MEGATRENDS AND MEDIA: Media Farm – Totems and Taboo


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MEGATRENDS AND MEDIA
Media Farm – Totems and Taboo

*International Scientific Conference, 14th – 15th April 2015*
*Congress Hall of the Slovak Academy of Sciences*
*Smolenice, the Slovak Republic*

The international scientific conference *Megatrends and Media* organised by the Faculty of Mass Media Communication, University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava is a traditional scientific event supported and attended by mass media communication theorists and media researchers as well as media professionals. The goal of the conference is to present and exchange current knowledge and experience reflecting media and the latest trends in media production processes.

The annual international conference *Megatrends and Media* (the conference title was established in 2011, the event had been previously called *On Problems of Media Communication* later *Mass Media Communication and Reality* and then *Media, Society, Media Fiction*), took place on 14th – 15th April 2015 at the Smolenice Castle, celebrating the jubilee tenth year of its existence.

The subtitle of the anniversary conference was *Media Farm - Totems and Taboo*. The reason why we had decided to choose the above-mentioned main topic were related to the necessity to react to ongoing transformation processes of journalism, the quality press and its transition into populist, tabloid (mass) journalism formats being the main concern. The scientific committee of the conference worked with the basic assumption that such transformation should have been performed tastefully, with full respect to the traditional boundaries of morale, cultural values and good manners as formulated by psychoanalysts and behaviourists researching totems and taboos of traditional cultures.

The discussion sessions were divided into five sections as follows:

- Section 1: *Transformation of the Media Garden*
- Section 2: *Media and Marketing Games of the Oligarchs*
- Section 3: *Transcultural Communication and Media Art*
- Section 4: *From Word to Genre and its Current Variations*
- Section 5: *Legal Frameworks of the Media*
As the conference’s organisers, we were proud to welcome many regular and new participants as well as renowned foreign guests coming mostly from the Czech Republic, Poland, Romania, Croatia, Ukraine, Macedonia and The Netherlands. We were especially honoured to welcome the world-renowned scholar who attended our conference for the first time – Professor Diab M. Al-Badayneh from Jordan. Professor Al-Badayneh was awarded the distinction of Doctor Honoris Causa for his lifetime research accomplishments and devoted scholarly work.

Panel discussion, which is traditionally one of the most interesting parts of the conference, dealt with the topic *Man in the Mirror of Media Creativity* and involved both scholarly opinions and practical experience of distinguished media professionals. The participants discussed mostly the questions reflecting on man as a creator, as a relevant agent who creates the current cultural trends and directly takes part in all events going on within the society of today.

The *Brilliantt* award ceremony was another important part of the conference. *The International Institute for Interdisciplinary Research* established by the Faculty of Mass Media Communication, University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava had announced the award in 2014. The goal of the award is to express public appreciation towards basic and secondary educational institutions and universities in Slovakia which significantly contribute to implementation of innovations in the sphere education, aiming to raise the public awareness of such activities. The award announcer’s ambition is to inform about, motivate, support and appreciate unique activities of educational institutions dealing with innovations in the field of providing education. The *Brilliantt* award was celebrated under the auspices of the Minister of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic.

Another highly significant award that is presented annually at the conference *Megatrends and Media* is called *Marián Matyáš’s Pomegranate*. Marián Matyáš (1978 – 2007), a media theorist and a highly successful young scholar, was one of the first graduates of the Faculty of Mass Media Communication (2002), later a lecturer at the Faculty. He considerably shaped the face of then-young FMK also as a students’ Senator. Later, as one the Faculty’s Vice-Deans, he helped set our current ambitions and principles we respect today. *The Pomegranate* has been awarded since 2008, honouring M. Matyáš’s scholarly accomplishments related to
development of the FMK and significant media acts performed by our students, graduates or colleagues.

Conference website:  
http://fmk.sk/megatrends-and-media/mm2015/

Faculty website:  http://fmk.sk

Facebook website of FMK Conferences:  
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(All photos from the conference are here to see.)
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- European Journal of Science and Theology (Romania)
# CONTENTS

**Preface** ........................................................................................................................................................................... 12

**Section 1: Transformation of the Media Garden** ................................................................................................................. 15

**MEDIA AS THE INTERSPHERE OF HUMAN LIFE: ANOTHER VIEW ON THE MEDIATIZATION OF COMMUNICATION THEORY** .............................................................. 16  
*Andrzej Adamski*

**CREDIBILITY OF MESSAGE** ..................................................................................................................................................... 40  
*Marek Debnár*

**DIGITAL HUMANITIES AND MEDIA STUDIES SCHOLARSHIP** ................................................................................................. 48  
*Andrej Gogora*

**THE NEW LEGAL REGULATION OF WHISTLEBLOWING IN SLOVAK LABOR LAW** ....................................................................................................................... 64  
*Daniel Krošlák – Andrea Olšovská*

**CURRENT TRENDS IN MEDIA ENVIRONMENT TRANSFORMATION** ............................................................................................ 88  
*Jozef Matúš – Jana Galera*

**DEFICIT OF TRUTH IN MASS MEDIA AND ITS CONSEQUENCE FOR A POLITICAL AND INTERNATIONAL SPHERE** ................................................................. 97  
*Arkadiusz Modrzejewski*

**THE PROPOSAL OF BEHAVIOR STRATEGY RELATED TO DEMANDING SOCIAL SITUATIONS IN MANAGEMENT OF SECONDARY ART SCHOOL WITH THE USE OF INNOVATIVE PREDICTIVE SOFTWAREools**  
*Gabriela Sláviková – Małgorzata Koszembar-Wiklik – Imrich Andrejčák*............. 112

**FAMILY VALUES FACE TO FACE THE CHANGING MEDIA REALITY** ............................................................................................ 124  
*Leona Stašová*

**IMPLEMENTATION OF MOBILE APPLICATIONS IN EDUCATION AND POSSIBILITIES OF THEIR USE IN MEDIA EDUCATION** ......................................................................................... 140  
*Norbert Vrabec – Martin Graca – Slávka Mazáková*

**Section 2: Media and Marketing Game of the Oligarchs** ................................................................................................. 155

**INCREASING BUSINESS PERFORMANCE BY BENCHMARKING TOOLS FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF INTERNET DATABASES APPLICATION** ............... 156  
*Peter Gallo – Nella Svetozarovová*
OLIGARS IN MEDIA ACROSS EUROPE...........................................................................168
Daniela Kollárová – Magdaléna Ungerová

NEW TRENDS IN THE MEDIA OR NEW PROBLEMS...............................................180
Jozef Matúš

FIRST ATTEMPTS IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA TO OBJECTIVIZE DATA
IN ADVERTISING IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE 20th CENTURY .......................190
Dušan Pavlů

RESEARCH THE MEDIA WORK IN THE CONTEXT OF IMPACT
OF PSYCHOLOGICAL, PEDAGOGICAL, SOCIAL AND SPIRITUAL FACTORS ......204
Silvester Sawicki

THE MEDIA AS A „RELIGION“ OF THE WEST: ELEMENTS FOR A POSSIBLE
CRITICAL THEORY OF MEDIA..............................................................................218
Denko Skalovski

BUILDING CAPACITIES OF CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE
MEDIA RELATIONS – STRATEGY FRAMEWORK..................................................236
Majda Tafra-Vlahović

INSIGHT INTO ROLE OF MEDIA IN WESTERN LIBERAL DEMOCRACIES ..........262
Tatiana Tökölyová

PERCEPTION OF MEDIA CREDIBILITY .................................................................279
Lucia Vilčeková

Section 3: Transcultural Communication and Media Art ............................. 287

RELIGIOSITY, MEDIA AND NOSTALGIA IN THE SOCIO-CULTURAL
REFLECTION OF MICHEL MAFFESOLI.................................................................288
Beáta Benczeová

UNDERSTANDING THE EMERGENT ORDER AND THE SYSTEM CURRENTLY
ON THE GROUND .....................................................................................................308
Getnet Tamene

REFLECTION OF THE MEDIA IMAGE OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION
IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC..........................333
Andrea Preissová Krejčí

COINCIDENCE OF THE VERBAL AND THE NONVERBAL IN MEDIA
COMMUNICATION ......................................................................................................349
Olga Škvareninová
Dear Colleagues, Dear Scientific Community,

We are pleased to present the conference proceedings associated with the international scientific conference Megatrends and Media held annually by the Faculty of Mass Media Communication, University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava. The conference now celebrates its 10th anniversary and steps into the second decade of its existence.

The Faculty of Mass Media Communication has been successful in creating new spaces for scholarly and practical discourse for several years. We persist in our efforts, aiming to present the most progressive topics associated with media studies; we are particularly pleased to discuss them internationally. The conference Megatrends and Media has become a well-known platform for presenting our Faculty’s activities in the presence of distinguished domestic as well as foreign guests. It has become a tradition to award the Marián Matyáš’s Pomegranate award to students who significantly contributed to development of the Faculty or performed an important media act. We have been publishing MUUZA, a rare artistic publication, since 2009. Since its first issue, MUUZA has been awarded the title “Most beautiful book of Slovakia” multiple times. In the same year, we started to publish our academic journal Communication Today. Since then, Communication Today has greatly succeeded in becoming a renowned and internationally acclaimed scientific journal indexed in several prestigious citation databases.

The organisers divided the main conference topic into five sections in which more than 150 papers written by authors from Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Poland, Romania, Croatia, Ukraine, Macedonia and The Netherlands were presented. The submitted proceedings include 22 best texts, which we have decided to select from the first three sections: Transformation of the Media Garden; Media and Marketing Games of the Oligarchs; and Transcultural Communication and Media Art. The primary reason for performing such a strict selection of contributions was our ambition to present the best quality possible and encourage erudite academic discourse related to the given topics.

The jubilee tenth year of our “mass media conference” has attracted the highest number of scientific partners of the conference so far, including institutions such as: Centre of Global Studies (Institute of Philosophy of the Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic); The Katowice Branch of the Polish Academy of Sciences; The Institute of Political Science of...
the Slovak Academy of Sciences; The Faculty of Social Sciences at the Charles University in Prague (the Czech Republic); Centre for Innovation, Technology Transfer and Development Foundation of the University of Silesia (Poland); Polish Public Relations Association and the renowned scientific journal European Journal of Science and Theology (Romania). The willingness of these institutions to participate in our conference proves its prestige in the Central European region.

FMK is committed to keep fulfilling its motto: “Be better!”. We set no limits to either progress in knowledge or development of imagination and creativity. We are eager to find solutions to problems in the area that suffers from a low critical potential due to being hidden under layers of mainstream consumerism accepted by the majority of society. The University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava as well as its Faculty of Mass Media Communication live in the inspirational legacy of Saints Cyril and Methodius – aspiring to be diplomatic while announcing new postulates, comprehensible and constructive, conducive to the formation of the idea concepts and cultural values of contemporary society.

Dana Petranová

Dean of Faculty of Mass Media Communication
University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava
Transformation of the Media Garden

At present, elitist views and efforts of the media producers to appeal to well-educated segments of the media audiences are marginalized remarkably. Tabloid media and – increasingly – also elite media try hard to attract and hold the attention of the mainstream recipients. Intellectual, cultural or economic elites are not among their target audiences. On the contrary, in the best-case scenario, these audience groups are subjected to ignorance and disinterest, the worst-case scenario makes them the most convenient objects of scandalization, negativism and satisfaction of the voyeuristic traits of the mainstream audiences. Another subsidiary sign of this development is related to stereotyping and standardization of human needs, wishes, desires and preferences that allow the media to employ more flexible and effective ways of commodifying the attention of the audience members as well as selling this – artificially generated – attention to advertisers. The elite, as a positive role model, is continually losing its attractiveness and the media producers find it interesting mostly in negative contexts that are able to appeal to human emotions while satiating curiosity, jealousy or mischievousness of the “mass recipient”. On the other hand, very specific “non-elite” role models whose only ability is often associated with massive amounts of unjustified self-confidence and exhibitionism are placed in the centre of attention. The abilities to critically assess the media content, media organizations as well as various related processes and relations are an important part of the media literacy. Acquiring a certain level of media literacy is crucial in case of children and adolescents as well as in case of other segments of the media audiences. Media recipients need to gain insight, self-consciousness and proper skills related to necessary co-existence with the world of media that is becoming even more complicated. Therefore, the need for intense development of media competencies must be fulfilled by ways and methods that lead the audience members to identify and eliminate the influence of calculated, deliberate persuasive strategies as well as effectively use an immense potential of media technologies and information sources to both their personal development and cultivation of the social environment. Therefore, the section strives to reflect media literacy as an important factor of social changes and individual transformation. Well-prepared media literate persons should be able to think critically and creatively – these abilities allow them to integrate to the society and face a whole lot of challenges associated with living their lives. How can we define the cultural, political, technological, educational and other aspects of challenges and new trends that are related to media users? To what extent and in which forms are the media audiences transformed, taking into account the influence of stereotyping and standardization of the media content? Is this – increasingly aggressive – commodification of attention of the audiences acceptable in terms of ethical norms, human rights and principles associated with freedom of expression? Are the media able to contribute to the critical reflection on social phenomena or do they function mostly as tools designed to distract the audiences from topics and problems that are actually relevant?
MEDIA AS THE INTERSPHERE OF HUMAN LIFE: ANOTHER VIEW ON THE MEDIATIZATION OF COMMUNICATION THEORY

Andrzej Adamski

ABSTRACT:
In the present article, the author attempts to illustrate phenomena occurring in the sphere of human communication and integrate them into the specific model. It would not be an overall description of the complex ecosystem of interpersonal communication, but rather the next brick added to the continuously expanding edifice of scientific reflection on communicating and the media. Thus, for the purposes of this study the author suggests the use of a term ‘intersphere’, derived from geometry. The author is convinced that the situation, in which the media are prevalent in every area of human life, is properly described. As for the linguistic analysis of the word ‘intersphere’, the author examines its possible references to the mediasphere theory, formulated by the Polish media researcher, Bp. Adam Lepa, and divided into logosphere, iconosphere, galenosphere and sonosphere. In the further study, he endeavors to investigate the extent, to which the perception of the media as the intersphere of human existence cooperates with – recently extremely popular and gaining more supporters – the theory of mediatization of various areas of life. It seems that (despite lexical similarities between the concepts of ‘mediosphere’ and ‘intersphere’) the comprehension of the media in terms of the intersphere of human life is much closer to the theory of mediatization; it constitutes as if the other side of this theory and hence, can perfectly complement it.

KEY WORDS:
intersphere, mass media, mediatization, mediasphere, logosphere, galenosphere, sonosphere, iconosphere

1 Introduction

The sphere of interpersonal communication is one of these areas of life wherein the influence of new technologies is easily noticeable. At this point, communication is understood as the exchange of thoughts and information – since modifications are not so drastic as for moving from one place to another. Indeed, the air transportation is developing and cars are getting more and more modern, ecological and safe, yet tourist flights to the Moon have not become the universal standard, which seemed nearly within reach of a man after the first landing on the
Silver Globe. Nevertheless, if we make a reference to the very reality of the exchange of ideas and information – then the changes that we are witnessing, are certainly of a cosmic nature. Ease of contacting anyone in almost any place on Earth is currently so obvious that we feel frustrated and annoyed if we have to wait more than several hours (minutes?) to receive a response to our e-mail and we do not get the immediate reply to a text message, not to mention the repeatedly missed phone calls.

The answer to this reality is the reflection of scientists, who seek to describe and understand the mechanisms of the ongoing transformations and also predict their future directions and consequences. As observed by the researches from Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University, namely prof. H. Seweryniak and K. Sitkowska, numerous attempts to illustrate this reality resulted in equally numerous theories. And so, there are: ‘revolutions (a technical-scientific, industrial, computer, information, digital revolution), eras (the era of machines, a computer and digital era), epochs (the epoch of image), centuries. They were to effect: ‘lonely crowd’ (D. Riesman), ‘post-historic man’ (R. Seidenberg), ‘industrial society’ (R. Dahrendorf), ‘global village’ (M. McLuhan), ‘one-dimensional man’ (H. Marcuse), ‘information society’ (T. Umesao), ‘postmodernist society’ (A. Etzioni), ‘world without borders’ (H. Brown)’ – critically noting, however, that ‘none of these concepts, excessively concentrated on one field or issue only, does not fully reflect the nature of the changes occurring in the world’.

Therefore, I would endeavor to describe the phenomena taking place in the area of communication and incorporate them into a certain model. Obviously, it would not be the overall presentation of the complex ecosystem of human communication since it would be impossible to achieve – and definitely not in one scientific article. It would rather be the next brick added to the constantly growing edifice of scientific reflection on communication and the media. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, I suggest the use of a term derived from geometry, i.e., ‘intersphere’. In my opinion, it properly describes the situation, in which the media are prevalent in every field of human existence. Analyzing the word ‘intersphere’ on a linguistic level, I would examine its potential references to the mediasphere theory, formulated by the Polish media researcher, Adam Lepa, and divided into logosphere, iconosphere, 1

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galenosphere and sonosphere. In the further study, I would investigate the extent, to which the perception of the media as the intersphere of human life cooperates with – recently extremely popular and gaining more supporters – the theory of mediatization of various areas of our existence. As it seems, (despite lexical similarities between the concepts of ‘mediasphere’ and ‘intersphere’), the comprehension of the media in terms of the intersphere of human life is much closer to the theory of mediatization; it constitutes as if the other side of this theory and hence, can perfectly complement it.

In my study, I would apply the method of critical analysis of available sources and reviews, especially encyclopedias and foreign language dictionaries (in order to examine the current understanding and occurrence of a term ‘intersphere’). Next, I would focus on the works by A. Lepa and his followers. In the further part of the article, I would refer to publications of the authors, who are frequently associated with the theory of mediatization nowadays, i.e., S. Hjarvard, F. Krotz, K. Lundby.

2 Media as the intersphere of human life

In the monograph ‘Media in the Analogue and Digital World’, published in 2012, while searching for an expression that would most accurately reflect the growing role (or even hegemony) of the media in every area of life, I suggested the term ‘intersphere’.

This word is derived from geometry. It exists in Italian language and is translated into Polish as ‘sfera półwpisana (w wielościan)’ (a midsphere of a polyhedron) – it is a sphere, which is tangent to every edge of this polyhedron. As for the term ‘intersphere’ itself, it has no equivalent in Polish. In other languages, besides the aforementioned Italian, it does not function as well, except for the Belgian company, involved in wood flooring manufacture (http://www.intersferaprojects.be/). If we look for a possible English equivalent and application of this term (‘intersphere’), we will find a name of the musical band (http://www.theintersphere.com/) or the international business translation company (http://www.intersphere.com). Merriam-Webster dictionary defines ‘intersphere’ as ‘to fall or come within the spheres or influences of one another’.


Nonetheless, what does the expression, taken from geometry, have in common with the mass media, their role and influence on human existence? Before we consider the meaning of the assumption that today the media are the intersphere of human life, let us explore the broader context of this statement. The very term ‘intersphere’ is composed of two words: a prefix of Latin origin ‘inter-’ (Latin: ‘between, among, inside’) and the word ‘sphere’, which stems from Greek. Thus, ‘intersphere’ denotes something that is ‘between environments’, it unites them, as if constitutes a common element – and in such context it functions in geometry. How to apply this to the world of mass media? Digressing a bit, it might be worth to examine various concepts and terms, which contain the word ‘sphere’, and simultaneously remain in the field of the media studies.

3 Intersphere vs. mediasphere

To begin with, I would like to mention ideas of Adam Lepa, the Polish media researcher and a distinguished expert on the media education. For a long time, in his scientific studies, he has dealt with human mediasphere, which he defines as something more than just a part of human environment – as the separate environment of the media – becoming – due to the increasing media impact on a human being and his lifestyle – more and more significant, or even one of the most important human environments. According to this scientist, mediosphere is not simply the sum of media effects on man, nor a random set of their influence. It constitutes the environment and hence, it is created by the media for the purpose of a specific human being and in relation to him. A man is the major component of mediasphere that establishes relations with other components. Thus, he not only receives stimuli from his own media environment, but also to a certain extent affects it. Every mediasphere is therefore different and unique. The shape of mediasphere, i.e., its actual impact on a man and its effectiveness are determined primarily by the number and type of the media forming mediasphere, the level of its activity and the reception of the media by an individual, which depends on his attitude, preferences, habits and also so called mediatory factors (e.g. personal features of a recipient, attitudes toward the media, a reference group, interactions, culture, education, the impact of opinion

leaders). Accordingly, mediasphere is a joint product of the media that interact with a man.\(^5\)

A. Lepa distinguishes specific layers in mediasphere. There are: iconosphere (an image layer), logosphere (a word layer), sonosphere (a sound layer) and galenosphere (silence layer). They represent the elementary consequences of the interacting media, namely an image, a word, a sound and the silence, considered together with the noise.\(^6\)

The thought of A. Lepa was developed by the media researches, inter alia, coming from Warsaw environment, especially the Institute of the Media Education and Journalism in Theological Faculty of Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw. We should mention particularly M. Laskowska (dealing with galenosphere) and P. Drzewiecki, who is involved in scientific reflection on the modern appreciation of logosphere, especially in the face of the dominating audiovisual culture, mainly identified with iconosphere. P. Drzewiecki associates these terms with the broad concept of the media education, noting that ‘the theory of logosphere seems to be a fresh approach to the media education. This is a general notion of teaching the culture of expression, thought and meaning, creating the new social environment for discussion and mental development. Furthermore, creating in harmony with audiovisual culture, with the use and appreciation of iconosphere.’\(^7\)

What is the correlation between the media perceived as the intersphere of human life and the suggested by A. Lepa concept of mediasphere with all its components? We can probably talk about a conceptual extension: behold mediosfera began to dominate and permeate all other existent

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human environments, changing into the intersphere of human life. The media are becoming prevalent in every area of life. They are entering and penetrating the sphere of our communication and also politics, religion, sport, economy, culture, security...

At this point, there arises a reference to another concept, describing this state of affairs: mediatization. Therefore, in the further part of the article I would present the current state of scientific reflection on mediatization. Next, I would examine the areas that are subject to the process of mediatization. I assume that this analysis would result in a confirmation of the thesis that the vast majority of spheres of human life (if not all of them) is prone to the considerable media influence, which in turn, would be a continuation of the statement that the media are becoming the intersphere of human existence.

4 Intersphere vs. mediatization

Nowadays mediatization is a quite common concept; it can be stated that this term is very popular in science. John B. Thompson is regarded as one of the pioneers of this notion. In 1995 he used it to describe processes, currently defined by the English word ‘mediatization’. The works of

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8 As if on the margin of these considerations it is worth to mention a quite interesting reference to the theory of noosphere (V. Vernadsky’s and T. de Chardin’s term), made by T. Goban-Klas (although the term itself does not relate directly to media studies). This prominent Polish media researcher writes: ‘A rapid change of humanity from the state of global isolation to the state of global unity, which took place in the twentieth century, arouses countless problems. In particular, the concept of a global network, i.e., the biggest ‘machine’ (device), constructed by a man, which complexity, availability and reliability are astonishing, constitutes the intellectual challenge. (...) The idea of a global network shows analogy to the modern road network, so called information highways, presenting them in the image and likeness of the existing road network and contrasting the old country roads with collision-free highways, that is roads with great widths. Such network forms noosphere, (...) spreading the information web around the world (an idea currently implemented in the form of web servers). As every metaphor has drawbacks, so does this one, but – as Nicholas Negroponte says, (...) – in fact, we move from the atom transfer (transport) to the bit transfer (communication)’. GOBAN-KLAS, T: Media i komunikowanie masowe. Teorie i analizy prasy, radia, telewizji i Internetu. Kraków : Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, 2002, p. 293-294.
J. Habermas, R. Silverstone and J. Martin-Barbero were significant for the development of this idea. Nowadays, this theory is expanded by, inter alia, S. Hjarvard, F. Krotz, W. Schulz, A. Hepp, K. Lundby. It is also worth to refer to the existence of the temporary working group ‘Mediatization’, operating by ECREA – European Communication Research and Education Association. The website of this group is http://www.mediatization.eu/ and it is led by the already mentioned A. Hepp and S. Hjarvard.

The members of this working group notice that we live in times when the media are present in almost all areas of our lives. More and more aspects of our lives: our work, leisure, politics, organizations, economy, and many other parts of culture and society use and rely on the media communication to a greater extent. It is a characteristic ‘media saturation’ of our reality. They propose the concept of mediatization in order to grasp the full meaning and importance of this phenomenon. It does not apply to the closed theory of the media change, but rather encourages a careful investigation – on the one hand, mutual interaction of the media and modifications occurring in the way of communication, on the other hand – different processes of social and cultural changes. In this way, the theory of mediatization seeks to understand and explain the importance of the multimedia development in relation to other modern processes, especially globalization, individualization and commercialization.9 Additionally, the reference of mediatization to the media convergence should not be ignored as well. Currently, the media (especially the ‘new media’) provide a multifaceted, global, interactive and spatially and temporally compressed transfer of any content, targeted at the global audience. It is so because the new media diversify and reconfigure the whole process of information flow from the sender to the receiver and change the key characteristics of the media texts.10 In case of the old media (analogue) information must have had its physical medium. As for the new media, information that is subject to digitalization, is recorded in the form of a stream of bits, unified, standardized – which causes that it can be freely copied and transferred between different types of receivers.11

10 The Mediatization of Culture: The Challenge of New Media. [online]. [2014-02-10]. Available at: <http://mediatization.ku.dk/about/>.  
The process of convergence also changes the sphere of human life. The media are becoming the channel of the presence of man in the world. All social processes are conditioned or at least partially determined by the media communication. A human being more frequently experiences the world and himself and shapes the world and himself through the media, in the context of the media in the media sphere of life. Every area of human life is, to a greater or lesser extent, formed by the processes present and generated in the media. We can risk the statement that the media are becoming necessary determinants for the vast part of human life.12

F. Krotz draws attention to the difference between the English words “mediated” and “mediatized” (a wordplay not entirely possible to translate into Polish, where the word “mediated” is translated as “zapośredniczony”, and “mediatized” as “zmediatyzowany”. According to Krotz, the mediated communication has three main variants, dependent on a person, who we communicate with: the mediated interpersonal communication, interactive communication and mass communication understood as sending and receiving messages of a unified content. However, in the case of the mediatized forms of social and cultural life we primarily deal with the importance of the media in everyday life, work and entertainment, social relations, politics, economics, etc.13

Z. Oniszczyk notices that in the German science on communication, mediatization is considered from two major research perspectives: sociological and communicological. The former one views mediatization as the process of social and cultural modification, in which culture, daily life and human identity are transformed under the media influence. In this sense, mediatization leads to changes in communicative human environment. Nevertheless, from a communicological standpoint, mediatization is primarily associated with social effects of public communication, which is becoming more and more dominated by the media. Thus, mediatization causes that all participants of this

communication more frequently are forced to take into account logic and specificity of the media.\textsuperscript{14}

For the purposes of this article, I focused on a definition of mediatization proposed by S. Hjarvard, who claims that mediatization is ‘two-side process of a highly advanced modernity, where the media – on the one hand, emerge as an independent institution, with its own logic, to which other social institutions must adapt. On the other hand, the media simultaneously become an integral part of different institutions, such as: politics, work, family and religion, because more and more actions are performed through the interactive mass media’.\textsuperscript{15}

The concept of mediatization is hardly new – it has developed for a long time and has evolved in the minds of researchers. Many of them undertook the reflection on the growing media influence on religion, culture, politics, sport, science, economy, education, everyday life and even issues connected with the national safety and the threat of terrorism. Let us consider briefly the infiltration of the media into the aforementioned areas of human life.

\section*{5 Public life: celebritization, tabloidisation, infotainment}

Mediatization causes that the role of opinion leaders, that is mainly experts in various fields and disciplines – intellectuals and scientists – is taken over by celebrities. Nowadays, we observe the process of celebritization of ordinary people – according to O. Driessens, it is related to the change of perception and understanding of the ‘celebritism’ and who can be regarded as a celebrity. In the opinion of this author, we should consider this phenomenon through the prism of democratization, diversification and migration. However, its present shape is affected by three complementary factors: mediatization, personalization and commodification (‘everything is a commodity’).\textsuperscript{16} It is also closely linked

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with tabloidisation, based on the acquisition of features characteristic of tabloids by the ‘serious’, opinion-forming media and with the development of infotainment, that is a combination of information and entertainment (although nowadays it is not so much informative-entertaining genre, but rather more and more dominant method of spreading information: colloquial style, light content, avoidance of difficult words, short sentences, ready interpretation of events that is brought even to a slogan). The media can make both, a celebrity out of an ordinary man and use people popular in other media or in the spheres of social life, who seek to catch attention of journalists and the audience.

A journalist, who talks with experts, also frequently becomes a celebrity – he very often applies the partner-expert strategy during conversations. He not only mediates, by allowing an expert to express his opinion, but also debates, argues, reveals his convictions and comments (not always favorably) expert’s beliefs. Such attitude helps him to demonstrate his knowledge and skills, and also, in the viewer’s eyes, puts him on a par with the invited expert.

6 Politics

Already in the eighties, the Swedish researcher K. Asp drew attention to the impact of the media on politics, declaring directly the mediatization of political life (although Asp referred to the even earlier, since formulated in 1978, expression of the Norwegian sociologist G. Hernes, ‘mediatized society’). In literature, mediatization of politics is frequently and willingly analysed aspect of this phenomenon.

Mediatization of politics has similar rules as the process of celebritization, described above. It often leads to the situation, in which a politician becomes a celebrity. Speaking of mediatization of politics, we must pay attention to the changes taking place in a behavior and utterances made by politicians under the influence of the media. In fact, less frequently we deal with a considerable debate on substantive arguments. The aforementioned transformation of participants of political communication, occurring under the media impact, encompasses a wide range of changes in the fields of language (colloquialism), structure of a message (brevity), emphases in public debate (the primacy of emotions) and the image metamorphoses (aesthetics of appearance). It results in a phenomenon that we can define as ‘celebritization of politicians’. As a rule, parties send their more prominent members to the media trainings and employ people, who teach them the appropriate way of dressing, speaking, behavior in front of the camera. Particular politicians more frequently acquire features characteristic of celebrities. The boundaries between politicians and celebrities are becoming dangerously blurry.

Another aspect of this phenomenon relates to the media viewed as a competitive center of power, which seeks to dominate the sphere of politics and impose its logic and rules on it. We can investigate reasons and sources of this domineering position of the media toward the political system. First of all, we can distinguish an organization and conduct of the public discourse (the media, in accordance with the agenda setting theory, form a hierarchy of importance of issues and problems); secondly – control of the access to information, matters, opinions and operations (gatekeeping); finally, the significance of the media institutions for business and political authorities (political, economic and social). However, if we consider mediatization of the media through the prism of its functionality, we notice that the media control the government, define critical situations (and hence, manage the actions of the authorities), improve the actions of the government and stimulate personal decisions.

7 Religion

According to S. Hjarvard, through mediatization religion is becoming more and more adjusted to the media logic, not only in the fields of institutional regulations, but also symbolic content and individual practices.\(^{24}\) However, the overall result of mediatization of religion is not a new kind of religion as such (although some people talk about the so called media religion, see below – ref. A.A.), but rather a creation of new social conditions, in which the way of defining and practising religion is transformed,\(^{25}\) though it is emphasized that the size and intensity of mediatization of religion varies depending on the country, geographical area, development of the media infrastructure on a particular territory and other related factors.\(^{26}\)

Therefore, the understanding of the phenomenon of mediatization is very important and useful for the understanding of the phenomenon of contemporary religiosity. It is the media that became a significant, if not fundamental, source of information on religious events, news and experiences.\(^{27}\) The media also provide all kinds of religious content by adjusting religious symbols and beliefs according to their own purposes and narration.\(^{28}\) Incidentally, it should be noted that the understanding of religion by the researchers of this phenomenon is variable; sometimes it is very broad and encompasses all types of issues related to magic, witchcraft, UFO, etc. The media produce some kind of mix that Hjarvard defines as banal religion. Banal religion contains some elements derived from institutional religions, yet it combines them with the elements of folk religiousness and popular concepts, practices and emotions that relate to the supernatural and spiritual aspects of life.\(^{29}\) This phenomenon could


\(^{29}\) HJARVARD, S.: The Mediatization of Society. A Theory of the Media as
also be called (in a slightly different sense) sacralisation of the media or – as suggested by B. Wieczorek – the media religion. It is multiform and multifaceted. ‘Starting from the religious implications included in the ads, through visions of human life shown in the feature films, the concept of law and order in the criminal films, shaping our own identity in programs such as talk shows, we finally reach the ecstatic experience of ‘another life’ prevalent in the reality show.’ Mediatization of religion, viewed in this context, becomes a tool of secularization. From such perspective, the media turn into the cultural and social environment that takes over numerous cultural and social functions of institutionalized religions and ensure a spiritual and moral guidance, the satisfaction of the need of rituals and a sense of community and belonging for their ‘followers’.

However, mediatization of religion does not have to be associated only with the unfavorable and negative phenomena. It may also have positive sides – for the purpose of these considerations, I would like to focus on the experiences, which the community of the Catholic Church has in this regard.

Even a cursory observation convinces us that the media have become an important instrument of transmitting the faith and building a community of believers for the Church. The doctrine of the Catholic Church concerning the media, their role and importance in the modern world, strongly emphasizes their integral function in the context of the common good, development and progress, defining the media as ‘the contemporary Areopagus’, stressing, after all, the primacy of the ethical dimension as a basic criterion for the evaluation of all media coverage. The initial distrust of the Church toward the media that was present in the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century gave way to a kind of encouragement to use the media as a tool of evangelization.

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Since the Second Vatican Council, the popes publish the annual message for the World Communications Day, celebrated in the Church. Messages of this and the last year contain an unambiguous incentive to the brave proclamation of the Gospel in the world of the new media. ‘Believers are increasingly aware that, unless the Good News is made known also in the digital world, it may be absent in the experience of many people for whom this existential space is important. The digital environment is not a parallel or purely virtual world, but is part of the daily experience of many people, especially the young’ (Benedict XVI, 2013) – Benedict XVI wrote in the message of 2013, however, his successor, Pope Francis, one year later added: ‘Keeping the doors of our churches open also means keeping them open in the digital environment so that people, whatever their situation in life, can enter, and so that the Gospel can go out to reach everyone. (...) Communication is a means of expressing the missionary vocation of the entire Church; today the social networks are one way to experience this call to discover the beauty of faith, the beauty of encountering Christ’. 

Such approach should not be surprising – since the media civilization constitutes one of those aspects of life that embraces and relates also to the community of the faithful. They do not live outside the information society, yet they are present in it, and even create it. Therefore, members of the Church, despite being aware of certain threats linked with the growing importance of the new media in the experience of faith (e.g. shallowness of relationships, information overload, increased narcissism and arrogance, relativism, difficulties in a prayer and contemplation), see also the positive aspects of this phenomenon: the ‘spring’ of evangelization, associated with the unprecedented possibility to reach such an enormous number of people with the message of the faith, innovative methods of formation in the faith, the increase in a dialogue – held both, inside and outside the Church, the new wave of vocations, building a community. It should be remembered, however,

33 Benedict XVI: Social Networks: portals of truth and faith; new spaces for evangelization - Message of Pope Benedict XVI for the 47th World Communications Day.
34 Francis: Communication at the Service of an Authentic Culture of Encounter - Message of Pope Francis for the 48th World Communication Day.
36 VOGT, B.: To Infinity and Beyond: The Future of the Church and New Media. In VOGT, B. (ed.): The Church and New Media. Blogging Converts, Online
(and the Church is fully aware of that), that there is some impassable barrier to the entry into the digital world. The media and communication cannot replace a living community and a physical presence, which condition, for example, the administration of sacraments. Nonetheless, the media may be invaluable if they serve as a tool for pre-evangelization, communication and testimony.

8 Daily life

Daily activities of the media users can also become mediatized. In 2012 I put a question: 'Don't we have an impression, when logging into Facebook, that the current of users’ private life moved rapidly beyond four walls of the house and is breaking its waves, sometimes strongly foamed, in a public and widely accessible riverbed? Friends of our friends become our friends (at least we have such feeling while observing their discussions and conversations on forum publicum of the social media). We will achieve a similar effect if we install glass walls in the house instead of the traditional ones, or attach wires in our flat, which would be connected to cameras, constantly watching us (although in the era of wireless communications, such cabling would be almost obsolete).' G. Murdock and P. Golding were right, when they formulated the thesis that the emergence of a computer as a tool of collecting and the rapid processing of huge amounts of data, and then incorporating it into telecommunications systems that provide fast and extensive transmission and data transfer, and furthermore, the convergence of these developments with the broadcasting industry caused fusion, both, technological and organizational, which resulted in a massive transformation in the field of work and leisure. Transformation, in which the media play the vital role.


9 Other areas

Similar reflections on the media penetration into various spheres of human life can be also made in regard to:

**9.1 Economy** (globalized), where both, the production and consumption became dependent on the media technologies. In developed countries the consumption of goods is increasing in an industrialized, rationalized and computerized manner. The actual trade revolution is achieved due to the Internet and thus, shopping is easier and more popular – also because of the development of electronic banking and other virtual forms of payment. As for the evolution of information technologies, it facilitates personalization of an offer, shaping customers’ loyalty through various loyalty programs. Branding, advertising, public relations became an inherent factor of a company’s strategy – in all this actions the media are joint elements.\(^39\) We should also mention the increasing dependence of the global stock exchanges and transactions on information technologies, susceptibility of market fluctuations to various media reports and the ongoing competition between information agencies for the fastest spread of information that could influence the stock market – currently, even seconds count in this race!

**9.2 Culture** – wherein the media have the profound impact on the widely understood culture – they are a tool of cultural, or more broadly, socio-cultural changes. The contemporary culture tends to be defined as ‘media’ or consumer. Mediatization of culture – according to A. Jansson – is the process that enhances and extends the sphere of the media culture.\(^40\) Mediatization also changes our way of using cultural heritage and the way in which cultural institutions operate. An increasing number of cultural works is subject to the process of digitalization and is becoming widely accessible on the Internet. Additionally, museums often utilize interactive technologies – on the one hand, by allowing a virtual tour of their collections, on the other hand, by using multimedia to intensify the attractiveness of the exhibits presented in the halls. Literature, film, theatre, painting... and also other fields of culture.


are prone to modifications resulting from the dynamic processes of mediatization – starting with the phase of production, to the phase of a viewer’s reception.\textsuperscript{41} It happens because ‘the mass media are the signum of modern culture and being an instrument for transferring specific content and patterns of behavior, they shape the cultural environment of the individual and collective recipient. It happens since they are tools of communication and, in turn, communication is the action, which most expands human cognition. Any changes in communication, therefore, also changes of tools of communication, cause profound repercussion in culture.’\textsuperscript{42}

9.3 Sport – where contracts for broadcasting sport events become one of the major sources of income for the clubs and individual athletes,\textsuperscript{43} where television transmissions give a totally new dimension to sport events, making them the actual spectacle. Sport, in its most professional part, was absorbed by the television and is no longer the same without it. Major sporting events lose significance if they are not live broadcast. On the other side, sporting events increase the viewership of particular television stations. The intrusion and omnipresence of cameras make reality show out of transmission, we can even talk about voyeurism here.\textsuperscript{44} It is worth observing that – analog to the previously discussed concept of celebritization of politicians – we also deal with the celebritization of the athletes.\textsuperscript{45}

9.4 Science – where the media play ever greater role in enlarging the number of the scientific achievements and their dissemination and

interpretation. The media are also the public arena for technological debates and the social authentication of developments of science, which is becoming more and more media oriented. It is not only about the popularization of science, but the thing is that social discussions on important issues related to science, ever more often move to the media, whereas the achievements of science are no longer assessed by a small group of professionals interested in the topic, yet on the media forum publicum.

M. Mołęda-Zdziech notices that nowadays ‘the position of an intellectual in public life is greatly conditioned by the frequency of the media performances’. This author in her monograph ‘The times of celebrities. Mediatization of the public life’, formulates a thesis that the modern scientists may choose either to disappear from the public sphere and move to their cabinets, and therefore, they will lose the influence on the surrounding world, or to adjust to the rules of the media game and take part in the media spectacle, where competence in a particular field is not so much significant as the ability to articulate brilliant and demagogic statements, yet, at the same time without bearing any responsibility for the expressed comments. This is a relatively new situation since experts and celebrities were traditionally perceived as two groups, existing in totally distinct spheres of public life and characterized by a completely contrasting set of values and logic. In general, experts – intellectuals (at least in the conventional understanding) were associated with the high culture, the rational approach to reality as well as the techniques of social organization that accompany the functioning of a modern state. In contrast, celebrities were rather assigned to the realm of popular and consumer culture, where the entertainment is privileged over information and emotions over reason.

9.5 Education – where the media are commonly used in the system of education, e-learning is developing, whereas multimedia and interactive programs, presentations and aids improve the process of teaching. On the other side, the omnipresence of the media generates new challenges – the necessity of the media education, which ‘appears as the essential need of the modern society that bears a resemblance to communicative democracy, requiring education of critical, selective and active reception of the media coverage in order to recognize their actual content and ideological messages that convey a specific vision of the world and man’.

9.6 Safety – where nearly every area of national security is becoming more and more dependent on the free flow of information and informative systems, and mostly the army, economy, energy, media, financial and transportation systems are sensitive in this respect. Furthermore, the media may be used by the enemy as a tool of misinformation or spreading the social unrest (especially if the intelligence of hostile states managed to enlist the cooperation of the prominent people from the media environment and made them their agents of influence). The issue of mediatization of society is also connected with the threat of terrorism: nowadays terrorists not only destroy material world and kill and harm people, but most importantly, through their actions they affect social awareness and attract public attention. Undoubtedly, it would not be possible if it were not for the mass media. Terrorists divide the media into internal, which are used by them to mutual communication and external, independent yet influencing public opinion. Public opinion is indeed their strategic aim. Reports of terrorist attacks are particularly important in evoking a sense of danger. Therefore, we can talk about a strategic connection between terrorism and the media. In fact, terrorists need publicity. Terrorist attacks are not intended for those who die, yet are directed to those who see them and obtain information about them through the media.

54 ADAMSKI, A.: The Mass Media and National and Public Safety in the Context
Conclusion

The growing impact of the mass media on our life is an indisputable fact. Ever greater number of areas of life is affected by the media. There arises a question, whether or not we can talk about the mediosphere of a human being, about the situation, wherein a man decides which media serve as an intermediary in exploring the world, gaining knowledge, communicating. The media rather occupy more and more areas of our life. We hardly have influence on the ongoing changes and the conscious rejection of communication technologies is often equal to digital exclusion and the threat of the existence on the communication margin, a kind of desert island.

To describe these changes I suggested the assumption that the media are becoming the intersphere of human life. The conducted research demonstrates the link between this proposal and the theory of mediatization, which is currently highly developed and subject to the intensified scientific reflection. The modern media have an enormous influence on various areas of our life: politics, religion, culture, public and private life, sport, education, science, national security, and more. It seems that the proposed concept of the media as the intersphere human life can be regarded as a complement and extension of the theory of mediatization, which, despite being thoroughly examined in science, it is still valid and constitutes the subject of investigation.

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CREDIBILITY OF MESSAGE

*Marek Debnár*

**ABSTRACT:**
The paper investigates the issue of credibility of message. Credibility of message has at least two aspects. Firstly, the criteria, which determine message credibility (e.g. certain practices), secondly, the philosophical problem of fiction and nonfiction. The domains of fiction and nonfiction are permeable by means of the narrative metalepsis. The traditional poetics defines metalepsis as a certain type of metonymy (the metonymical denotation of the consequence by means of the cause and vice versa), but the metalepsis can exceed this classic definition and remove limits between the world one is talking about and the world in which one is talking.

**KEY WORDS:**
credibility, message, metalepsis, author, fiction

1. **Introduction**

Describing the media dimension with the metaphor of a “Media Garden” refers back to the semiotic and literary tradition. In his series of Harvard lectures *Six Walks in the Fictional Woods* (1994), Umberto Eco compares a text to a forest with forking paths and implicitly refers to the short story *The Garden of Forking Paths* (1941) by Jorge Luis Borges. The metaphor of a forest, similarly to the metaphor of a garden, points out that even perception has its own space and is also a certain kind of movement. The percipient of the media message is like a pedestrian – based on all the explicit and implicit connections, he always has to choose one of the infinite number of paths in the media garden.

2. **The other Tiger**

Let’s start our thoughts from Jorge Luis Borges poem *The Other Tiger.*¹ The poem begins with associations of someone who is dreaming of a tiger. The poem does not explain why he is dreaming of it, but on the basis of some other texts we can presume that this is caused by a tiger

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leather that looks like a parchment inscribed by characters of a forgotten or unknown language.

By each verse, the tiger from the poem becomes a more and more complicated and hazy labyrinth of symbols, metaphors, images and encyclopaedic informations. When the dreaming person wakes up, he puts the dream tiger into contrast with a real tiger, which hypothetically sits in a bush near the side of the river Ganges just when the poem is created. The first tiger, which is part of the nature and of the reality, is in contrast with the second tiger, which is part of the mythology. We do not think over which tiger is more real, neither the poem solves this problem. It is something different that we consider important – it is depicted by the words at the end of the poem:

Yet nonetheless some force keeps driving me
In this vague, unreasonable, and ancient quest,
And I go on pursuing through the hours
Another tiger, the beast not found in verse.²

Let us explain what “vague, unreasonable, and ancient quest” is Borges talking about.

3 Between two worlds

At the end of the Borges’ poem we discover a metalepsis, as it is called in the narratologic terminology. The poetic tradition understands the metalepsis as a certain type of metonymy (the metonymical denotation of the consequence by means of the cause and vice versa), but the metalepsis in this poem exceeds this classic definition. The final lines of Borges’ poem remove the limits between the “world in one tells and the world of which one tells”.³ The trope of metalepsis, which we found in the poem by Borges, was first identified by the French narratologist Gérard Genette in the early 1970s⁴ and have been expanded by himself in his book Métalepses in 2004. This kind of metalepsis is not a figure any more;

it is a project of fiction, an instrument the coverage of which includes, from this moment, the ways of exceeding the rules of representation. So Borges’ quest consists in breaking the rules that separate the world of non-fiction from the world of fiction. It is only upon us to choose one of the two tigers.

