, we reach the second category which appeared in the answers of the members and it is the legal framework which plays a significant role in the act of lobbying. MEP 4 says that a grey zone exists in which it's hard to tell whether an action is transferring interest or manipulation. New regulations are constantly being worked on with the goal of making the lobbying process more transparent and controlled in order to avoid this grey zone.

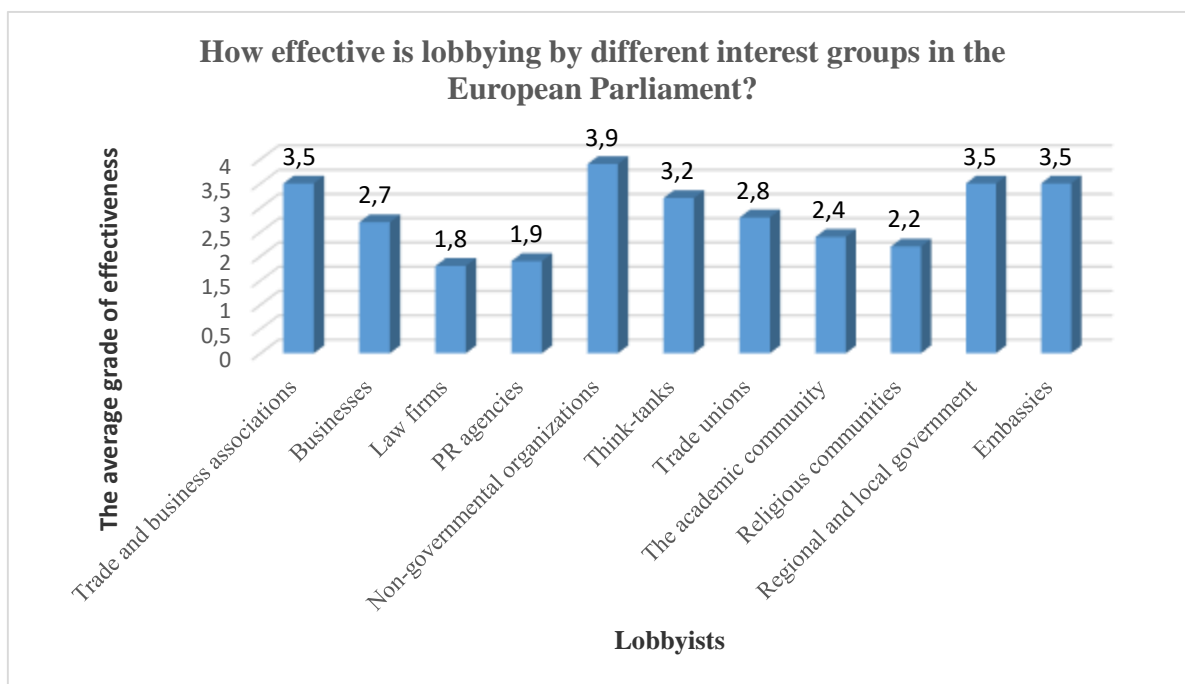
MEPs 1, 9 and 10 only expressed their own judgement of the effectiveness of lobbying, which gave us three different opinions – not very effective, relatively effective and very effective. Although all members were told to base their responses on their own experiences, the answers seem to be a result of the personality of the member. The member who said that lobbying in the EU Parliament was “not very effective” explained it by saying that he makes decisions based on his own experience and does not take the lobbyists and their actions into consideration. He listens to them, but their arguments are not what determine his own actions and speeches. The member who said the lobbying was “very effective” didn't have much contact with the lobbyists, but speaks from their own experience and says that lobbyists are primarily focused on higher instances and only go to parliament members if they are unsuccessful there. The opinion of lobbying being “relatively effective” was also based on the general experience of the member and not on any personal contact with lobbyists.

After the presented analysis of the answers to the question of how effective lobbyists are, it can be concluded that, alongside a few key factors such as the types of interests represented and the skills of the lobbyists, there are many more factors which may determine how

successful a lobbyist will be in achieving their goals. A lobbyist has to be very informed on the topic they are advocating and prepare it well, but it is also very important that they are familiar with the programs and activities of all members of the Parliament in order to approach the right MEP who will take interest in hearing what the lobbyist is saying and take their arguments into consideration when it comes to discussions in the Parliament.

The legal framework also plays a major role. It is becoming more concrete and it aims to lessen the chances of lobbying in so called grey zones which may lead to manipulation. The analysed responses show that MEPs are sometimes not willing to even meet with or listen to the lobbyists at all. The reason for this reluctance is that “they would rather trust their own experience and judgement than possibly enter an unknown grey zone”. This can also be seen as a result of the recent EP lobbying scandals, rising awareness on the strict reporting and transparency rules (including list of MEPs meetings with lobbyists), but also feeling a certain responsibility towards their voters and safeguarding their reputation.

4.1.1. The Effectiveness of Lobbyists



Graph 1. The effectiveness of lobbyists

The members graded the effectiveness of the lobbyists stated in the graph above. The grades ranged from 1 to 5, 1 being “not effective” and 5 being “extremely effective”. The graph shows the average grade of effectiveness of each interest group. The highest grade, 3.9, went to non-governmental organizations. Three MEPs said that these lobbyists were extremely effective (the grade they gave these lobbyists was a 5). They are followed by trade and business associations, regional and local government and embassies, all of which have the average grade of 3.5. The least effective lobbyists according to this survey were law firms (1.8) and PR agencies (1.9). These findings are somewhat different from results of Burson-Marsteller research on effectiveness of lobbying which generally perceive trade associations as the most effective lobbyists (62% of MEPs, national MPs and senior officials from national government and EU institutions across Europe perceive them effective or very effective), followed by professional organisations on second (51%), and NGOs on third place (46%). The same research also places law firms as the least effective, while PR agencies are better placed than think-tanks and embassies (Burson-Marsteller, 2013, 71) which are perceived by Croatian MEPs as some of the most effective lobbying actors.

4.1.2. Most Effective Sectors for Lobbying

The purpose of the second question was to find out which sectors are perceived by MEPs as being the most frequently represented in the process of lobbying in the EU and producing the most active and effective lobbyists. Quite a variety of answers was gathered under this topic that will be summarized in the following paragraphs.

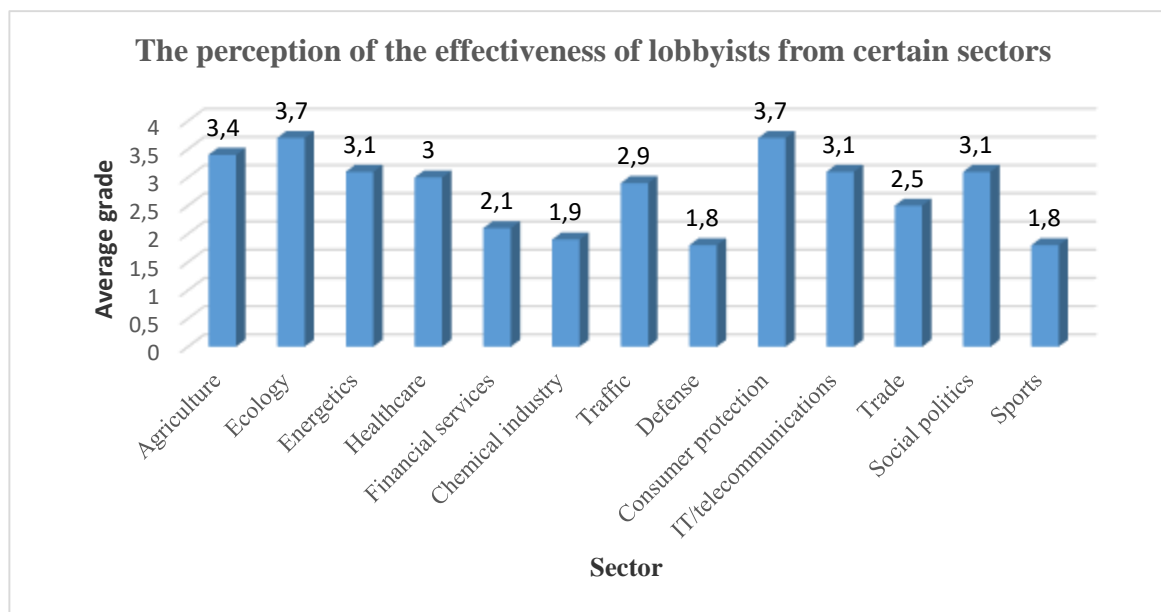
Out of the 10 sectors the MEPs mentioned, six of them were mentioned by two members, while the rest were mentioned by one member. MEPs 1 and 4 mentioned the tobacco industry as having extremely active lobbyists who have managed to affect some changes in regulations regarding producing, selling and using tobacco products, which were very strict at first. The same members also stated that the pharmaceutical industry had some very effective lobbyists who have proven to be very active and very capable in discussions. Furthermore, two votes went to the sector of agriculture and the sector of ecology and energetics each (members 3 and 7). The responses from these members show that they answered the question according to their own experience and specialization in those sectors and that they had no experience with lobbyists from other sectors so they could not rate their effectiveness. Two votes also went to

the sector of automotive industry (members 4 and 7) and the law firms (members 5 and 10). Other MEPs also mentioned the food industry sector, consumer protection, human rights and non-governmental organizations.

MEPs 2, 8 and 9 did not mention any specific sectors and say that there isn't a single sector which has the most effective lobbyists, but that their effectiveness depends on three factors: the sector specialization of the MEP and the topics they are interested in (2), the limited action of the EU (8) and the theme factor (whether the topic is being discussed in the Parliament or not (9)).

The analysis shows us that the most effective, or at least the most active, lobbyists come from those sectors which are financially the most powerful (the tobacco industry, the pharmaceutical industry, the automotive industry). This opens a number of dilemmas often highlighted by European civil society actors: to what extent the grey lobbying zone is being adequately controlled; would compulsory registration and stricter regulation make lobbying more transparent; and whether the amount of money in a certain sector will remain essential factor of the success of lobbyists' efforts.

4.1.3. The Effectiveness of Lobbyists from Certain Sectors



Graph 2. The effectiveness of lobbyists from certain sectors

The members rated the effectiveness of certain sectors in the process of lobbying with grades ranging from 1 to 5, 1 being “not effective” and 5 being “extremely effective”. The graph is a result of all the MEPs’ responses and it shows the average grade of effectiveness of each sector. The results differ slightly from the results shown in section 4.1.2, where MEPs gave their own answers while in this case they were given sectors to rate. MEPs said that the tobacco industry and the pharmaceutical industry were the most successful and the most active in the process of lobbying, but they also gave high grades to the sectors of ecology, energetics and agriculture. The highest average grade, 3.7, went to the sectors of ecology and consumer protection, followed by agriculture, which got the grade of 3.4. The lowest grade went to the sectors of defence and sports, which were both rated 1.8.

When comparing these findings with large Burson-Marsteller survey among MEPs, national MPs and representatives of national governments and EU institutions, the biggest difference lies in the perception of consumer protection lobbyists which were ranked as the least effective in Burson-Marsteller survey, while Croatian MEPs consider them as the most effective. This difference may be related to the predominant focus of several Croatian MEPs on consumer protection issues in previous years. On the other hand, environmental lobbyists are also perceived by Burson-Marsteller as the most effective NGO lobbying sector, along with energy and health care sector which are perceived to have most effective corporate and NGO lobbyists (Burson-Marsteller, 2013, 71).

4.1.4. The Main Channels of Influence on Members of the European Parliament

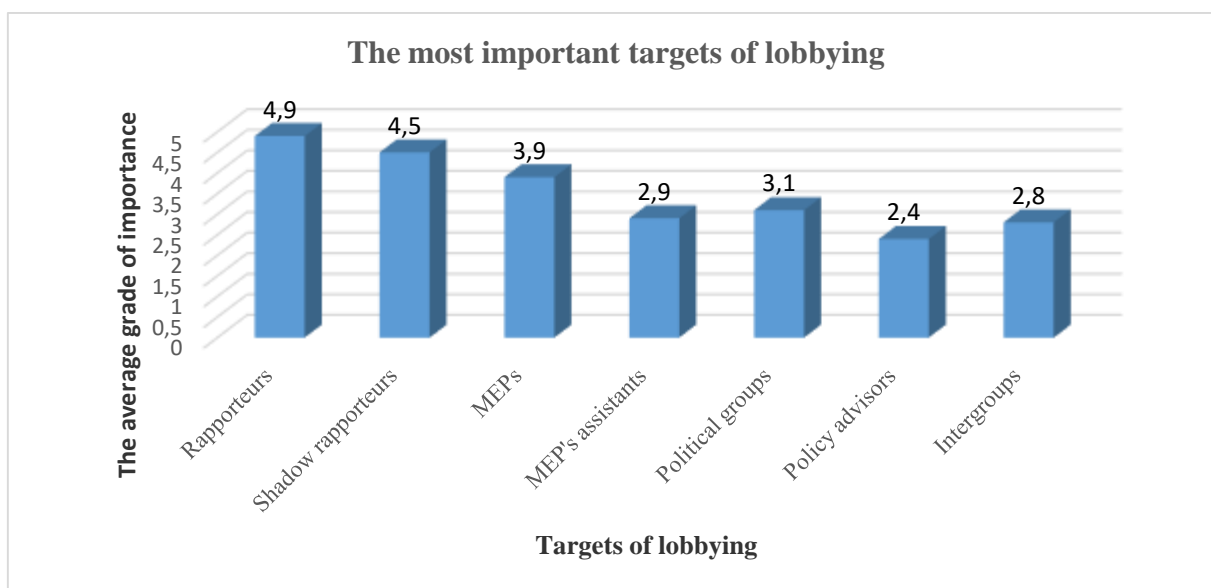
By analysing the answers to the question which channels lobbyists use, we can divide all of the members’ responses into two categories. These categories refer to two types of channels: indirect channels, which are more commonly used, and direct channels.

MEP 2 mentioned the following indirect channels: representatives of diplomatic missions, representatives of various State authorities and other organizations or associations from the country the MEP is coming from. MEP 5 makes a similar statement, saying that one of the most important targets of lobbying are the member state institutions themselves, which fall under the category of national, indirect channels used to achieve lobbyists’ goals and interests.

Other MEPs' answers are all very similar seeing as they mostly refer to direct lobbying techniques and channels of influence. Lobbyists, according to the responses received in the survey, mostly decide to get in touch with the MEPs themselves, or perhaps their assistants as well as rapporteurs and shadow rapporteurs.

MEP 2 stresses that assistants are the first “obstacle” in a lobbyist’s way to the member of Parliament. They also say that lobbyists, other than contacting the MEPs themselves, often contact their employees as well as their political groups. Four MEPs said that rapporteurs and shadow rapporteurs are the key components to the lobbyists’ plan to achieve their goals. Other targets of direct lobbying include presidents or coordinators of committees, the European Commission and different councils.

4.1.5. The Most Important Targets of Lobbying



Graph 3. The most important targets of lobbying

Out of the seven targets provided, the MEPs said that rapporteurs (4.9) and shadow rapporteurs (4.5) were the most important targets of lobbying. This is in line with many authors that stress the importance of early access to the process of drafting the rapporteur’s report that first defines EP’s negotiating position. Van Schendelen emphasizes that for lobbyists interested in particular dossier there are usually ten relevant MEPs and their

assistants, including the rapporteur, the MEP responsible for leading a dossier, the shadow rapporteur and appointed overseers from other political groups (Van Schendelen, 2010, 86). On the other hand, Marshall points out that influential MEPs committee members can often pose a significant counterweight to the acknowledged power of a rapporteur (Marshall 2010, 572).

By studying this graph, we can conclude that lobbyists mostly aim at higher and more powerful positions at the European Parliament first, as they seem to allow them to reach a larger number of MEPs. If they do not succeed, they go to the members of Parliament themselves, who are in third place with the average grade of 3.9. The least important target according to Croatian MEPs are policy advisors with the average grade of 2.4., as well as inter-groups (2.8). The perception of inter-groups as not effective may also be related to a rather short experience of Croatian MEPs and not enough opportunities for networking with members of other political groups within inter-groups.

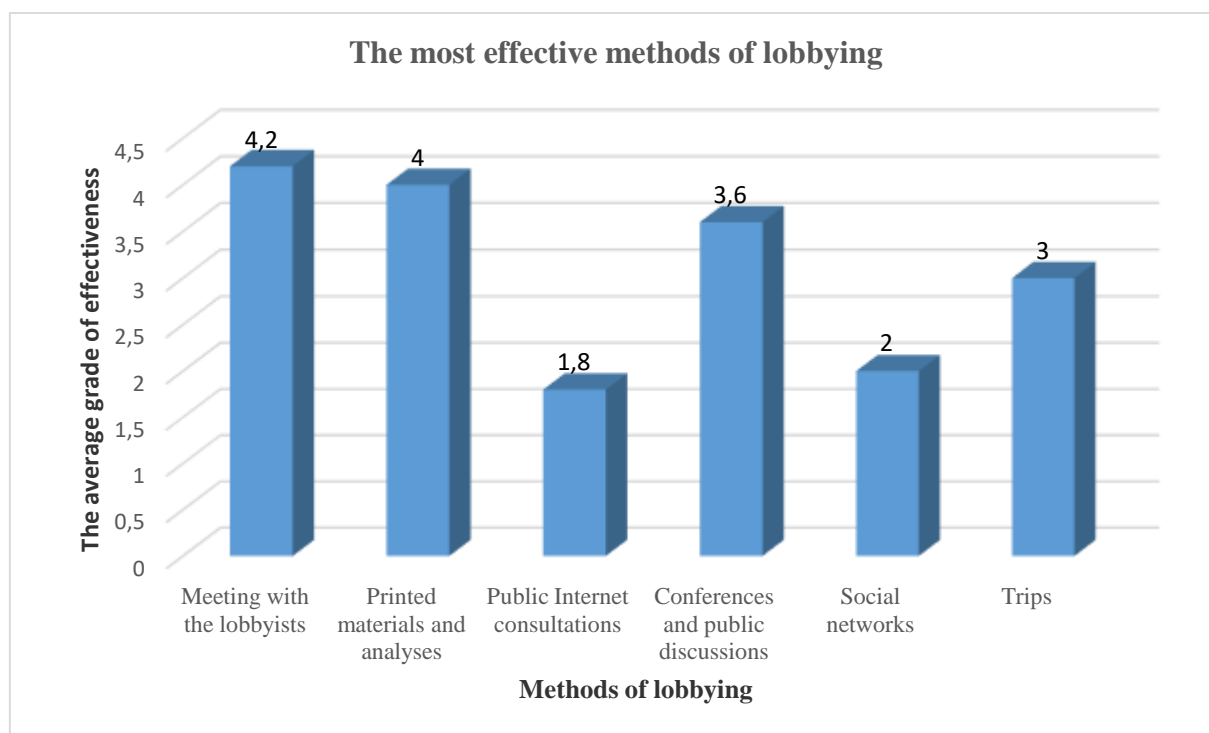
4.1.6. Methods of Lobbying in the European Parliament

The answers to the question of which methods are used by lobbyists are almost identical. This helps us determine the two main methods of lobbying – the method of personal approach and the method of informing.

The method of personal approach is the most common one and was named first by every MEP. This method primarily includes meeting with the MEPs, who the lobbyists reach by calling the MEP themselves or their assistant. MEP 4 explains that lobbyists who use this kind of approach are “very familiar with the work of MEPs and the topics they’re working on”, which helps them leave a good impression and shows that they want to talk to that specific member of Parliament. Some MEPs say that lobbyists sometimes walk up to them directly in the Parliament hallways to tell them what they’re advocating in order to affect the MEP’s final opinion during the vote. Meetings are usually held at the office of the MEP or, if the MEP agrees, the topics are discussed over lunch or dinner. Some members of Parliament say that they’ve had offers to go on trips, which they mostly rejected so that they would not enter the “grey zone”. MEP 8 agreed to the trip, but paid all the expenses himself in order to avoid any problems with the Ethics committee. The method of personal approach also includes taking part in conferences, public discussions and round table discussions.

The second method is the method of informing or providing information to policy makers. It is somewhat less effective, but present in lobbying nonetheless. This includes the lobbyists' communicating their message through email by sending the MEP different materials and analyses in order to influence their decisions, but also mailing flyers, publications and similar printed materials to their office. MEP 3 says that they witness the use of this method daily. Since MEPs mostly mentioned it as one of the methods without including any examples or explanations, it can be concluded that this method is mostly used by lobbyists as a way to inform MEPs and that they put more effort and hopes into personal contact with members of Parliament. This is because it is very possible that some materials will not even reach the MEP or that the MEP won't understand the message fully, so the method of personal approach is much more common and more effective.

4.1.7. The Most Effective Methods of Lobbying in the European Parliament



Graph 4. The most effective methods of lobbying in the European Parliament

This graph shows the methods of lobbying with the corresponding grades of effectiveness, as rated by the MEPs. The most effective method is the method of meeting the lobbyists in

person. Even MEPs said that this method is the most used because the lobbyist can be sure that they have gotten their message across to the MEP. This puts additional emphasis on individual qualities of lobbyists, especially their communication, networking and negotiation skills, as confirmed by a number of authors (Michalowitz, 2004; Van Schendelen, 2010).

The method of sending printed materials and analyses is the second most successful one, with the average grade of 4. This method helps the lobbyists cover more MEPs in a shorter period of time, but some MEPs do not have the time to read the materials or they simply do not want to. The method of conferences and public discussions also got a high grade (3.6), while the method of public Internet consultations got the lowest grade (1.8) and was determined to be least effective.

4.1.8. Differences in Lobbying between European and Croatian Lobbyists

The analysis of interviewees' responses to the question on differences between European and Croatian lobbyists leads to the conclusion about the non-existent legal framework for lobbying in Croatia, as the main source of differences. In addition to establishing the legal framework, all deputies consider it necessary to introduce the register of lobbyists, which would pave the way to increasing the transparency of the process and informing the public about who is advocating which interests and trying to influence the policy-making process. The next difference pointed out by MEP 9 refers to the institutionalization of lobbying at the EU level, which is still not the case in Croatia, and also points out that "... in Europe, lobbying is being studied at many academic institutions and represents a recognized form of political action. It is normal to meet lobbyist in Europe, while in Croatia is still perceived as activity close to some kind of corruption or bribe". Better regulation would contribute to professionalization of lobbying, according to all interviewed MEPs.

MEP 3 is of opinion that Croatian lobbyists are more open, but face challenges related to the lack of regulatory framework. Croatian MEP 5 considers the method of approaching the MEPs as the biggest difference. In his opinion, European lobbyists tend to use more institutional channels and former ambassadors with huge network of contacts in institutions and corporations, Croatian lobbyists rather use personal contacts to reach MEPs. Similar replies were given by MEPs 6 and 7 who emphasize that Croatian lobbyists generally do not rely on networks and associations which could add to the success of their efforts. Joining the Europe

an sectoral lobbying associations requires adhering to goals of European policies and demonstrating more advanced strategic approach to European policy processes, which is still not the case.

Some MEPs are of opinion that Croatian lobbyists rely predominantly on national channels of influence and focus primarily on domestic interests. This limited focus on specific national interests sometimes enables easier communication with MEPs that mostly prefer communicating with Croatian interest groups as a way of strengthening links with their constituencies.

Although MEPs are elected through national party lists and their constituencies do not hold them directly accountable, the willingness of majority of Croatian MEPs to communicate more readily with national interest groups is in line with results of Michalowitz' research stressing that there is a higher probability that MEPs will interact with lobbyists from their home countries and even be more willing to listen and accept their arguments (Michalowitz, 2004, 67). Besides, Hooghe also points out that sharing nationality and mutual culture is important basis for building informal networks in the EU institutions due to the ease of establishing a connection (Hooghe, 2001, 169).

Finally, Croatian MEPs generally expect more advanced interaction with lobbyists and receiving more frequent information on changes in sectors they operate and impact of legislative dynamics on their businesses or interests they represent. European lobbyists tend to share this sort of information more regularly and strategically than their Croatian counterparts.

In short, Croatian lobbyists would, without any doubt, benefit from clear legal framework for lobbying and register of lobbyists, more advanced lobbying education and training opportunities, as well as from adapting to European trends in advocating interests in policy making, including more proactive use of umbrella networks and associations as strategic channels of influence.

4.1.9. To What Extent Do Lobbyists Assist the European Parliament in Shaping Better European Public Policies?

One of the rare research studies on lobbying coverage in Croatian media show that activities of lobbyists at the EU level are generally covered in a positive or neutral way, which

demonstrate a certain awareness and recognition of potential contribution of lobbying as integral part of European policy making processes (Sinčić Ćorić, Vuković, 2011, 560).

The analysis of responses of Croatian MEPs highlights at least three main categories of lobbyists' positive contribution. The first category relates to the analytical aspect of lobbyists work. Since they are fully dedicated to their narrow area of interest and spend most of the time to the monitoring and analysing the situation and changes in the field, including the analysis of implementation and impact of existing legislation on their sectors, they are able to identify more easily certain legislative deficiencies. Detailed and timely analysis of legislative initiatives also enables more proactive and strategic approach of lobbyists to MEPs in order to have their interest clearly articulated in the European Parliament. The second category relates to the provision of information. Almost all interviewed MEPs point out that lobbyists save a lot of their time and resources by providing them with information that help them better prepare for various items on the Parliament agenda. MEP 6 states that due to the "substantial scope of work, I cannot always adequately prepare for every topic and therefore tailor-made briefings of lobbyists serve as useful assistance for confirming or reconsidering my own attitudes on the topic". Another MEP (7) points out that "lobbyists inputs are highly valued because some legislative acts would not be feasible in practice if they are shaped solely by MEPs who are not in direct touch with situation in the field and impact of practical implementation of legislation". These findings are in line with results of previous research studies (Bouwen, 2002; Eising, 2007) which describe information as the main "access good" for MEPs, considered as highly valuable for policy-making process. The third category directly follows up on the previous two and deals with assistance to MEPs in shaping decisions, based on analytical inputs and information provided by lobbyists. By taking part in various expert groups, committees and debates, but also through direct communication, lobbyists facilitate decision-making in the Parliament.

The perception of Croatian MEPs on main functions and contributions of lobbyists follow the similar logic presented in the study commissioned by the European Parliament in 2003, which stress four functions that lobbyists can perform in the EP. The first is service function which relates to interest group's engagement for specific, exclusive use of their services. Through lobbying functions, interest groups push their own stance to influence the EU policy making process. The decision-making functions allow interest representatives to take part in working

groups for selecting policy options and formulating new policy proposals. Finally, for implementation functions, interest groups take over management functions in programme implementation or contribute to implementing policies and provide feedback on how they fit their needs. While first two tasks are considered to serve primarily organisations' memberships or clients, the latter two are perceived as contributing "in some way or other – to public policy making and the governance of a specific policy sector" (European Parliament, 2003, 5).

Only MEP 10 provided a different, rather negative perspective on the contribution of lobbyists, by emphasizing that they primarily work in the interests of their companies or organisations they represent, and not in the interest of the European Union. This view may be related to increasing concerns raised by a number of civil society organisations on predominant influence of powerful corporate interests groups in the EU and calls for further improving the overall openness, transparency and inclusiveness of the EU policy processes.

5. Conclusion

The analysis of views of Croatian MEPs has confirmed the strong presence of lobbyists in the everyday activities of the European Parliament and provided some basic insights into the factors determining lobbyists' effectiveness. In general, there are two main factors that affect the success of lobbying in the European Parliament: the type of interests represented and personal skills and competences of lobbyists. In case the interests advocated by lobbyists match the preferences, interests and ideas of MEPs, there is high probability their proposals and arguments will fall on fertile ground. Otherwise, most probably lobbyists will not even receive an opportunity to present their views to the MEP. As regards lobbying skills, these are primarily related to the level of information, knowledge and expertise possessed by lobbyists, which increase the potential for achieving their goals. In this supply/demand process, MEPs obtain useful information and inputs that would otherwise take them much more time to gather by themselves, but are crucial for shaping their own opinions on the topics.

Regarding the sectors in which lobbyists are perceived as the most effective, it is no surprise that the traditionally strongest financial and economic power players are mentioned, such as tobacco, pharmaceutical and car industries. In this context, a clear and rigorous legal

framework for lobbying is pointed out by lobbyists as crucial for ensuring adequate balance among the most powerful corporate lobbying actors and other interest groups, including civil society organisations.

As for the channels of lobbying influence on MEPs are concerned, different direct and indirect channels of influence are pointed out, with indirect channels being more pronounced in the experience of Croatian MEPs.

The main lobbying targets are usually top officials, highly positioned in the decision-making hierarchy. In case the most frequent top-down political lobbying approach is not successful, technical lobbying focusing on lower, expert levels gains importance. MEPs-Rapporteurs tend to attract the biggest lobbying efforts, while EP inter-groups/clubs and policy advisors are at the very end of channels used by lobbyists in Parliament.

Personal contacts and regular provision of tailor-made information, policy analysis and other expert inputs are among the most commonly used methods of lobbying. Personal, direct, face-to-face communication with MEPs in presenting arguments is still predominant, while email or regular post are still used as a supplement or substitute if personal contact is not possible.

The main difference among European and Croatian lobbyists seems to be the lack of a proactive approach by Croatian lobbyists and failure to provide relevant information in time to be able to articulate their concerns early in the policy making process, when there is higher possibility for influence. In addition, Croatian lobbyists are reluctant to use larger European umbrella associations and networks for promoting their interests, and developing a multi-level strategic approach to influencing EU decision-making. In order to improve the professionalization of lobbying in Croatia, all interviewed MEPs agree that it is necessary to adopt the Law on lobbying and to introduce a more transparent framework for lobbying.

Finally, the analysis of views of Croatian MEPs has shown that they do perceive lobbyists as important actors that substantially assist the Parliament in its work and increase the quality of policies co-shaped by that EU institution. Their positive contribution is visible especially in the supply of detailed and relevant information on the current situation in the field in certain sectors, as well as the potential impact of implementation of the proposed legislation on the specific interests they represent. By ensuring an early warning of potential obstacles in

implementing new policies, lobbyists largely assist MEPs in formulating their own positions on items on the parliamentary agenda.

Our initial assumption that lobbyists use effective methods and channels of influencing the MEPs and contribute to the better formulation of European public policies has proved to be largely valid. In general, responses of Croatian MEPs show a predominantly positive and modern attitude on lobbying and added values that communication of EP and interest groups can potentially bring for the quality, legitimacy and acceptance of European public policies.

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THE IMPACT OF AN EFFICIENT ECONOMIC DIPLOMACY SYSTEM ON ECONOMIC GROWTH

Radmila Pavličić¹

City of Kutina, Kutina, Croatia

pavlicic@kutina.hr; rpavlicic@gmail.com

Gordan Ivan Šojat

Zagreb, Croatia

gordan.sojat@gmail.com

Tajana Ozimec

Zagreb, Croatia

tajana.ozimec@gmail.com

Summary

The importance and efficiency of economic diplomacy is unquestionable for the promotion of Croatia's economic interests in foreign markets. Various economic institutions and business associations, together with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic play an important role in the promotion of the Croatian economy. The paper looks into the characteristics and effects of their activities on economic growth in Croatia. The paper also describes the categories of diplomatic communications and the ways and purpose of information management. The existing model of economic diplomacy in Croatia requires constant analyses due to the constant changes in the global market to enable the economic system to maximize the benefits of an efficient economic diplomacy model. The economic diplomacy model will be compared with the examples from the Kingdom of Norway. The paper also points out the importance of innovation and rethinking of business diplomacy in order to develop business cooperation in foreign markets.

¹ The views expressed in the paper are personal and do not reflect the views of the institutions in which the authors are employed.

Keywords: globalization, models of economic diplomacy, promotion of tourism, decentralization, innovation, acceleration of economic growth

1. Introduction

The role of economic diplomacy in the Republic of Croatia and its impact on the promotion of Croatian economic interests in the conditions of globalization in international markets is of special significance for accelerating economic development. In Croatia, due to the extremely high public debt, low enterprise competitiveness, high unemployment and a number of structural imbalances, a proactive, focused and strategically determined model of economic diplomacy is of crucial importance. The paper deals with the current model of economic diplomacy and its results and effects on the Croatian economy and the operation of Croatian businesses.

The paper puts forward the following hypotheses:

- 1) Does economic diplomacy play a systematic leading role in diplomacy in conditions of recovery from the economic crisis on the global market?
- 2) Will the introduction of clear strategic determinants and innovations in economic diplomacy accelerate economic growth?
- 3) Can the strategic communication and use of the so-called food diplomacy positively affect the sale of Croatian food products during the tourist season in Croatia?

2. The Concept of Economic Diplomacy

With global overall trends in market globalization and connection of the states and galloping digitization and constant changes and crisis situations in domestic and foreign markets, priority and importance in international relations is increasingly given to the solving of economic issues across countries. According to Radolović (2016), nowadays, economic diplomacy covers a much wider spectrum of state regulations and procedures that have impact on international trade and include standards for health, safety, environment and consumer protection, and have, in particular, impact on services such as banking, telecommunications, competition policies, taxes, and even on migration policy.

The Role of Diplomatic Activity in the Development of the Economy

Diplomatic activities that a particular country will focus on and use to protect its economic interests, to stop negative trends and increase the efficiency that is reflected through macroeconomic indicators, such as gross domestic product, gross domestic product per capita, export / import, inflation, unemployment rate and foreign direct investment, as well as to improve the competitive position of the country in international markets, are determined as a set of related activities, often referred to as the model of economic diplomacy of a country.

Potter (2004) lists the following areas of activity and five basic activities of economic diplomacy:

- Promotion of the domestic economy in the recipient country (government, government institutions, media, NGOs, chambers of economy, industrial and commercial chambers, etc.);
- Lobbying for the interests of domestic economic operators and seeking opportunities for realization of their jobs;
- Providing information and consulting to domestic companies in doing business abroad;
- Support to domestic companies in foreign markets;
- Collecting information on foreign markets and help in making contact;
- Help in overcoming bureaucratic and administrative obstacles;
- Support and assistance during bilateral visits of economic nature.

From these areas, Potter (2004) further defines five core activities of economic diplomacy: promotion of trade and export, attracting direct foreign investment, technology transfer including research and development, promotion of tourism with tourism branding and advocating the interests of the national business community.

The promotion of exports and trade is a primary activity that has direct positive impact on macroeconomic indicators of a country by creating the conditions for appearing on existing and potential foreign markets. The knowledge provided by the actors of economic diplomacy about other markets, services, and products, and the strategies taken by foreign companies, improves business operations and encourages exports, further creating a multiplier effect on the entire economy of the country. The increase in exports has a positive impact on GDP growth and improves the country's competitive advantages by adopting new technologies.

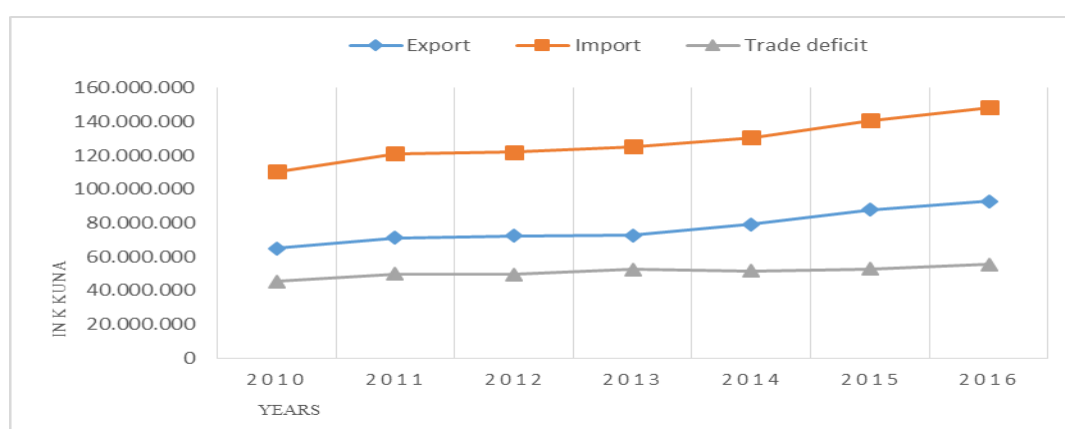
On the official website of the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs, Department for Economic Diplomacy, it reads: "Only an export-oriented economy can guarantee a small country long-term sustainable economic growth. Only about 15% of Croatian companies are exporters. However, these companies have 52% of employees in all businesses; they account for about 66% of total sales revenues and invest approximately 79% of the total funds invested, in development. The growth of such healthy and advanced companies makes the Croatian economy more powerful". Furthermore, in their research, Wilkinson and Brouthers (2006, 233-252) have come to the conclusion that companies that used incentive export programs as components of economic diplomacy achieved a much better export performance.

The export performance of the Republic of Croatia was specified in Table 1, prepared on the basis of available, officially released data.

Table 1. Export / Import by Chapters of the Combined Nomenclature (CN2) and Countries of Origin / Origin of the Republic of Croatia 2010-2016 (in HRK 000 (Systematisation by the authors from data available from the Croatian Bureau of Statistics, <http://www.dzs.hr/>))

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Export	64.891.583	71.234.060	72.380.725	72.594.640	79.099.297	87.772.423	92.793.259
Import	110.296.840	121.036.155	121.899.363	125.051.938	130.673.196	140.747.763	148.282.053
Trade deficit	45.405.257	49.802.095	49.518.638	52.457.298	51.573.899	52.975.340	55.488.794

The presented data show that Croatian exports of goods in 2016 increased by 5.7% on the previous year, thus continuing the growth trend for three years in a row. This indicates that Croatia's accession to the European Union has opened a new market and resulted in a positive trend of sales of goods. Imports have also strengthened by 5.5% compared to 2015.



Graph 1. Foreign trade in goods of the Republic of Croatia 2010-2016 (Systematisation by the authors from data available from the Croatian Bureau of Statistics, <http://www.dzs.hr/>)

Official statistics show that, last year, Croatia exported goods worth HRK 92.8 billion, which is 5.7 percent more than in 2015. At the same time, the value of commodity imports exceeded HRK 148.3 billion, thus compared to 2015, they were up by 5.5 percent. The CBS data shows that the deficit in Croatian foreign trade in 2016 amounted to HRK 55.7 billion, which is 5.2 percent increase on 2015, and since 2010 the trade deficit has risen by over HRK 10 billion. Export growth of 5.7 percent in 2016 was considerably slower than the year before, when it was 11 percent. However, the exports have grown for third year in a row. The emphasis in the literature of many scientific papers and the already mentioned opinion highlighted on the website of the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs, that only export-oriented economy can guarantee a small country long-term viable economic growth, is a very important conclusion that all stakeholders of Croatian economic diplomacy need to accept and find a constructive model that will lead them to the desired level of efficiency and economic growth.

3. Institutional Framework and Structure of the Croatian Economic Diplomacy System

The development of economic diplomacy has influenced the changes of responsibilities of most institutions at the national level. Traditionally, relations with other countries were the exclusive authority of a national or federal government, with ministries of foreign affairs playing a key role. As economic diplomacy gained significance as a concept and purpose, other ministries provided support in cooperation and coordination between the foreign ministries and international entities, each within their field of work.

With the introduction of a new model of cooperation between the ministries, the ministries of foreign affairs did not always benevolently accept the imposed cooperation. In the process of adaptation to the new situation, they react in different ways: attempting to reject or block other ministries in the international market, accepting their secondary role, or transforming from the sole national actor to coordinator of shaping foreign economic policy (Saner, Yiu, n.d.). The key issue for the implementation of an effective model and basic activities of economic diplomacy is the relationship between institutions responsible for the creation and implementation of both foreign- and foreign trade policy.

The relations within economic diplomacy in the Republic of Croatia are quite complex. For this reason, the institutions explained first in the text below are the ones responsible for creating foreign and economic policy, followed by those recognized as actors of economic diplomacy whose objectives and responsibilities are available in official publications.

In addition to the system of economic diplomacy operating within the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs, Ministry of Economy, Ministry of Tourism and the Ministry of Entrepreneurship, an important role in the promotion of the Croatian economy lies with economic institutions, government agencies and various business associations.

- 1) President of the Republic of Croatia cooperates with the Government in shaping and implementing the foreign policy. Upon Government proposal, the President decides on the establishment of diplomatic missions and consular offices of the Republic of Croatia abroad.
- 2) Croatian Government governs foreign policy, directs and supervises the work of the state administration, looks after the economic development of the country, directs the activities and development of public services.
- 3) Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs is in charge of diplomacy and affairs related to economic diplomacy. This includes representation, development and improvement of relations between Croatia and other countries and international organizations. In cooperation with other relevant ministries and state administration bodies, it participates in the promotion of economic interests of the country abroad and in the creation of cross-border, inter-regional and transnational cooperation projects. The Ministry also provides assistance in participation of Croatian companies in international development projects. Furthermore, it is responsible for negotiations in international relations and promotion and assistance in cooperation of state bodies with foreign countries in economic and scientific fields.
- 4) Ministry of Regional Development and EU Funds, whose vision is in line with the Strategic Plan of the Ministry for the period 2016-2018, is in charge of balanced development of all parts of Croatia with the aim of making Croatia internationally competitive, management of EU-obtained funds and coordination of implementation of structural reforms.
- 5) Ministry of Economy, Entrepreneurship and Crafts performs administrative and other tasks related to the development and improvement of competitiveness of the Croatian economy, development of micro-, small and medium entrepreneurship, industrial policy and policy of applying innovations and new technologies;
- 6) Ministry of Tourism deals with activities related to the promotion of Croatian tourism abroad, the system of tourist boards; international cooperation concerning tourism; the impact of the economic system instruments and measures of economic policy on the development of the tourism supply and provision of tourist and hospitality services.

- 7) Ministry of Science and Education is responsible for the implementation of scientific cooperation with foreign countries and international organizations, sending Croatian experts abroad and involving foreign experts in Croatian projects.
- 8) Ministry of Finance is in charge of drafting legal and other regulations, as well as creating the basis for conducting negotiations in foreign financial relations.
- 9) Croatian Bank for Reconstruction and Development is a development and export bank whose main task is to stimulate the development of the Croatian economy, exports, and promoting investment opportunities in Croatia.
- 10) Croatian Tourist Board is a national tourist organization founded to create and promote the identity and reputation of Croatian tourism, to plan and implement a common strategy and the concept of its promotion, propose and perform promotional activities in the country and abroad of common interest for all stakeholders in tourism, as well as to raise the quality of the entire tourism supply of Croatia.
- 11) Croatian Chamber of Commerce provides a reliable source of information for all Croatian companies and their foreign partners. In cooperation with state institutions, it advocates and protects the interests of the Croatian economy.
- 12) Croatian Chamber of Trades and Crafts as the umbrella organization of craftsmen cooperates with similar associations abroad.
- 13) Croatian Exporters is an association that promote and represent the interests of Croatian exports. The core objectives of Croatian exporters' activities are in line with the goals of economic diplomacy.
- 14) Croatian Employers' Association advocates employers' interests in the policy-making process, insisting on equal market competition and dynamic and sustainable growth of the Croatian economy.
- 15) National Competitiveness Council is an advisory body of the Government, which was established at the initiative of the business sector and the Croatian Employers' Association. It includes representatives of four key business sector stakeholders: business sector, the Government, trade unions and the academic community, with the aim of creating dialogues, partnerships and consensus on the programs and policies crucial to sustainable growth and development of Croatia, related to the processes of globalization, transition to market economy, accession to the EU and strengthening competitiveness.

All the above participants in the development of the Croatian economy are in support of the economic sector. The overview and analysis of the model of the mentioned cooperation is given in the following section.

4. Analysis and Effects of Models of Economic Diplomacy in the Republic of Croatia

The model of economic diplomacy, as mentioned earlier in the part of the Concept of Economic Diplomacy, is a set of diplomatic and economic activities that one country uses to enhance its economic position in international terms. The model chosen and used is influenced by many international and domestic factors. At the international level, the factors that affect the models of economic diplomacy are the already mentioned trends in the markets, globalization being the most significant.

Friedman (2000, 7) said: “Globalization is not a phenomenon. It is not just a passing trend. Today it is an overarching international system shaping the domestic politics and foreign relations to virtually every country, and we need to understand it as such.”

In the domestic market, the most significant factor is decentralization. The process of decentralization provides a framework for a more effective public and local government that needs to operate on modern reform principles (Pavličić, 2016). Regional and local governments and self-governments with more power, and thus fiscally decentralized, can represent the local community more effectively.

The Government of the Republic of Croatia provides a series of programs, guidelines and principles², but despite many political promises and expert recommendations, decentralization of the system as part of the overall public sector reform, has not been implemented so far. Decentralization would long-term result in a higher level of responsibility in project planning that would lead to investment in development projects and thus the impact of planning the future of the local community at the mandate level would be reduced.

² The General Decentralization Program for 2004-2007, the responsibility of the Commission of the Government of the Republic of Croatia. After that, in 2010, Guidelines and Principles of Functional Decentralization and Territorial Transformation were adopted; on 12 June 2015 the Croatian Parliament adopted the Strategy for Public Administration Development for 2015-2020 that provided functional, fiscal decentralization and territorial restructuring, effectiveness and alignment with the Europe 2020 goals. The European Union Development Strategy aims to support the development of a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy by 2020.

There are numerous models of economic diplomacy, the key differences among them being the organization, the coordination of the most important actors, and primarily the role played by the foreign ministry. Most frequently found in the literature is the classification of the economic diplomacy model divided into five basic models according to Rana (2000), and the specification is given as follows:

- 1) *Unified model* is a model in which the ministry of foreign affairs fully manages and unites issues of foreign affairs and foreign trade. Representations abroad undertake diplomatic activities and promote commercial interests of a country. The ministry of foreign affairs is a key actor and has the exclusive right to negotiate with the host countries. The Diplomatic Service does all economic activities abroad.
- 2) *Part-unified model* is the one in which the ministries of foreign affairs and the ministries of the economy or trade together establish a special department dealing with trade and investment. It usually operates within diplomatic representations. Instead of ambassadors with their usual obligations, the so-called directors-ambassadors may be introduced who manage the staff of the ministry of foreign affairs, but also of all state bodies (other ministries and agencies).
- 3) *Third agency model* - according to this model, the ministry of foreign affairs does not deal with trade issues at all. Instead, independent bodies engage in trade-related affairs but remain under the aegis of the ministry of foreign affairs. The representatives of independent bodies may act in foreign affairs ministries representations and cooperate with ambassadors and other diplomats, but in this model their jobs never overlap. According to this model, economic diplomacy is organized in Singapore where International Enterprise Singapore coordinates all the necessary actors of economic diplomacy and promotes the exports of domestic products and services.
- 4) *Model of Competition* is a model in which the tasks of the ministries of foreign affairs and other ministries overlap, not only those relating to foreign trade and investment. This model is a result of discrepancy between goals and activities. Here, the tasks are not clearly divided, which can also negatively reflect on the effectiveness of the meetings held by international organizations.
- 5) *Model of abdication* - According to this model, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs simply leaves issues related to investments and international trade to other ministries. Consequently, foreign ministries are losing their role in foreign affairs dealing with trade issues.

Of all the above models, the question is which model of economic diplomacy is used in the Republic of Croatia?

There are several studies which deal with the model of economic diplomacy in Croatia. The research of the Institute for International Relations of the Boromisa, Tišma and Raditya-Lažaić (2012) group, also refers to the Barun Research (2012), which covers the most important actors, institutions and ministries of the Republic of Croatia and examines their powers, tasks, goals and organizations. The conclusion of both studies is that the model of Croatian Economic Diplomacy is the *Model of Competition*. There is a lack of common understanding of what economic diplomacy is and who should be engaged in it. All respondents agree that primary activities and goals are to increase exports and attract foreign investment. The relevance and impact of the politics is recognizable in carrying out activities, and there is a lack of coordination and clearly defined tasks.

These studies confirmed the definitions of the *Model of Competition* and demonstrated that the tasks of the ministry of foreign affairs and other ministries overlap without a clear division of tasks, not only those relating to foreign trade and investment, but also the ones related to negotiating and advocating procedures of Croatian interests.

One of the main goals of the foreign policy of the Republic of Croatia was the entry into full membership of the European Union which took place on 1 July 2013. Thereafter, on 1 October 2013, the Department for Economic Diplomacy was established within the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs. The new comprehensive system of economic diplomacy is the result, on one hand, of the demand of Croatian exporters, who in the international business environment have expressed the need for the state assistance in their appearance in foreign markets, and on the other hand of analyzing the model of other successful world economic diplomacies. The system is adjusted by establishing new responsibilities in trade policy, prioritizing markets, new categories of diplomatic communication and information management, adapting the location of Croatian diplomatic-consular network, and development of a new institutional culture focused on the citizen-exporter. As the most significant results of economic diplomacy since the establishment of the department to date, the official site of the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs states that to date, 11,880 services have been provided to exporters, including 3,404 Croatian exporters, and assistance has been provided in realization of 5,829 export opportunities. A survey on the satisfaction of the service users of Croatian economic diplomacy was conducted and the results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The results of economic diplomacy in Croatia (Percentage of surveyed exporters) (Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs, n.d.)

Improving marketing strategy	7%
Adaptation to the local environment	12%
Breaking barriers	11%
Improving profile and credibility	8%
Access to information	55%
Access to partners and institutions	43%
Other	20%

It is evident from the data that most of the users used economic diplomacy to improve access to information on foreign markets and access to potential partners and institutions. For efficient economic diplomacy and better key performance indicators, as well as export orientation of the country, it is necessary to align the goals of economic growth at all levels and institutions.

The promotion of the country through tourism branding is also one of the more important activities of Croatian economic diplomacy performed by the Croatian Tourist Board. This is understandable, because tourism with about 18% of GDP in Croatia is a very important strategic development industry. As a confirmation of the presence of the *Model of Competition* in 2012, as many as three agencies reported that they deal with attraction of investment. These were the Investment and Competitiveness Agency, the Energy Sector Monitoring Center and the Croatian Agency for SMB, which was later merged with the Business Innovation Agency. Given the fact that next to the Ministry of Tourism (which if necessary establishes the Investment Promotion Operations Group), the Ministry of the Economy and more than 30 different government offices, agencies and investment attracting teams are engaged in attracting investment in tourism, it can be concluded that a potential investor is likely to be faced with a number of bureaucratic obstacles and confusion due to unclear responsibilities.

An excellent example of harmonization of foreign trade policy objectives is the Kingdom of Norway. Through the model of agency economic diplomacy, with clear goals and delegated tasks, it leads the country in the safe direction of export and growth expansion with innovation diplomatic engagement.

5. Innovation as a Key Factor of Effective Economic Diplomacy – Example of the Kingdom of Norway

The Kingdom of Norway is a country in the Nordic region of North Europe which, after the Second World War, experienced prosperity by rapid industrialization and development of trade and maritime, and further on in the 1970s by exploitation of oil and natural gas in the North and Norwegian Seas. Today, it is the fifth largest oil exporter in the world, and it is the second largest exporter of seafood. Despite the linkage of the economy with oil prices, Norway's crown remained stable at the time of the last world crisis; according to available data, Norway is the third country in terms of monetary stability. At the referendums conducted, the Norwegian people twice declined to enter the European Union, but despite this, it cooperates very closely with the Union using its comparative advantage in a cost-effective way. By establishing a system of subsidies for strategic determinants and activities, it successfully markets its products and services on the world market by applying advocacy and agency model of economic diplomacy. It was the highest ranking country in the period from 2001 to 2007 and again in 2009 according to the Human Development Index (<http://hdr.undp.org/en/data>)⁴.

According to the number of population, Croatia and Norway are approximately comparable, but monetary, organizational, and other indicators are very different. In this paper, we will limit ourselves to the macroeconomic indicators and the choice of the model of economic diplomacy of the Kingdom of Norway.

Below are the macroeconomic indicators of the countries of the Kingdom of Norway and the Republic of Croatia in Tables 3 and 4 in the period 2010 – 2016. GDP per capita in Norway is five times higher and in 2016 it was EUR 56,266, while in Croatia it was EUR 10,929. The inflation rate for the last seven years in Croatia is between 11.00% and 17.3%, while in Norway there is almost full employment, i.e. the unemployment rate ranges from 3.1% to 4.6%, with slight growth in the last three years. The average annual salary in Norway reaches up to 3.5 times the absolute value of that in Croatia.

³ The Human Development Index (HDI), introduced in the 90s of the 20th century, shows the state of a country according to age, education and income. HDI ranges from 0.001 to 1.0. The closer it is to 1.0, the country is considered more developed. For a comparison, according to available data at <http://hdr.undp.org/en/data>, HDI for Croatia for the last three years has been in the range of 0.817 to 0.827 and for Norway 0.945 to 0.949.

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Table 3. Macroeconomic Indicators of the Kingdom of Norway (The World Bank Group, <http://www.worldbank.org/>; The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) <http://www.oecd.org/>)

Indicator	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
GDP per capita (EUR)	51.619	55.235	58.184	59.589	58.436	55.202	56.266
GDP rate (%)	0,6	0,97	2,8	0,99	1,9	1,6	-
Unemployment rate (%)	3,5	3,2	3,1	3,1	3,4	4,3	4,6
Inflation rate (%)	2,4	1,3	0,7	2,1	2	2,1	3,6
Export of goods and services (% in GDP)	39,8	41,3	40,6	39,2	38,9	37,4	33,8
Average wages (EUR) / Yearly	41.276	42.658	43.816	44.714	45.046	45.308	-

Table 4. Macroeconomic Indicators of the Republic of Croatia (Croatian National Bank, <http://www.hnb.hr/>; Croatian Bureau of Statistics - <http://www.dzs.hr/>)

Indicator	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
GDP per capita (EUR)	10.495	10.453	10.300	10.225	10.147	10.435	10.929
GDP rate (%)	-1,7	-0,3	-2,2	-1,1	-0,5	1,6	2,9
Unemployment rate (%)	11,6	13,7	15,9	17,3	17,3	16,3	13,1
Inflation rate	1,1	2,3	3,4	2,2	-0,2	-0,5	-1,1
Export of goods and services (% in GDP)	37,8	40,5	41,7	43,1	45,8	49,0	50,0
Average wages (EUR) / Yearly	12.477	12.423	12.524	12.473	12.457	12.660	12.308

Following the above mentioned indicators, the questions arise: How is economic diplomacy in the Kingdom of Norway organized, what are the guidelines of their model of economic diplomacy and is it applicable to our model?

Despite the excellent indicators of Norway, it is quite clear that the strategy and goals must adapt to world market conditions, that oil and gas sources are not inexhaustible and that they need to focus on innovation and grouping production into clusters. In order to boost economic diplomacy and improve the position of its products and services, the Norwegian Government has established an agency model of economic diplomacy through the Innovation Norway agency. It is an organization that implements successful cluster and diplomatic policy of the government; it is owned by the Government, the Ministry of Fisheries and the Regions, has 30 offices in Norway and is present on all continents. They use a combination of economic diplomacy models through lobbying, thinkthank and direct investment. It is obvious from the name itself that the focus is on *innovation*. The official website (Innovation Norway, n.d.) states: "Innovation Norway is the Norwegian Government's most important instrument for

innovation and development of Norwegian enterprises and industry. We support companies in developing their competitive advantage and to enhance innovation". (...) "In Nordic Innovation House we motivate, train and build Nordic tech startups by introducing them to business professionals, mentors, academia, role models and services providers here in Silicon Valley to strengthen them in the international competition. The companies that we work with understand that they have to go global or die" (Innovation Norway, n.d.).

Figure 2. shows that Innovation Norway stimulates value-adding business activities and *growth* in Norwegian businesses. Also, they stimulate clusters because companies in clusters innovate and grow faster than comparable non-cluster companies.

Innovation Norway accelerates economic growth through financing businesses that export, innovate and invest in environmental protection and renewable energy sources.

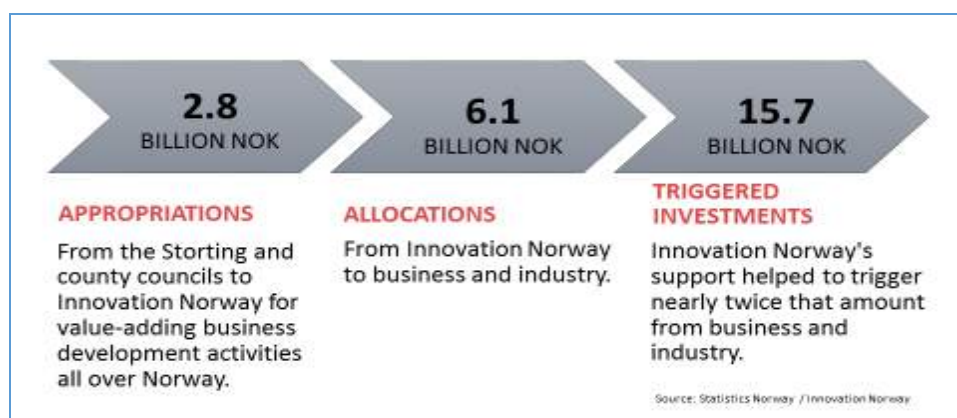


Figure 2. Acceleration of growth through financial support (Innovation Norway, 2016)

The Norwegian Government through Innovation Norway provides a strategy for the development of Norway in six areas where the country is developing. They are called *areas of opportunities*. They are as follows:

- 1) *Clean energy*: all form of renewable energy, production, storing, distribution, energy efficiency and use of renewable energy in the process industry in Norway.
- 2) *Bioeconomy*: sustainable and profitable utilization, production, and processing of biomass from the oceans and land to food, feed, materials, chemicals and bioenergy (fuel and heating).
- 3) *Health and welfare*: biomedicine, medical technical devices and health ICT that supplies products and services for preventive activities, diagnostics, treatment and care of both physical and mental health.

4) *Ocean space*: development of new technologies and services for utilizing resources in the oceans including the ocean floor, production and recovery of ocean bioresources, as well as transportation and other activities at the surface.

5) *Smart societies*: sustainable economic development and high quality of life through key areas such as: economy, mobility, environment, people, living conditions and public administration.

6) *Tourism & creative industry*: Tourism includes experiences such as culture, food, history, nature and activities, as well as transport and accommodation. Creative industry includes architecture, newspapers and magazines, books, video games, movies, music, advertising and events, TV and radio, performing and visual arts.

By adopting these six *areas of opportunities*, Innovation Norway have set clear priorities in those areas where they have internationally comparative advantages.

6. Food Diplomacy – Innovative Approach to Effective Economic Diplomacy in Tourism

Croatia's Tourism Development Strategy until 2020⁵ puts forward 26 measures, planned to achieve goals in increasing foreign investment attraction, increasing the number of tourist nights and measures to increase both employment and tourist spending. Foreign exchange income from tourism accounts for 18.01%⁶ of GDP in Croatia, thus taking a prominent place in the Croatian economy. Effective strategic communication has a positive impact on the increase of exports, tourism and hence the increase in the production of food. The use of the food industry in tourism and economic diplomacy is an important component of tourism development.

The term food diplomacy can be applied as a means of communication of an entity through the food industry, i.e. food. The entity can be at micro-location (local beer producers in Belgium) or macro-location, for example, a country. Communication through food is as old as civilization, and various areas have given rise to a variety of ways of using food ingredients. With the emergence of mass media diversity of food across countries became accessible. The

⁵ It fully defines the legislative framework, strategic marketing plan and the level of investment.

⁶ According to the data of the Croatian Chamber of Commerce for 2016

simplest way of integration into the local community is by food (Chinese restaurants) and hence the food breaks cross-cultural barriers.

Food products as a national identity through branding. A well-known example is that of President Clinton's exit from Air Force One with a hamburger in hand. The hamburger is recognized worldwide as an American sandwich, so it is immediately associated with the USA. There are such associations in nearly all of the world's cultures – we recognize the countries through food: pizza – Italy, paella – Spain, fish and chips – UK, Japan – sushi, etc. National identity is very important in economic diplomacy so the European Court must decide on *kulen* or *teran*.

Table diplomacy, as a presentation of cultural and culinary identity in diplomatic representations, is essential for positioning the tourist capacities of a state.

National restaurants have a mission of removing cultural barriers, not only in terms of food, but also in the image of the people's identity. Unlike Mexican, Japanese or Chinese restaurants, Croatian national restaurants have the so-called '*čevapčić* issue', which puts diverse Croatian national cuisine in the category of the countries of the former state.

Media exposure. Travel shows on food and lifestyles have become very popular with viewers of all ages and genders. Over the past ten years, food has launched its first real superstars as Jamie Oliver, Anthony Bourdain, etc. Culinary TV shows on television today vary from reality shows to serious documentaries. Presentation through the media and getting a broad audience acquainted with one's own food culture is essential for every tourist country.

Supermarket presentations. Weeks of national cuisine in supermarkets are the simplest way to present food products of a tourist country in the visitors' countries. The awakening of nostalgia for traveling and recalling memories through the smell, taste and visual identity is a psychological trigger on many levels.

Taste Croatia. The project includes the Croatian Tourist Board, the local tourist communities, Ministry of Tourism, mobile operators, etc. The aim of the project is to include actors of the mobile, food, and tourism industry in creating food identity of the Republic of Croatia.

Exports of food products to the visitors' country are the simplest way of boosting exports and food industry production. Millions of visitors coming to Croatia during the year need to get acquainted with the Croatian food products that they consume during their stay.

Advertising of Croatian producers on the hotel table gives a sense of security to the visitor who remembers the visual identity of the producer. Surveys for tourists are also prepared. They create a database for exports to the visitors' country and food presentation in supermarkets and national restaurants.

7. Conclusion and Discussion

Economic diplomacy is taking the lead in the diplomatic world. Under conditions of globalization economic diplomacy is necessary for exporters to promote the domestic economy, to obtain information on foreign markets. The main actors are the government, government institutions, media, NGOs, chambers of commerce and industrial and commercial chambers. The *Model of Competition* in the Republic of Croatia could, by establishing clear strategic guidelines, achieve effective results. By focusing according to the positive example of the *Third agency model* used by the Kingdom of Norway, economic growth could be accelerated with multiplier effects. The innovative approach of branding of our food products, the so-called *food diplomacy*, contributes to economic growth.

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ANALYSIS OF THE CROATIAN CRISIS COMMUNICATION ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

Mirela Holy, Ph.D.

VERN' University of Applied Sciences, Zagreb, Croatia

mirela.holy@vern.hr

Nikolina Borčić, Ph.D.

VERN' University of Applied Sciences, Zagreb, Croatia

nikolina.borcic@vern.hr

Summary

An analysis of the literature published in the Croatian scientific and professional journals in the last ten years demonstrates that topics of crisis communications were not well represented in the Croatian academic publications. In that period (2005-2016), there were plenty of big political, economic, financial, environmental, health and security crises. If we take in consideration that crisis communications are an important instrument of the sustainable crisis management, it is surprising that there were so few articles about that topic. In the second half of 2015, Croatia faced a large refugee wave from the Middle East that continued throughout 2016 as well, however, the academic treatment of this topic from a position of crisis communication was entirely absent in articles from the analysed databases. This paper analyses the content of the existing Croatian scientific discourse of crisis communications in the past decade, issues that dominated professional and scientific articles dealing with crisis communications and causes for the unpopularity of crisis communications in the Croatian scientific and professional literature.

Keywords: crisis, crisis communication, Croatia, scientific and professional literature

1. Introduction

The period from 2005 till 2016 in Croatia was abundant with a large number of crises, and some of these crises could be considered as significant social crises. In the mentioned period, Croatia faced a major economic crisis that lasted from 2008 until 2015. Almost every summer, major fires happened in the coastal area. In the continental part of Croatia, the population was often affected by the devastating effects of flooding, especially in the Moslavina County and in Slavonia. In financial terms, Croatia was affected by the crisis related to Swiss franc-denominated loans, and in political terms the negotiations regarding Croatia's accession to the European Union were constantly in the atmosphere of crisis. The end of 2015 and the greater part of 2016 were dominated by a major political crisis that ended with early parliamentary elections that were held in September 2016. In the mentioned decade, Croatia also faced major corruption scandals that affected the foundations of society, and the most visible were those related to former Prime Minister Ivo Sanader. The refugee crisis also affected Croatia in the second half of 2015. At the beginning of the first quarter 2017, Croatia was hit by the crisis of Agrokor, the largest Croatian company that employs about 40,000 people in Croatia, and there are some estimates that Agrokor participates in between 2 and 2.5% of the Croatian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with its revenues (Šonje, 2017). The Agrokor Board showed great unpreparedness for the communication aspect of crisis management, which only worsened the already extremely difficult situation of the company.

However, although crisis communication is an important instrument for successful crisis management, Croatian scientific and professional literature has not intensively researched crisis communication in the mentioned period. Database search¹ showed that, in the period between 2005 and 2016, a relatively small number of Croatian scientists and experts was devoted to the subject of crisis communication². More specifically, in the mentioned period a total of 41 articles³ were published in the chosen Croatian scientific and professional journals, with crisis communication as the main (33 papers) or secondary topic (8 papers). Two books on the topic of crisis communication were published in Croatian till 2017, but one of these

¹ Hrčak, EBSCO, Google Scholar, Emerald, Crosbi, Katalog Knjižnica Grada Zagreba.

² Claims apply only to articles that containing the phrase crisis communication, crisis communication and / or crisis in the title and / or in the summary.

³ The number of expert and scientific articles on crisis communications in the mentioned period is larger, but many papers published in conference proceedings are not available and not visible in databases that were the starting point of research. Because of this, we did not include them in the research.

two books, the one written by Slovenian economist Božidar Novak was translated and published in the Croatian language in 2001, therefore, before the analysed period. In addition to Novak's book, crisis communication is also the topic of the book *Upravljanje krizom: procjene, planovi, komunikacija (Crisis Management: Estimates, Plans, Communication)* of the author Majda Tafra-Vlahović (2011). In 2017 published was a new textbook regarding this topic, *Menadžment kriznog komuniciranja (Crisis Communication Management)* by Damir Jugo, Ph.D. Considering the frequent occurrence of major crises in Croatia in the last ten years, as well as the daily occurrence of minor crises, the number of published scientific and professional papers, as well as books and manuals on crisis communication in Croatia, can be considered as small and insufficient.

The purpose of this paper is to explore and describe the representation of articles on crisis communication in the Croatian academic area⁴ and to identify the necessity of improvement through in-depth interviews with academic and business communication experts. The emphasis is on the analysis of the representation and justification, as well as on the reasons for the (un) popularity of this topic in Croatian scientific and professional literature. Quantitative methods (quantitative content analysis of the scientific and professional articles on crisis communication published between 2005 and 2016 in Croatian journals) and qualitative research (in-depth interviews with Croatian experts for crisis communication from agencies and academia) were used in this paper. The aim of the conducted analysis is to answer the following research questions:

1. How many Croatian scientific and professional articles have been researching the topic of crisis communication over the last ten years and how did they handle this topic?
2. What can be concluded regarding the interest about crisis communication from the experts' responses?
3. How much is the available literature sufficient for research, scholarly and practical work within crisis communication?

Interpretation of the results is carried out separately for the content analysis of articles and in-depth interviews. The last part of the article, the conclusion, brings general underlying guidelines obtained from the research, as well as recommendations for further research, scientific and practical work on this subject.

⁴ In accordance with the bases within the aforementioned research logistic capabilities.

2. Analysis of Scientific and Expert Articles on Crisis Communication in Croatia between 2005 and 2016

The research of scientific and professional articles published in Croatian journals over the last ten years was carried out by review of the following databases: Hrčak, EBSCO, Google Scholar, Emerald, Crosbi and Katalog knjižnica Grada Zagreba in the period from 1 March till 28 April 2017. The aforementioned databases were used because of their availability to the researchers who have access only to open Internet databases. Therefore, the results are symptomatic and refer to the mentioned databases.

After reading of summaries of articles and of the articles themselves, and after selecting articles from a wider database, a total of 41 articles remained in the process, 19 of which are available in electronic format via the Hrčak database. An analysis of the content of articles was conducted according to the following variables: author, type of work, whether crisis communication is the main or secondary subject of the article, the journal in which the article was published, the language of the article, article title, article topic, number of pages, number of downloads on 3 April 2017, month and year of publication of the article.

The oldest articles are professional articles from 2006, published in the journal *Marketing.UP*: the tools of marketing success, and the latest article is scientific article of Drago Martinović “Crisis Communication of the Local Government Units” that was published in April 2016 in the proceedings of the Conference of Crisis Management Days. The results indicate the following dynamics of the publishing of scientific and professional articles:

Table 1. Dynamics of the publishing of scientific and professional articles on the subject of crisis communication

Year	Number of articles	Main topic	Secondary topic
2005	0	0	0
2006	6	6	0
2007	2	2	0
2008	1	1	0
2009	4	2	2
2010	4	3	1
2011	6	5	1
2012	3	2	1
2013	3	1	2

2014	8	8	0
2015	3	2	1
2016	1	1	0
TOTAL	41	33	8

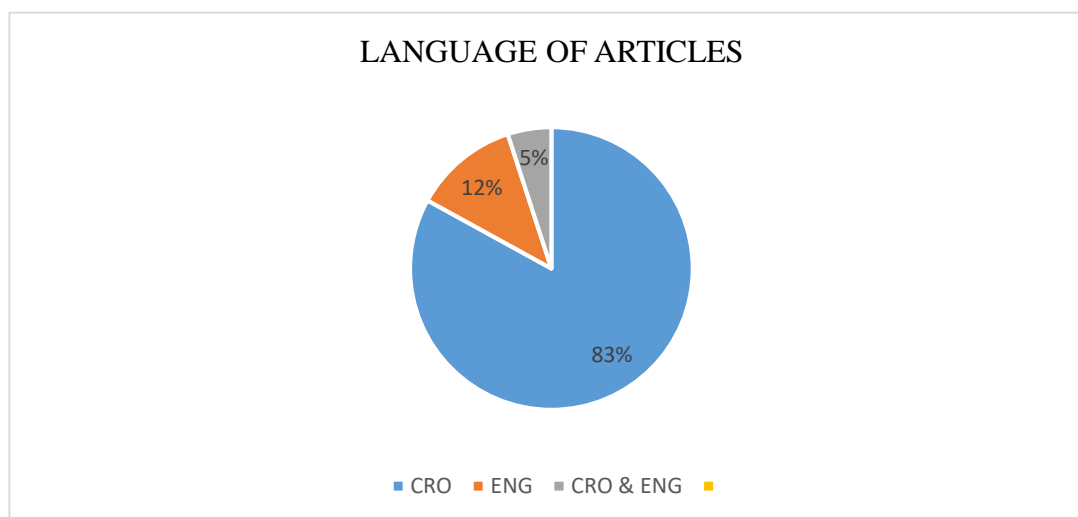
These results suggest that in the past ten years there was no systematic approach to the development of the discipline in Croatia. Regarding the interest of individual journals for this topic, the situation is as following:

Table 2. Interest of journals for the crisis communication topic

Journal/publication	Number of articles	Type of articles	Main/secondary topic
Conference proceedings "Crisis Management Days"	9	7 scientific 1 professional 1 other	8 main 1 secondary
Marketing.UP	6	All professional articles	6 main
MediAnali	4	2 original scientific 1 review 1 professional article	3 main 1 secondary
Collegium antropologicum	3	1 original scientific 2 critiques	3 main
Medijske studije (Media Studies)	2	2 articles from conferences	2 main
Medijska istraživanja (Media Research)	1	1 original scientific	1 main
Praktični menadžment (Practical Management)	1	1 professional	1 main
Medix	1	1 other	1 main
Politička misao (Political Thought)	1	1 preliminary note	1 main
Sigurnost (Security)	1	1 preliminary note	1 secondary
Političke analize (Political Analyses)	1	1 professional	1 main
Media, Culture and Public Relations	1	1 editorial	1 main
Informatologia	1	1 original scientific	1 secondary
Kriminalistička teorija i praksa (Criminalistics theory and practice)	1	1 professional	1 secondary
Croatian Scientific Expert Conference on Management in Tourism and Sport	1	1 professional	1 secondary
Udruga.hr	1	1 professional	1 main
Conference Proceedings of "Management"	1	1 scientific	1 main
Ekonomski pregled (Economic Review)	1	1 professional	1 secondary
Proceedings of the Conferences "Encounters"	1	1 scientific	1 secondary
Krizni menadžment (Crisis Management)	1	1 scientific	1 main
Mediji i turizam (Media and Tourism)	1	1 scientific	1 main
Proceedings VI Scientific and Professional Conference with International Participation "Management and Safety"	1	1 professional	1 main

According to the above mentioned analysis it can be concluded that topic of crisis communication is the most relevant for the journals in the field of communication, marketing and public relations (*MediAnali*; *Media Studies*; *Marketing.UP*; *Media Research*; *Media, Culture and Public Relations and Informatologia*) which is expected because crisis communication is one of the tools of public relations. It is interesting that three articles on crisis communication have been published in the journal *Collegium anthropologicum* that covers topics from medical sciences and public health. Our findings further show that analysed articles from this type of journals do not handle crisis communication in the field of health but discuss general topics of crisis communication. *Medix* is a specialized bimonthly medical journal that published the article "Crisis Communication" that is also general article, not a case study in the field of public health. Apart from the aforementioned journals, it should be mentioned that interest in the subject of crisis communication was also shown in the political, economic, and criminalistics theory journals. Other papers were published in conference proceedings.

Regarding the language of the articles, most of the texts are in Croatian - 34. Two articles were published both in Croatian and English and five only in English. All articles published in the journal *Collegium antropologicum* are published in English (Graph 1).



Graph 1. Language of articles on crisis communication (N=41)

The major findings towards the authors of articles are following:

- 1) One article with crisis communication as a main theme was published by 36 authors⁵
- 2) One article with crisis communication as a secondary theme was published by 9 authors⁶
- 3) Two articles have been published by Jadran Perinić (both main topics), Mario Plenković (one main, one side topic), Maja Banovac Barić (both main topic), Tamara Čendo Metzinger (same article but published in different publications), Branko Mihaljević and Josip Čerina
- 4) Four non-scientific articles have been published by Martina Mihalinić (in all her articles crisis communication is the main topic).

From this analysis it is possible to conclude that no author in the last decade was specialized for the scientific research of the crisis communication topic.

When it comes to the type of paper, the situation is following:

Table 3. Types of articles

Types of article	Number	Main topic	Secondary topic
Original scientific paper	5	3	2
Scientific paper	11	9	2
Scientific review	1	1	0
Preliminary note	2	1	1
Excerpt from the conference	2	2	0
Professional article	15	12	3
Critique	2	2	0
Editorial	1	1	0
Other	2	2	0
TOTAL	41	33	8

The analysis showed that the largest number of articles is in the category of professional papers. Given the fact that scientific papers include original scientific paper; scientific paper, scientific review, preliminary note and excerpt from scientific conference, that there is a total

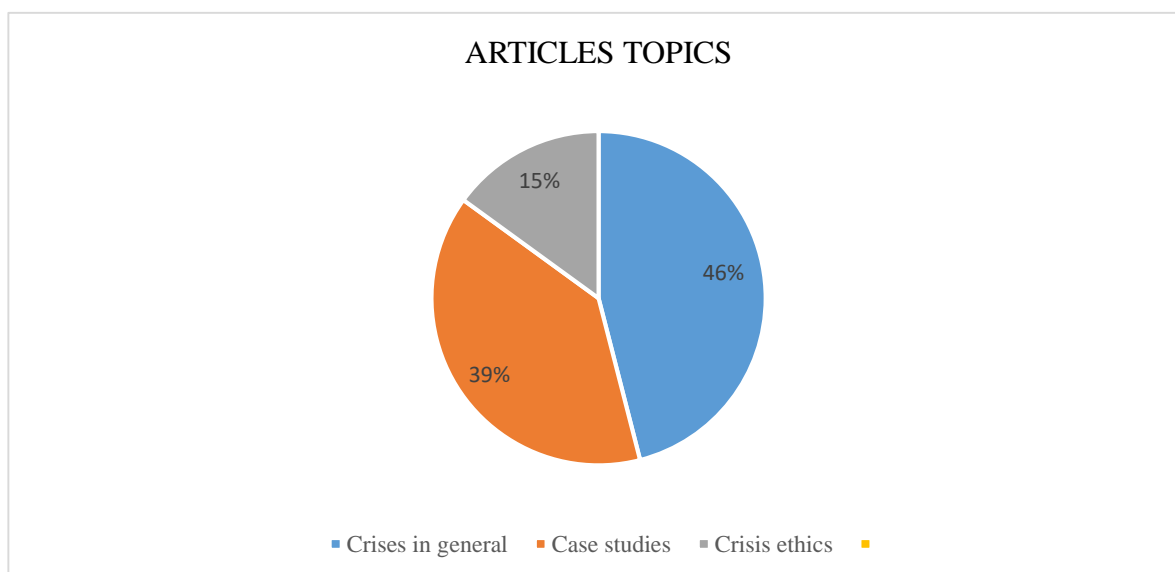
⁵ Hannu-Pekka Laiho; Božidar Novak; Ivan Tanta; Violeta Colić; Vlatka Škorić; Krešimir Macan; Tanja Subotić; Nada Zgrabljic Rotar; A.Puška and A.Maksimović; Maša Bulajić; Ivana Franic Markovic and Damir Trut; Želimir Kešetović, Ivan Toth and Nedžad Korajlić; Marina Manucci and Vedrana Čemerin; Zoran Tomić and Zdeslav Milas; Paulina Bačić; Vladimir Barović; Ksenija Žlof, Slobodan Hadzic; Martina Mihalinić; Daria Mustić; Mario Aunedi Medek; Ivana Jeleč; Drago Martinović; Nataša Rupčić; Damir Jugo; Tomislavka Ivanda; Sanja Kalambura; Zlatko Golubić; Boris Jurić; Ivo Dubković

⁶ Davor Ljubimir; Mirko Markic, Igor Kolenc and Martina Miklavcic; Halid Emkić; Živana Sunara and Sandra Jeličić; Anita Jeličić and Marija Stanojević

number of 21 such articles (or 51%), it can be concluded that in Croatia in the past ten years there was weak scientific research of the subject of crisis communication.

The analysed articles indicate the following topic groups:

- 1) Crisis Communication and Risk Management in general⁷
- 2) Case Studies of Crisis Communication⁸
- 3) Ethical Aspects of Crisis Communication⁹



Graph 2. Articles topics (N=41)

⁷ Authors: Božidar Novak; Ivan Tanta; Violeta Colić; Vlatka Škorić; Krešimir Macan; Maša Bulajić; Mario Plenković; Ivana Franic Markovic and Damir Trut; Tamara Čendo Metzinger, Marina Manucci and Vedrana Čemerin; Zoran Tomić and Zdeslav Milas; Mirko Markic, Igor Kolenc and Martina Miklavcic Forest; Nataša Rupčić; Damir Jugo / Maja Banovac Baric / Tomislavka Ivanda; Branko Mihaljević / Martina Mihalinić; Ruža Brčić / Ivan Malbasic / Sana Djukes; Martina Mihalinić; Branko Mihaljević / Martina Mihalinić / Sanja Kallambura; Zlatko Golubić / Boris Jurić / Ivo Dubković

⁸ Authors: Tanja Subotić – bird flu in Perutnina Ptuj and Pipo Čakovec; Jadran Perinić – a fire on Kornati; Josip Čerina and Nada Zgrabljic Rotar – reporting on mine accidents; A. Puška and A. Maksimović – the aflatoxin crisis in the dairy industry; Paulina Bačić – hostile takeover of the Pliva company; Jadran Perinić, Ksenija Žlof and Slobodan Hadžić – ‘Swine Flu’; Martina Mihalinić – nuclear accident in Fukushima; Dr. Halid Emkić – police public relations; Živana Sunara and Sandra Jeličić – organizational communication in tourism; Maja Banovac Barić, Mario Aunedi Medek, Ivana Jeleč – crisis communication in disasters / floods; Drago Martinović – crisis communication in local government units; Anita Jeličić / Marija Stanojević – crisis communication on social networks; Dorotea Milas / Goran Galić – crisis communication of the Catholic Church; Želimir Kešetović / Ivan Toth / Marina Črnko – crisis communication in tourism affected by terrorism; Senka Zavišić / Željka Zavišić – crisis communication on Facebook; Josip Čerina – mine danger and crisis communication in tourism.

⁹ Authors: Hannu-Pekka Laiho; Želimir Kešetović, Ivan Toth and Nedžad Korajlić; Davor Ljubimir; Vladimir Barović; Mario Plenković and Daria Mustić, Zdeslav Milas / Siniša Kovačić – crisis communication of politicians after traffic accidents

The common denominator of articles from the first group is the emphasis of the crisis communication importance, i.e. the strategic dimension of crisis communication that implies creating a crisis communication plan. Only Vlatka Škorić (2006), in the article “Tata, jel’ prošao vlak?”¹⁰, warns on the distance between theory and practice in concrete crisis situations. Ivana Franić Marković and Damir Trut (2014, 91) in the article “Topics on Crises in Electronic Media in Croatia” emphasise the importance of media mediated information in crisis management, that “news is creating a ‘referential frame’, which turns events into phenomenon discussed by the public” and in that sense media is a “chronicler and creator of social reality”.

The second group of articles deals with different case studies of crisis communication. It is interesting that none of the topics or crises have deserved multiple processing in Croatian scientific and professional articles. Therefore, there is only one article dealing with bird flu, Kornati fire, flood, mine accident, aflatoxin related crisis in the dairy industry, hostile takeover of Pliva, ‘swine flu’, nuclear disaster in Fukushima etc.

Case studies differ. Tanja Subotić (2006) in the article “Crisis as a New Opportunity” describes the positive example of Perutnina Ptuj – Pipa Čakovec’s avian flu crisis communication. The company was well prepared for crisis action and disciplined implementation of the crisis communication plan. A positive rating is also given to the crisis communication of the Catholic Church in the article “Crisis communication and media perception of the church in the case of the abdication of Pope Benedict XVI” written by Dorotea Milas and Goran Galić (2014). On the other hand, in the article “Crisis Communication in the Tragedy of Firefighters on Kornati”, Jadran Perinić (2007) criticizes communication of the responsible public authorities in the case of Kornati firefighters’ suffering. The media were left alone in reporting about fire and firefighters, statements of officials from the fire protection system were often contradictory and inconsistent. In a similar, critical way, Paulina Bačić (2010) analyses the crisis regarding the hostile takeover attempt of Pliva. A negative critical approach is also noted in the article “The Case of Fukushima” written by Martina Mihalinić (2012). Josip Čerina and Nada Zgrabljčić Rotar (2009) in the article “Communication in Crises and Media: Press Coverage on Landmine Accidents” have quantitatively analysed 85 articles on mine accidents that were published in the daily newspapers from the beginning of 2007 to the end of 2008. Their analysis has shown that media coverage of mine accidents is insufficient, focused “on a particular incident rather than the problem at large” in a short duration (days or two). A particular

¹⁰ Daddy, Has the Train Passed Already?

problem is the unreliability or anonymity of the sources, and they conclude that “the collaboration between the mine action profession and the media must be better organized and more professional in order to ensure that the range of mine-related topics covered is broadened and that the information provided is both robust and disseminated rapidly” (Čerina, Zgrabljic Rotar, 2009, 144). Similarly, Jadran Perinić, Ksenija Žlof and Slobodan Hadžić (2011) in the article “Credibility of the Printed Media: The Swine Flu as a Case Study” concluded that “the Croatian print media, contrary to our expectations, largely rely on official sources and transparently cite authors, which contributes to a higher degree of credibility. Yet further analysis of the number of sources suggests that most journalists used on average only one or no named sources, which significantly reduces the credibility of the published articles” (2011, 141).

Puška and Maksimović (2014) in the article “Public Relations on Internet Sites Regarding the Crisis Situation in the Dairy Industry” discussed how several Croatian dairy industries communicated on their websites about the aflatoxin crisis. They concluded that companies took active or passive crisis communication strategy. “The passive strategy was chosen by most of the companies in which milk inadmissible quantities of aflatoxins was not found”, which they consider to be wrong, as these companies should “take advantage of that fact to emphasize the quality of their products” (Puška, Maksimović, 2014, 96).

The articles “Specifics of Police Public Relations: Criminal Science Aspects”, “Organizational Communication in Tourism” and “Crisis Communication of the Units of Local Self-Government” deal with case studies of the communication in different sectors in which crisis communication is one, albeit important type of communication.

The third, least-represented thematic group deals with the ethical aspects of crisis communication. Two articles, “Communicating from the Crisis: Are Media Trying to Save Lives or Spread Propaganda?” (Hannu-Pekka, 2008) and “Objectivity, Journalistic Ethics, and Reporting in Crisis Situations” (Barović, 2011), problematizes journalistic ethics as a key segment of objective reporting in crisis situations. Kešetović, Toth and Korajlić (2014, 171) in the article entitled “Apology as Crisis Communication Strategy” questioned prejudices that an apology is “a strategy which automatically gives results and reduces the effects of crisis”. Milas and Kovačić (2012), in their article, analysed different crisis communication strategies and different media reception of three Croatian politicians who have caused traffic accidents. The last two articles in this group, “Is Mass Communication a Threat to the Ethics of Self-Determination?” of Davor Ljubimir (2009), and “Graphic Technologies and

Communicational Behaviour in Ecological Crises” of Mario Plenković and Daria Mustić (2011), deal with the ethical implications of mass communication on self-determination and on the environment. These articles can be considered only as marginal topics in the field of crisis communication.

The analysis of the content has pointed out that most of the articles were generally orientated in the field of crisis communication, which is a sign of still insufficient knowledge regarding crisis communication in Croatia. It is also significant that some of the major crises that Croatia faced in the last ten years have not been researched at all from the position of crisis communication (the refugee crisis, for example), that some have been researched only through one article (bird flu, swine flu). Negative examples dominate in the case study articles. An extremely important element of crisis communication, the ethical approach to crises, is almost not researched in Croatian scientific and professional literature, which also points out to the superficial processing of this topic.

Articles in the field of crisis communication vary between articles on one page (one article) up to articles on twenty-three pages (one article). There is also one article on three, five, seven, eleven, fifteen, sixteen and twenty-one pages; two articles are on ten and twelve pages; three articles are on six, nine, thirteen and twenty pages. Four articles are on thirteen and eighteen pages; five articles are on two and eight pages. It is noticeable that most of the professional articles are of short format, while those scientific are of a slightly larger format (from nine to twenty-one pages).

The number of downloads on April 03, 2017 shows the following statistics¹¹:

- 1) Article by Zoran Tomić and Zdeslav Milas (Tomić, Milas, 2007) “Strategy as Crisis Response” was downloaded 5,762 times
- 2) Article by Maša Bulajić (Bulajić, 2010) “Crisis Communication” was downloaded 3,941 times
- 3) Article by Vladimir Barović (Barović, 2011) “Objectivity, Journalism Ethics and Crisis Reporting” was downloaded 2,009 times
- 4) Article by Paulina Bačić (Bačić, 2010) “Crisis communication and public relations” was downloaded 1,428 times.

¹¹ These data refer to articles available in the Hrčak database.

Other articles are downloaded less than 1000 times. This statistic indicates that users mostly download articles that discuss the subject of crisis communication in a general manner. It can also be concluded that terms such as crisis and crisis communication in the title of the article increase the statistics of reviewing and downloading articles from the database.

3. Qualitative Analysis of Croatian Experts from Agencies and the Academic Community attitudes regarding Crisis Communication

In-depth interviews were conducted¹² in addition to the content analysis of the articles. They were conducted in March and April 2017, on a sample of three experts from the business area and four from the academy¹³. This research aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What can be concluded regarding the interest about crisis communication from the experts' responses?
2. How much is the available literature sufficient for research, scholarly and practical work within crisis communication?

Questions for experts from the academic area included topics such as: teaching about crisis communication, students' interest for the topic of crisis communication, the adequacy and applicability of existing literature, the education regarding crisis communication of examinees. It was concluded that the importance of the subject was recognized and that courses regarding crisis communication were part of the undergraduate and graduate curriculum in private higher education institutions. At VERN' University, Crisis Communication takes place in the fifth semester of the undergraduate study programme in Public Relations and Media Studies and as a compulsory subject in the third semester of the master's degree programme in Business Communication Management. At the Edward Bernays College of Communication Management, crisis communication is a compulsory course on the third year of

¹² The intent of conducting in-depth interviews was to gather information from academics and business professionals related to practical work in the area of crisis communication.

¹³ Questionnaires were sent to a large number of people, and the number that makes up the sample was the number of people who participated in the survey. Experts from the business area were: Daria Mateljak (Hauska and Partners), Zinka Bardić (Madison Consulting) and Krešimir Macan (Manjgura). Experts from academia were: Božo Skoko (Faculty of Political Science), Damir Jugo (Edward Bernays College of Communication Management), Vanja Mladineo and Stana Odak Krsić (VERN 'University of Applied Sciences).

undergraduate study. At the Faculty of Political Science¹⁴, Crisis Communication is studied within the course of the Public Relations, Public Relations Techniques and Public Relations Strategies course, and a separate course exists at the graduate level.

Lecturers assessed how students are motivated and interested in topics of crisis communication. They concluded that there is a clear misunderstanding of the concept of crisis communication among students. The concept is, namely, transposed immediately into a moment of crisis. Students don't know how to communicate before the crisis, are not familiar with risk management issues, creating of preventive plans, etc. It emerges that in the future planning of the lectures on crisis communication it is necessary to emphasize that period.

Experts confirmed the inadequate availability of textbooks on crisis communication in the Croatian language. They think that Croatian professional papers and articles do not cover the topic in sufficient proportions and do not provide enough concrete examples for the better use of the theory. Experts pointed out that they mostly read the literature in foreign languages, especially about prevention in terms of reputation management and strategic selection during the preparation phase. To conclude, it is clear that content enhancement of the subject syllabus and the necessity of increasing the scope of professional and scientific publications are needed.

The above topics are further discussed with experts from the business area. In-depth interviews were conducted with experts whose agencies provide crisis communication services to clients. They personally participated in work on at least ten and at most 40 management and/or counselling cases in crisis management communications. They were in charge for the development of preventive communication plans, risk management and communication before, during and after the crisis. They estimate that in Croatia it is common to deal with crisis communication on a tactical rather than on a strategic level. Strategic planning is often based on copying of another's experience. In the Croatian public crisis communication is often identified with media coaching during the event of a crisis, so the respondents emphasize the lack of awareness of the importance of risk management issues, as well as of the importance of the crisis manuscripts development. The analysis of the respondents has further demonstrated the high interest of business specialists for the education on news and trends. This is probably the consequences of market competition.

¹⁴ Experts from other higher education institutions did not participate in the research, so this interpretation of the results does not include the curricula of the same.

4. Conclusion

According to the findings of the analysis of professional and scientific articles on crisis communication in Croatia over the past ten years, the following was concluded:

- 1) Over the past ten years, there was no systematic approach to the development of this discipline;
- 2) This topic is better researched in conference proceedings than in the journals from the field of communications, marketing and public relations;
- 3) Most of the texts were published in the Croatian language, which indicates insufficient openness to the foreign academic public, and without that, it is unrealistic to expect the development of this discipline in Croatia;
- 4) None of the analysed authors were specialized in the topic of crisis communication;
- 5) Professional papers dominated in number, which further points to weak scientific research and the researching of the topic of crisis communication in Croatia;
- 6) General information texts dominate in articles content and number of downloads and that also indicates insufficient knowledge regarding crisis communication;
- 7) Many of the major crises that Croatia has faced over the past decade have not been addressed in crisis communication at all, and criticism of unsuccessful cases of crisis communication prevails in approach;
- 8) The ethical approach to crisis is almost untouched in Croatian scientific and professional literature, which also indicates inadequate perceptibility of Croatian scientific and professional public towards this discipline.

The results of the in-depth interviews pointed to the correlation with the analysis of articles. More precisely, the existing literature on crisis communication in Croatian language is not sufficient for research, scientific and practical work within this discipline. Consequently, the conclusion of this paper is that crisis communication has not been sufficiently addressed in Croatian literature, starting from the lack of a general situation overview (knowledge of concepts and meanings in organizations and sectors, skills and knowledge of persons in charge of crisis communication, organization level of preparations etc.). Furthermore, there is no development or upgrading of the original thought in crisis communication, authors often only translate, sum up, or cite foreign sources. Also, as noted, there is a lack of systematic approach to case studies, such as analysing more than one crisis by the same parameters, as well as

scientific processing of the ethical dimension of crisis communication. Therefore, in the Croatian scientific and professional literature, a far deeper and more extensive elaboration of this topic is necessary in order to offer a higher number of quality sources to the lecturers at polytechnics and universities.

Finally, research has shown that scientific conferences on crisis communication have a significant impact on the professional and scientific research of this topic. It is therefore necessary to implement regular scientific conferences on this topic. It is also recommended that the Croatian Public Relations Association, in its further activities, devotes greater attention to the education of members on crisis communication because it is apparent from the research results that there is a need for this.

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NEW PARADIGM OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MAN AND SCIENCE AS A PREREQUISITE FOR AWARENESS TRANSFORMATION

Romana Lekić, Ph.D.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

romana.lekic@bernays.hr

Branimir Blajić, M.A.

Lifeclass Terme Sv. Martin, Croatia

branimir.blajic@termesvetimartin.com

Nataša Mance, M.A.

VERN' University of Applied Sciences, Zagreb, Croatia

natasa.mance@bernays.hr

Summary

The global concept of sustainable development and absence of awareness of sustainable development are a significant field of reflection and action, especially in the area of educational paradigms. The change in paradigmatic mind-set indicates the change in the interaction between man and his environment, as well as a change in the educational line of thinking and action. Formal logic often accompanies education and is incurably rigid and static, as it does not take into consideration time and change as obvious elements of everyday human experience. Formal logic is necessary in science for the purpose of naming, describing and classifying, but it observes the world through static objects, which do not experience change. Thus, it encourages the creation of rigid prejudice, self-control and self-limitation in people. The world is observed through black and white optics, either good or bad, and at the psychological level, a direct reflection of such a worldview is the feeling of guilt and fear.

Today, dialectics represent the world's leading worldview in the western, capital-driven world. Dialectic struggle, pressures, competition, conflicts and amassing of material assets and political power needed for the resolution of international 'conflicts' and achievement of future 'civilizational' breakthroughs are characteristic of the business policies of New York's Wall Street and other banking centres as well as of the state policies of major world powers. This paper analyses aspects of the problems of sustainable development, with emphasis on awareness transformation and personal growth. It is a part of research of the matters pertaining to education and professional training as a part of lifelong learning. In it, we show the model of transformation.

Keywords: sustainable development, educational paradigm, mind-set, dialectics, awareness transformation

1. Introduction

Sustainable development is a concept that focuses the attention of human beings on the conditions of continuity of life. Even a utilitarian view of the environment requires that we should understand the principles of sustainable development, the interdependence of environment, economy and social systems, so that we could use natural resources and the environment efficiently, while preserving the homeostasis of the Earth. The society, based on a sustainable form of development, is a dynamic and a permanently changing one. While utilizing natural resources, investment, technological improvement and institutional systems in the process of permanent changes in conformity with the demands of the present and the near future, sustainable development is a way to satisfying the demands and hopes of the present generation without hazarding similar aspirations for future generations.

Polarization, competition and greed for resources which almost led to exhaustion - are the natural results occurring ever since human beings became aware of their intellectual powers – the Cartesian Paradigm – and thus sensed the value of the material world. They believed in their own superiority, which, in time, resulted in the loss of true happiness. This "invasion" of the intellect resulted in dominance of both the animate and inanimate beings as means of supporting life with selfish ends and unsustainable material growth which blocked human beings

from evolving in consonance with nature. Human beings remain hopelessly and deceptively forced to press on, already ill, arriving at a crossroads at the beginning of the third millennium. At this point, human beings must choose a new path in order to avoid the total collapse of the Earth's already fragile life force.

2. Higher Education and Lifelong Learning – Role of Teacher, Pedagogue and Andragogist

Education is generally organized into highly specialized areas of knowledge and traditional disciplines. Designing a sustainable human future requires a paradigm shift toward a systemic perspective emphasizing collaboration and cooperation. Much of higher education stresses individual learning and competition, resulting in professionals who are well prepared for cooperative efforts. Learning is fragmented, and faculty, responding to long-established incentives (e.g., tenure, research) and professional practices, are often discouraged from extending their work into other disciplines or inviting interdisciplinary collaboration.

Lifelong learning has become a familiar term throughout Europe but, as with other concepts that exist in a range of different cultural traditions and contexts, it can mean different things to different people. This paper, according to the role of the teacher – pedagogue and andragogue, defines lifelong learning in two ways. The first one highlights the importance and significance of learning throughout life, as opposed to the type of education directed at school-age and college students. The formal definition of learning implies an exchange between teachers and students in which students are instructed by teachers. Lifelong learning emphasizes the activity of the recipients. It may occur in response to formal instruction but it also takes place in a variety of other settings, including in everyday life, during interactions with other people at cultural events. What characterizes lifelong learning is that it happens everywhere, not simply in schools, colleges, or universities. When it happens in public and cultural spaces, it is through choice rather than through consumption. It often happens informally, without the need of accreditation, qualification, or measurement. Methodologies for working with adult groups are well-established and an educator must have a wealth of experience to use a variety of learning styles.

There is a great difference between children and young people and adult learners (Franjić, 2011): children and young people go to school and college because they have to. Adults are more likely to get involved in learning because they want to know about something that interests them, or because they need to learn about something for their work or for the needs of their families and communities. Learning always has a purpose. It is less about memorizing facts and pre-digested information and more about exploring new ideas and experiences, weighing up the evidence and coming to some tentative conclusions. It involves developing practical skills and discovering hidden talents.

The role of the teacher - pedagogue and andragogist in this process is to be an educator, moderator and healer. That positive shift works toward clarifying priorities and leads to sound creativity. The connection between people trying to solve one problem is based on the synergy of their efforts, skills, and gifts. It doubles the inspiration and improves the feeling of sharing.

This paper concentrates on looking for remedial approaches to correct this lopsided situation (Franjić, 2011), especially in education. The role of the teacher -pedagogue in education is in connecting with the "big picture." The teacher - pedagogue needs to be a moderator, an educator and a healer. The process of education focuses mainly on human emotional and spiritual evolution and implies that an optimal situation can only be reached when a balance is struck between the conscious and unconscious mind in a state of non-duality, and that through continuously oscillating within a fuzzy state.

Education is fundamentally concerned with improving the cognitive abilities of learners (Fullan, 2003). Therefore, higher education providers are constantly searching for the most effective means of developing students' holistic awareness (Jackson, 2006) and creativity is central to this process. There is little doubt that teaching methods have evolved in recent years. Creative teaching is not a new concept and there are numerous teaching aids available to develop competencies relating to creative teaching (William, 1992). Creative teaching methodologies place the student in the centre of the learning process. Creativity in teaching is frequently an unconscious act (Jackson, 2006). Fostering creativity within higher education is a primary goal of both the European University Association (2007) and the Higher Education Authority (2011).

3. Acting and Thinking in Terms of Project Management – Education for Sustainability (EfS)

Education for sustainability (EfS) is emerging as an urgent imperative and challenge for higher education. But what exactly does it mean to put sustainability into higher education? How do we bring sustainability topics into a university curriculum across the enormous diversity of academic disciplines? Hegarty et al. (2011) describe the experience of teaching a large stand-alone EfS subject which sits within the professional contexts of the large first year cohort undertaking it. The author's reflections on the student experience and feedback suggest that while academics build towards a deeply embedded sustainability ethic in higher education, specialist parallel courses have a valuable role to play in the transition to a sustainable future. It is vital that students are equipped with skills and knowledge that will empower them to conceptualize the consequences of change from the threatening outcome of our prevailing unsustainable mind-sets and it is hoped that these new values will then reconnect these individuals with the community and nature.

Jamal, Taillon and Dredge (2011) also underline the necessity of collaborative learning as a progressive, experiential and collaborative approach to sustainable tourism pedagogy (STP). In their article Six core STP illiteracies (technical, analytical, ecological, multi-cultural, ethical, policy and political) are identified, which guide skill and knowledge development for the sustainability practitioner. These are facilitated through experiential education in the field that facilitates critical thinking, practical knowledge and participation. It is argued that a critical reflexive stance combined with a collaborative community service-learning approach in STP enables prognosis (practical wisdom) and practice (social change). A case-study is provided of an academic-community collaboration involving students, local public and private sector stakeholders, plus diverse rural residents that came together temporarily to explore a cultural heritage issue and challenge. This collaboration facilitated collaborative learning, diverse community involvement and community service. The case overview illustrates a teaching opportunity that conveys how some of these STP priorities were tackled, including the need for critical social action (to address not only environmental issues but also social-cultural sustainability issues related to the well-being of minorities, marginalized and diverse populations).

Thinking in terms of project management in EfS involves accumulating efforts and skills for solving a particular problem. In cases where teachers and andragogists are in a position to motivate and inspire, a real interest in the subject of investigation is obligatory. It means that the emotional component should be taken into account. This type of activity allows the focus to switch to the subject of investigation and onto collaborative work.

All participants are in touch. They are open to change because they seek new ideas. They readily accept new ideas, experiences, opportunities and ways of doing things. They integrate changes into an ongoing process. The activity of a teacher and educator is focuses on results. That shifts attention to the most important priorities and stands up for what is right, what is better, what is appropriate and what benefits the project. The collective wisdom of the group and group activities double the excitement and joy all the while sharing ideas. The teacher and educator keep the discussion within the subject and realistic, although a degree of imagination is appreciated.