4 Metalepsis

The trope of metalepsis, which we found in the poem by Borges, was first identified by the French narratologist Gérard Genette in the early 1970s and have been expanded by himself in his book Métalepses in 2004. Genette describes metalepsis as a type of language practice belonging “simultaneously, or rather progressively and cumulatively, to the study of figures and the analysis of narrative; yet in a way (I will describe what way later) belonging to the theory of fiction.”

Starting with the classical tradition, which understands metalepsis as a frequently occurring type of metonymy based on the substitution of cause and effect (for example the word laurel can stand for victory in a text since the winner of a race is usually awarded with a laurel wreath), Genette focuses on a specific type of metalepsis also known as author’s metalepsis. “It’s the case when the author (or his reader) introduces himself into the fictive action of the narrative or when a character in that fiction intrudes into the extradiegetic existence of the author or reader, such intrusions disturb, to say the least, the distinction between levels, producing an effect of humour or the fantastic or some mixture of the two, unless it functions as a figure of the creative imagination.” In other words, the author assumes the right to enter the story which he is actually only the narrator of (a typical example of author’s metalepsis can be found at the beginning of Italo Calvino’s book If on a winter’s night a traveller (1979), in which the reader is asked to close the door and turn of the TV). Thus we define author’s metalepsis as a very specific handling of a causal relationship (metonymical representation of the

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effect by the cause and vice versa) which “in some sense connects the author with his work or, more widely speaking, connects the originator of a representation with the representation itself.” By using the term representation we also cover areas outside of literature, such as painting, theatre or cinematography.

According to Genette, author’s metalepsis is a rudiment or sketch of fiction or, if we prefer, it is the miraculously working tool the definition of which includes a number of not only literary ways of crossing the border of representation. Its expansion is a process in which we move from a purely formal and semantically weak degree of an ordinary word scheme (which we consider a figure of speech) to a semantically strong degree, where the transfer of meaning creates a type of a “miracle”. On the level of narrative, this transfer is represented by *narrative metalepsis*, which can be described as a form of transfer from one narrative level to another based on the ignorance of the rules of this transfer by crossing or breaking the borders between the world in which one speaks and the world about which one speaks.

Transgressions of the regular order of things, which are the effect of metalepsis, open up an area of a certain “disturbing strangeness” (we experience its spontaneous form when we meet someone we usually only see on a screen in person) in which cinematography goes furthest, since it has an opportunity for metalepsis which is unknown to narrative fiction. A specific case is when an actor plays several characters simultaneously, especially lookalikes. Genette gives the example of transmedia metalepsis in Hitchcock’s movie *Vertigo* (Hitchcock, 1958) and the countless adaptations of *The Count of Monte Cristo*. There is a number of opportunities like this in painting as well, namely in the case of “paintings in paintings”, or in photography. However, they are used less often than in literature or film.

Another case of ignorance or the violation of author’s narration which is definitely worth a mention is the reader/recipient. Even in the case of *author’s metalepsis* we saw that the author addresses the reader from time to time. Of course, that is not all. Calvino, Cortázar or Butor go as far as to turn the reader into a full-fledged fictional character or even the protagonist of the narrative. Just like in other cases, the metalepsis here is a type of deception, “simply by changing roles, just like in child games when one says: *And now you’ll be a cashier*... We believe it without

believing it, similarly to Greeks who once believed in their myths, Catholics in the Immaculate Conception, soldiers who believed in the spirit of the Father of Nations or the wisdom of The Great Helmsman. Undoubtedly, we believe it even less.”

5 Credibile fictions

The credibility is based on the breaking of limits between two worlds than the metalepsis; not only the limits between the real and the fictitious, but also the limits between two states of the narrative. Every text suggests the direction the narrative shall take.

Let us imagine that in a detective story the ghost of the victim would unexpectedly appear and reveal who the murderer was. We would probably put the book away in disappointment or accept the fact that we were not reading a detective story. That kind of fiction forces us to exceed the horizon of the reader’s expectation. The reader must be ready that he is reading a text where anything can happen. The reality that rules this world only seems to resemble our world. This opens the sphere of a certain disturbing strangeness we spontaneously experience when it is dark and behind the window we glimpse a strange thing we were just reading about. We can hardly resist this impression. It is not only the result of reading, but also of our desire to exceed the limits of the everyday, well-known world.

When we look at eerie stories that use metalepsis, we find out that many of them seem unreal and comic when they are without a context. So that we are not astonished by the comic instead of the feelings of horror and fear when reading, the contact of the rational and irrational must be credible. So the credibility of story is usually built on several independent proofs that more or less usher in the eerie end. We can find this approach already in the classical work of Robert Luis Stevenson, *The strange case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*. Half of the text consists of the story and the second half is a comment supporting the credibility of the story.

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6 The strange case

At first, the reader observes the story from the exterior, from the point of view of Mr. Utterson, a lawyer. The text begins with the description of a strange friendship of the popular doctor Jekyll with the strange and unknown Mr. Hyde. Mr. Utterson, who is involved in this story as the executor of the will of his friend, Dr. Jekyll, trembles for his life. In fact, the doctor changed his will so that in case of his death or disappearance it is Mr. Hyde who inherits the whole property. Subsequently, Mr. Hyde causes an avalanche of disagreeable incidents that end by a brutal murder of Sir Danverse Carew, after which Hyde disappears. Doctor Jekyll then declares that no one will ever see Mr. Hyde again and focuses on charity. A turnover that directs the text to the final tragedy occurs when Dr. Jekyll locks himself in the laboratory and does not let anyone in. After several attempts to persuade the doctor to open the door, his friend Utterson concludes that he is held captive in the laboratory by the murderer Hyde and decides to get in by force. At his great amazement he finds the dead body of Mr. Hyde on the floor.

The second part of the story is a letter with a detailed description of the events from doctor Jekyll. It is here that the eerie story really starts. Doctor Jekyll confesses in the letter that from his childhood he felt a strange disunity of his character. One part of his personality desired to do good and the other, which he kept repressing for his whole life, was attracted by evil. Thanks to the medicine studies and occult sciences, he managed to prepare an elixir that helped him to reincarnate his bad part into another person. This person was the mysterious Mr. Hyde. After the incidents Hyde caused, the doctor decided to end his experiment. But the Hyde he put to life started to appear by himself. The elixir that doctor used to change into Hyde became, paradoxically, what brought him back to being Jekyll. The true horror occurs when the doctor realizes that he went out of the substance he used for the elixir. He uses the last dose just before he writes the letter and before it stops to take effect, he prefers to commit suicide rather than to be absorbed by Hyde.

7 Exceeding the limits

In this text we identified (plot) twist the first one in the story of Mr. Utterson and the second in the narrative of Dr. Jekyll. The first case of catastrophe was caused by the (plot) twist that arose from the story,
whereas the second arose from the development of the personality of the main character. This is a cardinal change of personality that corresponds with what Roland Barthes wrote about the “love” catastrophe in *A Lover’s discourse: Fragments*: „A love catastrophe is close to what we call an extreme situation in psychiatry, which is a situation the subject experiences as if it lead irretrievably to his destruction.“10 Our thoughts are not so dramatic. In this “strange case” we identified two relevant movements for our topic: credibility of message built on external proofs and transgression of the narrative rules with author’s metalepsis.

**Conclusion**

Considering the topic we have established, the point of the story of Jekyll and Hyde becomes clearer. If we realize that every media message has to show certain characteristics of credibility in order to be believable. Referring to sources and authorities in a given area or the support of claims with official statements brings a similar effect as comments which guarantee the credibility of fiction. From the perspective of modern semiotics, it is the penetration of metalanguage into referential discourse, or mixing the position of the primary text and the commentary. This reasoning is implicitly connected to Roland Barthes, who distinguishes between real, terminological and rhetorical systems. He goes from denotation to connotation, from terminology to rhetoric, from systems which are presented as models of facts to systems which are social constructs. And if we acknowledge that the reality which surrounds us is of a social nature, it means that every message which reaches us is governed by the rules of language and rhetoric, the same as any other language construction, which inevitably brings it nearer to the area of literature and fiction. Credibility is no longer situated in a referential framework of some message even in the text itself but rather its destination, reader or in other words the recipient of the message, who always creates the universe (not only of the fictional world) anew.

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ABSTRACT:
The main aim of this paper is to map the intersection of digital humanities and media studies. It is composed of a number of partial objectives – a.) to clarify the definition of digital humanities, b.) to map the ongoing discussion on intersection of digital humanities and media studies, c.) to point out the nature of media studies as a basis for the application of digital humanities tools, d.) to list media studies projects engaged in digital humanities. Finally, it'll highlight the enhancement of the media studies research by application of the digital humanities approach.

KEY WORDS:
digital humanities, media studies, scholarship, multimodality, digital tool, computing

1 Introduction

In general, it appears that the present-day importance and ubiquity of information communication technology (ICT) in society is perceived as a matter of course. At the same time we can assume that the social status of humanities and some social sciences is at the low level, of course, unless they're completely marginalized. Another fundamental phenomenon of recent years is the requirement for the interdisciplinarity in humanities and social sciences.

Regarding the media studies these factors – expansion of ICT; disputable position of humanities and social sciences; demand for interdisciplinarity – are distinctive circumstances under which we may reflect on the intersection of media studies (MS) and digital humanities (DH). In brief, MS may profits from the wide-spreading presence of ICT by means of interdisciplinary collaboration with DH, not only professionally, but also socially.
These notes indicate the subject, methodology and purpose of this paper. The topic is intersection of MS\(^1\) and DH – its possibilities, implementations and consequences. The working procedure consists of mapping the discussion on the MS/DH intersection and of elaborating the list of MS projects utilizing the DH tools. The intention is to call attention to the benefits arising from the intersection of MS and DH.

2 Digital humanities – definitions

The development of the humanities and social sciences in the 20\(^{th}\) century was inconsistent – there arose a great deal of ideological movements (formalism, structuralism, marxism, hermeneutism, poststructuralism, etc.). The present condition is even more complex, nevertheless we can readily answer the question: what is the current trend in the humanities? Digital humanities and data.

Digital humanities is the most recent trend in interdisciplinary research that is concerned with the intersection of computing processes and methodology of humanities and social sciences: „Digital Humanities is not a unified field but an array of convergent practices that explore a universe in which: a) print is no longer the exclusive or the normative medium in which knowledge is produced and/or disseminated; instead, print finds itself absorbed into new, multimedia configurations; and b) digital tools, techniques, and media have altered the production and dissemination of knowledge in the arts, human and social sciences“.\(^2\) This definition focuses on the problem of digital as a medium as well as instrument.

Lisa Spiro emphasized the practical implication: „Digital humanities is not technology for the sake of technology. It can encompass a wide range of work, such as building digital collections, constructing geotemporal visualizations, analyzing large collections of data, creating 3D models, re-imagining scholarly communication, facilitating participatory

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1 Given the range of paper we are considering the media studies in general – we’re aware of the internal segmentation and the resulting divergences.

scholarship, developing theoretical approaches to the artifacts of digital culture, practicing innovative digital pedagogy...

Kirschenbaum points out the community: “...the DH today is about a scholarship (and a pedagogy) that is publicly visible in ways to which we are generally unaccustomed, a scholarship and pedagogy that are bound up with infrastructure in ways that are deeper and more explicit than we are generally accustomed to, a scholarship and pedagogy that are collaborative and depend on networks of people and that live an active 24/7 life online”.

It’s discernible that there is not commonly accepted DH definition (formerly known as humanities computing). DH incorporates diverse range of datas, tools, practices and scientific disciplines. Following the particular definitions we can derive the basic DH profile: it’s humanities research presented in digital form; made possible by digital methods and tools; enriching the conventional methods and outputs; constructing the new digital technology.

All over the world are arising DH centers and institutions; the body of literature dedicated to DH is rapidly increasing and there are several peer-review journals covering the DH issues. DH is not just a „hot topic“, it has a solid academic membership and institutional base.

3 Digital humanities and media studies

We have mentioned that DH is primarily an interdisciplinary research: „Given that collaborative and interdisciplinary work seems to be characteristic of much of the digital humanities, it would seem tenable to categorize the field as more open and intersectional than many others“.


5 SVENSSON, P.: Envisioning the Digital Humanities. In Digital Humanities
It follows that DH maintains methodological relations with plurality of humanities or social sciences. Historically, the most important is the intersection of DH with linguistics, literary studies, history, library studies, archeology, pedagogy and art history, subsequently have joined other disciplines. What about media studies and DH?

3.1 DH and MS – state of the research

On the basis of the investigation we can in advance conclude that the connection between MS and DH has no systematic and profound nature yet. The same argument formulated Patrik Svensson in his influential article on the field of DH:

„Neither critical cyberculture studies, nor internet studies, nor initiatives such as new media studies and critical digital studies, which all come from cultural studies or art theory backgrounds, typically make frequent use of the term digital humanities. There is obviously a link between these fields and digital humanities as humanities computing, or digital humanities with a library and information science focus, but the connection is not necessarily simple or straightforward. In addition, the territories of all these „fields“ are currently being negotiated and explored.“

Miriam Posner, coordinator of DH program at the University of California said in her introduction to a workshop on MS and DH at the Society for Cinema and Media Studies: „…media studies remains largely absent from the array of disciplines that have staked a claim on digital humanities. I say this with two important caveats: first, that, as witnessed by today’s workshop participants, some media scholars are doing digital humanities; and, second, work that we might be happy to claim as digital humanities goes on under different names.“

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The same year, the well-known web-site MediaCommons which serves as a community network for scholars in MS launched the new survey entitled *What are the differentiations and intersections of media studies and the digital humanities?* Jamie Henthorn, as a moderator, rightly noted: „While digital humanists seem to be coming from many disciplines, media scholars are beginning to take a stake in DH as well.”

In summary, these quotes reveal a few facts about the current relationship between DH and MS:

1.) Considering the intrinsic proximity of MS objects of study and DH tools it seems surprising that their intersections are not so much frequent and significant – in comparison with other humanities and social sciences they are scattered, ambiguous or not under the auspices of DH.

2.) Despite the weaker participation of MS scholars in DH research, there is a progressive effort to discuss, elaborate and consolidate this kind of interdisciplinary cooperation. Presumably, the further development will be marked by its intensification and enhancement.

3.) In regard of this initial stage a great deal of resources and informations is comprised of personal blogs, tweets, web discussions, reports from workshops and un-conferences. The topic isn’t yet sufficiently covered by the publications such as scientific monographs and indexed journal articles.

Ultimately, there are enough reasons to argue that the MS/DH field of research is still developing – it represents a reasonable purpose for composing this contribution. Presupposed benefit consists of highlighting the productive collaboration of MS and DH.

### 3.2 DH and MS – negotiation

In the following section we will provide an overview of discussion regarding the intersection of DH and MS. There are expressed a various points of view, conceptual modifications and methodological comments

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– the aim is not to argue for any particular approach, but to capture the processes that shape the comprehension of this issue.

3.2.1 Technical specifications

Let’s revert to the question, why isn’t DH naturally integrated within the media studies departments? Why does DH emerged from linguistics at first? It has been pragmatically discussed that computers in the 1980’ and 1990’ simply didn’t have the processing power and storage to cope with any other calculations than the text-based. David Roh argues: „Practically speaking, it’s much easier and less resource-intensive (as well as quicker) to program a computer to process a few gigabytes of word strings than it is to process terabytes upon terabytes of video or audio. However, as processing power increases, storage expands, and costs shrink, media studies will find algorithm-based queries or renders much more accessible.“ The reason for delay in application of DH in MS was therefore the technological and computational incapability of PC to process the media studies objects.

3.2.2 Methodical arrangements

The most discussed topic in ongoing debate is the problem of methodological consequences of DH and MS intersection. It’s based on the question, what form it should acquire in scholarship practice? Media scholars are aware that blogging and tweeting won’t make them digital humanists – DH is about making, producing and practical interaction with technology, rather than theorizing about it. Here are the examples of this type of scholarship:

„...I need to find a project where scholarly insights emerge through digital practice, while framed by my contextual, interdisciplinary lens of media studies. This might be by applying computational methods to understanding media, or by using digital modes of expression that truly transform knowledge.“


“Scholarly inquiry in the DH can leverage the cross-disciplinary approach of media studies to analyze complex systems through application of a variety of theoretical frameworks. In turn, media scholars must draw from the strengths of digital humanities, which leverage storytelling through maps, interactive visualizations, audio, video and traditional scholarship.”\(^{11}\)

These remarks indicate that the productive crossing of MS and DH is capable to modify the model of investigation based on the formulating of research question and devising the appropriate method to achieve a result. By means of DH these methodical techniques are infiltrating into the process of research: ICT infrastructure, computational form and object, access to data and joined collection, digital collaboration and communication, creation of tools to search, collect, mine and visualize. Engagement with this facility allows media scholars to ask questions and gain the knowledge until now inaccessible.

### 3.2.3 Multimodal scholarship

Some authors are seeking to label the new form of scholarship at the interface of MS and DH – they started to use the designation „multimodal scholar“ as a recent breed of humanist. Tara McPherson wrote about its professional aspiration:

“...hands-on engagement with digital forms reorients the scholarly imagination, not because the tools are cool or new (even if they are) or because the audience for our work might be expanded (even if it is), but because scholars come to realize that they understand their arguments and their objects of study differently, even better, when they approach them through multiple modalities and emergent and interconnected forms of literacy.”\(^{12}\)

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For example, multimodal scholarship in this sense implies exploring the power of the database for organizing and presenting research; computational analyzing visual, aural, dynamic, and interactive media; networked writing and peer-to-peer commentary; extended collaboration and conversation; powerful visualization and simulation processes. Considering the media scholars’ objects of study it is assumed that multimodal practice and its outputs will improve their scholarship in a positive way. Put simply, the multimodal scholarship will prove its instruments especially in disciplines that are concerned with multimedia content.

3.2.4 MS and DH competences

The intersection of DH and MS naturally opens up the discussion on the MS status and function in relation to DH. Many scholars prudently reflect on the proportion of MS field of activity to DH, or more precisely, on the distribution of competences. It’s possible to register various attitudes to this issue, however scholars in general agree on the model of mutual complementarity.

As a starting point, some authors warn against the consequence of one-sided approach which aims to suppress one of the areas: „But I caution us against such easy dichotomies, in which we figure digital humanities as a new episteme to replace the old.”

The basic assumption is to keep away from the dualistic view of the intersection and to specify the reciprocal transformations.

Media scholars with a strong sense of their own discipline expect that DH and multimodal research complement rather than replace the scope of MS field: „Overall, however, you’ll notice there are relatively few digital humanities efforts — even collaborative, interdisciplinary ones — that do not, in some way, carry forward the traditions, theories and practices of home disciplines.”


methodical requirements can be found similarly at the intersection of DH with other humanities.

Moreover, in the discussion appear suggestions to evaluate the retroaction of MS on the DH: “...I urge us to see this as an opportunity to draw on those qualities at which media studies excels — the ontology of the image, a nuanced understanding of indexicality, an aliveness to the variegations and ambiguities of spectatorship, to name a few — and to ask what they can bring to the digital humanities.” So, the best possibilities for the intersection of DH and MS lie in cross fertilization and mutual improvement.

### 3.2.5 Object of study and digital tool

Carefully reading of the discussion on intersection of DH and MS reveals the increased incidence of such terms as tool, object of study or digital media. The issue relating to these concepts is one of the most important – it results from the inherent nature and focus of media studies. In the next section we'll show the consideration of a problematic relation between „tool“ and „object of study“ in case of MS/DH.

The basic distinction is that the ICT as well as the whole digital workplace primarily represent for MS a object of study – these mediums are examined as a subject of research. This is a fundamental difference as compared with another humanities and social sciences which are exploring completely different objects than ICT and the digital realm: „I’ve frequently wondered about the intersection between Digital Humanities, which tends to cluster in the fields of History and English, and Media Studies, where digital tools & objects of study have been commonplace but understood quite differently.” In terms of DH it constitutes a very peculiar feature of MS.


It's extremely interesting that in the intersection of DH and MS are converging the digital nature of the MS „object of study“ as well as the DH „research tools“. In many cases, MS has the opportunity to explore the digital content by means of digital tools. It looks like an methodical advantage.

However, it's often argued that MS is mostly passive in working with digital tools: „In some other varieties of digital humanities, for instance cybercultural, internet and media studies and internet studies, the instrumental use of information technology does often not extend far beyond standard tools. Here the tools used are mainly a means to an end and do not necessarily carry much prominence. Neither is there typically a strong interest to create and develop tools.“¹⁷ So, the initial phase of MS/DH cooperation is characterized by the fact that MS scholars: „... remain content to comment about technology and media, rather than to participate more actively in constructing knowledge in and through our objects of study.“¹⁸ There remains an open question whether it's caused by the critical interpreting of digital media social dangers or by some sense of incompetence to cope with the technological and computational aspects of DH.

In any case, among the MS scholars are proliferating calls for the multimodal research of the digital objects through the digital devices: „I am here suggesting that we should reject this limited role for the humanities scholar and instead fully engage with the platforms and tools of the digital era. This will require new forms of collaboration and engagement that may push us beyond our scholarly comfort zones.“¹⁹ Therefore, the most important task for MS/DH projects is to coordinate the digital techniques with a suitable research question concerning the digital object of study.


3.2.6 Institutional framework

Naturally, the MS/DH intersection isn’t just about the object of study and digital tools – scholarship doesn’t take place in a methodological vacuum. Finally, we have to drawn attention to practical and institutional background, for it’s a necessity for consolidation and diffusion of MS/DH practice.

Single scholar is primarily interested in funding and support of his/her scientific institution. In the discussion are frequently asked questions like these: „Does your tenure and promotion committee have a system in place for evaluating digital projects or multimodal scholarship? Would you be willing to negotiate terms in my contract to make space for innovative scholarship?” The answers ultimately take a decision on implementation or rejection of the individual MS/DH project.

Besides the fixed salary there are a possibility to acquire financial means through the grant scheme and international scholarships. Jason Rhody, senior program officer at the National Endowment for the Humanities, enumerate funded projects: „...platforms for film analysis; institutes for multimodal scholarship; software for cultural analytics that has been used to examine manga and computer games; investigations of how scholars can access born-digital materials in the archives; or processes for how to archive born-digital materials like computer games.” The increasing importance of DH also means greater opportunities for MS scholars to secure funds for multimodal research.

Crucial platform for the development of MS/DH research represent the conferences, workshops and network collaborations. The media scholars draw attention to the lack of these events: „But the fact remains that SCMS has not yet to host a panel or workshop explicitly devoted to digital humanities.” Within DH are popular the so called un-conferences:

22 POSNER, M.: Digital humanities and media studies: staging an encounter.
“I wish we could have some of the spontaneity and collaboration that defines THATCamp (The Humanities and Technologies Camp) at SCMS (the annual meeting of the Society for Cinema and Media Studies). Both THATCamp and SCMS are defining events in their respective fields of Digital Humanities and Media Studies. Yet, they couldn’t be farther apart. While THATCamp is proudly defiant of the traditional conference format, SCMS embraces panels and papers.”

So, it’s evident that MS/DH requires to be engage in completely different types of collaboration than traditional formats.

As a summary we quote the Jason Rhody’ speech at the meeting for the SCMS where he organized workshop „Digital Humanities & Media Studies: Exploring the intersections“: „...DH might best be considered, as many have suggested, as a community—or better yet, communities—of practice, which constitute a fairly broad “possibility space” of intersecting points along three vectors: with overlapping domains of expertise and knowledge bases across the different disciplines; overlapping communities of scholars — the actual people and their interaction, be it online, on campus, or in shared convention halls; and, overlapping practices—the variable methodological and theoretical approaches that comprise ways of doing research.”

These three vectors completely define the field of activities regarding the MS/DH intersection.

4 Examples of MS/DH projects

In the previous sections we exposed the ongoing discussion on the intersection of DH and MS – in the next we illustrate the theoretical assumptions by a few examples of MS/DH projects.


– **Cinemetrics** is a quantitative measurement tool that extracts statistical data from movies to reveal their inner characteristics such as editing structure, color, speech and motion. The open access web database includes more than 15,000 films. http://www.cinemetrics.lv/

– **ACTION** is a audio-visual toolkit to study stylistic patterns distributed among films and directors, frame-by-frame data, segmentation, audio and other content features. It’s a platform for researching new methodologies in the study of film and media history. http://aum.dartmouth.edu/~action/

– **TOME project** is a topic model and metadata visualization tool designed to explore the text-based archives and identify the themes that recur across a collection of text. As a initial data-set will serve an archive of 19th century antislavery newspapers. http://dhlab.lmc.gatech.edu/tome/

– **Project Arclight** is a developing web-based tool that enables the study of 20th century American media through comparisons across time and space. The Arclight app will analyze over two million digitally scanned pages of magazines and newspapers for trends related to a chosen media history subject. http://projectarclight.org/

– **Media Systems: Envisioning the Future of Computational Media** identifies key opportunities, challenges, and recommendations for the future of creating and understanding media – a future in which computation will play an increasingly important role. https://mediasystems.soe.ucsc.edu/

– **Channelography** creates statistics about BBC programmes by reading and analysing the captions and schedules data over time and by channel. http://rattlecentral.com/channelography/

– **The Media History Digital Library** digitizes collections of classic media periodicals that belong in the public domain for full public access. http://mediahistoryproject.org/

This is a limited selection, there are a number of other projects and what is more, media scholar can effectively utilize the tools originally designed for other purposes (text-based or visual).\(^\text{25}\)

\(^{25}\) See the usefull and integrated database of DH tools DiRT: http://dirtdirectory.org/
Conclusion

Finally, in addition to what has been said it is important to point out that the discussion on DH/MS intersection takes place without some serious conflicts of ideological nature. Instead of fundamental contradiction that restrains from the productivity we are witnessing an effective debate of different attitudes and interests. The exchange of views is pragmatically happening on the behalf of MS/DH scholarship enhancement.

We are confident that further methodological and conceptual clarification as well as the developing of new digital tools are capable of increasing the relevance and prestige of MS/DH on the both side.

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ABSTRACT:
Corrupt behaviour is a common practice with negative effects on the whole of society. For instance, if a company wins a public procurement contract in an unfair way, it enriches itself not only at the expense of competition, but also at the expense of the whole of society, as the best applicant has not necessarily been selected within such a procurement. The same applies in the case of a supplier launching an unsafe product onto the market, threatening the health of everyone who buys it (such an act has at least a potential effect on the whole of society). In order to prevent such malpractice and eliminate their negative effects, the cooperation of persons aware of such behaviours is necessary. In order to ensure such cooperation, however, the existence of instruments protecting whistle-blowers against various sanctions (especially by employers) is necessary. As Slovak legislation did not include a regulation of procedures for reporting malpractice and protecting whistle-blowers, a new law aimed at solving such issues was enacted in October, 2014. The given legal regulation took effect on January 1, 2015. This paper endeavours to provide basic knowledge of the environment that the given regulation entered, as well as information on the possibilities of individuals to protect social interests on its grounds.

KEY WORDS:
malpractice, antisocial activity, employee, protection of a whistle-blower of a serious antisocial activity, report

1 Introduction

The issue of protecting people who in the public interest notify legal authorities of a problem they have become aware of via carrying out their work (so called whistleblowing1), has currently resonated strongly in public debate. In its broadest sense, whistleblowing can be defined (in

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1 One of the first to use this term in the given context was consumer advocate Ralph Nader in 1972, who defined it as: “an act of a man or woman who, believing that the public interest overrides the interest of the organization he serves, blows the whistle that the organization is involved in corrupt, illegal, fraudulent, or harmful activity.” See: NADER, R. In NADER, R., PETKAS, P. J. and BLACKWELL, K. (eds.): Whistle Blowing: The Report of the Conference on Professional Responsibility. New York : Grossman, 1972, p. vii.

accordance with the definition of the International Labour Organisation) as an employee’s notification of the illegal, irregular, dangerous or unethical practices of an employer. According to Transparency International, whistleblowing is considered to be a process of revealing an unlawful activity in a certain organisation by providing information to persons who should be able to interfere.\(^2\)

Any action or behaviour perceived by society as negative, able to cause detriment and result in an unlawful state, has different punitive consequences (e.g. resulting damage, responsibility for infringement or a criminal offence) and can generally be denoted as malpractice.\(^3\)

Many cases have appeared in the media\(^4\), frequently indicating the fact that valid legal regulation (whether Slovak or other) does not provide the people revealing malpractice in the public interest sufficient protection.\(^5\)

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\(^5\) With regard to the situation in Slovakia, the activities of the non-governmental organisations, Aliancia Fairplay and Via Iuris, which have been awarding courageous people acting according to the principles and values of common interest with the “White Crow” award since 2008, can be highlighted. It is an award and acknowledgement to people who have shown civil courage by concrete action, who have suppressed their personal interests in the name of public benefit, values and principles and who have taken the risk, experienced various injustices or condemnation. Since 2008 22 outstanding individuals were awarded at the 7 annual White Crow Award events. Among the laureates, there were citizens of Pezinok who have been fighting against unwanted landfill for more than 10 years; Zuzana Melicherčíková who as an employee of the Faculty of Law (Comenius University) referred to suspicious admitting of students or Ivan Čehelský, who has protected nature of Strážov Hills despite several attacks which even led to setting fire to his beloved cottage or the teacher Oto Žarnay, who drew attention to the disadvantageous contract of the school. In 2014 a former auditor of the National Forest Centre Úľúbiča Lapinová was awarded. She revealed serious violations of the public procurement law. A pediatrician Zuzana Pechočiaková received the award for pointing out that medical records of a new born baby have been whitened
Therefore, in preparing their 2012 – 2016 Statement of Policy, the Slovak Government committed itself to strengthen the protection of whistle-blowers of corrupt behaviour, also by adopting new legislative measures. A government bill introducing some measures related to reporting antisocial activities was submitted to the legislative process during 2014, and its final form was approved by Parliament on October 16, 2014 (Act 307/2014 Coll. on some measures related to reporting antisocial activities and on change and amendment of some laws, effective since January 1, 2015, hereinafter as “Act 307/2014”).

This paper will introduce the essentials of the original and newly adopted regulation. As the majority of the active population is in the position of employees, particular attention will be paid to the private sphere and to the possibilities of reporting malpractice at the workplace. We will not deal with the issue of whistleblowing in relation to special employee categories like civil servants, employees working in the public interest, or employees in service (soldiers, police officers, etc.).

In relation to malpractice, it should concern the notification of any action or behaviour harming both an employer and employees, and is either illegal or unethical, or contradicts the internal regulations and trade practices of an employer. The new Act 307/2014 uses the term “antisocial activity” (which will be dealt with within the interpretation of de lege lata regulation), distinguishing a serious antisocial activity and antisocial activity (the character of antisocial activity is important in order to differentiate the level of protection of a whistle-blower).

With regard to the fact that the topic of whistleblowing is extensive, this contribution will focus on the issues related to the protection of an employee reporting an antisocial activity pursuant to the new Act 307/2014 (our interpretation will thus not focus on all public aspects of such reporting, e.g. issues related to reporting a criminal offence, etc.).

out in the hospital. In the past 3 years we have also presented the White Crow Award for a long-term contribution. Awarded was Marcel Strýko (in memoriam), an underground artist and dissident, Katarína Šimončičová, an environmental activist and samizdat publisher Oleg Pastier. For more see: Biela Vrana. [online]. [2015-04-07]. Available at: <http://www.bielavrana.sk/index.php>.
2 The Cultural Context of Applying Whistleblowing in Slovakia

The first step of our analysis will be a sociological probe of the environment and approaches of people in Slovakia on the grounds of research carried out as part of the work of Pavel Nechala, who is one of only a few experts dealing with the issue of whistleblowing within the Slovak Republic.6

As Nechala states, the notification of facts regarding third persons to official authorities is not perceived positively in the Slovak society. According to public opinion polling ensured by Transparency International Slovakia in 2010, an unwillingness of citizens to report malpractice to the police along with a fear of retaliation prevails.7

The response of politicians to the negative attitude of the public to reporting malpractice has been public verbal declarations, which have been put into practice by strengthening communication channels to report malpractice. In some cases, the creation of such channels has been connected to politicians’ efforts to present themselves as “fighters against corruption”. On the grounds of their provided answers, the following communication tools can be identified at the Ministries: written or personal notification to a superior, black box installation, special e-mail inbox, electronic form on a web site, an application within an intranet network, and telephone lines.

An anticorruption line at the Government Office of the Slovak Republic was established on May 18, 2011. During the first year of its operation, 878 callers were recorded. Elements of suspicion of corrupt behaviour were recorded in only 143 of these calls, while in 49 cases citizens used the possibility to report their suspicions anonymously. While the number of calls approached 200 in its first months, the number has recently stabilized at an average of 40 calls per month. However, only two calls

7 We are dealing with the situation before the adoption of the new whistleblowing regulation. However its adoption is not necessarily a factor which will change the attitude of the public by waving a magic wand. The new legal regulation could be perceived as the first step towards a change in this situation. However, achieving its broad social implementation (i.e. a change in the attitude of the public) is a rather longer-term objective.
per month on average are related to corruption. The declining public confidence in the new ways of reporting malpractice may be the result of an insufficient technical and personnel basis of examining reports. On the grounds of collected answers, this agenda is either dealt with by the competent department, a control department, service office manager, or Minister. Ministries (with the exception of the Slovak Ministry of Foreign Affairs in one case, and the Government Office of the Slovak Republic and Slovak Ministry of Defence, which both operate their own anticorruption telephone lines) did not report any potential instances of whistleblowing, and respectively did not keep records of such between 2011-2013. It can therefore be stated that the Ministries did not represent a sufficiently trustworthy institute enabling the collection of knowledge and elimination of deficiencies.

Another deficiency identified by Nechala is with regard to informing employees on the possibility of blowing the whistle. If informing occurred, it was exclusively upon starting a job, normally through an internet site. No special trainings were arranged and no cases of successful whistleblowing inside of an organisation were published. Security procedures to protect whistle-blowers and guarantees of not disclosing the identities of whistle-blowers were not established. No Ministry had whistleblowing regulated within their staff regulations or work regulations in 2014.

Employees used the help of the Slovak National Centre for Human Rights and non-government organisations (the Centre kept statistics on discrimination in employment relations in the form of an unauthorised sanction but did not keep special records on whistleblowing).

The private sector was in a slightly better situation in terms of a framework to investigate suspicions. Different communication channels were used in order to collect knowledge, e.g. a contact form, an e-mail address, black boxes, or personal reports. The investigation of reports was either dealt with by a control department, a specially established commission, an external entity, or the director of a company. Nechala also did not manage to collect relevant statistical data on the number of whistleblowing cases in business entities due to their non-recording in such a structure, or the non-existence of such cases. In relation to the education of employees, businesses used internal regulations as well as an internal computer network, training, or a corporate magazine.
3 Whistleblowing and Labour Law before Adopting the New Act

Employment relations within the private sphere are governed by the key employment code – Act 311/2001 Coll. Labour Code as amended (hereinafter as “Labour Code”). Before adopting Act 307/2014, it was possible to find certain foundations of the whistleblowing regulation, especially in the fundamental principles and the provision of Section 13 of the Labour Code.

Article 2 of the Fundamental Principles of the Labour Code can generally be considered to be the basis of whistleblowing protection even nowadays. It enacts that the exercise of rights and duties resulting from employment relations must be in accordance with the principles of morality, and that no one can misuse such rights and duties in order to harm another participant of employment relations or co-employees. This principle is subsequently included already in the normative text of the provision of Section 13 (3) of the Labour Code.

Until the adoption of Act 307/2014, the provision in question had also enacted that no one could be persecuted or otherwise sanctioned at their workplace in relation to employment relations for filing a complaint about another employee, for suing their workplace, or filing a proposal to initiate criminal proceedings.8

As neither the Labour Code nor any other legal regulation directly addressed the issue of whistleblowing and its associated rights and duties, the court has ultimately been competent to decide. In general, the legal protection of employees who have spoken out about malpractice and have been sanctioned by their employers in certain ways (e.g. by means of a fabricated reason of notice, or a groundless non-provision of a bonus that the employee has normally received thus far) can be drawn from Article 9 of the Fundamental Principles of the Labour Code. Pursuant to this provision, employees and employers who have been harmed by a breach of duties resulting from employment relations can exercise their

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8 Act 307/2014 was also amended by the Labour Code, amending this provision as follows: “No one can be persecuted or otherwise sanctioned at a workplace in relation to employment relations for filing a complaint about another employee or the employer, for suing them or filing a proposal to initiate criminal proceedings, or other notification of criminality or other antisocial activity.”
rights in court. Employers can neither treat unequally nor harm their employees because they exercise their rights resulting from employment relations. In the case of an invalid termination of employment on the grounds of a legal act by an employer, an employee can bring an action against their employer (Sections 77 and 79 of the Labour Code).

In relation to reporting malpractice, harassment and/or discrimination of the whistle-blower frequently occur. The prohibition of discrimination is regulated by Section 13 (1) of the Labour Code, under which an employer is obliged in employment relations to treat employees in accordance with the principles of equal treatment specified for the sphere of employment relations by a special law – i.e. Act 365/2004 Coll. on equal treatment in some spheres and on protection against discrimination and change and amendment of some laws (anti-discrimination law) as amended – which also regulates the means of protection and results from reversed burden of proof.

In Section 13 (2), the Labour Code differentiated discrimination due to gender, marital status and family status, sexual orientation, race, skin colour, language, age, unfavourable health condition or a handicap, genetic qualities, belief, religion, political or other thinking, union activities, national or social origin, nationality or ethnicity, property, descent or other status.

The reason for discrimination expressly related to the notification of malpractice was neither regulated by the Labour Code nor the anti-discrimination law and it was questionable whether it would be possible to place the whistle-blower of malpractice within the stipulation of discrimination in a “different position”. Act 307/2014 eliminated the problem by introducing a new definition of discrimination, i.e. “announcement of criminality or other antisocial activity”.

Slovak legislation does not incorporate a special regulation of harassment (and does not include this term, which is why the term mobbing/bullying may be used). Section 13 (3) of the Labour Code, under which the exercise of rights and duties resulting from employment relations must follow the principles of morality, may be used as the general basis of regulation in relation to mobbing/bullying. No one can misuse such rights and duties in order to harm another participant of employment relations or co-employees.
In the case of breaching the aforementioned principles, an employee had (and still has this possibility after the adoption of the new legal regulation) a right to file a complaint against their employer and the employer was (is) obliged to respond to such a complaint, provide redress, refrain from such conduct, and eliminate its consequences (Section 13 (5) of the Labour Code) without undue delay).

Legal protection is generally regulated by Article 9 of the Fundamental Principles of the Labour Code. The Labour Code subsequently enacts in Section 14 (Dispute Resolution) that disputes between an employer and an employee regarding claims in relation to employment relations will be dealt with and decided on by the courts. Slovak legislation does not incorporate a special legal procedure for the sphere of legal relations; it is therefore based on the general arrangement of civil procedural law.

An employee assuming that their rights or legally protected interests have been affected by non-fulfilment of the aforementioned principles could (and can) apply to the court and require the legal protection enacted in the anti-discrimination act (Section 13 (6) of the Labour Code). The aforementioned implies that the procedure established in the anti-discrimination law will apply to both the proceedings related to the discrimination agenda, and the agenda regarding the examination of the exercise of rights and duties in accordance with the principles of morality and misuse of a right.

The anti-discrimination law enacts the possibility to require the following:
- refrain from unlawful acting,
- redress of an irregular situation,
- adequate satisfaction,
- financial compensation of non-material damage.

The defendant is obliged to prove that discrimination/bullying did not occur. If the plaintiff provides facts at a trial from which it can be reasonably concluded that discrimination/bullying occurred, the institute of so-called reversed proof of burden applies. However, the plaintiff (employee) is obliged to specify the decisive facts to assess the act of the defendant (the burden of producing evidence).
4 The New Slovak Legal Regulation

As already stated, the need to adopt a new regulation resulted from the interest of a company in preventing and revealing antisocial activity. It focuses on revealing the perpetrators of such acts, thus contributing to the protection of the public interest on the grounds of information from persons engaging in antisocial activity and having an interest in reporting them to the respective authorities. However, a number of threats can result for the “announcers” of antisocial activity from such acts. There are currently several measures protecting whistle-blowers in a certain aspect, e.g. by the institutes of secret witness, endangered witness or protected witness, which are enacted in the Code of Criminal Procedure. Their usage is limited by relatively strict legal conditions. Whistle-blowers are typically also endangered by other consequences, e.g. loss of employment and income in the economic sphere. Act 307/2014 therefore introduces a protection in the case of retaliation by an employer. However, legal regulation cannot cover further negative effects, which are frequently connected to the notification of an antisocial activity (as blowing the whistle is not perceived by Slovak society as something to be appreciated, but rather the opposite), i.e. “being labelled a whistle-blower”, which makes the possibility of finding a new job or business partners more difficult (if the whistle-blower was “forced” to terminate their employment). This fact endangers the existence of individuals, as it also results in problematic family situations, and misunderstandings with friends and acquaintances is not unusual either, leading to the whistle-blower’s isolation.

The newly adopted regulation provides protection to persons (whistle-blowers of serious antisocial activities) against unjustified sanctions, which could be a result of their notification in employment relations (legal relations established by both employment contracts and work agreements outside employment are considered to be employment relations), civil servant employment, and service employment.

Employee protection depends on whether they have made such a notification:

– inside, within the internal system of an employer (an employee has filed a report), and their employment relation can be endangered, and such an employee can therefore require from the Labour Inspectorate suspension of the effects of employer’s act, which could have a negative effect on the position of such an employee;
- outside, in the form of a complaint or a proposal to initiate proceedings of an administrative offence. If an employee has notified authorities of a serious antisocial activity and received the status of a whistle-blower, the employer can only conduct the employment act against them (those he/she does not agree with and which are one-sided and deteriorate the position of the employee) with prior consent of the Labour Inspectorate.

Even if freedom of expression collides with both the employee’s obligation of secrecy and the employee’s obligation to maintain loyalty towards the employer upon reporting an antisocial activity, notification of an antisocial activity pursuant to Act 307/2014 will not represent a breach of the employee’s secrecy obligation. As employees are entitled to information whose disclosure would threaten an important public interest or sensitive information of natural persons, the specially regulated secrecy obligation has been maintained.

4.1 Malpractice versus Criminality and Other Antisocial Activity

Act 307/2014 does not recognise the term malpractice; however, it regulates the notification of criminality or other antisocial activity. An additional antisocial activity is an action which is a minor offence or other administrative offence. Further antisocial activities also include an action which is not a minor offence or other administrative offence, however it has an adverse effect on society (pursuant to Section 3 (b) and (c) of Act 583/2008 Coll. on the prevention of crime and other antisocial activities and on change and amendment of some laws).

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9 Section 1 (4) of Act 307/2014: “Notification of an antisocial activity is neither considered to be a breach of the contractual obligation to maintain secrecy nor a breach of the obligation to maintain secrecy under the special law, if it is an obligation resulting from executing an employment, occupation, status or function and it does not represent a secrecy obligation under Clause 3.”

10 Section 1 (4) of Act 307/2014: “This act affects neither the provisions of the special law on protection of classified information, postal secrecy, business secrecy, banking secrecy, telecommunication secrecy or tax secrecy, on the provision and accessibility of medical records, on the secrecy obligation of intelligence officers, on the secrecy obligation upon providing legal services, nor the obligation to report a crime or thwart a crime.”
Serious antisocial activity under Section 2 (1) (c) of Act 307/2014 is an unlawful action, which is:

1. one of the criminal offences having an adverse effect on the financial interests of European communities under Sections 261-263 of the Penal Code, the offence of contrivance at public procurement and public auction under Section 266 of the Penal Code, one of the criminal offences of public officials under Title VIII of Part II of the special section of the Penal Code, or one of the criminal offences of corruption under Title VIII of Part III of the special section of the Penal Code,
2. a criminal offence for which the Penal Code stipulates a custodial sentence with an upper limit exceeding three years,\(^\text{11}\) or
3. an administrative offence for which a fine with an upper limit in the amount of a minimum of 50,000 Euros can be imposed.\(^\text{12}\)

4.2 Notification - Whistle-blower

A notification of any facts does not establish an entitlement to granting an increased protection pursuant to Act 307/2014. Protection will only relate to those whistle-blowers (natural persons)\(^\text{13}\) who submit the notification to the respective authority. A notification represents the statement of facts which a natural person becomes aware of in relation to executing their employment, occupation, status or position, and which can significantly contribute or have contributed to the clarification of a serious antisocial activity, or to finding or convicting its perpetrator pursuant to Section 2 (1) (b) of Act 307/2014).

A condition of a notification is the fact that the person has become aware of such facts (i) in relation to executing their employment, occupation, status or function and (ii) the notification has been made in “good faith”. The aforementioned implies that at the time of a notification a whistle-blower has to be convinced (with regard to their knowledge and all consequences of the given case) about the veracity of

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11 For instance, a murder, blackmail, human trafficking, theft, unpaid tax and insurance, or general threat.
12 For instance, within the segment of public health, forest protection, forestry and wood logging.
13 Except for Section 9 of the Act, which regulates the provision of bonuses, a whistleblower is also their close person, if in an employment relation with the same employer.
information being the subject of such a notification. Situations may occur in which the reported facts are not true, or they can appear to be false in the course of examination, while the whistle-blower’s approach is also important. If the falseness of such facts has been proven, the protection provided to the whistle-blower is automatically ceased according to law. In case of doubts, it is automatically assumed that a person acts in good faith, unless the contrary has been proven. It will therefore be interesting to monitor how the practice will deal with such an interpretation (it will be difficult to prove that a whistle-blower was not acting in good-faith).

In order for a person to have the status of a whistle-blower, they have the possibility to apply for the provision of protection within criminal proceedings or proceedings of an administrative offence pursuant to Sections 3-6 of Act 307/2014 (a whistle-blower can decide whether they will apply for the status of a protected whistle-blower, or they will have the status of a whistle-blower without protection pursuant to Act 307/2014, or they may only request that a written confirmation of the fact that they are a whistle-blower be sent, in which case, if an employer carries out a negatively perceived employment act, the employee may request the suspension of effects of such an act to the Labour Inspectorate).