The peculiarity of this kind of work is personal responsibility for what you are doing and a shared responsibility for the result. It helps to learn from successes and failure and to encourage one another. Such kind of activity assumes a systemic approach to improving the process across disciplines. The participants, together with the moderator and the educator, build collaborative relationships. Thinking in terms of project management is based on the relation between memory and emotions caused by the particular life experience. Each information-processing situation is assumed to result in activation of memory traces and a construction of new memory traces (Padovan, Versace, 1998).

An emotional response to a picture is revealed when it is associated with acquired emotional experiences or if evokes interest because it is not associated with existing emotional experiences. Students and adult learners show surprise when they notice violations of expected events or as a response to discovery. Surprise can reflect both a violation as well as a confirmation of expectancy. Excitement, creativity, and brainstorming all evoke strong emotional response on the part of adults (Franjić, 2011). It leads to semantic trace. It results in activation of memory traces. Repeated experience of the kind benefits creativity and is strongly associated with something inspiring and pleasant with a positive emotional feedback.

4. Systems Thinking as the Method and Path to Personal and Spiritual Development

As a modern approach for problem solving systems thinking was revived after WWII, even though it had been an ancient philosophy. We can track systems thinking back to antiquity and Eastern philosophy. Making a distinction from the Western rationalist traditions of philosophy, Churchman (1968) often identified the I Ching as a systemic approach sharing a frame of reference similar to pre-Socratic philosophy and Heraclites (Jere-Lazanski, 2010, 2011). Systems thinking became a common management tool in the 1990s (Senge, 1994). It was first brought into force in the educational and training area in the form of computer games and later as a tool for decision-making and organizational reengineering. Systems thinking as a method and a way of thinking instructs us in seeing the “whole”, in recognizing patterns and interrelationships and in learning how to structure more effective, efficient and creative conclusions or systemic solutions. Since systems theory derives from biology and biological systems, we will introduce man as a biological system. This way of thinking evolved from analytical thinking to systems thinking, from the state of a physical, emotional and rational being to the state of a systems being: a physical, emotional, rational, spiritual being who is also aware of his inner and outer environment. This is a state in which we can speak of a systems consciousness.

To present systems thinking and the systems point of view of interdependency and interrelatedness among emotional system elements, which influences all other systems of a human being, we build a causal loop diagram CLD (Figure 1).

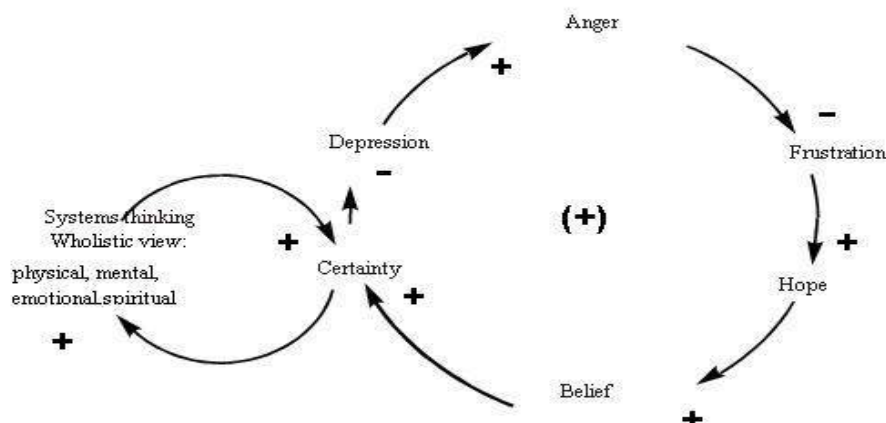


Figure 1. Systems CLD of personal and spiritual growth (Jere-Lazanski, 2011)

The external environment is constantly filled with stressful situations. A human response to stress is often at the level of the flight of fight syndrome, which based on the emotional and mental system. As soon as an individual recognizes his emotions and their system, he starts to see the situation from the systems point of view, from a point of wholeness (Jere-Lazanski, 2008). For example, if a person is depressed he cannot just jump over the emotions of anger, frustration, hope and belief to reach a certain emotion. Through a slow movement from emotion to another the individual recognizes the patterns and structure (deeper meaning) of depression, anger or frustration. This leads him to personal and spiritual growth in the direction of hope, belief and certainty. Certainty is the state in which all main subsystems (physical, emotional, mental and spiritual) of an individual are in harmony and the uncertain environment is accepted as certain.

Human beings are natural systems as well. The role of the andragogist is not only that of the educator and moderator, but also a healer. The act of learning therefore becomes a process of transformation and a form of alchemy. The andragogist is actually a leader and he must first become the leader of his own life before he can teach and lead others. His participants do not only listen to his words, but also “absorb” his energy. Therefore it is crucial that the andragogist is a systemic thinker and his role can be explained as being a part of a system. Wholeness as a “big picture”, peace as a state of systems dynamics, individuality as a part of a whole, harmony as balance, existence and being a part of humanity as a vision; the way to existence we can explain as a process, energy for appearance as a systems dynamics, and the

way of knowing the world as feedback information. The implementation of systems thinking enhances learning processes (Andersen, Richardson, 1997) as is indicated in real cases. In all of this, the understanding of the system increases. What is most important in this process is the fact that people, who think systematically, connect, co-operate, share ideas and co-create the results that benefit local and global communities. Systems thinking represents one's awareness of being a part of a whole, a part of planet on which people are interconnected with other people in a mutual co-creation process. With this awareness, man follows a natural path of evolution and his views of freedom, beauty, harmony, and confidence improve (Jere-Lazanski, 2011). With self-understanding and world-understanding, he becomes detached from the uncertain external world, yet he positively influences it by his inner peace. Living with this consciousness he enriches co-operation with higher thoughts of a co-creation of strong local and global terms for a future that is already here.

According to Scharmer and Kaufer (2016), fundamental problems, as Einstein once noted, cannot be solved at the same level of thought that created them. What we pay attention to, and how we pay attention - both individually and collectively - is key to what we create. What often prevents us from "attending" is what Scharmer calls our "blind spot", the inner place from which each of us operates. Learning to become aware of our blind spot is critical to bringing forth the profound systemic changes so needed in business and society today.

First introduced in Presence, the "U" methodology of leading profound change is expanded and deepened in Theory U. By moving through the "U" process students and adults learners learn to connect to our essential *Self* in the realm of *presencing* - a term coined by Scharmer that combines the present with sensing. Here students and adult learners are able to see their own blind spot and pay attention in a way that allows them to experience the opening of minds, hearts, and wills. This holistic opening constitutes a shift in awareness that allows them to learn from the future as it emerges, and to realize that future in the world.

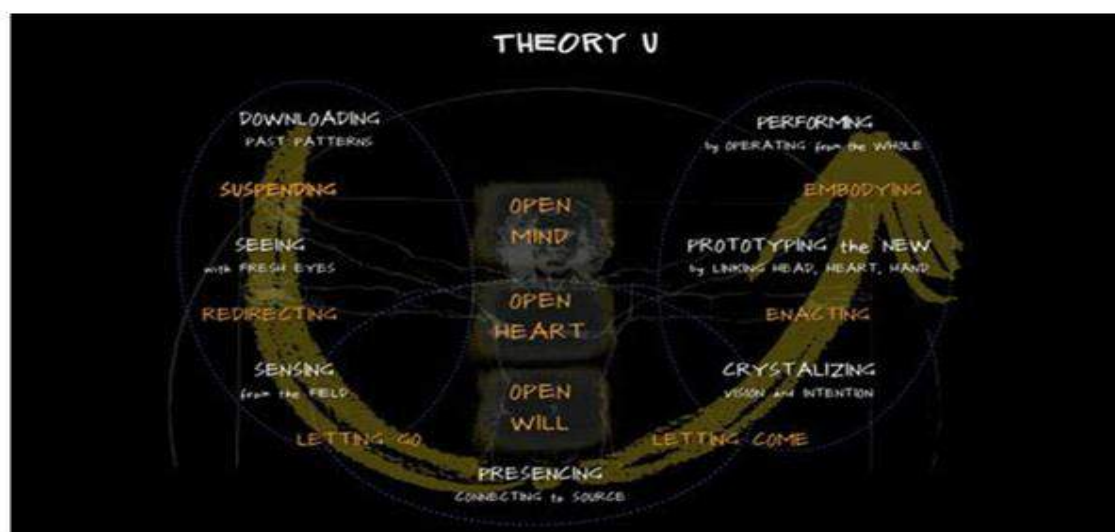


Figure 2. Theory U (Scharmer, Kaufer, 2016)

Theory U explores a new territory of scientific research and personal leadership, one that is grounded in real life experience and shared practices. Students and adults will find themselves drawn to new ways of thinking and acting as they read, completing a parallel journey of exploration and discovery.

5. Creating Harmony: Body and Soul as a New Driving Force

Sustainable development must incorporate different aspects of human ecology, environment and society. Planning requires active participation and inclusion in shaping tomorrow and empowerment is what students and adult learners need in order to make their voices heard.

The basis and background of empowerment can only be information, knowledge of the sustainability practices, so it is of imperative importance that university students are provided interdisciplinary sustainability courses because it is only with the help of transformative pedagogies that learners (and therefore classes and learning communities) can turn into inquisitive, reflective, experienced and critical thinking individuals – the basic unit of a sustainable society. The ultimate value of this process lies in its opportunities for highly effective, competence-driven experiential learning. What individuals learn from their own understanding, observations and discussions makes a much deeper impression and has a

longer lasting effect than any presentation of facts. This interactive approach also contributes to a better development of personal skills and coaching competences.

Using perspective process as a new driving force in creating harmony (Lekić, 2013) offers individual attention within careful group holding participants (students, adult learners) can uncover and combines these levels: inertia, imitation, intuition, imagination and inspiration. No participant is push, each one have the possibility to follow their own place. They can witness themselves as they are mirrored by the others, embracing and embodying their own shapes and movements with the support of the group. They practice moving to reconnect to the core intelligence of body, breath and bone, so tapping in to a more universal intelligence that allows getting better at seeing themselves and other with delight and fascination. This process enables to develop clearer perspective, compassion and respect for the Mystery and vulnerability that connects us all.

It is a sort of *heartbeat map* (Lekić, 2013) and participants will work with five basic emotions - fear, anger, sadness, joy and compassion. This process is practice to find the fluidity from one to another, the honesty of emotion with themselves and others, the clear embodiment that allows participants to stay grounded and centred when a Wave of any emotion passes through them.¹

¹ Following Wallace's theory of classical revitalization (Wallace, 1956, 2003, 2004; Harkin, 2004); Lekić (2013) as a starting point used his model that investigates cultural changes made because of important and often complicated psycho-social changes, as well as changes in the social environment, which were made by new or reinforced contacts with people outside the group. Revitalization movement is actually a direct and organic answer to the conflicting views that a community has about itself and the picture that society has about the group. Although it does not neglect positive interventions of external forces, the revitalization paradigm is more oriented in totality on internal and external forces, fully respecting local stimuli for certain developments. According to Lekić (2013), the perspective process (Heartbeat map) is a movement of revitalization, in that sense the "intentionally organized conscious effort of a society to build a more satisfied culture!" It is a special "phenomenon of cultural change" (Wallace, 1956, 265, 267), stemmed from cultural contact and changes based on influences from outer communities, and is driven by the society's desire to renew ideal cultural values.

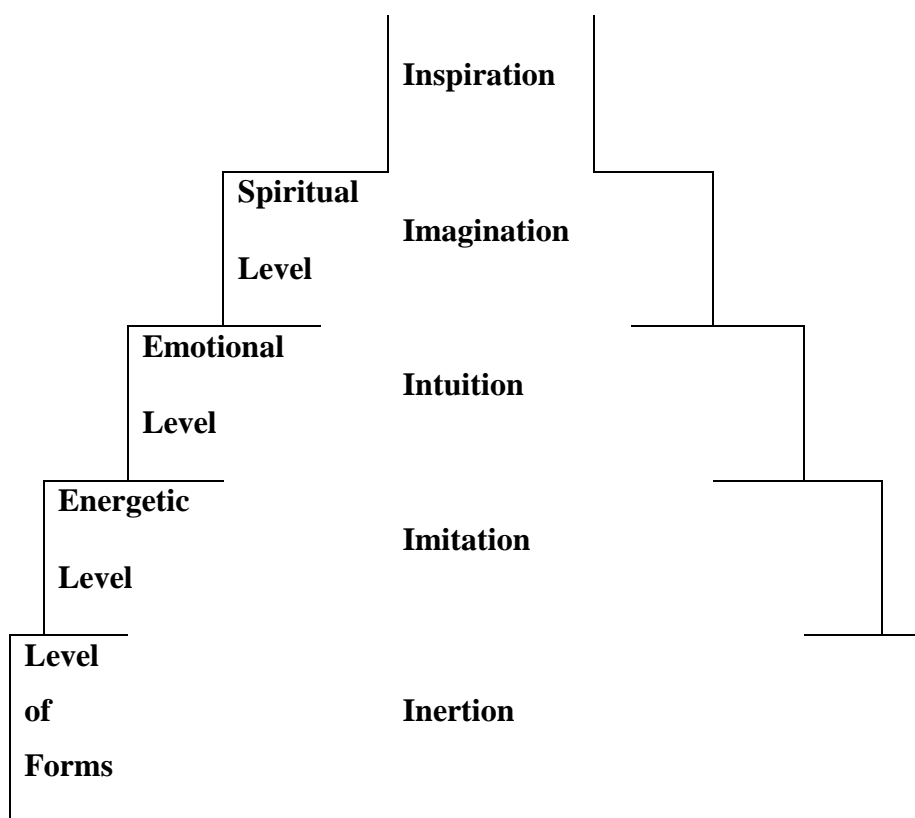


Figure 3. Perspective process (Heartbeat map) (Lekić, 2013)

Inertia, according to Lekić (2013), is the first layer of consciousness. It is the level without movement. It is natural, effortless and entirely pleasant. Inertia is simply a place we have to leave because it is a place where we want our life and all that is waiting for us to be stable, homogenous and predictable. It is much easier to control things when nothing changes around us and when we are living in the safety of the familiar.

Imitation, according to (Lekić, 2013), is the first step in escaping the grip of inertia. It is the level of psychological development in which we tend towards something bigger in our lives and we let ourselves give attention to our own development. Even if this is just admiring someone else's achievements, being exhilarated by some book, lecture or idea. At this phase it is important not to identify oneself with the path and the form, because the journey then becomes a way of life and it suppresses our unique and real nature. It is good if we follow the steps of others because their visions, possibilities and ideals reveal themselves to our inner selves and push and seduce us out of stagnancy. This is why imitation is only a transitional phase and a limited mechanism. The forms created by others are not tailored for ourselves. Trodden paths have rules, traditions and procedures which remain the same and resist change.

Intuition is a phase in which we disperse our illusions and make our way toward the path of the spirit and allow ourselves to release. It is the “shaking up”, as Lekić (2013) said, of a carefully ordered world of imitation and clearly defined pictures of what others think about us. We realized that we are emptied (and liberated) from many structures, beliefs, dogmas and roles. It is a difficult and stormy time not only for us, but for the people around us. Some of us, imprisoned in the worlds of forms and contents, the ego and being, the essence, personality and soul, become lost here. However, when we release ourselves to the chaos of this level of consciousness and release the energy long contained within, we get closer to our essential, real nature – the one we have buried in the phases of inertia and imitation. Only then are we ready to listen and observe ourselves behind the mask.

Imagination is the journey from the depths of chaos with the secure guidance from an intuitive mind. On the other side of disintegration Lekić (2013) said that is the process of reintegration. We return to the structure, system, but now the form is our creation, the reflection of our identity, vision and experience. Imagination is a force which attracts physical, emotional and mental energies in a dynamic harmony. When our imaginative life is rich and creative we are in living contact with the rhythms and messages of our body, heart and mind. It is then that we create art out of our life and it radiates to attract others who also want to live to the full. Imagination includes giving shape to our intuition. It is also has a special quality of mobilizing our natural talents, the actions we perform naturally and well, and our individual fate is the realization of our unique talents. What we truly desire to do is what we really should do.

Inspiration is the phase where conscious creation stops, as Lekić (2013) said. It is pure energy, the complete connection with the life forces that vibrate through us. These are the moments in which we are grounded in our body, pure of heart, clear of mind, rooted in our soul and brimming with energy, the spirit of life. In the inspirational phase we enrich our life with our own rituals. It is natural that we connect ourselves with great myths and symbols because rituals and myths seem like our natural language. It is a spiral without beginning or end. As we get closer to the spirit we become healthier and healthier. Health in the business world means that we and our organization become stronger, happier, more adept in the business game which we will more often win. In this way we fully experience life, the force

which suffuses the matter which constitutes our body. In this way we live and work in a fulfilled life, a life brimming with real joy and peace.

After mastering the mentioned content, the participants (students, adult learners) will be able to:

- use relaxation techniques in order to encourage innovation, release fears and self-motivate
- explain various aspects and interrelations of creativity and sustainability
- compare and analyse different stereotypes, archetypes, prejudices, identities and polarities
- use the skills of improvisation and quick-wittedness
- valuing the different ways of understanding the environment and human ecology
- express one's feelings and readily accept risks
- recognize the archaic language of myths, legends and folk tales
- use various techniques of gathering information and spotting opportunities
- use senses, the telling of stories and the language of the body in the expressing of creative ideas
- develop creative and innovative ideas through visions and missions
- improve development of personal skills and coaching competences
- reconnect to the core intelligence of the body
- develop secure guidance from an intuitive mind
- develop the honesty of emotion with themselves and others
- a shift in awareness that allows them to learn from the future

6. Conclusions

The educational process should take into account the advantages and peculiarities of modern society, especially the peculiarity of the tendency to focus on one's individual success rather than on the needs of the community. The paper has shown that the role of the teacher-pedagogue is to be a moderator, educator and healer in an educational process which focuses on views and convictions rooted in moral standards and which is based on positive life and emotional experiences. This makes it possible to speak about the ways of making learners

think in the terms of the public good. Acting and thinking in terms of project management while solving problems evokes interest in the problem itself, as a thought provoking one, and diminishes concentration on personal success.

The major operating element is the curiosity of a person who is attracted by acting and thinking in terms of project management while solving problems, evoking interest in the problem itself, as a thought provoking one, and diminishing concentration on something usually invisible and intangible to many. Here, the teacher's role comes into play. Inventions, the creation of artistic works, and a variety of expressions of individuals and societies are used to find solutions to problems and to meeting the needs of all to be within a human dimension and to achieve human aspirations. At present, more than ever, and perhaps forever, the role of education is to address the need of a deep social transformation and to maintain it. The pedagogue-teacher must be able to guide students into a sort of metamorphosis in order to pave the way for such a transformation. The road leading to a healthy human evolution, which is presently blocked, must be unblocked. Individual-personal-collective education has to be freed from man-made doctrines.

The university is a microcosm of the larger community. Therefore, the manner in which it carries out its daily activities is an important demonstration of ways to achieve environmentally responsible living and to reinforce desired values and behaviours in the whole community. These activities provide unparalleled opportunities for teaching, research, and learning. By focusing on itself, the university can engage students in understanding the institutional metabolism of materials, goods, services, and transportation and the ecological and social footprint of all these activities. Students can be made aware of their ecological address, and they can and would be actively engaged in the practice of environmentally sustainable living. Moreover, this is one of the most effective strategies to build a strong sense of collaboration and community throughout the institution – a long-standing central goal for college and university administrators and trustees.

Finally, the learning and benefit to society of education forming partnerships with local and regional communities to help make them socially vibrant, economically secure, and environmentally sustainable will be a crucial part of successful higher education. Colleges and universities have an obligation to support local and regional communities, making every action lead to community improvement. Education institutions are anchor institutions for social and

economic development in most of their communities, especially now that the private sector moves facilities, capital, and jobs frequently as mergers, acquisitions, and globalization become the norm for corporations. Imagine the economic leverage if universities were modeling sustainability by purchasing sustainably preferable products and services and how much greater the benefit would be if they were doing joint purchasing with local communities. Utilizing faculty and students to conduct the research as an integral part of the learning experience would greatly enhance their education and promote a strong sense of connection to and caring for the local communities and to the ecosystems of which they are a part.

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MODELS OF DESIGN SCIENCE IN INFORMATION SYSTEMS: A VISUAL OVERVIEW

Sergej Lugović, M.A.

Zagreb University of Applied Sciences, Zagreb, Croatia

slugovic@tvz.hr

Ivan Dunder, Ph.D.

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

ivandunder@gmail.com

Mile Čolić, M.A.

Sector for Insurance Sales, Croatia osiguranje d.d., Zagreb, Croatia

Mile.Colic@crosig.hr

Summary

The aim of this paper is to give a visual overview of the existing models used in design science in information system research. The paper gives a brief literature review and visual presentations of available models that indicate how they developed over time. The authors used design science in information system design as a methodology in their secondary experience research in which they are exploring the possibilities of increasing efficiency and effectiveness of scientific communication by designing a prototype of an information system for that exact purpose. This paper focuses on the visual presentation of models created for the purpose of this paper. By using the same design in presenting the selected models, the authors will facilitate the comparison, analysis and application of these models.

Keywords: design science, information systems, secondary experience, scientific communication, information and communication science

1. Introduction and Related Work

In today's communication humanity largely depends on information systems. Understanding the discipline of the application of design science in information system development can be beneficial to everyone involved in the entire communication process.

According to Fuller and Kuromiya (1992),

“the function of what I call design science is to solve problems by introducing into the environment new artefacts, the availability of which will induce their spontaneous employment by humans and thus, coincidentally, cause humans to abandon their previous problem-producing behaviours and devices. For example, when humans have a vital need to cross the roaring rapids of a river, as a design scientist I would design them a bridge, causing them, I am sure, to abandon spontaneously and forever the risking of their lives by trying to swim to the other shore.”

The main goal of any design is to solve problems but, at the same time, to introduce new artefacts. In terms of information systems design, one has to design artefacts that solve a problem by processing information. According to Simon (1996) such systems

“are almost the quintessential artefacts, for adaptivity to an environment is their whole *raison d'être* [reason for existence]. They are goal-seeking, information-processing systems, usually enlisted in the service of the larger systems in which they are incorporated... It [a symbol system] must have means for acquiring information from the external environment that can be encoded into internal symbols, as well as means for producing symbols that initiate action upon the environment. Thus it must use symbols to designate objects and relations and actions in the world external to the system [...].”

Speaking about artefacts, Simon (1996) further tells that they could be understood as a meeting point, or interface, between inner environment (substance and organization of artefacts) and outer environment (surroundings of the artefacts). If there is a fit between the two, then the artefact serves its purpose. One can use the example of scabs on the skin: scabs stay on the skin as long as a human (a system) needs them; but as soon as the skin below them recovers, scabs will fall off.

Also, it is important to distinguish the dynamics of systems in terms of openness. Hughes (1983) pointed out that the system first “incorporate[s] the environment into the system, thereby eliminating sources of uncertainty”. In this stage, the systems are open, but then they move towards a closed state. In processing environment uncertainty, the system becomes more closed, since there is no new information to process. But as the system becomes more closed, it needs to spend more energy controlling the internal properties by using bureaucracy,

routine procedures and deskilling. With regards to the aforementioned scab, as long as the system makes sense and creates value, it is of use, but as it loses meaning in terms of reduction of uncertainty, it will become obsolete.

According to Simon (1996) such artefacts are artificial and synthesised by human beings; they imitate appearances in natural things, while lacking the reality of the latter, and are characterised in terms of functions, goals and adaptation. While they are designed, they are discussed in terms of imperatives as well as descriptives.

There exist two major scientific paradigms in information systems (Hevner et al., 2004). One is a behavioural science paradigm and has roots in natural science. It deals with the development of theories that explain or predict organisational and human phenomena, whereas design decisions used in the development of information systems affect such a paradigm. The other paradigm is a design science paradigm and has roots in engineering and the science of artificial. It is a problem-solving paradigm, but solving of problems cannot be free from natural laws or behavioural theories (Hevner et al., 2004).

So information system design has two complementary phases. First, behavioural science addresses research through the development and justification of the theories that explain or predict phenomena – and the goal is truth. Design follows this phase in which science addresses research through the building and evaluation of artefacts – and the goal is utility (Hevner et al., 2004).

What then is design science in information systems? Design is the process (set of activities) and products (artefacts). It describes the world as acted upon (process) and as sensed (product). Evaluation of the artefact provides feedback, which is used to improve the design process and the quality of the product. By doing so, it improves the theories the design is based on (Hevner et al., 2004).

According to Venable (2006), “design science is an inventive or creative, problem solving activity, one in which new technologies are the primary products... Theory should be a primary output and that theory and the activity of theorising need to play a central role in the advancement of design science research in information systems (as well as in other fields).

Guidelines for design science in information system research, as proposed by Hevner et al. (2004), are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Design science research guidelines (Hevner et al., 2004)

Principle	Brief description
Design as an artefact	Design-science research must produce a viable artefact in the form of a construct, a model, a method, or an instantiation.
Problem relevance	The objective of design-science research is to develop technology-based solutions to important and relevant business problems.
Design evaluation	The utility, quality and efficacy of a design artefact must be rigorously demonstrated via well-executed evaluation methods.
Research contributions	Effective design-science research must provide clear and verifiable contributions in the areas of the design artefact, design foundations and/or design methodologies.
Research rigor	Design-science research relies upon the application of rigorous methods in both the construction and evaluation of the design artefact.
Design as a search process	The search for an effective artefact requires using available means to reach desired ends while satisfying laws in the problem environment.
Communication of the research	Design-science research must be presented effectively both to technology-oriented as well as management-oriented audiences.

2. Models of Design Science

The authors of this paper selected important models from 1990 until 2007 and presented them visually in this paper. The models were selected based on their relevance, on the number of citations, and on how these models are applicable in real-life projects. The models were organised with respect to their chronological order and were evaluated by employing the authors' experience in the field of implementation and development of information systems. Since there is limited space, and the focus is entirely on the visual presentation of the chosen models, the authors will consider each of the models briefly, followed by discussion and conclusion. The main goal of this paper is to present the models visually in order to enable a clear and simple analysis and comparison. The authors of this paper redrew each of the selected models for that purpose. Furthermore, a short description is given for every model, pointing out its major purpose.

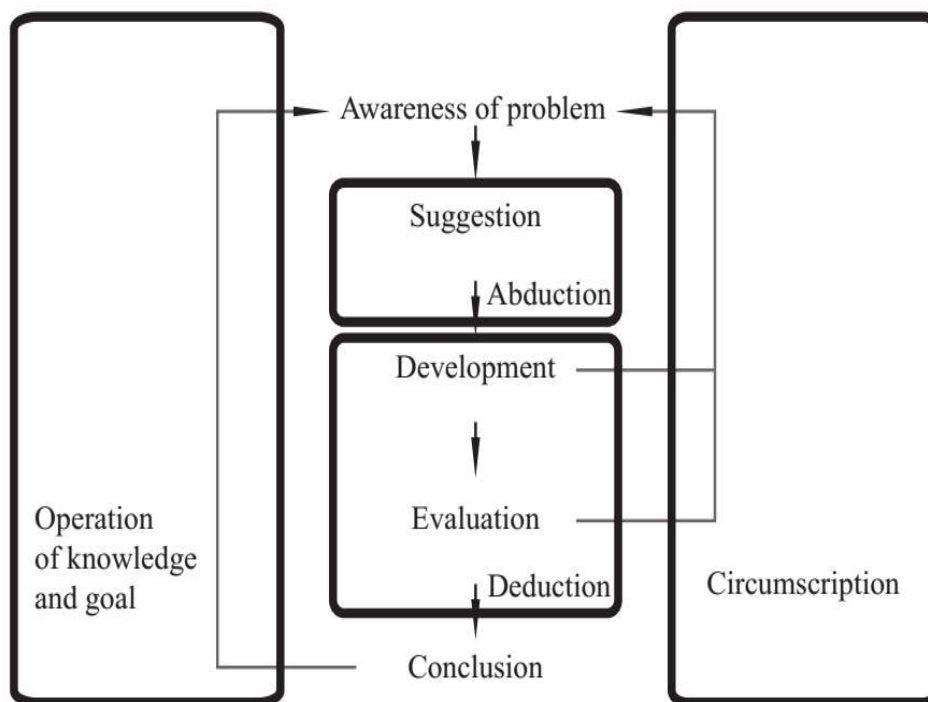


Figure 1. Modelling the design process (Takeda et al., 1990)

In Figure 1 one can see three main groups of activities: one is operation of knowledge and goal that relates to the “soft” factors of the design process (Takeda et al., 1990). Another aspect relates to the central part of the model, and it describes the process of abduction and deduction in terms of the artefact’s design. Circumscription is shown at the right side – it helps to solve an inconsistency found during the process of deductive reasoning.

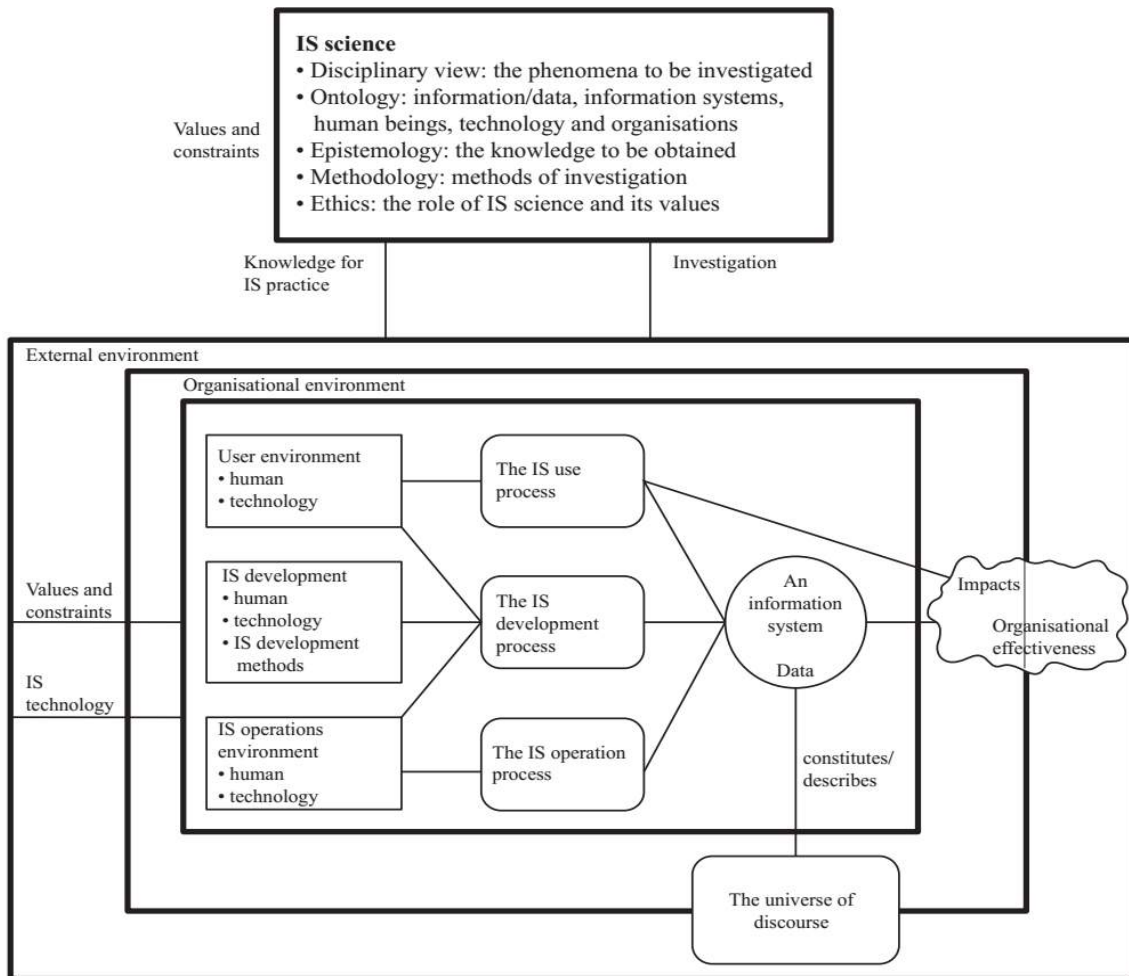


Figure 2. Different schools of information system development (Iivari, 1991)

Figure 2 presents different schools of information system development and is one of the first works that covers different approaches and synthesises them into one framework (Iivari, 1991). It separates information systems science which consists of a disciplinary view, ontology, epistemology, methodology and ethics. On the lower part of the figure, the organisation is the space for information system design. There is a clear separation between the organisation's external and internal environment. There is also a distinction between information system development, use and operations. What is important in this framework is that the technology is an external variable to the information system on the one side, and organisational effectiveness on the other side of the model.

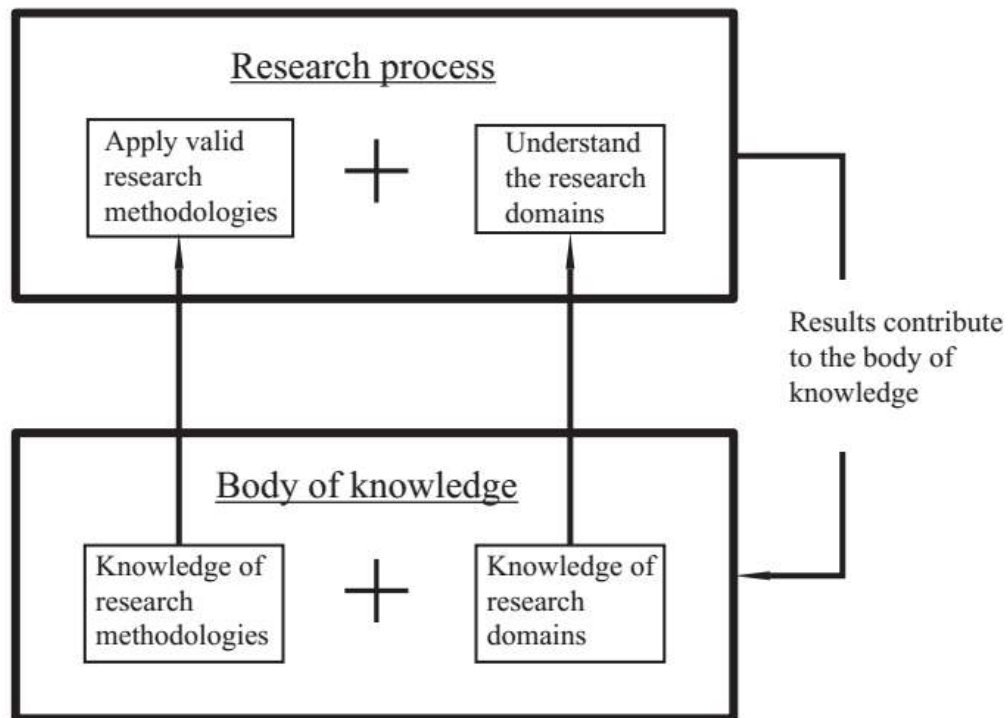


Figure 3. System development in information system research (Nunamaker, Chen, Purdin 1991)

Figure 3 shows that two worlds exist in parallel. One relates to the research process and the other to creation of the body of knowledge (Nunamaker, Chen, Purdin, 1991). In terms of research, Nunamaker, Chen and Purdin (1991) propose two important areas – application of research methodologies and understanding research domains. In terms of creating new knowledge, there is a necessity for knowledge related to research methodologies and knowledge about the research domain. So the main difference between the two is applying and understanding what relates to the research process, and the methodological and domain knowledge what relates to the creation of knowledge. The output from the research process is new knowledge. If there are no strong fundamentals as an input in the research process, the contribution of the output can be questioned.

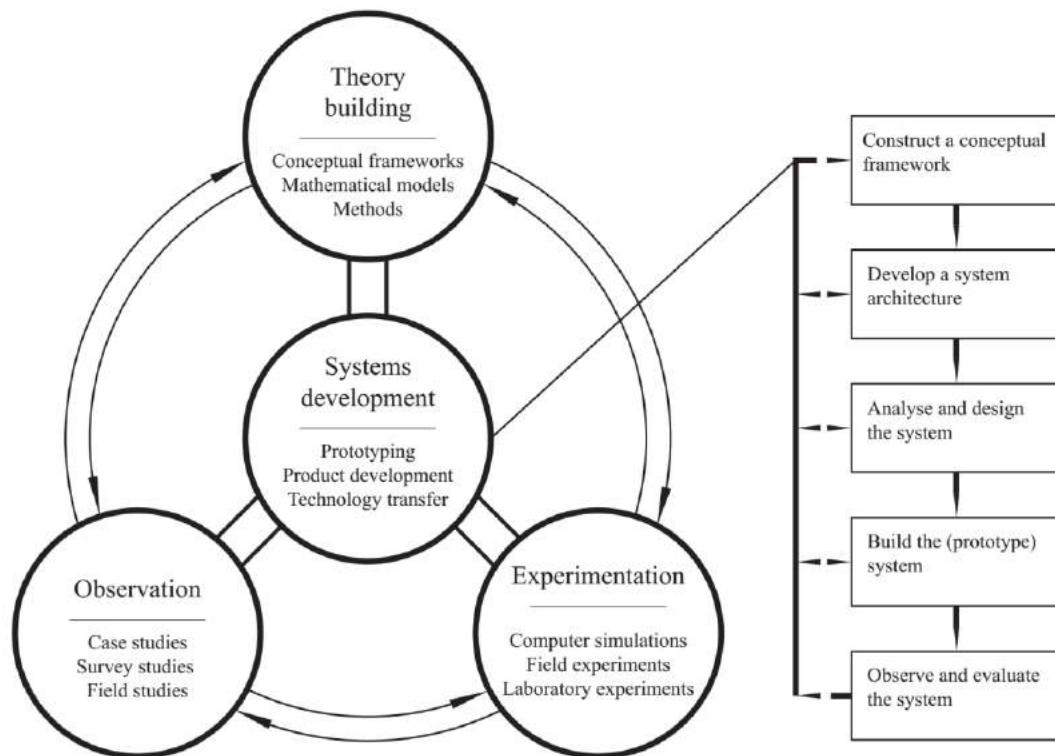


Figure 4. Multi-methodological approach in information system and process in system development research (Nunamaker, Chen, Purdin, 1991)

Nunamaker, Chen and Purdin (1991) developed their viewpoint further by proposing a multimethodological approach in the information system process, as shown in Figure 4. It consists of observation, theory building and experimentation. In the view of the authors of this paper, this is a very powerful framework which covers interrelated activity in the process of gaining insights into the phenomena that include observing, allowing the building of the artefact, and developing theories. Users can perform those activities in different time sequences (i.e. observation, experimentation and theory; or observation, theory and experimentation). In the centre of the model is system development, whereas observation, theory and experimentation contribute to this part of the model. The information system development process description is as follows: construct a conceptual framework, develop a system architecture, analyse and design the system, build a prototype of the system and then observe and evaluate such a system. All different steps in this process have related research issues.

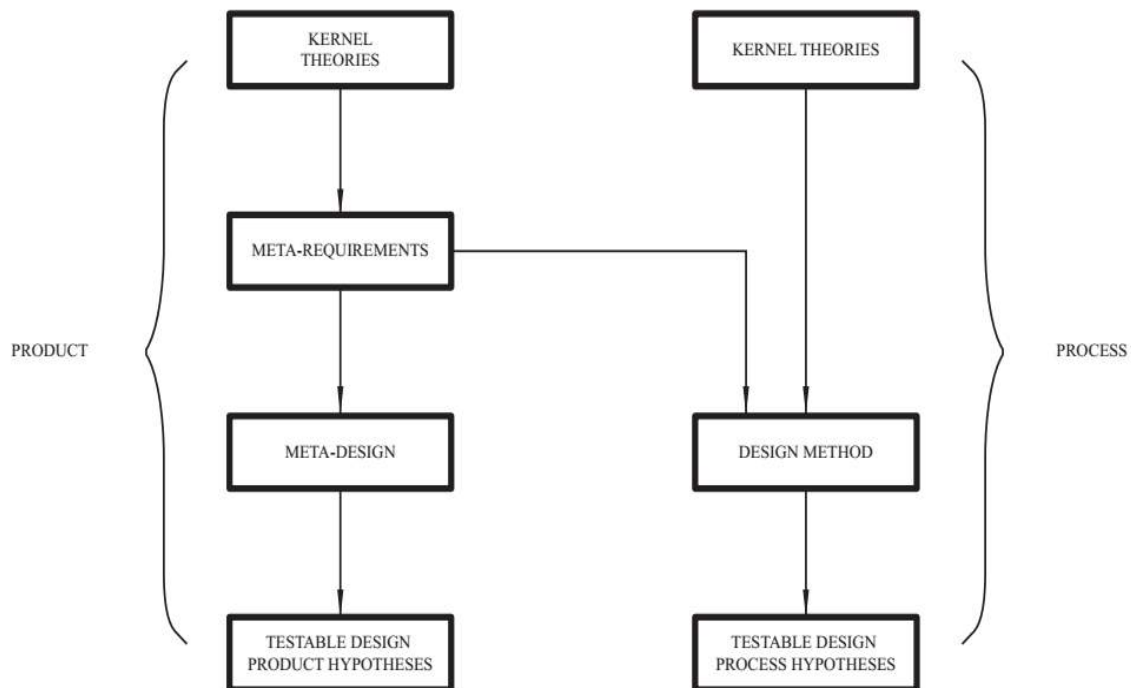


Figure 5. Components of the information system theory (Walls, Widmeyer, El Sawy, 1992)

Figure 5 shows an evident, clear distinction between the product and the process with associated activities (Walls, Widmeyer, El Sawy, 1992). Related to the product are kernel theories, meta-requirements and design, and testable design product hypotheses. Related to the process are also kernel theories, design methods, and testable process hypotheses. Since we are dealing with the information system and its role as an information processor, it is important to understand it as a set of activities different from the artefact itself (or product according to Walls, Widmeyer, El Sawy, 1992). The connection between the two are meta-requirements that influence the design method. So when developing meta-requirements, one could go for the information system that is able to process the different kinds of information, depending on the system needs. The authors of this very paper believe that this is a major strength of this model, since it is useful in the process of designing adaptive systems that can “work out” different uncertainties from the environment, depending of the socio-technical system behaviour. If one needs to redesign an information system every time there is a new uncertainty from the environment, then the organisation could potentially experience problems in terms of efficiency and effectiveness of operations.

Research activities		Build	Evaluate	Theorise	Justify
Research outputs	Construct				
	Model				
	Method				
	Instantiation				

Figure 6. Research framework in information systems (March, Smith, 1995)

Figure 6 shows one of the most important models used in the domain of design science in information systems (March, Smith, 1995). It is also fundamental for a widely used Business Model Canvas (Osterwalder, 2004; Osterwalder, Pigneur, 2010), which is being utilised for the purpose of designing business models in contemporary technology-based start-ups in recent years. This model focuses on the research outputs of research activities. Main outputs that could come out of the information system design processes are construct, model, method and instantiation (i.e. the final information system). Research activities can be divided into two different groups, one rooted in design science (build and evaluate) and another rooted in natural science (theorise and justify).

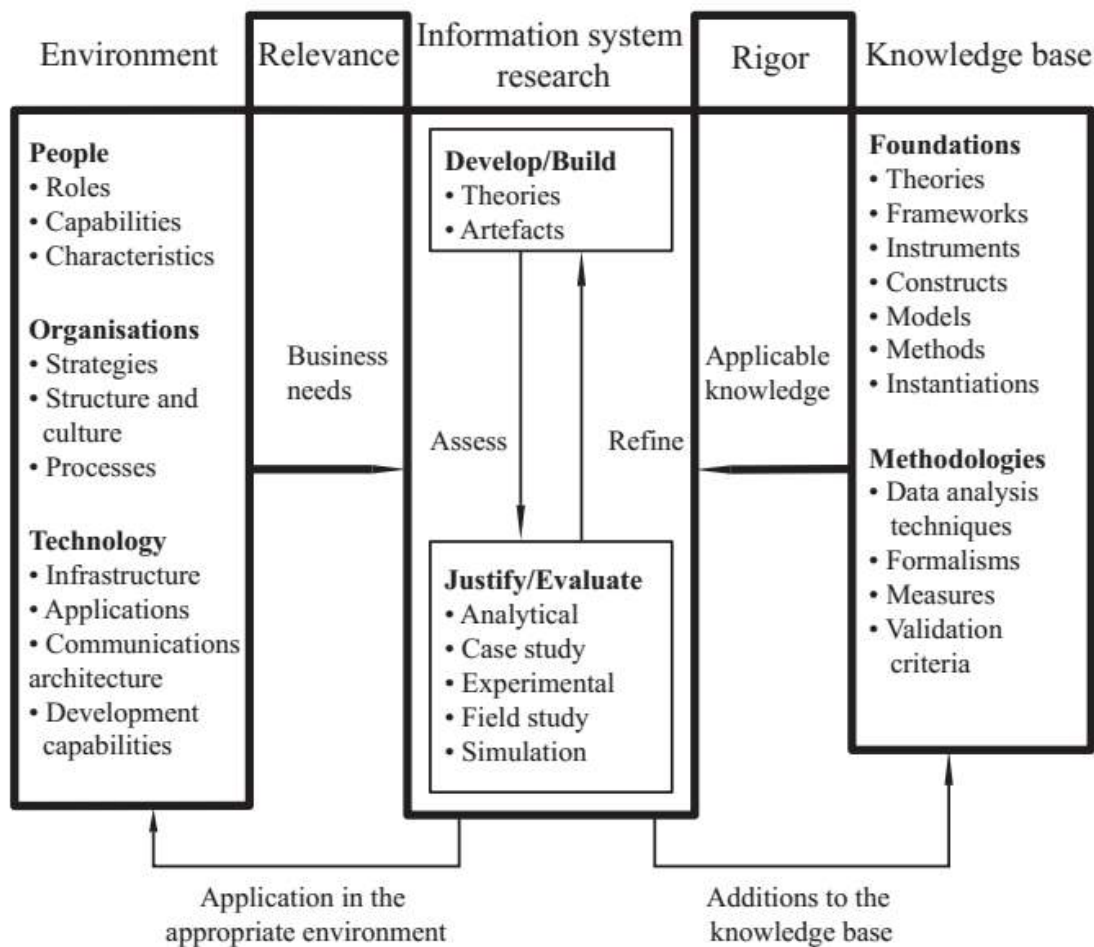


Figure 7. Information systems research framework (Hevner et al., 2004)

In Figure 7, the authors present one of the most extensive frameworks proposed so far (Hevner et al., 2004). This model also generated lots of discussions, has many citations and is the most widely used in the design process of information systems. It could be understood as three cycles (Hevner, 2007): relevance, rigor and design cycle. The design cycle is the one in the middle, and relates to the design of an information system as an artefact itself. The rigor cycle is the area on the right side of the figure, and relates to theories, methodologies and instantiations. On the left side is the relevance cycle, and it relates to people (i.e. the users of the information system), organisations, and technological aspects that (could) influence the process of designing the information system.

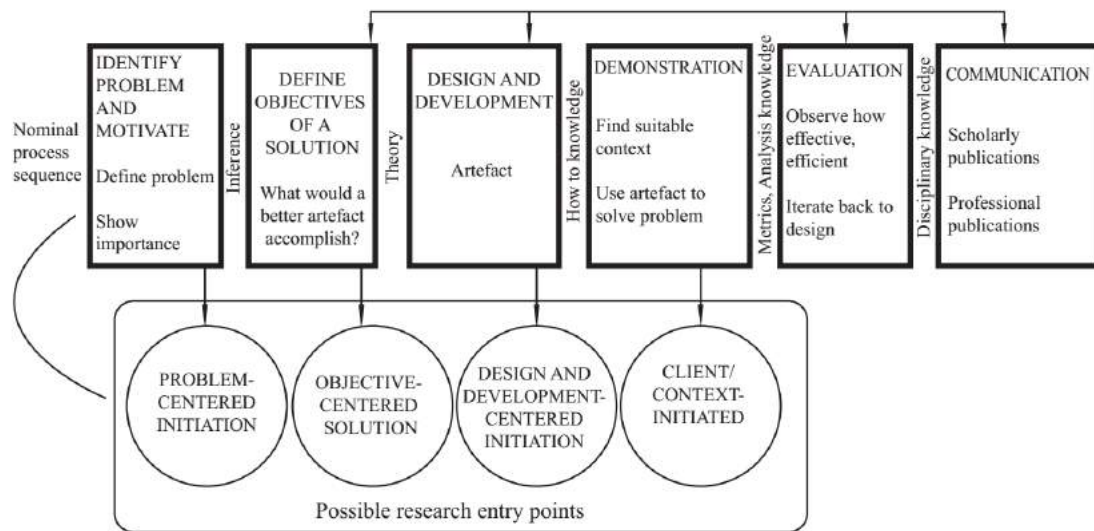


Figure 8. Design Science Research Methodology (DSRM) process model (Peffer et al., 2008).

In Figure 8, the authors of this paper propose the methodology for the design science research according to the paper of Peffer et al. (2008). In the view of the authors of this very paper, this work is complementary with the framework presented in Figure 7. Figure 8 shows that, in this case, the steps are executed in sequence, while Hevner et al. (2004) describe the entire framework and give an overview. The authors believe that the strength of this methodology is that there are different entry points available to start the design process. This is important because it could be applied in different contexts that could trigger needs for the design of an information system. They could be problem-related, objective solutions (for a better information system), necessary to design information system artefacts, or client/context-oriented for designers to use with already existing artefacts in order to solve a problem.

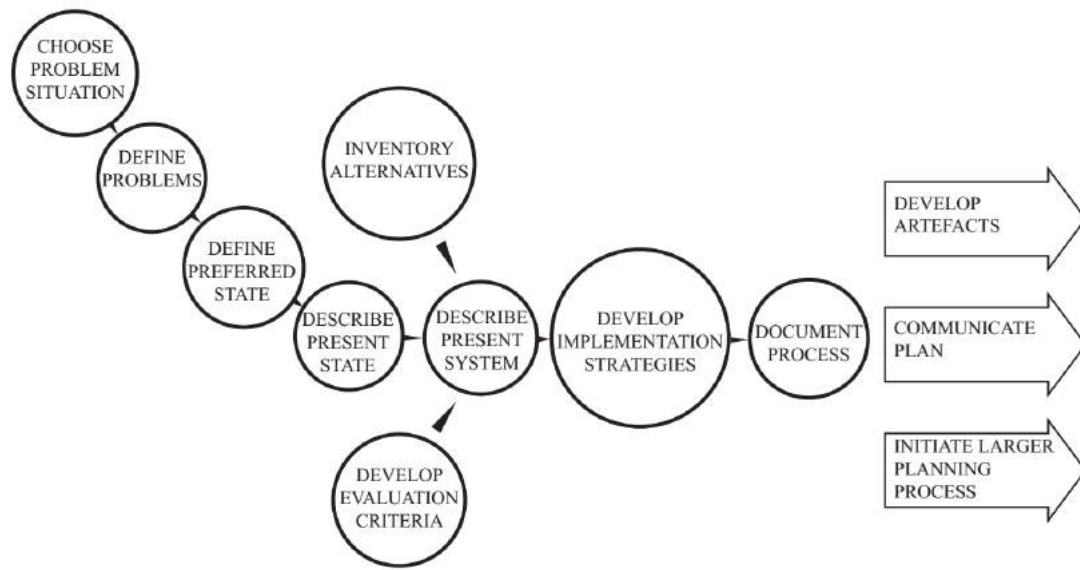


Figure 9. Design Science Primer

As a last model in this paper, the authors would like to present the Design Science Primer, which is being used at the Buckminster Fuller Institute (Brown, Cook, Gabel, 1978). The authors of this paper believe that including this fundamental model is essential in this visual overview of models of design science in information systems, and an analysis of the selected models presented in this paper shows that only Peffers et al. (2008) refer to this work in their paper.

In other papers, there is no reference to the Design Science Primer and the work of Buckminster Fuller, but to the influential book by Simon (1996). In this primer, the process starts with a problem, followed by the definition of problems and the design preparation. As an output, there are three directions: one is to develop artefacts, another is to communicate the plan, and the third is to integrate the new design into existing ones.

3. Discussion

There is one paradox in the field of designing information systems. As the authors already stated above, the design of information systems consists of social and behavioural science related competencies, and design and engineering science. In social science, for the purpose of the evaluation of technical systems, the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is widely used (Venkatesh, Davis, 2000; Venkatesh et al., 2003). The Technology Acceptance Model proposes variables such as “perceived usefulness” and “ease of use”, which are both variables that influence attitudes towards using technology. Those variables are related to the behavioural intention to use the information system. But there is no technology mentioned.

Hevner et al. (2004) state, “We include not only instantiations in our definition of the IT artefact but also the constructs, models, and methods applied in the development and use of information systems. We do not include people or elements of organizations in our definition nor do we explicitly include the process by which such artefacts evolve over time.” So there is a theoretical gap, as social science does not include technical aspects, and design science does not include social aspects.

To overcome this gap, the authors of this paper would like to point to the recent work of Lee, Thomas and Baskerville (2013). Lee was the editor of MIS Quarterly when Hevner et al. (2004) published their influential paper. In his recent work, he proposed going back to the basics, i.e. to the paradigms of socio-technical systems, where he points out that information systems consist of social, technological and informational components, which are not separate but interrelated.

Similar views are shared by Orlikowski and Scott (2008) from MIT. They indicated that the social component of information systems changes according to the patterns of behaviour, and there is an inherent inseparability between the technical and the social.

Human and material agencies share building blocks of routines and technologies, but by being isolated, neither of them (human or material agencies) is important. Important is the moment when they become imbricated, i.e. interlocked in a particular sequence, and as a whole they produce, sustain or change routines and technologies (Leonardi, 2011).

And this is exactly what the research in the socio-technical paradigm, which addresses the complexity of real situations, should observe, instead of analysing separate aspects (Ropohl, 1999).

The authors of this paper use, as a point of departure, the primary and secondary experiences proposed by John Dewey (1929). The primary experience is the one with a “minimum of incidental reflection”, while a secondary experience is “what is experienced in consequence of continued and regulated reflective inquiry... experienced only because of the intervention of systematic thinking”. Dewey contrasted two different kinds of experience, primary and secondary, proposing that objects in the secondary experience “get the meaning contained in a whole system of related objects; they are rendered continuous with the rest of nature and take on the import of the things they are now seen to be continuous with”.

In the view of the authors of this paper, the primary object in designing an information system is the one in which the observed object is excluded from the context with other objects, while secondary objects are those objects which are observed as a part of the higher-level system, consisting of the object itself and its relationships and behaviour in interaction with other related objects. Such a higher-level system includes not only an information system itself, but also its users and their information behaviour observed as a whole.

The authors would also like to present one more aspect of design science in information systems – twelve theses on design science research in information systems, proposed by Iivari who is one of the opponents of applied science (Iivari, 2010). The mentioned theses are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Iivari's twelve theses on design science research in information systems (Iivari, 2010)

1. Information Systems are ultimately an applied discipline.
2. Prescriptive research is an essential part of Information Systems as an applied discipline.
3. The design science activity of building IT artefacts is an important part of prescriptive research in Information Systems.
4. The primary interest of Information Systems lies in IT applications, and therefore Information Systems as a design science should be based on a sound ontology of IT artefacts and especially of IT applications.
5. Information Systems as a design science builds IT meta-artefacts that support the development of concrete IT applications.
6. The resulting IT meta-artefacts essentially entail design product and design process knowledge.
7. Design product and design process knowledge, as prescriptive knowledge, forms a knowledge area of its own and cannot reduce to the descriptive knowledge of theories and empirical regularities.
8. Constructive research methods should make the process of building IT meta-artefacts disciplined, rigor-

ous, and transparent.
9. Explication of the practical problems to be solved, the existing artefacts to be improved, the analogies and metaphors to be used, and/or the kernel theories to be applied is significant in making the building process disciplined, rigorous, and transparent.
10. The term “design theory” should be used only when it is based on a sound kernel theory.
11. Information Systems as a design science cannot be value-free, but it may reflect means-end, interpretive, or critical orientation.
12. The values of design science research should be made as explicit as possible.

As a response, Hevner (2007) wrote a commentary paper stating that

“Pragmatism is a school of thought that considers practical consequences or real effects to be vital components of both meaning and truth. Along these lines I contend that design science research is essentially pragmatic in nature due to its emphasis on relevance; making a clear contribution into the application environment. However, practical utility alone does not define good design science research. It is the synergy between relevance and rigor and the contributions along both the relevance cycle and the rigor cycle that define good design science research.”

Another contribution is in a recent paper by Järvinen (2015) who recognised and proposed some essential phases in the design research process. The phases are “beginning” (problem definition), “actual research project”, its “end” (various outcomes, e.g. knowledge and instantiations) and its “evaluation”. He developed a set of questions related to the proposed phases:

- Question A: What is a research problem of design research and how can it be stated?
- Question B: Which kind of knowledge does design research produce?
- Question C: Which kind of innovations will design research produce?
- Question D: How can we specify the effectiveness of design research?

By exploring the literature, the authors noticed that design science research in information systems is a lively field that is still in the process of formation. But as humanity depends more on information systems, there is a clear need for having in place rigorous methods and methodologies that can, at the same time, help generating new knowledge as a result of the process of designing artefacts. And such knowledge then could help people to create better artefacts. But what should not be forgotten is that those artefacts are the result of the social needs, and they influence how humans evolve and progress along the way.

4. Conclusion

The authors of this paper face the iconic chicken-egg problem, i.e. they try to answer the question “which came first – the chicken or the egg?” in this particular context. As one can see, there are two aspects in the design of every information system – social and technical.

One can assume that the chicken is the technical, and that the egg is the social aspect. The authors believe that these two could be related, and that the complex relationship is actually a phenomenon which can be observed. Every new state of any social system needs new information processing capacities, and every technical system that processes information must have a social system that feeds data to this process. So this relation comes first, and without it there is no chicken (technical) or egg (social).

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TITLE OF THE PAPER: FASHION AS A MEANS OF COMMUNICATING AND EXPRESSING POLITICAL VIEWS

Martina Pandžić Skoko, M.A.

Millenium promocija, Zagreb, Croatia

martina.pandzic.skoko@mpr.hr

Marija Volarević, Ph.D. Candidate

Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

marija@edemokracija.hr

Summary

The central premise of this paper is grounded in the idea that fashion serves as a means of identification and expression of individuality and attitude. The premise, and by extension, the underlying idea, are espoused in this work through analyzing fashion in terms of its interdependence with politics and in the context of fashion as a vehicle for expressing discontent with the prevalent trends promoted by the political establishment. The ways in which fashion is utilized as a means of communication and a means of expressing indignation towards politicians and their decisions will be shown through a number of case studies. The main thrust of this work will focus on major show business events (like the Oscars and the Golden Globe Awards) which provide the stage (pun not intended) to famous people for sending symbolic messages. It is important to mention that many famous people have availed themselves of the opportunity and it is fair to say that the practice has become a trend. This paper especially analyses the period immediately prior to and after the election of Donald Trump as President of the United States of America. The period in question pertains neatly to the subject matter of this paper because it marks an important landmark of the mentioned phenomenon because Donald Trump in his election campaign did not pull any punches and steered his candidacy directly into the realm of controversy and, as a result, provoked a vocal and, in cases, violent backlash from a significant portion of the electorate. Fashion has always

played an important role in society and has often manifested itself as a reaction to political or social movements and events. From this particular bird's eye view, fashion is closely intermingled with politics and as such plays not an inconsiderable role in the shaping of society. Moreover, if fashion is used as a means of communication in politics, it inevitably draws a lot of media attention and, more often than not, provokes public dissent and forces political decision makers to react.

Keywords: fashion, politics, communication, United States of America, celebrities, Donald Trump

1. Introduction

Fashion and clothing have always been a means of identification, conveying meaning and expressing one's individuality and attitude. The Secretary General of the French Women's Ready-To-Wear Federation, Francois-Marie Grau in her work *Histoire du costume* (2013, 7) claims that the long cherished idea that "the main function of clothing has always been to protect the wearer from the elements crumbles ignominiously under rigorous historical research and that the same research points to the following conclusion: the main function of clothing, according to Roland Barthes, is to *mean something*". Grau (2013, 7) adds that "clothing and wearing of clothing items harbor a whole plethora of inherent meanings and have served that particular function from time immemorial".

From the age of the ancient Greeks and Romans, the Ptolemies and Cleopatra to modern times, people have used fashion and clothing as tools for identifying with a given social or political group. Not only did fashion throughout history propel a number of political figures into the limelight but it also served as an important means of expression associated with some of the most important cultural movements and art periods like the Baroque period, the Renaissance, modernism... For this reason fashion cannot be perceived only through the aspect of style. One would be remiss if one did not, when considering fashion in its various functions, take into account fashion's potential to be a consequential bearer of meaning, messages and information. However, some theoreticians insist on differentiating fashion and clothing. The philosopher Gilles Lipovetsky (2002, 16) explains that "fashion is a certain form of social change, independent of a particular object. Fashion is, first and foremost, a

social mechanism characterized specifically by a short time span and more or less fickle changes that enable it to exert influence on ordinarily disparate spheres of collective existence". Lipovetsky (2002) is of the opinion that clothing, as a physical expression of fashion should be understood as just one phenomenon among many. On the other hand, the art historian Anne Hollander (1992, 350) defines fashion as a "wide array of attractive clothing styles relevant at a given moment and that includes *haute couture*, all forms of anti-fashion clothing items and accessories of people who claim to have no interest in fashion whatsoever". Elizabeth Wilson (2007, 3) in her book *Adorned in Dreams* defines fashion in similar terms: "fashion is clothing, the central feature of which is rapid and continuous change of styles. Fashion, in a sense, is change and in modern society no clothing item exists outside the scope of fashion." The renowned semiotician Roland Barthes' (1990) opinion regarding the issue is interesting; he asserts that "clothing is the material base of fashion, whilst fashion, in and of itself, is the cultural *system of meaning*". There are many different perceptions of fashion and clothing but one term is usually contextualized by the other and this paper will adhere to that convention.

If fashion is a language, therefore a means of communication, clothing is a medium through which we convey messages to other people. Galović (2001, 84) holds the view that "all groups within our society as well as individuals existing within the scope of society communicate with one another by way of clothing or fashion statements". Therefore, Galović (2001, 84) explains that they communicate in the language of clothing "through the symbolism of emblems, insignia, fashion accessories, pendants, decorations, makeup, colors, shapes, including any given shape of mustaches, hairdo, beard etc., clothing is a bearer of meaning, messages and information". Barnard (2011, 4) mentions that "fashion communication as expression is the idea that something going on inside someone's head, individual intention, is somehow externalized and made present in a garment or an ensemble. It may also be the idea that entire cultures can express themselves in or through what members wear." Fashion has always played a vital role in terms of the shaping of society, and as such has always been closely tied with politics, and often manifested itself as a reaction to political and social events in the world. In that, sense fashion could be seen as a potent political tool. Starting with the premise that fashion is an expressive means of communication, the aim of this paper is to showcase its importance in political communication. Media outlets focus attention not only on political decisions and consequences thereof, but also on the attires

of politicians and celebrities. Celebrities often use the media attention lavished on them to sport certain costumes and accessories (T-shirts, dresses, hats, brooches...) so as to send a message to politicians with the aim of expressing rebellion, stirring controversy or showing support for a cause. The importance of fashion in political communication was also stressed by Brian McNair (2003, 12) who states that “political communication encompasses not only verbal or written statements but also visual means of expression such as textiles and costumes, makeup, hairdo, logos; all elements of communication that together form a political image or identity”.

For that reason, the aim of this paper is to portray fashion and clothing styles as an important communication tool in conveying messages and expressing political views of important people and celebrities after the election of Donald Trump as President of the United States of America. This paper, in the form of a case study, will analyze the most important events in the world of show business in the period after Donald Trump’s assumption of power. The goal of this paper is to answer the following questions: has fashion played an important role in conveying messages issued by celebrities after Donald Trump’s inauguration in 2016, and what was the predominant context in which fashion and clothing have been used as a means of communication – as a communication tool expressing rebellion and stirring a crisis or as an affirmative tool of communication? On the one hand, politicians, with the way they usually dress, communicate their affluence and power and make strong statements of intent. On the other hand, citizens (mostly activists) use clothes to attract media attention and send a message to politicians and the masses. This work is based on the premise that the power of mass media, especially, television, and the development and popularization of social media, have given a strong impetus and platform for the assertion of fashion and clothing as tools of political communication. This paper, through an analysis of the clothing styles displayed and nonverbal messages made by celebrities and covered by the media after Donald Trump came to power in 2016, will show just how much power and influence can be exerted by a style of clothing in terms of sending political messages through the media. The aim is to present how celebrities and public figures do not necessarily need to verbalize their points of view and attitudes but can express them, utilizing the power of the media, in a nonverbal fashion through a clothing style and their sense of fashion.

2. Theoretical Part

2.1. Fashion as an Important Communication Tool

For centuries people have used the language of fashion to express race, class, ethnic and religious affiliation and political and social status, attitude or opinion. Barnard (1996, 7) suggested that “fashion and clothing may be the most significant ways in which social relations between people are constructed, experienced and understood”. In a reference to the preceding quote Galović (2001, 82) explains that “fashion, more than anything else, serves to identify, differentiate and distance and that fashion is a means of expression of point of view, ideology, social conformity and also a vehicle for expressing rebellion and dissatisfaction with any given social issue”. Barthes (1990) explains that fashion is a sign language; it is a closed and arbitrary system of signs which are capable of producing only relative meanings. Alison Lurie (1992) states that “fashion is a nonverbal language with distinct grammar rules, syntax and vocabulary”. This sign language relentlessly exposes hidden and subconscious aspects of the individual and collective psyche. Every suit is a deliberate or casual statement made in the language of fashion about the wearer’s character, his or her social status and system of values. According to Lurie those who understand the language of fashion are able to discern all relevant characteristics of any given social group, regardless of whether we are discussing a group of youths belonging to a subculture movement, an ethnic minority, silent majority or a radical political group.

Fashion, according to Simmel (1957, 543) “is the imitation of a given example and satisfies the demand for social adaptation”. As Simmel explains, “fashion at the same time satisfies in no less degree the need of differentiation, the tendency towards dissimilarity, the desire for change and contrast, on the one hand by a constant change of contents”.

Fashion is not just an expression of style. The study of fashion encapsulates a fair share of the inquiry into the human condition as understood by the disciplines of history and anthropology. As Welters (1991, 134) noted, “textiles and costume are among the most visible indicators of a society” and the study of material-culture can reveal a variety of things including cultural change, economic history, and use of symbols. Fashion and clothing styles do not owe their importance and popularity only to the popularization and development of mass and digital media. Fashion and clothing styles have always played an important role in

society and have often portended many a social change. Roche (1994) states that “the history of fashion is a well-established field of scholarship, able to trace its roots back to the antiquarian endeavors of late eighteenth-century folklorists, art historians and compilers of encyclopedias in England, Germany and France, yet its wider mobilization beyond a network of dedicated specialists has been some time in coming”.

It is never rational to judge one’s character according to physical appearance but it has to be recognised that fashion is often used as a means of expressing ideas and points of view and declaring one’s affiliation with a given group. Joanne Entwistle (2000, 112) for example, says that clothes “can be expressive of identity”. Entwistle (2000, 66) also explains that clothing is part of the expressive culture of a community. Both individuals and cultural communities can use fashion to express or make externally visible what were ‘internal’ and invisible ideas and beliefs.

One of the main everyday topics in relation to both world news and popular culture is fashion and costume styles. The reason behind this seemingly paradoxical phenomenon is the ubiquitous focus of mass media, and especially digital media, on fashion. It is, therefore, small wonder that most people, especially in the West, are aware of the fact that there is a certain symbolism attached to the clothes we wear. Barnard (2011, 1-3) explains that we choose what clothing items to buy and wear according to the underlying symbolism of those clothing items or according to what message we are intent on sending. Exploring the influence of clothing items on how men and women are perceived in society, Wilson (1992, 14) said that fashion embodies culture and value systems are inevitably embodied in our dress. From the perspective of history the inevitable conclusion is that every landmark social and/or cultural shift was accompanied by a change in fashion and clothing styles. In his book *Popular Culture* Marcel Danesi (2015) states that media outlets have contributed to the dramatic rise of the fashion industry because new subculture groupings have sprung up (punks, hippies, hip-hoppers). All of these subcultures have their own distinct clothing style and through those styles serve as strong statements of both identity and intent. The media, in the last century, imbued fashion and various clothing styles with a sense of importance and significance. That particular role of mass media is clearly discernible in all segments of communication and conduct of business and therefore in political communication as well. For that reason this work will narrowly focus on explaining and defining the influence of fashion, as an important political tool, on conveying political postures and messages.

2.2. Fashion in Politics

Using the premise that fashion and clothing styles are important communication tools and as such vehicles for, occasionally, expressing support for and, frequently, expressing discontent with decisions made by the political establishment, as its central theme, this work aims to analyze whether fashion indeed is a powerful means of conveying political messages and, if so, what form the dynamics of the interplay between fashion and politics usually assume. The influence of a given clothing style has always played an important role in how politicians are perceived by their peers or the general public. Prominent public figures have been flaunting clothing styles for the purpose of heralding and solidifying their position in society since time immemorial. Spanning the eras of tribal communities, ancient Rome and the Middle Ages, the Baroque period, the Renaissance and modern times, politicians and kings have always stood out by their chosen clothing styles. The purpose behind that visual distinction through fashion was to display their power, affluence and authority. As Barnard (2011, 8) mentions “fashion statements, then, are one of the ways in which cultural structures and individual agency relate and in which they are both constructed and reproduced”.

Grau (2013, 7) in his work explains the development and significance of fashion and clothing styles in relation to leaders and how they have used fashion to convey political statements. He tells us how Louis XIV introduced the *justaucorps*; a knee length coat embroidered in gold and silver. The purpose of introducing the garment was to express his power to the outside world. Furthermore, Grau (2013, 7) gives us also more recent examples of utilizing fashion for political purposes. One example is Charles De Gaulle when he appeared on television in military uniform in response to the Algiers putsch in 1961 and another is Jacques Lang who in 1985, serving as the French culture minister, gave a speech before the National Assembly wearing a short collar suit (in imitation of Mao Tse-tung’s usual attire) designed by Thierry Mugler in a bid to display his opposition to the government and give a strong political statement. Grau (2013, 8) concludes that “clothing serves to herald power, authority and even rebellion, but it is also an element of differentiation between classes, occupations, nations and, especially in today’s world, individuals”.

Clothing, in the 20th century, was a potent tool and symbol of female emancipation and struggle for women’s rights. Up until the end of World War II the struggle of women for

emancipation and equal rights was visible in fashion statements. By refusing to wear dresses and by publically wearing pants and other clothing items that were at the time considered as parts of men's apparels, women were actually ramming home the obvious fact that society was in need of change and that a reappraisal of women's role in society was long overdue. Davis (1992, 46) said "Western culture has historically had a division of sexual roles and that women's entrance into the work force has been extraordinarily productive of gender ambivalences in dress". That paradigm shift was not just a social but also a strong political appeal for equality. Buckland (2000, 1) explains, "the war years became a pivotal time for women and for the fashion industry, and they paved the way for the 1990s".

The fashion industry imposes trends and, given the fact that fashion is often a vehicle for expressing reactions to current events, reflects what is happening in society at any given moment. Certain fashion designers actually use politicians as promoters of their brands and/or collections just as other designers use fashion shows to express their dissent or discontent with the performance of the political establishment (Karl Lagerfeld, Vivien Westwood, Katharine Hamnett).

Mass media outlets play a pivotal role in the shaping of fashion trends and enabling fashion to be an influential factor in the political equation. The way politicians of both genders dress is always noted and increasingly confabulated by the general public in private and dissertated by experts of all hues in official forums of discussion. Twigg (2017, 1) explains that "fashion is now ubiquitous in the media, its presence buoyed up by the rise of soft news and the shift towards lifestyle journalism focused around consumption". Several authors like Braham (1997), Entwistle (2000), Fine and Leopold (1993) explain that the fashion system represents the nexus of commercial, design and media influences that together provides the principle sources of changing aesthetic judgments about dress, determining choices available in the market and providing goods to satisfy these.

Taylor Cole Miller (2017, 147-148) in her research paper *The Fashion of Florrick and FLOTUS: On Feminism, Gender Politics and 'Quality Television'* describes how intrigued the public is by clothing styles of politicians and how the phenomenon exists within the framework of media coverage. Miller describes how on the night of the 2015 U.S. Presidential State of the Union unexpectedly ignited a national conversation about *The Good Wife* (TGW; CBS, 2009–2016) and politics when she tweeted a side-by-side photo of star Alicia Florrick

(Julianna Margulies) and First Lady Michelle Obama (FLOTUS) wearing the same Michael Kors Origami. Furthermore, Miller explains how the story later became one of the main topics of all important media outlets like *The Today Show* (NBC, 1952), *Good Morning America* (ABC, 1975), *CNN*, *Vanity Fair*, *Time Magazine*, *The New Yorker* and *Marie Claire*. In addition to that, Miller states that the designer Michael Kors and TGW's costume designer Daniel Lawson took advantage of the publicity with tweets and Facebook posts; retailers scrambled to link to the suit in stock online or suggest cheaper alternatives. Also, Miller writes that the media outlets in question profited from the situation because the TV news producers used the tweet as a hook before commercials, and red-carpet reporters at the Screen Actors Guild Awards used it when interviewing Margulies, who also benefitted from the free publicity.

Digital media have additionally assisted fashion to assert itself as a means of conveying political messages. Since social media are based on the WOM effect the outreach of which is truly global and not limited by spatial or temporal constraints any given piece of news can become instantaneously viral. Fashion is one of the more interesting topics on these platforms and news items about politicians' clothing styles spread rapidly like viruses. Lee and Workman (2013, 67) explain that "word-of-mouth is acknowledged as a powerful force in transmission of fashion product information". Digital platforms, digital media and, finally yet importantly, mass media give these trends an added impetus and, in a sense, a *raison d'être*.

2.3. 2016 Trump Show

On 8 November 2016, American voters headed to the polls to vote for President of the United States. *Political Insight* (Bua, 2017) reported "for many voters this was the most difficult political decision of their lifetime – a choice between two candidates with historically low popularity ratings – Hillary Clinton, the Democratic nominee and Donald Trump, the Republican standard bearer". Despite the fact that both candidates were politically uninspiring, the media coverage of the campaign was extensive and the public followed it closely with great interest. Both candidates based their election platforms on insulting and downgrading their opponent. The polls at first did not give much chance to Donald Trump but, contrary to expectations, he became the 45th president of the United States. Stewart et al. (2017, 1) explained that the 2016 presidential election was unquestionably a unique and

historic race, culminating in political outsider, reality television star, and real estate magnate Donald Trump facing off against the historic first major political party female nominee, Hillary Clinton.

Thanks to his controversial statements and behavior unbecoming to a serious politician, news items about Donald Trump often went viral on social media. The attention of the public was mostly focused on debates between the two candidates. By the *Third Presidential Debate* (Stewart et al., 2016) “the 71.6 million viewers watching Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump’s third and final debate validated this expectation making it the third most watched presidential debate ever, even though it represented a drop-off of over 10 million viewers from the first debate’s record setting 84 million viewers”.

Ouellette (2016, 647) states that “Donald Trump’s emergence as the Republican front-runner of the 2016 U.S. presidential election has triggered corollary analysis of reality TV’s impact on the political process”. Ouellette (2016, 647) further writes that “we are witnessing our first ‘pseudo’ presidential campaign; Trump is our first “pseudo candidate because he is . . . a celebrity who stands for little besides his celebrity”. To state the problem another way, “Trump is the Kardashian of politics”.

Tracey (2017, 526) mentioned that “the election of Donald Trump as President of the United States was considered shocking for many pundits and political-communication scientists. Nonetheless, the success of Mr. Trump was predictable from a marketing point of view.” Sáez-Mateu (2017, 1) explains that “the unexpected election of Donald Trump as the new U.S. president is situated in a complex and unprecedented intersection of ideas regarding democracy, identity, and social networks, all against the background of the omnipresent and cultural centrality of the digital screen”.

Even before Donald Trump was inaugurated as President of the United States, the Trump family had usually been considered in elite social circles and by mainstream media as a bunch of ogres. This stands in marked contrast to the Obama family, which has enjoyed unflinching support from mainstream media outlets to the point where the Obamas have become the most cherished and loved American family. Trump, during the election campaign, was not averse to making sexist and racist remarks. To an extent, controversial statements of that type were the main ingredient of his electoral agenda. Needless to point out, he provoked many people into expressing their discontent with his rants in many different ways. For example, Shannon

Coulter created the #GrabYourWallet (Grab Your Wallet, 2017) movement which encouraged Americans to boycott products connected in any way, shape or form with the Trump family, including the clothing brands favored by the Trump family most of which are not American based and therefore do not sport 'made in America' tags. Another interesting example is the "Pussyhat" movement.

Independent (2017) reported that one of co-founder Krista Suh told NBC Out that "the concept was inspired by outrage over President Trump's 'grab 'em by the pussy' comment captured in a 2005 Access Hollywood recording. The symbolism is all about 'pussy power'". She also said that "the knitters were frustrated that the most intimate part of their bodies is often used as a catchword for weakness". The concept behind the Pussyhat project was that everyone should create a knitted hat pattern and publish it on the Internet before the march. *NBC news* (2017) reported "the Pussyhat Project created the do-it-yourself knitting pattern and put it online prior to the march. It spread rapidly across the internet. On 21 January — the day of the Women's March — cat-eared protesters poured into cities worldwide to take a stand for women's rights, leaving a sea of pink in their wake. In the days after, the knitters would see their hat on the cover of *Time Magazine* and *The New Yorker*". Many celebrities joined the project and publicly expressed their opposition to Donald Trump. The list of celebrities who joined the project includes Amy Schumer, Nick Offerman, Cate Blanchette and Madonna. Also, by the Vanity Fair (2016) after the election of Donald trump as President of the United States Michelle Obama's designer Sophie Theallet made newspapers headlines by refusing to dress Melanie Trump.

3. Methodology

Schramm (1971) explains "the essence of any given case study is an attempt to shed light on a decision or a string of decisions; why the decisions in question have been made, how they have been implemented and to what effect". Stoecker (1991) mentions, "a case study as a research strategy comprises an all-encompassing method the integral parts of which are the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis". Moreover, Yin (2003, 25) explains in that sense "a case study is neither a data collection technique nor a characteristic of design, but an all-encompassing research strategy". A case study as a method is appropriate in the context of this paper because the aim is to analyze the

ways through which celebrities used the period after the inauguration of Donald Trump to communicate their political views and send strong political messages. As Baxter and Jack (2008, 544) defines “qualitative case study methodology provides tools for researchers to study complex phenomena within their contexts”.

This paper analyses a number of key media and public events after the election of Donald Trump as President of the United States in 2016 with the aim of answering the following two research questions:

RQ1: Did fashion and clothing styles of celebrities play an important role in sending political messages after Donald Trump came to power in 2016?

RQ2: In what context was fashion used as a means of communication utilized by celebrities?

The purpose in answering the first question is to ascertain whether celebrities used key public events after the election of Donald Trump in 2016 served as platforms for expressing political affiliations or agitating for political action by means of their clothing styles. The purpose in answering the second question is to ascertain, if fashion was indeed used as a tool for sending political messages, what the contextual framework of the messages in question was. First, the goal is to see if the nature of the messages was affirmative in the sense of supporting certain political options or adversarial in the sense of communicating dissent, discontent and rejection of a political situation, verdict or event in relation to Donald Trump and his victory in the elections.

The analysis is based on events covered by the media. This paper analyses a number of events covered by the media which took place after Donald Trump assumed office in 2016. The events in question are: the 2017 New York Fashion Week (9 February 2017 – 16 February 2017), the 2017 Grammy Awards (12 February 2017); and the 2017 Oscar Awards (26 February 2017).

These events are included as factors in this analysis because they attracted a high number of celebrities who used the events in question, and use similar events as par for the course, to promote themselves, their art or their work and to send messages pertaining to their points of view or causes they champion. The analysis is divided into three parts comprising three key events and the media coverage thereof. The aim of each part is to give a short introduction

regarding the events themselves and then show whether fashion was used as a means of expressing political opinions and, if yes, what the dynamics of the process were.

4. Analysis

The Grammy Awards, the Oscars and New York Fashion Week are just some of the major media events today. It is important to note that these events get bigger every year and the public interest for them rises correspondingly. It is no surprise then that celebrities choose to use these events to promote their points of view and initiatives. Millions of people worldwide are hooked on every word and image from these events. For this reason, this analysis deals with one aspect of the phenomenon. That aspect is the utilization of fashion, that is to say, styles of clothing to convey political messages. *Elle* (2017b) writes “in the midst of huge political upheaval in the United States, we are seeing one of the most political awards seasons in history. For instance, think the actors who couldn’t stop speaking out at the SAG Awards or Meryl Streep’s speech at the Golden Globes”. Celebrities use the fact that these events are very popular to raise public awareness of certain socio-political problems and to express their discontent with certain social issues.

4.1. 2017 New York Fashion Week

One of the most important fashion events today, New York Fashion Week, took place from 9 – 16 February 2017. This fashion event introduces new designers and sets trends in the world of fashion but also enables designers to send, through their creations and designs, certain messages. The New Yorker (2017) reported “before Donald Trump’s Presidency, fashion designers’ taste for courting controversy was normally limited to the aesthetic realm”. The 2017 New York Fashion Week differed from its previous incarnations in that the designers and celebrities expressed opposition to the new president.

The 2017 New York Fashion Week was unusually controversial in the context of the political messages that were sent and in the fact that it was used as a platform for expressing discontent with Donald Trump’s decisions as President of the United States. “The US president suspended refugee admissions to the country for 120 days under measures to ‘keep radical

Islamic terrorists out” (Independant, 2017). *Cosmopolitan* (2017), after the 2017 New York Fashion Week, carried an article in which it was stated that ‘staying silent is out of style’. In addition to that, the article lists 22 designers who used the event not only to promote their costume designs but also to convey a strong political message:

“Most fashion designers typically don’t make sweeping political statements as a way to play it safe — they have to sell their clothes to consumers who could have a wide range of beliefs and opinions. However, this year, specifically after this election, artists of all types, including fashion designers, have decided to use their platforms to speak out, usually against President Donald Trump. And not just in America, but also in London, Milan, and Paris.”

Elle (2017a) reported “Sunday started with Public School creative directors Dao-Yi Chow and Maxwell Osborne debuting a collection that lampooned Trump’s administration. ‘Make America Great Again’ slogan hats were refashioned to read ‘Make America New York’ with ‘44 1/2’, a shady nod to Trump’s presidential number on the side.”

And *Vogue* (2017) wrote “the most direct anti-Trump casting statement may have come from the Collina Strada designer Hillary Taymour, who filled her presentation with models who hailed from countries on the immigration ban list as well as those who shared her concerns regarding the current administration”.

Harper’s Bazaar (2017a) reported that Calvin Klein used David Bowie’s song *This is not America* as his show’s soundtrack and that

“the former Dior lead made sure his debut for Calvin Klein was headline-worthy not only with a sleek new makeover for the fashion house but also by opening the show to the soundtrack of *This Is Not America* by David Bowie. In contrast to the song, fabrics printed with the American flag were hung from the ceiling and the lining of certain skirts and coats the walked down the runway also featured the flag’s iconic stars and stripes”.

Fashionista (2017) reported about Mexican immigrant designer Raul Solis, in his show, presented underwear with a provocative text on it, thus sending a clear message to President Trump. The designer Diane von Furstenberg wore a pin with which she expressed support for Planned Parenthood while Vaquera presented dresses in the colors of the American flag as a sign of protest against Donald Trump’s policies:

“American flag outfits that might have felt like ‘Make America Great Again’ – style patriotism from another brand felt more like ironic commentary from design collective Vaquera, *Fashionista* (2017) mentions that ‘under Obama, it would have been really bizarre for us to make this dress and have a flag dragging on the floor, but I think now under Trump, the American flag’s [connotation] is... different’, said one of the designers after the show”.

4.2. Grammy Awards, 2017

Grammy.org (2017) reported that “the 59th Annual Grammy Awards ceremony was held on 12 February 2017”. It is safe to say that every musician craves a Grammy Award. However, the Grammy Awards as an event and ceremony has long surpassed its original purpose of honoring musicians for their artistic achievements. The Grammy Awards today, and especially after the election of Donald Trump as President of the United States in 2016, is a political event, and an important one at that. The 2017 Grammy Awards is significant in that regard because the political aspect of the event was just as important and prominent as the music performed during it. After the 2017 Grammy Awards *Elle* (2017b) published a list of the top 8 political moments of the event. James Corden made the list with his anti-Trump rap: “With President Trump we don’t know what comes next / We sit here tonight, don’t matter our race, where we were born or color of face / using this art, remember forever, we can survive by sticking together.” In addition to the mentioned moment the event was marked by other political quips directed at the new president. For example, *Elle* (2017b) mentioned that “one of the year’s most powerfully political songs was A Tribe Called Quest’s ‘We the People’”. Not only does it invoke the Constitution in its title, but also it also plainly critiques a society that won’t accept people of all kinds. They performed the fiery track at the awards ceremony, and called upon the audience to “Resist. Resist. Resist. Busta Rhymes gave Donald Trump a new, memorable epithet: President Agent Orange”. A number of celebrities sent powerful and controversial messages during the 2017 Grammy Awards through the way they were dressed. The singer Joy Villa created a lot of controversy with her attire. She was actually one of the few people at the event who expressed, through fashion, support for Donald Trump. As *Racked* (2017) reported “Singer Joy Villa was the proud wearer of the pro-Trump dress, reportedly designed by designer Andre Soriano. One of the first guests on the red carpet, Villa whipped off a dramatic white cape to reveal the dress, which included the president’s campaign slogan down the front and a bedazzled ‘TRUMP’ on the back bottom hem”.

Most celebrities present at the event, however, expressed opposition to the new president and his policies. In that context the most prominent was Katy Perry who, during her performance, wore an armband with the word PERSIST on it. She wore the armband in support of Senator Elizabeth Warren whose speech had been cut short by Senator Mitch McConnell. *Telegraph* (2017) reported “Katy Perry, who was a prominent supporter of Hillary Clinton during the

presidential campaign, gave the most overt anti-Trump performance. Wearing a ‘PERSIST’ armband and a black-and-white pantsuit, she sang ‘Chained to the Rhythm’, during the final moments of which the US Constitution was projected behind her. ‘No hate’, she said just as the song ended”.

4.3. 89th Academy Awards, Oscar, 2017

The 89th Academy Awards, the Oscars, took place on 26 February 2017. The Oscars is one of the most popular and prestigious events in the world of film, acting and art. However, the 89th Academy Awards ceremony featured a political subtext and was replete with political messages expressing discontent with the new president and his policies. *Elle* (2017c) reported “this awards season has already been one of the most politically aware yet—from musicians speaking out at the Grammys to the SAG Awards’ many political speeches, artists of all stripes have maintained the rage, using their platforms to protest and highlight important issues”.

Most of those messages pertained to the president’s controversial policies regarding immigration and his decision to erect a wall on the Mexican border. Many celebrities used the ceremony to send strong political messages both to the public and to the new president. *Guardian* (2017) mentioned, “instead of squirming at the hash tag #OscarsSoWhite, which has highlighted Hollywood’s lack of diversity in recent years, industry figures are gearing for a collective liberal howl against the perma-tanned president, prompting predictions the 89th Academy Awards will be remembered as #OscarsSoOrange”. Furthermore, *Guardian* (2017) reported “the White House press secretary, Sean Spicer, himself the target of Hollywood ridicule, has said that the president will not be watching Sunday’s ceremony, but the prospect of Tinseltown’s most glamorous night doubling up as a political spectacle is expected to boost global viewership”.

The whole event was geared towards expression opposition to Donald Trump: *Harpers Bazaar* (2017b) reported “director Asghar Farhadi won the Oscar for Best Foreign Language Film for his movie *The Salesman*. But he wasn’t in attendance, deciding to skip the ceremony in solidarity with people affected by President Trump’s now-stalled immigration ban”, and

“presenter Gael Garcia Bernal took a moment to speak about President Trump’s plan to build a wall on the U.S.-Mexico border”.

The celebrities did not only use words to send political messages; they deliberately set out to convey political messages through their clothes and clothing style. *Elle* (2017c) listed the most outstanding fashion statements meant for the media and general public and all of these statements were, at their core, expressions of opposition to Donald Trump and his policies. One of the points of contention for many celebrities was Trump’s refusal to support the work of organizations such as American Civil Liberties Union and Planned Parenthood. ACLU (2016) is a nonprofit organization whose stated mission is to defend and preserve the individual rights and liberties guaranteed to every person by the Constitution and laws of the United States. Planned Parenthood Federation of America is also a nonprofit organization that provides sexual health care in the United States and globally. One of the most striking messages was Ave DuVernay’s dress. Ave DuVernay is an American film director and she, as *Elle* (2017) reported wore “a dress by a designer from a majority Muslim country”. By wearing a dress made by a Lebanon designer, she unambiguously communicated her disapproval of Trump’s policies regarding immigrants and his decision to refuse entry into the United States to the citizens of selected Muslim countries.

Other celebrities also, with their clothing styles, communicated certain messages to the new American president. For example Ruth Negga, Busy Phillips, Karlie Kloss and Lin Manuel-Miranda wore blue ribbons in support of ACLU. *Harpers Baazar* (2017b) reported that the ribbons were part of the campaign “Stand with the ACLU” launched one week before the Oscars and “nominee Ruth Negga explained the ACLU was fighting for a ‘basic love of human rights’, which she felt strongly about given her role in the movie *Loving*”.

Emma Stone and Dakota Johnson wore pins in a display of support for the Planned Parenthood organization, reacting to Donald Trump’s abortion policy: *Aol* (2017) reported that “the ‘La La Land’ actress, who won Best Actress at the 2017 Academy Awards, hit the red carpet on Sunday night in a fringed Givenchy gold gown. While her metallic ensemble is certainly quite a looker, that wasn’t the most important part of her outfit – many missed the small golden pin in the shape of Planned Parenthood’s logo that was affixed to her dress.”

5. Discussion

The aim of the above analysis was to showcase, through three popular and important events, the importance of fashion and its impact in relation to the ability of celebrities to send political messages. The analysis included three famous events that took place in February 2017: New York Fashion Week, the Grammy Awards and the Oscars. The events in question roughly coincided with Donald Trump's first political moves as President of the United States and for that reason the events featured an unprecedentedly poignant and pervasive political dimension. This analysis has clearly shown that to be a fact. The main objective of this work was to ascertain whether fashion in general and clothing styles of celebrities in particular played an important role in sending political messages after the inauguration of Donald Trump as President of the United States. The analysis has confirmed that fashion was an important means of communication in relation to the three events in question. This is especially true in relation to New York Fashion Week. Because the event is dedicated exclusively to fashion it is only natural that during this event fashion was used as a tool of communicating political messages in a somewhat larger measure than at the other two events covered by this work. However, the Grammy Awards and the Oscars did not lag far behind New York Fashion Week in that particular regard. To be sure, during those two events political messages were sent both verbally and through fashion and clothing styles. Many celebrities used the Grammy Awards and the Oscars to convey their political opinions both through words and clothing style. It was strikingly obvious that most of those celebrities chose every clothing item very carefully. Every clothing item, down to the tiniest accessory, was in some way symbolic of the wearer's political opinions and in most cases, a jibe directed at Donald Trump.

The additional aim of this work, stemming directly from the objective explained in the preceding paragraph, was to see in what context fashion was used by celebrities as a means of communication to express dissent with Donald Trump and his policies. This work has unequivocally shown that the majority of celebrities used the three events covered in this work to express opposition to Donald Trump through fashion. Not all of the celebrities in question, at least according to their attire of choice regarding the events in question, are against Donald Trump. One such celebrity is Joy Villa. However, the important thing here is the fact that she also used fashion at the Grammy Awards to express her political opinion. It is

therefore undeniable that fashion was used as a means of expressing political opinions and sending political messages pertaining to Donald Trump as the new president of the United States of America.

6. Conclusion

The first few months of 2017 were extremely turbulent and politically dynamic in the United States. Donald Trump's victory in the presidential race and his first political moves filled news shows all over the world. The American public used every imaginable ploy to send messages and express its views regarding the political situation in the country. Many celebrities publically expressed their opposition to Donald Trump and his policies.

The aim of this paper was to analyze the role fashion and clothing styles played in expressing political viewpoints and sending political messages and discover whether fashion and clothing styles are used as an important tool in relation to political communication. By analyzing the Grammy Awards, the Oscars and New York Fashion Week, the goal was to see whether celebrities used the mentioned events to send strong political messages after Donald Trump was elected President in 2016 and, if celebrities indeed did use the events in question for the mentioned political purpose, what the context was within which fashion was used by celebrities at the three events.

The analysis has shown that celebrities used fashion during the three events covered by this paper as a means of sending political messages and expressing discontent with Donald Trump and his policies. This analysis proves that fashion and clothing styles can be a powerful tool of political communication. Furthermore, fashion today, utilized as it is by many a media darling, has become one of the pivotal means of political communication.

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POLITICAL COMMUNICATION OF BEPPE GRILLO – DECONSTRUCTING THE ITALIAN PHENOMENON

Ivana Jeleč, M.A.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

ivana.jelec@bernays.hr

Summary

After the parliamentary elections in 2013, the Italian political scene received a character who, according to many, became one of the (most important) characters in Italian politics and a global political phenomenon. He is Beppe Grillo, a former actor and a comedian who, due to growing dissatisfaction and the unfavourable economic and political situation in the country, turned to politics. Due to his ironic public appearances, oriented directly towards the Italian society, Grillo grew into a strong personality. This controversial and keen revolutionary at the beginning of 2009 founded the Five Star Movement, a political movement that managed to shake the left and right wings of Italian politics. Because of his sharp commentaries on the governing political options and his simplicity of expression, this politician managed to get closer to his compatriots. In the 2013 parliamentary elections, together with the Five Star Movement, he won 163 deputy seats in the Parliament and the Senate. This was a real political triumph and earned him the title of Italian political phenomenon. This paper analyses the political communication of this inexperienced Italian politician, his image, his instruments of political communication, his rhetoric, his way of “packaging politics”, the elements of his personality and Grillo’s ways of constructing political spectacles.

Keywords: Beppe Grillo, Five Star Movement, political communication, packaging politics, constructing political spectacles, political phenomena

1. Introduction

Giuseppe Beppe Grillo was called a clown (Grasso, 2001); he gave himself the nickname “controversial revolutionary” (Šerić, 2013), and after the 2013 parliamentary election, Grillo became one of the (most) important figures of Italian politics and a global political phenomenon. His quick tongue and simple and direct political rhetoric make him more relatable to “ordinary” people and these are precisely the main reasons for Grillo’s popularity. In his public appearances, many have identified forms of populism (Hooper, 2013), and it is precisely populism, together with his specific packaging of politics and the fact the he entered politics as a comedian, like the mayor of Reykjavik, Jon Gnarr (McGrane, 2010), that determined Grillo as one of the phenomena of the global political scene, who, with every public appearance, gathered an ever growing number of Five Star Movement supporters, and which was, ultimately, one of the main reasons for his 2013 parliamentary election triumph.

This paper deals with the question of what determined Beppe Grillo as a political phenomenon, what the reasons behind his election success were, and to which extent media experts, the media, constructing spectacles and Grillo’s packaging of politics influenced the achievement of the mentioned success. The main hypothesis of this paper is that Grillo owes his success and position of phenomenon to the skilful use of some of the tools of political communication known in literature as packaging politics, use of elements of populism, as well as the specific social and political context in which Italy found itself.

2. Political Rise of Beppe Grillo

Giuseppe Piero Grillo, better known as Beppe Grillo, began his career in 1977 on national television, but his settling of accounts with politicians, public personalities and companies resulted in his persecution from RAI Television (Dell’Arti, Parrini, 2008). In 1995, Grillo organised the first “travelling spectacle” called Energy and Transformation (orig. *Energia e trasformazione*) as part of which he visited more than 60 Italian cities and squares, with nearly half a million people watching him live, and which was a kind of predecessor of his later spectacular tours. According to the writing of Giorgio Dell’Arti and Massimo Parrini

(2014), this “humorous politician” is best known for getting Italy on its feet and moving a large number of people by organising huge protests that united the citizens of Italy, popularly called V-Day (orig. *Vaffanculo-Day*)¹.

2.1. Five Star Movement

In cooperation with Roberto Casaleggio and encouraged by the success of the Friends of Beppe Grillo (orig. *Amici di Beppe Grillo*) movement on social media, in 2009, Grillo established the Five Star Movement (orig. *MoVimento 5 Stelle*), where each of the five stars represents one of the key issues he advocates: public water, sustainable transport, sustainable development, right to Internet access, and environmentalism (Tomašević, 2012); and presented the official Programme (Feltri, 2013), which advocates “20 points for coming out of the darkness” (Cobianchi, 2013). Most of the focus was placed on putting an end to funding political parties by means of public funds, introducing provisions according to which elected political representatives would not have more than two terms in offices, maintaining and using sustainable sources of energy, more bicycle trails, possibility of students’ assessment of university professors, as well as aligning the salaries of elected representatives with the average level of Italian salaries (The Economist, 2013). Despite the idea that inspired Grillo to adopt the 20 points which would lead Italians out of darkness, most of the points are difficult to achieve, while some (such as referendum without quorum) would be impossible to implement (Cobianchi, 2013). The prominent magazine The Economist (2013) called the Movement Programme a summarised overview of, for the most part, well intoned efforts encrusted with large crevices.

In addition to the Movement Programme, Grillo and Casaleggio, in December 2010, issued a document they called Non-Statute (orig. *Non Statuto*), defining in it the nature of the Movement, its duration, origin of name, purpose and intention, the manner in which they can join the Movement, as well as further activities (Basi, 2013). According to the Non-Statute (Basi,

¹ Tom Mueller described, for The New Yorker, the V-Day held on 8 September 2007, when about two million Italians in 220 Italian cities demonstrated against corruption in government. Demonstrations were held in Bologna by Beppe Grillo, where on the largest town square, in front of the gathered audience, he read the names of individuals involved in various scandals related to corruption, tax evasion, and criminal offences such as fabricating explosive ordnance, and aiding and abetting a murder. The gathered mass raised two fingers in the air to form the victory sign. Grillo was supported that day by numerous individuals from public life, and their performances were followed in cities throughout Italy (Mueller, 2008).

2013), the Movement is defined as a “non-organisation”. In question is a platform and means deriving from the blog and that has its centre in the blog Beppegrillo.it, and whose address is also the stated blog (Basi, 2013). Given that in question is not a traditional organisation, the Movement does not have an anticipated duration, and its purpose is to gather all of the experience acquired on the blog, during encounters and manifestations, as well as other initiatives, and which include lists of citizens, in order to achieve an effective means to select the ideal candidates to promote campaigns to raise social, cultural and political awareness initiated by Beppe Grillo on his own blog (Basi, 2013). Stated in the Non-Statute (Basi, 2013) is that the Movement is not and does not have the intention of becoming a political party and that it still intends on remaining evidence that it is possible to realise economic and efficient exchange of ideas in a democratic manner, outside of connections that include organisations and parties, excluding agency mediation.

2.2. Success at the 2013 Parliament Elections

After adopting the two documents, the Five Star Movement participated in the 2010 local Italian elections in five Italian regions, Campania, Emilia-Romagna, Piedmont, Veneto and Lombardia, where Grillo achieved unexpected success (Billi, 2013). A year after the elections held for regions, at the local elections, the Five Star Movement received an even higher number of votes, and encouraged by the support of citizens with 93,000 votes, Grillo readily announces the “birth of a new scenario” in Italian politics (Billi, 2013).

The huge success at the local elections was followed by preparations for the parliamentary elections. Grillo, on YouTube (2012), defined the rules for forming the Movement’s list, limiting the possibility of candidature to those who were included in lists for the previous elections, but who were not elected (Calandri, 2012). A few weeks before the elections, at a time when no Italian party candidates participate in TV shows, Grillo decided to embark on a “Tsunami Tour” (Billi, 2013). Grillo decided, in a little over a month’s time, to visit 83 squares, and the tour finished in Rome, in front of a packed San Giovanni Square, just before the start of elections (Billi, 2013).

Awaited with great uncertainty was 25 February, the date when Grillo with his Five Star Movement achieved triumph. Although he did not achieve first place, after the vote count, Grillo was the most important political figure in Italy. The election results for the Chamber of Deputies showed that Grillo's *MoVimento* won 109 parliamentary seats, while in the Senate of the Republic, he won 54 seats (The Economist, 2013). According to the magazine The Economist (2013), the Movement was a political novelty that grabbed a significant number of votes from the Italian left and right, and the manner in which it achieved this was a typical example of populism.