An application is either submitted along with a notification or in the course of criminal proceedings, or the proceedings of an administrative offence. An application should be submitted to the public prosecutor in the case of criminal proceedings, and to the respective administration authority in the case of proceedings of an administrative offence. An application is submitted to the court in case the proceedings reach the state of a legal process. The submission of an application to a different public authority does not prevent the provision of protection, as the receiving authority is obliged to submit the application to the respective authority.

An application for protection provision may be submitted in writing or verbally in minutes, and it must include the applicant’s personal data in the extent of name, surname, and date of birth, residential address, and identification of the employer (basic data enabling their identification are sufficient; data such as an identification number, the identification of legal representatives, etc. are not necessary). Of course, Act 307/2014 allows that a notification may be submitted anonymously.
The respective authority accepts an application if it has learned that the applicant is a whistle-blower of a serious antisocial activity. The whistle-blower, employer and Labour Inspectorate will be notified in writing without delay of the fact that the whistle-blower has been granted protection. By delivering such a written notification to the employer, the whistle-blower becomes a protected whistle-blower. If a natural person is not a whistle-blower, the respective authority announces this fact to the person in writing without delay, stating the reasons that protection has not been granted.

As suggested above, Act 307/2014 allows that a person use protection after deciding to defend themselves against the acts of their employer. In such a case, the person only requests that a written confirmation of the fact that they are a whistle-blower be sent. Such a confirmation is not delivered to the employer and Labour Inspectorate. The employer will thus not be aware of the employee’s identity, and such a person becomes a protected whistle-blower following the delivery of the confirmation to their employer.

The protection provision prohibits an employer to take legal action or issue a decision against its protected employee without the prior consent of the Labour Inspectorate (Section 7 of Act 307/2014). In the case where an employer takes such action, it would be an invalid legal action.

An employer must submit an application for granting an approval to the Labour Inspectorate, which includes:

a) the identification of the employer,

b) name, surname, date of birth and residential address of the protected whistle-blower,

c) specification for which the consent of the Labour Inspectorate is requested,

d) justification of the need.14

In simple matters, especially if a decision can be made on the grounds of the employer’s request and the statement of the protected whistle-blower, the Labour Inspectorate will make a decision regarding such a request for granting consent without delay. In other matters, the Labour

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14 According to special regulations, no terms or trial periods initiate from the employer’s submission of a request to grant consent of the Labour Inspectorate to a lawful decision on the request of granting such consent to the employer.
Inspectorate will decide within 30 days following the day of delivery of the request. The employer (as well as the protected whistle-blower) may appeal the Labour Inspectorate’s decision (to the National Labour Inspectorate).

The Labour Inspectorate only grants consent in cases where it has been proven that the proposed act has no relation to the employee’s notification of a serious antisocial activity. The burden of proof is borne by the employer (e.g. in a case where an employer has carried out collective dismissals and the whistle-blower’s position is deemed redundant, the employer could prove that the employee was dismissed for objective reasons, not related to the fact they are a whistle-blower), and before issuing its decision on the request for granting consent, the Labour Inspectorate must allow the protected whistle-blower to express their opinion on the proposed employment act within an adequate timeframe.

The Labour Inspectorate’s consent is unnecessary only in cases where the employee agrees with the given act, if such an act is to the benefit of the employee, the act grants the employee an entitlement, or if such an act is related to a termination of the employment relationship as long as such termination is independent of the employer’s will, as it results from law.

However, a whistle-blower may **voluntarily waive** the provided protection. Written notification of such a waiver may only be delivered to the Labour Inspectorate. It is not necessary to deliver such a waiver to the prosecution, court, or administrative authority (like in the case of a notification), and protection is terminated by its delivery. **Legal protection is also terminated** after the occurrence of the following (Section 8):

- proving that a notification was not submitted in good faith,
- the conclusion or termination of an employment relationship, service employment, or civil servant employment,
- the conclusion of criminal proceedings, respectively a proceeding of an administrative offence. However, protection is not terminated if criminal proceedings are concluded by referring the given matter to another authority,
- the imprisonment of the whistle-blower for false accusation or false testimony and perjury in relation to submitting the notification.
The legal practice will also have to deal with the situation where, protection has been granted but the assessment of a reported criminal offence concludes during, for example, criminal proceedings concluding that the offence is not a serious antisocial activity. In order to maintain legal certainty and protection of a whistle-blower, such protection should last – especially due to the fact that the employee cannot influence the assessment of criminality and the employer has received information related to the fact that the employee submitted a notification. The removal of granted protection could create room for imposing sanctions on such an employee by the employer, which would undermine the purpose of protection and the meaning of Act 307/2014 itself. Act 307/2014 does not regulate the subsequent removal of granted protection, expect for protection termination pursuant to Section 8 (1) of Act 307/2014.

4.3 Report and Employers’ Obligation to Introduce a System of Settling Reports

Provision 11 of Act 307/2014 introduces the obligation of employers to introduce an internal system of settling reports. Every employer (legal entity or natural person) employing a minimum of 50 employees, as well as an employer which is a public authority (state authorities, municipalities/towns, self-governing regions, legal entities established by law, state authorities, municipality/town or by a self-governing region, legal entities established by these authorities and legal entities or natural persons empowered by law to decide on the rights and duties of natural persons or legal entities in public administration), have this obligation.

The person appointed by the employer – the “responsible person” (an employee or an external subject) – is responsible for the internal system of settling reports. This person must fulfil the tasks resulting from the internal system of settling reports and their records. This person may be a separate branch, the employer, or another natural person who is not an employee but has concluded a contract with the employer for this purpose. For the purpose of ensuring the impartiality and independence of the responsible person, as well as eliminating their possible manipulation, the law requires that this person is directly under the employer’s statutory representative within their organisational structure. In the case of an externally responsible person who is not an employee (the law assumes that they have concluded an agreement with
the employer, however it does not regulate a particular type of contract), such a person can only be bound by the instructions of the statutory representative. The employer is at the same time obliged to issue an **internal regulation** including details regarding the competence of the responsible person, submitting and examining reports related to serious antisocial activity, maintaining secrecy regarding the identity of the person having submitted a report, informing the person having submitted a report of the result of its examination, report record-keeping, and the processing of personal data provided in the reports.

The employer is obliged to **keep records** for a period of three years following the report’s delivery to the following the extent: the date of report delivery, name, surname and residential address of the person having submitted the report (in the case of an anonymous report, a note informing of this fact will be entered), the subject of the report, the result of the report examination, and the concluding date of the report examination (Section 12 of Act 307/2014).

The Labour Inspectorate may impose a fine up to €20,000 to an employer who has not fulfilled any of the aforementioned obligations (Section 15 of Act 307/2014). Employers are obliged to ensure the fulfilment of such obligations regarding the internal system of settling reports within six months following the effectiveness of the law, i.e. by July 1, 2015 (Section 23 of Act 307/2014).

An employer is obliged to accept and examine every received report which includes facts related to the employer’s activity, of which a person has become aware in relation to their employment, and which could significantly contribute to the clarification of a serious antisocial activity or to convicting its perpetrator. Besides reports related to serious antisocial activities, the employer is also obliged to examine reports related to other antisocial activities, i.e. a minor offence, another administrative offence or another action which is not a serious antisocial activity but has a negative effect on society due to its character (if such a report is related to the employer).

The employer is not obliged to settle anonymous reports except those reporting a serious antisocial activity, as the given interest of society in revealing such activities is also justified by examining anonymous reports. The law also establishes a secrecy obligation for such an employer in relation to the identity of the person having submitted a report. The
employer is obliged to **accept and examine every report within 90 days** following its receipt. This term can be prolonged by a further 30 days, during which time the person having submitted such a report (if it is not an anonymous report) will be notified of this fact, stating the reasons of prolongation. The employer is subsequently obliged to notify the person having submitted a report of the result of its examination within ten days following the report examination.

With regard to the means of submitting reports, Act 307/2014 does not stipulate a particular process, however it requests that **the identification of the responsible person and the means of submitting reports be disclosed and accessible to all employees in a common and standardly accessible way** with at least one of the means of submission being accessible **24 hours a day**.

It is up to the decision of the employer whether they select a telephone line or install a box in a place accessible to all employees (maintaining employee anonymity, of course, requiring that the placement of such a box is crucial). Another (it could be said, effective) way is the creation of a new web application accessible to all employees at any time, e.g. by establishing a special place at the workplace, but also from any computer inside or outside the workplace.

**4.4 Suspension of the Effects of an Employment Act**

Besides the possibility of being granted the status of a whistle-blower, the provision of Section 13 of Act 307/2014 also enacts protection for the submitters of reports who do not have whistle-blower status (e.g. employees who have only pointed to a malpractice, e.g. non-observance of hygienic procedures in production, or they have reported a serious antisocial activity but have not applied for the granting of whistle-blower status).

If an **employment act** has been conducted against the submitter of a report **with which the submitter does not agree**, as they believe that such an act is a sanction for their report, they may address the Labour Inspectorate with a request to suspend the effects of such an act. **They can make a request to the Labour Inspectorate to suspend the effects of such an employment act within seven days following the day they learned** of the employment act.
If there are reasonable grounds for believing that an act has been conducted in relation to a report, the Labour Inspectorate will suspend its effects, issue a confirmation of such a suspension, and deliver it to the employer and person having submitted the report without delay. A **suspension of effects** of an employment act **commences on the day of delivering the confirmation to the report submitter**. The confirmation will include the name, surname, and date of birth and residential address of the person having submitted the report, identification of the employer and the employment act whose effects have been suspended. The enforceability of such a decision is the suspension of the effects of the employment act.

If the Labour Inspectorate does not grant such an employee’s request, it will notify them in writing of the reasons for not suspending the effects of the given employment act. However, such protection is only temporary. Act 307/2014 assumes that a submitter will subsequently **file an application for interim measures** (however, the Act does not regulate what the subject of an interim measure is) and requires that the Labour Inspectorate instruct the submitter of the possibility of filing an application for interim measures and related consequences. Bringing forward an action should follow the filing of an application for an interim measure (an action for invalid termination of employment or anti-discrimination action may be considered). If the submitter of a report does not file such an application to the court, the suspension of the effects of the given act ends on the 14th day following the delivery of confirmation on its suspension to the submitter. If the submitter has addressed the court, the suspension of the effects of the given act will be valid until the enforceability of the court’s decision has been ensured.

The suspension of the effects of an employment act, if such an employment act has been conducted in relation to the submission of a report with which they do not agree, may be requested not only by persons working for the employer with an established internal system under Act 307/2014, but also by a person submitting a report to their employer without such a system, or an employer without a system because it has less than 50 employees. The possibility of a suspension of the effects of an employment act may be used by an individual who has submitted a report but who has not requested whistle-blower status, or an individual/whistle-blower with protection that was terminated due to the conclusion of criminal proceedings or the proceedings of an administrative offence under Section 8 (1) (c) of Act 307/2014.
4.5 Other Aspects

In order for employees to be aware of the fact that there is a possibility of reporting antisocial activities, Act 307/2014 has enacted the obligation of employers to inform employees at the beginning of their employment of internal regulations regulating the notification of criminality or other antisocial activity (Section 47 (2) of the Labour Code).

As stated above, Act 307/2014 introduced a new element of discrimination – notifying of criminality or another antisocial activity. The anti-discrimination law further extended employee protection and enacted the possibility of employees, in relation to the non-fulfilment of the equal treatment principle due to notification of criminality or another antisocial activity, to claim the invalidity of an employment act whose effects were suspended under Act 307/2014 (in addition, employees may claim that a person who has not fulfilled the equal treatment principle refrain from such conduct and, if possible, redress the unlawful state or provide adequate compensation).

We can say that the notification of an antisocial activity frequently results in the termination of the affected employee. The employee who assumes that their employment has been terminated by their employer invalidly on the grounds of legal action (concerning e.g. purpose-based organisational changes and a fictitious notice of redundancy, a fabricated breach of work discipline on the grounds of which the employer immediately terminated their employment) may address the court and object the invalid termination of employment under Section 77 of the Labour Code. The application of an invalid employment termination in court is allowed by Section 77 of the Labour Code following Section 36 (1) of the Labour Code, not later than two months from the day employment was to be terminated. It is important to point out that this is a preclusive time period.

15 The invalidity of employment termination by notice, immediate termination, and termination during the trial period or by agreement may be applied in court by both the employee and the employer no later than within two months of the day of supposed employment termination.
If an employer has invalidly terminated an employee and the employee has notified the employer of the fact that they insist on further employment, such employment will persist pursuant to the provision of Section 79 (1) of the Labour Code. At the same time it is necessary to apply the invalidity of the employment termination in court, i.e. to bring forward legal action. As long as such employment persists, the employer is obliged to allocate work to the employee or provide them salary compensation in the case where work is not allocated in compliance with their employment contract. Pursuant to Section 79 (1) of the Labour Code, the employer is obliged to provide the employee with salary compensation appertaining to the employee in the amount of their average salary from the day of their notification to the employer of their insistence on further employment to the time the employer allows them to continue their work or the court decides on employment termination.

If the overall time for which salary compensation was supposed to be provided to the employee exceeds twelve months, the court can, upon the employer’s request, adequately lower, or not grant at all the employer’s obligation to compensate salary for a period exceeding twelve months. Salary compensation can be granted for a maximum of 36 months under Section 79 (2) of the Labour Code. Due to increased protection, Act 307/2014 introduces new regulations for whistle-blowers in relation to salary compensation. Under the new wording of Section 79 (3) of the Labour Code, the provision of Section 79 (2) of the Labour Code (regulating limitations of the amount of salary compensation) does not relate to the reporters of criminality or other antisocial activity, if employment was terminated during the protection provision under the special regulation (Act 307/2014).

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16 A different situation occurs when employment has been terminated invalidly but the employee does not insist on further employment with the employer. If employment has been terminated by the employer invalidly but the employee does not insist on their further employment, employment is deemed to have been terminated by agreement on the grounds of the provision of Section 79 (4) of the Labour Code.

17 An exception is the provision of Section 79 (1) of the Labour Code under which employment does not persist but is ended if the court decides that the employer cannot be justly required to continue to employ the employee.
4.6 Education

Under Section 18 of Act 307/2014, the state supports the prevention of antisocial activity and anti-corruption education as part of antisocial activity prevention. The objective of education at schools and school facilities, which is included in educational programmes under Section 4 (g) and Section 5 of Act 245/2008 Coll. on education (school law) and on change and amendment of some laws, is to instil respect for the law and foster a relationship with the prevention and avoidance of the initiation and dissemination of antisocial activity.

4.7 Reward and Legal Help

Even though the primary purpose of Act 307/2014 is to provide protection to whistleblowers, Section 9 of Act 307/2014 also establishes the possibility of providing a reward to the reporter of a serious antisocial activity. This may be granted in the amount of up to fifty times the minimum salary (i.e. EUR 19,000 from January 1, 2015). This constitutes a non-claimable reward for which a reporter may apply to the Ministry of Justice of the SR after a decision convicting the perpetrator of the crime or a decision proving the perpetration of an administrative offence becomes valid. The extent of a reporter’s participation in the clarification of a serious antisocial activity, finding, or conviction of its perpetrator and the extent of protected or returned property, if it can be quantified, will be taken into account upon decision of the reward provision. The Ministry will decide on an application for reward provision within six months of the day of its delivery, while an examination of the decision of the Ministry on a reward by the court is excluded. Whistle-blowers will be entitled to the provision of free legal aid through the Centre of Legal Aid under conditions stipulated in the respective legal regulation.

4.8 The Evaluation of Collected Information on Antisocial Activity

Pursuant to Section 19 (1) of Act 307/2014, the Slovak National Centre for Human Rights (hereinafter as referred to as the “Centre”) is entrusted with the authority to provide information in relation to the reporting of antisocial activity. The Centre is required to regularly evaluate information related to the reporting of antisocial activity and protection provisions and publish such information on its website. The
Centre is further required to publish wording of the legal regulations related to this issue as well as related court decisions, scientific papers, and other related publicly available information. In order for the Centre to be able to collect this type of information, ministries and other public authorities must provide necessary cooperation in gathering information pursuant to Section 19 of Act 307/2014.

4.9 Personal Data Protection

When an employee reports of malpractice, the employer will receive information related not only to the reporter (who may remain anonymous), but also data regarding the natural person suspicious of malpractice or other persons. However, the employer (or other competent authorities) cannot avoid working with the reported information and data upon resolving the reported issues. As this is typically information having the character of personal data, such data is to be processed. It is therefore necessary to structure an internal system so that the employer complies not only with the aforementioned but also with legal regulations dealing with personal data protection (i.e. Act 122/2013 Coll. on personal data protection).

Generally speaking, it can be said that Slovak law on personal data protection in relation to the processing of personal data for the purposes of whistleblowing requires the fulfilment of general requirements for ensuring the protection of processed personal data (i.e. especially the security and protection of personal data against damage, defacement, loss, modification, unauthorised access and availability, provision, or disclosure, as well as against any other undue means of processing), however it also stipulates some special requirements. These include the need of so-called special registration of the information system in which personal data are processed for the purposes of whistleblowing at the Office for Personal Data Protection.

Conclusion

This paper dealt with the new legal regulation of whistleblowing in the Slovak Republic. The new regulation was adopted based on the need to deal with the insufficient protection of whistle-blowers in the context of previous regulations. Even though society is perhaps not fully ready for employees to actively report antisocial activity to a necessary extent,
there are individuals who will make use of this possibility. The adoption of this new legal regulation can therefore be evaluated positively. As cases of reporting antisocial activity on the grounds of the new legal regulation are not yet known, and the internal systems of employers will start functioning only on July 1, 2015, it is at present not possible to evaluate whether Act 307/2014 is sufficiently effective and will provide actual tools of protection for whistle-blowers.

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CURRENT TRENDS IN MEDIA ENVIRONMENT
TRANSFORMATION

Jozef Matúš – Jana Galera

ABSTRACT:
The paper investigates the issue of the transformation of the media environment in a growing new economy. The impact of digitalization, transformation of media ownership, media history and social media entering status quo in this field are discussed in the paper. Economic approach to media studies is emphasised as it focuses on the position, economic structure and dynamics of media enterprises behaviour on one hand and the content of offered media products, on the other hand. Characteristics of media institutions, their diversification, developing competitiveness at the media market are discussed in the paper. An analysis of the current situation in the media market, a structure of the media ownership and the role of media form an important part of the paper.

KEY WORDS:
media environment, globalisation, information, transformation, economy of media, media ownership, commercialisation, media market

1 Introduction

Current growing trends in the field of entrepreneurship, in opening new businesses, in entertainment industry and media can be observed. The trends are developed by the process of globalisation of media and its transition into digital formats. Tackling the above mentioned issue successfully needs understanding the megatrends and media and it is conditioned by a scientific discourse on this topic in professionals’ circles.

We are convinced that also in Slovakia there are specialists and experts who are interested in scientific work and in gaining scientific knowledge that is useful for individuals and for the companies they work for and for general public. Science (from Latin scientia, meaning „knowledge“) was based on freedom and critical thinking that were developed in the Ancient Greece philosophy. These are the facts people often forget about. In a difficult situation of establishing and growing a new modern economy we are interested in tackling in a responsible way the issues of
relations that are often antagonist, between the system of media and the economy of media. It is necessary then to find an answer to the question of what the characteristics of the current modern economy are. It can be said that the modern economy is based on factors influencing the activity of media. On the other hand media and their activities play a key role in the process of developing and growing a knowledge society as well as in implementing information technology and digitalisation that enable a fast exchange of information necessary for rational decision making in every field of social life.

Lately the media has been globalised not only in a way when global international institutions enter larger numbers of original national markets but what specific agendas are introduced as well. In the field of news casting it often happens that an international item of news becomes only the one that is of greatest interest of global international media corporations – media giants. The national media that do not have equal opportunities at their disposal although they are in various places in the form “here and now”, have been following the agenda set up by huge international global media corporations. The situation can be partially reasoned by the fact that national and regional media are not able to compete with international organizations in the field of broadcasting international news and an opposite activity is done – news of national, regional or local origin are broadcast instead. Such a situation is paradoxical and is a result of globalization. On one hand, news have become globalised, the media are able to be in diverse corners world-wide, yet on the other hand we witness the process when the media becomes “provincial”, the media follows a pattern deviating from the common way of broadcasting international news to that where only national news are broadcast.

From an economic point of view the process of globalisation of the media unveils the threat of the concentration of proprietors’ rights and hegemony. The progress in developing communication technology overcomes the boundary, or traditional barriers, between communication mediums. Therefore the links between media, the relation between radio and television is closer due to the progress in the Internet and the existence of the Internet journalists who can work for all three media mediums at the same time. As such communication technology has a powerful impact on human perception and attitudes so powerful that it can regulate, control and is more and more influential and persuasive. The information production and an easy access to information have played a
key role in the economic behaviour of the media; they are a resource of the media development, a part of their economic behaviour – which is the media economy. The economic substance of the media at present underpins two basic issues. They are the content of a media product and accessibility to the media products that consumers utilize. New types of media entering the market need larger and larger numbers of media products while their acceptance by consumers at the media market does not often meet basic principles and requirements of the media economy.

It is necessary to point out the fact that media institutions presenting the main subject of their entrepreneurial activities in the media market are institutions fulfilling certain social tasks and they can also be some corporations focusing on products that meet the requirements of both society at large and of media owners. Both types of institutions often diverse their products offered to the public. One of the basic ways how to achieve more intense diversification of the media products is to establish media corporations sharing the ownership of different types of media, e.g. merging an influential and tabloid daily newspaper, television channels, magazines, etc. One must admit that in the media market new technologies employed especially in information dissemination and in offering new economic options have the tendencies to concentrate, integrate, and internationalize all types of media activities. From the point of view of society the above mentioned tendencies are not positive and are diminished partially due to creating competitive environment also at the media market by means of fragmenting the market and entering competition between various types of media, e.g. radio and television or television channels, radio stations or newspapers. The quality of competition depends on the situation whereas some media products are replaced by some other products, e.g. television news is replaced by radio news or newspapers news or advertising in one medium can be replaced by advertising in other medium achieving better effectiveness.

2 Transformation of the media ownership

Lately we have witnessed withdrawals of some international corporations from the Slovak and Czech media market. Also publishing houses have transformed their ownership into an ownership of local entrepreneurs. The process started in the Czech Republic when Andrej Babis purchased the Publishing House „MAFRA“ (daily newspapers „MF Dnes“ and „Lidove noviny“) and he was followed by other businessmen
such as Daniel Kretinsky and Patrik Tkac who purchased the Publisher Ringier (the daily newspapers „Blesk“ and „AHA“).

“After the six months I must admit that in the Czech situation it is impossible to work for the newspaper owned and regulated by a politician. Maybe in future there will appear a politician who will need an independent newspaper and due to the current situation in the Czech politics publishing an independent newspaper is impossible. The newspapers independence cannot be limited”, the chief editor of the “MF Dnes” Sabina Slonkova commented on her leaving the publishing house after half a year of work (ČTK: Sklonková – pod politiky v novinách pracovat nelze. In: www.mediaguru.cz, 11\textsuperscript{th} Sept.2014)

Freedom of the media and their independence have become acute also in the Slovak market, especially after the announcement that the publishing houses of „Plus 7 dní“, „Trend holdig“ and mainly „Petit press were purchased by the financial group „Penta.

Today in a very difficult process when the financial group „Penta“ has become a share holder in the publishing house „SME“ and according to the statement made by the former management of the editorial office, there are two things lost for us and the work of journalists cannot be done well. Editors do not feel secure about their freedom when publishing and the “Penta” as the owner may lose the trust of readers (www.opentat.sk). These are the reasons given by management to the editor when they left their positions.

Journalists often write reports in a way as if they came back from Mars or the other planet, or if they were people of extraordinary qualities. One can judge the media market in the same way as other markets in other sectors are judged.” These are the Penta representatives’ words describing the moments of entering the media market (www.opentat.sk)

Let us investigate in the development of marketability of newspapers (the same development is reported by the press market); it is disputable whether the investment groups are interested in this business especially.
It must be emphasized that information plays the key role in political and economic situations and it is the information that is considered to be an important tool to promote personal economic and political interests.

3 The impact of media as a decisive factor on ownership transformation

Impacts of media on recipients are of our interest. Discussing the phases of media effects by D. McQuail in his last phase we are in the phase when media and the audience have a strong position:
• The first phase – unlimited power of media (approximately between 1900 -1940) – it was believed that the contents of information initiate in recipients identical effects.
• The second phase – the media are not effective (1940-1965) - as there are diverse human characteristics distinguished, specialists started to consider possible individual perception of the media content by people.
• The third phase – renewable trust in strong impact of media (1965-1980) – enhancing an important active attitude of an individual to the media.
• The fourth phase – transactional imagination about the effects (since 1980) – a strong position of the media and the audience.¹

Let us search in the media from the point of view of agenda setting; media have the power to regulate the audience’s behaviour. We can use following examples.

The ability of television channels to make events collective is proved by the transmission of the Kennedy’s funeral. No other national event except for sports events was broadcast and viewed by so many spectators. The ability of television transmission to include such a large audience was proved by Kennedy’s funeral. It showed that a large number of populations can be involved in the process as a ritual. Compared to it, the press, film and radio can be called product cover and wrapping for consumers.²

Some other examples can be used to demonstrate the power of media. A media mass hysteria burst out in New York in 1938 when the radio station CBS broadcast the dramatization of the novel „The War of the Worlds“ and the block of music that was transmitted in the afternoon was interrupted by an actor’s inputs announcing that the USA was invaded by aliens. Hearing the news people started to pack their suitcases and mass hysteria started to spread over the USA. Another example is of Brazilian origin. A Brazilian television and its speaker Wallace Souza who was a Member of Parliament at that time were accused of producing their own news and facts. W. Souza ordered series murders, which were to prove his parliamentary statements that the crime in the State of Amazonas in Brazil is very high. And the personnel of “his” television arrived at the

crime site as the first one, so the programme enlarged its numbers of viewers.

Supposing a mass spreading of the television during the rule of Hitler he would disappear quickly. If the television had existed no Hitler would have appeared. When the politician Khruscev appeared in the American television, he was as a clown and nice older man who was more acceptable by the viewers than Nixon.³

The power of media can be proved by another case from Georgia when a Georgian station Imedi brought a piece of information about the Russian Army invasion and about the death of the president Saakashvilli and the result was as it follows: According to the local media, the news by Imedi triggered panic in the entire Georgia and the rescuers’ phone lines recorded a large number of phone calls. “It was a very cruel simulation,” the chief-editor of the Georgian newspaper Zaza Gachechiladze said for the “Guardian”. A woman whose son joint the army died of the heart attack. Another pregnant woman lost her baby. A lot of children had to be taken to hospitals due to stress. That what happened is horrible, it is a crime and it deserves punishment.”

The biggest panic spread in the city of Gori that in August 2008 suffered and was damaged a lot when it was really attacked by Russians. Hundreds of inhabitants left their homes and hurried to shop the most necessary food to survive. (www.medialne.sk)

Based on the analysis of the changes in the media environment some media specialists prove that the interests of the owner cover the content and they conclude that the media have less critical attitude towards the mother – corporations, they do not tend to create a picture of a media industry as of a political interest group, that the editor’s approach (given by the owner) have impact on the content. The groups of businessmen and the attitudes, which are not mentioned is the right attitude based on the corporate and commercial logic. Political interests of the media owners are in the foreground.

On the other hand the potential of owners of the media organizations to interfere in the content of the media is decreasing in link to the growth of modern corporations, in which the ownership is scattered among a number of persons, businesses, companies are in hands of experts

and the editors are journalists – professionals who experience a lot of freedom and autonomy to meet the standards and the ethic codex of their products.

What trends can be expected in the media in the near future? Of course one can assume that there is a recovery of the economy that is expected to be seen also in the media market. More and more print media will appear as digital. People will get used to using tablets and smart phones. People will read books and newspapers and will watch television programmes on these devices. There will be a shift in costs – more expensive and traditional media will be replaced by less expensive digital platforms. Also advertising companies and agencies will employ the new digital platforms. Implementing new trends in the media will need to develop new methods, new indicators of investment returned back in the media according to the requirements of the media economy.

The most direct impact of the owner is seen at the extra-media level. The media are not only a resource of profit but of power. Media owners can promote the personal political and commercial interests. Only time will tell us if the transition of the ownership in the field of media is driven by profit making or by utilizing the media effects. The transformation of other factors that have impact on it will show the impact on media the other factors have.

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DEFICIT OF TRUTH IN MASS MEDIA
AND ITS CONSEQUENCE
FOR A POLITICAL AND INTERNATIONAL SPHERE

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ABSTRACT:
In this paper I am considering the political and international consequences of departing from the principle of truth in mass media. Based on the premises of correspondence theory of truth and its ethical implications, I assume that truth is the fundamental objective of communicative activities, including the media ones. Rejecting the principle of objectivism and objective truth in mass media is a result of their commercialization and accepting post-modernist viewpoint which perceives truth as a tool of trouble and threatens freedom. As a consequence of the phenomenon of departing from truth the crisis of civic political culture and universal values occurs.

KEY WORDS:
mass media, normative theory, politics, international relations, truth

1 Introduction: Some methodological remarks

This paper is written from normativist stance. Normativism is still a present approach in a discourse conducted on the grounds of social sciences, including political sciences and theories of international relations, as well as in the field of the sciences of social communication and media. Although its significance due to so-called behaviouristic revolution diminished,¹ the problems concerning the sphere of norms and values are still extremely topical and taken up by a quite vast interdisciplinary circle of scholars. Normativist approach is characteristic of philosophers and “philosophically oriented” representatives of particular sciences that is political scientists, sociologists, media researchers or anthropologists who concentrate on the assessment of political, international, economic and media reality in their considerations. On the basis of the theory of social communication, normativism is defined by its aim, which is to determine an ideal standard according to which the assessment of the

functioning of a given media system can be done. Normative theory of media shows how a given media system should function to correspond to a given set of ideal social values or realize them.²

Although normativism is a research approach which refers to the philosophical premises, not every philosophy is normative by definition. It is quite the opposite. In case of speculative political studies, we may distinguish both quasi-formal theory of politics (this discipline can be defined as politics ontology) and a normative reflection over politics (normative philosophy of politics, or in other words ethics of politics).³ The same applies to ethics and philosophy of media. We deal here with a normative view (ethics), but on the other hand with the “realistic” one which aims to explain the phenomenon of media and media reality by means of hermeneutical and phenomenological methods.⁴ Despite the differences, both types of philosophical deliberations are combined. And at times they are so strongly combined that it is difficult to decide whether a given work or the approach of a scholar is “normative” or “real” by nature. Ultimately, ethics is a part of philosophy. The aim which we set in front of ethics is strictly philosophical. Its aim is first and foremost: “to build a moral-normative theory of human activity, that is to develop logically coherent collection of ethical tasks properly systematized and justified by means of methods of philosophical thinking”⁵. It is hard to imagine a philosophy free from normative premises. The analysis of a given reality is conducted on the basis of accepted normative premises. It is characteristic of normatively oriented representatives of social sciences and it differs their approach from the experimental and historical approach and functional view.

This article is not a report of research activity, I do not present here the results of empirical research, I do not form any theory of analytical-

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empirical character. However, I consider the influence of false media information on the sphere of politics and international relations. In fact I am writing about the ethical consequences of falsehood and lie in politics, also in international politics.

A peculiar fundamental statement is for me a correspondence theory of truth. However, I am inclined to so-called approximation approach rather than classical stance. I assume that objective, universal and absolute truth exists. Nevertheless, its cognition requires a constant intellectual effort, an approach open to criticism, abilities to verify own opinions and readiness to change them if they turn out to be false. Truth is the aim of our cognition; however, it is the aim to which we constantly approach but we never achieve it completely. As it was metaphorically expressed by Karl Popper: „we are the seekers of truth, but not its owners”.\(^6\) Owning the truth is tantamount to totalization; making it a tool used by people with totalitarian tendencies, which I will explain in a further part of the article.

Epistemological position with which I identify creates the consequences of ethical nature. Truth is not only an epistemological category but also an ethical one, which is essential for normative political theories as well as normative theories of mass media. Truth can be examined in a category of aim or realization of the function of political and media systems. We may examine the issue from the other side, that is what consequences result from its deficit. I use the notion of *deficit* consciously. In relation to truth it encompasses two more notions which are sometimes wrongly treated as synonyms. These notions are falsehood and lie. While the truth is an epistemological and ethical category at the same time, falsehood is exclusively an epistemological category, and lie – an ethical category. The notion of falsehood is neutral in ethical respects, however it may cause certain moral consequences: by wrong discerning of the situation they may commit morally wrong acts. Whereas lie is morally wrong by nature because it is a conscious announcement of untruth (falsehood). In this paper I will refer to falsehood as well as to lie.

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2 Influence of mass media on political and international sphere

The notion of political system is an important analytical category in political science. While analysing the functioning of political system relations which occur between the system and its setting as well as sub-systems, that is the elements comprising this system are taken into consideration. Interactions which happen in this system are caused by the process of communication and information exchange. The significant role of mass media constituting so-called media system which is included in the content of political system setting and is a sub-system of social system reveals. Mass media perform the function of channels thanks to which information gets through to particular sub-systems of political system and its setting. Although there are various, sometimes excluding, theories concerning the relations between media and politics, for example the theory of instrumentalization and dependency theory, by means of systemic analysis we may indicate constitutive features of this relation which will be difficult to question. Certainly we deal here with the functioning of media in democratic conditions. These relations assume the form of mutual dependencies. On one hand, political system, and to be precise political institutions which form it, need legitimization, which can be ensured by mass media by informing public opinion about decisions and actions taken by the political centres as well as explaining their aim and possible consequences. Mass media provide political decision-makers and institutions with knowledge on social reception of their decisions and actions. On the other hand, mass media need information which for them is the basic ingredient ensuring the production of information materials. The basic providers of political information are the subjects of political system, such as political institutions, parties or parliamentary factions etc.7 There is so-called feedback between politics and media, which indicates a strong connection between both spheres. Media shape political reality but at the same time the sphere of politics has an influence on media and media system. On account of the objective of this article, I concentrate rather on the influence of mass media on politics. However, contents transferred via mass media by decision-making centres and political actors, as for example propaganda forms the sphere of political relations. Media perform the role of an intermediary in the process of self-forming of political system.

Winfried Schulz, a German political scientist and a theoretician of political communication, pays attentions to the phenomenon of mediazation of politics, which consists of actions mediating in the political processes such as:\(^8\)

- Collecting and selecting political information and spreading it to a vast masses of recipients; information whose source is mass media often constitutes the only premises to take up actions in public sphere by the citizens and political elites;
- Interpreting and assessing political events, political actors and decisions as well as the expectations of public opinions;
- Influencing current political events which lead to the creation of “pseudo-events” and fictional reality, which become the basis of political actions.

Selecting information, providing the interpretation of facts and events, assessing decisions and political actions, mass media have a great influence on the formation of public opinion. Mass media can effectively affect the form and course of political debate. Unlike political actors, they do not bear any political responsibility.\(^9\)

Mediazation process is characteristic of contemporary political reality. In this process, media system interferes in political system. Media become the central point of political processes. Mediazation of politics displays in the following way:

- stronger alloying of media reality with political and social reality;
- more frequent experience of politics by means of media images;
- directing behaviours and political actions towards the logics od media system.

Briefly speaking, mediazation is a consequence of adjusting the subjects of politics to the systemic logics of mass media.\(^10\) The influence of mass media goes beyond the framework of domestic politics. Mass media shape the opinions concerning international issues and at the same time

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they affect the shape of foreign policy. Under its pressure or under the pressure of public opinion created by media, political decision-makers determine the course of foreign policy of the state, take specific decisions or actions. Therefore, one can mention the influence of mass media on the shape of international order. Especially, so-called global media are able to effectively create international reality. In the theory of international relations, the notion of *CNN effect* or its synonyms such as *CNN curie* or *CNN factor* appears quite frequently. This global TV network has become a symbol of the effect of media on political decision-makers who, under its pressure, take certain decisions and actions. This effect is enhanced by the real time during which the broadcast happens. Electronic media such as CNN, BBC, Al Jazeera, Fox News etc. provide information about events and information from the events as they happen, “live”. In a flash journalists arrive at places where “something is happening”, reporting the course of events to millions of viewers.  

An American political scientist Steven Livingstone specializing in political communication and international relations points at three functions of *CNN effect*: (1) as an accelerant to policy decision-making; (2) an impediment to the achievement of desired policy goals; (3) a policy agenda-setting agent. 

Global *real-time* media significantly shorten the time of response which political decision-makers must give concerning the events. Decisions are taken in a hurry, sometimes even dangerously fast as Livingstone notices. Such decisions may be unreasonable, hasty and or ill-judged. Politicians do not have time for consultation, reflection, detailed analyses or discussions concerning the issues provoked by media. Instant media conveying has also resulted in the formation of so-called *real-time diplomacy*. Political decision-makers as well as diplomatic service must react to all media reports and notifications in real time. Their comments are often diplomatic signals sent via global media to other participants of international relations.

Suggestive images broadcast in global *real-time* media may contribute and evoke negative emotions in the audience and at the same time shape the public opinion so that it would affect political decision-makers in order to abandon further actions. Therefore, *CNN effect* is perceived as


an obstacle in achieving political aims. A perfect example of this kind of reaction of public opinion is an American intervention in Somalia in 1993. The decision of Bill Clinton to withdraw American army happened after the broadcast of the programme in which the bodies of American soldiers killed in the streets of Mogadishu. Global media broadcasting in real-time may also pose a threat to operational security. Military leaders are often surrounded by journalists who accompany the armed forces. A careless word uttered near journalists, showing readiness to military action may endanger the success of the action.

Livingstone ultimately indicates a certain reduction of premises of foreign policy which relies on their convergence with the content of media notifications. Certainly he does not think that media create foreign policy ex nihilo but they affect the change of priorities towards the re-orientation of foreign policy. Briefly speaking, media as an agenda-setting-agent have a significant influence on determining the aims in foreign policy, especially in the scope of prevention of humanitarian crises and cruelty connected with a war or persecutions.13

3 Truth in postmodern mass media

Contemporary media systems of liberal societies of the West are based on axiology in which the supremacy of freedom over truth is noticeable; some contemporary philosophical-political notions treat truth as a threat to freedom and the source of authoritarianism. Postmodernism propagating the pluralism of idea and values juxtaposes with the creation and propagation of “absolute truth”.14 For postmodernists references to the arguments of truth mean return to the time characterized by lack of tolerance and violence committed in the name of “truth, which 20th century totalitarianisms are a good example of. Therefore, postmodernism treats departing from the principle of truth in social and political life as a moral imperative. It is (e.g. Barry Allen or Michale Foucault) a tool of control, an instrument of power over behaviours.15

However, on the threshold of modernity freedom was supposed to be a guarantor of truth. Liberal thinkers, such as John Stuart Mill (1806-1873), were convinced that the way to truth leads through freedom. Only in the conditions of freedom can one discover truth as Mill was convincing.\textsuperscript{16} The code of journalistic ethics coming from the 19\textsuperscript{th} and 20\textsuperscript{th} century tradition indicated and often still indicates a moral imperative of striving for and propagating the truth. However, it is an expression of the state of emergency, certain point of reference for journalists or generally media people. Reality shows, after all, how far media distance themselves from the provisions of the ethics code.\textsuperscript{17} This dissonance between a norm stating the necessity of propagating (objective) truth and a reality in which marginalizing the meaning of truth is inscribed in contemporary way of thinking. Contemporary world wrongfully called “steady modernity” rather avoids entangling into dull searching for and remaining in truth. Truth in its absolute and universal dimension does not guarantee a commercial success. It may become anti-democratic and anti-liberal as it may affect the will of majority as well as the demands of the minority groups. Post-modern political philosophy forces us to see in truth an enslaving factor which limits our freedom. Therefore, it is an ethical imperative to reject the values of truth for the benefit of relativism and egalitarianism of opinions, ideas and points of view. Truth has stopped – as it was perceived by a classic of liberalism John Stuart Mill – to be the aim of debates, disputes or exchanges of opinions, but it has become “suspected” of authoritarianism and totalitarianism. And it is not without reason, at least partially. There was truth behind each totalitarianism: class, racial, national truth. Totalitarianisms created “their own truth” promoting it as ultimate, universal and absolute truth. In fact, they have rejected epistemological absolutism establishing totalizing relativism as an epistemological and ethical rule. Absolute truth yielded to “total truth”. As it was rightly noticed by a British historian Robert Conquest: totalitarianism may be perceived as an extreme form of ideological subjectivism where the machinery of the state serves first and foremost to impose the ideas of the sovereign or the ruling group.\textsuperscript{18}


Postmodernism is seen as a counterbalance to this type of tendencies. In my opinion, seemingly. Ernest Gellner notices the sources of contemporary post-modernistic approach in one of totalizing modern ideologies, namely Marxism. It is though that Marxists assumed that true objectivity required speaking from the perspective of class and politically adequate position. Therefore, it is a reduction of objectivism and objective truth to inter-subjectivism. The place of objective truth has been taken by a class rightness. From a postmodernistic view there are various equal narrations concerning reality. The degree of truthfulness does not have the slightest significance.

Media and media people from a post-modernistic viewpoint do not have the obligation to present facts in an objective way. Postmodernism undermines the existence of such objectivism. In media practice there occurs a situation of breaking truth away from the announcement. Truth referring to ontological order but in the epistemological layer being an agreement of thought and that ontological order is not treated as a moral imperative any longer. It is not about the cognition of truth. The role of information which by definition is supposed to be at least intentionally true (false information is disinformation) is taken over by so-called news, which in fact is a commercial product. The aim is to sell the news that is media sensation, not to inform and therefore conveying true information. Even what is defined as truth has a commercial character, often assuming the form of psychological pornography. A good example of such approach to the notion of truth is a programme broadcast in many language versions called Moments of Truth. Truth is not treated as an epistemological and ethical category. Its aim is to shock the viewers. It is all about performance during which man is stripped off his privacy and intimacy.

4 Political and international sphere affected by truth-free media

Empirical evidence indicates that news reports are often far from reality. However, they are not a neutral carrier of objective information. What

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may be surprising, the recipients of media announcements take it as an objective truth. Mass media create their own reality rather than inform about objective reality. Both internal and international policy is not free from this creation. It is just the opposite, creating political reality becomes a mission for many media concerns. Politicians become celebrities, they create themselves and they are created to be actors of soap operas, reality shows or film heroes. Political debates do not have substantial character. What is important is a political performance and for a performance substantial disputes are simply boring, therefore an emotional debate is created. Journalists frequently add fuel to the atmosphere, provoke, dynamize antagonists rather than ask reasonable and matter-of-fact questions. Viewers’ attentions is attracted by sensation, so media people search for it venturing into private lives of politicians or exaggerating single incidents. Enhancing the atmosphere of fear, uncertainty and inevitability of evil is a perfect marketing strategy. A viewer, a reader or a listener cannot stop absorbing information of rather quasi or pseudo-information. The above-mentioned Winfried Schulz evaluates mass media approach categorically. He believes that “mass media are not in fact representative for reality and for sure they do not reflect it. Media announcements are often imprecise and deformed. Sometimes they present the image of the world which is clearly biased and ideologically tinged. Media reality allows the possibility to conclude concerning physical features of the world, social structures of course of events or disintegration of public opinion to a limited degree”.

This situation is a consequence of departing from the principle of truth. It poses serious threats to a political sphere, especially to democracy and civic political culture. If the principle of truth is not the fundamental premises for the functioning of media, especially so-called information media, its place will be taken over by a commercial principle of profit. As a Polish political scientist and political philosopher Stanisław Filipowiecz notes: media occupied by the production of information and opinions are driven by “their own interests and not imaginary ideals of objectivity and objective rightness”.

A great threat to a civic culture is populism which accompanies the mediazation of politics. Commercial success is guaranteed not by ambitious programmes or substantial disputes but by easy, light and pleasant entertainment. Therefore, media are used to flattering average tastes and adoring mediocrity. It also concerns the sphere of media and political programmes. Politicians have stopped fighting for support by means of substantial reasoning. Election success is guaranteed not by substantiality but by mediality. It was well presented by a Czech prime minister Stanislav Gross: „the only reality is what media broadcast” [Quoted after: „Forum” 2004, nr 32, p. 15]. Media reality is far from promoting civic culture, this must be based on the ideal of truth and reason in Enlightenment and liberal tradition. In the post-modernistic world the citizens have been transformed into consumers. Politics also becomes a marketing sphere. As political philosophers Paweł Dybel and Szymon Wróbel notice this can result in the crisis of democracy, which is the crisis of representation (media politicians instead of statesmen) and participation (consumers instead of citizen).24

Media philosopher Michał Drożdż after Polish philosopher Wojciech Chudy proves that departing from truth which on an ethical level is included in a category of truthfulness, leads to a disintegration of community. “Without truthfulness – he claims – that is moral efficacy, which induces particular people to convey true information and be true in a language and media broadcast, social life would be simply impossible because every mistake, falsehood, manipulation of truth and lie violate the basic bonds of a community: mutual trust, openness to others, cooperation etc. Truth is a constitutive value both for person integrity and for unity and integrity of a community. Any negation of this value by means of information which carry falsehood undermines the foundation of a community.25

Consequences of departing from the principle of truth also concern the international sphere. Our knowledge of international reality comes from media images and reports. The way events happening on an international plain are presented or the way how other nations and countries are presented affect relations between nations in an interpersonal and

institutional dimension. What accompanies international conflicts is so-called media war. Media become a propaganda tube distorting the image of reality, strengthen stereotypes and prejudices. There are also many examples which can be found in Russian-Ukrainian relations. In media reports concerning international politics universal truth often lose to a particular interest. Truth is demanding. When it comes to relations between nations, it requires confession to guilt or mistakes. Political decision-makers can seldom have such a courage. It could endanger their political ratings. Therefore, they prefer to propagate their own truth under the pretext of objectivism and realism. However, departing from the principle of truth and objectivism will result in adding fuel to conflicts, breeding distrust and hatred as a basis of relations between nations. The power of propaganda is huge. Even enlightened and educated people give in to it because it is based on a simplified model of reality, which is rooted in our sub-consciousness. As a mass we are accustomed to schemes, and media schematically consolidate this thinking.

In her well-known book *The Origins of Totalitarianism* Hanna Arendt noticed that masses „do not believe in anything visible, in the reality of their own experience; they do not trust their eyes and ears but only their imaginations, which may be caught by anything that is at once universal and consistent in itself. What convinces masses are not facts, and not even invented facts, but only the consistency of the system of which they are presumably part. (...) the masses refuse to recognize is the fortuitousness that pervades reality. They are predisposed to all ideologies because they explain facts as mere examples of laws and eliminate coincidences by inventing as all-embracing omnipotence which is supposed to be at the root of every accident. Totalitarian propaganda thrives on this escape from reality into fiction, from coincidence into consistency‟. Although the times of 20th century totalitarianisms are already gone, we still give in to the charm of “total” truths. It is provided to us via media by a secular left wing with its political correctness as well as religious right wing which aspires to establish a legal order in accordance with the teaching of the Church.

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Conclusions

Restoration of the principle of objectivism and objective truth in media appear as an ethical imperative. This is the only way we may prevent ourselves from negative consequences which are carried by relativism with its indifference or hostility towards truth. Media people must first put a lot of effort to self-improve for truth and then realize how important is it in media broadcast. Obviously, there appears a doubt to what extent it is possible to objectively get acquainted with reality and communicate this cognition in an objective manner. It is easy to fall into naïve objectivism and naïve faith owning objective truth. This may lead to totalization and become another “total truth”. The principle of truth is not contradicted by the principle of pluralism and freedom of speech. It is just the opposite, it is a guarantor of truth, to which John S. Mill already paid attention. Similarly truth may be a guarantor of freedom – a Polish Catholic philosopher Józef Tischner wrote: “There is no freedom in liberation from the value of truth (...) The more truth there is between us, the more freedom”.

Freedom of speech and opinion pluralism are both inscribed in media objectivism. In democratic conditions media must present various opinions taking all social powers into consideration and giving them the possibility to express their own opinions. Media should be – as Stanisław Michalczyk convinces multilaterally journalistic” and “a structure of media reality (that is, presenting reality by media) should reflect objective reality to an optimal degree”. As for journalists’ objectivism, a catalogue of postulates encompasses such principles as: (a) using facts (truth postulate), (b) completeness and complementarity of news and reports, (c) separating commentary from information, (d) distinct emphasis of journalistic opinions, (e) providing sources of information, (f) broadcast of information should be free from emotions, (g) neutrality and lack of involvement in reports from events and descriptions of situations, (h) avoiding being biased, that is rejecting political premises of information and commentaries.

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THE PROPOSAL OF BEHAVIOR STRATEGY RELATED TO DEMANDING SOCIAL SITUATIONS IN MANAGEMENT OF SECONDARY ART SCHOOL WITH THE USE OF INNOVATIVE PREDICTIVE SOFTWARE TOOLS

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ABSTRACT:
The article proposal deals with objectives related to program of perspectives within secondary art school development, where a set of new approaches and methods are being applied, while the approaches are concerned to education and culture context existing in unified Europe. The article provides insight on the behavior of people in school art management in difficult social situations. The aim of the article is grasping a strategy of conduct leading teaching staff in the management of secondary art school and thus achieve competitive advantage through the deployment strategy capable employees in the required professional qualification structure and their subsequent management, motivating a better, higher quality and more competent performance. Good management, appropriate strategic practices, training, collecting knowledge and experience, but especially good communication skills, gaining the ability to develop the company and create capital.

KEY WORDS:
innovation, management, social science, secondary art schools, predictive

1 Introduction

The article aim is to find a set of new solutions concerned to management of demanding situations, when managing secondary art schools, while the above-mentioned solutions should be concerned to theoretical and methodological aspects and to utilization of innovative facilities existing within prediction software products as well. The article hereinafter known as “Project” should bring a set of new solutions within one of much actual scientific and research problems, from the whole world point of view. There is a set of clearly pre-defined Project goals, which correspond to the latest research trends concerned to the above mentioned objective observed in the world, however it represents a permanent contribution within scientific and research activities and acquaintance as well.
2 Digest

The issue of proposal of behavior strategy related to demanding social situations in management of secondary art school with the use of innovative predictive software tools addressed many foreign and domestic authors. In this study we present the results of developing the original SSPMPR methodology (Sposoby spravania v manazerskej praci – Ways of behaving in managerial work). The analyzed data were got from 174 respondents, from various positions in management. The gained results claimed the ingenuity of the empirical-inductive approach to defining the taxonomy of these ways along with specifying five factors: emotional factor of coping, cognitive factor of coping I, cognitive factor of coping II, behavioral factor of coping I and behavioral factor of coping II. The presented basic parameters of the developed methodology (factor structure, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, intercorrelations of factors, validation study) show the suitability of this methodology for prediction and detection of the ways of solving demanding situations in managerial work, with obvious implications in performance of managers and in efficiency of business management.¹

The report presents the results of the verification of the original methodology MESI - Measuring Social Intelligence and its validation study. The data for verification of the factor structure of the MESI methodology were gained from 2135 respondents and the validation study with the TSIS methodology (Tromso Social Intelligence Scale) was carried out on the sample of 1130 respondents. Subsequently, the data which were based on the usage of the MESI and TSIS methodologies were analyzed in relation to the selected characteristics of male and female managers. The acquired results confirm the fact that the managers evaluated themselves more positively in the factors of empathy, manipulation, social information processing, social skills and social awareness.²

Grant³ points to a new educational paradigm for the new millennium: Consciousness-based education. It is the year 2050 and education is

³ GRANT, J.: A new educational paradigm for the new millennium. In
dramatically different from education in the 20th century. At the basis of the new education is the insight that a field of pure consciousness exists which can easily be experienced by all. From this insight, a new educational paradigm has emerged - consciousness-based education - with a more profound understanding of human development and how to promote it. The primary goal of education now is enlightenment and the entire curriculum is organised to foster this goal. The flowering of human potential produced by this educational approach has created a new age for humanity - the Age of Enlightenment.

Rogers in this paper: „A paradigm Shift: Technology Integration for Higher Education in the New Millennium.” According to the 1998 National Survey of Information Technology in Higher Education, integrating technology into instruction looms as the single most important issue confronting institutional Information Technology (IT) efforts over the next 2-3 years (Green, Campus Computing, 1998). This view is reinforced by several recent studies of the faculty’s use of technology in instruction, which indicate that many instructors do not use it in any systematic or curricular way, if at all (Caffarella, 1999; Parker, 1997; Albright, 1997; Schwieso, 1993)⁴. With National Technology Competencies being prepared for K-12 schools, it only stands to reason that technology competencies for higher education must also be implemented. But it is important to note that requiring a set of skills or technology competencies for each instructor does not insure technology will be used in the classroom or that it will be used effectively to enhance instruction. Implementing technology competencies may be a catalyst, but effective use of technology in the classroom will require a paradigm shift from “teaching” to “learning,” which will require adequate training in technology and learning styles, as well as adequate technical support. Thus, it is the contention of this article that for universities to remain competitive in the new millennium, they must develop cohesive training programs with an emphasis on learning and provide adequate technical support that will assist faculty in integrating technology into instruction.


3 The “virtual classroom” professor

Many educators question the legitimacy of online courses (Mendels, 1998; Reich, 1999; Stancill, 1999). They view online courses as inferior to the traditional classroom lecture, because they assume distance courses cannot be rigorous enough to be academic. On the contrary, the instructor, with proper knowledge of how to use technology, can create a cyber classroom equal to – and in some cases, superior to – the traditional “bricks and mortar” classroom (Schulman & Sims, 1999). Interactivity has long been considered to be a key to success in traditional classrooms (Webster & Hackley 1997). Students experiencing higher levels of interaction have been shown to have more positive and higher levels of achievements (Fulford & Zhang, 1993). The same applies to successful DL programs (Gold & Maitland, 1999). California State University at Northridge, for example, found their virtual students tested 20% better across the board than their counterparts who learned in a traditional classroom and spent 50% more time working with each other than people in the traditional class (Black, 1997). It is important to note that a good classroom professor is not necessarily a good online professor. The virtual classroom professor must select and filter information and provide thought-provoking questions to generate discussion. One professor noted that online, in “six months, I have routinely led the level of discussion that I only dreamed of leading as a traditional professor” (Kettner-Polley, 1999).

How can this be? These seven points of educational technologies, using teaching/learning principles that can facilitate interactive learning communities, can foster such results:

1. Asynchronous communication technologies (i.e., email, listservs) provide more frequent and timely interactions between students and faculty.
2. Both synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) technologies expand options for working in learning groups and encourage reciprocity and cooperation among students.
3. Well-planned online teaching environments support active learning techniques such as reflective thinking, peer interaction, and collaborative learning activities.
4. Computer-mediated DL has the capacity to support immediate instructional feedback; it is easy to send out new information, revisions to the syllabus or schedule, or immediate feedback.
on student work at any time instead of waiting for weekly class meetings.

5. It can make studying more efficient by providing immediate online access to important learning resources. Emphasis is placed on meeting instructional goals and performance objectives, rather than spending time in class.

6. Use of it can assist students in improving their cognitive skills by providing examples of excellence and convenient, accessible, flexible forums for self and peer evaluation.

7. Web-based asynchronous learning programs permit each participant to progress through the program content at his or her own pace, and the wide range of text, images, and multimedia available can support a variety of learning styles (Cravener, 1998; Sorcinelli, 1995).5

Nagpaul in this paper: „Visualizing cooperation networks of elite institutions in India“ they have analyzed the pattern of cooperation links among fifty most prolific institutions (hereafter called “elite institutions”) in India. The network of relationships among these institutions is sparse and more than two thirds of the cells in the collaboration matrix are empty. The network is centralized, but no institution dominates the network. It is only a set of few institutions that dominate the network. We have constructed a measure (bonacich eigenvector centrality index) to assess the position of each institution in the network. Barring a few notable exceptions, scientific size of an institution is directly related to its position in the network. We have graphically depicted the network of relationships among these institutions above a certain threshold of cooperation strength. The network incorporating 50 nodes and 171 arcs provides a synoptic view of bilateral relations among the institutions, but it is quite complex. We have therefore developed a block model of the network to assess the macro level features of cooperation links among the institutions. The block model indicates the isolation and marginality of certain clusters (or blocks) of institutions.6 Schmidt-Wilk, J. (1996, pages. 429 – 444) in this paper: „developing consciousness in organizations: the transcendental meditation program in business.“ reviews retrospective, prospective, and case


research on workplace applications of maharishi’s transcendental meditation technique for developing consciousness and human potential. The distinctive psychophysiological state of restful alertness produced by the transcendental meditation technique appears to improve employee health, well-being, job satisfaction, efficiency and productivity, in turn influencing organizational climate, absenteeism, and financial performance.

4 The applicability of the research results and implementation procedures

The main Project goal is to design and to select a set of optimal behaviour strategies within demanding social situation, which might happen, when providing management of art schools with the use of predicting software tools, while neural network based technologies play a role of principal importance there and the Project results will be applied within social and economy practice too. In order to achieve the Project main goal, a set of partial aims should be postulated and fulfilled. They are postulated as follows:

• To enrich acquaintance concerned to managing of demanding situations, which might happen in providing of school and company management activities as for methodology and theory level related to solutions of pre-defined problems.
• To create a set of original models concerned to appropriate processes with the use of linguistic approach.
• To identify and analyse the behaviour strategies in demanding social situations concerned to management of schools and companies for men and women.
• To provide a research via standardized questionnaires aimed to stress management strategies observed at managers as a result of demanding situations and to compare measured results with standardized ones.
• To make the questionnaire new design with respect to research results.
• To provide historical data processing with the use of software tools operating based on predicate calculus algorithms, which enable creating of classification and regress analysis models.
• To provide historical data processing with the use of software tools operating based on cluster analysis algorithms, where the Kohonen’s network plays a role of significant importance.
• To provide historical data processing with the use of software tools operating based on algorithms utilizing time series prediction calculus.
• To prepare a proposal of Centre for Strategies, which deals with behaviour in demanding situations observed at art schools, where the neural networks could be applied.
• To prepare and take a scientific conference, where scientific and research results should be presented and compared with results and opinions postulated by domestic authorities and authorities from abroad.
• To prepare and publish scientific monograph, which should contain a set of original solutions concerned to behaviour in demanding situations occurring in management of art schools with the use of neural network technology.

A set of different scientific methods will be applied, when looking for the solutions of the above-mentioned problems, while information resources, which contain latest scientific and research results concerned these problems play a role of principle importance in looking for the solutions of predefined problems. A set of various electronic scientific databases, like WEB OF KNOWLEDGE, CURRENT CONTENTS CONNECT, etc., represents those information resources.

5 Original and innovative character of the project

The Project brings original solutions related to pre-defined aims and goals and its concept and solution methodology is clearly defined. A set of expected results should be achieved based on appropriate creative activities aimed to new knowledge generation, while an original process model created based on linguistic approach should be designed and implemented as well. We are convinced that the Project solutions bring results having the principle influence related to further development of the above-mentioned objectives concerned to management of art schools in content of education and culture within our common Europe. The Project results might be postulated as follows:

• Creation and establishment of centre, which deals with problems of behaviour strategy in demanding situations occurred within management of schools and companies operating based on neural network technology.
• Preparing and publishing of scientific monograph, which deals with original solutions closely related to behaviour strategies in
demanding situations occurred in management of art schools operating with the use of neural network technology.  
- Implementation and operation of e-learning course, which deals with problems related to behaviour strategies in demanding social situations, when providing management of art schools with use of neural network technology.
- Published issues in significant scientific and research magazines in the Slovak republic and in abroad.

When considering methodology point of view, the Project research solutions might be significant within Trans-situation stability of behaviour strategy. However, the Project results will represent an enrichment concerned to managing of demanding situations occurred in management of art schools at methodology level objective theory development as well. When considering concrete contributions of that Project, the results could be applied within activities closely related to management of art schools and improves efficiency of those activities. However, the results might be useful within recruitment people for managerial positions, education and training of managers and predicting potential risk factors, when managing the demanding situations as well. At present, there are a lot of ways, how to improve efficiency of managerial work and it is closely related to final efficiency of the society. A solution of those problems is actual and a lot of sciences who deal with different scientific areas. On the other hand, a solution of those problems is closely related to improvement of management position within competitive environment. When looking at the previous facts, we can see a need of proposal preparation concerned to behavior strategy in demanding situations occurred within management of schools and companies with the use of software tools operating based on predicting algorithms.

6 The structure of the project, the quality of preparation, the logical interconnection of the implementation procedures

The Project schedule is being proposed with respect to sequence of partial solutions concerned to fulfilment of pre-defined goal and is postulated as follows:
• Identification and analysis of behaviour strategies in demanding social situations, when managing schools, while position of men and women should be investigated extra.
• Research and investigation provided via standardized questionnaires concerned to managing of stress situations by managers in demanding situations and comparison results with standardized ones postulated in questionnaires, while analysis, evaluation and synthesis are considered the methods to be applied for those purposes.
• Design of questionnaire new version based on research experiences and appropriate analysis methods.
• Historical data processing with use of software tools operating based on predicting algorithms together with a set of classifying and regression analysis based models are considered to that processing results and a set of appropriate classification models should be designed and implemented based on the above-mentioned processing results.
• A creation of original process model based on linguistic approach, while the previous research and analysis results should create basis for those purposes.
• Testing of newly developed models and methods concerned to managing demanding situations in management of real schools and companies and preparing a set of generalized criteria and arguments for judgment such situations.
• Historical data processing with the use of appropriate application software operating based on predicting, Kohonen network and cluster analysis algorithms which enable creating a set predicting time series.
• Preparation of design and implementation of the Centre for Behavior Strategies in demanding Situations in management schools, where technologies based neural network algorithms will be applied.
• Preparation of scientific conferences and seminars, where achieved results should be presented and compared with opinions presented by authorities from the Slovak republic and from abroad.
• Preparation and publishing scientific monograph, which should contain a set of original solutions concerned to behaviour in demanding situations occurring in management of art schools with the use of neural network technology.
• Implementation and operation the e-learning course, which deals with problems related to behaviour strategies in demanding
social situations, when providing management of art schools and companies with use of neural network technology.

- Design and implementation of optimal behavior strategies in demanding social situations occurred within management of art schools with the use of prediction software tools and their application within economic and social practice.

Conclusion

The article aim is to find a set of new solutions concerned to management of demanding situations, when managing secondary schools, while the above-mentioned solutions should be concerned to theoretical and methodological aspects and to utilization of innovative facilities existing within prediction software products as well. The proposal of behavior strategy related to demanding social situations in management of secondary art school with the use of innovative predictive software tools, as well as improving the quality of educational process, culture conflict resolution is determined by the dispute resolution ultimately contributes to the prevention of socio-pathological phenomena, to the shaping of a favorable climate and culture secondary art school. The path to a successful solution and proposal of behavior strategy related to demanding social situations is through moral assumptions, self-reflection, self-control, self-motivation. Successful manager or manager should possess lots of social skills to communicate effectively, handle criticism, ability to handle complimented with a positive assessment, constructively solve problems, must be able to identify the problem, then the assessment act accordingly. What reproach proposal of behavior strategy related to demanding social situations are chosen it is up to the discretion and competence of senior managers and teaching staff. Each situation may be unique and also every person is inherently unique personality. It is not possible to create a template of success in coping with social context, but you can create systemic measures, recommendations and mechanisms of decision-making, preparation of training, where problems in coping with difficult social situations in the management of secondary art school.

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TRANSFORMATION OF THE MEDIA GARDEN


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ABSTRACT:
Contemporary family faces many deep changes in its structure, functions and relationships. The fragile family shell has to cope with diverse influences that affect its everyday life. The more complicated media reality enters the homes of contemporary families, the more important are internal family processes. Importance of family media education and communication about media contents grows with the power of virtual space in lives of today’s population. The growing generation gap brings complications also in family education and relationships. While most of contemporary parents belong to generations of digital immigrants, their children are usually called as digital natives, generation M, etc. Responsibility of parents to develop media literacy by their children often collides with their own level of competencies and understanding of new technologies. Regardless this situation, they are aware of family education’s significance and of family value’s reproduction. The text stresses the generations’ differences between contemporary parents and children and their negotiation concerning the media use, media content and media influence. The paper shows different views on media topics between both groups and proposes possibilities to support the family values in order to strengthen generational solidarity and family cohesion.

KEY WORDS:
family, parents, children, generation, media literacy, media education, communication

1 Introduction
The concept of family values varies from society to society and mainly consists from ideas of how to live your family life. The values partly come from the culture and society; partly they are constructed in everyday life of particular families. Family values could be understood also as foundation for finding a good behaviour in various situations, for help to make good choices and the way for strengthening of the family cohesion. Family values are often “passed down from previous generations and include the moral and ethical principles traditionally upheld and transmitted within a family, as honesty, loyalty, industry, and faith”.

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can be also defined as shared beliefs among the family members about what is important, what to do, what to prefer, how to make choices, what to expect from the family members, etc. As noted by Ilguniene and Griškevičiute “all fundamental family values have a spiritual basis and are essential for harmony in family life”. They are partly constant and partly changing. However, the question of contemporary family values is highly topical. In this text we want to depict the family values related to media education and perceive them from the point of view of contemporary children. E.g. Livingstone\textsuperscript{3} depicts the trend of new socialization and media effects that spread towards to unknown and less clear actors. Contemporary children grow up into a fast changing society where their socialization is provided by new ways and through new factors. In plural and medialized society apart from educational and socialization actions of parents, teachers and other immediate social ideals there comes into a socialization play many other actors and mediated patterns of behaviour. Does it mean that children are less affected by educational efforts of their parents? Is development of media literacy in families part of their values today? Do children reflect these ideas in their everyday lives? What challenges brings it to the family life nowadays?

2 Medialization of contemporary family and its educational context – example of the Czech Republic

According to various sources, contemporary European family can be called media-rich.\textsuperscript{4} Data of the Czech Statistical Office\textsuperscript{5} show that in Czech households with children the computers are represented by 92 %, internet connection has up to 91,5 % households with children, mobile phones 99 % of households with children. Similarly the survey data of the Centre of Media Studies\textsuperscript{6} inform about the situation in Czech households


from the year 2011. They also confirm that the presence of children up to 18 years of age have a significant effect on the household internet equipment. In our survey of contemporary families’ lifestyle\(^7\) was shown that in families with children were some types of media represented in higher number than just only once. On average the Czech families had according to data of this survey more than 3 mobile phones, 1 television and 1 computer. Besides, more than a half of households had more than two computers and two televisions and more than 94% families had two or more mobile phones.

The possession of new media (thus game consoles, tablets, mp3 and iPods) was statistically associated with the number of children in the family (Spearman 0,94, sig. < 0,01). More children in the family, more equipment the family had. Therefore we can boldly call the Czech contemporary family as media-saturated maybe over-saturated. Children nowadays have more often several types of mobile devices which enables uncontrolled information and media content access. With the regard to that the family media education can be considered as to be an important factor of the preparation of young generation for coping with diverse touches of media manipulation. The massive facing

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the media environment and media content brings new challenges and new perspectives also to family and media education. Jenkins\textsuperscript{8} mentions the importance of media literacy in three core points. He states that children and youth have a different approach to media technologies and possibilities to participate and talks about a participation gap. Secondly he points to the fact that young generation is notable to differ between commercial interests which are found in the media and its interpretation and real facts without these interests and calls it a transparency problem. The third key point is by Jenkins the ethics challenge. He presumes that young generation should be far more supported in order to reflect their own ethical decisions where they play a role as recipients and communicators and to realize the impacts which can affect others. Especially in the second and third area is possible to perceive a crucial role of contemporary parents and family upbringing.

Responsibility for media education lies heavily on parents themselves, despite their possible lack of knowledge and of orientation in new media world. Without regard to their age, contemporary parents still belong to generations of digital immigrants. On contrary, children belong to generations of digital natives\textsuperscript{9} or generation M.\textsuperscript{10} They are experts especially in the space of new media and bring their knowledge from peers to families and their intergenerational relationships. Generation inversion also brings new challenges and inputs to family education and media literacy development. Furthermore, contemporary parents are responsible for socialization into a future society that cannot be fully predicted now. Regardless these complications the core skills that should be implemented through media education and digital literacy development are embedded in critical thinking, creativity and self-confidence in relation to the media environment and media messages.


3 Family values in the medialization context

General recommendation within the concept of media education focus on what should be represented by building up media literacy and how it should be aimed. But we ask if these recommendations are in accordance with what is perceived as a part of generally shared values which are related to parenthood. Are these recommendations for building up media literacy in accordance with the basic views at up to date good parenthood and what the contemporary parents consider as the aim of their effort?

We assume that idea of “good parenting” in current European societies includes some messages related to media education too. At web pages or in books for parents, there are contained basic information about how to be a good parent. What the information actually contain? There can be found expressions like:

- What you do matters.
- You cannot be too loving.
- Be involved in your child’s life.
- Adapt your parenting to fit your child.
- Establish rules and set limits.
- Help foster your child’s independence.
- Be consistent.
- Avoid harsh discipline.
- Explain your rules and decisions.
- Treat your child with respect

These recommendations can be easily viewed as basic family values related to the childrearing and education. In consequence, these statements could be also implemented in the sphere of media education in family too. They could also be linked to various types of parental monitoring that has been developed. In short, restrictive monitoring

11 Compare: BUERMANN, U.: Jak (pře)žít s médii. Fabula : Hranice, 2009;
13 Compare: VALKENBURG, P. M., et al.: Developing a scale to assess three styles
TRANSFORMATION OF THE MEDIA GARDEN

e.g. includes the value of *establishing rules and setting limits*, co-viewing expects *involvement in the child’s life*. Active monitoring could include many of the statements up – *be involved in your child’s life, adapt your parenting to fit your child, help foster your child’s independence*, etc. This is to say that media education messages are fully complementary with expectations of contemporary parents. All these recommendations could help prepare contemporary children for the coping with changing, aggressive and unpredictable media messages. The more is contemporary family saturated in the field of media tools, the more should be parental monitoring related to positive parenting and family values shared by generations of contemporary adults.

We were able to study these values within our research of Czech parents that was implemented at the University of Hradec Králové in 2012. Through a questionnaire survey we obtained responses from 962 parents of children aged 6-17 years, 523 mothers and 439 fathers. The children were also interviewed; older children completed a questionnaire, younger school children were asked by an interviewer who wrote the responses down in the form. We obtained data from 466 children (233 boys and 233 girls) and could compare parents’ and children’s view of the way the media education is carried out in their families. There it was shown that most parents believed that it was necessary to set time for the use of media and also to have a control or determine the content which would the children spend on. Our findings have demonstrated that parents were convinced that upbringing should consist of these aspects of media regulation. Therefore we are convinced about the fact that family media education belongs to the basic family values included in “good parenting” of contemporary families.

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4 Are family values related to parental monitoring reflected by children?

As already outlined in the previous part, the active interest about children in the sense of “a good parenting” is related to generally shared values of contemporary parents. In what way are these ideals reflected in daily reality? How do the children reflect the effort of their parents? We were also able to look for the answers on these questions in data of our Czech survey. We asked on parental effort in the area of media education both parents and their children. At the same time we were aware of the fact that it is a view of two different generations and each perceives it differently. In a certain sense our aim was to undergo the parental answers to critical check via the view of their children. Do they perceive the effort of their parents in the same way? Do they feel interest from the parental side about media topics? Do the parents talk about the media issues as often as they declare themselves?

We wanted to observe the discrepancies in the views of the two participants of the media education process and compare how they perceive the situation. Many studies have dealt with the question of which responses should be taken in account when studying parents’ monitoring family media education. It is obvious that parents tend to respond in a way that is consistent with society’s expectations about their parenting practices. Different studies have shown discrepancies between the responses of parents and their children. However, what the parents say and how they behave do not have to be always the same.

We tried to capture the way children view their parents’ efforts in the field of media education and also to compare the responses of parents and their children in those questions where it was possible. We analysed data from 456 respondents whose age and gender structure is shown below (Table 1). We intended to compare the children’s views on the

extent to which their parents let them use the media and on parents’ efforts talk to them about the media.

Table 1
Age structure of responding children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Boys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6 – 8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - 11</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 - 15</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own processing

We have discovered that 65.4% of children said that they negotiate with parents on how long they can work on computer; 56.3% on how long they can watch television and 40% on how long they can play computer games. Agreeing on time spent on each media activity was clearly linked to the age of children. Older children seldom said that their parents limit the time, while younger children were more controlled by their parents. The children’s responses mirrored the data for the sample of parents. The same trend could be seen regarding media content where the youngest age category mentioned the highest degree of control on the parents’ side; with higher age most children said that they do not discuss with their parents the media content regardless of the media device. Overall, more than half of the children said that they discuss allowed computer activities and TV programs. There was a smaller share of those who had to agree with parents on the types of electronic games (32.7%).

When comparing parents’ and children’s responses it was revealed that mothers interfere the most in the children’s activities in all media devices – watching TV, using the computer and playing electronic games. In comparison with mothers, fathers’ views of the issue mirrored the children’s view more. Children reported much lower monitoring by parents, especially concerning the content. The biggest difference could be observed in the parental control of the content of computer games (Table 2). Parents were thus more convinced that they decide on the media devices their children can use than their children really reported.
Table 2
Control of time and content of children’s media activities from the viewpoint of each participant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TIME from viewpoint</th>
<th>CONTENT from viewpoint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mothers</td>
<td>fathers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic games</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>60.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own processing

Parents also often said that they know what games their children play and control their choice than the children really reported. Therefore, we got the impression that parents perceive the proper media monitoring as an important part of the concept of “good parenting”. Mothers probably felt a stronger urge to present themselves as good mothers putting emphasis on the media education. However, it is highly probable that neither one of the parents know what kind of information their children get through the media devices. The second option for explaining the differences in responses is that children are not aware of their parents’ monitoring as much as they think. Especially younger children might not have understood efforts of their parents.

The reasons for the differences in children’s and parents’ responses are usually explained either by differences in the views of respondents, or by certain family characteristics (e.g. families communicating less, families with boys) that cause parents to understate their monitoring. Some authors argue that the statements of parents and children do not differ and that they can be considered as a good indicator of parental behaviour. It is obvious that the older the children, the more their responses mirror those of their parents. Results of the Gentile et al. study, comparing the differences in responses of parents and their children in early

childhood, found differences in responses of both groups. Nevertheless, the authors state that both parents’ and children’s responses are a good basis for measuring the parental monitoring of TV watching and electronic games. Both groups of responses were almost equally good indicators of the connection between children’s time spent in front of TV screens, exposure to media violence and children’s performance in school. When differences appeared in parents’ and children’s responses, children’s responses were more reliable indicators. The authors state that the responses of children in middle childhood (8-10 years) may be considered as a good indicator for the evaluation of parental monitoring.

In our research, we also asked who sets the rules for the use of the media in the family. Children’s answers pointed to the mothers (28.4%) who were responsible for what children’s activities regarding TV and PC. Another 22% said that both parents decide on the activities together and roughly the same share of children reported that they discuss it with one of the parents. 16% of respondents said that it is a matter of negotiation in the whole family.

Table 3
Family member who usually decides on activities children are allowed to do regarding TV and PC (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family member</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion with one parent</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint discussion of all family members</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own processing

When comparing the views of parents and children on this issue, we see that children think that a joint agreement in the family does not take place as often as parents think. Children perceive the mother as the one who decides on their media activities; fathers emphasize a joint parental agreement; mothers often prefer joint agreement of all family members, i.e. both parents and children. One can notice from the findings that parents would be happy if such family matters worked well. Children believe that they participate on family decision making in about 39% of cases, while parents think they involve them more (50% of mothers and
45% of fathers). Possible explanations for these differences can be the desired image of the “good parent” or the fact that children would be happier if they were involved in such discussions more often.

Table 4
Family member who usually decides on activities children are allowed to do regarding TV and PC (in %)
Comparison of parents’ and children’s responses (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Responses of</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mothers</td>
<td>fathers</td>
<td>children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion with one parent</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint discussion of all members</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own processing

Further, 25% of children reported that parents check regularly whether they obey the rules for the use of computer and television. 16% of children said that their parents never control them and these were mainly older children. The dependence between parental control and children’s age was statistically significant (p < 0.001). Older children were controlled less than younger children.

Children also responded to be banned from media activities as a form of punishment; the ban on the use of computers was more frequent (in 38.3% of cases compared to television - 25.2%). Most of the children said that their parents do not reward them for complying with the rules associated with the use of the media devices.

Moreover, we asked the question of whether parents talk to children about their activities on PC, programs on TV, etc.; 4.7% of children said that parents always ask them, while 8.8% of children said that they never ask them.
Table 5  
Do your parents ask you about what you have seen on the TV, what you do on the PC, etc.?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own processing

Mothers turned out to be the main initiators of the discussions (51.6% of cases). This was confirmed by parents’ data. Children initiated discussions less often (18.9%) and fathers did that very rarely (9.9%). Further, there were various combinations of participants in the family discussions (me and my mom, me and my dad, parents together, etc.). In addition, children and parents view the extent to which they talk about the content of TV programs differently. Children mainly feel the absence of discussions about the TV content; nearly 30% of children reported that their parents seldom or never talk to them about this matter. Particularly striking is the difference from the mothers’ view; mothers are convinced that they frequently discuss the TV content with their children. This, again, can be due to mothers’ desire to be seen as a “good mother” or it can be caused by children not paying attention when parents try to talk to them about these matters.

Table 6  
Does a parent ever talk to the child about the TV content?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mothers</th>
<th>Fathers</th>
<th>Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own processing
When an inappropriate scene appears on the TV, parental reactions were described as follows: children said that 12% of parents usually cover children’s eyes, 12.9% of parents’ turns off the television, 26.5% of parents do not react in any way, more than a third (33.5%) of parents sends the child away and 17.2% of parents choose another solution. Only 17% of parents talk regularly to their children about what they should not see on television or do on computer. 19% of children responded that their parents never talk to them about these matters, which is alarming. The relation of the issue to the age of children is apparent. The older the children, the lower the frequency of discussions about media contents in the family (chi-square = 55.299, p < 0.001). Gender differences between children were not found.

Further, children were asked to imagine a situation when parents are not at home and have forbidden them to watch television or turn on the computer. When they come home, 57% of children say that parents do not check whether they obeyed the ban. About a third of parents (34.4%) ask the children if they obeyed. According to children, about half of parents talk to them after they find out that children disobeyed them. A large share of children said that they would be punished in this situation. Almost 13% of children said that their parents would not do anything. Overall, parental effort in an active monitoring of their children is apparent; they are interested in the media activities of children and they try to instil values and attitudes into them that they considered to be correct. On the other hand, for the field of pedagogy the liberal attitude of some parents in such a situation is alarming.

5 Family media education as a family value

Hendryiani et al.\(^\text{18}\) suggest that “parents should discuss with children possible media influences, including the effects of massive use of the media. They should also involve children in setting the rules relating to media, such as when and how long they can watch TV or play video games ... “ Our research has shown that children - particularly older ones – participate on family discussions. However, it is not as often as children would like. Considering the different views of parents and children on this issue, it is evident that some deficiencies prevail. Parents should keep in

mind that media contents can serve as a base for family communication, sharing of experiences, intergenerational learning and intergenerational solidarity. Moreover, in some cases children can educate their parents about the media better than the other way around. This way, children can become more involved in the family system and assume responsibility for what is happening in the family. In many families children occasionally have become family “network administrators”, “directors” of the image gallery of family events and holidays, or teachers of older generations in the use of new media. Sharing of information between generations can work as a valuable form of daily communication initiated by the contents and use of the media.

There are various projects in which children assume the role of teachers; however, more attention should be given to working with the media in relation to older generations, the issue of family space and “inverse media education”. Engaging children in setting the rules for media use may lead to the building of responsibility, enhancing of participation on family matters and critical thinking in children. It could also support their communication skills. It has been mentioned that the media and their contents are a frequent sources of family conflicts. However, they may also have a positive impact because they create competencies on both sides. By using the media in the family, approaching them in a certain way, discussing them, setting the rules concerning their use, respecting the preferences of other family members, we can use the media to enhance family relationships. This approach is a good base for family cohesion and successful media socialization of both the younger and older generations.

Conclusion

Contemporary family life cannot be separated from the use of the media. They are seen as a part of the daily rhythm of family, family activities, family history and memories, family communication and shared moments. The differences of generations pose a problem of children and parents which they have to face. However it is certainly possible to use these generational differences for advantages and to expand the view at media education in the contemporary family to other dimensions. Perhaps today there could be also children who can fast and reliably point to the danger of media manipulation, misinterpretation and formation of public opinion. Media socialization and the concept of media education
in the family would be therefore possible to expand in terms of direction and also involvement of individual actors.

The media have the potential to unite family members, enable more frequent communication and demonstration of the sense of belonging in family. Moreover, their use also requires a certain level of trust in the family and reliability of their individual members. Strengthening of family cohesion, family communication, democratic thinking and active leisure time in the family are ways which can lead toward building up both prevention of media danger and strengthening of healthy attitude, incl. its positive and effective use. Nevertheless, contemporary family values meet these possibilities.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF MOBILE APPLICATIONS IN EDUCATION AND POSSIBILITIES OF THEIR USE IN MEDIA EDUCATION

Norbert Vrabec – Martin Graca – Slávka Mazáková

ABSTRACT:
The growing importance of media education presents the question: What are the innovative ways how the subject could be implemented into the teaching process to attract the students? The development of new technologies brings the opportunities which were not possible in process of education a few years ago at all. The classic model of teaching is slowly fading away and the innovative forms of education by the use of new technologies such as laptops, tablets, interactive whiteboards and other technical equipment are becoming more and more used. Their implementation in the Slovak Republic is only in its early stage. In the context of using new media in teaching media education in Slovakia we rarely consider mobile apps as a form of education. Their potential is considerable and the benefits resulting from their use in education should not be overlooked. The study gives insight into the issue of mobile apps, introduces current situation in the field of media education and the use of modern technologies in Slovakia. The second part is devoted to the design of a mobile application intended for the needs of media education - especially in primary schools.

KEY WORDS:
media education, media literacy, mobile app, Edulab

1 Introduction: The importance of media education and media literacy

We meet the concept of media education in such a form as it is known today in Europe in the second half of the 20th century. This concept was unknown in Slovakia until the nineties of the 20th century. The importance of media education and the need to build and deepen media literacy should be the priority for any society. The continuous development of technologies and the emergence of new media bring along not only an unlimited amount of information and options, but also a number of dangers and risks arising from the technical and communication development.
In the context of these events, the media literacy can be defined as one of the primary outcomes of complex and structured educational, enlightening and scientific activities, which with synergistic implementation result in qualitative changes at the individual and societal level. The complex of these activities is called media education. Media education can also be defined as the process of learning and teaching about the media. “It is a long-term process, which is characterized by systematization and purposefulness in the acquisition of media competence and increasing the level of media literacy.”

Media education is very difficult to define as a separate scientific discipline, because it combines elements of media studies, pedagogy, psychology, sociology, political science and other disciplines.

2 Mobile Applications

The arrival of smart phones has completely changed the perspective on the use of mobile devices. To achieve maximum utilization of the potential of smart phones having a performance compatible with computers, it is necessary to develop new and even more sophisticated applications. Mobile apps are special programs that the user can download from the Internet and install to his mobile phone. Possibilities of using apps are constantly expanding and they are limited only by specific features of the mobile devices. Besides playing games, users use apps, e.g. to purchase products, get various information or to communicate.

Every day more and more users connect to the Internet by using a mobile device. According to the research of the International Telecommunication Union, there is more than 5.9 billion mobile phone in the world, more than a billion of which is actively used.

In Slovakia in 2013, it was 1.21 active SIM-cards per one inhabitant. We can therefore assume that almost every citizen of Slovakia owns a mobile phone.

Graph 1: The number of active SIM-cards in Slovakia
Source: own processing

To use the Internet in a mobile device no specific operating system is required. The device must be able perform data transfers by using a mobile or Wi-Fi network. It is possible to connect to the Internet from other devices such as a tablet, game console or TV. Another important factor of the mobile web is its optimization to a lower resolution screen and reduction of the data size of a particular page. If the user connects via the mobile device to a web page that is not programmed for the mobile web, he will see the entire content on a small screen. This could cause problems when browsing the site or obtaining the information. The overall functionality is limited.

In the research for the Morgan & Stanley Company, the American analyst Mary Meeker predicted that the number of mobile Internet users will exceed the number of users who connect to the Internet with a desktop computer. According to her prediction 2014 is the breakthrough and the number of mobile users will continue to rise.4

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2.1 Types of apps

Mobile apps can be viewed from various points of view. Some of them must be downloaded in advance from special mobile web store and installed into a smart phone. But the market offers apps that are actually adjusted websites and act as an independent app. Raluca Budiu from Nielsen/ Norman Group Company describes three basic types of mobile apps: **native apps, web apps and hybrid apps**.\(^5\)

\(^5\) Scientific worker focused on educational programs for mobile devices, cognitive psychology for designers. She deals with the principles of interaction between a man and a computer. She is the co-author of the publication "Mobile Usability". Source: BUDIU, R.: Mobile: Native Apps, Web Apps, and Hybrid Apps. [online]. [2014-06-02]. Available at: <http://www.nngroup.com/articles/mobile-native-apps/>.
Each type of an app has its advantages and disadvantages. The app-maker or the client has to know which target audience is the app intended for, what he wants to achieve by using it and what kind of mobile communication devices he wants to apply it on.

2.1.1 Native apps

Native apps are placed directly on the mobile device and can be accessed by using the icon on the home screen of the device. Native apps are installed through the app store, e.g. Google Play or Apple App Store developed specifically for one platform and they can use all functions of the device – such as a camera, GPS, gyroscope, compass, contacts and others. They can be operated with special finger gestures that are often already a standard part of the selected operating system. One of the biggest advantages is their functionality in offline mode and thus without Internet connection.

2.1.2 Web apps

Web apps are not real apps, it is more about websites that look and behave like native apps. They are run via the integrated web browser and usually written in HTML5. When used for the first time, it is necessary for the user to run a website as standard and then he is given the option to make a bookmark or link in the form of a mobile icon on his mobile device. Web apps have become very popular by using language HTML5. Computer programmers and users of apps have also realized that they can get seemingly native look of an app and also the functionality of a web browser. Currently, the difference between web apps and websites decreases.

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6 Constantly rotating object used to monitor the position of a mobile, created by nanotechnology.
8 Latest version of Hypertext Mark up Language designed to create web pages and other information displayable in a web browser.
2.1.3 Hybrid apps

Hybrid apps have features like native apps, as well as the characteristics of web apps. That is why they are often wrongly perceived as web apps. Just as native apps, they can be found in the online app stores (App Store, Google Play) and can use several functions that are available within a mobile device. Just as web apps relying on HTML 5, the hybrid apps are displayed in a browser with a notice that the browser is embedded within the app. Companies often create hybrid apps to make their websites look more attractive and nice and easier to use. Hybrid apps are popular because they allow so-called *cross platform development*\(^\text{10}\) and significantly reduce the development costs, i.e. the same components of the HTML code may be reused in a different mobile operating system. Tools like PhoneGap make it easier for a user to create cross-platform apps by using HTML5.\(^\text{11}\)

2.2 Markets with apps

To get the app a user must have the access to a specific type of database. Each smart phone contains operating system with pre-installed program, allowing the entry into the database apps compatible with the device.

Currently, the market for mobile apps is dominated by four companies:
- Apple - App Store
- BlackBerry – BlackBerry World
- Google – Google play
- Windows – Windows Phone Store

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10 Inter-platform development.
Graph 3: The number of apps available is stores in 2014
Source: own processing

From Chart 3 it is obvious that the operating system Android offers its customers the largest number of apps - up to 1.3 million. The difference when compared to Apple is not so significant. Incomparably ahead in the supply of devices in 2014 is the Android. In the graph below you can see the share on the market (sale) of the major operating systems in the last year. The number of sold devices with the operating system Android has climbed to 1.07 billion devices while the operating system iOS sold less than 360 million.


The Apple Company, known as one of the world’s most innovative companies, presents an innovation in the field of apps for universities and education. One of their services is iTunes U or iTunes University. This service allows the teachers and universities to make their lectures and educational materials easily accessible to their students and the general public. The method is based on the personal nature of courses and it is very similar to popular podcasting which it extends by the possibility of adding text materials. So far this service could have been used mainly by the iTunes app. It has been possible to synchronise only audio and video materials on a personal iPod players or with iOS devices. However, thanks to the recently released apps, it is possible to study in a much more comfortable way.

According to Apple Company, it is the largest online catalogue in the world focused on free education. iTunes U contains more than 500,000 lectures, videos and books which are free of charge. This service is also used by the world-known educational institutions such as Stanford,

14 According to Forbes is the Apple Inc. place 79 among the most innovative companies in the world. Source: The world’s most innovative companies. [online]. [2014-06-09]. Available at: <http://www.forbes.com/innovative-companies/list/#page:1_sort:0_direction:asc_search:apple_filter:All%20regions_filter:All%20industries>.

Yale and Oxford University, primary and secondary schools and also the MoMA institutions, the public library of the New York City and others. A teacher can create a lecture or a course and make it accessible for a certain group of students only, e.g. for his class.\footnote{\textit{iTunes U}. [online]. [2015-01-03]. Available at: <http://www.apple.com/education/itunes-u/>.}

Mobile apps provide a very wide range of options how to use them. From the apps providing entertainment in the form of games and quizzes, social apps enabling communication between people up to the tools making life easier such as navigation, maps, etc. A group of we will deal with is the educational apps. These have various forms, e.g. a dictionary of foreign words, which translates words or sentences into various languages. This classic app may have extension such as as lessons, at the end of which there is a quiz and the user can try what he has learned in the unit. This form of teaching can be used in the framework of informal, formal and non-formal education.

3 Digitalization of the educational process

The potential of the mobile apps in the process of teaching is far from being fully used. Only few schools in Slovakia use this method of teaching. It is the consequence not only of the technical equipment of schools. A large minus is that several mobile apps designed for schools are not in Slovak and neither do they have prepared methodical procedures that would be helpful both for teachers and students.

The exception is the EDULAB centre, which seeks to support digitalization of education in Slovakia and contributes significantly to modernisation of the education at primary and secondary schools. In 2013 EDULAB (a unique centre of technologies focused on the effective application of information and communication technologies and the use of digital educational content in the process of learning) created a project called School to the touch. This project involved ten schools from all regions of Slovakia and its aim was to test teaching with tablets and touch screens in practice.

The main task of the project besides the involvement of modern technologies in teaching is to find the answers to several questions: What will be the effect of these technologies on motivation and creativity
of students and how will it change the way of teaching and preparation at home?\textsuperscript{17} By a multi media processing of the educational content and other technologies the quality and speed of knowledge acquisition increase and student changes roles – from a passive listener role to the role of an active participant in teaching process. EDULAB offers options to schools how to create a motivating environment for creative work of teachers and students by using modern information and communication technologies.\textsuperscript{18}

In the experimental group of pupils (total of 103 students with an average age of 12, 8) which had the chance to test the use of tablets and touch technology in the classroom, following data have been identified:

– 40 % have been using digital technologies since the pre-school age,
– 55 % of students started using a computer already at the first grade of primary school,
– 74% of them have a computer and a mobile phone with the Internet access and every student has at least one of the above mentioned devices at home,
– 100 students would like to continue learning with the help of tablets,
– 98 out of 103 students would welcome the use of tablets in all subjects.

In the context of digitalization of educational process, the Slovak government plans to equip primary schools with additional 20 000 tablets and 4 000 interactive whiteboards during 2015.

4 Design of a mobile app for the needs of media education

New technologies used in the educational process appear to be a big step forward in modernization of the teaching process. The development of mobile apps designed for this purpose is, however, only in its early stages. The use of already existing apps is limited by the language in which they are designed. For this reason, we plan to design a mobile app designed for the students of primary schools in Slovakia as a tool to be used in media education lectures.