2.3. Activities of the Five Star Movement after the 2013 Parliamentary Elections

Rejecting the coalition proposal with the left centre led by Pier Luigi Bersani, the Movement is in the opposition and continues to sharply criticise the executive, and in April 2013, expulsions of senators from the Movement began, while some members left the Movement on their own (Redazione Il Fatto Quotidiano, 2013a; Redazione Il Fatto Quotidiano, 2013b; Redazione Il Fatto Quotidiano, 2013c). Despite the success that the Movement achieved at the local and regional elections, the expulsions continued, and in 2014, a journalist from Italian newspaper Corriere della Sera Marta Serafini (2014) posted Grillo's statements, in which the founder of the Movement emphasises that the ejected senators, and afterwards those who defected from the Movement, are no longer in harmony with the Movement and are motivated by their own ideologies. After the stated expulsions, a dozen or so other senators and representatives left the Movement.

In May of the same year, on the elections for the European Parliament, Grillo's *MoVimento* won 21.16 percent of votes and established itself as the second political power (Ministero dell'Interno, 2014) despite the fact that it lost three percentage points compared to the parliamentary elections (Krouwel, Kutyski, 2014, 8).

3. Elements of Modern Political Communication in the Beppe Grillo Case

There are numerous techniques and instruments that politicians use with the objective of having their message reach voters, and that, in the end, affect the taking of political decisions, favourable for their status. Brian McNair (2003, 12) states that political communication includes:

- all forms of communication used by politicians and other political actors with the purpose of achieving specific goals,
- communication that, according to the stated actors, guides non-politicians, such as voters and newspaper columnists, and
- communication on the stated actors and activities that can be found in reports, editorials and other forms of media debates on politics.

To the stated elements of political communication that are related to verbal statements, McNair (2003, 12) added visual elements “for which it can be said that they form the political image and identity” (McNair, 2003, 12).

Marijana Grbeša (2005, 49) emphasises that today’s election campaigns are the subject of numerous debates:

“On the one hand, they claim that companies simplify the political reality, manipulate voters, encourage voter apathy and contribute long-term to the democratic deficit. However, on the other hand are foreign researchers who consider that the campaigns had to be adapted to the new communications environment, that only attractive campaigns adapted to the media can capture the attention of voters and that a good portion of campaigns nevertheless positively affect election participation and the knowledge of voters on the political processes.” (Grbeša, 2005, 49)

Beppe Grillo is a unique emergence in politics, and, as such, he has managed in a skilled manner to take advantage of the negative social and political context in which Italy found itself, and due to his unique political style, which includes elements such as personalisation and constructing political spectacles, to gain significant trust of his fellow citizens. For Grillo’s success, one must not neglect the successful use of some political communication tools that are known in the literature as packaging politics and elements of populism, and who have raised this comedian to the very top of the Italian political scene. The very fact that

his primary profession is not related to politics has given Grillo an advantage, and also a greater amount of confidence and credibility compared to his political rivals.

3.1. Beppe Grillo's Political Style

Beppe Grillo's political style includes a personalised approach to politics, the use of media expert services, as well as creating spectacles in order to make his message as efficient as possible, and to attract as many followers as possible to the Movement.

3.1.1. Personalisation of Politics

Politicians nowadays have seen the importance of showing their own “general” manners, so they have started to reveal to the public ever more details of their private lives such as favourite musicians, sporting events or details about other members of their families. Analysing elements of modern political campaigns, Paolo Mancini and David L. Swanson (1996, 14) highlight that voters increasingly make decisions on candidates on the basis of their own connection with them, and add that, in modern societies, the increase in functional differentiation and social fragmentation is additionally made more difficult by politicians and parties who are familiar with the worries, attitudes and all of the life situations in which their voters find themselves (Mancini, Swanson, 1996, 15). Candidates have increasingly begun to set themselves apart independently, and support in the entire process has been provided by private organisations and their own financial resources. At the time when all of this is occurring, charismatic leading figures created by the mass media systems have replaced the symbolic connection assumed in the past by political parties. This is exactly the case with Beppe Grillo.

Although his style might seem unsuitable for politics, Grillo with his charisma and characteristics thrills his fellow citizens, who reciprocate with their trust towards former comedian. Despite the fact that he inspired his fellow citizens to mobilise, the media were not generous towards him. At the beginning of his appearances, they raised him and praised his performances, but after the elections, the media called him a clown (Mueller, 2013). Grillo's promise that he would put an end to widespread political control and to the assignment of resources to Italian media largely influenced his presentation and to the epithets that the

media gave him. Linked to him were nicknames such as demagogue of the rightists, leftist saboteur, and anarchist, who does not have constructive plans for Italy, a narcissist stuck in the cult of his own personality, and a puppet controlled by a political figure still unknown (Mueller, 2013). Contributing to this are certainly his promises that he will overthrow the entire ruling class, which he blames for the poor economic and social situation in the country.

Characterising Grillo, journalist Tom Mueller (2008), says that he is a humorous, conceited, curious and very professional person that ignores other politicians and media, and spreads his messages using his own humoristic plays, meetings with town councils, demonstration and gatherings throughout Italy. According to Mueller (2013), one of Grillo's most important tools is certainly the Internet. By means of his own blog, during the campaign, Grillo presented an overview of the social problems in Italy, thereby using his unique rhetoric, by which he encouraged mobilisation and political activation of Italians. So Grillo, on 22 September 2007, on his blog writes a post entitled "Let's all go to tonight's Town Council meeting" (Beppegrillo.it, 2007), in which he invited citizens to participate in the meeting because the taken decisions are their business, which is why the importance of participating in such gatherings gained additional importance.

As opposed to the leaders of the other political parties, including the parties themselves, Grillo advocates that citizens directly participate in selecting people who will represent their interests, and constantly emphasise transparency, perseverance, efficiency and democracy. In all of his appearances, Grillo is direct and his messages do not have to be additionally interpreted, seeking a hidden meaning because he directly denounces all politicians, and if he addresses the individual, Grillo will not stop and make use of a certain linguistic expression in order to dampen the "sin" of the individual towards Italian society and the people in general. Grillo will, without beating around the bush, accuse anyone who, in his opinion, is not worthy of being in Parliament. An ideal example is the previously mentioned V-Day, when Grillo, without holding back, spoke about the new renaissance in Italy; he mentioned all 25 politicians in Parliament who, in his opinion, must be ejected due to their criminal record. If the appearances of Grillo are examined in which he seriously attacks his opponents, accenting their countless insufficiencies, and the "mistakes" of members of specific political options, it can be said that this is part of his personal political style and his personality. It is specifically domination of the personality of candidates that is one of the key elements due to which we

attribute more and more attention to the candidates themselves, and not to the programmes of parties or their backgrounds. Swanson and Mancini (1996, 270) emphasise that personalisation is a kind of threat to the new democracy because it makes it more difficult for parties to fully represent the public, and very often we perceive them as a mere platform for a popular leader (Mancini, Swanson, 1996, 270). Despite all of the “dangers” that personalisation causes, modern parties persistently continue to highlight their candidates with the objective of attracting greater voter support.

Although modern political campaigns, due to their characteristics, are cause for worry among numerous theoreticians, at the same time, one must keep in mind that modern campaigns have increased the amount of information towards publics, and in Italy, for instance, modern campaigns are attributed for the renaissance, that is, awakening of support for the democratic process. Even Beppe Grillo calls his political rise a renaissance, and in an interview that he gave for the show *Agorà* (YouTube, 2014), talked about the upcoming European elections, emphasising that all of Italy would experience a complete renaissance if the Five Star Movement wins the elections (L’Huffington Post, 2014).

3.1.2. Media Expert Services in Politics

The growing role of communication experts and political campaigns on the one hand represents a reflection of the sophisticated methods and skills required to efficiently run political campaigns within a modern political and media environment, and this includes skills related to defining public opinion and other methods such as monitoring voter emotions, creating attractive television commercials, achieving frequent and favourable media coverage of candidates and collecting resources for the campaign (Mancini, Swanson, 1996, 15). On the other hand, the increasingly significant role of communication experts is being reflected in the weaker role of political parties that, independently, are unable to collect financial resources or conquer the media landscape. If they want to conduct a quality and contemporary political campaign, and at the same time to conduct successful political communication on all platforms, candidates opt for the services of consultants that deal with advertising, research public opinion, develop communication strategies, possess the ability to conduct surveys, read the results and ensure financial resources that will keep the campaign alive.

Beppe Grillo owes the greatest part of his success to the company Casaleggio Associati, whose founder is Roberto Casaleggio and who set him off into the expanses of the Internet. The Italian journalist Cesare Balbo (2013) for *Il sole 24 ore* writes that the company Casaleggio Associati is the place where marketing mixes with politics, and the place where marketing and social media participate in creating opinions. For the same paper, journalist Andrea Franceschi De Marchi (2012) describes the activities of the company that guides the activities of Grillo and enabled him to be listed on the top 100 most popular blogs in the world. Precisely due to the extreme popularity of his blog, the American weekly Time included Grillo among 37 European heroes, together with the president of the association to campaign against the mafia extortion racket (Maltese, 2005).

While Franceschi De Marchi (2012) states that the company offers consultancy services in the area of information technologies, Luca Dello Iacovo (2012) calls the company Casaleggio Associati Beppe Grillo's *spin* doctor. According to Dello Iacovo's (2012), the company began, at the beginning of 2000, its intrusion into the world of politics and social occurrences, developing a relationship with Grillo, becoming, over time, the very technical, communications and marketing centre thanks to the previously mentioned blog.

Casaleggio Associati was a pioneer in the dynamic development of dot.com: immediately from its outset the company directed its development towards web and social media, recognising them as places that will play a significant role in forming public opinion. The company and its majority owner and founder Roberto Casaleggio directed their achievements towards the Five Star Movement, which they transformed into an exceptional online project, which from computer screens and the virtual world moved directly into the Senate and the Lower House of Parliament, where it participates in creating Italian foreign and internal policies representing the interests from the beginning of the campaign.

3.1.3. The Role of the Media in Building the Political Style of Beppe Grillo

One of the characteristics of the modernisation of political communication is certainly the unavoidable and powerful mass media, which, due to their far-reaching and powerful influence are located at the centre of social, political, economic and cultural life. Thanks to the modernisation that has affected political campaigns, politicians have become dependent on the media, and given that politicians are giving more financial resources and knowledge

into attempts to control autonomous media, occurring is professionalization in the segment of political communication, as well as to competition among politicians and journalists in their efforts to control media agendas and framing, as well as interpretations of daily occurrences (Tomić et al., 2008, 121).

Just like the interpretation frames, the agenda can be imposed by the mass media, as well as politicians and public by means of the dominant public opinion and communication experts. Namely, PR experts attempt to influence the media agenda by providing information relevant for informing the public. “Given that public relations is a significant ‘producers’ of events and news, professionals constantly find connections and establish relations in order to set (push) their agenda to the public” (Tomić, 2008, 103). In the world of politics, it is often the case that new political options on the political stage, from their beginnings, consult with professionals and develop communication strategies in order to present, as adequately as possible, their plans and programmes, as well as to place, as efficiently as possible, their “stories” on the media scene.

When talking about the role of the media themselves in Grillo’s rise, it can be said that they are partly responsible for his Internet domination. Namely, apart from criticising politicians and Italian society, Grillo also criticised the media, accusing them of misinforming the Italian public, pointing out that Italians no longer have a real idea of a true democracy (Mardell, 2008). Therefore, faced by a lack of understanding and negative comments, Grillo decided to turn to the Internet and to fully take advantage of the potentials that online communication offers.

Moving to the Internet, Grillo gained unprecedented popularity in Italy, which is why Italian politicians recommended laws to follow online activities, and one of them is the Levi-Prodi Law, which would, in the definition of journalism, include blog activities (Attivissimo, 2007). In this manner, all bloggers would be forced to become part of the national register, which Grillo did not want, and he showed this by organising a demonstration against such a law (Attivissimo, 2007). If we compare Beppe Grillo and his online communication with traditional campaigns that include numerous PR activities within traditional media, such as press, radio and television, we can say that the media, by turning Grillo towards the Internet

and social media, participated in building an extremely influential online politician who, precisely thanks to modern communication, managed to achieve exceptional election results.

The fact must not be forgotten that the media, despite their constant finger pointing, consistently covered and reported on Grillo's appearances, providing in that manner a kind of platform for guiding criticism and reprimands to those currently ruling. Therefore, despite the fact that, in media reporting, dominating were mostly negatively intoned reports, as part of which journalists negatively and not at all favourably behaved towards Grillo and the Movement, the Italian media, reporting on the writing of Grillo's official blog, offered the public an alternative approach to the problems society was facing, as well as the possibilities of other interpretations of events within the society they were part of.

3.1.4. Constructing a Spectacle

Murray Edelman (2003, 9) defines a spectacle as “continuous reporting on new occurrences, constant constructing and reconstructing of social problems, crises, foes and leaders, thereby creating a consecutive series of threats and hopes”. Talking about “political spectacles”, Edelman (2003, 45) points out that he “entices people to support good ideas and political leaders, and to oppose foes, to sacrifice for the public good and to submit to the inevitable. By doing so, he directs towards accepting stable social structures and inequalities that form their experiences.”

Along with citizens who have one of the main roles in creating the political spectacle, the main role is also played by the political leader. Mentioning character traits, Edelman (2003, 49) points out that “by attributing meaning to leaders, viewers define their own political positions”, and as their main characteristics, he cites controversy, as well as inventiveness, originality, courage, power of prediction, talent for mediating, self-sacrifice to a larger extent than others for public interest. According to Edelman (2003, 51), “the fact that individuals become leaders is in itself evidence that they surpass others with essential qualities and that they represent the general will, divine merit, merits, of the average citizen or any other symbol that is accepted as legitimate at a certain time and certain place”. If the personality and activities of the Italian Grillo are examined, it can be said that he truly fits the description provided by

previously mentioned author. With his appearance, he has introduced to the Italian political scene innovation and he was taken as controversial and grotesque. However, with time, he has profiled into a true leader who, in a manner unseen until then, managed to mobilise millions of dissatisfied citizens throughout Italy, who saw in his programme the solution for their social problems.

According to Edelman (2003, 52), leadership represents dramaturgy which, during the era of mass communication, has received central importance. “The leader must be constructed as an innovator, as someone who accepts responsibility for national actions, who has qualities that his followers do not possess, as well as someone who is successful in his strategy, as opposed to the fallibility of previous leaders, and – when unsuccessful – as a victim of insurmountable obstacles that were set by opponents or enemies” (Edelman, 2003, 52). It is enough to look at one of Grillo’s gatherings in order to substantiate the stated claims. Namely, one of the best examples of this type is certainly the first V-Day in Bologna, an event that gathered nearly two million people (YouTube, 2013), and where Grillo attacked politicians with criminal records and which he took advantage to encourage Italians to support a petition that seeks to exclude such politicians from the world of politics. At the stated gathering, Grillo, in his dramatic and unique manner, publicly finger pointed (and thereby discredited) certain politicians, specifying their criminal records and crimes attributed to them, among which the most serious were corruption and cooperation with Italian mafia families that systematically plunder Italy, and for whose acts an adequate solution has yet to be found.

Grillo, as the leader of the Five Star Movement, has become the “symbol of attracting public attention from preoccupation for well-being to constructed events” (Edelman, 2003, 54). Although the economic problems Italy faces, as well as the numerous threats from EU countries and social unrest are not constructed events, by additionally emphasising them, Grillo managed to attract to his side countless Italians, and to present Italian politicians as incompetent individuals, incapable and inert organisations that do not have the skills to respond to problems. Although according to Edelman (2003, 55) “actions that are created or held by leaders can be catastrophic for most inhabitants”, in Grillo’s case, this has proven wrong. Already at the local elections, Grillo and the Movement achieved noteworthy results, which they further confirmed with their success at the parliamentary elections. With the successful construction

of beliefs that their political opponents are incompetent individuals and organisations, Grillo has managed to awaken the Italian public and to encourage it to active political participation. In Grillo's case, as well as generally looking, the construction of spectacles produces events and spreads news of new political leaders as figures that "create fears and aspirations, insecurities and beliefs that are the fuel for searching for legitimate symbols" (Edelman, 2003, 140). What largely contribute to the spectacle itself and its success are the mass media, whose use stirs in the public the effect of surprise and drama, as well as the emotions of hope and fears. Grillo's main tool of communication is certainly the Internet, and thanks to his innovativeness and his ever-growing audience, he is also using the potentials of other mass media, such as radio, television and press.

3.2. "Packaging" Beppe Grillo's Politics

"Packaging" politics refers to the way of presentation certain politicians use in order to adequately present their own ideas and programmes to the public, and they are image, rhetoric, public appearances and interviews, as well as communication of Beppe Grillo on social media and his blog, and which, as part of the techniques, form an integral part of packaging politics.

3.2.1. Beppe Grillo's Image

The image of politicians and parties does not exclusively depend on their activities, intentions and goals, but rather it is the result of their conscious or unconscious activities, the activities of their political adversaries, as well as already existing assessments by the electoral body (c, 2003, 137). Grillo, in the eyes of his fellow citizens, was a hero, a person who dared encourage positive changes in the country, and who did not hesitate to emphasise social problems and accuse each and every politician for the state in the country. In the eyes of the media, he was mostly seen with the face of a clown, a frivolous politician, and as such, replaced Silvio Berlusconi from the throne, whose political moves entertained editors.

Grillo's style is perhaps sometimes blatant, but it brought him success and, what is more important, he managed to stimulate Italian voters to act. "Clothes are an important component in defining the image of a person; besides conveying information about their personality, social status, belonging to a certain group, sexuality, aggressiveness and other inclinations, they also

influence the behaviour of the person wearing them” (Tomić et al., 2008, 178). Given that a candidate’s clothes forms their visual statement, this must be in harmony with the remaining forms of their communication and personality (Tomić et al., 2008, 178). Grillo does not dress strictly in the business dress code like the other politicians: his style of dressing is more free, relaxed and, looking at Grillo, we actually see an “ordinary” Italian who belongs to the middle class. In this manner, he is closer to the social class whose worries and dissatisfaction he advocates himself and attempts to change it for the better. Namely, according to Tomić et al. (2008, 206), the most valued qualities of political candidates are “kindness and warmth, followed by competence, intelligence and openness”. Taking into account the aforementioned, it can be said that Grillo’s clothes fully correspond to his manner of communication, and that it reflects his simplicity and aversion to presenting himself in front of the camera as someone he is not in his private life.

3.2.2. Beppe Grillo’s Rhetoric

The most important segment of political communication is the message; it is the reason why candidates run for office, the most important reason why voters decide to give their support to a particular candidate, and not their adversary (Šiber, 2003, 180). When forming messages, it is crucially important to thoroughly be familiar with the audience to whom the message is being sent, as well as the problems and situation of the society to which the message is directed (Cutlip, 2003 as cited in Jugo, 2012, 203).

Some of Beppe Grillo’s messages were:

- “If we do not help each other, Italy will disappear. Therefore, we need each other. Who has little, let them give little. Who has a little more, let them give a little more.” (YouTube, 2014)
- “Do not tell me I’m angry, that I’m the one saying bad things. Yes, I do have a somewhat different manner of gesticulation, which is a little stronger and a little livelier. However, this is the rage that initiated a movement, the dream of nine million people. This is a well-intentioned rage.” (YouTube, 2014)
- “A new Italy awaits us. And it will be wonderful to be a part of it.” (Bepegrillo.it, 2014)

- “I want a bright future for Italy, and we’ll find it in Europe, where we’ll amend agreements. That’s where we’ll change everything, that’s how we change Italy’s position.” (Nebrodi 5 Stelle, 2014)

Grillo’s messages are simple. He does not choose sophisticated and learned words because it is his intention to reach a broader audience. Sometimes his messages have a humorous tone and reflect irony. However, in them there is no playfulness. In this manner, he makes fun of the authorities and attempts to arouse even greater revolt in citizens. The messages that Grillo sends are energetic and clear, regardless of whether they are messages that are broadcast on television or in the form of posts on his blog; they reflect his sharp and quick style of expression.

3.2.3. Features of Beppe Grillo’s Public Gatherings and Interviews

Public gatherings represent an integral part of every political campaign because, in addition to mass media and other means of communication, they convey messages of the election campaign to a wider spectrum of voters, and they are characterised by a large number of participants, the presence of a significant number of relevant media, complex organisation, financial expenditures (Tomić et al., 2008, 249). In the case of Beppe Grillo, the greatest impression was made by the mass gatherings on the Italian squares that were covered by the media even in other European countries, and on the basis of which he managed to unite two million people, who shouted together various slogans and complaints due to the social and economic situation in the country.

In addition to public gatherings, Grillo, during the election campaign for the Lower House and Senate in 2013, readily accepted interview invitations. As part of interviews, Grillo constantly highlighted points in the Programme and the intentions of the Movement and the novelties that it brings. Of course, even during the interview Grillo did not pass on the opportunity to characterise his opponents as powerless to address the problems facing the country and incompetent to end the recession in the country. Furthermore, he never forgot to emphasise the importance of voter support and that it is them who have the main role in introducing changes.

3.2.4. Features of Beppe Grillo's Online Communication

Thanks to the visually rich content, the Internet grew into an excellent platform thanks to which the political candidates and parties could get closer to the public and achieve greater interaction, and information is available at any time. Beppe Grillo belongs to a group of politicians that have recognised all of its potentials and have taken maximum advantage. His primary means of communication, in addition to mass gatherings, were certainly his blog, Beppegrillo.it, and the social media Facebook² and Twitter³.

As Tench and Yeomans (2009, 350) write, bloggers are influential individuals that know the media well, and write from their own interests. Its possibilities have also been discovered by politicians for whom the blog has become an almost irreplaceable communication tool that allows them to record their thoughts and opinions, as well as to promote their political programmes (Tomić et al., 2008, 162). This is exactly what was done by Grillo with his blog, which many claim is the reason for his election triumph (Danna, 2013).

Since its beginning, Grillo's blog had the purpose of providing a kind of platform for reporting on the Movement's activities, its drivers and goals. The Guardian's journalist Serena Danna (2013) writes that the blog, instead of opening discussions and analysing social issues, became a kind of prisoner of Grillo's personality, and the other online channels, like Twitter and Facebook, were exclusively one-way channels. Namely, Grillo exclusively follows members of the Movement, who indirectly convey his messages. Also in this favour is the fact that the Movement's official website does not provide users the possibility of expressing their opinion by means of comments on the "wall", and which would be visible to all fans and page visitors. From the perspective of social media users, they were part of Grillo's campaign because they were provided an opportunity to express their opinions, and to provide him support or criticize him, and all with the objective of creating politically active citizens.

² Beppe Grillo's official Facebook page is available at: <https://www.facebook.com/beppegrillo.it>, while the official Facebook page of the Five Star Movement, Movimento Cinque Stelle, is available at: <https://www.facebook.com/movimentocinquestelle>. (Accessed: 21/5/2014)

³ Beppe Grillo's Twitter account, Beppe_Grillo, is available at: https://twitter.com/beppe_grillo, while the official account of the Five Star Movement, Movimento 5 Stelle, Mov5Stelle, is available at: <https://twitter.com/Mov5Stelle>. (Accessed: 21/5/2014)

3.3. Features of Populism in Beppe Grillo's Political Communication

One of the most frequent claims accompanying Beppe Grillo is that he is a populist, and by using this expression in everyday talk, most often, attempts are being made to “discredit the political actors with whose opinions those pointing fingers do not agree” (Šalaj, 2012, 55), and they are “accused of giving false and unrealistic promises, and cheap demagoguery, with which attempts are made to awaken ‘basic’ feelings and passions, and so obtain their support” (Šalaj, 2012, 55). As Berto Šalaj (Shils, 1956 as cited in Šalaj, 2012, 56,) writes, populism appears as a result of this dissatisfaction of people caused by the manner of ruling of the political elite, which is often filled with corruption, and its main goal is to establish the rule of “ordinary and respectable people” (Šalaj, 2012, 55). Given that populists blame all social problems on political parties, the ideal political system in their opinion is the one where “citizens have the final word on making all of the most important political decisions” (Šalaj, 2012, 58).

If we observe the features of populism, it can be concluded that the political style of Beppe Grillo can rightfully be called populist. Namely, besides expressing in every appearance his doubts about the ruling power and Italian parties and politics in general, Grillo strongly advocates direct democracy in Italy, according to which the people would independently make the most important political decision. By contrasting the honest Italian belonging to the middle class and the corrupt politician, he further highlights all of the negative sides of the political system of Italy. By introducing elements of his own image and personality that represent an example of a typical Italian, Beppe Grillo managed to win over and mobilise the masses, and to turn them against the large political options that, for years, had the main say on the political stage.

4. Conclusion

In recent years, few political movements caused such public interest, not only in Europe, but wider, as have the Five Star Movement and its founder and leader Beppe Grillo. Characterised as a clown, a populist and a revolutionary, Grillo bases his success on skilled political decisions, use of new communication tools and techniques, as well as the successful use of all

of the features of modern political campaigns, among which an advantage was certainly the introduction of elements of his own personality in the campaign.

After success on the parliamentary elections in 2013, Grillo also achieved success at the elections for the European Parliament where, despite trailing by nearly 20 percent, he was the second strongest political force in the country. Although he is not the only member of the “third path” that opposed those in power and the opposition, Grillo is certainly the only one to achieve such a success and who with his activities motivated other organisations and associations to take on a more active role; not only in Italy, but in other countries of the European Union, and perhaps elsewhere, as well.

The main thesis of the paper was that Grillo owes his success and his position as phenomenon to the skilful use of political communication tools that are known in the literature as packaging politics, using elements such as populism, as well as the specific social and political context in which Italy found itself. In achieving his success he was aided by his friend Roberto Casaleggio, who offered him consultancy support; however, one must not ignore the role of the media in the entire process. Although the media presented him negatively in their editions, Grillo nevertheless obtained the desired media space. Thanks to his success and innovative online communication on his blog and social media, he managed to stand out in the media, which, reporting on his posts, presented to the public a different view of society and the political and economic situation in the country.

Furthermore, it should be emphasised that Grillo’s political communication, as part of which he uses elements such as populism, the construction of spectacles, as well as specific packaging politics, is not a novelty in politics, but, in combination with his unique style and manner of expression, it has resulted in creating a political phenomenon, additionally differentiating him from the other (Italian) politicians. Although he currently represents an ideal example of a populist, Grillo is not the first to tame politics in this manner. His political adversary, Silvio Berlusconi, also was informal in formal situations, as well as never held back in revealing “what people think” (Roncarolo, 2004, 114). However, his fellow citizen is not the only politician with whom Grillo shares features of populism. According to Eric Turner (2013, 205), Grillo and the Five Star Movement resemble Hugo Chavez’s PSUV and the Greek party SYRIZA, which are characterised by Euroscepticism, anti-corporatism and care for the envi

ronment, while similarities with Chavez are found in the manner of communication, personalisation and similar rhetoric.

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THE REFUGEE CRISIS WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF EU ASYLUM AND MIGRATION POLICIES

Maja Banovac Barić, M.A.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

maja.banovac@bernays.hr

Katarina Bekavac, B.A.

Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs, Zagreb, Croatia

kbekavac@yahoo.com

Summary

This paper explains the refugee crisis phenomenon and its causes, as well as the changes it provokes in society and international relations. In the midst of this uncontrolled 2015 refugee influx, mostly from the Middle East to Europe, solving the crisis became an important topic on the EU agenda. Harmonisation of EU migration policy emphasized the preservation of the border crossings into the Schengen Area, while integration of migrants remains predominantly the competence of national policies, which causes certain tensions between the European Union and member states due to different approaches, understandings and ways of resolving problems that these kinds of challenges bring. Integration is a demanding process that involves adoption of both migrants and citizens of the receiving country, and the outcome of the integration process cannot be determined with a great degree of certainty. The frequency of terrorist attacks and current events has a significant effect on the ways of resolving the crisis and, consequently, the future of the European Union. At a time when Euroscepticism is on the rise, which is proven by Brexit, in addition to the mentioned problems, the paper demonstrates that closer cooperation between EU member states is needed more than ever.

Keywords: refugees, refugee crisis, EU migration policy, integration, Euroscepticism

1. Introduction

More than a million refugees, mostly from Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq, arrived by way of sea and land to Europe in 2015. These data are from the UNHCR, the UN Refugee Agency, and its annual Global Trends Report, according to which, by the end of 2015, more than 65 million people were displaced throughout the world (UNHCR, 20 June 2016). Migrations are a complex phenomenon in human history. They are caused by global external factors, as well as the security, social and economic aspects of each country, as well as disregard of basic human rights. The Arab Spring additionally potentiated migrations. The inequality in management of the refugee crisis is the result of the uncompleted process of migration harmonisation policies of the European Union, which began after the historical tearing down of the Berlin Wall and the fall of communism. And while the refugee crisis can indisputably only be resolved with the cooperation of EU member states and neighbouring countries at the supranational level, essential is the role of Turkey, which has placed conditions on the European Union for maintaining refugees on its territory. Given that there is no end in sight to the conflicts in the Middle East, the number of refugees will increase, bringing into question the stability of the European Union and the sustainability of the agreement reached between the European Union and Turkey in March 2015. If Turkey ceases to provide asylum to refugees and new refugee waves begin heading towards the Schengen Area, possible is the further suspension of implementation of the Dublin Regulation and militarisation of a part of EU member countries. Namely, due to the frequent terrorist attacks and the strengthening of Euroscepticism, which is additionally enhanced by the results of the civil referendum held in the United Kingdom on leaving the European Union, xenophobia and anti-immigration policies are significantly spreading. Furthermore, migration policies cannot be planned without integration policies, which have remained, thus far, within the competency of national states. The existence of *parallel societies* is evidence of the failure of multiculturalism and the impossibility of harmonious coexistence between members of different cultures, making additionally difficult the manner in which the integration of migrants could be successfully conducted. The 2015 refugee crisis of epic proportions also highlighted the growing problem of cross-border crimes and human trafficking networks. Furthermore, it tested the fundamental values and mechanisms of the European Union, and brought into question the safety of the European continent, the future policies of open borders and the sustainability of peace.

According to the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, a refugee is a person, owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, who is outside the country of his nationality, and is unable to or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country or return there because there is a fear of persecution (Lapaš, 2008, 3). Refugees have three possibilities: to return to the country from where they are fleeing, to integrate into the host country or to settle down in another country. Recognition of refugee status provides protection in line with international law and conventions, and prescribes the minimum standards; however, it does not exclude the possibility of differences in interpretations and applications during implementation by different countries. On the other hand, migrants and refugees often travel in the same manner; however, migrants leave the country for reasons not related to persecution. Some of the reasons are the start or continuation of education abroad, continuation of life with their family in different living conditions and improved economic opportunities. Migrants continue to enjoy the protection of their government even when abroad. The difference between refugee and economic migrant is described in detail in the UNHCR's 1979 Handbook on Procedures and Criteria for Determining Refugee Status. According to Article 62 of the Handbook, "a migrant is a person who, for reasons other than those contained in the definition, voluntarily leaves his country in order to take up residence elsewhere. He may be moved by the desire for change or adventure, or by family or other reasons of a personal nature. If he is moved exclusively by economic considerations, he is an economic migrant and not a refugee" (UNHCR, 1992).

An illegal migrant is a person who entered a country in an illegal manner, by means of unofficial border crossings or with false identification documents or with a legal visa, but staying even upon its expiry. Asylum seekers can become illegal immigrants if their refugee status is rejected and they remain in the host country. Illegal workers can exist as long as there is a need in the labour market for a cheap and disempowered workforce, meaning with the assistance of illegal employers. Illegal migrations in all corners of the world, especially towards the developed western European countries, significantly affect the safety of certain countries. Furthermore, they are connected with human trafficking and smuggling networks. An asylum seeker is a person seeking refugee status and who has fled his country in search of

international protection. Those individuals who are assessed as not being refugees and in need of international protection may be returned to their homeland.

And while the economic situation in Europe grew significantly in the 1960s, it was relatively easy to solve the different cases of migration, even during the exodus of Hungarians in 1956 and Czechs in 1968. Numerous refugees did not seek asylum, but migrated as economic migrants or students. Tensions related to asylum seekers grew from the middle of the 1970s and during the 1980s. As a consequence of high unemployment and the economic recession caused due to the rise in the price of oil in 1975, economic migration was no longer welcome. Furthermore, due to the increase in cheap flights, as well as wars throughout the world, the growing number of refugees arriving from outside of Europe, such as Chileans and Uruguayans fleeing from the dictatorships in their countries, more asylum seekers arrived in Europe than met the criteria set out by the Geneva Convention. This is when public opinion and attitudes towards asylum seekers began to change; procedures became stricter, and the migration issue became increasingly a subject of media debate. The newly emerging atmosphere came to the fore in the 1990s with the fall of communism, the end of the Cold War and events that followed in the area of the former Yugoslavia.

2. Harmonisation of EU Asylum and Migration Policies

Until the mid-1980s, there were only the national policies of the European states, and after that began the harmonisation process of the asylum and migration policies of the European Union. In addition to external factors, one of the causes was the establishment of a common market on a part of the European continent. In addition to agreeing to create a common market, ever more emphasised was the need to assume common policies on questions of foreign policy. With the 1986 Single European Act, political cooperation was institutionalised. Established were the foundations for the establishment of the Economic and Monetary Union of the European Union (EMU) and the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP). The historic agreement on eliminating border controls among agreement signatories was represented by the Schengen Agreement (1985), which was followed by the Schengen Convention (1990). Motivated by economic interests and the desire for market expansion, the aim was to eliminate border controls and ensure the free movement of goods, services, people

and capital among signatory countries of the Schengen Agreement, and to enhance control at the external borders of the member countries of the agreement. The increased control of the external borders has led to an attempt to harmonise visa and asylum regulations. The Schengen Agreement represents the start of cooperation in the area of internal affairs and customs. Formalised were two crucial guidelines; the partial abandoning of the idea of sovereignty in the area of maintaining state borders and creating trust among members. At the same time, on the European continent, on the one hand, the fall of communism and the end of the Cold War had caused a weakening of state control in the Eastern European countries, and on the other, the Greater Serbian aggression, democratic processes that were resisted by the JNA and the Homeland Defence War initiated mass refugee processes in the area of the former Yugoslavia. These processes and events caused international negotiations on the better control of potential refugees and asylum seekers. However, the initial position of signatory countries of the Schengen Agreement, EU states and other countries on the European continent differed significantly. The harmonisation of asylum policies meant increased restrictive measures in the Schengen Area. The asylum policy guidelines contained in the Schengen Agreement are the following: “a state that provides asylum, i.e. residence is responsible for processing asylum applications, for the procedure, exchange of information and the movement of the applicant” (Dragović, 2003, 78).

In addition to the *Trevi* Group, which was established back in 1975 in Rome in order to manage and coordinate antiterrorist activities among member states, the twelve member states of the European Union at the time established an *ad hoc* group for immigration in 1986, with the objective of encouraging measures that would lead to common procedures and put a stop to the abuse of asylum rights. Given that the Dublin Regulation, which was signed in 1990, and the Schengen Convention, which came into force in 1993, confirmed the agreement between signatory states that they would maintain their national procedures for asylum applications, and the states in which the asylum seekers found themselves were also responsible for them, police cooperation became *sine qua non* (Dragović, 2003, 80).

It is important to emphasise that the Schengen Agreement solves the relationship with refugees in the sense that they are treated as all foreigners who have residence permits in one of the signatory states of the Agreement. They can move freely, however, they must register their residence to the competent authorities upon entering the country. As opposed to refugees, asylum seekers are not allowed to move outside of the country in which they applied

for asylum. After the 1993 Maastricht Agreement, when the European Union (EU) was formally established, the next important turning point in the history of Europe was the coming into effect of the Amsterdam Agreement (1999). Where the Maastricht Agreement calls on close cooperation in the areas of justice and internal affairs, the Amsterdam Agreement, in Article 2 of the European Union Agreement confirms the upholding and developing of the Union as area of liberty, safety and justice, where the freedom of movement of people is ensured, along with suitable measures regarding control of external borders, asylum, immigration, as well as preventing and combating crime” (Dragović, 2003, 75). Held the same year was a separate session of the European Council for the field of justice and home affairs in Tampere, where highlighted was the need for alignment of national procedures and systems of identification for asylum seekers. Between 2001 and 2005, adopted were key measures for the joint asylum system; however, most members were decisive in maintaining existing national solutions (Baričević, 2015, 7). Harmonisation of the system and policies were far from being harmonised, and various attempts and forms of establishing control revealed all of the insufficiencies and weaknesses of the European Union with the Arab Spring and afterwards.

Migration Flows after the Arab Spring

The European Union was faced in 2015 with the arrival of a large number of refugees on its territory and the helplessness of national systems to supervise state borders. The current refugee crisis was caused by an economic migration from undeveloped areas of the Mediterranean towards the European Union and the fleeing from war torn areas of Arab countries in the Mediterranean and Africa even prior to the start of the Arab Spring in 2011. The Arab Spring marks a chain of social movements for political and economic reforms in the Arab world that began in Tunisia and Egypt. Although in the majority of Arab countries only taking place was the replacement of certain ministers or amendments to laws, larger protests and conflicts affected Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Syria, Yemen and Bahrein. Protests against Arab dictators were also supported by the European Union, and incomplete interventions by Western allies in toppling dictatorial regimes in the Arab Spring potentiated the refugee crisis. An example of that was Libya, whose armed forces had NATO’s and France’s air support in its fight against Muammar al-Gaddafi. After overthrowing the Gaddafi regime, Libya did not have EU support in the building of new socio-economic relationships, and ended up with

conflicts among opposing factions and became an area where ISIS was active. The situation was similar in Syria, which is essential for understanding the refugee crisis. The Syrian Arab Republic was, prior to 2011, a secular dictatorship of the ruling Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party. General Hafez al-Assad came into power with a military coup in 1970, and his successor after his death in 2000 is his son Bashar al-Assad. Syria based its dictatorship on only 12% of the population who were Alawite Arabs, an Islamic sect close to the Shiites (Tadić, Dragović, Tadić, 2016, 19). Most Syrians are Sunni Arabs, from whom the opposition and ISIS are recruited. The war between the secular forces for and against the regime has led to an inter-religious war among the Alawites, i.e. the Shiites, the Sunni, paramilitary groups such as the Hezbollah from Lebanon, Syrian and foreign radicals. The Kurds are also armed and are seeking their part in the north of Syria along the border with Turkey. All of this has ultimately led to the establishment of ISIS and the so-called Islamic State. Before the overthrowing in Tunisia, Egypt, Yemen and Bahrein, in power were secular dictatorships, although Islam was at the foundation of their constitutions, and Islamic movements and parties were in opposition to the regime. After the start of the changes in power, Islamists such as the Muslim Brotherhood in Egypt took over, advocating for a pure Arab country organised according to Sharia Law, and not secular multi-party democracies as in the West.

According to the analysis by UNHCR spokesperson Adrian Edwards, published in 2015 on the UNHCR's official website, entitled *Seven Factors behind Movement of Syrian Refugees to Europe*, there are seven basic factors for the refugee wave towards the European Union (Edwards, 2015). First is the loss of hope that the situation in their country will ever be resolved. This is followed by poverty because refugees who found residence in neighbouring countries to Syria were faced with high unemployment rates and could not afford even the most basic things for living. Third are limited employment opportunities. For instance, Syrians who found asylum in Egypt and Lebanon want to work, however, they are legally limited in this, and refugees on the black market risk their lives working in inhumane condition and are exposing themselves to exploitation with the possibility of not being paid. The fourth reason is not having healthcare and access to medicine, as well as a reduction in the number and quality of daily meals. Fifth are obstacles to renew their refugee status in Lebanon and Jordan. Namely, the new regulations state that refugees in Lebanon now have to pay 200 USD in order to renew their refugee status, and sought from them are a guarantee that

they will not work, as well as a certificate on their health condition that costs 42 USD. The sixth reason is the scarce options for an education. The children of refugees abandon school, and women are forced into marriage. And finally, the seventh reason for migration is fear of the conflict spreading and insecurity in countries in Syria's surroundings.

The Arab Spring in Arab countries did not lead to the establishment of a free, democratic system, and one must keep in mind knowing that the starting point of the migrant wave towards the European Union was precisely Syria and Libya. Syria is today territorially divided, and the religious and ethnic division of Syria guarantees that the side that loses will be banished. Given the interests of international powers and the unattainable establishment of long-term peace, it is expected that the current refugee crisis will last decades (Tadić, Dragović, Tadić, 2016, 18).

Schengen Area and Possible End to the "Open Door Policy"

Ever increasing terrorist attacks and disputes among member states over the treatment of migrants have brought into question the survival of the Schengen Area and safe movement within the European Union. Ljerka Mintas Hodak (2010, 571) states that the right to freedom and safety is a fundamental right contained in the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights. Citizens of EU member states are able to travel, work and live in any member state of the European Union without special, formal documents. The Schengen Agreement supports this freedom in the manner that it allows citizens of signatory states of the agreement to cross borders, eliminating legal obstacles in the Schengen territory. The Schengen Area "without borders" enables the free movement of European Union citizens, as well as numerous other citizens arriving from countries outside of the European Union if they are legally present on that territory. The formation of the Schengen Area is one of the most important accomplishments of the European Union. The implementation of the Schengen Agreement itself began in 1995 among seven EU member states. At the same time, while checks at the internal borders of the European Union are being abolished, strengthening are controls at its external borders. Candidate states whose aim is to join the area of free movement and the single European area must meet conditions to contribute to maintaining security and trust and freedom of movement. The conditions include assuming responsibility for the control of external borders on behalf of the other Schengen states and for issuing a single Schengen visa, efficient cooperation with agencies for the implementation of legislation in another Schengen state,

application of the joint Schengen acquis, as well as control of the land, sea and air borders (airports), issuing visas, police cooperation and protection of personal data and connecting and using the Schengen Information System (SIS) (Croatian Ministry of the Interior, 2016). Candidate countries, prior to joining the Schengen Area, are subjected to an assessment of the Schengen acquis related to managing external borders, and after that, from time to time, in order to ensure the appropriate application of regulations. EU members unevenly reacted to the arrival of migrants. At the beginning of autumn 2015, Hungary set up a barbed-wire fence and closed international border crossings with Serbia. That act was met with sharp reprimands from the democratic publics. Under pressure from the arrival of refugees, up till now, a few states of the Schengen Area introduced temporary border controls, such as Germany, Austria, Sweden, Denmark, Norway and France. The control of internal Schengen borders can be established temporarily, up to three months, in the event of security threats and extraordinary events, with the possibility of an extension of up to two years. According to the Schengen Agreement, possible is the introduction of control at internal borders for up to two years in one or more members, for a part or along the entire external borders of the Schengen Area.

Salvation for the Schengen area is the securing of the external borders of the European Union and the continuation of negotiations with Turkey, which plays a significant role regarding the refugee crisis because it prevents the arrival of migrants to Greece, and therefore, to the Schengen Area. Turkey is an unavoidable partner in foreign policy relations for maintaining peace in South East Europe. Finally, salvation for the Schengen Area is the cessation of conflicts in the Middle East, whereby, in all likelihood, there is no long-term end in sight.

3. Integration of Migrants in the European Union

Given that the refugee wave consisted, for the most part, of able-working people and that the end in sight for the conflicts, particularly in Syria, but also for the entire Middle East, a rise in migrant workers can be expected and, consequently, their integration in the societies of receiving countries. In most Western European countries, dominating is the attitude they are not immigration countries, because considered as traditional immigration countries are Canada, Australia or the Netherlands. “Wake up any expert on immigration integration in the middle of the night and ask him to name a country known for its multiculturalism. Ten to one the answer will be Canada, Australia or the Netherlands” (Entzinger, 2003, 59). The reason

for this is that, in Europe, most countries are founded on the idea of the “nation state”. With the mass refugee influxes, and due to the lack of alignment at the level of the European Union and the national level in terms of asylum and migration policies, the societies of receiving countries are not prepared for co-existence with them. Namely, after the first phase of management of migration flows and the acceptance of refugees, the refugees have to integrate into the society of the country providing them asylum, so the adoption of integration policies are imposed as a necessity. Integration as opposed to migration policies are not conceived as the common policy of all European Union members. Integration is a long-term and complex process that brings social changes. There is no single definition of integration¹. Integration can be defined as “a dynamic two-way process of mutual adoption by all immigrants and inhabitants of member states” (Niessen, Schibel, 2004).

“The integration policy is related to the conditions provided for the settled immigrants. It consists of all aspects that affect the position of immigrants in receiving countries. They include legal rights, social possibilities, as well as political and cultural participation in the wider community. Legal integration is a process that ensures immigrant individuals gradual advancement in status on the way to full citizenship. It is also reflected in a reduction in their exposure to internal immigration control.” (Brochmann, 1999, 10)

No country has a comprehensive programme for the inclusion of migrants in their society; rather, they rely on the result of the interaction of institutions and migrants themselves, and the result depends on those institutions and receiving societies, as well as to what extent migrants can adopt the values of the receiving society. For instance, each migrant upon arrival in the Kingdom of the Netherlands must sign an acceptance of values, of which one is respecting same-sex marriages and the right to respect different gender orientations. Therefore, expected of the migrant in Western European countries is the acceptance of liberal civil rights. The manner in which the receiving society accepts migrants in large part determines what the migrant policy of that country will resemble. Public policies, to which integration policies belong, can be divided into the policy of *full exclusion*, *differential exclusion*, *assimilation* and *pluralism*: with the first policy, prevented is the entrance of migrants in some country, and migrants are considered foreigners who do not belong to the community; the second policy considers migrants a passing phenomenon, settling in the country because of the labour market, by which migrants are provided the opportunity to participate in the labour market; however, not permitted is their political participation,

¹ The integration process is, for the most part, divided into three dimensions: *legal-political*, *socio-economic* and *cultural-religious*. More in: Institute for Migration and Ethnic Studies (2016, 3).

obtaining citizenship and some other rights; the assimilation policy implies including the migrants in the society of the receiving country through complete adaptation, and in the pluralistic model, migrants are considered as ethnic communities that are different from the majority of the population in terms of language, culture and traditions, according to which migrants must accept the fundamental values of the receiving country, however they maintain the right to diversity (Institute for Migration and Ethnic Studies, 2016, 4).

The aim of the European Union is to establish the legal equality of rights and obligations for all who legally reside in the territory of the European Union. The beginning of the legal regulations for migrations can be found only starting from the Amsterdam Agreement. Namely, with this agreement, sought from the Council of Europe is the adoption of immigration policy measures that are related to the conditions of entry and residence of immigrants, as well as the procedures for issuing visas, residence permits and reuniting families. Furthermore, the adoption of measures that define the rights and obligations of citizens of third countries, i.e. that migrants with regulated residence in one of the European Union member states have the right to residence also in the other European Union member states. Also, at the session of the European Council in Tampere in 1999, emphasised was the importance of active cooperation in combating racism and xenophobia, as well as to bring closer the rights and obligations of citizens of third countries to those of citizens of the European Union by means of integration policies. The further development of that cooperation was achieved by accepting eleven common fundamental principles for the integration policy that was recommended by the Council of the European Union². The 2015 refugee crisis was reason for the European Commission to adopt a strategic document, the European Migration Programme, in May 2015 with the objective of better management of irregular migration flows (European Commission, 2015). In this strategic document of the European Union, guidelines related to integration were reduced to acceptance and distribution of refugees in European Union states. Namely, this document contains urgent measures of agreement on quotas for the resettlement and relocation of asylum seekers and refugees among member states, increased control of land and sea borders, as well as finding possible solutions in countries of origin and transit countries. Long-term measures are based on encouraging the return of refugees and combatting the causes of irregular migration, saving

² More in: Niessen, J. & Schibel, Y. (2004). *Handbook on Integration for Policy Makers and Practitioners*. France: European Communities.

lives at external borders, reinforcing common asylum policies and application of new policies towards legal migration, which includes attracting the worker profiles of deficit professions. Given that European Union member states still implement national migration policies, the further implementation of the Dublin Regulation, which is currently suspended, seems quite questionable.

4. Growing Challenges: Terrorism, Euroscepticism and Partial Solutions

Terrorism is one of the most significant phenomena of the contemporary world that is threatening security as a fundamental element of the survival of the individual, society, state and international order. Terrorist organisations such as the Taliban, Al-Qaeda, Boko Haram and ISIS, with terrorist attacks on the territory of the European Union, spread fear and send messages to the international community on their global network. Many use the terrorist attacks in Paris, Nice, Istanbul and elsewhere as an argument that they are the result of the migration policies taken by the European Union, linking terrorism to refugees. Unfortunately, some of the latest bloodshed in major European cities has shown that some of the terrorists were registered at some of the border crossings among the mass of refugees. The contemporary anti-terrorist battle includes cybernetic and analytical warfare with the caliphate. ISIS has its supporters in all parts of the world. The more Western powers attack the caliphate, the more ISIS attacks the West. The conflict of values³ in that direction is always present, and debates on “freedoms” were reflected in the case of the French satirical weekly *Charlie Hebdo*, whose members of the editorial board were killed in a terrorist attack in January 2015.

The evolution of society has led to today's domination of liberal capitalism in Western countries, where individuals are free to work and live as they want so long as they do not threaten the freedom of others. The individual is placed above the group, tolerated are diversities in every aspect. Although voting for women and equalising ownership rights for women and men in Western countries have been historically recently legalised, men and

³ This can be shown on the example of the writer Salman Rushdie, who published in 1989 the book *Satanic Verses*. Not giving the author the right to create his fictitious vision of the person and character of Muhammad, numerous members of the Islamic faith felt insulted, considering that the text is disrespectful of Islam and is an expression of blasphemy. In response to general reactions, Ayatollah Khomeini, the spiritual and political leader of the hegemony in Iran after the Iranian revolution, pronounced a fatwa on the writer that same year.

women are equal before the law in the European Union. In the countries of origin of most of the refugees, the individual is subjugated to the community, often in place is Sharia law, and women are subordinate to men. On New Year's Eve 2016 when hundreds of women experienced harassment and were sexually attacked, violated were basic the human rights dignity, freedom and equality. There were similar cases in Hamburg and Stuttgart. Unfortunately, the evolution of society and the development of communication technologies have led to the transformation of contemporary terrorism that is based on the individual. Terrorism is the act of an individual who may act on behalf of a terrorist organisation, but it could also be self-willed radicalism.

The fear of change and maintaining the existing order within which the ruling elite can retain its privileges, were always the characteristic of conservatism. If added to this is the mass influx of refugees and asylum-seekers fleeing wars and are representatives of cultures with different values, Euroscepticism is spreading at an unstoppable pace. Euroscepticism, as a concept, represents a set of political thoughts based on criticism of the concepts of the Union and European integration. Paul Taggart (1998, 366) defines Euroscepticism as a broad idea that includes both contingent and conditional or complete and unconditional opposition to the European integration process (as cited in Blanuša, Šiber, 2011, 11). If taken into consideration is the fact that a certain measure of scepticism is desirable in every consideration of life and the world in which people live, then Euroscepticism also, as long as it does not threaten the freedom of others, can positively contribute to the critical questioning and to encouraging debate on the European Union and its development. Therefore, Euroscepticism could encourage dialogue among diverse social groups and political elites, and Eurosceptics must be equal interlocutors, together with the others. However, it is often precisely the political elite who do not accept different political ideas and are the most ardent protagonists in the "production of consent". Walter Lippmann (1995, 148) claims that the production of consent is a skill used to persuade diverse people with diverse opinions to vote the same, and it is used in every political campaign. Such a strengthening of the right in these circumstances additionally fuels the tense atmosphere that further complicates the already complicated crisis in which Europe finds itself.