\textsuperscript{17} Projekt Škola na dotyk. [online]. [2015-02-15]. Available at: <http://www.skolanadotyk.sk/o-projekte.html>.
In 2014 a book publication of fairy tales with media-educational theme entitled How the Red Riding Hood read the newspaper (Ako červená čiapočka noviny čítala) has been published by the Faculty of Mass Media Communication. The intention of the tales is to show children the correct attitude when facing potential threads and dangers through the inclusion of media-educational problems in the tales. The main scientific goal is to develop critical thinking and the acquisition of media competencies by receiving, analysing, evaluating and communicating the lessons resulting from the „media tales“.

This book serves as the basis for the proposed mobile app. Based on the literary work we plan to create a film script and transform individual tales into short audiovisual works. The actual implementation will take place at the Faculty of Mass Media Communication with its employees and technical support. The tales will be implemented into the mobile app including following categories:

- **Video** – user will be able to select a specific tale from the list
- **Quiz** – the user will be able to answer the questions related to the selected tale after watching the video or in a separate section. Within educational process, students of one class will be able to compare the results achieved in the quiz with their classmates.
- **Dictionary** – contains the terms occurring in fairy tales, mostly technical terms, which the user may not understand but may use them in the future.
- **Games** – the application will contain part with interactive games with the theme of fairy tales, fun and relaxation.
Regarding the topics with media-educational message the tales will be focused on:
- The protection of personal data and passwords on the Internet (O troch heslách kráľa Sietopluka)
- The risks of friendships on the Internet (Zlatovláška 337)
- The credibility of the information in the media (Ako Červená čiapočka noviny čítala)
- The time spent with media vs. active movement (Ako Tučko so Škul'kom na telku a počítač zabudli)
- The risks of the advertisement (Ako šiel Vilko na vandrovku)
- Internet communication vs. verbal communication (Slovo nad internet)
- Excessive playing of computer games (Tri prasiatk@)

The proposed app has the potential to become a useful tool for teachers of media education and it can have a positive effect on its users (students). It will also serve as an innovative means of promotion and dissemination of media education and it will raise the media literacy level at primary schools in Slovakia. An added value can be seen in a form a multimedia DVD with the set of fairy tales intended for children in pre-school age. 

“The importance and significance of media education in the society grow proportionally with the continuous development of communication technologies, with the possibilities of their use of and access to data, but also with the diversity and amount of the offered media contents.”

Therefore, it is necessary to search for new, modern and innovative means, which would effectively raise awareness of the media education issue, increase

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media literacy among wide public classes and also improve and innovate the process of teaching media education at Slovak schools.

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More than a half-century ago, Conrad Black, the former owner of The Daily Telegraph, pointed out: What would a man gain, if he owned a newspaper and could not influence its content? This quote has not lost its relevance since then; on the contrary, such a question has been relevant in any era that is (or was) dominated by the media – namely in the eras of press, radio, television or new media. The essential meaning of the quote stays the same even if we take into account changes in political environment, ownership relations or metamorphoses of the creative principles in terms of media production. It places emphasis on the basic principle related to biased, narrow-minded and manipulative ways of processing information, on the acquisitive intentions of ownership structures. A few decades ago, in the times of big autocratic regimes, we witnessed the application of unconcealed censorship practices that resulted in the possibility of producing an outright propaganda of the centralised power; at present, in the era of democracy, we witness a contradiction between two different realities. On the one hand, we reflect almost dogmatically spread, textbook ideology associated with freedom of the media, non-censorship policy, independence of the media subjects and producers, and strict respect for ethical codes related to journalism, etc. On the other hand, an increasing amount of professionals and academics critically re-evaluate the activities and agenda of contemporary – especially commercial – media. These experts place emphasis on dangers resulting from the influence of ownership structures on decisions made by media managers as well as they point out various defects of current media production and journalistic work. These defects include servility in relation with the owners, corrupt behaviour, employment of several sophisticated techniques of manipulation associated with processing information, plagiarism, deliberate spreading of unverified rumours, keeping important facts from the audiences, defamation, insults, etc. Interested authors also pay attention to considering the relevance and meaning of various, so far unanswered questions that result from the works of Aldous Huxley and George Orwell: Although we live in society saturated by information, are we really able to access them freely? Are we systematically manipulated in order to see the world in accordance with the ideas and intentions of the media producers? Are we – as a result of contemporary informational chaos – passive, disoriented, egoistic? The section aims to provide a space for discussing possible answers to the questions of revealing the causes and consequences of manipulation methods and techniques, their practical use as well as political, economic and cultural backgrounds of the contradiction between two realities outlined above.
ABSTRACT:
The presented paper deals with the possibilities of increasing business performance by using the methods of benchmarking. As the main tools of measuring business performances or those of individual industries, the methods of financial and economic analyses and prediction models known from financial controlling are used. Based on the accounting statements available from Internet databases it is relatively easy and effective to monitor the company’s success, to evaluate customers, suppliers, competitors and by this to improve the market share. To make the evaluation it is possible to use special point methods which measure the market position globally or partially according to management requirements. The goal of the paper is to point out the possibilities of effective company’s management by the use of Internet databases, benchmarking and controlling. These tools can be implemented directly into the company’s management system and thus it is possible to increase the effectiveness of management process. In this simple and up-to-date way companies can innovate and improve their whole management system.

KEY WORDS:
business performance, benchmarking, controlling, internet databases, media, management efficiency, innovation

1 Introduction

From the perspective of the development of the media the current period can be characterized as the period of their more intensive use and innovation. The media are beginning to implement themselves more significantly in the business sector and engage in the activities of businesses. While some of the management tools were unimaginable for managers in the past, or were very difficult to implement, it is easier today. The media, especially the Internet and online databases provide the possibility to improve benchmarking. This allows businesses to better monitor developments on the market, increase competitiveness and improve governance. In the case of media use it is no longer just about satisfying personal needs, but also about their increased use in
business practice. This can be clearly seen in many organizations, where, based on network structures, exchange of information via electronic communication is intensified. Their use is gradually increasing and they find their place also in management processes in organizations and in improving their performance.

Issues that bother managers today:

- How to increase business performance? How to improve management efficiency?
- How to improve position of the business on the market? How to improve competitiveness?
- How significant is the potential of the market? On which markets should products be offered?
- How to ensure the reliable suppliers and effectiveness of their offerings?
- How to gain new customers? What is their potential?
- What is the value of a company and how it can be affected?
- What is the reliability of supplying companies?
- What certainty we have that our customers will pay us?

Company managers are primarily interested in management efficiency and position of their company on the market. Methods of benchmarking and comparison of companies have allowed this some time ago, but it was difficult and strenuous to obtain this information. Standardizing of selected databases and making them available to businesses via the Internet, however, helps to improve the business environment and indirectly affects behaviour of businesses. The publication of data from financial statements and making them available to a wide range of professionals improves the legibility of businesses and their behaviour; reduces possibilities of corruption and unethical business relationships and practices. The situation with obtaining marketing information is similar. These are also quite affordable, especially using the Internet. Standardizing them into certain groups is, however, more difficult. Internet media, which also help to obtain the necessary information and sort them according to established criteria, have their significant share in this.

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If we think more about using media in the process of the management of different types of organizations, we can see great opportunities. These are, in particular, possibilities of evaluation of performance of a company and its position on the market by comparing it with companies with similar production profile. Not only business-oriented organizations can be compared, but in the case of improving the Internet databases it is possible to compare even for non-business types of organizations. This changes the way a company is managed and allows the improvement of subcontracting relations (client-customer and supplier).

2 Benchmarking and using the Internet databases

Benchmarking can be defined as a certain type of constant standard, norm or a model according to which a company in its individual parts and activities can be evaluated.2

Gift and Mosel provide the following definition: benchmarking is the continual and collaborative discipline of measuring and comparing the results of key work processes with those of the best performers. It is learning how to adapt these best practices to achieve breakthrough process improvements and build healthier communities.3 Robert C. Camp provides a definition arguing that benchmarking is search for the best practices in business, which lead to excellent results.4 Mayle stated the same, that the best-practice benchmarking is taken to describe a process whereby organizations pursue enhanced performance by learning from the successful practices of others. Comparisons may be made with other parts of the same organization, with competitors, or with organizations operating in different spheres whose business processes are nevertheless deemed to be in some way relevant.5

This definition is very appropriate, but in today’s times understanding of the benchmarking is already wider and can be defined not only as a search for practices in business, but also as a search for effective ways of management and evaluation of performance on the basis of control information. The essential feature is also the fact that management of non-business oriented organizations is also being affected. By a suitable comparable base we can improve the management of a company and steer it in the right direction.

In the case of using benchmarking information the aim of controlling is to timely notify a company of deviations that arise in the business environment, in particular from the competition, customers or suppliers. Its role from the perspective of the provision of information from the Internet media is, however, greater and allows to evaluate the performance and quality of cooperation in the field of supplier relationships and the potential and quality of customers.

According to the Educational centre for public administration of the Czech republic it is possible to use benchmarking in three lines:

- performance benchmarking (metric) – comparing performance, cost, financial indicators, human resources, etc.,
- process benchmarking (strategic) – comparison of processes, activities, approaches, strategies, etc.,
- learning benchmarking – benchlearning – learning from the others.

As such, benchmarking represents a precious tool in strategic decision-making processes. This is consistent with the view of Pojasek who understands benchmarking as something that can identify performance differences. As he indicated, benchmarking measures your processes against the practices of other organizations. It involves identifying, learning about, and adapting outstanding practices from organizations anywhere in the world in order to help your organization improve its sustainability program.

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From another point of view Schuster and Mang mentioned, Benchmarking means orienting a company in the best market position, aiming to be the best of the best in the business field. To meet this goal the objectives are to:

- analyze the organization’s strengths and weaknesses,
- compare the company’s position with its competitors’,
- define success factors,
- implement performance improvements.

While the internet database already include quite well designed power benchmarking (finstat, entrepreneur index, SIMS), this comparison to a greater extent based on activities of businesses in the case of strategic benchmarking. However, there is a range of business processes that companies can rely on and use for internal benchmarking. In the field of benchlearning we can make use of experiences with implementation and use of the controlling tools linked to performance and process benchmarking.

3 Benchmarking in the context of business performance evaluation

Internet media are a very important source of information that can be used for benchmarking evaluations. Companies operation in that field go, however, one step further. Internet media in the form of databases serve not only as an information resource, but also as a knowledge system, which helps managers in the decision-making process. Benchmarking procedure in the case of Internet media can be illustrated in the following example of an Internet media – indexpodnikatela.sk (entrepreneur index).

10 JIRÁSEK, J. A.: Benchmarking a konkurenční zpravodajství. Praha : Profess consulting, 2007, p. 120.
11 INDEX PODNIKATELA: O projekte Index Podnikatela. [on-line]. [2015-02-10]. Available at: <www.indexpodnikatela.sk>.
Companies engaged in creation and updating Internet media for the purpose of benchmarking no longer offer only basic financial information, but extend the offer to non-financial indicators as well. Application of management knowledge to businesses help the development of business in this field too.\textsuperscript{12}

One of the most important information about a company that quality benchmarking requires is the information on its rating (Score).\textsuperscript{13} Rating

\begin{itemize}
  \item Analysis of benchmarking requirements
  \item Benchmarking dashboard design
  \item Selection of Internet media and online connection
  \item Implementation into MIS (management information system)
  \item Active use in the process of business performance management
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Figure 1} Benchmarking procedure and Internet media
\begin{quote}
Source: Our own processing
\end{quote}


\textsuperscript{13} DORČÁK, P, POLLÁK, F, SZABO, S.: Analysis of the possibilities of improving
provides a certain view on a company. In determining the rating of a company, indicators of financial analysis and predictive models are commonly used. Example of company rating evaluation is given in Figure 2. Benchmarking model was designed on the basis of examination of information and requirements of the corporate practice. The initial dashboard should be highly informative so that managers are instantly able to solve different decision-making problems using the Internet media. With regard to the methodology for organization evaluation from the perspective of strategic management non-financial indicators are also included in the evaluation.14

Figure 2 Basic benchmarking assessment of a company In the Internet medium
Source: www.indexpodnikatela.sk


Figure 2 shows the basic information panel of benchmarking on the Internet medium. In the future other important information will be included providing managers with a more accurate view of the state of claims, obligations, the state of the industry, etc. Such an approach will not only help to improve the business environment and influence corruption, but we can also effectively upgrade a company management system.

As mentioned above, companies are particularly interested in their performance and prospects. Overview of companies performance according to selected fields can give evidence of this - Figure 3.

![Figure 3 Selection of the TOP 10 companies for SK NACE industrial production (companies for SK NACE)](image)

Source: www.indexpodnikatela.sk

The figure 3 provides important benchmarking information and Economic Value Added (EVA) available directly on the Internet. Based on these managers can examine their success against their environment. This is just one of the basic information. Benchmarking medium of this type, however, provides much greater opportunities. Sales or purchase managers can examine seriousness of their suppliers or customers, to whom they sell their products. In case of adverse developments these processes can influence and efficiently explore the market in a variety of dimensions.
Benchmarking evaluation based on Internet media may facilitate improvement of supplier relationships. For example, they can be used to assess the seriousness of a customer and the ability to pay liabilities. In this way the risk of non-payment of claims can be defined and the size of supplies and commercial relationships with customers can be regulated.

Benchmarking evaluation based on financial indicators and the position of companies on the market can be effectively expressed using graphs as follows - figure 4. In this portfolio managers can see position of the company within the competition portfolio. On the basis of this position, it is possible to determine the direction of improving business performance. Score of the company success on the basis of predictive models or, alternatively, by means of data obtained from a marketing information system is on the x axis, financial performance is on the y axis. In this way we can very effectively define the direction of future development and weak points of the company. It’s only up to skills of managers to move the company further (to the top right within the portfolio).

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Success of the company</th>
<th>Financial performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Score: 62</td>
<td>66.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Comment: weak</td>
<td>very good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 4 Benchmarking evaluation of the company from the perspective of its performance](http://www.indexpodnikatela.sk)

Source: www.indexpodnikatela.sk


Conclusion

The aim of the article is to point out the great possibilities of the Internet in relation to the business performance management and its success in the future. A prerequisite is the integration of Internet media (online databases) into corporate information systems. This will significantly increase the efficiency of management. A company upgrades its management system and succeeds on the market by benchmarking comparisons. Managers and style of their managerial work play an important role in promoting benchmarking trends within a company. This style essentially determines success of such connections in business practice.

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OLIGARS IN MEDIA ACROSS EUROPE

Daniela Kollárová – Magdaléna Ungerová

ABSTRACT:
We believe that the structure of our paper is logically linked. As the term „oligarchy“ has its origin in the Greek language, we start our paper with its explanation and notions on the impact of Greek oligarchs on domestic economy. Consequently, we explain the reasons of the withdrawal of foreign investors from mass media in Central and Eastern Europe and the arrival of domestic investment groups. As changes in ownership structures of publishing houses often led to an exit of editorial members, we pay attention to projects of journalists, which they established after leaving their original workplaces. In conclusion we devote to the knowledge scientifically proven that oligarchs may be found in each country, depending on local specifications.

KEY WORDS:
oligarchy, diaploki, mass media

1 Introduction

Our aim is to map economically powerful financial groups, operating in key areas and entrepreneurs attached at to the state who directly influence lives of people in the country and their levels. Last months, there appeared articles – mainly in prestigious print mass media in Europe and the USA – on investigative journalists, inspired either by scientific studies or real events that devoted to the issue of the so-called oligarchs and their impact on the life in domestic countries seemingly in a legal way. The research of retrieval of numerous domestic and foreign sources and content analysis is the core of our study. Our basic sources that we lean upon include articles of Štěť’ka, Christides, Spencer and Odkladal.

2 Oligarchy and diaploki

„The term „oligarchy“ has its origin in the Greek language and means „ruling minority“. It can be heterogeneous, from royal families, rich people through ties in a family, corporations up to churches or armies.“1 The

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dictionary of foreign words explains oligarchy as a form of government where the state power is in hands of a small group of people.\textsuperscript{2} According to many, in Greece there is the government of minority also at present. While the New York Times paid attention in autumn 2014 to the arrival of Central European and Eastern European oligarchs into the sector of mass media, the German Spiegel and NDR paid attention in March 2015 to the aims of the leader of Syriza Alexis Ciprasos to fight against the impact of Greek oligarchs on the economy. They have a strong influence in the country due to the power over the banks, estate agencies and Greek media. There is a term in Greek „diaploki“ to call the relationship between the political system and the most powerful families, it can be translated as „secret agreement“. The term was established in early 1990s when there appeared first private TV stations in Greece. At that time, politicians began to provide licences also for private individuals, which were used right by rich businessmen, often with attachment to the state orders.\textsuperscript{3} „Greece has the biggest density of media in Europe: more than 80 newspapers and 50 TV stations“.\textsuperscript{4} Nearly 90% of Greeks receive news on TV. It is strange, as Christides adds that mass media in Greece are one of a few institutions which enjoy even less trust than political parties. Many mass media provide only losses to their owners. However, oligarchs do not seem to be bothered. For example, the TV station Mega lost in the first half of the year 2014 approximately 6.500.000 Euros; the publishing house Pegasus even 11 million Euros in the same period. Besides, majority of media companies have debts in millions. The study of the European Commission shows that Greek oligarchs do not fund their mass media in order to inform the public but in order to be able to put pressure on the government and that way to influence domestic politics in compliance with their commercial interests. This view, according to the documents published on Wikileaks, is alleged to be shared by the Embassy of the USA in Athens. „Greek media business is controlled by


economic magnates, who can subsidize loss-making enterprises by means of other successful activities."

3 Economic crisis and accession of local oligarchs

The accession of local oligarchs and entrepreneurial groups which buy newscasting media from foreign investors is a trend that has characterized a large part of the region of Central and Eastern Europe over the last years. Experts explain oligarchy as economically powerful financial groups, operating in key areas (energetic, health care, grocery, and media) and entrepreneurs attached to the state. All the above mentioned branches directly influence lives of people in the country and their levels.

For majority of foreign companies the main reason to leave has been and still is a fall in incomes caused or multiplied by consequences of the economic crisis from 2008 and 2009. Namely, the fall of financial markets and a follow-up global economic recession affected media markets in the Central and Eastern Europe on average much more intensively than majority of other European countries.

The deepest falls were seen in Baltic countries and Rumania. Total expenses on advertising, which is a key source of incomes, decreased more than 40% in these countries. Investments into advertising in newspapers have even decreased from 2008 to 2010 on average in 70% in Latvia and Rumania and more than in a half in Estonia and Lithuania. The economic crisis seems to only reveal and start deeper structural problems, which were primarily in the sector of the print media present before it had broken out. Multinational media corporations and Western publishers owned media primarily for the sake of profit. With only minor exceptions, in the last years they have been replaced by domestic entrepreneurial elites, often attached to the state, having economic centre of interest in other key areas, e.g. in energetic, financial engineering, immovable assets or health care.⁵

One of the first foreign owners, who reacted to the crisis by leaving, was the publisher of the Latvian daily Diena. Even the reputation of one of the

best periodicals in the region did not help to prevent fallout on revenues in 75% in 2008. In the same year, the Swedish Bonnier got rid of the Latvian publishing house. Topically, in Latvia the majority of the print media is under ownership control of a long-year serving mayor of the city Ventspils - Aivars Lembergs, ex-minister of transport Ainars Šlesers and ex-prime minister Andris Škēle. For a long time not providing Latvian laws have covered who is in control of the majority of the press in the country. It was only investigation of a corruption affair of one of the richest entrepreneurs which revealed that this trio controls them.

In 2013 we could see the withdrawal of the Daily Mail and the General Trust from the Hungarian print market, where it sold the second most widely read title Bors and two important regional dailies. Apart from direct state ownership of large part of mass media, their significant part is owned by investment groups of the co-operators of the Prime Minister Viktor Orbán. The „boss“ among them is the Prime Minister’s ex-schoolmate Lájos Simicska (the daily Metropol), who is also the owner of a building company Közgép, which has rich experience with state orders. Another important mass media owner in Hungary is a billionaire Gábor Széles, who is at the head of an industrial group Ikarus (television channel Echo TV, daily Magyar Hírlap).

Poland also faced withdrawal of foreign owners. In 2011 the British owner of Mecom got rid of 50% share in the publishing house Presspublica, which has been publishing a popular daily Rzeczpospolita - among other things. The share was bought by an entrepreneur Grzegorz Hajdarowicz. Next year Mecom sold in Poland also its local periodicals to the German publisher Verlagsgruppe Passau and completely left the Polish market.

Shortly after the crisis broke out, Western investors started to abandon the Balkans, as well. In 2010 the German publisher Westdeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung retreated from Bulgaria, Rumania and Serbia; in 2012 also Macedonia. In the same time, in Rumania the Swiss concern Ringier reduced its portfolio. In Rumania a renowned newscasting TV was a part of a media empire of a billionaire Dan Voiculescu, the founder of a conservative party. He was sentenced to 10 years of imprisonment for money-laundering in August 2014.

Currently, the market of print media in Bulgaria is divided between two antagonizing groups. One of them is controlled by Sopharm Ognyan Donev, the CEO of the largest Bulgarian pharmaceutical company. The
second one is run by a banker Tsvetan Vasilev and a politician and entrepreneur Delyan Peevskim. Apparently, due to this fact it regularly appears on the last place among European countries in the world list of the press freedom.

In 2010 Slovak market experienced similar changes. The British owner of the daily Pravda, the Daily Mail and General Trust, sold it to a Czech company Florena. Four years later an investment group Penta bought a share in a significant and independent broadsheet the daily SME. The accession of the investment group Penta into the publishing house Petit Press aroused rigorous reactions. The editor-in-chief of the daily SME, among whose main investigative targets the group Penta had definitely belonged, Matúš Kostolný gave immediate notice. Four of his subordinates followed him and fifty employees from the editorial staff declared their leaving until the end of the year.

From the viewpoint of the topical situation on the Slovak media scene nothing unusual really happened. Namely, majority of media influencing public opinion are at present directly or indirectly controlled by investment group Penta (besides a share in Petit Press it also owns publishing houses Trend Holding and 7 Plus), the group of the entrepreneur Ivan Kmotrík (television TA3 and distribution net Mediaprint Kapa) and a group J&T (TV JOJ, radio stations Jemné and Anténa).

In the Czech Republic the situation is very similar, as a prevailing part of newscasting mass media are owned by four domestic magnates and businessmen: Andrej Babiš - the second richest Czech citizen and since January 2014 Minister of Finance in the Czech Republic - owns the dailies MF DNES and Lidové noviny, Radio Impuls and a free-of-charge weekly 5+2. Daniel Křetínský controls tabloid dailies Blesk and Aha, the daily Sport and a weekly Reflex. Zdeňek Bakal has the newspaper Hospodářské noviny, a weekly Respekt and a web portal Aktuálně.cz and Jaromír Soukup owns a weekly Týden, Impuls and TV Barrandov.6

4 Vigorous reactions, resistance and assigns

There is nothing to suggest that these changes happened out of the scope of well-run ownership models. It seems that Western oligarchs only retreated to the Eastern ones. New owners assure the public of the fact that their investments into mass media are motivated only by financial profit. However, local journalists, civil activists and „observers“ cast doubt on their claims pointing out uncertain financial investment returns into mass media, caused by the Internet and digitalisation. As far as they are concerned, they say that the main aim of mass media acquisition by investment groups is to obtain political and social influence, which should help their commercial or political interests. According to Štěťka, such changes provide practical risks in the form of elimination of editorial autonomy and journalistic freedom. He emphasizes the fact that these do not have to necessarily involve only direct interventions into the content of the newspaper or propaganda. Influence can be obtained by well-timed information disclosing, suppressing agenda or from the side of journalists by avoiding topics which relate to entrepreneurial or political activities of the owners.

In numerous of the above mentioned countries there appear – as a consequence of the resistance - independent journalistic projects, mainly in the form of an Internet medium, set up by journalists who left or were forced to leave their previous editorials. As the first example we can mention Mr Kostolný from the Slovak daily SME, who has been publishing his own newspaper under the brand Project N - the web portal and a daily, which since January, 30th 2015 have offered topical domestic and foreign newscasting, covering also culture, sports, science, comments and analyses. The daily in the print form has been published from Monday until Thursday consisting of 16 pages; the Friday weekend edition involves 24 pages. The aim of the editors and investors is to build a powerful newscasting broadsheet brand both in the print and digital forms. Investors of the publishing house N Press have become six co-owners of a Slovak software company Eset.7

In Lithuania former members of the editorial staff of Diena established a social weekly IR, after the Swedish owner had sold it to local oligarchs. The editors declare that they are different and diversified, however all the members share the desire to know more and to continue in self-improvement. At the same time, they are proud of the growing readership,

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which they try to provide with intelligent relaxation. As counter-values they expect direct and open communication and exchange of opinions. The publishing house Cits Medijs, similarly to the N Press, managed to gain investors and so the weekly IR comes out in both print and electronic versions.  

In Bulgaria, among readers on the Internet there are popular community webs, for instance offnews.bg, or bivol.bg, which seek to supply investigative role of the mainstream media. Namely, they have abdicated it under the influence of local oligarchs. “Off Media, Inc. was established in 2011 with the mission to recover the lost connection between media institutions and readers. Our aim is to create a community of free people, in which readers will write, comment and offer ideas, without fear of censorship and while knowing that their voices will be listened to.” The second from the Bulgarian web portals chose a metaphorical name byvol (buffalo). Bivol.bg similarly to a noble animal, uses his horns to get to the truth. Assen Yordanov and Atanas Tchobanov explain that their endeavour is to create a place, where readers can achieve only high quality investigative journalism without censorship and auto-censorship. Likewise other new media, also bivol.bg calls its readers on the exchange of opinions and on cooperation. So far, the web portal has been financed by donations of the readers, supporters and sale of the advertising space.

However, it is questionable how long these independent projects can last. Will they get into attention of general public? Will they find a suitable way of funding? According to Štěťka if these independent projects are not successful “it may mean that the region will have to rather soon say goodbye not only to foreign owners but also to the journalism as an autonomous profession, which primarily promotes public interest and not interests of those who are currently paying bills.”

5 Oligarchs can be found anywhere

Domestic entrepreneurial elites, often attached to the state, having economic centre of interests in other key areas can be found in every

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country. At the same time, each country has its specifications resulting usually from historical development of traditional industrial branches, in which there is developed a strong concentration of power. Foundation of F. A. Hayek devoted to the analysis of this issue in Slovakia, Czech Republic, Ireland, Spain and Latvia. For the needs of the analysis, the authors considered as “any kind of important entrepreneur, or a big company, which bases its maintenance on using certain connection to the state, either in the form of regular supply of state orders or donations.” Such companies can also be dated historically a couple of centuries backwards. Their largest expansion was observed by the Foundation of F. A. Hayek in the course of the 20th century, when the economic impact of the state increased in a disproportional way.

Functioning of oligarchy is based on fundamental features of entrepreneurial activities. Companies primarily seek to make profit and to ensure economic survival in either a legitimate business operating or looking for state rent. In case of a state rent, here we mean using protection of the state to make money without making any real added value. What is more, with the growth of companies there appear pressures to limit competition through different forms of licensing, unions or professional associations. In the moment when such a company starts to feel a stronger desire to increase its income without making any added value, the simplest way to become rich is connection to a political party or personalities that could help to pursue its interests. This company would join funding a party in exchange for counter-services, or its people in the framework of a government or other important institutions. Consequently, oligarchs will use such people to influence decision-making for their own sakes.

In Western Europe oligarchs have been building their power and property over several decades (approximately since 1960th). In former communist states it was not possible until 1989. Therefore, the development in this sphere has been much faster in our region. Among oligarchs in the post-communist countries we can find many, who in the past had positions in KGB or ŠtB (former state secret services). In case of Slovakia, in more extent than in the Czech Republic, new layer of oligarchs was created around privatisation and different investment funds.

In the Czech Republic there are many oligarchs connected to extractive and energetic industries. In Slovakia nearly each of them is based in any financial group. In Western Europe we can see the impact of media oligarchs (or also groups) in estate industry. In Ireland two biggest oligarchs are media magnates, who obtained their power by means of TV and newspapers. In the past, they used to profit from estate boom. In Spain, oligarchs came from banking industry and estate sector. In Latvia inflectional businessmen of the place are attached mainly to energetic such as oil or gas. Many oligarchs own media using which they influence public opinion. We may see that also in the USA in the case of Rupert Murdoch or in Italy in the case of Silvio Berlusconi.12

Princeton political scientists Martin Gilens and Benjamin Page selected the topic of American democracy as a scientific issue. Through analysis of 1779 political affairs they came to a conclusion that the USA is not a democracy, America is an oligarchy. „American democracy is a cheat and it does not matter how much it is celebrated by oligarchs who govern the state (and control newscasting media). In other words, the USA is basically similar to Russia or majority of other dubiously voted democratic countries.”13 Property admissions of the American Congress members showed that the richest percentages not only own the government but directly control it. The holders of economic power have an impact on decisive institutions, and thus on the interests of selected groups in a seemingly legal way. Names such as Bill Gates, Warren Buffet, David Rockefeller, Sheldon Adelson, brothers Koch, George H. W. Bush reorganized the basis of American culture and politics. Although average Americans have at disposal regular elections, freedom of expression and freedom of association, right to vote, but minimal impact on public politics.14

The border between when people regard such personalities successful and when they start perceiving them negatively is rather thin. There is such a group of oligarchs who stay in the background and donate some part of their property for philanthropic purposes.

**Conclusion**

One of the most important findings – with which we also agree – is that economically powerful financial groups and entrepreneurs attached to the state occur in every country in the world, depending on local specifications. Their origin and structure is varied according to our sources: from entrepreneurs who went successful on their own, through inheritors of empires, former functionaries of KGB and ŠtB, up to those who privatized. Companies that decided to make profit using state rents got into a „vicious circle“. Political parties need funding; a company will welcome some counter-service. In cases of accession of local investment groups into mass media, the progress leading to the exchange of owners was nearly identical in all countries. Besides, the intentions of newly created projects to build independent and respected mass media, with the emphasis on open and direct communication with a registered community of readers. However it is questionable if investors of each new project from commercial environment may be interpreted as oligarchs; at least from the reason of gaining control and impact on a selected medium.

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NEW TRENDS IN THE MEDIA OR NEW PROBLEMS

Jozef Matúš

ABSTRACT:
The author addresses the hot topic of media and new trends in them. Points out the need to address the issue of the relationship between media and society, because the media have a great ability to influence the attitudes and opinions of the public and thereby construct and transform social reality. The increase commercialization of the media, business and the development of new megatrends in the entertainment industry increases and is mainly due to the globalization of the media and their transition to digital formats. The successful solution of this problem requires a particular understanding of this megatrend and the media, which in turn needs a scientific discourse on this subject in professional circles. The author discusses the issue of media institutions that provide a fundamental business entity in the media market on the one hand a social institution that fulfills a social role and on the other, to producer organizations that focus on products that fulfill social as well as the owner’s media. It often achieved by diversifying its product offerings by target audience by.

KEY WORDS: media, impact of globalization, commercialization, diversification, digitization, concentration of ownership

„Whoever controls the media controls the mind.”
Jim Morrison

1 Introduction

„The truth is down in the street, everywhere where there are no polished shop-windows, where there is no money and no commercial interests. You can find it in the books not published by any corporate, not supported by any regime civic associations, not cited by established intellectuals. You can find it on the Internet, on the pages where ads would not be drawing close to your eyes every two minutes. You can find it in the marches for social rights, for environmental protection, wherever it is claimed that another world is possible. Surely, you cannot find it in the mainstream media. To expect from the media to tell you the truth is the same nonsense as to expect from a bank clerk to tell you something objective of fair tax system settings. Simply, it is necessary to use common sense and always ask: who
complies with this information? If you come to the conclusion that it can satisfy only the weakest ones, start dealing with it. Inevitably, there is not a game of interests. Freedom of thought is now harder than ever in the history. Nevertheless, it is possible.”

In the context with the issue of this topic it is necessary to be aware of the fact that media have the ability to influence attitudes and opinions of the public, to construct and to change social reality. The impact of mainly electronic mass media on humans is sometimes overestimated, however even more often underestimated. Surely, the media are present in the lives of majority of people; thus have important stakes in socialization of individuals. In the process of social learning people obtain ikols from mass media, adopt attitudes, values; gradually accept new ways of behaving. Their stake in relaying models of behaviours, idols, social norms etc. has been documented. Media have a significant impact on the public opinion. They are the driving force that can activate the masses.

One of the main tasks, which we need to deal with in a proper way – also from the viewpoint of new trends in media – is the relationship between media and society – a society that is overwhelmed by amount of information – the information society. There persists the trend of globalization of information flows – media, telecommunications. The global dissemination of information-communication technologies and related impact of the media have become one of the main factors of gradual unification of the life-style and recognized cultural and civilization values as such. Current mass culture cherished in economically most powerful countries has acquired a stamp of modernity and global standard appealing to the young and middle-aged generations thanks to its capital-dominant position in the entertainment industry with the possibility to be spread over the electronic media.

Constant growth of economic enterprising and development of new megatrends in the area of entertainment industry and media is increasing, while caused mainly by globalization of media and their transition into digital formats. Successful solution of this topic requires especially understanding these megatrends and media, which consequently demands scientific discourse on this topic by professionals. It is necessary to help people to orientate in the media environment and to be able not

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only to accurately include products of these new media, but also to keep needed distance from them. We should realize how much time we spend using new media and consider if the time is adequate and effective.

2 New technologies – the digitalisation of media

Media in current times are significantly influenced by steep development of new technologies. Here, we mean using the process of digitalisation and computer games, development of bio-technologies, new materials, but also new inventions in communication. Technological progress is one of the main factors of changes in the media; it assigns the nature of modern media together with large diversification of broadcasting. However, the key to a fundamental change is the development of the Internet, digitalisation and possibility of transfer of huge data flow. It has come to digitalisation of broadcasting. There is the increase not only in the bulk of different stations, but also programme offer. Digital broadcasting has many advantages in connection with more effective usage of the spectrum and better transfer possibilities. Digital convergence and multiple-platform approach have caused a revolution in the transfer of information and remain to be the subjects of ongoing evolution and improvement and influence all segments of society, as they will lead to a broader choice for the consumer, better flexibility and more intense competition. However, digitalisation will have a significant impact on global economy; it will enhance innovation, growth of work positions and productivity of media. Constant growth in business activities in the area of entertainment industry and media has been increasing, caused mainly by transition to digital formats.

Digitalisation has fundamentally changed the forms of media communication. This phenomenon has made easier the flow of information and has conditioned the origin of the Internet and new media, which are mostly multimedia ones thus offering visual, audio and textual information. The consumer behavior is in these days more influenced by the information from web sites. We read the articles and recommendation about the service or product before we decide to buy it.²

3 Diversity

Increasing diversity of contemporary society is reality that cannot be ignored. Slovak society has become familiar with this phenomenon only over the last two decades. Post-socialism development have brought the end of social homogeneity and universalism and gradual growth of diversity in every sphere of life: diversification of economic structure and ownership terms, deepening social-economic stratification and spatial polarisation, flood of different technologies and ways of communication – development of new media, development of alternative ways of education, art and culture; extensive offer of goods and services and by that pluralism of life-styles and life aspirations, demographic changes, annually growing number of foreigners and immigrants together with changing ethnic and religious structure of the population. Cultural diversity may be a driving force of development and contribute to enrichment of the society also by means of media – human, cultural, social and economic enrichment – only if we create conditions for its sustainable development. Mass media, thanks to which communication spreads, have become dominant tools of this process. Similarly, cultural diversity is their unthinkable part.

Media diversity is one of key issues in European countries. Individual states try to protect it primarily by means of legislature regulating ownership terms. Thus it is based upon the assumption that concentration of ownership decreases diversity even if empirical evidence of this thesis is rather repugnant. One of the most important reasons of this state is, according to our opinion, methodological complexity of the concept of diversity.

Pluralism and diversity in media belong to key issues in democratic states. Namely they are basic pillars of the right to information and freedom of expression, which is besides others anchored in the paragraph 11 in the Chart of Fundamental Rights in the EU or in the paragraph 10 in the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. Governments of European social-cultural environment settle with the duty to provide pluralism and diversity in the media sector mainly by means of regulation of ownership terms. Thus, the main factor - if not the only one - affecting pluralism and diversity of media is considered the issue of ownership. Increasing property concentration leads to decreasing pluralism and diversity.
4 Media market

Media market is a specific type of market consisting of three aspects: existence of medium is manifestation of freedom of expression and information dissemination; running commercial medium is economic enterprising; medium is a means which can in a significant way influence public opinion – it has become means to its managing, using for propaganda purposes.

Media market has been fundamentally changing and these changes are striking not only in the print media, where it comes to the change of paradigm of journalism that stops to be dominantly on newscasting, commentaries and analyses, but it is increasingly more concerned with entertainment and service information. It is clear that quality content will be shifted into low-cost magazines. The behaviour of readers has also changed – they move their attention to the electronic media – TV, the Internet. The interest in media content and information has changed from quality one to entertainment one. There is a fall in economic performance of print media and changes in ownership structure are logic.

Changes of owners themselves are neutral, but currently they have a significant impact on the complete course of events in the media, where especially a negative reaction of a part of editorial staff from the daily newspaper SME symbolizes a change of ownership terms for the Slovak public.

Apart from having doubts of the fact that ownership of media organizations has concentrated in the hands of increasingly less amount of individuals; there appear discussions on the fact if the concentration is harmful at all from the viewpoint of the quality of media content. Looking for the answer to the question if accession of powerful economic groups into ownership structures of media publishers is a direct threat of freedom of speech is widely discussed. Freedom of speech is one of unavoidable conditions for accomplishing fundamental social functions of media as a tool of a watchdog of democracy.

In this context the interconnection between economic interests and media influence is extremely dangerous when media stop acting as watchdogs and become an important tool not only for economic interest
of media owners. In this relation, there is a wide discussion on how to prevent several owners to take control of media environment.

Actually, I have read one opinion that it is essential to establish a new independent authority for the supervision of media (media owners) with the aim to protect mission of the media and enforcement of public interest - among other things, to prevent monopoly over ideas, opinions and the truth. The influence of the company Penta (owning the newspaper SME and 7 Plus) is questionable, together with the company Eseton owning a new independent daily N, which was established by ex-editors of the daily SME.

The opinion of one of media experts John Soloski is interesting: "Objectivity is the most important component of professionalism of news as a set of rules, by which organization has a control over its employees. The people trust to media because it seems that the articles are written as expert articles of the journalist. The same situation is with TV and radio. People will learn from them what is new, necessary, healthy, useful or "hot". Political interests of media owners also appear in the foreground. On the other side, potential of media organizations owners to influence the content has been decreasing with the growth of modern corporations where the ownership is scattered among more people; companies are owned by experts and the editorial staff consist of journalists – professionals that have enough freedom and autonomy to make their products suit process standards and codes of ethics.

The most direct impact of the owner can be seen on extra-media level. Media – in contrary to other sectors – are not only sources of profit but also of power. The owner can directly assert their political and trade interests with their help. Media institutions, which represent the essential subject of business activities on the media market, are on the one hand social institutions accomplishing certain social tasks and on the other hand they are production organizations focusing on products that would suit both social and media owners’ requirements. They often reach it by means of diversification of its product offer, which is submitted to the target audience. One of the basic ways is to achieve

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broader diversification of the offer by creating a media institution, or a company, in which there is merged ownership of different media. As an example we can mention merging of a quality and tabloid daily, TV stations and magazines and likewise.

The more growing concentration of ownership and the more media organizations get into the care of increasingly smaller number of corporate owners, the bigger is the chance that reporting on various public issues will get into conflict with the interests of one of subsidiaries of parental organization. Several media experts approve the studies proving the impact of the owner’s interests on the content and they conclude that media are less critical to parental organizations, have a tendency not to show media industry as a political pressure group; that editorial standpoint (which is given by the owner) has an impact on the newscasting part of the content and that the groups and opinions which are not mentioned is in compliance with what we can expect on the basis of corporate and commercial logics.

It is important to be aware that concentration of ownership is considered by several economists as a natural process of market mechanism functioning: the more powerful will survive and expand, whereas the weaker will leave the market. However, the interest of viewers in not damaged, as it is exactly they who decide on what they want and do not want, in case they want the content of better quality, there will be a company on the market which will provide such content.

5 Concentration of ownership

Concentration of ownership strengthens essential negative tendencies of profit-motivated and advertisers-supported media: hypercommercialization and degradation of journalism and public service. Media system has increasingly closer bound onto economic system – whether by means of ownership or relying on advertisements.

To say it simply and exaggeratedly, due to concentration of ownership on the media markets there operate only a limited number (as it is economically more convenient) of media organizations controlled by the same people instead of a bulk of various newspapers, radio or TV stations owned by a number of people with different views or social-demographic features. De facto they produce mutation of the same content by means
of different channels over and over again. Differentiation acts only for effect, so that the audience believe that they can have a choice.

Conclusion

What trends can be expected in media in the near future, surely under assumption that there will continue recovery of economy what should be directly seen also on the media market? Increasingly more print media will be published only in digital forms. People will get used to tablets and smart phones – using them they will read books, newspapers, but also watch TV programmes. There will be a significant move of expenses from more expensive traditional media to cheaper digital platforms. In them advertisers and advertising agencies will seek to establish themselves. In implementation of new trends in the media – and this is also a task for us – it will be necessary to work out new methods of media evaluation, new indicators of return rate of investments into media in compliance with the requirements of economy of media.5

We are witnesses of situations that media many times provide information partially „falsified“ in order to address the biggest possible number of their potential clients. Every day, if we are aware of it or not, we face a situation when media with a small „slight adjustment„ have an impact on their sales, of course for their own sake. To be good at the logic of the media world should belong to elementary erudition of a human being living in the 21st century. It is necessary to select objective information from biased information that is offered to us by many media. People who only passively accept information are easy „meats“ for the media, they are easily influenceable. Information falsification often provided by media frequently involves – which is sad – news covering areas affected by armed conflicts. The recipient of information learns how many enemy soldiers were eliminated, what economic and political progresses have been reached in the country stricken by an armed conflict, how many „good“ soldiers on the side of the Alliance died; however we receive very little and very rarely on the suffering of ordinary civil population, which is daily exposed to the horror of the war. In the field of finance or politics

we often witness lexical collocations, for instance „one economic analyst said“ or „a political expert claimed“. Currently, it is too often and popular to use interviews, or rather commentaries of economic analysts and experts on politics. The problem is that one personal opinion of a human is used and submitted to a numerous amount of TV viewers and readers of the daily press as the universal truth. Media influence public opinion in all areas, not rarely in the field of law, investment, product purchasing and armed conflicts.

In our times, there comes to a change in the paradigm of media ownership. The market of Slovak media will be changed in a fundamental way by accession of new owners. New owners will change the paradigm of a media owner who was focused primarily on the profit, their interest in the future will be the impact (political, economic, all-society one). It comes to the changes of the content and formats of the media. There are established and will be established new media projects, which will try to create counter-balance mainly in the media content (investigation and unfortunately also rough tabloid); their influence will be seen mainly on the Internet. Only the most successful media projects will appear also in the print format. The issue of media functioning requires an interdisciplinary solution – with specific individual approaches to public-service and commercial media.

The key for creation quality media content is emotion and vision. It literally opens the „hearts“ of the percipients. However justifiable by the brain power our message may be, it is always intended for people and they will accept it easier through an emotion than through rational argumentation.

Let me finish with one beautiful idea from the Gospel of Mark, Chapter 4 and Line 22: „For there is nothing hidden, but must be disclosed, nothing kept secret except to be brought to light“. – the idea which should be added into the Code of Ethics for all media workers.

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FIRST ATTEMPTS IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA TO OBJECTIVIZE DATA IN ADVERTISING IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE 20th CENTURY

Dušan Pavlů

ABSTRACT: The defining element of the Czech advertising in the 20s and 30s of the 20th century is an attempt of the members of the Reklamní klub Československý (the Czechoslovak Advertising Club/the Reklub) to apply scientific findings to practical advertising activities. The Czech advertising professionals were inspired largely by the findings coming from the U.S., especially by many new applied scientific discoveries in sociology, psychology, economy, journalism, arts and humanities, managing methods, etc. Among the first professional steps taken by the newly founded Reklub in 1927 we can – already in 1930 – see an analysis of the actual circulation of newspapers and periodicals with the aim to significantly contribute to the objectivization of the publishing data and verification of the presented figures as a follow up to the effectiveness of print ads. Our Czech advertising professionals were truly inspired by the practice of the American institution ABC having tried to bring some solid rules into the advertising practice in USA as early as in 1914. The Reklamní klub organized the whole activity as a substantial help to Czech advertisers.

KEY WORDS: advertising, market research, effectiveness of advertising, objectivization of the circulation of newspapers and periodicals

1 Introduction: More general socio-economic background rationale and professional conditions for development of advertising during the 20s of the last century

The era of 1920-1930 is described as the period of the first inter-war economic or business cycle. Having overcome the crisis in 1923, Czechoslovakia follows the trajectory of growth typical of a major increase of industrial production. The economy of the young Republic rapidly absorbs a large quantity of scientific discoveries, managerial findings especially from the American environment, implements new technologies, new forms of organization of production. We can see a much faster pace of electrification, development of motoring and air transport, people start to use the radio, film and telephone on a mass-
scale. Production is gradually concentrated in bigger manufacturing and production complexes, capital is concentrated and the economy becomes monopolized. Products are standardized, new forms of trade and shopping appear – department stores. In 1930 in total 562,000 people\(^1\) worked in all forms of trade – wholesale and retail, foreign trade, consumer cooperative trade, auxiliary trades, hotel and catering business. The dynamic of the economy gradually results in the dominance of supply over demand, i.e., in the necessity for manufacturers, producers, traders and vendors to adopt an active business behaviour in the market. Advertising enjoys an unheard of dynamic in 1927 leading to the first important institutionalization of advertising activities – i.e., the foundation of the Reklamní klub Československý (Reklub) (The Czechoslovak Advertising Club/the Reklub).

\[2\] The Reklamní klub československý (the Czechoslovak Advertising Club/the Reklub) and professionalization of the field – ethic and effectiveness

And it is exactly the Reklub that is the key driving the development of advertising – of the advertising media, tools, activities, unusual forms of commercial communication and as the major organizer of all advertising life in the era of the 1\(^{st}\) Republic feels most the flaws in legislation, ethics, concrete everyday advertising practice. It comes as no surprise that exactly this organization in its Statutes approved on 21 November 1927 under the ref. no. 72579/27\(^2\) of the Ministry of Interior ČR in the art. 2 of the Statutes declares: „The purpose of the club is to study modern advertising, sales organization in general, disseminate their awareness, promote modern advertising and selling methods, care of a better advertising and fight against a deceptive and economically detrimental advertising, represent the Czech advertising in the country as well as abroad and generally protect the interests of advertising professionals“. In the characteristic of the means used to fulfil this purpose, it is stated in the art. 3:

„The Club achieves its purpose by these means:
1. Organizing lectures, courses and meetings, visits to industrial and trade facilities,

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2. Cooperating with institutes and corporations the purpose of which is related to the intentions of the club,
3. Informing the public and the press,
4. Filing suggestions and comments to the legislative bodies, government and authorities,
5. Publishing magazines and publications or supporting magazines and publications published elsewhere,
6. Organizing competitions, fairs and exhibitions and/or cooperating in these events,
7. Collecting and processing statistics regarding advertising,
8. The Club archives with collections and the Club library,
9. Free of charge mediation of positions,
10. Participation in enterprises and efforts with the aim to support and develop advertising, and
11. Representing the Czechoslovak advertising in the public, at the government and at the International Advertising Association."

In the art. 9 of the Statutes – Duties and responsibilities of our members - the higher sense, the underlying meaning of all activities to be pursued by the Reklub is clearly defined in these words: „Besides the duties and responsibilities defined by the Statutes, the members bind themselves to support the activities of the Club with all their strength, protect the Club from all possible harm and especially in their club and non-club activities aim for an ethical and aesthetic advertising. “ (highlighted by the author)

As evident from the highlighted passages the Reklub clearly declares its efforts to introduce ethical principle in advertising activity and involve scientific methods in the preparation and execution of advertising activities with the aim to create a better advertising and fight with any deceptive and economically detrimental advertising.

There can be no doubt that these efforts are admirable and praiseworthy by definition, however, we should still feel free to ask a question whether the Reklub had offered anything to follow up on and how it was actually working at the time of its existence. As we are going to prove in its work it actually completely fulfilled the letter of the Statutes and became the real driving force of our advertising life until its very end in 1949. So, it has lived up to vision of an important personality, of the one who was the spiritus agens, the founder of the Reklub – Ing. František Munk, national economist and politologist and in 1924–1926 General Secretary to the
International Federation of Students and later director of the foreign department of the Pražské vzorkové veletrhy (the Prague Fairs). In the preface to a reviewing publication 3 YEARS OF THE REKLUB - HOW THE REKLUB WAS BORN AND GROWING (1928-1930) he says:

„In advertising we are still the Orient and only long years of work, study and attempts will take us to the commercial, business organization where we are today, e.g., in machinery. The problems of industry are shifted from the manufacturing and production to the distribution. We don´t know whether we rationally manufacture in our country. But we know that we distribute the goods in a very non-economical manner. It is certain that our commerce, business will look different in 10 years. Also the advertising will be different than it is today. The role of the advertising club will be to ensure the development goes in the direction towards a good advertising. It means to an honest advertising and to an advertising that meets the aesthetic requirements.“

As early as in 1927 another founder of the Reklub, Dr. Jan Brabec, longtime editor of the magazine TYP, published a first publication about modern advertising titled the Principles of profitable commercial advertising (on the basis of American studies and experience). The book systematically emphasizes the American accent on effectiveness, performance, measurement of effects, comparison of profit and expenses. In short the author of the publication wants to pass on enough information to guarantee the advertising professional was not in the tow of providers of various advertising services (concept creating, text and copy writing, polygraph services, owners of publishing houses of newspapers and periodicals, film industry, radio broadcast, etc.) but to be adequately qualified for a professional discussion with them and with enough arguments to enforce their strategies. I´d like only to mention his strong accent on the principle to see that the vendor before starting any advertising had all his steps thoroughly thought out and planned, knew what he wanted to do and how it is going to be done and how the final impact and effect of the vendor´s activity will be measured and assessed. He underlines the importance of such preparation and says the plan can´t be put through without the awareness of the facts. And the facts need to be obtained through examination of the market (market research). He characterizes the research process by the following 5 steps taken one by one:

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3 3 years of the Reklub - how the Reklub was born and growing (1928-1930). Praha, 1930, Reklub, p. 5-6
1. Examination of the goods
2. Examination of their buyers
3. Examination of competition
4. Examination of sales systems
5. Examination of selling methods and sales organization

Considering the fact the book was published 88 years ago, it is surprisingly up-to-date and in essence only little should be changed to apply these principles to practice. It must be symptomatic that it is exactly Jan Brabec, and exactly in this very publication which was strongly influenced by his prior stay in USA, defines another important question that in the coming years becomes one of the activities of the Reklub: the issue of audits of the circulation of then the most mass-scale carrier of advertising – newspapers and periodicals.

Jan Brabec in the chapter titled „About advertising means in general“ in detail analyses the topic called Circulation of advertising means (by circulation he means the number of copies and their distribution) – note by D.P.: “The question of circulation is, how much it will cost to reach a certain number of people. The more people see and read my advertisement, the more likely a bigger number of those on whom the advertisement has the desired effect. …… Still in some countries the question of circulation in the use of magazines is a problem. In our country the advertiser is still completely dependent on the data of the publishers.” Jan Brabec subsequently deals with the right of advertisers (buyers of advertisements – note by D.P.) to know the circulation of the periodical: „The advertiser has the full right to know the truth for he buys not only one place in the magazine but he buys it exactly as many times as that magazine is circulated. He buys it as the goods and it is a real commercial, business matter to know what has an impact on its value. It means the number of circulation and its quality. So, it is not enough to know just the number of copies printed but also how many copies sold and how they are selling, whether sold in subscription or at

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shops or distributed through free sale and in what ratio." He deduces the sale to subscribers is more worthwhile as these readers read that title more carefully and usually one copy is read by more readers. Moreover, the subscribers would typically have a more intimate relationship to that title, perceive it as their own and „have far greater trust to the title and to everything that is contained in that title.“ What I think is very important is the statement of Jan Brabec regarding the knowledge of the target group of readers. The author underlines the publisher should know the nature of the readers of his title, be able to differentiate them by their profession, wealth, etc., – so, in the modern language today be able to segment the target group of readers. „In America some magazines go to the great lengths to send advertisers photos of some of their subscribers to their homes to show them what kind of people read their magazine.“

In this connection Jan Brabec repeatedly declares his admiration to USA – in his opinion a country very much ahead in many fields of manufacturing, production, trade/business and advertising: „In the United States, likewise in advertising in general, they are most advanced in the question of a precise and classified circulation of magazines. The advertisers there were at first guided by circulation which, by the law of that country, the publisher is obliged to make public as a sworn statement of the number of copies every half a year. Besides, the company publishing the directory of magazines put a star to every magazine with the sworn circulation and offered a hundred dollars to anyone who would prove that the circulation of any of the magazines stated was not right."

Apparently, for the first time in history of Czechoslovakia in the 20s of the 20th century the term: Audit Bureau of Circulations is mentioned. Jan Brabec explains that an organization ABC was founded in 1913 and its members are the publishers of newspapers and periodicals, advertisers and advertising offices. „Every member-publisher should complete a questionnaire with 28 questions every half a year. In general we can say the questions are aiming to establish how numerous the circulation is, how

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it was obtained and where the magazine is read.” (Actually, J. Brabec is mistaken here - the ABC organization was founded later, in 1914).

It is very likely that one of the sources of the continuous efforts made by the members of the Reklub in the direction to objectivize the input advertising data were also the alarming results of a survey organized by the Reklub in 1928 mapping the business and corporate advertising activities and attitudes of advertising business and corporate professionals towards the developments in the field. No more detailed information about the method used to conduct this survey is, regrettably, available, however, it is my belief the results are, after all, a signal that might contribute in an attempt to tackle and resolve these issues.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHICH TYPE OF ADVERTISING DO YOU MAINLY USE?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Print ads in newspapers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaflets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in shows, exhibitions and fairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In cinematographies (cinemas)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calendars and other advertising small presents/gifts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 – Frequency of business/corporate advertising activities

60 % of the asked answered the question: do you do any advertising for your business: Yes, regularly, 38 % answered: Yes, occasionally and merely 2 % answered: no, we don’t do advertising at all.

In terms of the subject studied, even more important for our purposes is the structure of the answers to the question formulated in the survey like: Do you have a guarantee the number of copies of magazines given to you when you order an advertisement is real, true? Yes – 6 %, No 94 %.

10 3 years of the Reklub - how the Reklub was born and growing (1928-1930). Praha, 1930, Reklub, p. 13.
3 First attempt of the REKLUB to objectivize the circulation of newspapers and periodicals in the ČR

It is my opinion that all this information didn’t get lost on the membership of the Reklub for several reasons. It must have been topical in terms of inconclusiveness of the generally stated data to the publisher in relation to the advertising public and in the second half of the 20s in the view of more and more frequent signs of the economy slowing down advertisers placed a much greater emphasis on the effectiveness of the money spent on their advertising, in particular, on its most often used form – print ads. And, finally, as mentioned above, the Reklub in its Statutes made a resolution to collect and process statistics regarding advertising and strive to have an honest advertising, an ethical advertising. The current situation evidently didn’t meet the parameters of the club culture, and so in June 1929 as stated in the publication titled: 3 years of the Reklub, the extraordinary general assembly of the club in the context of discussing the current questions of our advertising looked into the activity of the committee for audits of the circulation of magazines. Regrettably, no other information sources have been found until now to tell us more about its activity, nevertheless, the subject of objective information about the number of copies and of other information about the structure of the target group of readers was still highly topical as indicated, e.g., by the information published in the magazine TYP – an illustrated title for modern business - from March 1929:

“The number of copies is not everything. When you buy an advertisement, don’t ask only about the number of copies published. You’d better ask how many people read that magazine, how big is the purchasing power of those people and with what interest and attention they read it. In terms of the number of copies of a magazine it is not only how many that decides but mainly the quality. Big numbers don’t necessarily mean the quality.”

The information from the professional press of that time suggests that a year later the situation in this area is relatively dramatic. As mentioned in the magazine TYP 2/1930, pp. 88: „The question of the number of copies of magazines – we have wrote about several times in our TYP - has stirred up a lot of attention in our country. When finally will our publishers get it that no one believes the number of copies they state and is not going to believe and that it causes a general aversion towards the use of magazine and

11 3 years of the Reklub - how the Reklub was born and growing (1928-1930). Praha, 1930, Reklub, p. 21.
12 TYP 3/1929, p. 132.
insert supplements, which, as we all know beforehand are mostly destroyed anyway? When finally will they understand that solidity is the core of every fair business and that the publishing of magazines is a business as well and initiate the foundation of an organization to publish numbers of copies of magazines for its members, check and verify them on their request? The “Reklamní klub československý” has taken the initiative in this matter. It is irrelevant whether the right organization is founded by the Reklub or by the Ministry of Trade. But what matters is to set up this organization in the foreseeable future as under the current circumstances the innocent suffer together with the culprits. TYP will join the organization immediately when established.“

The March edition of TYP on pp. 134 publishes an extensive information about the situation in the area now. J. Brabec writes about a wish to finally realize one of the conditions for success of advertisements, „the advertisers should have a chance to get familiar with the magazines in which they advertise. They should know whether the price asked is the fair and right price and they should know the main thing – how many people read that magazine and if possible, where are these people and what kind of people they are.“ He mentions two possible routes to achieve the desired status. He describes the legislative initiative of A. Hatina, Member of Parliament, and his colleagues who in the National Assembly submitted a bill to make it mandatory for all publishers of periodical and non-periodical publications with print ads to report the number of copies to special committees founded by the chambers of commerce. According to J. Brabec the other route is the initiative of the Reklamní klub československý to publish semi-annually a „Report of number of copies and distribution of Czechoslovak magazines“, which would be based on the questionnaires completed by publishers. The information would concern not only the average number of copies of magazines but also specify the number of the paying and non-paying subscribers, state how long has the magazine existed, where and in what percentage read, and so on. The Reklub considered a possibility to make three categories of newspapers and periodicals in terms of objectiveness of the collected data: the first group would consist of the titles the data of which would be audited by the special committee of the Reklub. The second group the titles where the number of copies was certified by the public notary and the third group the titles with not certified data: „The circumstances are definitely ripe for resolution of the question presented and for many magazines it is just a habit from the old times which prevent them to join such an organization. It is certain that the matter won’t be easily
resolved and will take many years before people and their mind have been reeducated but we have to start one day.”

In the July edition of TYP 1930 J. Brabec in his regular column **What is new in our current advertising?** admits that in the end of the 19th century no one was concerned about the facts regarding the numbers of copies of newspapers and periodicals: „Many publishers perceived the question about the number of sold copies of that magazines as impertinence. Others were very willing to provide their own data also called “information” and spoke about millions when in reality it was hundreds. Their smart guess about the number of copies a gullible advertiser would find credible was their only limit, the only thing that held them back. … When the Audit Bureau of Circulation was set up in 1914, our advertisers had accurate and honest reports on the circulation …. No advertiser today has to buy blindly the distribution. The reports A.B.C, indicate the checked figures not only in total but also specified according to the different regions of our country. But it has much other useful information about the ways of distribution.“

As stated in the **REPORT ON THE ACTIVITY OF OUR CLUB IN 1930** produced by then secretary of the REKLUB dr. Jan Brabec they successfully completed the first stage of the objectivization of the data about the circulation of magazines: „The other activity we very much cared about this year was to publish the „Reports on the circulation and distribution of Czechoslovak magazines.“ The former committee for audits of the circulation of magazines was immediately after the general assembly liquidated and it was our Club that directly took action in this respect. The outcome of this work, our first „Report“ – in spite of covering a relatively small part of magazines published in our country – is a real action one can hardly ignore. It shows a feasible way to introduce more honesty in our advertisements and also more profitability for all the involved. Initially, anything new faces resistance and so we should not be surprised that this activity of ours faced a lot of resistance, primarily, from publishers. However, I am sure that in due time more and more publishers understand that to give reliable information to advertisers means more and more adverts bought and can do no harm.“ In February 1931 the Reklub publishes the results of their activities in a book. The Reklub says in the preface to the book: „There are two bases, two necessary conditions for

14 TYP 7/1930, p. 324
15 3 years of the reklub – how the reklub was born and growing, p. 33-34.
16 Report on the circulation and distribution of czechoslovak magazines in
any business enterprise to succeed – **solidity and awareness and being informed**. None area of business activity can count on a **constant** growth and success without them. Our advertising suffers just because it largely misses on these two characteristics. The advertisers are deceived by the circulations of magazines and not informed to know **where, who and how** the magazines are actually read. The publishers of many magazines are left to the mercy of discount bullying they don’t benefit from and nor do the advertisers as a whole. **THE TRUTH WINS.** The Reklamní klub československý wants to contribute to see this unfavourable status quo that is harmful to our advertising, advertisers and publishers of magazines gradually removed. Hence, it publishes its „Report on the circulation and distribution of Czechoslovak magazines“. It covers 193 magazines grouped into three categories: magazines audited by the special committee of the Reklub, magazines certified by the public notary and other magazines. We know this report is not complete and covers a relatively limited number of magazines. However, it is just the first step and we are sure that in time more and more publishers will see that honesty, awareness and knowledge are the needed conditions to multiply our advertisements and that all advertisers will support our efforts.“

The data contained in this publication represent an interesting evidence of that time and it would be desirable to compare them with the generally proclaimed data of that time. But this comparison is still waiting for its author.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.</th>
<th>MAGAZINES AUDITED BY THE REKLUB</th>
<th>18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B.</td>
<td>MAGAZINES CERTIFIED BY THE PUBLIC NOTARY</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.</td>
<td>MAGAZINES OTHER</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OF THOSE dailies</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Newspapers other than dailies</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Magazines entertaining (social magazines)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Magazines professional/scientific and educational</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2 Structure of the data analyzed in the publication: REPORT ON THE CIRCULATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF CZECHOSLOVAK MAGAZINES IN 1930**

1930 (Published by the Reklamní klub československý for its members and advertisers). Praha : Reklub, 1931, p. 2.
The example of the newspaper with the highest circulation documents the meticulous manner in which the Reklamní klub československý tackled the urgent task, how detailed information it collected and checked:  

**Magazine: VEČERNÍ ČESKÉ SLOVO (Saturday)**  
*Place of publishing:* Prague – Year of foundation: 1918. – Published on: Saturdays.  
*Price per edition:* 20 hellers  
*Average circulation of one edition:* 386,186 copies  

I. **Sold paid:**  
   a) Subscribers rural 2,611,  
   b) shops, rural 230,848,  
   c) shops, Prague 95,801.  
   d) small-scale sale (returned copies included) 35,264,  
   e) free of charge supplement to the morning Sunday edition for rural 2,184,  
   f) for Prague 245,  
   g) subscribers, rural 15,697; in total sold copies paid 382,650.  

II. **Distributed for free:** In total free copies 3,536. The sold and free copies in total 386,186  

*The auditing performed by the Reklamní klub československý in the days:* 6, 8, 9, 17, 20 31 October and 25 November 1930

**Conclusion**

The above example of an analysis of the circulation of one title out of 193 titles checked in total documents how thorough and meticulous the Reklub was in his work and we have every reason to believe this praiseworthy initiative led by the Reklub in the spirit of their sense for fair play in the field of advertising activities was not really welcomed in the ranks of many publishers. This is supported by the fact that despite their proclaimed effort to publish these verified data in semi-annual intervals there is no information to be found in the later publications of the Reklub confirming any further activity in this area. We can only guess why not: was it the pressure of publishers against the entry of the Reklub into their field of activity? Or, perhaps, was it too laborious to collect the data and not enough qualified assessors in the ranks of the members of the Reklub? Or, was it anything else like…..?

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But even with the awareness that it was a one-off activity, we can show respect to the attempt of our forebears to clarify the situation in at that time the most used carrier of advertising – newspapers and periodicals. In their effort to make advertising activities more effective, apply to practice the really scientific findings of market research, research the effectiveness of advertising which was systematically presented in his work from 1927 by Jan Brabec, the Reklamní klub československý followed the right direction. And this is proven by the next decade of their organizing, research, educational work in the field of advertising, in creating a positive relationship of the public to advertising as an information source not only in the area of commercial and business activities but also in the sphere of social marketing and the State publicity and promotion. We are speaking not only about the period between the wars but also about that of 1945-1948 which still awaits its objective and fair analysis and assessment.

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TYP 7/1930.
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917 01 Trnava
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RESEARCH THE MEDIA WORK IN THE CONTEXT
OF IMPACT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL, PEDAGOGICAL,
SOCIAL AND SPIRITUAL FACTORS

Silvester Sawicki

ABSTRACT:
The paper deals with qualitative research with elements of quantitative research the media work from view of psychological, pedagogical, social and spiritual aspects. Research sample was created of: 1. – Chosen mainstream TV and press and alternative internet media from Slovakia, Czech republic, Russia and Great Britain. 2. – 443 individual respondents from Slovakia and Czech republic. 3. – 16 chosen media redactors from Slovakia and Czech republic. We found out that in Slovakia 38% respondents don’t trust media and 27% rather distrusts respondants media. Little bit more of respondents are taking medias as non – objective. Next we found out, that examined media are knowingly different in interpretations of the same subjects and stories. In relation with that we found out that these different interpretations are impacted by psychological, pedagogical, social and spiritual factors with researched redactors. These factors are showing up in individual reception and processing of information’s and stories by our brain.

KEY WORDS:
psychological, media, analysis, reception, information’s, objectivity, factors, trust

1 Introduction

Medias play a crucial importance not only in shaping opinion, but also politics, values and the overall culture of the society.¹ They affect our lives, values thinking, spiritual attitudes and relations.² Therefore, it is important that we pay wide disciplinary attention to them. It is needed to scrupulously research activity of the media not only in terms of Mass Media and Politics, what is the traditional method, but also from the perspective of other disciplines, which they interact with, such as psychology, sociology, pedagogy. These allow us to reveal deeper

¹ PETRANOVÁ, D., VRABEC, N.; Persuázia a médiá. Trnava : FMK UCM, 2013, p. 86.
relationships, connections and processes that take place in the media. In particular, the impact of media on human life, social relationships, quality of life, development and the formation of personality, but also the impact of psychological patterns that affect the objectivity of the media and act in the perception and processing events and stories by redactors and impact of social groups in their work. These psychological factors are acting consciously, as well as unconsciously and hidden, which means that we consciously do not know about them, and therefore we cannot even affect them. Their knowledge and research can help us more comprehensive understand the media process and thus more effective set the system elements in the media, which influence the quality and objectivity of it. We also tried to make this research and we are presenting the results of it to you in this study.

2 Research methodology, work procedures and partial results

Research problem
According to many experts media are failing in their mission objectively, seriously and honestly present the informations. Research shows that a significant proportion of people distrust media. The question is what is the consequence of this situation? Media analysts pointed to the promotion of political, ideological, economic, transnational and other interests in the media, but also for professional editor’s failure. Media analysts are pointing to the promotion of political, ideological, economic, transnational and other interests in the media, but also for professional redactor’s failure. We consider that the problem may be in another aspect. For example, from the view of psychology is questionable whether a man, as a subject, can objectively perceive the reality? If we apply it on the media, then we can ask if redactors can objectively perceive informations and events and subsequently objectively reconsider them and mediate

them to recipients? Nevertheless, that the redactors can really try it, psychological insights notes⁶, that we can not even objectively perceive or process and assess the informations and events. It is because in these cognitive processes enters a series of subjective factors of each individual. Each person perceives and processes reality, informations and events of life more or less distinct and unique. Problem is, that most people do not realize these subjective determinations and consequently believes that if one interprets the same event differently that this must be from his side knowingly introducing, lies, propaganda, or intellectual backwardness. This will then cause social tensions, conflicts, whether blaming each other of ulterior motives. We believe that also the following factors may cause the belief of many people on media failure, and that, they do not trust them. Demonstration of the effect of psychological, social and pedagogical factors in media work could help us eliminate many of the social tensions and mistrust, and on the other hand, set better mechanisms of media work, so that we can compensate impossibility of redactors to objectively perceive and interpret reality and events in it. Actually, it is about giving up the illusion that man, redactor, citizen, politics or an expert are be able to objectively and truthfully reflect the phenomena of life.

**Goals of research**

Our aim was to research how respondents perceive the media regarding the thrust. Furthermore, as the various media presents the same themes and events and how specific pedagogical, psychological, social and spiritual factors are affecting the work of the redactors. Specifically, we research the psychological, social and pedagogical factors that influence our perception and processing information and events by our brain. Our intention was also to see, to what extent those respondents from the media knows the listed psychological, social and pedagogical factors and determinants, and whether they are adding them into their work.

**Research questions**

1. What is the credibility of Slovak and Czech media for citizens?
2. Are individual media different in the interpretation and evaluation of the same themes and events? If yes, are these differences significant? How are these differences reflected in one media? How are these differences reflected in a mainstream and non-mainstream media?
3. What are the specifics of personality psychology of studied redactors in the context of the impact of cognitive-psychological patterns of

perception and processing information and events and how it may affect their work?
4. Know sampling redactors pedagogical-cognitive-psychological factors which affect the perception and processing information and phenomena’s of man?

**Research methods**
Core methodology, which we chose was a qualitative type of research. We have combined it with the use of quantitative method of questionnaire. Within qualitative methods we used interviews, case studies, content analysis of media texts and psychological protocol analysis. Our intention was to penetrate into the comprehension of events, detect causal relations and understand the often hidden essence of research problems. The research was carried out continuously for three years: 2012 to 2014.

**Research sample**
The research sample consisted of several subjects. We conducted the survey of credibility of the media on a sample of 444 respondents from Slovakia and Czech Republic. It consisted of men and women from 18 to 68 years. Women were 256 and men 187. Regarding education, it accounted secondary education without GCE of 19%, secondary education of 44% and college education of 37%. Selection of research sample was accidental. Content analysis of media accounted three mainstream televisions from Slovakia and Czech Republic, three mainstream dailies of Great Britain, Russia, Czech Republic and Slovakia, two weeklies from Slovakia and Czech Republic, five internet-based news portals from Slovakia and Czech Republic. We selected media to reflect the major and minor opinion groups, mainstream and alternative, printed, visual and internet media variously and ideologically profiled.
Qualitative research consisted of 16 respondents. Half men and half women. 10 respondents were from Slovakia and 6 respondents from the Czech Republic. Eight represented mainstream media and eighth alternative media.

**Results of research**
**1. To what extent do you trust the media?**
We researched the overall credibility of the media. Respondents considered various specific media, but the results are given for the three types of media in the summary.
Table 1: Trust the media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Absolutely trust</th>
<th>Rather trust</th>
<th>Rather distrust</th>
<th>Absolutely distrust</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>23,7% 22,6%</td>
<td>20,1% 23,2%</td>
<td>27,2% 31,8%</td>
<td>27,8% 22,1%</td>
<td>1,2% 0,3%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Czech</td>
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<tr>
<td>Press</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>21,8% 23,1%</td>
<td>19,1% 17,3%</td>
<td>26,7% 22,9%</td>
<td>31,2% 35,7%</td>
<td>1,2% 0,9%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Czech</td>
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<tr>
<td>Internet media</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>26,9% 24,7%</td>
<td>31,1% 33,3%</td>
<td>17,4% 18,8%</td>
<td>20,9% 21,1%</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Media total</td>
<td></td>
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<td>24,13% 23,46%</td>
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<td>23,76% 24,5%</td>
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</table>

2. To what extent do you consider media as objective?

Table 2: Objective the media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>rather biased</th>
<th>entirely biased</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>17,3% 19,4%</td>
<td>23,1% 19,7%</td>
<td>27,2% 25,7%</td>
<td>31,6% 34,6%</td>
<td>0,8% 0,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ČR</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>18,4% 16,1%</td>
<td>17,1% 15,4%</td>
<td>33,5% 30,9%</td>
<td>30,2% 36,9%</td>
<td>0,8% 0,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ČR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>24,3% 24,1%</td>
<td>27,1% 30,6%</td>
<td>24,7% 18,5%</td>
<td>22,6% 27,6%</td>
<td>1,3% 1,2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ČR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>20% 19,86%</td>
<td>22,43% 21,9%</td>
<td>28,46% 25,03%</td>
<td>28,13% 33,3%</td>
<td>0,96% 0,83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ČR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: The differences in the total score of trust of the media between women and men

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Leven test</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total score</td>
<td>146,84</td>
<td>132,02</td>
<td>12,9</td>
<td>13,24</td>
<td>1,60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

M = mean; SD = standard deviation

Leven test confirmed the consistency of the variances of both sexes (p > 0.05), confirming the suitability of the t-test for further testing. T-test
was confirmed a statistically significant difference between men and women (d = 1.42) significance level of less than 0.001. The credibility of the media in the Czech Republic and Slovakia is low. Interesting is, that respondents are even more critical to the objectivity of medias as to the credibility of the media. Psychologically we can explain it, that by the fact that when asked whether someone we trust in the process of mental processing (assessment) enters the emotions, because in such a question we feel some confidence, we perceive it as more personal question, of whether you consider any information to be objective. This type of question we consider (mental processing) more rationally, so we reply more honestly and we are more opened than in questions with emotional overtones, where we have a tendency not to be so open-minded, at least part of the population. These results correspond with previous researches of credibility of the media. In the Czech Republic in 2005, 56% of respondents trusted in media. In Czech Republic in 2010, 58% of respondents trusted in television and 48% trusted in press. According to the Edelman Trust Barometer, the situation in 2013 is even worse. In Slovakia, to the media trusted only 23%, in the Czech Republic 27% and in the rest of the world 57% of respondents. This agency is in their researches focusing only on the more informed and thus educated part of the population. The Agency notes, that credibility varies also as a result of media scandals in the countries.

Interpretation of results
The results confirmed our assumption that people largely do not trust media. So the question is, what everything is taking part on this distrust? Statistically significant difference between men and women in the perception of credibility and objectivity of the media is not surprising, because it is known that women respond as a priority on phenomena of life more emotionally than men, who react more rationally. Emotional attitude has in itself tend more to trust than a rational attitude, which tends to a critical analyzing of the subjects, which is reflected in less credibility.

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3 The different interpretations of the same themes by various medias

*Research questions:* Are individual media different in the interpretation and evaluation of the same themes and events? If yes, are these differences significant? How are these differences reflected in one media? How are these differences reflected in a mainstream and non-mainstream media? Based on the analysis of selected media, we found out, that they are differently and in some cases, contrarily informing about the same topics and events. The biggest differences are those between mainstream and alternative internet media. As an example, Ukrainian conflict, which some media interpreted as: 1. A terrorist act of pro-Russian Ukrainians supported by Russia. 2. As the civil war where resonate ethnic and cultural conflicts between the eastern and western Ukraine. 3. As a neo-fascist coup in Ukraine. 4. As a geopolitical game of USA and the EU in order to dominate the Ukraine and weaken Russia. 5. As a fight for democracy in Ukraine. 6. As a power fight of the Ukrainian oligarchs. It also took place in many other topics and events in the world, that those interpretations were similarly different and conflicting between each other. Interpretative differences have been formed within the frame of medium itself; however, these differences did not have an essential character. Large majority of interpretations of the same affair were homogenous-oriented opinions.

*Findings Interpretation:* There were many factors which influenced the results about significant interpretative differences of the same affaires in different media. We were interested in psychological, social and pedagogical factors, which will be analyzed in the following pages. While we were judging the interpretative differences, we mainly focused on the new affairs, such as the conflict in Ukraine, referendum in Slovakia for enactment of marriage between one man and one woman, etc. We have predicted that redactors will react on the new affairs spontaneously and their interpretations will not be influenced by different advocacy groups such as politicians, media owners, etc. Due to this fact, we could better identify the influence of psychological and other factors in media which could be verified in the next section of the research. The acknowledgement that within the frame of media itself, minimal interpretative findings were created, we can explain by affecting of psychological mechanisms of social groups.  

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media redaction represents the autonomous primary social group. They work on the principle of common ideology of objectives and values, what is the precondition of their cohesion and functionalism. If one group member corrupts this cohesion, for example, by presenting different opinions which express different values, ideology and objectives as the particular social group have, the social group creates social pressure on him/her to change his/her opinions according to the opinions of the group. If the particular group member does not do it, he/she will be socially isolated and finally displaced from the group (e.g. redaction). From the above-mentioned facts, we can explain our finding about minimal interpretative differences of the same media redactors.

4 Psychological processes of perception and informational manipulation

Research questions: What are the specifics of the behavioral psychology of analyzed redactors in context of the influence of cognitive-psychological lawfulness of perception and informational manipulation and issues and how it can influence their work? Are analyzed redactors aware of pedagogical-cognitive-psychological factors which influence human perception and informational manipulation?

Media respondents were exposed to the psychological analysis of their personality which consisted of psychological anamnesis focused on their childhood, parents care, social environment and intelligence test (The Kirton Adaptation-Innovation Inventory (KAI), Wechsler Intelligence Test), test of emotional and social intelligence (STEU – Situational Test of Emotional Understanding, Tromso Social Intelligence Scale TSIS), test of perception (The five aspects of perception test) and personality tests (BIP (The Business-focused Inventory of Personality, NEO-FFI).

Hypothesis:
Redactors interpret the same affairs and topics differently due to the fact that while they perceive and manipulate with information, they are influenced by individual specifications of their personality, religion, education, social environment, gender and by additional psychological factors.

**Research findings:**

1. As we have predicted, we found out that the analyzed redactors significantly differed in psychological and pedagogical characteristics of their personality. These differences could be divided into several groups:
   - Parents imparted them more or less different world-viewed, religious and philosophical values and world-seeing. These have stayed consistent in most of them.
   - Respondents significantly differed in achieved values of general, emotional and social intelligence.
   - Respondents significantly differed in achieved values of perceptual competence.
   - Respondents significantly differed in achieved values of adaptability and innovation.
   - Respondents significantly differed in achieved values of self-confidence and self-belief.
   - Respondents significantly differed in the area of preferred values, life priorities, world-view, religion and its importance in their lives.
   - Respondents significantly differed in additional personal characteristics, such as: openness or secretiveness to new experiences, neurosis, extraversion and kindness.

2. Respondents more or less differed in interpretations and attitudes to our stated topics and affairs: conflict in Ukraine, referendum in Slovakia for enactment of marriage between one man and one woman, disestablishmentarianism of the church, and several other topics or affaires.

3. There were respondents were connected with personal psychological characteristics, world-view, religion and values; we also registered convergence in interpretations and attitudes to our stated affairs and topics. On the contrary, if they differed in the above-mentioned characteristics, they also differed in interpretations and attitudes to our stated affairs and topics.

4. We have found out that there was significant concordance between interpretations of our stated affairs and their world-view and valuable preferences. In other words, their a priori given valuable preferences and world-view preconditioned how they interpreted our stated topics and affaires in the world.

5. Respondents have known nothing about how psychological process of perception and informational manipulation are being processed by our brain and how individual psychological characteristics of personality, education, world-view and valuable preferences are participating on
this process. The above-mentioned psychological knowledge has not been incorporated into their medial work. Analyzed redactors were more or less persuaded that their interpretation of issues and affairs is objective and correct and not subjective and deformed. Different interpretations of other redactors and persons were considered to be a demonstration of intellectual or moral failure, e.g. corruption, propaganda, etc. From the above-mentioned reason, different interpretations were refused in general, as well as in their media. They did not create the space for presentation of different interpretations in their media.

6. We have found out that analysed redactors from the Internet media who were referred to as independent and alternative to mainstream media were marked with higher self-confidence, self-belief and self-openness to new experiences to compare with redactors from mainstream media.

**Evaluation of results**

According to the above-mentioned findings, we can conclude that psychological characteristics of personality, education, world-view and valuable preferences influenced the analyzed respondents in:

- how they perceive and manipulate with affairs and topics about which they were asked
- how these affairs and topics were interpreted and presented in media

According to this, it is necessary to explain how psychological process of perception and informational manipulation are being processed by our brain. In the first phase, there is a reduction or selection of perceived information and issues in that way the brain would not be overloaded with too much information and would work effectively. The selection is being progressed in our sub-consciousness. The brain allows only that information to our consciousness which was evaluated as important, psychically safe, trustworthy, valuable, etc. Other information are eliminated and moved to unconsciousness, so they are not ascended to our consciousness, however, it does not mean that we do not know about them. What is considered by our brain to be important is influenced by our personality focus, religion, motivation, education in childhood, priorities, education, goals, etc. What is considered by our brain to be trustful is influenced especially by our actual experiences, but also by family

education, world-view or religion. What is considered by our brain to be safe is influenced by our self-consciousness, self-belief and self-openness to new experiences. If we are more or less closed to new experiences and if we have low self-consciousness and self-belief, information which stands in contrast with our belief or religion, is evaluated by the brain as dangerous and not allowed to our consciousness. In other words, we are not brave enough or self-confident to accept such information. Person who is not self-confident and has lack of self-consciousness is not sure, and psychical stability is covered by leaning to external authorities such as religion, ideology, etc. with which is identified. Information that stands in contrast with them could not be accepted because it would cause the damage of psychical stability. Simply, there is nothing to rely on. After the informational selection by our brain, there is the second phase and it is the manipulation. There are different restrictions and determinations in this phase, too. Our self-consciousness and self-belief determine us if we will create personal opinion on some affair or topic or we will lean to some authority’s opinion which will be admitted as ours. We are also determined by other psychological factors, for example, intelligence or perception. People with the average intelligence cannot understand complicated issues and it can cause the misunderstanding of them. People with lower level of perception are not able to catch the important signals what causes the misunderstanding of the affair. People with average social intelligence cannot adequately imagine to be in the position of other people and their acts can cause wrong interpretations again. The problem while manufacturing of information can be also caused by other psychological factors such as religion, secretiveness to new experiences, psychical illnesses such as paranoia, neurosis, intolerance, egocentrism, etc.

According to these significantly reduced information during the perception and mistakenly manufactured information, we create individually different opinion and attitude to the given topics and affairs. In this way, we can express significant part of different presentations and interpretations of the same topics and affairs by different media.

The finding that analyzed alternative media redactors achieved the higher self-consciousness, self-belief and openness to new experiences in this media, could be explained by the way that they creates bigger space for presentation of self-opinion which differs to social opinion. As it was presented, it is necessary to have higher self-consciousness and self-belief. Our findings confirmed that alternative media presented
a scale of original opinions and attitudes which have not appeared in such measure in mainstream media. Presentation of similar world-view, as was founded out in mainstream media, shows that redactors are not brave enough to present their original opinion what was confirmed in our research.

Conclusion

As it was mentioned in the introduction, the progress of our society is dependent on the quality of our medial work. The crisis of relationships, increase of egocentrism, loss of spiritual values, disinterest of people about other people and additional social anomalies can indicate that one of the causalities also rests in the crisis of medial work. Our research tried to recover some connections. Mainly our opinions and attitudes, but also perceptions of reality are considerably subjectively determined by the individual psychological, but also pedagogical and social factors. We are not able to objectively perceive, think and evaluate and we should become fully aware of this actuality. In medial sphere it is an important message which should be deeply incorporated into the system of medial work. If we are not able to perceive objectively and evaluate information and affaires, if there are many unconscious psychological and social factors that significantly affect our world-seeing, then, media, while they are presenting their opinions, should be more careful, less dogmatically advocate their truth which is always relative, and they should create the space for the presentation of the widest opinions´ specter, because only that way we can be closer to the truth and knowledge. That should lead to the higher perception of others´ opinions, to the higher appreciation and as the result, relationships in the society could be improved. We are not able to verify or guarantee the objectivity of media because it will always be relative. It depends on the receivers of media products how it will be accomplished, but we need less dogmatic truths and more equal opinions´ spectrum in media. Our research had mainly qualitative character and its results are restricted in their validity. The results of the research need to be developed and scientifically verified. In spite of this fact, we think that our research discoveries help to recover some important medial actualities, we had no idea about or they were not spoken.

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THE MEDIA AS A „RELIGION“ OF THE WEST:
ELEMENTS FOR A POSSIBLE CRITICAL THEORY
OF MEDIA

Denko Skalovski

ABSTRACT:
The text tries to outline some aspects of the complex and contradictory process
of the transformation of the media garden of (post)modern era: the notion and
“etymology” of media (McLuhan, Habermas); ontological status of the media
(Anders); the media as a phenomenon of the mass industrial society (Morin,
Zinoviev); media as a product of the Western culture and democracy: a means of
political and (over)ideological propaganda; (Arendt, Chomsky, Zinoviev, Said);
digital media as a political project of globalization (Beck); media as a “religion” of
the West (Zinoviev); media in the defence of the “threatened” national interest
and producer of the “enemy”; (Chomsky, Morelli, Skalovski); media as a producer
of fear and mass anxiety of the Other/Others (Todorov, Said); media from gender
aspect (Jordan/Weedom, Marcuse). Conclusion: instrumentalization of the
mass media for the purpose and function of a socio-political system and system
of material and spiritual values (Fromm): construction of reality; production,
standardization, control, and manipulation of the notions, emotions, thoughts,
and consciousness, but also the behaviors and procedures. (Chomsky, Marcuse,
Foucault, Zinoviev, Miloš, Kosik)

KEY WORDS:
media, propaganda, globalization, manipulation, instrumentalization, religion,
property, gender, West

1 Introduction

One’s own death is not a media event.
(Hans Magnus Enzensberger)

The philosophy of the media is considered one of the most important
areas of modern philosophy. The transformations of the media garden
are permanent, dynamic, contradictory, and multilayered processes,
which have been ongoing intensely in the past several centuries and
especially with the emergence of modern industrial societies in the West
and worldwide. These processes are so numerous, multidimensional,
complex and controversial, that they can not even be observed and recorded, let alone be analytically and theoretically articulated, reflected upon, and systematized into elements of a possible “hermeneutics” or a philosophy of the media. Therefore, in this short text, our ambitions are extremely modest and we will only try to outline some aspects and dimensions of these processes, which give the main hallmark of the modern and postmodern era of development, the zenith and sunset of Western civilization and culture.¹

## 2 The notion and “etymology” of media

Determining the term *media* begins with their history, starting from parapsychological and mythological notions of magical mediation, i.e. the medium as a specific person who through hypnosis enables contact and communication with some other, distant, and foreign world. Despite its primordiality, archaic and sincere naivety, this *mythological* understanding has preserved until today the certain dose of authentic discursiveness, relevance, and actuality, so that every “new” medium holds some old “magic”.²

Today, the term of media or even *mediology*, especially the French one, as a scientific discipline which examines the media - has comprehensive, generalizing, and integrative ambitions. It becomes concept of all existing means of communication; it conveys different and heterogeneous contents (ontological, aesthetic, ethical, literary, sociological, political, ideological, economic, legal, military, technological/industrial, futuristic, etc.) and hence it is difficult to define its borders and its significance.³ Therefore, today, a comprehensive, inter-disciplinary, and transdisciplinary *culturological* and *social* theory of media and *communications* is being developed, which examines the history of media, technology of media, aesthetics of media, new media, mass media, digital media (eg. the internet), even marketing and *advertising*

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In simplified terms and with a great deal of self-awareness and criticism, this theory, the (post)modern global society - with all its channels for communication – observes it as a big “rhetorical machine” for “continuation of people” and creating a “typographical” and “mass” human being without private life, without one’s own face and identity. Within these interdisciplinary theories, theories of social systems arise which treat the media as important interactive parts that enable these systems to function, and they constitute the constructivist concept of media. This concept introduces a distinction between the technical media - mostly dealing with distribution and transmission of information – ranging from the symbolic communications media, which have the function of standardization of a social, economic, political, and cultural “order” and a tool for its axiological regulation, direction, and orientation.

With such an extensive expansion of the concept of media and their meaning, the research is being stimulated about the history of media and their structure, the processes for their constant transformation, the interference and hybridization, the ups and downs, successes, failures and paradoxes, all located in a particular historical context.

3 Ambiguous ontological status of the media

*Esse est percipi*  
*(To be is to be perceived)*  
(George Berkeley)

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Our time clearly gives priority to the image over the thing, the copy over the original, the notion over reality, the illusion over being.

(Ludwig Feuerbach)

The philosophical “forecasts” of Berkeley and Feuerbach for the ontology/anthropology of modern times were perhaps most fulfilled particularly in the field of global media. After World War II - especially during the Cold War and the fierce political and ideological propaganda and antipropaganda – the media in countries of the “real socialism” were the main speakers at the “official truth”. However, on the other side, in the “liberal” and “democratic” world, in a sophisticated and camouflaged way, the media invaded all pores of Western culture, especially art. The media have lost their original “innocence”, their “aura”, their uniqueness and the ontological objectiveness. They created a new, media civilization, with new antinomies on the relation: man → world → holy man, whose horizon is reduced on a unilateral, one-way and one-dimensional existential line: world → man. In the world of a profit dictate of the technological compulsion the man is seemingly free in his choice of personal life solution. In the spirit of Schopenhauer, the world is my/our image, not something objective. But the relentless dialectic of the subject-object relation “outside” dictates my opinion, emotions and actions. “Personality” becomes a media product of my own non-freedom, and my life reality is a reproduction of my reproduction. “The Self “is a finished product of the totality of the reproductive cycle of the social ontology of the profit political economy.

Speaking of ruling over totality, history has shown that we are one step away from totalitarianism. Abandoning authenticity, lacking critical distance, losing the sense and expediency and their perverting into “phantoms and matrices” of the modern world (Anders), is that the media makes them accomplices in the creation of all forms of totalitarianism in the 20th and 21th century. Today, it is quite clear: the media and totalitarianism are “twin towers”.

If this ambiguity of the ontological status of the media (most often the radio and television) was relevant in the early 80s of the 20th century, then what about us, after thirty years of global digital experience, which is even more phantom than the television. The former television experience was truly a children’s story told in the calmness of the warm philistine home (home sweet home) in comparison to this world of ghosts in the global media simulation and the power of its fictional reality.\textsuperscript{12} Also, the ketman practiced by intellectuals in the countries of the former “real socialism” is mere child’s play in comparison to the ketman applied today by numerous intellectuals in the Western democratic societies.\textsuperscript{13} However, the “socialist” intellectuals at least had a distance; they were aware that they were lying, and today many Western intellectuals lose that critical distance toward themselves and toward the world, and they start to believe their own lies more and more. They become latent schizophrenic and they create a schizophrenic social being.\textsuperscript{14}

Television was once the main imperial cultural force which could be applied to anything and everything, and today the prefix is already useless and pointless, because it does not denote a relation and connection toward something; because today social networks are everything and anything, and beyond that everything and anything there is nothing. Hence, the world is a world, the world is something, the world exists, only if it is observed, if recorded and perceived, if heard (écoute) and seen (vu) by someone, i.e. by us, who are familiarized, informed and aware of it and of the “phenomenology” of its existence. Hence, the world is news, and Esse est percipi becomes Non percipi est non esse.

Of course this is where only the ontological and cultural analysis of the status of the modern media begins, particularly the digital media, but for the elaboration of philosophical observations, e.g. of Martin Heidegger, Paul Virilio, Manfred Osten, and many other contemporary philosophers, scientists and artists, there is much more space needed than the space designated for this short text. So, we may do it in some other occasion.

4 The mass media as a social phenomenon of mass (post)industrial society: political and ideological implications

The constatation that the appearance of the mass media is directly related to the emergence of the mass (post)industrial society and Western mass and (pop) popular culture, and vice versa, has already become a mass, trivial and banal constatation itself. From the late 20th century, the media have been more and more researched from the aspect of their role in the creation and construction of reality. “Media events” (eg. the role of CNN during the Gulf War in 1991/1992) and the possibilities of computer simulation and manipulation with images and tones (selection of news and staging events) after who knows how many times, actualize the issue of responsibility of the reporters and journalists, and the responsibility of intellectuals in general.\(^{15}\) Given the fact that the mass audience receives the reality almost exclusively through the media, a minor part of the recipients (including the top intellectuals and powerful politicians) become aware that they are victims of manipulation and constructions. However, even they are unable to fully check the authenticity of the information offered and served to them by the media in an “avalanche” of picked, selected, censored, and already interpreted and “filtered” information, semiinformation and misinformation.