Supporters of the German Islamophobic movement Pegida protest against migrants in Germany, as well as some other European countries under the banner "Fortress Europe". In France, the extreme right-wing party, Marine Le Pen, the National Front, in the first round of

the regional elections obtained the most votes. Her statements that illegal immigrants should be placed in camps and then deported from the country obviously helped her gain the favour of voters. Apart from in the historically most powerful nations of Europe, the rise of the political right is increasingly expressed in Central European countries such as Poland and Hungary. In Poland, the Catholic conservatives are led by Jaroslaw Kaczyński, and in Hungary, Viktor Orban, who considers that the barbed-wire fence erected on the border with Croatia and Serbia is “protection of Europe’s Christian identity from the Muslims” (The Guardian, 3 September 2015). The rise of political parties and leaders who openly express Islamophobia emerged even in the developed Western European and Scandinavian countries. In the Netherlands, member of the parliament in the Netherlands and PVV (Party for Freedom) leader Geert Wilders (2016) is known for criticising Islam, explaining that Europe is going to Islamise, and if there is something completely opposite to diversity, it is Islam. In power in Denmark is the right-wing, Eurosceptic Danish People’s Party, and in Finland the conservative party True Finns. Sweden is the country, along with Germany, that is the most attractive destination due to its social system and the social care provided to its citizens. The radical right-wing party, Swedish Democrats, have the large support of the public and they are demanding a referendum on immigration policy. In Norway, the right coalition won at the last Norwegian parliamentary elections at the end of 2013 and Prime Minister Erna Solberg comes from the ranks of the right coalition. The listed political right parties and their leaders are not solely the result of the migrant crisis. Citizens have lost faith in the political elite, the fear of terrorism and insecurity in the world in which we live has been additionally fortified by the refugee crisis. Furthermore, left voters are disappointed because they are witness to the immense accumulation of wealth by certain layers of society and to corruption. The contemporary radical right is using external circumstances and advocating anti-immigration policies. Furthermore, they do not recommend austerity measures such as the left, which people believe in less and less, but rather on programmes based on national resources. The social crisis certainly encourages intolerance towards members of other nationalities, i.e. ethnocentrism.

Great Britain, as the “cradle” of Euroscepticism⁴, has always expressed doubts towards the loss of the British way of life and its traditional values. The process of withdrawal from the European Union will be initiated with the activation of Article 50 of the Lisbon Agreement, and the readiness to leave was expressed by a majority of votes of 52 percent at the referendum held on 23 June 2016 (BBC News, n.d.). An objection to the development of any authority at a level above British authority has always been present, and clearly voiced by Margaret Thatcher (1993) saying that the state borders in Britain were not successfully rolled back only to see them reimposed at a European level, with a European superstate ruling from Brussels (as cited in Axford et al., 2002: 424). The first such referendum was held back in 1975 when the United Kingdom was deciding on whether to stay in the European Economic Community, the predecessor of the European Union. At the time of the referendum, citizens decided that they should stay in the European Community; this time citizens decided otherwise, and certainly contributing to this was the refugee crisis, as well as the frequent terrorist attacks that once again “roll back” the borders. The results of the referendum will have serious consequences for the United Kingdom, as well as the European Union’s policies towards asylum and migration, which could return to the authority of national policies. Namely, the voters of England and Wales voted for leaving the European Union, while voters in Scotland and Northern Ireland for remaining in the European Union (BBC News, n.d.). Although the Scots at the 2014 referendum rejected independence with 55 percent of the votes (BBC News, 19 September 2014), it is expected that Scotland will once again organise a referendum on independence in the future. Furthermore, it is possible that Northern Ireland, a territory that politically belongs to the United Kingdom, joins the modern state of the Republic of Ireland. The results of the referendum on leaving the European Union could open the Pandora’s Box that will lead to the disintegration of the United Kingdom as we know it today, as well as to the fragmentation of the European Union. Such uncertain circumstances inevitably lead to the impossibility of achieving an agreement and to hampered cooperation with EU members in resolving the EU crisis. Namely, with globalisation processes, the sovereignty of national countries is weakening, but at the time, increasing is nationalism in certain nations that have not achieved their state independence. Following the example of the United Kingdom, it is possible that other countries withdraw from the European Union.

⁴ “The times noted that Mrs Thatcher was seen in most of the EEC as a Eurosceptic at best” (The Times, 30 June 1986, 9/11).

Furthermore, it is certain that, with the victory of British Euroscepticism, increasing will be the resistance of the remaining member states for further European Union integrations, thereby leading to the destabilisation of the European Union. In any case, although the emphasis will continue to be cooperation and joining countries of the European Union, the refugee crisis and the withdrawal of the United Kingdom from the European Union will empower the other members to passionately advocate their national interests and to establish their conditions for the resolving of issues, as well as remaining in the European Union.

The refugee crisis placed the relations between the European Union and Turkey of the forefront. Turkey has been a signatory of the European Union Accession Agreement since 1963. As opposed to Turkey, despite the flagrant relationship between Greece and Turkey and the conflict due to Cyprus in 1974, the neighbouring country Greece, thanks to the support of the German Minister of Foreign Affairs Hans Dietrich Genscher, became a full member of the European Union in the second expansion in 1981, which Turkey is not to this day. A stumbling block, among others, is the genocide against Armenians that Turkey claims never occurred⁵. The agreement between the European Union and Turkey on the resolution of the refugee crisis adopted in March 2016 means that migrants will be returned to Turkey when they reach Greece if they do not submit an asylum application in Greece or their application is rejected. The objective of the agreement is to stop the uncontrolled arrival of refugees and migrants in Europe using existing rules that enable the return of people in a safe third country or the first safe asylum country. Furthermore, a controversial plan that caused reactions in the international public was agreed to, according to which for each Syrian refugee that is returned from Greece to Turkey, one Syrian will be placed in the European Union from Turkey (European Commission, 19 March 2016). Greece expressed that the implementation of the agreement is unachievable without providing the necessary preconditions such as ensuring translators for its implementation. In return, Turkey was promised financial aid amounting to 3 billion euro for assistance in caring for Syrian refugees, as well as political concessions such as abolition of visas and reviving negotiations for European Union membership (European Commission, 19 March 2016). Ankara and Turkish Prime Minister Ahmet Davutoglu

⁵ The Ottoman Empire during the First World War waged war against external enemies, but also against “internal enemies”, which consisted of non-speakers of the Turkish language. In addition, they took advantage of Kurdish religious sentiment by encouraging their engagement in the “holy war” of defending the Ottoman Empire from infidels and the massacre of over a million Armenians in the period from 1915–1916 (Haddad, 2001).

promised to treat refugees in compliance with international law. Not all consider Turkey a safe country because Turkish President Recep Tayyip Erdogan is leading military operations against Kurd separatists, and there are doubts of violations of media freedoms and confirmed arrests of judges. The pro-Western conservative Erdogan, when coming to power, wanted to establish good political relations with neighbouring countries, especially aware that Turkey is of strategic importance to NATO. In the beginning, he advocated for the modernisation of the country and accession to the European Union, and Turkey experienced a significant economic boom. However, with time, he radicalised his rhetoric and associates, took control of the media and imposed his autocratic, totalitarian regime. Furthermore, there are indications that Turkey supports jihadists in Syria due to the repression towards the Kurds and reducing the chances for Kurds to create their own country. The attempted coup in the middle of June 2016, when a fraction of the Turkish army intended to overthrow the government with tanks and helicopters, taking state television as hostage and occupying the airport, was quenched upon the offense by the army and the people that was initiated by Erdogan. Who organised the attempted coup? Imposed as a conclusion are secularists. However, this is refuted by the fact that the entire army did not become involved, only a minority of people. It is possible that Muhammed Fethullah Gülen is responsible for the attempted coup, which he has denied. Of course, this could also only be a spin by Erdogan so as to publicly discredit him. Gülen is a Turkish preacher living in the USA and a former Erdogan ally. He is the founder of the Gülen movement, also known as Hizmet. The current Turkish government has the support of Great Britain, USA and Germany. Even the strained relations with Russia due to Turkey's taking down of a Russian aircraft are in the process of stabilising. Also supporting Erdogan are the Turkish people, police and military leadership. Taking into consideration terrorist attacks, millions of refugees on Turkish territory, wars on the borders with neighbouring countries, the least favourable situation for NATO is an unstable Turkey, and expected is the continuation of negotiations related to migrants between Turkey and the European Union.

5. Conclusion

During the historic tumbling of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the fall of communism, as well as the disintegration of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, migrations became one of the key

issues on the agendas of centres of power. Consequently, the harmonisation of migration policies began in the 1990s, which primarily meant restrictive measures and the control of entry of migrants. Despite efforts to introduce limited entry for migrants, the understanding matured that the developed Western European countries could not defend themselves from migration pressures and that cooperation on and coordination of migration policies was in their interest and the interest of neighbouring countries. A turning point in the migration reception policies of Western European countries began with the Schengen Agreement on the gradual abolishment of controls on the border crossings of signatory countries. Originally, anticipated was free movement for member countries, but not for citizens of third countries, including immigrants.

The migration policies also resulted in internal political positions and foreign policies, and thereby it was more challenging to achieve compliance of activities at the international level. The majority of the governments of member states of the European Union do not want to relinquish their right to decide who has the right to enter into their country. They protect this right as an expression of national sovereignty. Therein can be found the explanation to the different responses to migration influxes since European Union members have diverse interests and visions. The causes of migration existed even before the start of the Arab Spring due to the growing gap in differences in the economic development of the north and south of Europe, as well as Europe and undeveloped parts of the Arab countries of the Mediterranean and Africa. However, it is indisputable that the Arab Spring further strongly potentiated the refugee crisis. The redirection of migrations from the Mediterranean maritime route to the Balkan land route to reach countries within the territory of the Schengen system occurred due to the frequent drownings, crime networks and naval control by Frontex, European Border and Coast Guard Agency. Most asylum applications are submitted to Germany, Sweden, Italy and France. The long-term resolution of the fundamental causes of the crisis is the successful negotiation of peace in the Middle East and a stop to conflicts, which is unachievable in the near future. The increasingly frequent terrorist attacks and mass refugee influxes bring into question the survival of the Schengen Area and freedom of movement. Increased control cannot fully protect citizens and prevent attacks. Radicalisation of individuals born or growing up in European Union member states brings into question the success thus far of the integration of migrants in the European Union and suspicion that unplanned multiculturalism has led to the creation of parallel societies. If only the assimilation model is truly successful,

this leads to the inevitable conflict between contemporary secularism and religious traditionalism. The agreement from March 2016 between the European Union and Turkey to resolve the refugee crisis attempts to put a stop to the uncontrolled arrival of refugees into Europe. The Turkish President is, at the same time, radicalising his rhetoric and imposing a totalitarian regime. Taking into account the results of the referendum, the United Kingdom is withdrawing the European Union and it is possible that the European Union will significantly turn towards Asia and establish new economic, as well as political alliances. Regardless of the new balance of power, it remains uncertain how the European Union will respond to future challenges and will defend its values, because the motto “United in Diversity” has been put to a historic test.

6. Reference List

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LERNMETHODENANALYSE BEIM SPRACHERWERB DES DEUTSCHEN ALS ZWEITSPRACHE AM BEISPIEL EINES AUSBILDUNGS- UND SPRACHINSTITUTES IN ÖSTERREICH UNTER BESONDERER BERÜCKSICHTIGUNG DER KOMMUNIKATIVEN METHODE

Petra Vujović

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

petra.golubic@googlemail.com

Zusammenfassung

Der Überblick über die historische Entwicklung der Lernmethodik beim Fremdspracherwerb deutet auf bedeutende methodische Veränderungen, aber auch auf eine kontinuierliche Entwicklung der Methodik im Einklang mit den Erwartungen und Bedürfnissen der Gesellschaft hin. In diesem Kontext wird über die traditionellen und alternativen Methoden gesprochen, die auch heute im Fremdsprachenunterricht eingesetzt werden, und zwar unterschiedlich und in Abhängigkeit von den spezifischen Bedürfnissen bestimmter Gruppen. Diese Arbeit analysiert einerseits die Rolle der kommunikativen Methode beim Erlernen der deutschen Sprache und untersucht andererseits die Möglichkeiten und Grenzen dieser Methode im Vergleich zu anderen Methoden. Mit diesem Ziel wurde eine Untersuchung über die Wirksamkeit der vier unterschiedlichen Lernmethoden des Fremdspracherwerbs durchgeführt. Als Beispiel wurden Migranten aus der Wanderungswelle von 2017 genommen, die an einem zehnmonatigen Programm zum Erwerb des Pflichtschulabschlusses in Wien teilnahmen, das von der Bundesregierung konzipiert und finanziert wurde. Die unter den Teilnehmern des genannten Kurses als Teil dieser Untersuchung verwendeten Methoden wurden analysiert und miteinander verglichen. Die Untersuchung erfasste eine spezifische Gruppe von Probanden, nämlich Migranten unterschiedlichen Alters mit vorherigen Erfahrungen als Kursteilnehmer an einem Deutschkurs in Österreich. Im Rahmen dieser Untersuchung wurde weiterhin die Effektivität der Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode, der direkten Methode, der audiolingualen bzw. der audiovisuellen Methode und der

kommunikativen Methode beim Spracherwerb im Rahmen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts analysiert. Die Untersuchung wies auf die Bedeutung der kommunikativen Methode bei dem modernen Spracherwerb hin, bestätigte aber auch den Bedarf nach einer kontinuierlichen Verbesserung der jetzigen Lernmethoden beim Erlernen des Deutschen als grundlegende Verständigungssprache in Österreich.

Schlüsselwörter: Lernmethoden beim Deutschlernen, DAF/DAZ, kommunikative Methode, Gemeinsamer Europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen (GER), Sprachpolitik in Österreich

1. Einführung

Viele Autoren zählen Methoden wie die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode, die direkte, die audio-linguale/audio-visuelle und die kommunikative Methode zu den häufigsten Lernmethoden beim Fremdsprachenerwerb (Rösler, 2012; Rösch, 2011). Der starke Anstieg der Zuwanderung, der sich in den bisher höchsten Zuwanderungsraten auf dem Gebiet Österreichs, aber auch anderer EU-Länder äußert, bewog die zuständigen Behörden in Österreich zum Planen und Erstellen entsprechender Unterrichtskonzepte zum Zwecke eines schnelleren Erlernens des Deutschen als Zweitsprache. Die Möglichkeit eines schnelleren Erwerbs der deutschen Sprache stellt für viele Migranten eine existenzielle Frage dar. Ebenso wichtig erscheint diese Frage für die österreichische Regierung. In diesem Zusammenhang geht es vor allem um die Anwendung der adäquaten Lernmethodik im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht. Die konkrete Auswahl der Lernmethoden beim Spracherwerb ist durch den realen Bedarf der Migranten in Österreich an der möglichst schnellen Beherrschung der grundlegenden Fertigkeiten wie Schreiben, Lesen, Hören und Sprechen begründet. Dies sollte in weiterer Folge die Beschleunigung des Integrationsprozesses der Migranten und ihr selbstständiges Zurechtfinden in den üblichen Alltagssituationen ermöglichen. Laut den Angaben des ÖIF, des Österreichischen Integrationsfonds, zielt die gegenwärtige Kommunikation der Migranten in der deutschen Sprache in Österreich in erster Linie auf die Verständigung und das Zurechtfinden in bestimmten und schon vertrauten Alltagssituationen (2017) ab. Das Konzept des Deutschlernens in Österreich, vor allem im Rahmen der Integrationskurse, basiert auf dem

Gemeinsamen europäischen Referenzrahmen für Sprachen, dem sogenannten GERR. Als grundlegendes Dokument des Europarats beinhaltet der GERR Richtlinien hinsichtlich der Gestaltung der Sprachausbildungspolitik in den europäischen Ländern (Bagić, 2011, 223). Laut GERR werden die oben genannten Unterrichtsziele in erster Linie durch kommunikative Aufgaben (z.B. sich vorstellen, Essen und Getränke, Einkaufen, Wohnen) verwirklicht: *”Der Schwerpunkt einer kommunikativen Aufgabe liegt auf ihrer erfolgreichen Bewältigung und im Mittelpunkt steht folglich die inhaltliche Ebene, während Lernende ihre kommunikativen Absichten realisieren.“* (GeR, S. 153, Europaparlament, 2001). Eine Bestätigung dessen ist bei Thonhauser zu finden. Laut Thonhauser wird von dem Kandidaten im Unterricht verlangt, dass er die gegebenen Inhalte versteht, handlungsorientiert ist und sich ausdrücken kann, damit das kommunikative Ziel erreicht wird (Thonhauser, 2010, 8). Unter Berücksichtigung der Unterrichtsziele ist es notwendig, die Anwendung verschiedener Lernmethoden beim Erlernen des Deutschen als Zweitsprache und ihren praktischen Wert empirisch zu bestätigen. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht ist eine Methodenvielfalt notwendig, sie alleine ist allerdings nicht ausreichend. Daher ist es erforderlich, ganz genau zu beobachten, wie sich bestimmte Ziele, Inhalte und Methoden gegenseitig ergänzen (Meyer, 2002, 110). Riemer (1997, 233) unterscheidet bei den Lernfaktoren zwischen den endogenen und den exogenen. Die endogenen Faktoren beziehen sich vor allem auf die Lernstile, das Alter, die Intelligenz, die Motivation, die Persönlichkeit, das Vorwissen oder beispielsweise auf die vorherigen Erfahrungen. Zu den exogenen Faktoren zählen die Herkunft und der Unterricht (Lehrer, Lernende, Unterrichtsmethoden, Unterrichtsmaterialien, Interaktion usw.). In diesem Kontext ist es unerlässlich, auch die Motivation beim Erlernen der deutschen Sprache zu erwähnen. Rösler (2012, 10) erklärt den grundlegenden Unterschied zwischen der instrumentalen und der integrativen Motivation folgendermaßen: Lernende mit einer instrumentalen Motivation lernen eine Fremdsprache, um ihre Aufstiegschancen in der Arbeit zu verbessern oder eine Lohnerhöhung anzustreben. Kandidaten mit integrativer Motivation dagegen lernen eine Fremdsprache, weil sie Interesse an der Zielkultur, zu der sie auch ein positives Verhältnis haben, zeigen. Das Wissen wird weiterhin durch intensive Bewältigung bestimmter Situationen erworben. Dabei sollte ohnehin berücksichtigt werden, dass Menschen verschiedene Inhalte im Laufe ihrer Entwicklung auf verschiedene Weisen lernen und dass der Erkenntnisprozess in genetisch bestimmten Phasen abläuft (Rösch, 2011, 65).

Jede Lernmethode weist bestimmte Vor- und Nachteile auf, worauf auch diese Untersuchung hinweisen möchte. Beim Erlernen der deutschen Sprache ist es nicht erwünscht, sich nur einer Lernmethode zu bedienen. Von den vorhandenen traditionellen und alternativen Lernmethoden wurden im Rahmen dieser Untersuchung die vier oben genannten Methoden, die ihre Anwendung im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht in Österreich finden, analysiert. Diese Arbeit möchte auf die komparativen Vorteile der ausgewählten Methoden und auf ihre gegenseitigen Unterschiede bezüglich des GERR hinweisen, der in den Richtlinien für das Programm im Fremdsprachenunterricht jedoch die kommunikative Lernmethode bevorzugt. Auch die aktuelle Sprachpolitik in Österreich gibt der kommunikativen Methode in den Integrationskursen den Vorrang.

2. Einige DAF/DAZ-Lernmethoden

Die Lernmethoden im Fremdsprachenprozess analysierend gibt Rösler (2012, 65) eine grundlegende Einteilung in traditionelle und die alternative Methoden vor. Zu den bekanntesten und wichtigsten traditionellen Methoden zählen laut Rösler die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode, die direkte Methode, die audiolinguale Methode, die audiovisuelle Methode, die kommunikative Methode und die interkulturelle Methode. Zu den geläufigen alternativen Lernmethoden gehören die sogenannte Suggestopädie, die Methode des Total Physical Response oder die therapeutische Methode. Im Zusammenhang mit den DAF/DAZ-Lernmethoden im Fremdsprachenunterricht betont Rösler (2012, 65-66) die Problematik der Methodenvielfalt im Lernprozesses. Deswegen sollen heutzutage in verschiedenen Teilen der Welt traditionelle und alternative Lernmethoden im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht gleichermaßen vertreten sein. Da es keine universelle Antwort auf die Frage nach der geeignetsten Lernmethode für die Gegenwart gibt, geht Rösler in seiner Analyse chronologisch von den ältesten zu den modernsten Lernmethoden vor. In Abhängigkeit von den gewählten Kriterien und den gegebenen Bedingungen bewerten verschiedene Einzelpersonen die einzelnen Methoden ganz unterschiedlich und können somit eine bestimmte Methode als die "richtige", "aktuellste" oder "modernste" Lernmethode charakterisieren. Zum Zwecke dieser Arbeit wurden folgende vier traditionellen Lernmethoden gewählt und analysiert: die Grammatik-

Übersetzungsmethode, die direkte Methode, die audiolinguale/audiovisuelle Methode und die kommunikative Methode.

2.1. Die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode

Die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode gehört zu den ältesten Lernmethoden des Fremdspracherwerbs. Bei dieser Methode wird eine Fremdsprache nach den Unterrichtsansätzen gelehrt, die aus dem Fremdsprachenunterricht in Latein oder Altgriechisch übernommen wurden. Diese Methode bezeichnet explizites Lernen von grammatischen Regeln und Ausnahmen, die in erster Linie dazu dienen, Zusammenfassungen von gelesenen Texten und Aufsätze zu schreiben und sie zu übersetzen (Rösler, 2012, 68). Hilfreiche Unterrichtsmittel bei dieser Methode sind die Grammatik, das zweisprachige Wörterbuch und die zweisprachigen Wortlisten mit den Vokabeln (Neuner, Hunfeld, 1993, 31). Die Zielsprache wird mithilfe der Kategorien der lateinischen Schulgrammatik dargestellt und erklärt. Grammatische Regeln werden in der Muttersprache erklärt und der Wortschatz wird in die Muttersprache übersetzt. Dadurch wird die Muttersprache zur wichtigsten Kommunikationssprache im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Das wichtigste Ziel des auf der Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode basierenden Unterrichts besteht darin, durch die Anwendung der auswendig gelernten grammatischen Regeln korrekte Sätze in der Fremdsprache zu bilden. Ein ebenso wichtiges Lernziel stellt die Fähigkeit des Lernenden dar, Sätze durch die Anwendung der formalen grammatischen Werte umschreiben und Texte übersetzen zu können (Neuner, Hunfeld, 1993, 31). Das Auswendiglernen des Wortschatzes und die Beherrschung der Grammatik bilden die Grundlagen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts. Das Sprachwissen ist dabei wichtiger als die Sprachkompetenz (Salvato, 2006, 91). Bei dieser Methode werden literarische Texte zugrunde gelegt, die gelesen, übersetzt und zusammengefasst werden. Der Fremdsprachenlehrer, der diese Methode bevorzugt, unterrichtet vor allem die Grammatik, die von den Kursteilnehmern oder den Schülern im regulären Schulprogramm auswendig gelernt wird (Neuner, Hunfeld, 1993, 31). Laut Rösch (2011, 67) hat der nach den Prinzipien der Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode durchgeführte Unterricht die Vermittlung der korrekten Zielsprache und die Vermeidung von Fehlern zum Ziel. Auf diese Weise wird bei der Anwendung der Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode im

Fremdsprachenunterricht der Akzent auf den Text und das Schreiben gesetzt, wobei Fertigkeiten wie Hören und Sprechen völlig vernachlässigt werden. Laut Rösler (2012, 69) Kritik ist die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode für den Fremdsprachenunterricht dann geeignet, wenn das Unterrichtsziel die Beschäftigung mit Sprachformen und Texten der Hochkultur als Teil der Allgemeinbildung junger Menschen darstellt. Ändert sich jedoch das Unterrichtsziel im Sinne der gegenwärtigen Tendenz hin zur Förderung kommunikativer Kompetenz als wichtigsten Unterrichtsziels im Fremdsprachenunterricht, wird die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode wegen ihrer Orientiertheit auf den kognitiven Zugang zu den Strukturen, die wir in den schriftlichen Texten finden, problematisch.

2.2. Die direkte Methode

Die direkte Methode wird laut Neuner und Hunfeld (1993, 33) auch als "Anti-Grammatik-Methode", "Reformmethode", "rationale Methode", "natürliche Methode", oder "intuitive Methode" bezeichnet, da sie im Gegensatz zu der Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode einen "natürlichen" bzw. "intuitiven" Zugang zum Fremdsprachenerwerb verlangt. Dabei sind das explizite Lernen der Grammatik und das Übersetzen literarischer Texte weniger wichtig. Die direkte Methode wird gerade durch die Konzentriertheit auf die Förderung der sprachlichen Kompetenzen charakterisiert, wobei die Grammatik induktiv und mithilfe von Texten und Bildern gelehrt wird (Rösch, 2011, 68). Bei dieser Methode eignet sich der Lernende die Fremdsprache nach den Prinzipien des Mutterspracherwerbs an. Das Ziel dieser Methode ist, mit anderen Worten, die Entwicklung von Sprachgefühl durch Nachahmung und Induktion nach den Einsprachigkeitsprinzipien. In diesem Sinne gilt der Einsatz der Muttersprache im Unterricht als schädlich und wird im Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht zugelassen. Während des Unterrichts sollen die Kursteilnehmer nach dieser Methode eine direkte Verbindung zwischen der Welt und der neuen Sprache herstellen. Es ist aber notwendig, diese Welt kennenzulernen, weswegen Bilder und verschiedene visuelle Mittel im Unterricht verwendet werden, sodass sich das Verhältnis zwischen dem Kursteilnehmer und der Welt allmählich aufbauen kann (Rösler, 2012, 70). Laut Rösler (2012, 70) verlangt die direkte Methode die Herstellung einer Verbindung zwischen der Welt, die den Kandidaten umgibt, und der Sprache, die der Kandidat lernt. Diese Verbindung wird durch die Anwendung visueller Hilfsmittel im

Fremdsprachenunterricht möglich. Landeskundliche Bilder, die das Land der Zielsprache darstellen, werden als Beispiel für hilfreiche Unterrichtsmittel genannt. Rösler (2012, 70) hebt weiterhin auch die praktische Funktion des Fremdsprachengebrauchs hervor. Diese betrifft vor allem das Zurechtfinden in verschiedenen Alltagssituationen und die Dominanz des einsprachigen Unterrichts, bei dem der Gebrauch der Muttersprache für schädlich gehalten wird. In diesem Zusammenhang ist laut der Autorin auch die spezifische Rolle des Lehrers zu erwähnen. Der Lehrer dient als das Sprachvorbild, das von den Schülern/Kursteilnehmern nachgeahmt wird. Daher sollte der Lehrer ein Muttersprachler sein. Die direkte Methode wird durch die Betonung der sprachlichen Fertigkeiten, die Ablehnung der Muttersprache als Unterrichtssprache und die induktive Grammatikvermittlung in Verbindung mit Texten und Bildern (Rösch, 2011, 68) charakterisiert. Das Gespräch fungiert als grundlegende Unterrichtsform und der Vorrang wird der gesprochenen Sprache gegeben, die auch Elemente der Umgangssprache enthalten kann. Durch den ausschließlichen Gebrauch der direkten Methode im Fremdsprachenunterricht wird der schriftliche Aspekt, der die Literatur und den schriftlichen Ausdruck vermittelt, vernachlässigt.

2.3. Die audiolinguale/audiovisuelle Methode

Die audiolinguale wie auch die audiovisuelle Methode bevorzugen die mündliche Ausdrucksweise im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Bei der audiolingualen Methode üben die Kandidaten bestimmte Sprachmuster durch Imitation und laufendes Wiederholen („pattern drill“), d.h. Auswendiglernen von Dialogen, die in einem Sprachlabor eingeübt werden. Das Sprachlabor bietet ein breites Spektrum an Möglichkeiten wie Ausspracheübungen und Hörverstehen oder mündliches Wiederholen von Grammatikmustern. Der sogenannte „Drill“ bezieht sich vor allem auf das Zuhören, worauf dann reagiert und geantwortet wird. Nachdem die richtige Antwort gehört wird, erfolgt durch das Wiederholen der richtigen Antwort die Korrektur. Bei dieser Methode gewinnt die Grammatik wieder an Bedeutung, und zwar in der dialogischen Form. Mit anderen Worten werden bestimmte grammatische Einheiten nicht isoliert von der Anwendung, sondern durch Dialoge eingeübt (Rösler, 2012, 71-72). Bei der audiovisuellen Methode wird im Fremdsprachenunterricht den visuellen Medien wie Film,

Fernseher oder Diaprojektor¹ der Vorrang gegeben, also dem Verbinden des Bildes mit dem Ton (Rösler, 2012, 74). Die beiden Methoden bestehen auf Einsprachigkeit im Fremdsprachenunterricht (Rösler, 2012, 74), bzw. auf der absoluten Ablehnung der Muttersprache im Fremdsprachenunterricht wie auch auf dem Einüben der im Voraus vorbereiteten Sprachmuster. Diese Methode setzt allerdings nicht voraus, Grammatik im expliziten Sinne zu üben, aber eine kurze zusammenfassende grammatische Übersicht in tabellarischer Form wird für selbstverständlich gehalten (Rösler, 2012, 73). Der Fremdsprachenunterricht nach diesen beiden Methoden erfordert eine Analyse der gesprochenen Sprache, und zwar durch das Sammeln, Sortieren und Bewerten bestimmter Sprachphänomene. Primäre Fertigkeiten bei diesen beiden Methoden sind das Sprechen und das Hören, wobei der Akzent vor allem auf die Aussprache und die Intonation gesetzt wird. Charakteristisch ist ein besonderes Merkmal der beiden Methoden, das sich auf die grammatischen Regeln bezieht: die Grammatik wird nicht explizit erklärt.

2.4. Die kommunikative Methode

Bei der kommunikativen Methode wird der Fremdsprachenunterricht vor allem unter dem kommunikativen Aspekt betrachtet. Sie gewann erst dann an Bedeutung, als die Fremdsprache nicht mehr als Bildungsfertigkeit sondern als Kommunikationsmittel im Fremdsprachenunterricht verstanden wurde. In diesem Sinne diente die Fremdsprache zum ersten Mal einem bestimmten kommunikativen Zweck. Zur Feststellung der spezifischen kommunikativen Absicht ist es erforderlich, Faktoren wie das Alter, das Geschlecht, das Vorwissen, die Erfahrung oder das Interesse der Zielgruppe bzw. der Kursteilnehmer in Betracht zu ziehen. Diese Zugangsänderung im Fremdsprachenunterricht führte dazu, dass die Kompetenz des sprachlichen Handelns den Vorrang vor der sprachlichen Korrektheit erhielt. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht wurde der Fokus auf funktional-kommunikative Tätigkeiten wie Detektivspiele, Rollenspiele oder beispielsweise Debatten (Rösch, 2010, 70) gelegt. Laut Rösler (2012, 77) wird im Fremdsprachenunterricht nach der kommunikativen Methode der Schwerpunkt auf das sprachliche Handeln gesetzt. Die kommunikative Methode untersucht weiterhin, wie die Mitteilungsabsicht des Sprechers, die dazu erforderlichen sprachlichen

¹ Heutzutage werden in der Praxis immer öfters Video-Ausschnitte, Präsentationen u.Ä. benutzt.

Mittel und die Wirkung bestimmter sprachlicher Mittel auf den Hörer systematisiert und vermittelt werden können. In diesem Zusammenhang ist der Versuch, auf die unterschiedlichen Realisierungsmöglichkeiten einer Mitteilungsabsicht hinzuweisen, typisch für die Fremdsprachendidaktik. Laut Hölscher sind die funktionelle und auf die praktischen Sprechsituationen bezogene Grammatikverwendung wie auch das adäquate Einüben von Wortschatz und Sprachstrukturen in verschiedenen Alltagssituationen die wichtigsten Charakteristika der kommunikativen Methode (Hölscher, 2007, 154). Die häufigsten Unterrichtsformen sind Gruppen-, Partner- oder Individualarbeit. Der Unterrichtende übernimmt Organisations- bzw. Helferfunktion. Somit wird im Fremdsprachenunterricht die dominierende Rolle auf den Lernenden übertragen, der jetzt im Fokus steht und aktiv am Unterricht teilnimmt. Die Aufgabe des Unterrichtenden bezieht sich in erster Linie darauf, den Unterricht innerhalb des gegebenen Rahmens zu planen und den Kandidaten zur Verwirklichung konkreter kommunikativer Ziele zu motivieren und anzuleiten. Die Unterrichtsaufgaben werden so gestellt, dass für ihre erfolgreiche Ausführung eine Kooperation innerhalb der Teilnehmergruppe verlangt wird. In weiterer Folge wird dadurch auf den Frontalunterricht verzichtet und der Vorrang wird alternativen, sozialeren Unterrichtsformen gegeben (Neuner, 2003, 232). Der Unterricht ist durch eine offene und flexible Form charakterisiert, die gegebenen Texte sind authentisch und haben eine kommunikative Funktion. Die Grundlage dieser Methode besteht in den kommunikativen Zielen und pragmatischen Ansätzen, die sich durch die Beherrschung der Lese-, Schreib-, Hör- und Sprechfertigkeiten verwirklichen. Diese Methode zielt vor allem auf das globale und selektive Verstehen von Texten wie auch auf das Zurechtfinden des Lernenden in vorgegebenen Situationen ab.

3. Untersuchungsmethode und Sample

Zu Durchführungszwecken der Untersuchung wurde die Befragungsmethode genutzt. Die Befragung wurde in Österreich in den Klassenzimmern (in insgesamt vier Gruppen) des Bildungs- und Sprachinstitutes Germanica durchgeführt, das Deutschkurse für alle Sprachniveaus, Integrationskurse und auch Pflichtschulabschlusskurse und Basisbildungskurse anbietet. Das Institut ist auch Prüfungszentrum für ÖSD- und ÖIF-Prüfungen (zertifiziertes Sprachinstitut für die deutsche Sprache). Von ungefähr 200

Kandidaten, die an dem Institut einen Kurs besuchten, erfüllten insgesamt 32 Kursteilnehmer die Anforderungen dieser Untersuchung. Die erwähnten Untersuchungsanforderungen bestanden darin, dass a) die Teilnehmer des Pflichtschulabschlusskurses am Bildungsinstitut Germanica bzw. die Befragten keine Muttersprachler der deutschen Sprachen waren, b) die Befragten Deutsch als Fremdsprache im Rahmen eines Deutschkurses erlernt hatten. Die Befragten unterschieden sich in Alter (von Minderjährigen bis zu Menschen mittleren Alters), Nationalität und Muttersprache (Tschechisch, Persisch, Arabisch, Kroatisch, Serbisch, Englisch, Türkisch), Religion, Ausbildungsgrad (mit oder ohne Pflichtschulabschluss) und Niveau der Sprachbeherrschung im Deutschen (A1 bis B2), Arbeitserfahrung und Aufenthaltsdauer in Österreich. Alle Befragten waren alphabetisiert und besaßen Vorerfahrung im Besuch von Deutschkursen (A1, A2, B1 oder ein höheres Sprachniveau). Die Befragten beantworteten die gleichen sechs geschlossenen Fragen. Von 32 Befragten, die an der Befragung teilnahmen, füllten sechs Befragte die Befragung nicht korrekt aus, weswegen sie nicht Teil dieser Untersuchung sind. 26 Befragte füllten den Fragebogen richtig aus und ihre Antworten wurden zu Zwecken dieser Untersuchung ausgewertet. Von den insgesamt 26 Befragten lebten alle Befragten als Migranten in Österreich. 18 davon waren Männer und 8 Frauen. Die Befragten füllten die Befragung selbstständig aus. Das Ausfüllen des Fragebogens dauerte ungefähr 15 Min. und für die gesamte Durchführung waren zwei Tage erforderlich (22.5. und 31.5.2017). Die Befragten wurden vor dem Befragungsbeginn über den Zweck der Untersuchung und über die vorgesehene Beantwortung der Fragen aufgeklärt. Zudem wurden weniger bekannte Begriffe aus dem Fragebogen erklärt, um mögliche Missverständnisse bezüglich der Fragen bzw. Antworten zu minimieren. Alle Befragten meldeten sich freiwillig für die Teilnahme an dieser Befragung und gaben ihre mündliche Zusage. Die Anonymität aller Befragten wurde in jedem Moment respektiert. Die angewandte Befragungsmethode zielte auf das Sammeln von Daten über Perzeptionen und persönliche Meinungen, Motive, Wünsche und Einstellungen der Befragten zu den gestellten Fragen ab. Diese Arbeit basiert auf der Primärforschungsmethode und die in dieser Arbeit präsentierten Daten wurden ausschließlich zu Zwecken eines solchen Forschungsprojektes gesammelt. Ein Vorteil dieser Methode ist, dass die Daten präzise, auf die konkrete Problemstellung und das Forschungsziel ausgerichtet und entsprechend den Anforderungen der Untersuchung, die wir durchgeführt haben, erhoben wurden. Die in der Befragung enthaltenen Fragen und Antworten wurden so formuliert und zusammengestellt, dass die

Möglichkeit einer falschen Interpretation seitens der Befragten sehr gering war (Tkalac Verčič, Sinčić Ćorić, Pološki Vokić, 2014, 102-103). Die meisten Befragten hatten keine bisherigen Erfahrungen mit einer Befragung, was zur Ungültigkeit von insgesamt sechs Fragebögen führte. Für die Realisation dieser Arbeit wurde die quantitative Analyse benutzt, nach der die gestellten Fragen von den Befragten mit eindeutigen, klaren Antworten beantwortet werden mussten. Auf diese Weise wurde dafür gesorgt, dass bei der Auswertung der Ergebnisse jegliche Subjektivität vermieden wird. Die Untersuchung wurde in vier Gruppen eines zehnmonatigen Pflichtschulabschlusskurses in der Republik Österreich durchgeführt. Die vier Gruppen bildeten die Untersuchungseinheit dieser Befragung. Befragt wurden jedoch nur die Kursteilnehmer, die Deutsch als Fremd- oder Zweitsprache in einem Deutschkurs in Österreich gelernt hatten und daher also keine Muttersprachler des Deutschen waren.

3.1. Der Fragebogen

Ein Fragebogen, der aus sechs Fragen bestand, war das Ausgangsinstrument unserer Untersuchung. Die Fragen bezogen sich auf bestimmte Kriterien und wichtige Elemente des DAF/DAZ-Unterrichts und auf die vier Lernmethoden, die als mögliche Antworten angeboten wurden. Die sechs gestellten Fragen und die dazu angebotenen Antworten, die sich auf die Durchführung des DAF/DAZ-Unterrichts bezogen, lauteten: Welche Lernmethode bevorzuge ich beim Deutschlernen? Welche Unterrichtsmittel finde ich besonders hilfreich? Welche Rolle hat die Muttersprache im Deutschunterricht? Welche Rolle haben die Lehrkräfte im Deutschunterricht? Welche grundlegende Unterrichtsform bevorzuge ich im Deutschunterricht? Wie soll das Verhältnis zwischen dem Schriftlichen und dem Mündlichen im Deutschunterricht sein? Die angeführten sechs Fragen aus dem Fragebogen wurden aufgrund einer Analyse des Lehrplanes am Bildungs- und Sprachinstitut Germanica in Österreich, an dem diese Befragung durchgeführt wurde, ausgewählt. Ebenso relevant für die Zusammenstellung des Fragebogens waren die Prüfungsprogramme der zuständigen österreichischen Institutionen ÖIF und ÖSD sowie auch der Gemeinsame Europäische Referenzrahmen für Sprachen bzw. GERR. Spezifisch für die getroffene Fragenauswahl im Fragebogen war das dritte Kriterium bzw. die Rolle der Muttersprache im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht, da die Lehrkräfte am Bildungs- und Sprachinstitut Germanica in Österreich

mehrsprachig sind und daher der Unterricht auch in der Muttersprache möglich ist. Ausgewählt wurden vier Methoden: die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode, die direkte Methode, die audiovisuelle/audiolinguale Methode, die kommunikative Methode. Bezugnehmend auf eigene Erfahrungen mit Deutsch als Fremd- bzw. Zweitsprache entschied sich jeder Befragte für nur eine Methode, die nach seiner persönlichen Meinung optimal für die Verwirklichung eines bestimmten Unterrichtszieles bzw. für die Erfüllung eines bestimmten Kriteriums geeignet ist. Die Befragung wurde in deutscher Sprache ohne Übersetzung in die Muttersprache durchgeführt. Alle Befragten bestätigten mündlich, dass sie die Fragen im Fragebogen und die Aufgabe verstanden hatten. Der Fragebogen befindet sich im Anhang zu dieser Arbeit.

4. Die Ergebnisse der Untersuchung

Die Untersuchung zeigte folgendes Ergebnis:

- Kommunikative Methode 54 % der Befragten
- Direkte Methode 20 % der Befragten
- Audiovisuelle/audiolinguale Methode 17 % der Befragten
- Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode 5 % der Befragten

In einer Gesamtschau der untersuchten Methoden und im Hinblick auf die sechs gestellten Fragen bietet diese Untersuchung einen Überblick über die persönliche Meinung der Deutschlernenden in einem Kurs in Österreich hinsichtlich der Wirksamkeit bestimmter Methoden für den Deutscherwerb.

Tabelle 1. Liste der untersuchten Methoden und Fragen mit ihren Einzel- und Gesamtergebnissen

	Grammatik- Übersetzungsmethode (GÜM)	Direkte Methode (DM)	Audiovisuelle/audiolinguale Methode (AVM/ALM)	Kommunikative Methode (KM)
1. Beim Deutschlernen bevorzuge ich...	12 %	38%	27 %	23 %
2. Hilfreiche Unterrichtsmittel sind...	0 %	32 %	48 %	20 %
3. Die Rolle der Muttersprache im	8 %	11 %	0 %	81 %

Deutschunterricht				
4. Die Rolle der Lehrkräfte im Deutschunterricht	4 %	30 %	11 %	55 %
5. Als grundlegende Unterrichtsform bevorzuge ich...	4 %	8 %	15 %	73 %
6. Das Verhältnis zwischen dem Schriftlichen und dem Mündlichen im Deutschunterricht	4 %	4 %	4 %	88 %
Insgesamt	156 Antworten			

Die Tabelle 1. zeigt die Unmöglichkeit, eine einfache Antwort auf die Frage nach der besten Lernmethode für den Fremdspracherwerb zu geben, und weist auf die Komplexität der Befragungsergebnisse in Bezug auf die Problematik der besten Lernmethode hin. Eine gründliche Analyse der Tabelle 1. und die Bearbeitung des Fragebogens nach der vergleichenden Methode zeigten die gesamte Vielschichtigkeit dieser Problematik.

4.1. Welche Methode bevorzuge ich beim Deutschlernen?

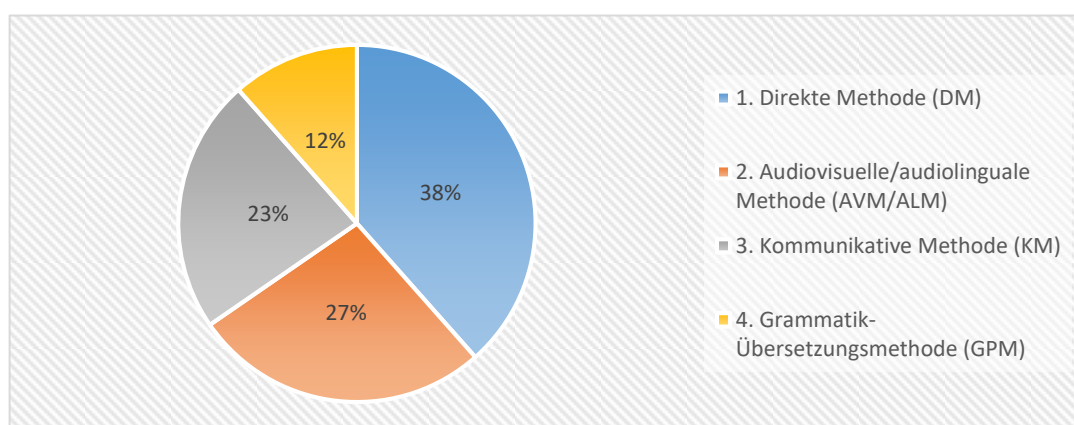


Tabelle 2. Einzelergebnisse nach Methoden, die Antwort auf die 1. Frage im Fragebogen

Auf die Frage nach der Bevorzugung einer bestimmten Lernmethode beim Erlernen des Deutschen als Fremd- und Zweitsprache wurden den Befragten insgesamt vier unterschiedliche Antworten angeboten. 12% aller Befragten bevorzugten das Lernen grammatischer Regeln und Übersetzung in die Muttersprache (GÜM). 38 % der Befragten entschieden sich für den “natürlichen und intuitiven Spracherwerb“ (DM). 27% der Befragten gaben der sogenannten “Pattern-Drill-Methode“ den Vorrang, die durch das häufige Wiederholen und Auswendiglernen einzelner Sprachstrukturen, aber auch durch eine Unterrichtsform charakterisiert ist, die nicht unbedingt das aktive Einüben einzelner schriftlicher Fertigkeiten und das Nachahmen der im Unterricht als sprachliche Vorbilder fungierenden Lehrkräfte vorsieht (AVM/ALM). 23% der Befragten präferierten im Unterricht die Einzel-, Partner- oder Gruppenarbeit, bei der das fremdsprachliche Können gegenüber dem fremdsprachlichen Wissen Vorrang genießt (KM).

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach der bevorzugten Methode beim Erlernen des Deutschen als Fremd- oder Zweitsprache entschied sich die Mehrheit der Befragten (38%) für die direkte Methode (DM).

4.2. Hilfreiche Unterrichtsmittel im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht

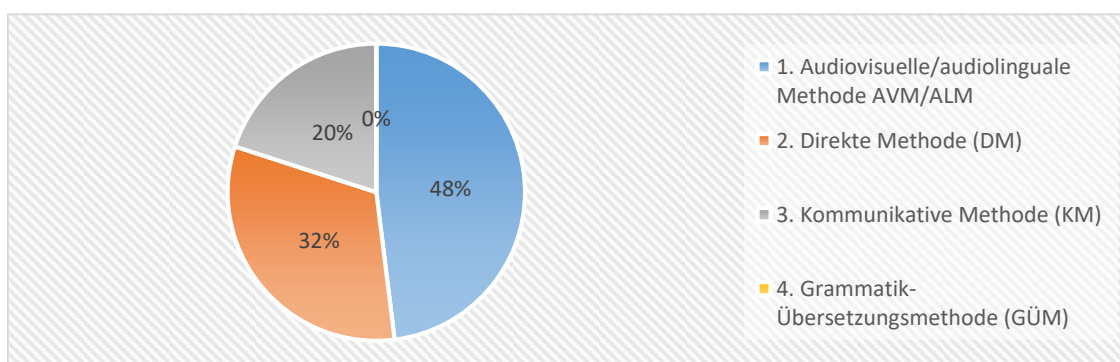


Tabelle 3. Einzelergebnisse nach Methoden, Antwort auf die 2. Frage

Als Antwort auf die Frage nach hilfreichen Unterrichtsmitteln wurden insgesamt vier Antworten angeboten. 0% der Befragten entschieden sich für Grammatik- und Wörterbücher und zweisprachige Wortlisten (GÜM). 32% der Befragten waren der Meinung, für das Erlernen des Deutschen in Österreich sei landeskundliches Wissen über Österreich und aktiver Sprachgebrauch, das Lernen durch Nachahmen der im Unterricht als Sprachvorbild fungierenden Lehrkräfte und Assoziationen sowie die Benennung von Gegenständen und Naturerscheinungen aus dem unmittelbaren Lebensumfeld erforderlich (DM). 48% der Befragten bevorzugten audiovisuelle Medien wie Filme, Folien für den Overheadprojektor, Bilder oder den Einsatz sonstiger technischer Geräte im Unterricht (AVM/ALM). 20% der Befragten bevorzugten die Situativität bzw. das Zurechtfinden in bestimmten alltäglichen Situationen, das Üben im Kontext und das globale/selektive Leseverstehen (KM).

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach hilfreichen Unterrichtsmitteln im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht entschied sich die Mehrheit der Befragten (48%) für die audiovisuelle/audiolinguale Methode (AVM/ALM).

4.3. Die Rolle der Muttersprache im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht in Österreich

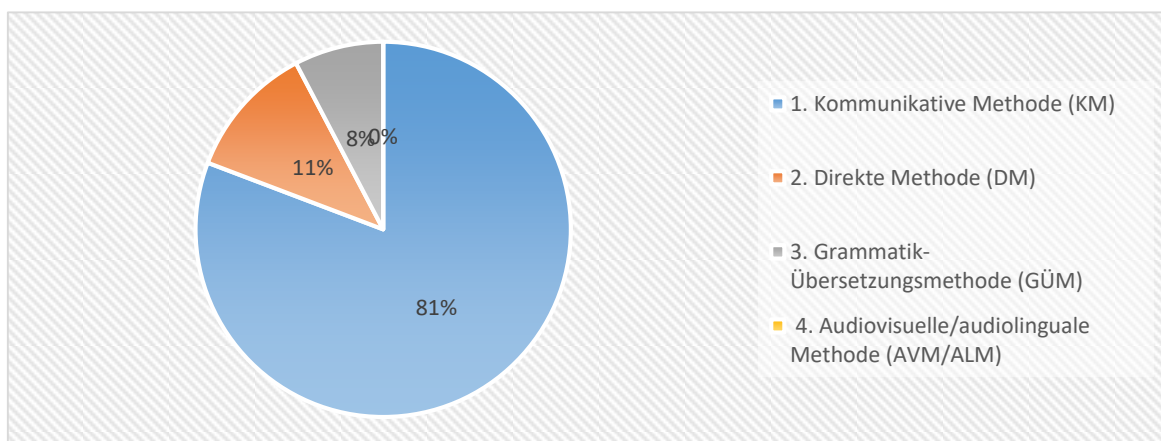


Tabelle 4. Einzelergebnisse nach Methoden, Antwort auf die 3. Frage

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach Rolle der Muttersprache im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht äußerten sich 8% der Befragten positiv zur Erklärung grammatischer Regeln in der Muttersprache, die Übersetzung der Vokabeln und folglich auch über die vorherrschende Position der Muttersprache im Unterricht (GÜM). Für 11% der Befragten ist die

Muttersprache ein Störfaktor im Deutschunterricht und als solcher unerwünscht (DM). Für 0% der Befragten spielte die Muttersprache keine Rolle im Unterricht (AVM/ALM). Die restlichen 81% der Befragten waren der Meinung, das Deutschlernen hat unter Rückbezug auf die Muttersprache den größten Erfolg (KM).