Hence, today, as the interest for respectable journalists and politicians increases (whose word can still be trusted), at the same time their number decreases. Speaking of politicians, means speaking of politics: the decline of opportunities for using accurate information leads to an unequal distribution of information and knowledge (knowledge is power) and reduces the equality of chances to participate in the political life, and thus it questions the legitimacy of the democratic systems of the Western societies.\(^{16}\) Although even the most democratic systems are establishments tailored according to the interests of the financial, political, and military elites and individuals, they gradually lose their power of influence over the masses and that power is assumed by the media and media houses. The logic of the media no longer overlaps with


the logic of the politics and their interests more increasingly diverge.\textsuperscript{17} Depending on how the media will present them to the masses (eg. during the pre-election campaign) popularly we can conclude that unlike the previous, common opinion of “fear” from the powerful politicians, today, the influential politicians are more “afraid” of some influential journalists and TV stations than the influential journalists are “afraid” of some influential politicians. Therefore, in this regard it is a matter of obvious vertical inversion in the hierarchy of the institutionalized power.

However, politics is only one of the important spheres of society, as it is the economy and its dependence on advertising, thus both depend on the “will” of the media. Nonetheless, the frames of the business and politics are limiting and the media cover and capture the totality of the Western societies: education, science, culture, health, sport, and even the judiciary and the church. Not to mention that the media penetrate even into the privacy and deepest intimacy of people’s lives. On the other hand, especially in recent times of international terrorism, public punishment, torture, crimes, and horrors of public executions are becoming media events.\textsuperscript{18}

Today, media are highly structured and powerful corporations,\textsuperscript{19} a kind of a well-paid “third force” of the society, something like a “state within a state” or “shadow government” and the advertising and entertainment are becoming the strongest ideological and political weapon in propagation of one system of values, “culture” of living, and style of a “cultural and leisure life”.\textsuperscript{20} “They are information and disinformation, apologetics and criticism, in service of the government and business and opposition to the government and business, preaching morality and preaching immorality, educating and dumbening, battle of ideas and interests, realistic reflexion of life and distortion of reality, life activity, in one word - the quintessence of social life in all manifestations of its subjective factor.”\textsuperscript{21} (underlined by D.S.) The principle of objectivity

\textsuperscript{17} KRIESEI, H. et al.: \textit{Demokratija u eri globalizacije i medijatizacije}. Beograd : Libertas, 2013.
remained a long forgotten ideal, and the principle of subjectivity became the basis of the (post) modern life, knowledge, industrial techniques and science, and art is its main determinant.\textsuperscript{22}

Depending on the current profit interest and conjuncture, as well as of many other “uncultured” factors, the media adopt even the right of ‘public judge’ of what is being created in the culture, ranging from themes and ideological orientations, and ending with the creation and construction of the mass aesthetic taste. Great art is often ignored and marginalized, and out of the petty and banal pulp fiction. The media produce hits, bestsellers and “most watched shows and TV series”. They do not meet people’s higher aesthetic needs, but just the need of fun and relaxation (with a lot of sex and violence), and their perception does not require much mental effort and spiritual involvement. The so called take-it easy culture expresses all the “unbearable lightness of being” (Kundera) of the modern human being (man and woman) and all of its ordinariness.\textsuperscript{23}

The entertainment industry becomes the most developed branch of industry, which produces a whole range of mass “cultural” goods: from TV series and soap operas, through luxury monographs on the life and work of famous actors, politicians, athletes, and other public figures, to commercial advertisements and flyers. In a word, fun (entertainment industry) becomes the “active” factor in the spare time of the man of the Western civilization, and an effective way of “consumption”\textsuperscript{24} and the passivization of a vast numbers of people and disabling any of their actions and feedback reactions. Hence, Noam Chomsky gives the most concise and aphoristic conclusion: Anything, as long as it is not serious.\textsuperscript{25}

With “leisurely”, fun and cool means, the mass media succeed in defocusing the attention of people from the important problems of their daily economic, political, and cultural reality, and to preoccupy them with the “serious” problems, frustrations, “accidents” and “heavy torments” which the rich elites face, for example professional athletes, movie stars, and popular celebrities from the world of business and politics, in their emotional and especially sexual lives (sex scandals). In

\textsuperscript{22} SLOTERDIJK, P.: Misilac na pozornici. Sarajevo : Veselin Masleša, 1990.
recent decades, especially after the tragic death of Princess Diana (with all due respect for every human life!), the mass media are flooded with trivial information about the private and family life of the royal families and their “hardship”, “tragic” and “unfortunate” life story.

In this way, perfidiously, skillfully, and successfully a conservative, fatalistic, passivistic, “consoling”, “calming” media ideological narrative and “tragic” dramaturgy is being sold. Its outline in a few unspoken and implicit messages would sound as following: “We are just ordinary human beings; although rich and powerful, we too are equally unhappy as you are, so, that is why, do not envy us for our wealth, and be satisfied with what you have, because it makes you happier than us; “money can not buy happiness”; money can not buy love; money can not buy health; money can not guard health as it is in the hands of God, who has determined your fate, which you try to resist or escape from in vain. So: Don’t worry, be happy! Or, put in “more serious” philosophical terms: Amor Fati, love your own fate (Nietzsche) and the media simulations and virtualities, especially the digital ones, will help you forget that you are hungry, that you drink poisoned water, that you have no money to fix your rotten teeth or that you can’t afford to treat your girlfriend a drink (Coca-Cola, of course!), and your virtual relationships and cyber sex will compensate for love.

5 The media in times of conflicts and wars

If the most popular definition of war is that it is a continuation of politics with other means, then the media, during the war or preparation for war, only modify their rhetoric and speech: from “commitment to peace” - into “hate speech”. Modern wars are not only unthinkable without propaganda, manipulation, encouraging and incitement, conducted by all types of media, but some wars literally would not have been possible without psychological, mental, and any other “logistical” preparation, especially for those conquering and interventionist wars undertaken by the imperial leaders of non-conflict, non-aggressive, and “peaceful” nations. It is a historically documented fact that most people, in general, do not like physical conflicts and wars, especially when they fear for

their lives, which is natural and normal. Therefore, the main task of the media is to develop a methodology of military propaganda, which has to persuade, i.e. to convince the public for the need to change the mood - from a sense of security - into a sense of insecurity, fear and “danger” of the foreign “enemy”. Thus, depending on the needs for customization of the particular case, a classic and already widely known patriotic military “narrative” is presented: “we do not want to fight, but we have to defend ourselves from them; we have good and they have bad intentions; we are the “good guys”, they are the “bad guys”; they started first and they attacked us, we didn’t provoke them, but we had to defend ourselves; our wives, mothers, sisters and daughters are dishonoured, their women are whores who offer themselves and mislead the honest sons of our Motherland, etc. etc. (I apologize for the use of vulgar words, but in this context it is inevitable – note of D.S.)

So, every well-developed propaganda methodology and machinery is presenting war as a conflict between civilization (we) and barbarism (enemies) always and necessarily the division of we and they, us and them, ours and theirs, exists. We and ours are being declared and mourned as victims, heroes and the raped; and they and theirs are stigmatized as satans, genocidal criminals, and rapists. In all available media, the foreign, hostile army (regular or guerrilla) is presented as a wild horde of unscrupulous human freaks, atheists and devils, demons and pack of beasts.

6 The media as mythology and “religion” of the West

The mass culture is an embryo of the religion of world’s salvation, but it lacks the promise of immortality, holiness, and the divine in order to become a religion.

(Edgar Morin, 1979)

The media is an impersonal deity of the Western society, being worshipped by those who are, or are considered, masters or rulers. (...) They are their collective authority which acts as an absolute rule towards each and every one. For the power of the church in the feudal era was not only rested on a relatively small number of priests, but upon the whole population, who accepted the Church, and who inserted in it the bits of their alienated “self”.  
(Alexander Zinoviev, 2002)

Instead of the United Nations, an organization appeared called the United Coca Cola.  
(Ulrich Beck, 2003)

Morin’s valorizations of the mass culture being the embryo of the religion are perhaps exaggerated and pretentious, and Zinoviev’s valorizations that the media is an impersonal deity of Western society which strives towards a new “ontology”, or even “theology” of mass culture and mass media, but the fact that both phenomena have implicit religious dimensions is undeniable. The way the fables, legends, stories, and especially computer visualization of various beliefs in miracles, apocalypses, prophecies, deliverance, Judgment Day, or narratives about negative utopias are presented, increasingly get shape of a secularized religion. However, Morin himself, after carrying out a full analysis of mass culture at the end of the 70’s of the 20th century, eventually was forced to admit that “mass culture cannot suppress or destroy religion and the state.”31 (underlined by D.S.)

Therefore, in its essence - laid in Morin’s terms - the mass media still remains Olympics without athletes, mythology without myth, religion without God, eternity without immortality, and Vatican without Jesus. Despite the colorful neoliberal “packaging”, we continue to live in a time of corporate capitalism as a mutation of the state capitalism; the mass return towards authentic religious awareness, especially among young people, is perhaps (?) one of the ways of spiritual resistance to mass (un) culture and its politicized, ideologized, indoctrinated, and corrupted institutions and derivatives such as the mass media.32

Unlike Morin, Zinoviev as a member of one, provisionally speaking, Orthodox Christian culture and civilization - with all its specificities and differences from the Western, provisionally speaking, Catholic and Protestant - is in a position to more objectively and from a critical distance analyze and validate the same social and cultural phenomena of the Western societies, including its new “religions”. Zinoviev starts from some terms and categories from the always-inspirational Marx’s thought, including the role of the media in a modern society and its “opiate” religious effect, as well as from the developed Marxist theory (Lukacz) of alienation and reification. Zinoviev has the great advantage of having personal life experience from the days of the Soviet Union and the negative and the positive legacies of the socialist system (including Former Yugoslavia/Makedonija) which has already been abandoned today.

These several factors contribute to Zinoviev’s analysis to be more thoroughly empirically and theoretically founded and well-grounded which ends with a relevant critique of the Western hegemony during the peak and decline of its global power (globalization), which would never have been achieved without the global mass media, especially the informative ones and their instruments, starting with the explicit and aggressive political, economic, and cultural propaganda and ending with “ordinary” Christmas advertising in which Santa Claus and children drink “ordinary” Coca-Cola.

In the beginning, we have said that the assessments of Morin and Zinoviev were perhaps exaggerated and pretentious, but the humorous irony of Ulrich Beck is not pretentious at all. On the contrary, it demystifies the role of the United Nations (certainly the most global organization in the history of mankind!) for which the global media have managed to create an image that it is infallible and most consistent in the human rights struggle around the world, instead of plain, unilateral, “extended hand” of someone’s foreign policy - the US. There is no better example of advertising and commercialization of the religious feelings of the world citizenship than that in which the symbol of religiosity Santa Claus holds in his hand the symbol of the new world “religion” - Coca Cola. As a New

Year’s gift, out of his magic bag “for free” gives away Coca Cola to the little God’s children, who shout together in tune: “That’s the one! That’s the one!”. Therefore, the slogan Coca-Colonialism is not only a fun semiotic wordplay, but also the symbol and the most known brand of the world’s post-colonialism.

7 The Media from the Gender Aspect

As of the end of 60s, representation becomes a key issue in feminist politics. (Jordan, G., Weedon, C., 1999-2000)

The liberation of women will be a painful process, but will be an inevitable, decisive step on the road towards a better society for men and women. (Herbert Marcuse, 1975/1985)

Because this is a relatively new topic it is not enough only to list the famous names of modern feminist theory and practice, who would analytically address the phenomenon of the representation of women in the global, including the digital, mass media. Similarly to other topics for which we do not have the needed time distance, here again, most often we are satisfied with the arbitrary conclusion: in comparison to before – the condition has improved. Come on now?! This “historicism” and “progressism” are only the quantitative explanation, but not qualitative justification and they serve only to appease the conscience. Essentially, the position of women in mass media has not changed significantly. This particularly refers to the Balkans, including Makedonija, where mass media commercialization and exploitation of the nude female body is taking place, especially when it is associated with the hidden prostitution, global and “transit” sex tourism, human trafficking, and sexual slavery.

Increased widespread sexist representation of women in the media, for example the unlimited exploitation of the female body as a sexual object, especially in advertising and mass production of all types of pornography and the media offer of prostitution with “guaranteed discretion”, are only extreme examples of the worsening situation, which is supplemented with a growing number of sexual violence cases against women, sadistic molestation, hazardous and cruel behaviour, including
incest and pedophilia. In psychoanalytic language speaking, the instinct of death defies the life instinct and positive libidinal energy is changed into negative self-destructive force.\(^\text{36}\)

It means that we can be “satisfied” with the quantitative presence of women in the media space, but when we see how women are represented, in what purpose their “representation” (or misspresentation) serves, and what are the consequences, we must admit that – paradoxically and strikingly - the dignity of women (including a female child, and the massive exploitation of female child labor) is as damaged and degraded as in the time of the conservative “closedness” and patriarchal “hiddenness” in the home and family, but which allowed for, more or less, “consoling” protection of her dignity and social function.

Today, the question arises whether women have freed themselves from one evil only to be put in a greater one, lost in the labyrinths, nightmares, and controversy of the modern and post-modern male/female ethics?!\(^\text{37}\) On the other hand, do the photos of female guards at concentration camps show the extent to which women in capitalist society can be functionalized and dehumanized? Finally, will the conflict between women who are fighting for their emancipation and women from the ruling classes be stronger than the clash between “man” and “woman”?\(^\text{38}\)

The answers to such provocative and “patriarchally” posited questions require extensive anthropological, ethical, and any other social and “cultural” analysis, which - due to the relatively new global or multicultural phenomenon - we still do not have in a sufficient extent in the gender strategies, in both camps – liberal feminist on one side and gender sensitive and “concerned” men on the other.\(^\text{39}\)

8 Instrumentalization of mass media
(instead of a conclusion)

*Panem et circenses*
(Bread and games)
(Iunius Juvenalis)

The media are formed and function exactly in a way as needed and as it is possible in one society. They perform their functions better and more successfully than the political, legal, cultural, and many other social institutions. If the material basis for the reproduction of a society and the reproduction of its social status, relationships, and symbols is based on the laws of capital and the logic of profit and loss, i.e. if that particular society is a society of “possession” (having), then the media are proprietors and masters of the truth - as truth for the society itself, and truth for other societies. As for the higher and deeper philosophical, anthropological, namely ethical, aesthetic and “religious” dimensions of the media – most “ordinary people” in the West seem not very concerned or interested. Inaction, inertness, and conformism are common and usual “state of mind” of the masses. “Revolutionary” calls, especially today, are no longer able to move them toward something freer, better, more democratic, and more humane. The media most successfully control the rule over people, effectively implementing the “legendary” strategy of *Panem et circenses*.

Our final conclusion (and every conclusion is unavoidably a simplification!) could be: Today, the media, especially the mass media are an instrument of a certain socio-political system; they are used to construct reality, to produce standardization of the human needs, wishes, and desires. They control and manipulate images, emotions, thoughts, and conscience and also behaviors and actions of the people. Long time ago they have lost their original and authentic teleology, ethics and sense; they no longer meet the elementary, democratic human right for objective informing; their task has long been producing false images and “necessary illusions” (Chomsky), in order to control and manipulate the thought in the democratic societies, where the very notion of democracy is compromised to its maximum extent and is twisted into a ordinary ideological term. The media are in function of a conservative reproduction and prolongation of the “eternal” and

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40 FROMM, E.: *To Have or to Be*. New York : Open Road Media, 2013.
endless existence of one **establishment** and a **system of material and spiritual values** of one civilization and **culture**, which definitely shows signs of unsustainability and total exhaustion of its all human and natural **resources** and “internal” reserves.\(^{41}\) What has remained of McLuhan’s “channels”?! They are turned into a **digital sewage** of the well paid intellectual and moral poverty and misery, in the service of the rich world elites and oligarchies.

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ABSTRACT:
The objective of the research was to develop a theoretical framework for planning activities to build capacities of civil society organization for effective media relations. The regional context is that of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Albania, Kosovo, Macedonia and Turkey where a need to improve current media capacities of civil society organizations has been recognized. The basic aim of this research is to give a strategic direction to further improvement of the relationship between civil society organizations and media which also includes mapping future building capacities of civil society organizations to engage and become visible in the media, therefore developing public relations and media relations skills. The conceptual framework for this strategic direction includes capacity building of professionals engaged in communication and media relations function, advocacy and awareness raising in a dialogical and relational communication model, and effective communication to ensure quality relationships that include collaboration and possible partnerships.

KEY WORDS:
civil society, building capacities, media relations

1 Introduction

The baseline study that provided insights into the relations of civil society organisations and the media titled “The Missing Link”, indicated low competency and skill level of activists and professionals in civil society organizations in the region. Organization Technical Assistance for Civil Society Organizations had, in 2013, organised country based consultations that resulted in concise descriptions of challenges of the problems of media - CSO relations and proposals how to overcome them.¹

¹ The notes and inputs during the plenary and group sessions were based on experience and expertise of the participants many of whom were competent in both areas and motivated to contribute to the improvement of a CSO-media relationship that had been considered challenging in many aspects by the majority of them. [online]. [2014-12-5]. Available at: <http://www.tacso.org/doc/doc_missing_link.pdf>.
The relationship between the media and civil society organisations can be considered one of the main pillars in the success of public relations function of an organisation which has as its aim creating trust and achieving common understanding of the organisation with its stakeholders and publics it serves. While this general statement applies to all organisations regardless of the social sector they belong to, it is even more relevant to the civil society organisations whose mainstream activities are focused on social interests and the rights of citizens. If the reason for the being of civil society organisations is to broaden the limitations and boundaries within legal social framework and sometimes even beyond it, then this core function of civil society organisations can hardly be realised without the support of media and developed function of media relations.

Needless to say, the state of the media, particularly the part of the equation that involves increasingly powerful new media that have deeply shattered the holding concepts about public relation planning and implementation, depends primarily on social, political and economic contexts of the society in which media operates and, of course, on the economic and political positioning of the media organisations themselves. Traditional print media are losing commercial battles everywhere in the world and many are going down fighting to the last minute. At the same time, some other traditional and some new media are gaining huge new publics in the considered region. For the purpose of this strategy, though, some general remarks that apply to all the countries need to be singled out as follows, with the remark that those listed here by no means exhaust the list. To be kept on mind when evaluating the relationship of the media and civil society organisations, therefore, are the following contextual elements:

- Economic crisis and recession affecting citizens and consumers of media content
- Political instability and related controversial issues in some countries combined with unrest and turmoil
- Global lack of trust of citizens towards politicians and governmental structure in general
- Raise and sophistication of technological means of communication combined with the quest for higher transparency

The results of “The Missing link” research acknowledge unregulated or insufficiently regulated public spheres in the examined countries. Those challenges from the research that focus on the main problems in the relations
of media and civil society organizations are of primary importance for the requested strategic inputs regarding CSO - media relations. The research makes a point that fundamental problems that burden this relationship are mainly based on the lack of knowledge and understanding about each other and this relates to the weak capacities of the media and civil society organizations and internal and external problems in their functioning.

The main conclusions of the report are grouped in themes (mutual visibility, awareness, communication, trust and cooperation). These problems were additionally elaborated and supplemented during the working groups and frame three main problem areas that lead further to three main strategic pillars.

The first problem area is the lack of knowledge and understanding of both media and CSO organisations about what is it that the other side does and how can this can be used in activities of organisations on both sides aiming to achieve organisational goals. This set of problems is related to their internal procedures and processes, to the overall environmental context but also to the lack of competences and skills of professionals to understand how the other function operates and what are its missions and goals. All three sources of information, (Missing link, country meetings and workshop groups) point to the lack of knowledge as one of the main source of misunderstanding. Media do not know what civil society organisations do and what is their role in democracy and civil society organisations do not know how the media function, do not understand their priorities, and do not follow the rule of relational communication that has been shown in previous external studies in some countries of the considered region covered region to be the dominant type of communication particularly in the case of communication of civil society professional with journalists. In addition, while journalists do not know what is it that civil society organisations do and, in the increasingly commercialised media market, civil society organisations do not offer them stories that sell, CSOs show, apart from not knowing how to initiate relations with the journalists, unsatisfactory knowledge and lack of necessary skills to master communication with the media and use media for advocacy purposes. In essence, lack of capacity in competencies and skills and lack of knowledge and understanding of the overall environment in which the other side operates is one set of problems that heavily dictates the negative score in relationship between media and civil society organisations in the considered region.
The relationships that are, thus, sporadic or even none-existent are, further, heavily burdened by the insufficient mutual trust or lack of it. Both media and civil society organisations share a number of prejudices about the other side which contributes to the lack of trust and prevents them from looking for options to build quality relationship. In general, journalists seem to trust CSOs in the matters of general social problems and issues related to civic rights and alike, but are, at the same time, often prejudices against civil society organisations as foreign funds dependent bodies that do not have public interest goals, that contribute to further culture of dependence etc. The lack of trust found as a problem between media and CSOs in the considered region, however, needs to be considered in light of global dynamics of category of trust which is best elaborated in the “Edelman Trust Report”, a big global research published annually which warns of the global erosion of trust.  

The information on trust or the lack of it pointed at in the “Missing link” report and other two sources, leads to the conclusion about the need to monitor trust of publics to civil society organisations. This is not only important in comparison with global trends where civil society organisations have a certain reservoir of trust with the general population (as opposed to politicians and corporations, for example), but also in relation to data obtained in the secondary research within this strategy paper that has led to the conclusion that it is obvious that the trust in traditional media by the general public is on rise in some of the countries in the considered region (B&H, for example).  

It might be assumed that the problem of trust between civil society organisations and media is not necessarily only linked to the overall problem of trust that is eroding globally but also to the specific external and internal circumstances that are related to the media and civil society organisations relationships in the considered region. As one of the consequences of both sides doubting “sincerity” and commitment to social causes of the other side, it becomes very difficult for civil society organisations to use media for the purpose of advocacy of socially needed policy alterations or reforms. Advocacy, at the same time becomes crucial strategic direction in using communication to improve CSO media relations.

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Finally, the third cluster of problems in the considered relationship builds on the lack of trust and is framed as the lack of collaboration and the absence of efficient communication, manifested also as lacking procedures, standards and strategies on how to approach the other side and how to build a mutually useful relationship that would lead to fruitful cooperation and ultimately fruitful partnerships. Public relations function in civil society organisations in the considered region are not necessarily opposed to media particularly because the two roles are, and can be, in compliance and supplementary to each other. It has been pointed out, as one of the conclusions of the previous research and assessments, that there is certain presence in some areas of substantial reservoirs of good will to improve relationships and raise them to the level of collaboration. This is very encouraging because it shown that with adequate targeted interventions positive change could be achieved. Effective communication is the building brick in the wall of collaboration and partnership on which successful relationship resides. Currently, civil society organisations use communication models that are not always most efficient ways of communicating to journalists, and, in addition fail to closely monitor and evaluate media coverage or evaluate it from the point of view of social interest.

2 Strategic Framework

It is very important that the communication process taking place between civil society organisations and the media be all the time assessed in light of the fact that media are not only a stakeholder and publics to CSO but even more so, the channel through which civil society organisations can reach other stakeholders and publics that are crucial to them and their missions. Relationship between public relation functions of civil society organisations and journalism are synthesised as normative models of journalism and two ways asymmetrical/two way symmetrical communications between civil society organisations and the media. This synthesis yields four models of public communication currently operating in the considered region with an impact on relationship building that form a strategic framework for effective communication between civil society organisations and the media.

The first of the models in which this communication takes place is the commercial model where the CSO communicator or the person in that role and a journalist are in the position of sales people with the aim to
satisfy in the best possible way the interest of the client organisation. In this model, civil society organisations target media at a market and media only adopt the content that can be sold at the market. This model is very present in the considered region. No doubt that that one of the main challenges relates to the fact that civil society organisations do not know how to serve media, they lack competencies and skills to target media with the attractive messages, human rights stories etc. Yet, in order to make a progress towards cooperation with the media, civil society organisations need to use commercial model of relationship with the media and need to be better equipped to be able to use it. In this particular model there is no clear difference between public relations and journalism. It should not be forgotten that there are risks related to the commercial model too, particularly for civil society organisations which are not commercial entities and should not put themselves into positions that compromise their mandate and their social purposes for commercial reasons.

Persuasive model is another model of public communication which both sides share since they, in more or less open way, show the tendency to impose their interests or interests of their organisation on publics. In this model which is asymmetrical by its nature the goals of civil society organisations and journalism are similar and cooperation oriented. In the considered region this model of public communication is rarely used by both media in relation to civil society organisations and by civil society organisations themselves. It is not clear from the data at disposal, whether such a model is recognised as powerful and useful communication model on a larger scale. The assumption is it is not, since the persuasive power of civil society organisations towards media outlets is clearly the problem. CSO communicators, therefore, often lack persuasive skills and other people skills to impose their themes on the public agenda via media. On the other hand, media use persuasive model in communication with publics and exercise a great power to influence attitudes and behaviour. That power is then, often not used enough for social interest, because social interest in media activity is mainly suppressed by commercial interest.

In critical model of public communication, liberal journalism has the role of a watchdog and focuses on the interest of the audience, while public relations focuses on the organisation aiming to protect the organisation against attacks from the media and to send positive messages. Many examples were given during the research and the workshop of this
type of communication model, particularly in the case of civil society organisations being targeted by media as not fulfilling their social role, not having transparent policies and procedure etc. The messages by the civil society organisations and the criticism by media are in this model complementary but because of different goals the conflict is necessary part of their relationship based on this model. Again, civil society organisations lack capacity to present their policies and procedures transparently and gain media approval instead of criticism.

Finally, what has been found to be the least used and should be the subject of commitment of both sides is a dialogical communication where civil society organisations and media communicate on the basis of two-way symmetrical model of communication. This model of communication whereby the organisation is ready to alter its initial positions based on the feedback and the reaction of the other organisation, stakeholder or publics, is rarely implemented by civil society organisations in the considered region, mainly for the lack of knowledge about dialogical communication or the lack of skills to impose that type of communication. Media, particularly new media, however, do use dialogical communication increasingly and are therefore also valuable channel for indirect dialogical communication of civil society organisations with their publics. In this type of communication to which both side should commit, the relationship of the two sides would be based on the cooperation.

The four models of public communication develop a framework that portrays the area of potential cooperation between media and civil society in supporting the mutual goals of promoting and protecting social interests. This framework serves to position media relations of a civil society organisation in efficient communication terms. This positioning of media relations, in addition, needs to be considered within the pattern of media relations which function not only as traditional media relations but also as network based media relations which adds new quality to the concept of media relations of an organisation. It is particularly relevant for civil society organisations in the considered region because it carries the potential to broaden the scope of their interest which is related to an increased power of new media and velocity of change of new technologies.

In that respect two types of strategies for media relations need to be considered; classical media relations based on objectivity and
neutrality and network made media relations based on subjectivity and neutrality. On the media side these two types of media relations address professional media which are divided on media positioned within traditional journalism and open journalism and participatory media which are placed within the area of the so called citizen journalism and the social media sphere.

The relevance of this framework for the assessment of media and civil society organisations increases rapidly, since, with the changing media environment and the evolving online atmosphere, traditional media relations strategies are shifting to practices that are more relevant to social media environment. In this framework that can describe majority of media and organisations current situations, the open journalism (journalism practiced by organisations, civil society organisations included) and the traditional journalism remain the basic mutual ground for the development of this relationship and use of media for civil society organisational goals. The most evident example of the scope and influence of open journalism outlet would be a newsletter and related links that demonstrate the need for a civil society organisation, or their cluster, to coordinate activities both within traditional media relations and social media relations. Apart from traditional media relations, civil society organisations address also participatory media which is of primary importance for media relations and promotion of their mandate and role in advocacy they play in the society. Social media relations, on the other hand, use different tools within their linked networks to access citizens through open journalism and social media sphere. As it is evident from the model and can be concluded from the numerous practical insights, successful media relations of a civil society organisation (or a cluster of those organisations if they decide to unite strengths in order to achieve better communication results, and, therefore, form a cluster of organisations) need to develop both types of media relations in order to be able to communicate successfully efficiently with their publics and use media for their organisational goals.

3 Strategy Pillars

The strategy for media relations of an organisations should, as it has already been pointed out, be developed as a part of an overall communication strategy, or public relations strategy that is to be considered as an integral part of the overall organisational strategy.
While this basic assumption stands for any organisation regardless of the sector it belongs to, it is particularly important that it be treated as a basic rule in developing a strategy for an organisation that belongs to the civil society. In fact, civil society organisations, per definition, are supposed to use media in implementing their organisational goals because of the public interest they represent and promote and the wide publics they need to reach in implementing their mission.

Possible links between assumed future objectives and media strategies of civil society are added at the end of this strategy paper as an example to consider when drafting future strategies and planning to bridge the gap that evidently exists between the media and civil society organisations. For the purpose of this strategy input, though, three strategic pillars are proposed as shown in the figure below.

The problems, lack of knowledge and skills, lack of trust, and lack of collaboration, direct to three possible strategic pillars; capacity building, advocacy and awareness raising and campaigns and effective communication aiming to lead to future, more intensive, collaboration and possible project based partnerships. The intervening strategies which, in some cases, might also directly target both media and civil society organisations are in most of the cases focused on civil society organisations. The main strategic direction in that respect would be in the area of capacity building along the strategic lines proposed here, and
also in advocacy and effective communication which both also rely on capacity building as the main strategy.

The integration of these strategy pillars into the overall strategy planned for interventions within overall project gals relies on the dynamic interaction between the pillars that feed into each other. In other words, building capacities of a CSO professional dealing with media relations function (CSO communicator) in effective communication, partnership brokering and advocacy, for example, improves his or her capacities as a civil society communicator in media relations. In addition, not only do advanced media relations capacities of civil society organisations employees and volunteers contribute to more effective relationship with the media, but also feed into enhanced advocacy skills and partnership competences which contribute to their capacities in their overall activities and work in the civil society context. The strategic model is, therefore, dynamic and subject to changes but the most of the weight or the first strategic choice is – building communication capacities of civil society members dealing with communication function.

Civil society organisation professionals engaged exclusively in the roles of media relations function are rare, mostly in big civil society organisations. For this reason the assumption is that capacity building would need to target one or more persons in the organisations who are dealing with media relations, or CSIO communicators. The research has shown, in addition, that when there is one person dedicated to this function, it is often a junior non-experienced person, in which case additional capacity building would need to focus on basic areas related to organisational communication and public relations, media relations included. In any case, as it has been proved beyond doubt that civil society professionals lack competencies and skills in this area, capacity building is therefore the first and more important strategic trust.

Capacities that need to be assessed in the framework of new model of media relations as it has been presented previously must be considered also in the context of some new realisations and available data about the competencies and skills for communication professionals. Namely, these data apply to communication professionals in all sectors, who are, presumably already educated, at least some percentage of them, in communication strategies and techniques. Yet, the development needs of communication professionals are so complex and changing that there is an evident gap in skills and competencies they need in their work
and those that are offered to them. Needs for the development are the strongest in Eastern and Southern Europe, particularly in management skills, management and core strategies knowledge. (ECOPSI, 2013).³

These findings are based on self-perception of communication professional and the biggest change is related to social media specialist competence, since there is a large gap between the perceived importance of social media tools of communication and the actual rate of implementation. European communication professionals consider online communities or social networks as by far the most important social media tools available but have shown the tendency to overestimate is influence in the overall use of the organisations. The communication role matrix that lists basic competencies needed in the role serves as guidance for planning needed capacity building strategies, as follows in the table bellow.

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³ The European Communication Professionals Skills and Innovation Programme (ECOPSI) is a research project that explores the competencies required by communication professionals in Europe. This innovative program is a partnership of six leading European universities in communication research and education located in Germany, Netherlands, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey and the UK. The programme is led by Leeds Metropolitan University. This two-year research project is the first of its kind and is funded by the European Union. [online]. [2015-3-12]. Available at: <http://www.ecopsi.org.uk/ecopsi/files/Ecopsi_CMC_Booklet.pdf>.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPETENCY</th>
<th>KNOWLEDGE</th>
<th>SKILLS - HARD</th>
<th>SKILLS SOFT (Human and conceptual)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Counselling (build relationships, consulting, coaching)</td>
<td>Languages, Intercultural theory and issues, Learning curves (co-workers, partners), Personality profiles</td>
<td>Diversity, Consulting, Consensus building, Negotiation</td>
<td>Team building, Conflict resolution, Persuasive communication, Motivation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organising/executing (planning, making it happen)</td>
<td>Organisational strategy, Financial systems, Planning and Project management</td>
<td>Writing, Strategy, Planning, Project management, Time management, Administration, Organisational skills, Creativity with budgets, Fund raising</td>
<td>Strategic thinking, Planning, Decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing (cross functional awareness, business focus)</td>
<td>Management/programme management, Economics, Branding, Law, Knowledge about own organisation, Business systems, General knowledge, Risk management, Stakeholder management, Public affairs/political dynamics, Change management, Language of the Board, Understanding of own programme model</td>
<td>Writing (organisational network systems), Leadership</td>
<td>Negotiation, Influencing, Delegating, Managing people, Sense of timing (when to communicate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performing and creating (craft e.g. writing, design, presentation)</td>
<td>New technologies, Communication Process, WEB 2.0 tools and effects on organisational communication, Media systems and structures, Intercultural aspects of communication messages and products, Global media environment</td>
<td>Writing, Editing, Design skills, Computer writing skills, Multi media skills, Visioning, Verbal coherence/concision</td>
<td>Communication, Presentation, Creative problem solving, Story telling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysing/interpreting (research, listening)</td>
<td>Research and analysis methods, Human Resources (HR) policies and links to communication, Prediction/forecasting, Monitoring tools, Web monitoring tools, Listening, understanding and interpreting trends, linking them to business strategies, Recognising trends</td>
<td>Critical thinking, Reading comprehension, Research Social environmental analysis</td>
<td>Forecasting, Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting/guiding (vision and standards, ethics, developing others)</td>
<td>Organisational governance, Ethics/ethical frameworks, Legal Issues</td>
<td>Visioning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Skills and competencies needed for communication professionals (ECOPSI communication role matrix, Tench et al, 2013)
This organisational competence compass applied to the civil society organisations is complemented with a development communications perspective, as the contemporary civil society demonstrates its ability to initiate change and service the strength of citizens in national and global contexts. Needless to say, each civil society organisation would need to fine tune its strategies and draft capacity building plans that would fit its basic needs in media relations, and a proper needs assessment would have to be done before deciding on which trainings to use in which country/region or type of civil society organisations.

On the level of a project in the considered region, though, civil society organisations committed to advancing democratic changes should, presumably, have communicators who have adopted the spirit and mission of developing communication perspectives. The person in a function of CSO communicator in that context would be somebody with multifunctional entrepreneurial skills and competencies as pointed in the communication role compass and also a critical communicator who in media relations strategy of a CSO relays on a number of trends. CSO media relations should play a central role in CSO endeavours to be viewed as being in a leadership position in strengthening engagement in civil society. Professional in communication role should be critical of potential “corporatisation” and “marketisation” of civil society organisations and take a leadership position in a CSO to engage media in its democratisation efforts. A professional in communication role in CSO should apply holistic approach in communication with stakeholders; media included integrating areas like communication, management, leadership, media production as stipulated in the Compass. Because of accessibility to the publics enabled by new technologies CSO communicator would be particularly engaged in new media.

Proposed strategic sustainable inputs within capacity building strategy would need to be based primarily on the results of needs assessments and would probably be custom tailored to those needs along the lines of communication knowledge, skills and competencies included in the above described organisational competence matrix. As a general framework for capacity building strategy, following strategic directions would need to be included in a generic model which could be applied in all considered countries and adapted to the needs. This model would include:

- General management skills and competencies
- Classic media relations
• Social media relations
• Inter-personal communication
• Stakeholder dialogue, public speech and persuasion

One of major issues that emerged as a crucial problem of media relations of civil society organisations was the CSO insufficient ability to use media in the framework of community mobilization and awareness rising. Some of the challenges identified in that respect were: understanding the purpose of using the media and understanding the media as a whole; sending “the” message that would inspire media and make them advocates of CSOs and their missions and getting attention of the media; using right resources (human and financial) or rather, lack of adequate resources and institutional support and the pressure to meet the objectives without them, low public awareness about media and CSOs and the controversial public perception on CSOs and no clear understanding of CSO role in society as well as the need to expand audiences and donor visibility requirement. Relationship building with other stakeholders, particularly media as a problem surfaced the deeply rooted issues that underline challenges and that is the lack of trust which leads to the need to raise awareness among journalists and media about CSO activities and missions and build trust. Therefore, the second set of problem that has been selected as one of the main challenges of the relationship between civil society organisations and media is the lack of trust, or, insufficient trust which leads to a number of problems in their relationship.

The most agreed upon definition of trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another. Trust is normally treated as a perception by the follower of the leader or upper management of an organisation; however, it can also be elevated to the group or climate level. Collective trust, or trust elevated to a level consisting of more than one individual, is a shared perception by followers that the organisations team attempts to act in accordance with stated beliefs about goals. In case of CSO and media, the lack of trust concerns in particular a belief about the ability or willingness of the «other side» to act in line with its mandate and social position. This relates to the concept of trust between leaders and followers as the media show lack of willingness to support CSOs in their social role and refuse often to understand and accept their leadership role.
Trustworthy behaviours such as open communication and showing concern for the citizens also have an impact upon trust in the leaders and CSO officials. Furthermore, the perceptions of organizational support and organizational justice as well as participative decision-making procedures are deemed important for the creation and sustainability of trust. The more followers believe that their leaders are being true to themselves and behaving in accordance with their deeply held beliefs, the more followers may take a risk by offering further dedication to the top management in an organisation and the same applies in great deal to the behaviour of journalists when it comes to trust in civil society organisations and their commitment to organisational goals.

There has been a significant erosion of trust globally; yet, trust remains an essential indicator to monitor before making any assumptions about possible future trends. One of the best sources about the trend in the category of trust is yearly Edelman Trust Barometer. The 13th annual Edelman Trust Barometer is the agency’s largest exploration of trust, to date, and the largest survey of its kind. The 2013 trust survey demonstrated what could be called a serious crisis of confidence. Although the trust in civil society organisations is still higher than the trust in politicians or business executives, the trends of erosion of trust and an increased pressure on organisations are evident. In extending this pressure, media act as a channel that conveys pressure from the general public but also a key stakeholder that expects an organisation to «earn» trust rather than receive it as a gift.

The criteria for leadership in civil society organisations has changed and the communication development has imposed the stronger demand for authenticity of organisation and integrity of leaders. There is an overall communication in the global world that leaves organisations and leaders in the spotlight, exposed to public judgement. Edelman Trust Barometer authors interpret this as a quest for new type of stakeholder dialogue and engagement. While insisting on adding, what they call, horizontal peer to peer communication to traditional vertical communication or cascading the information along the line of authority distribution, they, in fact, refer to the known (at some point, controversial) Grunig’s fourth model of organisational communication, the so called symmetrical two-way communication.4 What Grunig had foreseen in this model was two-

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4 The best source to explore the controversy about the fourth model is given by James E. Grunig himself in „Two Way Symmetrical Public Relations: Past, Present and Future, in Robert L. Heath: Handbook of Public Relations, p.11-31
way communication whereby the organisation would, when needed, adapt to the attitudes of the publics and stakeholders. The model in that context remains particularly relevant for the issue of trust in civil society organisations.

Civil society organizations in the considered region are confronting a rapidly changing landscape, shaped by broad, secular forces shaped by the digital network revolution, the reality of a global economy and the appearance and empowerment of myriad new stakeholders. This last force is particularly overwhelming. In addition to the familiar intermediaries and constituencies with whom organisations have interacted in the past, there is now a diverse array of communities, interests, individuals, all of them powerful, all of them not only consumers of information but creators of any information they can think of. Organisations no longer control their identities, value propositions and the content of the messages about themselves, they no longer segment and target audiences, they no longer have distinct expertise and control over the channels of communication. The opportunity is in building an authentic organisation which is based on the imperative of trust at all three levels: the individual level, the organisational and the societal level.

The leadership of these organisations faces four key challenges: the civil society organisation must define and activate core values in new ways; the civil society organisation must build and manage integrated, multi-stakeholder relationships, particularly with the media; the civil society organisation must enable its people with “new media” skills and tools and finally, the civil society organisation must consciously build and manage trust in all its dimensions.

How does that translate into a communication model that would be strong and empowering to embed into the organisation all these demands and challenges and help raise awareness about its social contribution to the general public via media and its valuable actions to media themselves? The so called *Arthur W. Page Society* in 2012 *Building Belief Model* launched as a generic organisational model by, suits the need of civil society organisations in this respect. As the name suggests, it is based on the fundament of trust and starts at the very core of civil society organisation - its organisational character. In the model, in order to

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5 A.W. Page society has in the meantime launched additional research elaborating the concept of new models of organizational communications and implications for professional communicators. [online]. [2015-2-22]. Available at: <http://www.awpagesociety.com/>.
meet the challenge of authenticity two important dimensions need to be fulfilled in communication function leadership role. The first is the definition and activation of organisational character, its unique identity, purpose, mission, values. Activation is an ongoing process ensuring that the civil society organisation behaves in a manner consistent with its stated character.

The second dimension is building advocacy at scale. There are billions of individuals out there who can share ideas and opinions and organise to act. The importance of this is crucial for civil society organisation not so much because of the power of sophisticated technology that enables these billions of stakeholders to communicate among themselves and organise for action, but because of the reasons why they would do that and what they would decide to do. If they are witnessing the consistency of organisational character and are convinced of civil society organisation authenticity they are motivated to become its advocates. It is therefore not only about engaging public but about engaging individuals, not only to impact their attitudes and therefore behaviours, but to inspire them to action and genuine advocacy on behalf of the civil society organisation. Sounds almost like the science fiction or distant future, but in fact, that is exactly what is happening as we write, millions of people are exchanging opinions about civil society organisations and advocating them further, becoming advocates, or, becoming the enemy, because it works the other way too. Implications for the communication function are multiple and the Building Belief model develops process at operational level elaborating on the fundament of inspiring belief which leads to action and advocacy at scale which then again further inspires belief as shown in the model bellow.
Implications of this for the relationship of CSO with media and its reputation with general public are dramatic. If organisational reputation is related to its two other intangible values – brand and trust – as crucial factors in maintaining organisational authenticity, then the issue of positive reputation is crucial for the survival of civil society organisation and that depends on authenticity, the consistency if its character, the authentic leadership and communication that inspires advocacy that leads to action. That leads to the authentic civil society organisation communication model which raises awareness of the media and the publics and can significantly contribute to the improvement of relations between media and civil society organisations.

Proposed strategic sustainable inputs within raising awareness and advocacy strategy pillar liaise to the building capacity strategy pillar since that is the main intervention. Although it would need to be further elaborated on the basis of needs assessment in a particular national context, it should be based on the generic model proposed under the
Strategic Pillar 1. What is to be repeatedly pointed out is the leadership role of a communication function in management of civil society organisation as a precondition for the maximum use of opportunities in its media relations for fulfilling its organisational goal. The majority of problems of underlying strategic nature that have been detected during this process of research is caused by lack of understanding and absence of implementation of this leadership communication role that is dictated not only by the fact that communication is, in fact, the main tool in building relationship of civil society organisations with their stakeholders, media included, but even more so, by the fact that because of the enormous change of the environment caused by new technologies and new media, such a leadership is an imperative. The strategy related to the strategic pillar two, would, therefore, in addition, include below listed strategy points that would need to be addressed as communication policy strategies and also assessed in the context of answering the question which of the above listed capacities, skills and knowledge of communication professionals would need to be addressed in capacity building strategy:

a) Public awareness raising campaigns about the organisational goals and missions
b) Launching of an internal process or reaffirmation of the organisation’s character, its application, internal partnership building and measurement
c) An assessment and redefinition of communication programmes of a CSO in line with the goals of spurring the publics to advocate in addition to shaping perceptions and opinions
d) Building expertise and capabilities in data analytics, communication planning and programmes
e) Launching media advocacy campaigns about issues CSO is dealing with through mass media, particularly news media in order to advance policies

Effective communication leading to collaboration and proposed partnerships (various partnerships of CSOs with other organizations within and outside the sector as well as partnerships with media organizations) seems like a theoretical model strategy that is easy to design but almost impossible to implement. This strategic pillar, actually list three strategic inputs - communication – collaboration - partnership – in a developmental sequence where each previous input liaises to the next one as they function holistically and simultaneously. In addition, partnership is outlined here as a crucial final step in structures and
processes positioned strategy of enabling the functional relationship of two social building blocks, civil society and media. These two blocks are, considering their reason for being, forced by the nature of their core activities to communicate and collaborate with each other which may also lead to partnership. In addition, both blocks have very important social roles to play, corrective actions that often bring them on the same side of conflicting situations and share, or should do so, a similar commitment and watch dog functions.

Yet, as it is often pointed out, media are also businesses and belong to private sector which makes them, specific potential partners particularly in light of media expansion and changes leading do different media relations pointed at before (classical and new media relations). They carry all the characteristics of private sector profit orientation but have additional social obligations and missions. Although the partnership with such entities for CSOs would need to be specific, it does carry some similarities with cross-sector partnerships based on not for profit-business relationships in which civil society organizations are experienced to a certain extent. It should be noted here, as well, that the increasing pressure for transparency and social responsibility puts private sector organizations also in new positions and facing new challenges and that they are also searching partnerships which would strengthen their social positioning.

That would, of course, be an ideal situation that can rarely be found in real life with the exception of some project based partnerships that did open the door to long term oriented collaboration. Looking at the media as businesses, the types of relationships between businesses and civil society organizations are evolving and so is the language that describes them. Contributions in cash and products, sponsorships of events, publications, mutual organizations of trainings, fundraising and many other activities are already being implemented within this relationship that enhances collaborative quality relationship. The challenge is, of course, to use collaboration for mutual benefits in which both sides can achieve these benefits also for the same publics or customers they serve, that is, the citizens in communities in which they operate. Assets and capabilities CSOs bring to the table are powerful missions, strong brands, access to potential customers or markets, organizational expertise, volunteer opportunities, ability to provide recognition, endorsement and so forth. Media have access to citizens and provide powerful channels to reach them with advocacy and awareness raising campaigns that are main
public communication activities of CSOs. Two linked concepts relevant for this partnership are communication for partnership and communication for sustainability that translates into social responsibility of media that has a double nature: they are socially responsible as any other business and carry additional social responsibility because of their role as mass communication media. The four focal points in communication which emerge linked in a causative-consequential chain in that respect are: stakeholder relations, collaboration, boundary spanning and two-way symmetrical communication.