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach der Rolle der Muttersprache im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht entschied sich die Mehrheit der Befragten (81%) für die kommunikative Methode (KM).

4.4. Die Rolle der Lehrkräfte im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht in Österreich

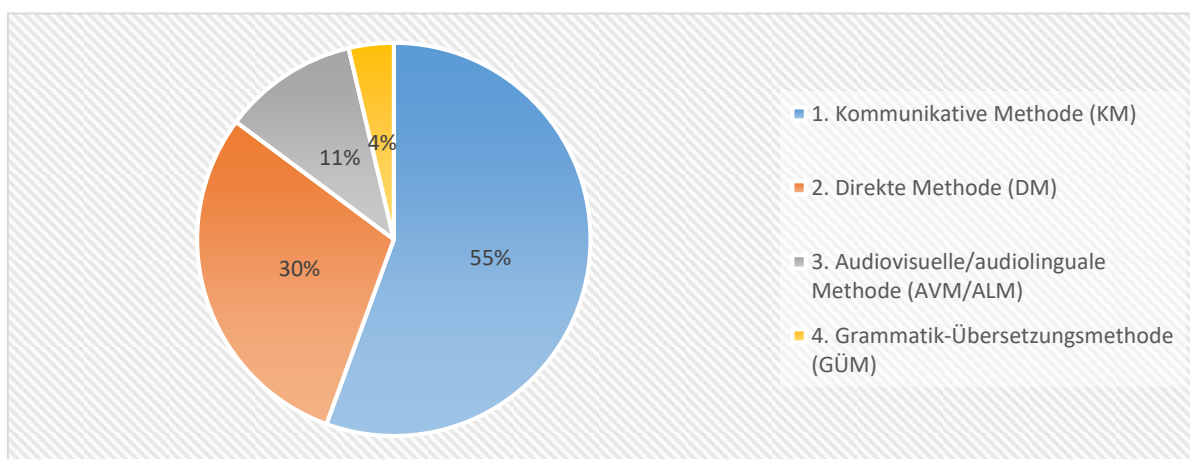


Tabelle 5. Einzelergebnisse nach Methoden, Antwort auf die 4. Frage

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach der Rolle der Lehrkräfte im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht waren 4% der Befragten der Meinung, die Lehrkräfte sollten eine führende Rolle spielen, bzw. sollte der Unterricht stark lehrerzentriert organisiert sein (GPM). Laut 30% der Befragten sollten die Lehrkräfte als Modellsprecher fungieren. Dabei wäre es erwünscht, dass die Lehrkräfte Muttersprachler sind, die von den Kandidaten auf eine natürliche und intuitive Weise imitiert werden (DM). 11% der Befragten bevorzugten im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht Lehrkräfte, die als Vorbildsprecher fungieren, wobei der Unterrichtende bestimmte authentische Sprechsituationen bzw. die sogenannten Strukturmuster betont und häufig wiederholen sollte, so dass die Kandidaten sie durch Imitation des Unterrichtenden einüben

können (AVM/ALM). 55% der Befragten gingen davon aus, dass die Lehrkraft während des Unterrichts eine Leiter-, Lernbegleiter- und Helferfunktion haben sollte. Der Unterricht ist daher nicht mehr lehrer- sondern kursteilnehmerzentriert. In diesem Zusammenhang sollten die Kursteilnehmer selbst eine aktive Rolle im Unterricht übernehmen. In der Folge haben die Lehrkräfte weniger Dominanz im Unterricht und die Kursteilnehmer mehr Verantwortung für den eigenen Lernprozess (KM).

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach der Rolle der Lehrkräfte im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht entschied sich die Mehrheit der Befragten (55%) für die kommunikative Methode (KM).

4.5. Die grundlegende Unterrichtsform im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht in Österreich

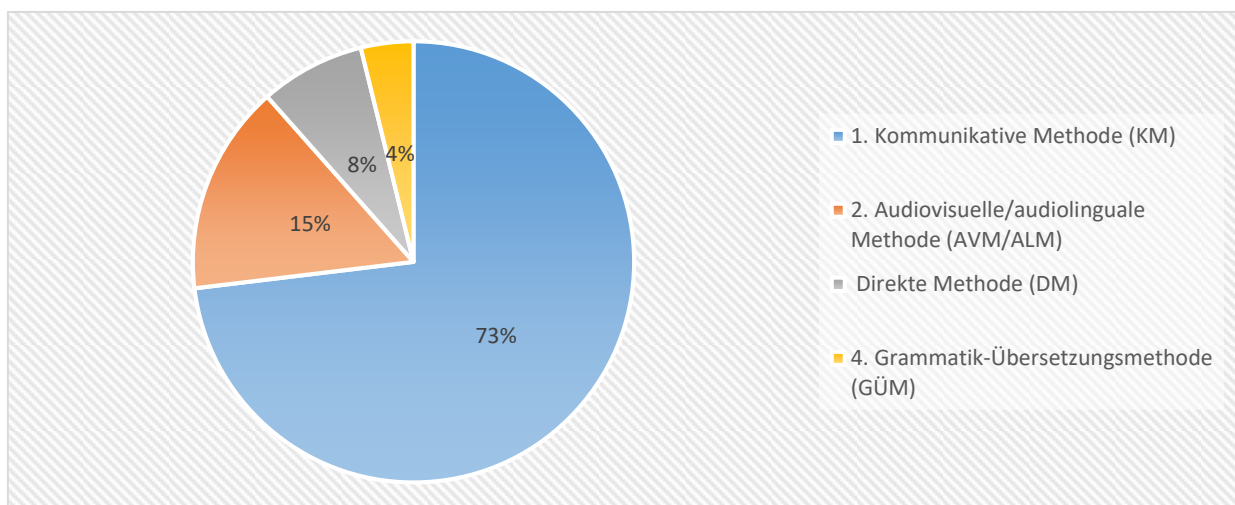


Tabelle 6. Einzelergebnisse nach Methode, Antwort auf die 5. Frage

Als grundlegende Unterrichtsform im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht bevorzugten 4% der Befragten die richtige Bildung und Umformung von Sätzen durch die Anwendung der gelernten grammatischen Regeln sowie auch die Textübersetzung GÜM). Für weitere 8% der Befragten stellte das Gespräch in der deutschen Sprache die grundlegende Unterrichtsform dar. Laut 15% der Befragten war die Analyse der gesprochenen Sprache die Grundlage für den DAF/DAZ-Unterricht. Dabei geht es vor allem um das Sammeln, Einordnen und Auswerten der sprachlichen Phänomene (AVM/ALM). 73% der Befragten wünschten sich den

pragmatischen und den kommunikativen Ansatz in allen vier Fertigkeiten (Hören, Sprechen, Lesen, Schreiben) als grundlegende Unterrichtsform des DAF/DAZ-Unterrichts (KM).

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach der grundlegenden Unterrichtsform im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht entschied sich die Mehrheit der Befragten für die kommunikative Methode (KM).

4.6. Das Verhältnis zwischen dem Schriftlichen und dem Mündlichen im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht in Österreich

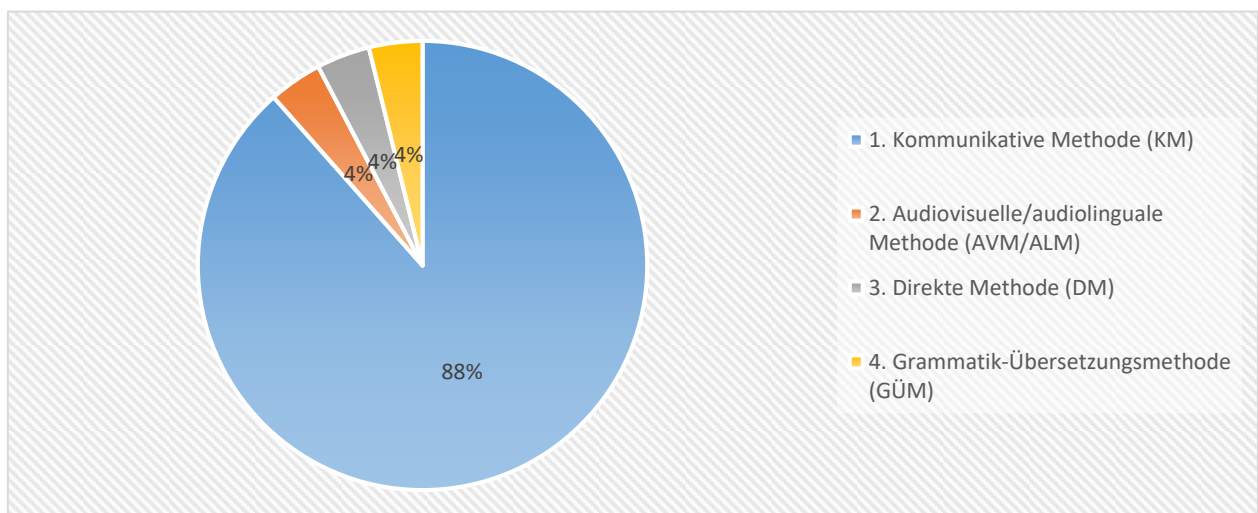


Tabelle 7. Einzelergebnisse nach Methoden, Antwort auf die 6. Frage

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach dem Verhältnis zwischen den schriftlichen und den mündlichen Fertigkeiten im DAF/DAZ-Unterricht bevorzugten 4% der Befragten die schriftlichen Lese- und Schreibfertigkeiten (GÜM). Weitere 4% der Befragten bevorzugten wiederum die gesprochene Sprache mit Elementen des Landeskundlichen und des Umgangssprachlichen aus dem alltäglichen Gebrauch (DM). Die folgenden 4% der Befragten präferierten die Hör- und Sprechfertigkeiten mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Aussprache, des Akzents und der Intonation (AVM/ALM). Die restlichen 88% der Befragten favorisieren jedoch die kommunikative Didaktik bzw. eine gleichmäßige Förderung aller vier Fertigkeiten, und zwar des Hörens, Sprechens, Lesens und Schreibens (KM).

Bei der Beantwortung der Frage nach dem Verhältnis zwischen den schriftlichen und den mündlichen Unterrichtsaufgaben, -elementen und -zielen entschied sich die Mehrheit der Befragten (88%) für die Kommunikative Methode (KM).

5. Fazit

Diese Untersuchung möchte darauf hinweisen, dass das Bestehen der zuständigen Behörden in Österreich auf der kommunikativen Methode bei dem Beschluss darüber, ob ein Kandidat die Voraussetzungen für den Erhalt eines gültigen Aufenthaltsstatus in Österreich erfüllt, unserer Meinung nach nicht völlig akzeptabel ist. Diese Untersuchung zeigte, dass nur knappe 50% der Befragten die kommunikative Methode bevorzugen, was auf die Notwendigkeit einer zusätzlichen Sampleerweiterung, aber auch auf den Bedarf an neuen Implementierungsmöglichkeiten der erhaltenen Ergebnisse im modernen DAF/DAZ-Unterricht hinweist. Zu Untersuchungszwecken wurden die vier ausgewählten Methoden analysiert und die erhaltenen Ergebnisse überprüft. Es besteht die Notwendigkeit einer andauernden Weiterentwicklung der gegenwärtigen DAF/DAZ-Lernmethoden, und zwar in Abhängigkeit von den gesellschaftlichen und staatlichen Bedürfnissen. Diese Untersuchung signalisiert weiterhin, dass die direkte und die audiovisuelle/audiolinguale Methode im Unterricht stark präsent sind, während die Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode in geringerem Maße angewendet wird. Im Hinblick auf die erhaltenen Ergebnisse deutet diese Untersuchung auf die Notwendigkeit der Erarbeitung eines Unterrichtskonzeptes hin, das in höherem Maße den „intuitiven“ oder „natürlichen“ Spracherwerb des Deutschen als Fremd- und Zweitsprache berücksichtigt. Dabei sollte auch beachtet werden, dass die direkte Methode zwar die mündlichen, aber nicht die schriftlichen Kommunikationskompetenzen fördert. Ebenso machen diese Untersuchungsergebnisse auf den Bedarf und den Wunsch der Kursteilnehmer nach dem Einsatz technischer Hilfsmittel im Unterricht und auf die Möglichkeit einer besseren Visualisierung im Lernprozess aufmerksam. Diesbezüglich besteht auch Bedarf, die Untersuchung auf das Gebiet der konkreten Erkenntnisse über die Art der Technik und die optimale Methodik ihres breiteren Einsatzes im Unterricht des Deutschen als Fremdsprache auszudehnen. Zukünftig sollten daher Unterrichtskonzepte erstellt werden, die auf einer Kombination dieser vier Methoden basieren. Es sollte ebenso darauf geachtet werden, dass die Grundlagen der Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode in die neuen Unterrichtskonzepte für DAF/DAZ in Österreich verstärkt einbezogen werden.

Als Fazit möchten wir vor allem auf die Beschränkungen bei der Erstellung des Fragebogens, der Befragung selbst sowie auch bei der Analyse der erhaltenen Ergebnisse hinweisen. 1) Die erste Beschränkung bezieht sich auf die Auswahl der insgesamt vier Methoden aus der

Gesamtheit der traditionellen und alternativen Methoden. In zukünftigen Untersuchungen sollten alle Methoden und mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der alternativen Methoden und ihrer Leistungen untersucht werden. 2) Die Tatsache, dass an der Befragung nur die Kursteilnehmer und das Lehrprogramm eines Pflichtschulabschlusskurses in Österreich berücksichtigt wurden. Ausgeschlossen wurden daher die Kursteilnehmer der Integrations- und anderer Deutschkurse in Österreich. Die Pflichtschulabschlusskurse werden von der Republik Österreich gefördert, da sie eine möglichst schnelle Integration und bessere Beschäftigungschancen vor allem für die Migranten in der österreichischen Gesellschaft ermöglichen. Aus diesem Grund wurde zu Zwecken dieser Untersuchung ein Pflichtschulabschlusskurs gewählt. 3) Die relativ begrenzte Zahl der Befragten, die in zukünftigen Untersuchungen auf ein größeres Sample aus verschiedenen Städten, Bundesländern, Bildungsinstitutionen wie auch Deutschkursen in Österreich erweitert werden sollte. 4) Die Tatsache, dass diese Arbeit ausschließlich die persönlichen Einstellungen der Deutschlernenden zu den Lernmethoden untersucht, ohne diese in eine Korrelation zu den Prüfungsergebnissen der Befragten zu setzen. 5) Die Arbeit untersucht nur die Einstellung der Deutschlernenden ohne andere Faktoren wie die verschiedenen Lernstile, den Motivations- oder Integrationsgrad, den Prüfungserfolg oder die Einstellungen der Unterrichtenden dabei in Betracht zu ziehen. Die verschiedenen Befragtenstrukturen sollten auch berücksichtigt werden. All dies dient dem Ziel, die Erkenntnisse über die Wirksamkeit bestimmter Lernmethoden zu erweitern und Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb des Deutschen als Fremd- und Zweitsprache in Österreich zu bekämpfen. Nach unseren Erkenntnissen wurde bis jetzt an keinem österreichischen Bildungs- bzw. Sprachinstitut für Deutsch als Fremd- und Zweitsprache eine solche Untersuchung durchgeführt. Diese Untersuchung leistet einen kleinen Beitrag zu einem deutlicheren Verständnis aller Vor- und Nachteile der analysierten Fremdsprachenlernmethoden.

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DECONSTRUCTION OF MYTH IN BUILDING PARTNERSHIP CULTURE

Romana Lekić, Ph.D.

Edward Bernays University College, Zagreb, Croatia

romana.lekic@bernays.hr

Branimir Blajić, M.A.

Life Class Terme Sv. Martin, Croatia

branimir.blajic@termesvetimartin.com

Tena Franjić, M.A.

Omega Group Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

tena1franjić@net.hr

Summary

Mythologies form a fundamental part of cultural traditions. They comprise and serve to convey a compilation of stories, narratives, symbols and ethical norms which inform the behavior and beliefs of people raised within particular traditions, and often function as lenses through which people interpret the world and the actions of others. Cultural understanding and cultural expectations vary in time, in geographic parts and experience. That is why it is hard to harmonize the level of interpretation of culture so that the levels would have a meaning for the “Others”. The starting point of this paper is the wish to show how the process of using the deconstruction of myth can give a local community an insight into its obvious, unbreakable cognition that it is more valuable to connect through existential authenticity and tradition than by persisting on stubborn struggle for separation. Deconstructive analysis is used as the basic method of the scientific and theoretical interpretation of a myth. Deconstruction, as a concept, was introduced by a French philosopher Jacques Derrida and it became the leading philosophical doctrine in 1960s. Through deconstruction we observe the structure of the society,

inter-gender relations, violence and fear, and the system of beliefs. When we observe the system of beliefs, then a myth is a barometer that immediately shows us whether it is a matter of control/predominance which is presented as normal, desirable and moral or if it is a matter of partnership and respect, which is welcomed. The process of approaching and deconstructing of myth contributes to building a partnership culture in a way of requisitioning myth, helps the development of the cultural and national identity, within the broader framework of globalization. A good way of overcoming stereotypes is via deconstruction of myth, which is similar to the process of self-healing. In this sense, deconstruction is a form of creative spirituality. Overcoming fears is one of the greatest values this type of deconstruction brings.

Keywords: myth, cultural traditions, deconstructive analysis, partnership culture, stereotypes

1. Introduction

The starting point of this paper is the wish to show how a myth, as a part of intangible heritage, can be of assistance in developing sustainable cultural development and can stimulate the local population and travellers/tourists to participate in building a partnership culture. It can also influence travellers and tourists to experience and preserve the unique features of a destination, such as the environment, culture, heritage, aesthetics and community. According to Lekić (2013) heritage is immaterial in the narratives of collective memory and when such heritage (oral history) is written down, it becomes an artefact – and gains a second nature – “durability”, invariance and impossibility of adapting to the modern context. In such a way, the myth loses its meaning and its “life” ends, and theatrical processing backtracks it to the basic nature – a myth which lives and transforms in accordance with the needs of every generation.

According to Zorić (2009, 338), it is the otherness which puts at stake its own existence. The *Other* serves as the determinant of oneself, satisfying one’s own narcissism, at the same time keeping it at a distance. As opposed to ethnology, which produces its knowledge by speaking of others and for others, anthropology talks to others, socializes with them, gets close to them and plays with them, sharing experience and events.

Interdisciplinary features of the paper impose the use of recent sources from a variety of scientific fields and disciplines (archaeology, anthropology, cultural tourism, performative theories and animation). This entire paper has features of a scientific review which mostly uses desk method and deconstruction analysis aimed at myth as intangible heritage and interpretative capacities in performance and animation.

The contribution of this paper is the model of deconstruction of the myth for the interpretation of intangible heritage in intercultural communication and cultural tourism, which gives guidelines for the interpretation and formulation of intangible heritage at a more subtle and higher level, outside the hitherto known frame of predictable and familiar processes. A special contribution is in the change of paradigm, where it is shown that a myth can be interpreted in a novel, original way, as a spiritual resource for traveller and tourists and for the local population.

The process approach and deconstruction of myth contribute to building a partnership culture in a way of requisitioning myths. Supporting the myths that encourage partnership and disclosing those that do the opposite. It is a way for supporting cultural tradition that encourages partnership. Specifically, work can be done on discarding the myths which promote predominance. Themes that these myths would initiate would be inserted in traditional culture of country; they would also raise questions how and in what way is traditional culture presented. There is also a question of relations between generations, genders, heritage, etc. Diversity and plurality, and at the same time understandable language of a myth, gives great opportunities through forms which include spoken word, written text, sculpture, painting, song, performing ceremony... till final text and realization of even a play itself.

By the anthropological definition (Poniž, 2009, 128), a myth is a “stabilized story” in which myth constitutes a society which is recognized by its myths as a certain community with special characteristics, which differs it from other communities (in such a way the ancient Greeks used to refer to all their neighbours, the nations and tribes around them as “barbarians”).

Myth presents stories made in different cultural backgrounds all around the world; the stories talk about the origin and emergence of man, nation, all other living creatures, gods and cultural heroes, as well as the emergence of civilization and space (Campbell, 1968). Myths can be divided into many categories; they can be cosmogony myths, dealing with religion and rituals,

about cultural heroes which brought civilization, about gods, or myths with historical character, talking about migration of tribes. Myths are primarily made in places where cultural tradition was orally handed down from generation to generation. In some isolated tribes, the tradition of storytelling about their history, origin and emergence has been preserved even today. Often storytelling was the only way for preserving one group's history, handing it, through rite of passage, to the younger generations, who will hand it to their children.

Campbell (1968) emphasizes that traditional mythology fulfils four functions: metaphysical or mystical, that is, the function of combining one's consciousness with life conditions; cosmological function, that is, the function of forming and establishing a specific picture of the world; sociological function, that is, the function of evaluating preservation of social order; and psychological function, which is about harmonizing the individual's wishes with ideals of society, thus relieving tensions in a man.

Lots of actual events that were handed down from generation to generation have turned into fairy-tales, and real people into heroes, so today it is impossible to distinguish what really happened and what not. Myth can be about supernatural creatures, ancestors or heroes who serve as primeval types and patterns in the primitive view of the world.

2. Overcoming Stereotypes and Fears Using Deconstruction of Myth

The beginning of creating cultural stereotypes dates from the 19th century, from romanticism, when modern culture was created and symbolic worlds of modern nations were formed. Stereotypes that are created in nation-narration, as well as any other stereotypes (such as classical, ethnical, gender or civilization stereotypes) are not expressions of pre-given essences. In order to discover the content of a stereotype, modern culturology uses the method of deconstruction. The role of deconstruction is to uncover, unmask and so recognize the ideologies hidden in cultural imagery, denaturalize stories, show that they are fictionalizations and poetization of personal and collective desires, social conventions and ideological options (Oraić Tolić, 2005). Especially when they are critical situations and social failures, people are looking for a stronghold and guidance of stereotypes. However, stereotypes are not neutral, but are connected with estimation of values and with emotional charge and carry social phobias and

likings. Since an individual is acquainted with them in the process of socialization, they are relatively resistant on personal experiences and thus survive. In addition, stereotypes express social understandings of roles and expectations, which also carry certain attitudes.

By becoming a traveller, an individual abandons his everyday life and is given an opportunity to become a part of another community. Travelling is made worthwhile by the awareness that you move towards the unknown, the unfamiliar and the uncertain, and not by the distance travelled. We could paraphrase Simone Weil (according to Zorić 2009, 341) and say that the power of change, the insight and virtue are found in uprooting oneself. This presupposes a break with stereotypes which are restrictive and often project a twisted image of both others and ourselves. A good way of overcoming these stereotypes is via deconstruction of myth and is similar to the process of *self-healing*. In this sense, deconstruction is a form of creative spirituality. Instead of discrimination and impoverishment of psychical contents, one aims towards integrating and transcending opposites using the language of symbols, which is an expressive media for a being unaware of that. There are neither more or less valuable spiritual lessons, nor a hierarchy by which some aims and gains would have more value than others.

In the next picture we show a building platform and the way how myth has an impact on the local community - by using deconstruction of the myth, it can get insight into its own consciousness and authenticity of its tradition. It can help local communities and “others” (tourists, travellers) to accept and respect each other as equal partners in the “business” of creating a better future in tourist destinations.

Upper-left	Upper-right
Inner-individual	Outer-individual
INTENTIONAL	BEHAVIOURAL
CULTURAL	SOCIAL
Inner-collective	Outer-collective
Lower-left	Lower-right

Picture 1: Building platform (framework) for presenting the process approach of deconstruction of a myth in tourist destination (Veršić, 2008)

Explanation of the picture: Wilber's (Veršić, 2008) presentation was used as a building platform and framework for presenting the deconstruction of a myth; its characteristics are dimensionality – it contains depth, height, width or volume; and mobility- focus on developing phases, history of personal development. It includes interior, inner experiences of limbic system- “I” or “we” sphere of inner realities (individual or collective consciousness which does not subject itself to measuring and scientific attestations), next to objective, outer shapes (biochemistry, relations with other parts of the organism, social systems and their organization, relations between segments or unity with environment and similar). It is not directed towards the human evolution, but towards the evolution of consciousness itself that gives the “big picture”.

On the case of deconstructing a myth all the aspects and all dimensions are involved: *all-square*, all-level view that is the interpretation where the context in Cosmos in all its dimensions. Communication and interpretation are the only key for inner experiences that cannot be empirically “located”, since they are located on conscious levels. If an individual or a society (on collective level) suppresses (dissociates, alienates) something within itself, the interpretations (both of itself and of others) will be distorted. Since it is hard to determine the criterion for honesty/sincerity, an individual/society can lie to itself in such a way that can even forget it was a lie, believing it is telling the truth. The intention of deconstructing a myth is assisting in learning to speak more accurate about oneself and balancing inner and outer, left and right, immanent thought and manifested action (that is, coordinating one's actions with one's thoughts and words).

Shown framework and platform is dynamic and illustrate that people are dynamic, energetic beings. Movements, feelings, attitudes and thoughts are powerful conductors of energy. This “big picture” illustrates the process approach; we can find that the most significant part of our inner self, which brings us towards deeper sensibility, the appreciation of the exceptional beauty of nature and a desire for cooperation. This platform can be connected to pre-performative psycho-physical paradigm¹ (Zarilli, 1998, 1999, 2009) and approach to awakening the traveller/tourists *bodymind* sensory awareness, ad attention in and for performance

¹ Philip Zarilli is internationally known as a director and performer, and for training actors through a pre-performative psychophysical process and mediation arts. He is also widely known as an award-winning author.

using techniques and principles from motivation process in animation and performance theories. Sustainable development which corresponds to a balanced ratio between society, economy and ecology is compatible with transmodern² values. In this process, participants (travelers, tourists) will be guided toward development of “interiority”, i.e. how the participant can discover, awaken, shape, understand, and deploy “energy”, awareness, focus/concentration, and feeling to the “matter” of performance – the impulses, structure, contours, an texture of the tasks of myth that constitute a specific performance score shaped by particular situation.

“One cannot work on oneself... if one is not inside something which is structured and can be repeated, which has a beginning, a middle and an end, something in which every element has its logical place, technically necessary. All this determined from the point of view of that vertically toward the subtle and of its (the subtle) descent toward the density of the body” (Grotowski, 1995, 130 as cited in Zarilli, 2009).

Overcoming fears is one of the greatest values this model of deconstruction brings. A fear can appear only in a milieu that is separated from itself and its spirit. Since such a community feels its world is limited, it fears someone “else” will threaten the achievement of external goals. Group mentality, in which fear creates a desperate desire for power, has become a motivational force and hostile collective consciousness; resulting in racial resonance, cultural resonance and religious resonance (Veršić, 2008). Through deconstruction we observe the structure of society, inter-gender relations, violence and fear, and the system of belief. When we observe the system of belief then a myth is a barometer that immediately shows us whether it is a matter of control/predominance which is presented as normal, desirable and moral or a matter of partnership and respect, which is welcomed. Cultural understanding and cultural

He is also an Emeritus Professor of Performance Practice in the Drama Department, Exeter University, U.K. He regularly teaches and directs students at the Intercultural Theatre Institute in Singapore.

² According to Ghisi (2006), the very concept of transmodern implies that the best of modernity is kept while at the same time we go beyond it. Transmodernism is critical of modernism and postmodernism while at the same time drawing elements from each. In a way it is a return to some form of absolute ‘logic’ that goes beyond the Western ideology and tries to connect the human race to a new shared story, which can be called a global consciousness (Rifkin, 2005). The original meaning of the term transmodernism was actually coined by the Spanish philosopher and feminist Rosa Maria Rodriguez Magda in her essay “La Sonrisa de Saturno: Hacia una teoria transmoderna” (1989), in which she uses Hegelian logic whereby modernity, postmodernity and transmodernity form the dialectic triad that completes a process of thesis, antithesis and synthesis.

expectations vary in time, in geographic parts and experience. That is why it is hard to harmonize the level of interpretation of culture so that the levels would have a meaning for the local community and for strangers. On a simplistic level, we can observe them as stereotypes which population of certain country has about the population of different countries or even different regions within a same country.

3. Deconstruction of Myth and Process Approach in Practice

Possible ways of including a myth is through workshops in tourist destination, in such a way the beginning are the saved mythical elements – artefacts³, which are chosen by the participants and added by their own discretion, after they got to know them via specific ways (e.g. through a workshop, thematic itinerary, presentation, visit to the museum etc.). In order to find the codified, hidden meaning of the documents, materials are perceived⁴ and felt through experience; that is creative means, through play and role-playing.

Alongside deconstruction, in using myth for healing purposes a process approach would be used. It is actually work with materials which are suggested by the participants themselves, choosing them on the grounds of problematic meaning that is connected with the materials. Materials are worked out through group interaction, by transferring the meaning from the real (documentary) onto fictive (creative) plan. In this case, the fictive plan is an intermediate medium which ensures that personal, often frustrating, problematic themes get a more objective perspective.

“Heritage is immaterial in the narratives of collective memory and when such heritage (oral history) is written down, it becomes an artefact- and gains a second nature- ‘lastingness’, invariance and impossibility of adapting to the modern context. In such a way myth loses its sense and its’ ‘life’ ends, and theatrical processing backtracks it to the basic nature- a myth which lives and transforms in accordance with needs of every generation” (Šešić, 2009).

³ Artefacts are documents of mythical expression (e.g. epic poem, lullaby, ritual mask...)

⁴ Deconstructive analysis is used as the basic method for scientific and theoretic interpretation of a myth. Deconstruction was introduced by the French philosopher Jacques Derrida and deconstruction became the leading philosophical doctrine in 1960s. Deconstruction as a manner of reading deals with the meaning of a text and reaches into the ways the author (as well as the recipient) constructs meaning. The text, myth included, is observed as a result of conflict within a certain cultural community, where various views and meanings act simultaneously in conflict and opposition. Deconstruction presupposes the disclosure of untold, hidden, unuttered and implicit suppositions, ideas and conceptual frames, which form ground for the expressed opinion, belief or conviction.

It is important to emphasize that the artefacts, which are offered to participants, have to carry a possibility of choosing by the criteria of personal and collective value. In other words, the myth indicators should be locally characteristic, but also have a stimulating effect on person's imagination- as a link with themes which are moving or frustrating.

Motives which will be offered have to be chosen with respect to the local identity. In such a way one can offer, for example, folktales about mythical creatures, stories of historical people, legends through ethnographic research in rural parts, preserved and modernized customs, rituals and ritual-religious practice. All of these materials should be seen as a possibility of presenting a destination and local community that is the importance of myth message in a society which keeps the myth alive. In such a way theatrical forms can be created so we can offer a participation in dramatization of legends and myths in sphere of fantastic, through reconstructing history legends or their transposition in modern life, or making a collage of documented materials, etc.

Having ideas as a starting point, then working them out through workshops and debating their implications, local community can develop a "story", creating a new, mutual piece of work in which every participant inserts its' thoughts and experiences.

This is a way of creating a drama playhouse with a catharsis or healing function where there are participants not only because of amusement but also to learn about immaterial cultural heritage of resident country and a specific destination, and to reach a higher level in personal development, which brings us to the added value. It is an authentic production and knowledge exchange through specific workshop praxis via theatrical approach. We can see this type of presenting a tradition as a celebration of regional diversities, and also diversities which make dialog, partnership and creating new visions possible, without conventions and stereotypes.

Comprehension of reality consists of multiple shapes of mental constructions, which are socially and empirically based, but are local and structure specific and depend upon the shape and content of an individual and groups, which act as mediators, that is, interpreters and animators, upon their authenticity and identity.

A model gives a possibility of having a deep experience by choosing the right myth. To give such an experience, that is, to encourage it, it is necessary to involve an animator-interpreter,

who becomes an emotional partner, because the communication takes place on an energetic level.

4. From Myth to Community Theatre/Ritual – Animation and Performance as a Technique

In his works Turner (1967, 1976) mentions activity and experience of the border or transitional phase of the rites of passage (Rites of Passage). It is through playing and active participation in the myth deconstruction that the *Communitas* can be experienced (Turner, 1967, 1976). It results in a special feeling of bonding in special places, and is also the state of consciousness where there are no dividing lines between “us” and “them”, where we are all one and draw energy from a single, common source.

In the context of this paper, through *Communitas*, special places with particular energy get meaning, where the myth is carved into the space. Systematic structuring of the mythical landscape is based on cosmology, which depicts the whole Universe as a system, materialized in numerous shapes: mountains, islands, seas and rivers. As myths are tales of genesis, they are woven into various cultures and represent the “systemic geography”⁵. In it, geographic features do not matter because of their uniqueness and natural beauty, but because of their repeated appearance in the orderly and systematic scheme.

When a myth alters from something that carries value for a certain community, through art treatment and, at the end, decaying, it has one other effect: it mirrors the morally-ethical potential of its original community, in which it was created and considered “the highest law”.

⁵ In the context of this paper, the term “holy geography” (Eck, 2013) gets the meaning of special places with particular energy, where the myth is carved into the space. Those are usually the places where gods are reported to have appeared, where miracles were performed and apparitions occurred. In the Catholic faith, these are the locations of power and pilgrimage, for Muslims that is Mecca. According to Belaj and Belaj (2014), wherever one goes in Croatia, a living mythical landscape can be found. It contains the geography of holy mountains, rocks, ponds, rivers and other features, all linked by the mythical cosmic drama. Each such sacred place has the shape of a mythical triangle and tells the story of gods which left the imprint of their activities in that space. Linking up such places brings us closer to “*the Others*”, and at the same time we become “One”. The language of myth becomes the universal language of life and intensifies the cultural identity of the nation it belongs to, while its universality reaches our very hearts and the core of our beings.

British anthropologist Victor Turner (1967), while staying in Africa, in the Ndembu tribe in Zambia, formed his anthropological teaching. One of his main discoveries had to do with the behaviour of the community in crucial moments, such as those of fear or crisis. In the life of any community, this one included, crises sometimes strike. They spread and threaten the community itself, and the community tries to return to the previous state, by performing rituals. The crises are eventually solved. Turner recognized the significance of social drama for its culture. What he called drama was a process of a series of events which maintain and change the community at the same time. Instead of historical understanding of social trends, historical causes and succession, and one historical fact being a prerequisite for another, thus forming history, Turner's anthropological approach attracted theatre into its focus of attention. It is in dramatic development and the story of drama that he sees the flow of social life which leads from crisis into a split or into reconciliation. In the very resolution of the plot, which is in the cycle from crisis to resolution, Turner perceives the very roots of theatre, concluding that if it were not for social drama, there would be no performing arts.

Turner's interest is much later, in the eighties, directed towards the modern and experimental theatre, and he found forms of social drama, discovered in ritual communities, in the modern performance. What's more, Turner understands crisis in social processes as the borderline state of a community, which is followed by radical change, which provided him with an opportunity for an in-depth and long-term studying of the society. He noticed that modern societies developed situations similar to borderline, and he subsequently called them liminoid. Although borderline (liminoid) states inherit and re-shape some previous functions, of liminal states, they coexist today.

Limonoid is encountered in the sphere of leisure, the category which appears with the industrial society and a broad spectrum of arts, sports and tourism. Performing groups emerge from the need to create for the local community, to empathize with it and its issues and problems. This is often called community theatre. It is intended for the communities which are not homogeneous and have weak ties between temporary and entirely different members. Although community theatre is primarily intended for local communities, its principles can relate to temporary communities, such as the ones formed in tourist environments, like young people in camps, or seniors in spas, tourists on cruise ships and other tourists who are on their own as

groups for a longer period. Such performance forms can extend tourist season, bring tourists closer to the local community.

Folk theatre is also a good form for the deconstruction of myth, because it has more dancing elements and movement of the performers than the refined play of mime and gesture. It is not only about, according to Lozica (1996) the movement of an individual on the scene, as is usual on theatrical stages. It is about the movement of entire performances around settlements, or from one place to another, with the audience following performers. The sources of this ambulant performance can be traced to ritual magic, their cosmic drama and conflict. This creates a plot and a possibility for an interactive involvement of the local population and guests, giving each place a story and a possibility to enact the mythical events. Animators in this deconstruction need to be specially educated and trained for that purpose, and experts, anthropologists and folklorists have to be involved, along with culture societies, artists and folk troupes.

Animation can, following the principles of theatre, strengthen the feeling of bonds among people and can create collective experience. Along with the broadly interpreted performance, animation is an interdisciplinary matter, a designed performance. From the practical point of view, if the myth is taken as a basis for animation, performance matters. The forms of performance can be, and mostly are, cultural performances and interpretations, because this is the domain of cultural tourism and because they have the structure of a drama. Modern technology makes a place for itself by assisting the realization of the programme, and the evaluation (assessment and grading) and forecasting future trends in the systemically designed interpretation projects. Animation is a borderline activity, in the sense explained by Turner (1976), referring to the human search for the way out and change of state. One of the features of performance in deconstruction of the myth through animation is that it re-creates the past, enables the creation of a richer cultural offer and programmes, and encourages mutual assistance and helping one another, all as a part of anthropological interpretation and management in culture. The complex position of animation as a form of performance, in relation to the local community, to the system of culture, searches for an adequate theoretical and methodological framework which will position animation and give it support to develop, not only in accordance with models devised so far, but also in accordance with future needs of intercultural development and cultural tourism (Lekić, Kovačević, Rašperić, 2017). Finding a position for an activity actually means to establish a system, which contains the role of that activity,

positioned against other activities, detecting what impacts upon it and what it impacts upon. Therefore, animation is a kind of a communication channel and makes part of the system of intercultural communication, tourism and of culture.

There are good examples in the Netherlands (Ludus, pozorišne novine, 2012). 2001 an international community art festival was started in Rotterdam. There is also the ZID Theatre in Amsterdam, one of the leading troupes in the Netherlands, awarded the national “Appeltje van Oranje” prize by the royal foundation “Oranje Fonds”.

Religious performances are based on the mediaeval tradition of miracles and mysteries. Some are world-known, such as the passion plays in Oberammergau in Bavaria. That is the example of a play depending on live interaction between the actor and the character on one side, and the actor and the audience, on the other. The scenes of Christ’s suffering are not played by professional actors in Oberammergau, but by the locals. Only recently have they started engaging professional directors and art counsellors to put up a performance lasting for several hours. Apart from the Oberammergau locals, at the time of passion plays, which last for the five warm months, from May to October, tens of thousands of tourists flock to the place, and about two thousand locals perform. Considering such a high participation, these events have a very strong influence on the local population. Enactments renew the feeling of togetherness and a religious performance represents a true example of a community theatre. This passion play has a tradition of 17 centuries. It used to serve the purpose of saving the villagers from plague, therefore, of strengthening and salvation of the community. It is especially interesting for intercultural communication in cultural tourism that meticulous comparison of mythical systems of numerous ethnic communities in various parts, resulted in unexpected discoveries. There is a general scheme that governs rituals and mysteries anywhere in the world, and their realizations and forms depend on external factors: environmental, economic, cultural and historical. Their view of the world was based on myth equalizing microcosm and macrocosm, man and universe (Toporov, 1988 as cited in Belaj, Belaj, 2014, 24).

5. Conclusion

When members of a community choose new ideas and behaviours then group mentalities are freed and, instead of them, one group identity is adopted. The particularity and value of a

group, the authenticity and value of its heritage and tradition is very helpful in adopting new identity. When a critical group within a community does that, the projecting consciousness will alter, and community will set free the old energy of fear which used to separate them. (Bohm, 2009) Deconstruction of myth is a process that can, via workshops and animation programmes, help create added value, for example, for healing childhood traumas, raising personal vitality and healing the body, or finding healthy partnership, or overcoming addictive behaviour, etc. Possibilities are numerous and various, but identical in one thing: they imply the release of personal creative energy as opposed to stereotypical following someone else's dogmas. This model contains a revived history which takes participants back to the past with skilfully led animation and specially prepared set design and symbols that connect the participants with archetypes and the collectively unknown. Performance, as a part of animation in deconstruction has a theatrical function, brings us back to the ritual. According to Belaj (2007) the myth as only a text has no significance. It is just an empty verbal shell. What matters is the ritual. At the same time, for participants, it represents the discovery of "*the Other*", and offers the opportunity of getting to know oneself, which has a healing effect. Myth has an impact on the local community, and by using deconstruction of myth, it can get insight into its own consciousness and authenticity of its tradition. By becoming a traveller, an individual abandons his everyday life and is given an opportunity to become a part of another community

Using the deconstruction of myth a local community can have an insight in its obvious, unbreakable cognition that it is more valuable to connect through existential authenticity and tradition rather than persisting on stubborn struggle for separation. It is a path and possibility for local communities to accept each other as respected and equal partners in the "business" of creating a better future.

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WHY MONEY SHOULD BE FUNNY? BEYOND THE CRISIS: COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES FOR STATE LOTTERY

Kristina Posilović, M.A.

Reina Consulting, Croatia

kristina.posilovic@gmail.com

Summary

We hope that gone are the days when the strategic business and communications solutions for the state lottery (n.b. Croatian Lottery Ltd.) perpetuated the model of low visibility for top management and high credibility for end users. A continuous monitoring of unstable political, poor economic and social situation and standards in Croatia and abroad is necessary in order to anticipate the opportunities manifested in extremely demanding technical and communication challenges of the sector and the threats that arise, but not from the competition and the more or less shrewd leadership of the Board elected by the Croatian government, or the inability to engage specialized PR companies that develop (mainly one-year) communication models for the state lotteries around the world. The new main guidelines for communication strategies should be based on the recognition of the galloping technological peculiarities and the changeable social and neuroeconomic trends, which would be followed by individual programs of loyalty; partnerships and educational solutions that imply greater involvement of stakeholders in the development of the games; creative impulses toward a higher level of social responsibility, with many new opportunities to create more lasting connections with the community (in 2015 alone, Croatian Lottery paid KN 69.33 million or 50% of the total assets for organizing games of chance and profit after tax into the state budget). Why money should be funny- because you deserve it! and because it guarantees investment in the future where the game is more than just luck; it is a way of life - interactive, creative and protected from all existing and emerging crises. It is therefore necessary for the state lottery to guarantee a return on investment to the user using smart business and communications solutions: money, great fun and a connected community.

Keywords: lottery, communication, community, strategies, creativity, technology

1. Introduction

The games of chance industry has never been more diversified. The penetration of technology in all spheres of our lives has made games of chance more accessible; we no longer have to get out of the chair, get dressed and get out of the house to pay the ticket. Without any intermediaries, we can bet or play poker in a virtual casino *online* with complete strangers from all over the world. However, as technology seeks out its everyday use, creative communication solutions represent a major challenge for public relations professionals. Transparency and high moral and ethical principles should not be an obstacle for gaming operators, but rather its integral part. The sphere of game of chance is dynamic and multidimensional; along with its commercial significance, it promotes and unites socially responsible business and social sensitivity with regard to areas that are financed from part of its income. In this paper we will use the following methodological methods: we will analyse the theoretical literature on gambling, legal procedures and obligations for gaming operators, the market of games of chance, as well as parts of the existing communication strategies of Croatian Lottery Ltd. (Hrvatska Lutrija d.o.o.). We will give several guidelines for future consideration of communication in the field of game of chance (e-tickets, VR). Given the complexity of the industry, we will focus on lottery games, with particular emphasis on the analysis of the semantic part of the message (“More than a Game”, “HEREiPLAY”) in Croatian Lottery (CL) campaigns. In Croatia, the exclusive right to organize lottery games belongs to the Croatian Lottery Ltd. Each year, in accordance with Article 8 of the Croatian Act on Games of Chance, 50% of the revenues from games of chance (lottery fees, casino games, bookmakers, slot machines, and Croatian Lottery revenues) are used for financing programs and projects by civil society organizations promoting sport development, contributing to the fight against drug abuse and all other forms of addiction, engaging in problems and the fulfilment of the needs of disabled persons, technical culture, culture, non-institutional education and upbringing of children and the young, and contributing to the development of a civil society. Thus, an average of about 350 million kuna is allocated annually. The beneficiaries of these funds and the amounts per individual sectors are determined each year by the Government Decree, at the proposal of the Ministry of Finance, with prior discussion at the Interdepartmental Committee for coordination of policies for funding projects and programs, the Council for Civil Society Development, and conducted public Internet consultation.

2. Legal Procedures and Obligations for Gaming Operators

In 1762, a small lottery was introduced to the territory of Croatia and Slavonia. Until 1770, the lessee of the lottery was the Italian Conte di Cataldi (from 1770, the company Baratta & Company), who was given the right to arrange the lottery by Queen Maria Teresa, provided that he financed and printed the lottery tickets and results (Kozjak, 2016, 44-45). In 1770, Abraham Veslar filed a draft of a large lottery in Vienna (issue of 6,000 lottery tickets), and the Vienna court granted him that right (Kozjak, 2016, 44). During the 19th century, coffee shops and inns in Zagreb became the place where games of chance developed, whether legally or illegally. Lotto has always been under state monopoly, while all other games, betting and gambling "under the table" were banned. At the time, Croatia did not organize games of chance, but rather served as a strong market (Kozjak, 2016, 50). From the 18th to the 20th century, people gladly gathered and socialized at folk parties where they could participate in raffles, lotteries and competitions of various kinds, and the organization of such games was not only for entertainment but also had a humanitarian character (Kozjak, 2016, 51).

The systematic preparation for the establishment of "the Yugoslav Lottery" began in 1945; by 1951 already a number of branches were set up with the task to develop, improve and control the operation of sales networks. These efforts are considered to be the basis for the creation of regional lottery organizations (Kozjak, 2016, 58). One brilliant business move was the inclusion of persons with special needs in the sale of lottery tickets. Thus, in 1946, the Association of War Invalids was granted the sole right to sell lottery tickets, which held the leading position in the total turnover with about 60% until 1965 (Kozjak, 2016, 58). Sports forecast as a game of chance was introduced in 1960, and the first game of Lotto on January 3, 1962 (Kozjak, 2016, 59). The 1983 Act on Games of Chance and Entertainment Games discussed for the first time the possibility of opening a casino and arranging games of chance on slot machines outside casinos (Kozjak, 2016, 61). From then on, the Croatian Lottery has the sole right to organize games of chance. After 2000, sports betting absolute flourishes, and the Croatian Lottery Ltd, in 2010, recorded an increase in betting with a share of 18% (Kozjak, 2016, 67). In the European Union, all Member States retain the right to organize games of chance according to the regulations they had before joining the Union; the European Union and the United States spend 0.5%, while Canada, New Zealand and Australia spend 1% of the gross national income on games of chance (Torre, 2017, 19-20).

In 2013, the Croatian Lottery had 1350 employees and a network of about 2000 lottery retailers, while one year prior there were 218 slot machine clubs with 6000 registered slot machines (Torre, 2017, 25)

The Act on Games of Chance, adopted on January 1 2010, regulates the rights and obligations for gaming operators and the allocation of revenues generated from games of chance. According to Article 5, section 1, games of chance are classified into four groups: lottery games, casino games, betting games and slot machine games. Article 4, section 6, states that the tax on winnings from games of chance is a withholding tax payable by natural persons who obtain winnings from lottery games and betting games (The Act on Games of Chance, 2014). The basis for the calculation of tax on financial gains is the sum of the individual winning which represents the difference between the winning and the amount paid per ticket (Pravilnik o obveznim evidencijama za obračun naknade od priređivanja igara na sreću, 2015). According to the 2010 Act, article 8, section 3, tax on winnings is payable at a rate of 10% on gains between HRK 750 and HRK 10,000; 15% on gains between HRK 10,000 and HRK 30,000; 20% on gains between HRK 30,000 and HRK 500,000 and at a rate of 30% on gains exceeding HRK 500,000. However, on April 1, 2014, certain changes (Lutrija.hr, 2014) were introduced to the Act, in Articles 18 (section 3) and 52 (sections 2 and 3) which refer to the payment of tax on lottery games and betting games. Thus, gains up to HRK 750 are not taxed and higher gains are taxed at higher tax rates.

Article 8 of the same Act determines the allocation of gaming revenues, by which the Government of the Republic of Croatia shall issue a regulation stipulating the criteria for determining the beneficiaries and the way of allocation of revenues from games of chance for financing the programs of the organisations who promote sports development, contribute to the fight against narcotics abuse and all other forms of addiction, engage in problems and the fulfilment of the needs of disabled persons, engage in technical education, culture, non-institutional education and upbringing of children and young people and contribute to the development of a civil society (section 1) (Lutrija.hr, 2014). Section 2 specifies the allocation of the funds to the programs referred to in section 1, namely: 50% of the annual fee from operating casino games, 50% of the monthly fee from operating casino games, 50% of the annual fee from betting games, 50% of the monthly fee from betting games, 50% of the annual fee from operating slot machine games, 50% of the monthly fee from operating slot

machine games, 50% of the monthly fee from operating lottery games and 50% of the profits of Croatian Lottery Ltd. (Lutrija.hr, 2014).

The monthly fee for organising lottery games is paid into the state budget latest on the 15th day of the current month for the preceding month (Pravilnik o obveznim evidencijama za obračun naknade od priređivanja igara na sreću, 2015a). In 2015, Croatian Lottery Ltd. (Lutrija.hr, 2016) paid HRK 69.33 million or 50% of the total funds from the basic fee for operating games of chance and profit after tax. In 2014 (Lutrija.hr, 2015b), this amount was considerably lower, HRK 63,574 million. In 2013, betting shops paid HRK 301.28 million into the state budget, of which the most part came from the monthly fees (HRK281.28 million).

In Croatia, Denmark, Sweden and Finland, the areas and levels of civil society funding from gaming revenues are determined by the law and (or) regulations issued each year by national governments (Hadzi-Miceva Evans, 2015). In Croatia, the United Kingdom, South Africa and New Zealand, independent bodies decide on the level of individual support to civil society, while in Macedonia it is determined solely by the government (Hadzi-Miceva Evans, 2015).

In order for civil society organizations to get support from the existing model of funding from gaming revenues, they must be registered in Croatia, make no profit and must engage in programs and projects that are beneficial to the community (Škorić 2016: 10). The National Foundation for Civil Society Development has listed in its tenders (2016) different ways of financing organizations: from financial support to organisational development, awarding volunteering of children and young people to supporting innovative models in the field of philanthropy (Škorić, 2016, 9).

For example, the Croatian Government, at its 16th telephone session (April 22, 2016), issued the Regulation on criteria for determining the beneficiaries and the way of allocation of revenues from games of chance for 2016. In accordance with the allocation criteria set out in national strategies and programs for meeting public needs in the respective activities, and in accordance with the programs for promoting civil society development, the allocation of part of the revenue from games of chance is determined at the following ratios (Article 2, section 2) (Uredba o kriterijima za utvrđivanje korisnika i načinu raspodjele dijela prihoda od igara na sreću, 2016a):

- 32.95% for promoting the development of sports;
- 4.52% for contributing to the fight against narcotics abuse and all other forms of addiction;

- 17.81% for engaging in social and humanitarian work;
- 19.31% for engaging in problems and the fulfilment of the needs of disabled persons;
- 4.01% for engaging in technical education;
- 12.41% for engaging in culture;
- 2.11% for engaging in non-institutional education of children and youth;
- 6.88% for contributing to the development of a civil society.

In Croatia today there is no possibility of organizing a lottery system (charity or society lotteries) which would be developed and operated by non-governmental organizations, and which would exist parallel to the programmes of Croatian Lottery Ltd. Hadzi-Miceva Evans (2010) argues that this would be a good way for non-governmental organizations to raise funds for their programs and to donate part of those revenues to other organizations in need. In this way, they do not make profit, nor endanger the position of the state lottery. Škorić (2016) points out that lottery games organised in such way would be useful because they could attract even people who do not have the habit of donating funds to civil society organizations. However, in accordance with the Act on games of chance, there is a possibility for non-profit legal entities to organize one-time games of chance once a year.

In these unstable political and social circumstances, it seems rather unrealistic to expect that the Croatian Government will issue a probation license for any “other” lottery. Likewise, non-governmental organizations seem rather unprepared (operationally and financially) for the organisation of a lottery network. Still, it certainly is possible to contemplate the ways of building and developing an independent lottery mechanism.

Operating lottery games is a highly complicated system; along with all the necessary knowledge, it requires a thorough analysis of good practice examples (Spain - Organización Nacional de Ciegos Españoles (ONCE¹), Germany - Aktion Mensch, the Netherlands).

¹ ONCE Is an example of how non-governmental organizations can develop a parallel system of ticket sales and enjoy great popularity in the public – lottery tickets are sold on the streets by almost 22,000 retailers with various levels of impairment. Established in 1938, ONCE initially sold lottery tickets simply called Pro-ciegos (“For the Blind”). The National Organization of the Spanish Blind gives 81% of its income to the Foundation which then enables the social integration of people with disabilities. The Foundation was established in 1998 with the aim of solidarity and assistance to blind people in Latin America (FOAL), with the support of king Juan Carlos 1. Today, one of the most popular lottery tickets is Cuponazo, created in 1987. (Once.es (2016) La Organización: historia y articulación. http://www.once.es/dossier/cap2_0.html (accessed 26/11/2016))

Nevertheless, it is possible to make plans modelled on ONCE, or entrust planning to a third, umbrella entity- operator, such as the People's Postcode Lottery².

3. Communication Strategies of State Lottery

3.1. Market Research of Games of Chance and the Presence of Gambling in the Press

The research conducted in 1998 by the Croatian Lottery Ltd. focused on market research of all games of chance, and the survey included questions such as spontaneous and aided awareness of various games of chance, the awareness of game advertising, the image of players, etc. (Kozjak, 2016, 173-174). As many as 98% of respondents cited one or more CL games (Lotto was mentioned by 54% of respondents), while 77% of the respondents noticed the promotional messages, more men (84 to 90%) than women (67%), and mostly promotional messages for Lotto, Toto and Joker (Kozjak, 2016, 175). In the young age groups, advertising awareness is noticeable (Kozjak, 2016, 175). As for the players' image, it was clear that an unfavourable image could be a hindrance to business. However, the positive player impressions were prevalent in the research, such as hope (60%), determination (17%) and courage (14%) (Kozjak, 2016, 177). The Croatian Lottery has concluded that it had to deal with the negative connotations that non-players still tied to the players, and with the recognition of games of chance (the population's awareness). The 2008 survey, continuing on the 1998 research, tried to determine the motivational aspects of the game and the players' psychographic profiles and value systems, in comparison with the non-players. As the main reasons for playing, the respondents indicated possible gains (46%) and entertainment (39%). Also, at the time of the survey, one third of the respondents were betting (half of them were betting in CL betting shops, but all went to other betting shops) (Kozjak, 2016, 180-181). Lotto, Instant and Express Lottery were played by all, and the occasional themed lottery was played more often by women (Kozjak, 2016, 183). The following data can be gathered from the latest scientific study "Substance Abuse among the General Population of the Republic of Croatia"³ (May-August 2011), supported by the Croatian Lottery Ltd.

² Sister organizations: Dutch National Postcode Lottery, The Friends Lottery, BankGiro Lottery and The Swedish Postcode Lottery.

³ The target population were the citizens of Croatia aged between 15 and 64 who lived in private households. The basic sample encompassed 4,000 people between the ages of 15 and 64, while upsampling covered 800 subjects between the ages of 15 and 34. A total of 184 juveniles were contacted. The data were collected by face-to-face surveys. (Glavak Tkalić, Renata, Miletić Geran, Marko (2012) *Igranje igara na sreću u općoj populaciji Republike Hrvatske* (istraživačko izvješće). Zagreb: Institut društvenih znanosti Ivo Pilar, p. 68)

About two-thirds of the respondents played games of chance at least once in a lifetime. With both men and women, the highest rate of playing games of chance was in the age group between 25 and 34 (78.2% men and 70.0% women) (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 20). Different urbanization levels had no major influence on the number of respondents from settlements of different levels of urbanization (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 23). In the final month of the survey period, the respondents mostly played the lottery (14.6%), betting games (13.9%) and Bingo (13.1%) (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 26).⁴ In all age groups except the youngest, men played the lottery more than women. Likewise, betting games were played by six times more men than women (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 29-32). The share of respondents playing betting games ranged up to 22.4% in the youngest age group (between 15 and 24 years). When it came to different urbanization levels, betting games were most often played by the respondents from big cities (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 32, 34).

The share of juvenile respondents who played games of chance at least once in a lifetime was 41.4%, of which 16.6% most often played one of the betting games (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 38). For the majority of the respondents who played games of chance in the last month of the survey, the highest level of education achieved was high school (47% finished four-year high school and 23.7% finished two-year or three-year high school). Furthermore, university education was the highest level of education for 11.3% of the players. When it comes to work status, about half of the current were employed (50.7%), followed by students (13.7%), unemployed (12.1%), retirees (11.6%) and self-employed (5.4%) (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 61). As far as attitudes are concerned, the majority of the respondents between 15 and 64 years of age disagree with the claim that games of chance are a harmless form of entertainment (56.4%) (Glavak Tkalić, Miletić, 2012, 40).

Regarding the presence of games of chance in the press, in the period from 2001 to 2010, when the content analysis was performed, about 1430 articles were published on games of chance and 4395 topics were covered. The dominant topics were: gambling and betting providers (30.37%), types of games of chance (25.6%), socially unacceptable behaviour (14.45%), gains and winners (7.33%) and legal regulation (6.03%), while socially responsible business and donorships were covered less often (Kozjak, 2016, 223). Thus, within the first

⁴ In the past year: games of chance on slot-machines 4.3%, casino games with balls, cards or dice 3.3%, online games 2.4%, toto (sports forecast) 2.4% and keno 0.7% (Glavak Tkalić, Renata, Miletić Geran, Marko (2012) *Igranje igara na sreću u općoj populaciji Republike Hrvatske* (istraživačko izvješće). Zagreb: Institut društvenih znanosti Ivo Pilar, p. 68).

two topics, the dominant references were betting shops and bookmakers, while regarding the gains and winners, *jackpot* was the dominant topic.

3.2. What is “More than a Game”, is not Money and is not in Crisis?

Lottery games thematised in this work are divided into four groups: draw games (numerical games); games with a predetermined outcome; games with result determined by the outcome of uncertain events, i.e. sporting or other events proposed by game of chance providers, and online games. Lottery games do not offer the possibility to choose the rhythm of the game or increase the stake; therefore, they have a low addictive potential (Torre, 2017, 17).

In Croatia, Lotto and Bingo are equally played (13% -14%) by the general population, while betting is popular among younger people. Since the latest research on the presence of games of chance was conducted in 2011, we have no information on the presence and popularity of Eurojackpot⁵, a pan-European lottery that Croatia joined on 1.02.2013. Each participating country allocates a portion of its revenue from Eurojackpot ticket sales to the prize fund, which pays out winnings based on fixed percentages of the fund itself (Euro-jackpot.net, 2017). Preference to certain types of games of chance will be discussed below.

The design and implementation of any communication strategy depends on the preparation, elaboration and evaluation of activities (goals, programs, human and financial resources) and on the choice and mode of communication (message, key stakeholders, support). As already pointed out, organizing games of chance is a complex activity due to its equally important dimensions - commercial value and socially responsible business. The World Lottery Association (WLA) awarded the Croatian Lottery Ltd. with top level certification for responsible gaming, and the prerequisite for the certification was an independent auditor's assurance that the requirements for integrating the elements of responsible game organisation into practice were fulfilled. There are guidelines for responsible CL advertising, namely that advertising should not be importunate or aggressive, and the number of messages is limited to two daily. The reason is that technology is changing rapidly and more resources are being invested in it, while the creative part is neglected because, from the very beginnings, the essence of the game has not changed significantly.

After this short insight into the history and market of games of chance, from which it is evident that the Croatian Lottery Ltd., based on the research on the representation of games in

⁵ Today, 17 countries participate in Eurojackpot (Croatia, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Denmark, Finland, Estonia, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden).

the general population, directed its activities towards commercial goals, adapting to the social and political context through fair public relations, we will stop on two slogans: “More than a Game” and “HEREiPLAY”.

“More than a Game” is a slogan that clearly states that playing games of chance is much more than winning (entertainment, pleasure, connectedness, giving, commitment, courage) and that the importance of the Croatian Lottery in society goes beyond merely commercial. This slogan is a good addition to the entire culture of socially responsible business, so it is good that it remains a common denominator for upcoming activities. The message is clear and short –the game is more than just winning, and with the purchase of lottery tickets we give support to non-governmental organizations and individuals who need help. The tone of the message is positive and the subtitle powerful, telling how community connectedness and community project financing are much more valuable than winning. In 2013, the Mimara Gallery in Zagreb set up the exhibition “More than a Game”, celebrating 40 years since the foundation of the Croatian Lottery, and the first 1000 visitors were given a Birthday Ticket (Lutrija.hr, 2013). Besides financing projects of wider social importance from part of its income from games of chance, the Croatian Lottery Ltd. joined the organization of the European Sports Week in Croatia in 2015 #BeActive !; supported the awareness and education project for young people “Who Really Wins” in cooperation with the Faculty of Education and Rehabilitation Sciences in Zagreb; educates its employees on addiction issues; opened a free phone line for counselling the players and their family members in case of problems caused by excessive playing of games of chance, etc.

However, since there is no Centre for Gambling Studies in Croatia or the neighbouring countries where scientists of different profiles would collaborate in innovative projects, develop a network of co-operation with foreign centres of the same purpose and contribute to the development of this aspect in Croatia, the responsibility lies with individual subjects to make the utmost effort to keep up with the changes that are sometimes too challenging even for the bravest. The following example illustrates it well.

The Croatian Lottery Ltd. doo has been present on Facebook since 2012, which is rather late given that the platform exists since 2004. In 2008, the Internet was used by around 47.5% of the total population in Croatia, i.e. about 39% of the population (1.4 million) over the age of 15. Regarding usage frequency, people between 25 and 44 years of age used it equally often

(Dumičić, Žmuk, 2009). In 2009, Facebook was the most sought-after term in Google (Šredl, 2009) search engine; in 2011, it had around 1.5 million users. In addition, Croatia Lottery Ltd has a Marketing and Corporate Communications Division (Promotion Department, Advertising and Production Department, Online Promotion Department, Corporate Communications and CSR). However, in 2013, it has allocated HRK 500 000 for external advertising (web advertising) (Tomičić, 2013). The official CL Facebook page is followed by around 43,000 people; even without insight into the analytics we notice that the response rate is very low (the number of shared content is almost non-existent) and that illustrations are similar to those from about twenty years ago.

Recently, the Croatian Lottery Ltd. launched a campaign called #HEREiPLAY for which it sought ambassadors that would fulfil the campaign goal- portray real-life people and their reasons for playing. The players filled out the application forms and included personal information as to why they like and play CL games. Of a total of 1500 applicants, 14 most interesting (eight men and six women) have been selected CL ambassadors. Their photos are on the CL website and their photo collage is the cover photo on Facebook. As far as the videos on the CL YouTube channel are concerned, they are two to three months old and have about 150 views. They are professionally filmed; real people say why they like to play games of chance, and the video material ends with the phrase “and because I contribute to society and community, play the game”. However, it lacks the creative energy that would tickle our imagination while watching the video and make us think why we play games of chance. This digital campaign (has # for hashtag), although rather recent, has not been successful. It is virtually nonexistent on the social network, which is the basic starting point for further distribution. From a linguistic point of view, the demonstrative adverb “here” denotes, but not overtly, the place / space (the answer to the question where?) in the vicinity of the interlocutor and is initially related to the pronoun “you”. Here (i) play, i.e. here (you) play. Likewise, “here” is a place in consciousness, a static place on which the interlocutor can count. The adverb "here" is focused on a place where the speaker is located, is more accurate and often used to represent oneself.

The adverb “here2 (“tu”) is used twice as much as the “hither” and is used more often by younger people in everyday speech, so it is possible that it is therefore chosen as part of a new slogan. The verb "se" refers to other dimensions of the game, not only to the ultimate gain but also to the enjoyment of the game. However, the problem with this slogan and its message lies in the fact that it does not match the primary goal of the campaign, i.e. raising the players’

awareness that their participation in games of chance contributes to the community. Likewise, just scanning the text below the photos of the campaign ambassadors makes it clear why they like to play games of chance. The real people (campaign ambassadors) are not connected to each other by a common emotion, so it is difficult to identify with them or to share the thrill of their game. Although the players have a multitude of individual reasons to play, the awareness of many of those who have been successful in games of chance and the experience of connecting to those similar to us through playing are the story behind the strategy, and a well-told story is more important than money because it doesn't get forgotten. What is remembered resists any crisis. The message #HEREiPLAY has no subtext, as opposed to the message "More than a game" which is multi-layered; it relates to a place rather than the reason for playing. As such, its target group might possibly be its business competitors. Because of the great disparity in terms of goals and messages, the visual material that is not in harmony with the slogan, low activity on social networks, and missed opportunities to tell a brilliant intergenerational story, we consider this campaign unsuccessful.

Although the gaming industry is evolving, even in times of crisis, we can not help but feel that the communication strategy of the Croatian Lottery can be more proactive. The interests of the target audience in the gaming industry are constantly overlapping, so it's advisable to choose the tactics once the strategy is established. Their palette is diversified but needs to be re-examined, even dismissed, if it does not match the overall goals of the strategy, as is the case with the latest CL campaign. Regardless of the permanent economic crisis, in 2016, the Croatian Lottery Ltd. realised a 34% higher profit (Crnjak, 2016); it is expected to deliver numerous innovations and creations in the field of communication.

4. Communication Strategy Development Guidelines

The Croatian Lottery Ltd. is a state lottery organization which means that its public relations affairs should be dealt with by the CL itself, i.e., its departments should develop more efficient communication strategies that follow world trends in the field of games of chance.

We are of the opinion that a few guidelines could, at this moment, provide favourable feedback in terms of public relations, with the third guideline referring to the lottery sector. The first guideline is to design loyalty programs in the betting sector, but as it is not the focus of our work, we will be brief about it. Dr. Torre says people do not gamble because they are

“stupid or mad, they do not gamble because of childhood trauma but for pleasure and because gambling frees them from internal gaps, tiredness, depression or boredom” (Torre, 2017, 36-37). In this regard, loyalty programs should start from creating personalized packages for each of the target groups to reward loyalty. The goal of this kind of communication campaign should be meeting the individual needs of players.

Another guideline would be the use of smart solutions such as virtual reality for online casinos to provide gamers with an authentic gaming experience of the casino. The concept of responsible gambling promotes games of chance, gambling and betting as a fun and recreational activity within which people meet, relax, socialize and entertain (Torre, 2017, 10). VR is one of the most entertaining game modes; highly interactive, exciting and at the same time relaxing, expanding the reality. Therefore, the researchers in this area more often refer to it as “augmented” rather than “virtual” reality. It is anticipated that VR technology in online games of chance will increase the profit of game providers by about 800% (Innovecs.com, 2017) by 2021, but the key drawbacks⁶ of VR is the cost of the devices needed to play. Therefore, since VR development is accompanied by high investments, mostly in mobile technologies, VR is still a narrowly specialized activity. It needs to be added that VR has a tendency to break into *fantasy* and *esports*. Although they are still not widespread, given the popularity of these games (about 42 million players in the US and Canada) any kind of fusion is to be expected. Communication strategy of this type would aim to educate the players about the advantages of VR and the possibilities to connect to the online community that VR provides.

The third guideline refers to lottery games of chance (instant and express lottery and electronic lottery), i.e. their conceptualization. These are games with predetermined prizes and fund amount. In instant lottery games like Lady Luck, Open the Safe, Diamonds, etc. scratching off the spots reveals various symbols of which certain combinations are winning. The Croatian Lottery Ltd. offers the possibility of playing e-games of chance in several categories: new (Pirate Treasure, El Dorado Secrets, Vip Bonus, Abracadabra, etc.); popular (Pirate Treasure, El Dorado Secrets, Abracadabra, 7 Boom, etc.), Sports (Winners, Win Euro, A Goal More, etc.); classic (Wheels of Fortune, Neighbors, Jungle, Golden Fever, etc.); casino (Royal Poker, Find Joker, Roll the Dice, etc.); Fun (Goldfish, Swim in Money, Smile please!, etc.) and Quick Bingo (Bingo, Keno, Espresso, etc.). Ticket sales are not very high

⁶ Other disadvantages include insufficient knowledge on the impact of VR on human brain and a very demanding job- games and virtual space design.

(in the latest CL survey about 7%), but it seems to us that they have an incredible, but underestimated potential. Lottery tickets are an informal record of games of chance and their constancy in all parts of the world, and have power to tell many stories.

What we see as a communication opportunity is the conceptualization of instant lotteries within the “retro” trend that is extremely popular in the consumer world. Except for the world of fashion and design, the “retro” or restoration made a grand entrance in the automotive industry; one successful example is Gorenje joining forces with Volkswagen to create a whole “retro vintage” fridge collection. “Retro” is a term that covers a wide period in the consumer world, from the end of the '50s to the '90s of the 20th century. There are several things that can be seen as an advantage in the consideration of this concept, apart from the popularity of the mentioned trend. One of them is the CL employees' kindness, mentioned in various surveys as a plus; the second was the affordability of lottery tickets, and the third - the feelings that players have for old games (lucky scratchers / scrapers). The basic assumption of the success of this trend is the emotion that people have towards the good old times, and the almost idyllic atmosphere that accompanies the “retro” product. The CL retailers, as neighbourhood places for intergenerational encounters, have to transmit good neighbourly energy, while the names (and messages) on thematic lottery tickets should awaken nostalgia rather than melancholy. Prize money is one of the important reasons for playing, and if all other prerequisites are met (quality, challenging games; psychological fulfilment; individual happiness; connection with friends through the game, etc.) it comes as a treat at the end of a healthy and responsible game cycle.

Regardless of the fact that there is no research centre in Croatia and neighbouring countries in which the neurochemical features of lottery phenomena can be investigated, we can use foreign literature in the observation of certain phenomena in consumer consciousness. Contemporary neurological research (Hsu, Yoon, 2015) shows that children at the earliest age (up to 3 years) have advanced knowledge of certain social manifestations such as brands; they can even identify objects and symbols that they have never been exposed to, e.g. cigarettes. Accordingly, the connection to certain tastes (fashion, music, etc.) depends on the period in which some trend was popular. Thus, if a trend was popular in our early adolescence, the memory of it would always evoke a positive emotion. If the CL would consider of a concept that would result in a meaningful campaign which would promote the game as the joy of life

and sharing social interests, and print thematic⁷ lottery tickets as time-changing symbols, we believe it would be a success.

Caution should be taken not to turn the game into a cliché and not to infantilize the language of communication. Dr. Torre argues that “the culture of socially responsible gambling does not put pressure on abstinence nor gambling as a norm” (Torre, 2017, 50), so the symbolism of such lottery tickets must not manipulate the players’ emotions, but rather offer them a pleasant time-machine ride as compensation for the investment. The ratio of invested emotion must be proportional to the evoked emotion; disharmony leads to dissatisfaction, frustration and depression - the opposite to the postulates of socially responsible business.

Even though the games of chance industry faces great technological challenges that will soon provide a number of contributions in various fields of science (from computer science and economics to medicine, sociology, psychology and philosophy), we believe that it will be necessary to creatively communicate the changes, as well as design new contents for all areas in which games of chance will take place in the future.

5. Conclusion

The future of public relations in the games of chance industry is not compromised because, regardless of the fact that we live in a technological era, someone has to name all these new play areas and communicate them among the players. Specialized public relations experts who know the history of games of chance, legal regulations and industry trends, are and will continue to be part of high-level management in fast-growing games of chance companies. An overview of the theoretical literature and legal regulations and the obligation of games of chance providers are the basis for market analysis and the formulation of the goals of communication strategies.

This paper focused on communication strategies of the Croatian Lottery Ltd. whose performance oscillates. The latest campaign named #HEREiPLAY shows serious signs of reactivity after a short period of digital life, which is a major business failure and an error that can no longer be corrected. Although the CL is a national lottery organization, it should not retain the *status quo* in public relations because the competition is too strong and opportunities for creative growth are numerous.

⁷ Fashion (trapeze pants, collars, platform shoes), culture (dance parties), props (transistors, hula-hoop), etc.

In the final chapter, we have provided only some of the guidelines for sketching communication strategies; they are diverse and involve several sectors of games of chance. The emphasis is put on the last guideline that focuses on instant lottery (“retro” lottery tickets) whose growth could be significant, but only if incorporated into a meaningful communication campaign aimed at promoting the joy of living through play in the community. Smart and sustainable, transparent and socially responsible, creative and linguistically advanced communication solutions make the essence of public relations in the gaming industry.

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BIOGRAPHIES

TIHANA BABIĆ

Tihana Babić graduated Philosophy and Croatology (Croatian culture) at the University Department for Croatian Studies, University of Zagreb. Currently, she is a Ph.D. candidate in Information and Communication Sciences at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb, interested in education, innovation, knowledge management and information, communication and ethics. From 2013, she is the Head of Student Services and from 2017 she is also lecturer at Algebra University College, Zagreb.

MAJA BANOVAČ BARIĆ

Maja Banovac Barić was born in Zagreb. In 2008, she received her degree in Political Science from the Faculty of Political Science, University of Zagreb. The following year, she began working as a research assistant at the Faculty in the Department for International Politics and Diplomacy. She enrolled in the Political Science Ph.D. program, and her primary interest is the field of crisis management, in which she intends to defend her Ph.D. thesis. Since 2014, she is employed full-time at the Edward Bernays College of Communication Management as lecturer and Head of Centre for Career Development and Market Cooperation.

SNJEŽANA BARIĆ-ŠELMIĆ

Snježana Barić-Šelmić is teaching and research assistant at the Department of Cultural Studies of the University of Josip Juraj Strossmayer in Osijek since January 2017. Graduated from the Department of Cultural Studies of the University of Osijek, at the Media Culture module. Currently a doctoral student at the Doctoral School of the University of Osijek, at the University's postgraduate interdisciplinary doctoral study in Cultural Studies, at the module: Media Culture – Media Research. Other professional training includes the IEDC Bled School of Management Program, Management Zentrum, St. Gallen Management Training Program and Pedagogical-psychological-didactic-methodical training, gaining pedagogic competences

at the Faculty of Philosophy in Osijek. During studying, served as one of the editors and contributors of the University trilogy of proceedings “Probudi se protuho, zar ne znaš koliko je sati?”, “Koja si ti LEGEnda!?” and “Bajsom kroz meander”. Speaks English and German actively and uses Russian and Spanish passively. Speaks the Croatian sign language and plays the violin.

DOMAGOJ BEBIĆ

At the Faculty of Political Science in Zagreb Domagoj Bebić lectures several courses in the field of new media: Cyber Politics, Online journalism, Social media and Methods and techniques in new media. His scientific interests are: social media, e-democracy and online reputation. From 2011. he is secretary general of IPSA RC 10 the biggest political association in the world. Bebić is organizer of international scientific conference Information technology and journalism (ITJ) that is held in Dubrovnik for 23 years. He is secretary in chief of the Institute for New Media and E-democracy - Inmed (www.edemokracija.hr).

KATARINA BEKAVAC

Katarina Bekavac is a student of Public Relations Management, graduate study programme at Edward Bernays College of Communication Management. Her working experience includes eleven years in the international organizations in The Netherlands. She is employed at the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs of the Republic of Croatia. Her interests are media, international relations, geopolitics and crisis management.

IVANA BILIĆ

Dr Ivana Bilic is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Management of Faculty of Economics, University of Split. Her main scientific interests are communication, management and crisis management, and entrepreneurship. In the scientific area, she has published four book chapters and around 25 articles in international peer-reviewed journals or international scientific conferences. She has worked on a number of national and international scientific projects. For her work she has been awarded by many organizations and institutions such as:

ZIP – Zagreb Entrepreneurship Incubator, Shift Conference, Crowdfunding Academy, US Embassy Zagreb, US Department of State and her home institution, Faculty of Economics.

IVAN BIOŠIĆ

Ivan is at the second year of bachelor study at Edward Bernays University College (Course: Public Relations). Also, as sophomore he earned Dean award for the best student and scientific achievement in field of public relations, communication and marketing. Currently is in charge at several organisations. As Head of Section in the Croatian Public Relations Association and Head of Office for Public Relations at the Student Council of Bernays and at the Croatian Student Council of Universities and University Colleges of Applied Sciences. He is author of several online articles, professional and scientific papers and was presenter at few scientific conferences, as is working on various projects.

BRANIMIR BLAJIĆ

Branimir Blajić was born in 1978. in Split, Croatia. After finishing high school for hospitality business in Split, he joined the Faculty for hospitality business in Opatija where he got his mr.sc. Degree in the field of economics, specialization in human resources management. Currently he is a PhD student at the Faculty of kinesiology in Zagreb. He spent his last 18 years working in the hospitality business leading the major hospitality companies, focusing on restructuring projects and human resources. He is very active in the education field, giving lectures in all major hospitality and economics faculties in Croatia.

SAŠA BLAŽEKVIĆ

Graduated in 1997 at Hendrix College, AR, USA, with major in Politics and minor in Philosophy. Alongside work, attended IEDC Bled and enrolled in postgraduate interdisciplinary doctoral program Communication studies at the University of Osijek. Has more than 19 years of working experience as a professional in the fields of branding, marketing, and communications. Started his professional career at Podravka in 1997, and held various positions including the Director of Media Relations and Corporate Communications

Executive between 2000 and 2005. Initiated and led the team in the Coolinarika project; branding it. Worked at a Director of Market and Corporate Communications Department in Zagrebačka banka from 2005, rebranding the bank. Established own company focused on branding and communication with partners, and is the owner and chief consultant at Epikratos, branding and communications consultancy. Worked at various projects for clients from variety of industries: tourism, IT, transport, workers unions, etc.

NIKOLINA BORČIĆ

Nikolina Borčić has a BA in German and Russian languages and an MA in European Studies, after which she obtained two PhDs, firstly in linguistics and then in communication studies. The subject of political communication of German and Croatian politicians with an emphasis on the connection between the conceptual mind and the language have been the focus of both her doctoral theses and her articles and scientific papers. At VERN' University of Applied Sciences in Zagreb she teaches German, Business Communication, Political Communication and Celebrity Management Strategies. As part of Erasmus' exchange program for lecturers, she has taught at Ecole des Metiers de la Communication in Paris, France three years in a row where she where she analyzed the perception of politicians in denotative circumstances.

GORAN BRAČIĆ

Goran Bračić graduated on Edward Bernays University College and gained a title of Master of Public Relations Management. He has worked for six years in various agencies as Sales representative and Account manager. For the last three years, he is a team member in full service advertising agency Fervens d.o.o.

VIOLETA COLIĆ

Violeta Colić graduated in mathematics from the Faculty of Natural Science in Zagreb, but began her professional career in the media and continued in the field of communication management, first in the corporate sector and then in the agency sector. She has participated in many complex communication projects and has a rich experience in issue and crisis

communication management, corporate communications and reputation management. She is actively involved in the educational aspect of public relations, holds a CIPR degree and is a certified CIPR lecturer. Currently she acts as a director / partner at the Communications Office Colić, Laco & Partners.

MILE ČOLIĆ

Mile Čolić holds an M.Sc. in telecommunication traffic and is an electromechanical engineer. He works as an expert in the Sector of informatics support for business processes in the Croatia osiguranje d.d. company in Zagreb. He is a doctoral candidate at the Postgraduate doctoral study program of information and communication sciences of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb. His scientific interests are primarily information systems for new knowledge management. He has published several scientific and professional papers in the field of new knowledge management. He speaks German and Russian, communicates in English as well. He is married and a father of three children.

MILA ĆOSIĆ

Mila Ćosić was born on May 10, 1983 in Zagreb, Croatia. Mila is communication theory student at PhD School of Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek. She holds Bachelor of Arts degree in Macroeconomics from Faculty of Economics University of Zagreb, and a Master degree in European Studies at Faculty of Political Science University of Zagreb. Mila attended Harvard Kennedy School of Governance ExEd Program.

MARKO ĆUSTIĆ

Marko Ćustić is a senior consultant in the Millenium Promocija's PR team. He transitioned into public relations after two decades of experience in media. A digital media startup founder, he also worked as editor of science and technology with the Republika daily, reporter and editor with the Nacional newsmagazine and editor-in-chief of Aktual newsmagazine. He is also experienced in public relations and public affairs, having worked with numerous

clients from the business world, including Uber, Tele2, Jadranka Group, Digital Croatia and others. Marko studied Public Relations at the Edward Bernays University College.

FILIP DUJMOVIĆ

Filip Dujmović, Ph.D., is a senior public relations specialist at the Croatian pension insurance institute and lecturer at Edward Bernays College of Communication Management. He is responsible for external communication, communication strategies management and crisis communication for CPII and is an expert in the field of public relations in public institutions. He received his Ph.D. in 2011 at the University of Zagreb, having successfully defended his doctoral dissertation entitled "The impact of the World Bank on the reform policies of the pension systems of the countries of former Yugoslavia.

IVAN DUNĐER

Dr. Ivan Dunder holds a Ph.D. in Information Systems and Informatology, an M.Sc. in Informatics, a B.Sc. in Information Technology Engineering and is employed as a Research and Teaching Assistant at the Department of Information and Communication Sciences at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb. He conducts scientific research in the fields of computational natural language processing, machine translation and evaluation, language and speech technologies, knowledge management, along with modelling and development of databases and information systems. He has presented papers at numerous international conferences and has attended seminars, public lectures, conferences and workshops throughout Croatia and abroad. He actively participates in activities of scientific and professional associations, communicates in German, English and French.

TENA FRANJIĆ

After graduation from High school for tourism and hospitality in Zagreb, Tena Franjić went on and earned a degree in Economics from Zagreb School of Economics and Management. Furthermore, she attended VERN, University of Applied Sciences, where she obtained a Masters degree in Sustainable Development in Tourism. She took part in a series of

workshops and seminars dealing with business etiquette, arts management as well as communication and presentation skills. Her professional career started in the area of travelling and tourism, where she worked in travel agencies, and later as a travel agency owner and manager. Some time was spent working in cultural tourism and heritage after which she went on the head of International Relations of the National Folk Dance Ensemble of Croatia, Lado. Her current position of a expert associate in Croatian National Tourist Board began in May 2018.

IVANA GAŽIĆ

Graduated in Finance from the Faculty of Economics and Business at the University of Zagreb in 1997 and gained the Executive MBA degree from the International Executive Development Center Bled (Slovenia) in 2001. She also holds the investment advisor license. She gained wide professional experience working for leading Croatian companies and financial institutions. Since May 2010 she is the President of the Management Board of Zagreb Stock Exchange. She is also president of two supervisory boards: of Ljubljana Stock Exchange and SEE LINK Ltd. Skopje. Ivana is currently a PhD student of communication at J. J. Strossmayer University and author of several papers on investor relations.

DEJAN GLUVAČEVIĆ

Dejan Gluvačević is PhD of Communication Science with main interest in fields of destination branding, national identity and image, as well as international relations. Gluvačević gained wide professional experience in several public relation and marketing agencies as a public relation consultant and expert for destination branding. Also he is the author of several scientific articles in field of branding and communication in tourism and he also participated in over ten international scientific conferences worldwide. He is the founder of tourist agency Servus which is located in Zagreb, Croatia.

ZVONIMIR GRGAS

Zvonimir Grgas is studying communication science at Doctoral school Josip Juraj Strossmayer - University of Osijek and had spent one semester on exchange in Spain at University of Cadiz. His main interests are communication in public sphere and communication in tourism. He participated on several international scientific conferences and he is the autor of several scientific articles. He lives in Zagreb, where he runs his own company for the last 20 years.

MIRELA HOLY

Mirela Holy is professor of ethnology and comparative literature. After political career as the Minister of environmental and nature protection and as member of Parliament, she works at the VERN' University in Zagreb as Head of the Graduate Study Business Communication Management. She has published five books and many articles about environment, human rights and communication. She received Miko Tripalo award for outstanding contribution to the society democratization and promotion of human rights in 2012.

MARKO HORVAT

Dr. Marko Horvat is a tenured Lecturer at the University of Applied Sciences, Zagreb, Croatia. He has received M. Eng., M.Sc. and Ph.D. degrees in computer science from the University of Zagreb, Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Computing in 1999, 2007 and 2013, respectively. From 2008 until 2014 he was a research associate and later a postgraduate fellow at University of Zagreb, Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Computing. He participated in a number of EU research projects and national projects with industry and government. He published more than 40 textbooks and manuscripts in books, journals, conferences and workshops. Held a number of guest lectures and actively engaged in the popularization of science.

IVANA JELEČ

Ivana Jeleč works as the Head of the Centre for Public Relations on Edward Bernays University College and lecturer on courses related to public relations, strategic and corporate communication and Spanish and Italian language. She graduated in Public Relations and Political Communication on the Faculty of Political Science, but she is also currently finishing her second graduate study on the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Spanish Language and Literature and Italian Language and Literature. She started her career in Millenium promocija, Croatian leading agency for integrated communication, where she had the opportunity to work on numerous projects in various fields such as education, tourism, banking and pharmacy.

DAMIR JUGO

Damir Jugo is the Dean of the Edward Bernays College of Communication Management. Besides heading the institution, he is a senior lecturer in its public relations department where he teaches strategic communication and crisis communications courses. He obtained a degree in journalism at the Faculty of Political Science in Zagreb, earned his master's degree in strategic communication at the University of Mostar and his PhD in crisis communication at the J.J. Strossmayer University in Osijek. He has more than ten year of experience in public relations practice. He worked as an executive director and a board member at Millenium promocija, the leading Croatian public relations consultancy where he advised companies, organizations and institutions from the corporate, education and NGO sectors, as well as politics. He has been a lecturer at various HEIs in Croatia and in SEE. He is the author of two books "Public Relations Strategy" published in 2012 and "Managing Crisis Communication" in 2017, as well as more than 20 scientific and professional papers within these disciplines. He is currently the president of the programme committee of the international scientific conference Communication Management Forum. He is also a member of numerous professional associations in Croatia and abroad such as the Croatian Public Relations Association, EUPRERA and others.

ANITA KLAPAN

Anita Klapan completed her MA in psychology and a postgraduate specialist programme in integrated marketing communications at the University of Zagreb. She also completed education programmes in psychotherapy. She has gained professional communication-related experience in working for various non-governmental organisations and civil service, as well as at a communications agency. Currently she acts as a project manager at ICF Mostra.

TAMARA KUNIĆ

Tamara Kunić obtained her baccalaureate degree in Print and Television Journalism, Faculty of Political Science in Zagreb in 2008. Two years later she obtained her MA in Television. From 2006, she works as a journalist for the Croatian daily newspaper 24sata, where she worked as a court reporter and in the politics section. From 2015, she has her education column in 24sata. From 2012, she works as a teaching assistant in the Journalism Department, University North, and is a PhD candidate at the University of Zagreb.

ROMANA LEKIĆ

Romana Lekić was the Chair of the Tourism Department at Vern' University of applied sciences in Zagreb, Croatia since 1st of February 2017. Now she is assistant of dean on College for communication management Edward Bernays. She has received her PhD in Cultural Anthropology, as well as receiving professional training in drama, dance, and art. She has worked as a trainer and consultant in the field of tourism and culture. She is involved in numerous European projects in Cultural Tourism and Special Interest Tourism, as well as being an associate for the Croatian National Tourist Board, the Ministry of Tourism, the Association of Croatian Travel Agencies, as well as other institutions, organisations and developmental agencies located in Croatia and abroad. She teaches as a visiting professor at Universities in Slovenia and Montenegro, where she gives lectures and trainings on topics such as: experience economy and storytelling, brand and personal development, creativity, creative leadership and nonviolent communication, transformational leadership, and group dynamics.

TOMISLAV LEVAK

Tomislav Levak is teaching and research assistant at the Department of Cultural Studies, University of Osijek. Acquired a double MA – in Media Culture and Cultural Management. Received an award as valedictorian at undergraduate and graduate levels, and Dean's Award for outstanding success. Worked as a journalist for several printed media since 1996 – Slobodna Dalmacija, Jutarnji list, Slavonski dom and Glas Slavonije. Currently enrolled in postgraduate interdisciplinary doctoral program Communication studies at the University of Osijek. Participated in several national and international scientific and professional conferences, prepared and edited several books and anthologies. Along with Croatian, speaks English and German.

SERGEJ LUGOVIĆ

Sergej Lugović is a senior lecturer teaching Information Economy, Technology Entrepreneurship and e-business at the Zagreb University of Applied Sciences, Croatia. He is also a Ph.D. candidate at the Information Science Department of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb. His research interests are information behaviour and needs in intelligent socio-technical systems. He holds a Master of Science degree from Plekhanov Russian University of Economics and an MBA from The London College UCK. Along with his academic career, he had a business career in Moscow, London and Zagreb, working for blue chip companies, for the Government of the Republic of Croatia, in technology ventures, and in the fashion and the music industries.

NATAŠA MANCE

Nataša Mance was born in Zagreb in 1959. She works as lecturer, conference interpreter and translator. Educated in Zagreb and abroad, graduated from the Faculty of Philosophy in English and Spanish languages and literature, holds a Master's degree in Conference Interpreting. Has over 20 years of lecturing experience in English for Tourism, English for Public Relations and lectures on Business Etiquette and Protocol in university courses and for various organizations. Presented a number of papers at conferences in collaboration with

other authors, on topics pertaining to various aspects of tourism. Currently works mostly for the EU institutions in Brussels.

MILAN MANDIĆ

Milan Mandić is a Project Manager at Profico, a full service digital agency from Split, Croatia. His main scientific interests are agile development, data mining and modern marketing communication. He graduated from the Department of IT Management at the Faculty of Economics, University of Split, obtaining the title of Master of Business Economics. During both his studies and professional career, Mandić has participated in numerous projects and volunteered in the organisation of various conferences in Split, such as 3P Split and Shift Conference.

TAJANA OZIMEC

Tajana Ozimec graduated at the Faculty of Economics in Zagreb, majoring in management. Her graduation paper was about emotional intelligence and how much it influences the success of the leader. Her areas of research are generally management, economics, economic diplomacy, etc. Furthermore, she is very interested in healthy nutrition so she eats healthily and does exercise on a daily basis. Thanks to network marketing, events and trainings, she shares her knowledge of a healthy and active lifestyle with others as part of a team with excellent results.

IVAN PAKOZDI

Ivan Pakozdi is Executive Director for Development, Head of Lifelong Learning Centre and lecturer at Edward Bernays University College in Zagreb, and is currently a doctoral student in the communication science interdisciplinary study programme at the Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek. He obtained a degree in Journalism from the Faculty of Political Science in Zagreb. He is a member of Communications and Public Relations Committee at the Croatian Council of Universities and University Colleges of Applied Sciences. He has 10 years of working experience as a PR consultant at Millenium PR, the

largest Croatian communication consultancy. He was a member of the first generation of graduates from Matrix Croatica's Communication Sciences School.

MARTINA PANDŽIĆ SKOKO

Martina Pandžić Skoko is the head of special projects at Millenium Promocija, the leading Croatian agency for communication management, as well as a lecturer for the course Fashion and Communication at Edward Bernays University College in Zagreb. She is an expert for the area of event management and public relations, and she has many years of theoretical and practical experience in the field of communication aspects of fashion and dressing, that is, in creating a personal image in politics and the business world. She was director of the "Fashion.hr Industry" fashion fair. In the period from 2004 to 2010, she worked in the "Quintana komunikacije" public relations agency, where she successfully cooperated on numerous communication management projects for corporate clients, political institutions, as well as candidates and parties during political campaigns. She also held the position of director from 2006 to 2010. She graduated journalism at the Faculty of Political Sciences, University of Zagreb.

GORAN PAVELIN

Goran Pavelin, PhD, a research associate, is currently employed at the Department for Tourism and Communication Studies at the University of Zadar. His scientific interests are closely focused on the phenomenological research of communication and its application in the cultural tourism and cultural heritage field. His latest academic activities included visiting the Centre of Marketing and Public Relations at the University of Ljubljana as a guest lecturer. During his career he has successfully published several scientific articles, both in the Republic of Croatia and in foreign countries, as well as two scientific books which were published in the Republic of Croatia.

RADMILA PAVLIČIĆ

Radmila Pavličić was born in 1977 in Kutina. She graduated in 2001 from the Faculty of Economics and Business in Zagreb, Accounting Course. She is finishing her University

Specialist Study of Management and Organization. She completed training for EU funds manager and Certified Program for Cost-Benefit Analysis for EU. From 2005 to 2009, as a hotel director, she was in charge of organization, management, and implementation of projects. From 2009 to late 2013 she worked as branch office manager at Kreditna banka Zagreb. From 2013 to 2018, as a Head of the Administrative Department of Economy and Finance in the City of Kutina, and at the moment she work as a Chairman of the Board at Cjevomont d.o.o. Pavličić is the author of scientific paper on Fiscal Sustainability of Local Self-Government, and a guest lecturer at Libertas International University. Areas of interest are, among other, organization, management styles.

MARIA PEDIĆ

Maria Pedić was born in 1993 in Zadar, Croatia. After successfully completing three years of her undergraduate study programme at the University of Zadar, Faculty of Tourism and Communication studies, she enrolled into the Journalism and Public Relations graduate programme at the same faculty at the University of Zadar. She is currently a full time student finishing the last year of her degree and is soon to obtain her master's degree in Journalism and Public Relations. During her academic development and education at the University of Zadar, she showed interest for fields such as public relations, tourism industry, marketing, digital media etc. As a part of her final thesis, her current research includes analysing the media image of tourism of Zadar County on specific websites. Based on her previously mentioned interests, she regularly keeps up to date with the latest novelties when it comes to public relations, communication trends and influential global affairs.

MARIO PETROVIĆ

Mario Petrović is President of the Board/CEO, founder and co-owner of MPR+ (Millenium promocija), the leading Croatian agency for public relations and integrated communications, as well as one of the most influential regional agencies that has, in addition to Zagreb, companies in Serbia (Belgrade) and Bosnia & Herzegovina (Sarajevo). He is President of the Board of Governors and owner of the Edward Bernays College of Communication Management in Croatia, one of the largest communications educational institutions in the region. He is a member of the Supervisory Board of Jadranka d.d., one of the leading tourism companies in Croatia. He holds a degree in public relations and is currently enrolled in a PhD

programme in communication science. He has specialised in lobbying, crisis communication and strategic consulting. Other areas in which he has extensive experience are PR, branding and education in the field of tourism. He has also gained experience in several national and local political campaigns.

KRISTINA POSILOVIĆ

Kristina Posilović (1982) graduated Croatian Language and Literature (The Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Rijeka, 2006) and finished postgraduate study of Public Relations (The Faculty of Political Science, Zagreb, 2017). She is a PhD candidate in Literature, Culture, Theatre and Film (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Zagreb). She is Head of Public Relations Department at the Ministry of Environment and Energy. She's a winner of an Annual award for contribution in promoting human rights and gender equality (Primorsko-goranska County, 2014) and she published six books of poetry.

ROBERT POSAVEC

Robert Posavec was born in 1980 in Varaždin. For three years he was the head of the special library and reading room Tabula Rasa within ACT Group. He has participated in numerous civil society projects as a trainer and lecturer. He is editor of various editions in the field of media, social entrepreneurship and co-operatives. He is employed at the Center for Education Čakovec as an expert associate school librarian. He is engaged in the public and cultural activities of the Center for Education. His main interests are development of cooperation with the local community and inclusion of the Center's participants in community life, as well as encouraging reading and use of ICT and assistive technology in rehabilitation and education of students with developmental disabilities. He is the leader of the Centre's Team for Public and Cultural Activity. In 2015 Posavec has been promoted to expert associate mentor.

VLADIMIR PRESELJ

Vladimir Preselj is the Executive Director of Public Relations at Millenium Promocija. He graduated at the University Department of Croatian Studies at the University of Zagreb and joined the Millenium Promocija Team in 2012. Vladimir Preselj is a lecturer at Edward Bernays University College, University Department of Croatian Studies and other higher education institutions. As a consultant, he actively participated in the realization of numerous activities in public relations, corporate communications, crisis communication, strategic communication, media relations and branding. He is also the author and co-author of several scientific papers devoted to communication management and public relations.

MAJA SAMARDŽIĆ GAŠPAR

Maja Samardžić Gašpar is Head of digital department in Millenium Promocija, leading agency for integrated communication in Croatia and as an lecturer on Edward Bernays College of Communication Management on courses related to online media and digital marketing. Samardžić Gašpar graduated in Public Relations and Political Communication on the Faculty of Political Science in Zagreb and began her career as a general sales representative for Nike. During her carrier she had the opportunity to work on numerous communication projects in the fields of tourism, banking, insurance, pharmacy, and telecommunications, like the Hypo Group, Partner Bank, Croatia osiguranje, Pliva, Vipnet, and Jadranka Grupa.

KRISTIJAN SEDAK

Kristijan Sedak works as a teaching assistant at the Catholic University of Croatia, while he is also the head of the programs at Speech Academy Demosten and School of Rhetoric Crikvenica, spokesperson of the Alumni scholarship holders of the Konrad Adenauer Foundation in Zagreb and a member of the working group for enlargement of the EU for the European Network of Political Foundations. He owns a communications consultancy company for political campaigning and education. His previous work experience includes a position of an advisor and expert associate at the Croatian Statehood Foundation, membership in the General Assembly Wilfried Martens Centre for European studies and positions of

lecturer, associate, spokesperson or advisor at VERN' University of Applied Sciences, High School of Public Relations, Media Studies - Kairos and many other institutions.

DRAŽENKA STANČIĆ

Draženka Stančić works as head of library at the Edward Bernays Firs College of Communication Management and at Elementary school Ivan Kukuljević Sakcinski as school librarian in position of expert associate counselor. She is the head of the ŽSVŠK Varaždin County, and was a member of the SRS for creating a curriculum on interdisciplinary topics on the use of ICT. Her fields of interest are methodological and curricular topics, information literacy in working with students, encouraging reading, use ICT in the teaching process and the visibility of the school librarianship. She is a graduate of Croatian Language and Literature, Master of Library Studies and advanced university student of a Specialist Public Relations Study.

GORDAN IVAN ŠOJAT

Gordan Ivan Šojat was born in Zagreb in 1970. He graduated from the Faculty of Political Science, Communication Science study programme. He is the author of several radio and television shows, editor-in-chief of Studentska Panorama, Hrvatski Junior, Best Banking Magazine and an associate in numerous professional magazines and journals. He is an assistant in Bernays' Media Department and co-author of the paper Communication Shifts in the Croatian Banking Industry: Comparison of Early-Crisis Year 2009 and Crisis-Hit Year 2012.

MARTA TAKAHASHI

Marta Takahashi is an assistant at the Centre for Quality Management, and teaching assistant in the Department of Public Relations at Edward Bernays University College. Since 2009 she has been volunteering at the Caritas Home for children without parental care. In 2012 Caritas of the Archdiocese of Zagreb named her Volunteer of the Year. She won the IFIA Lady Prize, presented by the International Federation of Inventors' Associations, for the best work by a female innovator at ARCA 2010. She is the editor of a book and the co-author of several

professional and academic papers, and is currently a doctoral student of communication science at the Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek.

IGOR VIDAČAK

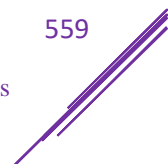
Igor Vidačak is Associate Professor at the Faculty of Political Science, University of Zagreb. He used to be Director of Croatian Government Office for Cooperation with NGOs and Research Fellow at the Institute for Development and International Relations. He has been leading European Union technical assistance projects empowering governments of South East Europe for developing meaningful and effective cooperation with civil society in shaping and implementing public policies. His research interests include interest groups, lobbying, Europeanisation of governance. He has been lecturer at several higher education institutions, leading courses on EU political system, EU enlargement, public affairs and lobbying.

MARIJA VOLAREVIĆ

Volarević graduated at the Faculty of Political Science, University of Zagreb. At the VERN' University of Applied Sciences she teaches several courses in the field of new media and public relations: Internet and Social Media, Digital communication and Content management. Her scientific interest are: social media communication, online public relations and online journalism. Volarević has full time job at Public relations agency in Zagreb. Also, she is a young researcher at the Institute for New media and e-democracy.

PETRA VUJOVIĆ

Petra Vujović was born in Zagreb where she completed her degree in German and Ukrainian Language and Literature Studies from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at the University of Zagreb. As a German and Ukrainian language teacher she was engaged in scientific work in both fields of research. After moving to Vienna, she specialized in German as a foreign language working as a lecturer as well as an examiner for both the Austrian ÖIF and the international ÖSD exams of various levels. At the same time she joined the “Calamus Verlag” publishing house where she started working on the first Austrian textbook series for German as a foreign language, 12 of those being published in 2017. Petra contributed as an



editor, author and expert associate. Since 2016 she teaches German language at the Edward Bernays College in Zagreb.