The framework chain starts with stakeholder relations. Power/interest stakeholder mapping helps identify future partners. In any civil society organisation the process of stakeholder audit should surface media as the key stakeholder. The concept of corporate social opportunity can be applied and media identified as one stakeholder group of high interest and power as a partner.

Partnership is based on collaboration success of which depends on various factors related to the environment, membership characteristics, process and structure, communication, purpose and resources. The dialogue has high power in collaborative communication carrying what is sometimes called a sea of change in the ways people see one another and worked together.

The two-way symmetrical organisational communication model by Gruning&Hunt is to be used by a civil society organisation to explore perceptions to place messages and also to adapt its initial positioning. The two-way mixed motive model is a normative communication model in a cross-sector partnership.

The facilitation role of partnership brokers is also very important. Brokers are on the boundaries of organizational systems with the main function of spanning the boundaries with various degrees of boundary permeability. In this case CSO communicators and journalists are also in the positions where they can become partnership brokers. Boundary spanners are “exchange agents” of processing information and enabling relationship building. In the emerging change of attitudes among organizations and individuals towards “partnership thinking” which has the potential of social transformation, stakeholder relations are linked to information flow to “networks of trust” in multi-level partnerships of the future.
In forming partnerships with media based on some mutual projects three crucial principles need to be respected. The first principle is equity. That is not the same as equality as both entities bring different power, resources and influence at the table. Yet, it implies an equal right to be at the table and a validation of those contributions that are not measurable simply in terms of cash value or public profile.

Transparency, as the second crucial principle of cross-sector partnership, implies honesty and openness in working relations which are preconditions of trust – an important ingredient of successful partnering. Only with transparent working will a partnership be truly accountable to its partner donors and other stakeholders.

Finally, there is the issue of mutual benefit to which all partners are entitled regardless of quantity and quality of their contribution to partnership. A healthy partnership will work towards achieving specific benefits for each of partners over and above the common benefits to all partners. Only in this way will the partnership ensure the continuing commitment of partners and therefore be sustainable.

Future partners may agree on other principles too, but these are basic principles that need to be followed in a partnership that is very much challenged by various obstacles, be they present because of sector characteristics, general public, or some other external constraints. In a case of partnership between, as an example, leading national CSO involved in preservation of natural environmental and the national television, for example, all kinds of challenges will appear. General public might react with prejudices about organisations positioned in various sectors and question the good intentions of any of the organisations. Business sector being single minded and competitive and civil society being combative and territorial, obstacles to mutual partnership may prevent further collaboration.

Similar to those are obstacles within each sector related to competitiveness and conflicting priorities, External constraints that are not under control of any of the partners like local social, political or economic climate, scale of challenges and speed of change or inability to access external resources, can also pose obstacles to partnerships of media and CSOs.
Yet there are many advantages that bring value to media and CSOs that need to be considered when discussing partnerships, like innovative approaches, access to more resources, dynamic new networks, offering each sector better channels of engagement in the wider community and greater capacity to influence the policy agenda, and, finally, greater understanding of the values and attributes of each sector thereby building a more integrated and a more stable society.

Strategic sustainable inputs within effective communication, collaboration and cross sector partnership proposed in strategic pillar thre also liaise to the building capacity strategy as the main strategic pillar in planned interventions. Although *Missing link* research has not particularly focused on collaboration and partnership as deeper and more holistic cooperation contents of a relationship, the assumption is that cross-sector partnerships are not very well developed in the considered region. This particularly concerns partnerships of CSOs and media and in that sense this strategic pillar would be of a social long term orientation with a set of strategic directions in awareness raising and capacity building, primarily in civil society which would focus on the following:

- a) Networking within civil society sector for project based partnerships with media in the context of social responsibility of media
- b) Launching public debates on the advantages and obstacles of collaboration with media with minor project base interventions with media on local level
- c) Ensuring public sector endorsement and involvement in creating frameworks for economic, political, and social rights, generating political commitment and setting mechanisms and adherence to obligations
- d) Building capacities of CSOs in media relations management and cross sector partnerships as potential strategy directions form civil society development
- e) Building capacities of media in cross-sector partnerships and understanding of the roles and operations of civil society organisation

Assuming gradual implementation a choice of some strategic interventions and corresponding activities in line with the general project objectives is listed bellow as an illustration of possible elaboration of these strategic inputs.
### GENERAL OBJECTIVE | STRATEGIC INPUT REGARDING MEDIA RELATIONS | POTENTIAL ACTIVITIES
---|---|---
Support to CSOs in the dialogue with public authorities | Capacity building of CSOs in public affairs /lobbying | - Collaboration with regional universities  
- Collaboration with Lobbying association - secondment

Support to CSO at addressing issues at policy levels facilitating the process in collaboration with existing networks, platforms, initiatives | Capacity building of CSOs in raising media interest for issues at policy level through networking, social media, and involving media in CSO planning | “CSO friendly journalist” association recognition

Civil society visibility and awareness increased | Capacity building in developing communication strategies for CSO inn the region | Mentored media campaigns

Collaboration and exchange among CSOs in the region | Capacity building in involving media in regional networking | Regional PR agency - secondment

P2P events embedded into strategy | Capacity building in stimulating visibility particularly in local and national media | Custom tailored courses in strategic communication for not-for-profit organizations

Capacity building programme developed | Stimulated collaboration with media in facilitating capacity building of media representatives for CSO empowerment | Collaboration with specialised universities Students forum

Cooperation with private sector | Capacity building of both media and CSOs in corporate responsibility and cross-sector partnerships | Courses, Mentors Success stories Secondments

Table 2: Possible elaboration of strategic inputs within media and CSO relationship building in line with general project objectives (author)
Conclusion

The first and most important strategic pillar in the strategy of improving relations between civil society organisations and media is capacity building of professionals engaged in communication and media relations function.

Capacity building should focus on a number of skills and competencies needed in that function and apply a holistic, integrated approach and critical thinking principles. CSO communicators need to know everything that business communicators know but an additional developmental and sustainability perspective needs to be integrated in capacity building in order to ensure their positioning towards media and other stakeholders in line with the mandate and mission of civil society organisation.

A number of strategic inputs and activities along the lines of this strategic direction is to be considered in the context of needs of a particular organisation or set of organisations as an outcome of basic education needs assessments.

Along the lines of the second strategy pillar focusing on advocacy and awareness raising a dialogical and relational communication model needs to be implemented with an additional quality elaborated in the Building Belief model. Application of this model increases trust in a CSO not only among general publics but also among media and makes them more willing to consider closer collaboration with the civil society organisations in implementing what mutual goals in enhancing democracy and citizens rights. This strategy requires needs assessment particularly regarding the choice of competencies, knowledge and skills to be addressed in order to enable activists and other professionals in CSOs to fulfil the role of communication professional. Ensuring media advocacy which is using media for advocacy purposes and also launching communication process, particularly through the new media that recruits new advocates of a CSO and particularly of its missions and goals, is a set of strategic tasks that requires specific targeted capacity building, primarily within CSOs. The size of an organisation and its mission and resources will be the main factor in choosing the depth of these strategic inputs and interventions not only in the media relations but also in programme orientation of CSOs.
The third strategic pillar focuses on effective communication to ensure quality relationships that include collaboration and possible partnerships. Implementation of these strategic directions implies various steps in partnership elaboration which would realistically be long term goal but is also particularly realised as networking within civil society sector and in public media, awareness raising, public debates within sectors and capacity building of CSOs. As the second pillar, the strategic pillar three also feeds into the main strategy orientation on capacity building.

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INSIGHT INTO ROLE OF MEDIA IN WESTERN LIBERAL DEMOCRACIES

Tatiana Tökölyová

ABSTRACT:
Currently the media represent a key communication and information channel because they share information with the citizens all over the world directly to their “living rooms” without any travelling needed, no extra effort spent. This way they can be understood as effective channels of communication, as proved by history and recent developments (and also in this contribution) as they also give a room for life or directed discussion by inviting experts, politicians, victims, and the others giving time to an impersonal discussions and communication with impression of a “face-to-face” or life contact. Here, it is necessary to note, that the main role of media – to inform and call upon a discussion – has two sides. One is comprised by the public, and the second one by the elites of a country, i.e. decision-makers. It is their image, their visions that are many times spread among the people just by the media of any kind (the most effective is TV broadcasting because of the best emotional effects due to using pictures). Therefore, we can state that mass media has developed into an unofficial instrument of FP policy-making.

KEY WORDS:
media, broadcasting, embedded journalism, politics, CNN effect, ethics

1 Introduction

Undoubtedly we may say that nowadays media have a profound influence on all the aspects of decision-making in politics, economy and military. It is impossible to provide exactly what is of more importance – politics or mass media. In these globalized times with various new forms of media widely spread, it is impossible for official representatives not to react on any public pressure. And this is the role of media – to evoke and also calm down the emotions risen up under some events happened. As showed hereafter, many expert papers and studies analysing the

connection of media and politics in all the aspects of their symbiosis bring the approaches on role of media on decision-making process, on the politics at all. All of them are common in position of the changing media worldwide. The recent development, i.e. concerning the international political broadcasting since Gulf War and first “live war”, has proved that media dispose with a great power over the public and they gradually became one of the instruments of political socialisation of people, i.e. giving them exemplary situations with exemplary reactions and effects. Spread of TV 24/7 broadcasting, started by CNN, gradually changed not only media but also their recipients, i.e. public and politicians. New terms started to be used as medial imperialism, framing or even embedded journalists (journalism) and immersive journalism connected mainly with war reporting. As given by Tuosto at the very introduction of the analysis on media “…..the use of embedded reporters has also led to an unprecedented media-military collaboration. A collaborative effort by both the government and the so-called “free press” allows for a pro-war propaganda machine disguised as an objective eyewitness account of the war effort in Iraq. The problems exposed in this article have greater implications for the media and government relationship at large and open doors for further research and exploration of war correspondence in general.”

2 Role of media in crisis?

It is clear that war in Vietnam altogether with the Gulf war pushed the media and their role to a new age because making media coverage really public and mass altogether with growing great size of risk in media ownership opening the room for “abusing” the public providing the selected and purposeful information. Although the mass media is generally considered to be print media, television, radio, recently there


is also the internet bringing social networking websites. There is no doubt that the media in the second half of the 20th century became part of decision-making in politics. This was due to the massive development of various types of media and their spread among individual segments of the society regardless the social class worldwide. In my opinion, technical globalisation processes have brought, even caused, revolution in political marketing and political conduct due to revolution in communications. It made media called “shadow super-power” directly influencing not only political decision-making but also topics discussed in the society and thus the line of awareness of wide public.

Media play a special role in western liberal democratic societies where the media are regarded to be one of the powers effecting the events in the country’s direction, the way what and how to decide on domestic and foreign matters. This can be traced back to the very beginning of the media’s life, because the media from the beginning were formed as a kind of mediator between the public and policy makers or people’s representatives. It is impossible to say that media have lost their original function and still have a significant impact on the recipient of information (whether it is the reader, listener or user of online social networks), on the contrary, it must be said that this role was extended (as proved in this paper).

The basic function played by the media from the very beginning, regardless their form of publishing, in a democratic society is to inform, i.e. to share information as objectively as possible so that the citizen – the recipient of information - is enabled to create his own opinion, attitude. The ways, forms and methods should vary from domestic to foreign topics and from young to elder recipient. Sharing information may have various purposes, known from an informative up to an educational one to provoke a critical thinking or insight into the issue while finding the most suitable way how to explain the people the essence of the current problem and pros and cons of each solution. Media fail in their role of an objective mirror and this determines an ethical challenge associated with the media and their role. So if we say that the media should be involved in the creation of public opinion, shouldn’t be some ethical limits granted? As provided by many experts in political science, Western – liberal democracies are laid on some special principles distinguishing them from non-democratic regimes violating the human rights and freedoms and breaching their own legal order. As given by Blondel and Curtis in
the famous study of Western liberal democracies\textsuperscript{5}, not only free elections make democracy. This should be accomplished also with freedom of speech, rule of law (which may be considered as one of the most critical and sensitive moments) altogether with civilian control over the decision-making processes and effects as well as with free and criticising opposition to make the society called liberal democracy. These principles on which the modern societies are laid on (putting stress mostly on rule of law and human rights) are mirrored also in principles laid down in international law, expressed in various and numerous documents, conventions and agreements mostly based on the UN Charter.

As aforementioned, the last century (mainly its last decades) made world closer and more institutionalised and formalised due to spread and development of principles and norms set out by the international law and domestic political rules, influencing each other in all the spheres. Society moved forward and developed into the highest level of any known stage of societal life in the human history where nearly all (or even all) spheres of human and social life are covered and protected (or regulated) by norms and standards with the only aim – to protect and develop human society under principles of humanity and development into the world welfare. Due to globalisation, as mentioned (however difficult to exactly say when it started and when is the end), the development of technical means used by media to spread information was fastened and moved forward and paradoxically it caused also shifts (even changes or deviations) in the understanding of the role of media at all. This process was (and still has been) reciprocal as globalisation was fastened and enhanced by media and media were made stronger by the effects of globalisation. It both made the strongs stronger. Unfortunately, as proved by latest developments in political broadcasting (not only), media gradually declined in its very elementary principle – investigation for truth. As in my opinion, in any democratic society the ethical function of the media is to precisely and regularly adjust the mirror to the elected representatives to make the legal and legalised ways of changing political elites in the country (even the world), i.e. elections based on campaigns rooted in debates and programs even possible preventing them to become automatic, boring and even useless. This shows that media are expected to provide a fair view in the given time and space with the provision of alternative (eventual) solutions since validity of the premise that a critical approach is not based only on criticism, but mainly on the

criticism associated with giving the alternatives not only in domestic politics but also in foreign policy making.

There are many studies devoted to the ethical role of media in domestic or international broadcasting.\(^6\) As by Robinson, "the new technologies appeared to reduce the scope for calm deliberation over policy, forcing policy-makers to respond to whatever issue journalists focused on."\(^7\) proving that spread of non-stop broadcasting (started with CNN) from the mid-20\(^{th}\) century gradually brought influence of mass media over foreign policy, especially in the pre-war times or war-times (e.g. decision on intervention to “solve” a conflict in another country, see examples as Vietnam, Somalia, Iraq or recently Syria or Ukraine). Such medial influence on policy making is present not only in case of starting the intervention, but as in the Iraqi case also to stop deployment of the forces or to stop the intervention at all.

### 2.1 Media and politics

The post-war period brought profound changes in the role of mass media and its influence on international surrounding as it is constantly growing also in foreign affairs of the states. The development caused that the modern media do enable direct communication with a public of other state/states and thus the media gradually became channels for international communication. Indirect effect of this development is the fact that media have also become a tool of influence on decision makers. Therefore, mass media can be considered as a pillar in foreign policy decision- making, mainly in context of a tool of domestic or international propaganda\(^8\) which is understood as a systemic activity of one state targeted at the public of another state (this must be considered as a pure

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\(^{7}\) ROBINSON, P.: *The CNN effect: can the news media drive foreign policy?* [online]. [2015-09-03]. Available at: <https://www.academia.edu/1384403/The_CNN_effect_can_the_news_media_drive_foreign_policy>. p. 302.

political activity not breaching law of such targeted country). Mass media allow and enable the governments (mainly super-power governments) to use propaganda as “politically targeted activity possibly aimed mainly at pressure to change the government policy orientation through public, eventually to reach change of its political elites or the state regime”.

Propaganda in journalism is defined by Jowett and O’Donell as how “.... to understand how news management or “spin” shapes information, emphasizing positive features and downplaying negative ones, casting institutions in a favorable light. ..... Terms implying propaganda that have gained popularity today are spin and news management, referring to a coordinated strategy to minimize negative information and present in a favourable light a story that could be damaging to self-interests. Spin is often used with reference to the manipulation of political information; therefore, press secretaries and public relations officers are referred to as “spin doctors” when they attempt to launder the news....”

Naturally, however some scholars and experts argue that mass media are not formalised actors of international decision-making process with state-like formalised structures and principles and thus they cannot have any direct and deep influence on foreign policy decision-making as do bodies of state administration or statesmen at all. Therefore I feel it necessary to debate on the fact that mass media definitely have power and instruments how to influence foreign policy decision-making. It means the media should be seen as (in some cases) shifted into a tool of domestic and foreign propaganda widely used also in these peace times when claiming any engagement in any war or conflict.

The main line of argumentation should be in line with question who comprises the target of such activity, called propaganda (in any of its forms – white, grey or black). The answer is rather simple and logic, it is the public of the given country or countries (it means domestic audience or those abroad). Such audience in both (or any of) cases comprises the wide public, ordinary people, i.e. those who elect their representatives to make critical decisions in foreign policy. As stated by Zingarelli, “one...

cannot ask for perfect clarity on how media alter affairs of state, but one can acknowledge that .... media will impact situations at various points in the process.”

A critical point in relation to media and public is that they are critical for relation of public and politics, and thus public and media and this relation are mirrored into situation and conditions called medial imperialism defined as an export of TV programs, foreign ownership and mainly the control over medial branches, medial commercialism under so called public interest with shifted main target, the profit made to their owners. Chadha Kalyani and Anandam Kavoori provide that “... the expansion of Western media production into developing countries has resulted in the domination of their national media environments and the consequent destruction of their indigenous media production.”

This shows that media are controlled and governed by ownership (i.e. by profit) putting emphasis rather on emotions, drama of situations shown then to true and full information on the case. This could be seen recently in broadcasting the “Arab spring”, the crisis in Ukraine or situation round ISIS. Thus I may claim that the core ground of propaganda expressed as “foreign policy propaganda is the most successful only if it sensitively reacts on the existing internal problems of the state” was proved.

Media have a reciprocal effect on foreign policy-making (however, in some cases rooted in the domestic decisions as it is impossible now to give a strict line between domestic and foreign issues and topics, mainly in case of superpowers). On the one side, due to framing they set the information in that way to influence the audience, i.e. to evoke the wished attitudes of the public in the given situation or towards a specific decision of the representatives to be taken, e.g. engagement in a war conflict because of national interest (see below also agenda setting). However, national interest is not the sole factor determining foreign policy making; rather, national security risk is taken into account.

And on the other side, also politicians who make critical foreign-policy decisions are also targeted and exposed to media of any kind, shortening their time for making decisions as the media has already evoked some emotions and expectation in the public and making them to be pushed into quick and even sometimes unreasoned decisions. And thus, I may

claim them to be influenced in their decisions, more-less. As proved for example by the development in the USA in relation to Syria and Obama’s decision on invasion (or statements round development in Ukraine), the mass media enhanced (or still being enhanced) by the public pushed Obama to wait for Congress to decide. This can be illustrated by Kennan’s words “But if American policy from here on out, particularly policy involving the uses of our armed forces abroad, is to be controlled by popular emotional impulses, and particularly ones provoked by the commercial television industry, then there is no place - not only for myself, but for what have traditionally been regarded as the responsible deliberative organs of our government, in both executive and legislative branches.”

This goes alongside with the transmission role of the media when media act also as an output environment, it means as a mirror of actions taken by the decision-makers. Therefore, I may claim that the politicians tend to make decisions to solve problems occurred but at the same time they try to choose such solutions that give them space to be seen better or even idealised, but this is preconditioned also by political culture of that particular country as it provides space for using symbols, analogies or metaphors in political communication rooted in the traditions.

So, it can be provided that propaganda, as it is using the strong power of modern media, has changed into an instrument of foreign policy-making, besides the soft and hard powers. For example, Nye puts impacts of 24/7 broadcasting giving 24/7 information on public opinion into one line with foreign policy and diplomacy saying that “This perception was in turn reinforced by the end of the bipolar order and what many viewed as the collapse of the old anti-communist consensus which—it was argued—had led to the creation of an ideological bond uniting policy makers and journalists. Released from the ‘prism of the Cold War’ journalists were, it was presumed, freer not just to cover the stories they wanted but to criticise US foreign policy as well.”

One of the roles of media is (or should be) to

18 ROBINSON, P.: The CNN effect: can the news media drive foreign
give the policy-makers a message on how the audience (i.e. voters) see their actions, and therefore the media are controlling the policy makers.

3 Role of Media in decision-making process in foreign politics

“Live television coverage does not change the policy, but it does create the environment in which the policy is made.”

Colin Powell, the former Secretary of State of the United States (1991)

In the context of the above mentioned framing, it is necessary to say that framing is not a brand new characteristics of media but due to spread of communication technologies among the most ordinary people, the framing was given a very new essence. This occurred mainly in the early 1990s when during the Gulf War the CNN TV News Channel literally became one of the actors of international relations seen as an inspiration to other world-wide broadcasting media (e.g. BBC) in 24/7 coverage. Since then, the media have been able to report events (and mainly war reporting) happening anywhere in the world and in the real time, and the world had been experiencing the CNN effect, as a new phenomenon not only in media but also in politics.

As given by Etman, framing is understood as “specific properties of ... narrative that encourage those ... thinking about events to develop particular understandings of them”. Robinson moreover distinguishes two types of framing, one as “empathy framing” and the other as “distance framing”. The first one is composed of implicit or explicit criticism of a

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20 The term “CNN effect” is used to express the power of the media to influence policy- makers in the process of foreign policy – making, for example in case of war conflicts.
government, which refuses intervention. Opposite to this is a “distance framing” as a supportive for the government to intervene. As already mentioned, in the early 1990s in the times of Gulf War, a new era in media coverage was started. And as given by various experts, CNN - as the very first 24/7 news broadcasting channels bringing the war into “living rooms” - became one of the actors of international relations, while also inspiring other broadcasting media such as BBC in covering the issue as well. The media was from now able to report on events happening anywhere in the world in real time.

Framing is followed by another issue, called agenda-setting. Therefore, another critical parameter must be seen, in this context, in the role of mass media (in this case a TV broadcasting media) to select the top topics to show, to bring and thus to make them talking about. Naturally, there are many events in the world every day and no media is able to show them all. This “imperfection” gives the media another power, it is to choose which topics will be discussed as concerned to be important. As provided by McQuail, agenda-setting is one of the most important roles of mass media. They follow various criteria considering attractiveness of the topic or geographical distance of the “hot” place from their recipients.23

Recent developments in media should be seen in wider political context. As given by Krejčí24, the second half of the past century meant a sharp bipolar confrontation enhanced by development of telecommunications leading to an interstate propaganda marked by growth of systemic ideological confrontation mirrored in more targeted and complex campaigns, realistic targets using knowledge from psychology, social psychology and other related sciences. Due to the spread of media influence, propaganda was given typical features of a fight, i.e. strategy, tactics and logistics. This is because the “moving information” makes the recipient (i.e. an ordinary man sitting in his living room) directly pulled into the action, situation, reality and is confronted with his own feelings.25

Therefore we may claim that in Western liberal democracies based on free use of information it is impossible to separate media from

political decision-making. Media and politics (i.e. from its beginnings of formalisation and institutionalisation) went always together determining each other and shaping each others because they were setting the limits and opening the spaces for providing information. Media are inevitable tool for politicians, i.e. those elected in elections by public, to spread and defend their positions and visions, and a tool for people to make their own standpoint, vision and position about the politicians they voted for as given by Zeller that “…The basic interest of citizens is to hold politicians accountable on the basis of what the politicians have accomplished while in office or say they will accomplish if elected to office.”

As given in his book on media and politics, both politicians and journalist prove their interest in having the content of news under their control. And democracy, to be a real liberal democracy, does need an interest of media and politicians to be always in an accord; otherwise no discussion on political topics is required blocking thus the plurality of views. Today’s technologies, fortunately, open a room for alternative channels of information (however, their credibility is disputable sometimes) also to politicians (and for public, naturally) to utilize other than those formalised forms of medial communication (as blogs, social networks and others) for their promotion and even to defending their standpoints.

The modern media do not fail their elementary role, i.e. to provide information. As proved by Laswell in his study, media provide information for decision-makers through their performance. In this context he set out basic roles of media, as surveillance of the environment interconnected to correlation of the parts of society responding to the environment and related to transmission of the heritage (mainly the social one) from one generation to another.

I claim, that these three roles fulfil also political role (i.e. not only role of social socialisation but also of political education) as they provide background of the foreign policy taking. Since the media can provide support to or be an opponent to official governmental position or positions on the given topic or issue, in the practice through informing


about the international events and interpreting the information obtained or reported, the media fulfil the third mentioned role providing the international background and commentary.

The aforementioned is linked with another of effects of the current media (as proved on CNN, BBC and others.), media as event accelerator. Scholars and even journalists have not agreed on a definite definition of the CNN effect but I claim that this does not include only the CNN network but also other channels and newspapers. Therefore, the CNN effect concerns the media as a whole, including the Internet enabling the real time reporting as well. This factor of shortened time for a proper research and processing of the information (to verify the information, e.g.), in combination with the fact that journalists or reporters many times are not experts in that given matter, causes the problematic inaccuracy in their first reports of the information provided to public and politicians. These above factors coming out of the role of media thus create the environment in which the policy making happens. As mentioned, the relation between politicians and media is a reciprocal relation. It means that media often are an important source for them as many times media, having their reporters on the field, have good background knowledge and being non-combatants gives their reporters more opportunities to move around the conflict places and talk to ordinary people.

In this context, it is necessary to mention Robinson’s Policy-Media Interaction Model used to study how media influence and predict the policies taken in a conflict intervention verifying hypothesis that „policy uncertainty and critical media coverage leads to media influence on policy“ (under conditions of policy uncertainty, as in Scheme 1). At first, it should be explained that Robinson’s theory on policy – media interaction works with two main phenomena, i.e. with policy (un)certainty and framing.

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### Scheme 1: Media Interaction Scheme based on Robinson’s Policy-Media Interaction Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy certainty</th>
<th>Media Influence</th>
<th>Media Coverage</th>
<th>Policy-Media Relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>absent</td>
<td>Indexed to official agenda</td>
<td>- well articulated objectives = government sets news agenda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- media coverage – unlikely to influence the policy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy uncertainty</th>
<th>present</th>
<th>Critical/Extensive</th>
<th>- government vulnerable to the media attention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- critically framed news</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- media advocate the course of action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: ROBINSON, P.: The policy-media interaction model: measuring media power during humanitarian crisis, p.615*

As in the model, the policy uncertainty occurs under some specific conditions occurred in decision-making, as shown in Scheme 1 above. It may happen “if an issue suddenly arises and no policy is in place, or if there is disagreement, conflict of interest or uncertainty between the executive subsystems” resulting into three eventual consequences which are reflected as an absence of policy line or this policy line is frequently changed (so called shaky policy line) or it may result into impossibility of the representatives (executive subsystems) to reach a common position/policy line seen as an inconsistent policy line.

As stated by Robinson, political influence of media appears when there is uncertainty on policy taking and then media offer sharply framed coverage with role to empathize with people suffering in a conflict. The policy –makers, pushed and followed by media, got under public pressure with having in mind a potentially negative reaction of the public and are willing to produce media influenced policy. The Scheme above proves that if the government has and is following clearly stated policy in the given issue (i.e. if there is a policy certainty to decide under, i.e. policy certainty), then the media cover that official political agenda which

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has been set by the government. Such certainty then prevents from media interfering with the policy-making. If the government (officials, politicians or other representatives) apparently lacks the policy certainty, then they are facing to evidently framed media coverage.

In this context, another media expert should be mentioned. Livingston in his study called Clarifying the CNN effect: An examination of media effects according to type of military intervention (1997) has processed his approach of types of media effect on politics coming out of hypothesis that the type of effect which the media have on the policy-makers is directly connected to the types of the foreign policy arguing that “different foreign policy objectives will present different types and levels of sensitivity to different types of media.”

Therefore, there different types of the CNN effect (i.e. effects which may be given by the media to politics), media as policy-agenda-setting agent or as media playing role of an accelerant or media as an impediment to the achievement of the wished policy goals, can be identified. Media as an accelerant was already mentioned as speeding up the whole process of decision making as the real-time for taking decision is shortened by media and thus, many times, causing that if the decision must be taken in the shortened time, the strategy might not be satisfactory and tends to miss the aimed goal. Therefore, it is suggested that policy-makers are many times pushed to take some decisions as media disable or even prevent them to keep all the stages relevant for thorough decision-making.

**Conclusion**

And in this context CNN is used as an example of how the mass media with a well set strategy may (and do) influence the elected politicians and formal institutions in their decisions, not a decision-making process as a set of rules. The paper is to think about the changed role of media

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due to changed conditions of policy – making caused by advanced and fastened technical means.

As in the paper, media may become an impediment in two reasons. On one side, they can work as emotional inhibitor giving a very new and special essence to the decision making but on the other side, due to some shifts in their role and due to the shortened time, they may act as a threat to operational security. TV News channels (but also internet) by showing war pictures and any emotional scenes may easily manipulate the public opinion and make the political decision not well thought out or even slowed down. For example Livingston believes that media can be seen as a threat to operational security because they have the technological capacity to hinder some military operations and interventions just by exposing them and thus influence the leaders in their decision to react or to intervene.

As mentioned in this paper, some current problems the media- politics cohabitation is facing to is an agenda setting, framing, embedded journalism, and others. These views of modern media are, in my opinion, the strongest ones and the most powerful however also most warning as for example reflected in the opinion that the U.S. foreign policy (as a reflection of its national interest goals and interventions related) is only a mere reflection of the news content. It should be counter-argued that the media coverage should be a consequence of official actions, not their creation.

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PERCEPTION OF MEDIA CREDIBILITY

Lucia Vilčeková

ABSTRACT:
Deep penetration of the Internet and traditional news sources expanding their content into the Internet has received renewed attention in assessing media credibility. This paper describes perception of news credibility in television, newspapers, and online in Slovakia. A survey with 560 respondents was conducted to determine how the credibility of various media types is perceived. The results of the study revealed general moderate credibility of all the media but newspapers have shown the highest overall credibility, followed by the Internet and television, respectively. Credibility can be suggested as one of the key factors driving the traffic of individuals to certain media. Management of media credibility can also be considered for attracting audiences.

KEY WORDS:
media, credibility, traditional media vs. new media

1 Introduction: Literature review

Nowadays, people have a vast choice of information sources. But in many cases, certain information appears to be “better,” or “more trustworthy” than other information. The challenge that most people then face is to judge which information is the more credible.¹ O’Keefe defined credibility as “judgments made by a perceiver (e.g., a message recipient) concerning the believability of a communicator”.² Wathen and Burkell define credibility as ‘believability’.³ In general, credible information sources may be described as trustworthy and therefore credibility is closely related to a general concept of trust. Communication researchers measure the media trust by exploring the source credibility and the message credibility.

Perceptions of the reliability and trustworthiness may be significantly affected by the selection of information sources. In particular, the significance of these criteria is emphasized when information seekers encounter conflicting information. In these situations, they have to assess the credibility and cognitive authority of alternative sources.⁴

The concept of credibility is not new and has been studied in the ancient Greece – how the speakers persuade audience members. However, studies of the credibility of mass media began interesting in times when the rising number of people started turning to radio for news instead of newspapers. Another change was brought by television and in the last decade of the 20th century, rise of the Internet has led to recent credibility studies comparing traditional sources with this emerging medium.⁵ In sum, since the late 1990s, when the Internet began providing new information interaction environments that allowed users to seek for information and communicate with others in ways never before possible, the concept of credibility has received considerable attention.⁶

Studies on media credibility focus on the channel through which the content is delivered.⁷ Typically, these studies have explored the criteria by which diverse media such as newspapers, radio and television are perceived as believable sources of information. As early as in the 1950s, regular surveys of media credibility were conducted in the United States by asking respondents to indicate which medium they would believe if they got conflicting reports of the same news story from radio, television, magazines and newspapers.⁸ In a direct comparison of “new” versus “old” media, Johnson and Kaye examined Web users’ perceptions

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of the credibility of online information compared to traditional sources. The study compared political information in newspapers and magazines to similar information sources on-line. Users found on-line newspapers were significantly more credible than their traditional counterparts. Magazines were found to be equally credible whether they had a traditional or online format. According to a qualitative case study focusing on the information seeking practices from Savolainen, newspapers, the Internet and broadcast media (radio, television) were preferred in seeking orienting information. Sources providing focused information were perceived as most credible. Newspapers were perceived as less credible because of their political bias. According to a German research, people mainly place their trust in traditional media. It appeared that in these cases, 77% of Web users would rather trust newspapers than the Web and 72% of Web users indicated a preference for television. These findings suggest that in terms of media credibility, people’s preferences change slowly and that in cases of doubt, people tend to favour traditional media.

2 Research methodology

The sample of this study consists of 560 Slovak respondents and they were chosen on principles of convenience sampling. It is non-probability sampling technique where subjects are selected because of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher. It is fast, inexpensive and easy technique. Data was collected from January to March 2015 in Slovakia and the instrument for data collection was a questionnaire. Respondents were presented a questionnaire with semantic differential scales, which is a „type of a rating scale designed to measure the connotative meaning of objects, events, and concepts or attitudes.“ To measure the perception of news media credibility,

12 DARNELL, K.: Semantic differentiation. Methods of Research in
characteristics like objectiveness, activity, intelligence, professionalism, etc. were examined. The characteristics were in form of adjectives and the respondents were asked to choose where their position lies, on a 7 point scale between two bipolar words. This method was used because semantic differentiation is a procedure that involves rather standard scaling practices and offers a variety of analytical methods.

The data was evaluated in SPSS, software for statistical computing and graphics. By assigning a set of integer values, such as +3, +2, +1, 0, −1, −2, −3, to the seven gradations of each bipolar scale, the responses could be quantified under the assumption of equal-appearing intervals. These scale values were averaged across respondents in order to develop semantic differential profiles for all three examined media types. To test for the median differences, Wilcoxon signed ranks tests were used. The hypotheses for the test are: H0: if one observation is made at random from each population (call them x0 and y0), then the probability that x0 > y0 is the same as the probability that x0 < y0, and so the populations for each sample have the same medians. H1: the populations for each sample do not have the same medians. These hypotheses were tested on a 95 percent significance level.

3 Research results

First, the overall results of the 12 semantic differential scales are presented in a form of averages for all three examined media types – newspapers, television and the Internet.
Examining the depth of the news coverage, the Internet was perceived as relatively shallow, followed by television and newspapers. The most active media was television, but it was also rated somewhat subjective together with newspapers. Surprisingly, the Internet has shown the highest objectivity in comparison to the other media, as well as the highest independence. Television was seen the most unfair medium whilst newspapers can be described as quite fair. The strongest presentation have both TV and newspapers. People find newspapers more believable than television and also had the most intelligent content compared to the other types of media. All three types of media have neutral level of believability. The most intelligent medium were the newspapers, they also had the highest score in credibility. The credibility of the Internet and television is moderate to low. The most interesting medium is television, newspaper and the Internet scored neutral. All three types of media showed rather neutral to low level of trustworthiness and professionalism.

The results of the study revealed general moderate credibility of all the media but newspapers have shown the highest overall credibility, followed by the Internet and television, respectively. When examining statistically significant difference in the independence of media, we
can conclude that the difference in perception was unlikely to occur by chance (p=0.03 for Internet vs TV and p=0.031 for Internet vs newspapers) and therefore we can say that the Internet is perceived as independent in comparison to the TV and newspapers. Since the p-values for presentation are smaller than 0.05, we conclude that the means are significantly different (we reject the null hypothesis H0) and the Internet has significantly worse presentation than the traditional mass media. Based on the results from the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, newspapers have significantly higher credibility as TV and the Internet (p=0.04 for newspapers vs TV and p=0.023 for newspapers vs Internet). In all other criteria, no statistically significant differences were found.

4 Discussion

Communication professionals have been facing various challenges and one of them is how to win the audience. Past studies suggest that credibility could be the key. When individuals consider a medium to be more credible than other media, they are also more likely to rely on that medium for information search and sharing than other media. Therefore, credibility can be suggested as one of the key factors driving the traffic of individuals to certain media. Management of media credibility can also be considered for attracting audiences. According to our research, following factors need to be considered. Weaknesses of the television are unprofessionalism, unfairness, low level of trustworthiness and relatively high perceived political background and therefore easy manipulation and subjectivity of the news. The strongest attributes of TV are the presentation and ability to act fast. The strengths of the Internet are independence and high level of activity, whereas the weaknesses are low credibility and shallow coverage of the news. The best overall rating had the newspapers with the highest level of fairness, presentation, credibility and intelligent content. By examining the statistically significant differences in the ratings, we could discover that the Internet is perceived as independent compared to the traditional media; on the other hand, the Internet has significantly worse presentation than television and newspapers. We can also say newspapers have significantly higher credibility than the other types of media.

The presented study makes contributions to perception of media credibility in Slovak audience. However, a number of important limitations need to be considered. First, the current research was not specifically designed to evaluate all the factors related media credibility. More research is required to determine the how the individual factors lead to the final credibility perception. Second, the research is not representative because of the sampling method and clearly; the sample may not represent any definable population larger than itself. Non-probability sampling is a good method to use when conducting a pilot study therefore; further research is required to obtain representative results. Thirdly, the generalizability of these results is subject to certain limitations. A number of possible future studies using the same experimental set up would be a contribution to this topic.

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285

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Global era has brought the interaction between various cultures, shaping their relationships to global civilization. These tendencies demand a very intense intercultural communication that may prevent many conflicts and wars from happening. We also have to point out that the mass media enable transcultural communication. The same statement may be also applied to media art, which represents all positive and negative features related to the transcultural and global understanding of the world. The media art originates in cybernetics and informatics; the language of media art is based on signs, its aesthetic value and function are added subsequently, determined by a creative artist as well as by its perception. What are the basic traits of the media art and such kinds of media communication that may be defined not only as transcultural, but even as cosmopolitan? Are there any related contemporary or local variations? Does the media art have any crystallized forms? Does it create its own language that is comprehensible at the transcultural level? In which ways is media art able to demonstrate the impulses originating from classical cultural forms and genres? While perceiving media art, are we able to see its predecessors or rather just an object of possible incorporation of literary, fine-art, music, theatrical or any different reality into the virtual reality created by electronic audiovisual image? Traditional aesthetic function allows us to create a work of art; are we able to say the same in case of media artworks since their other significant function is to communicate? What are the most important features of intercultural and transcultural communication?
RELIGIOSITY, MEDIA AND NOSTALGIA
IN THE SOCIO-CULTURAL REFLECTION
OF MICHEL MAFFESOLI

Beáta Benczeová

ABSTRACT:
Anglo-Australian sociologist Bryan S. Turner thematised nostalgia in the context of the tradition of German philosophy and social theory. He identified four major dimensions of the so-called nostalgic paradigm: (1) historical decline involving a departure from a golden age, (2) sense of the loss of personal wholeness, (3) sense of the loss of individual freedom and autonomy with the disappearance of genuine social relationships, and (4) the idea of the loss of simplicity, personal authenticity and emotional spontaneity. The paper aims to answer the question if there is any nostalgia in contemporary socio-cultural theory. More specifically, we focus on the one of the most influential French socio-cultural theorists, Michel Maffesoli, and his conceptions of postmodern religiosity, media and new technologies with regard to nostalgia.

KEY WORDS:
religiosity, media, new technologies, nostalgia, Michel Maffesoli, nostalgic paradigm, contemporary socio-cultural theory

1 Introduction: Conception of the nostalgic paradigm of Bryan S. Turner

Bryan S. Turner considers nostalgic paradigm to be a methodical tool for studying the initial premises of the criticism of modern society and mass culture. He focuses mainly on the period of the late 19th Century and partly reaches out to the theoreticians of the second half of the 20th Century. His goal was to develop a concept of a specific sociological version of nostalgic metaphors based on primary, i.e. ancient and medieval views of nostalgia. Turner does not define the exact meaning of the term nostalgic paradigm; he only enumerates its components and functions. His understanding of the term is quite liberal, as evidenced by his occasional confusion of the term with nostalgic discourse. Turner presumed that the motives of melancholy (and nostalgia) elaborated in antiquity and the middle ages, as well as the motives of artistic culture,
win their recognition in social theory, or they are variations of the same theme.\(^1\)

*Turner* identifies nostalgia with melancholia, or, more precisely, he sees nostalgia as a particular form of a more general problem of melancholia. Turner summarizes that: “...the nostalgic and melancholic person did not feel comfortable in their world because they experienced social reality as mere illusion which could not be grasped through language or experience. For the nostalgic, the world is alien.”\(^2\) The later notion lead Turner to establishing *ontological nostalgia*,\(^3\) which, in a wider philosophical perspective, represents the alienation of human beings from the lived world (*Lebenswelt*) as a result of their realizing of their own finiteness or of the unknowability of the world.\(^4\) Turner states that the idea of nostalgia as of the alienation of a person in the natural and social world, which is studied in the fields of moral philosophy and philosophical anthropology, is more important than the nostalgia which is seen as longing.\(^5\)

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1. It can, for example, be the planet *Saturn* symbolizing fantasy, thought and spiritual intuition which used to be attributed to the melancholic in antiquity. In art, *Turner* foremost points at the literary and visual arts with pastoral motives from the 17th Century, which represent a world of authenticity, stability and peace and are a symbol of *vita contemplativa*. This image can be transformed to the language of social metaphor as *Gemeinschaft*.


3. The author does not offer a more specific definition of the term of *ontological nostalgia*. Yet, based on the way he is using this term, we infer that the author considers it to be a specific variant of nostalgia related to the eternal questions of human existence. As the author identifies nostalgia with melancholia, we can also assume that ontological nostalgia is synonymous to the so-called *eternal melancholia* which is also tied to the questions of being and its meaning.

4. *Turner* points to *Nietzsche’s* notion that human beings necessarily need to be melancholic, as only human beings are aware of the passing of time and hence they are necessarily historical creatures. He also turns to *Heidegger* and his proposition that human beings primarily do not feel comfortable in their being. (*Turner, B. S.:* *Orientalism, postmodernism and globalism*. London, New York : Routledge, 2003, p. 120. [online]. [2015-01-10]. Available at: <http://ir.nmu.org.ua/bitstream/handle/123456789/133608/85ade96e1bad95acde863ca19e31b41.pdf?sequence=1>.)

These two propositions on nostalgia are very markedly reflected in Turner’s concept. We can see two levels of Turner’s reasoning on nostalgia: one of them leads to the authors of the social and philosophical theories, whom he identifies as melancholic in accordance with the definition provided above, while the other one is focused on the (potentially metaphorical) contents of the conceptions. Thus he recognizes ontological nostalgia and an elitist form of nostalgia.

In the elitist dimension, the metaphor of nostalgia acts as an immensely anti-modern posture of cultural criticism, which, to become developed, implicitly references the past. As a result, there needs to be a dialectics of elite and mass culture with elitist criticism nostalgically assuming a world in which a unity of arts, feelings and communal relationships existed (general or absolute values which criticism can draw on) with a wider integration of arts, feelings and thought. Thus, elitist criticism is based on the myth of pre-modern stability and coherence. Turner proposes to consider elitist form of nostalgia as a version of the Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft dichotomy.\

Turner states that the nostalgic paradigm is a persistent and predominant feature of Western culture in literature, arts, history of medicine and social theory. The criticism of mass culture is based on the German sociological thinking of the 19th Century (K. Marx, M. Weber, G. Simmel, etc.). Turner states that, on the one hand, nostalgic paradigm implies a conservative, retrogressive elitist form, as it is tied to a sense of guilt that we have lost our moral authority; yet, on the other hand, it also offers a standpoint for radical criticism of modernity: „By converting the past into a Utopian homestead, nostalgia may lay the foundations for a radical critique of the

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7 The loss of rural simplicity, traditional stability and cultural integration – the results of industrial and urban capitalism – are predominantly considered to be the source of nostalgia. This nostalgic crisis is amplified by the awareness of the fact that mass culture represents the loss of personal autonomy, spontaneity, naivety and pleasures of the everyday world, as it vulgarizes the traditional forms of cultural expression by making them generally available through a falsifying system of mass media. This system pacifies the masses by simulating false needs in the dominant consumerist system (Frankfurt school).
modern as a departure from authenticity.”

Turner outlines the conditions of nostalgic paradigm in the era following the postmodern turn and states that ontological nostalgia persist, while the elitist framework of studying mass culture has become unsustainable as a result of breaking down the boundaries and distinctions between the high and low, the elitist and mass culture. Also, there are no authoritative norms of valuation, as the postmodern doctrine of pluralism undermined the foundations of high culture as the source of dominant valuation criteria.

The role of elitist criticism and of the intelligence in postmodern era is further obstructed by the phenomenon of democratisation of culture, the shift towards an equalitarian way of living, as well as by the blurring of the division between the dominant and opposing culture (if any such things exist). “... (this junction between culture and social structure) creates a particular set of problems for the existence of an elite culture and for social role of intelligentsia.” He is confident that “postmodern” theoreticians/academics are condemned to ontological nostalgia, since each valuation is always dependent on a view to the past and, at the same time, that nostalgia is a very potent mode of expression of the diminishing intellectual elite. „The cultural elite, especially where it has some pretension to radical politics, is thus caught in a constant paradox that every expression of critique of the mass culture of capitalist societies draws it into an elitist position of cultural disdain, refraining from its enjoyments of the everyday reality...“ Turner sees the acceptance of objects of mass culture by the elite as pseudo-populism, while their refusal he sees as a nostalgic denial of current culture. „Since in

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10 TURNER, B. S.: Orientalism, postmodernism and globalism. London, New York : Routledge, 2003, p. 118. [online]. [2015-01-10]. Available at: <http://ir.nmu.org.ua/bitstream/handle/123456789/133608/85ade96e1bad95aecde863ca19e31b41.pdf?sequence=1>. We cannot agree with Turner’s notion, as we do not think that each valuation of the past has to necessarily have positive connotations and thus being labelled nostalgic.
postmodern times probably all culture is pseudo-culture, it is invariably the case that all intellectuals are melancholies.\textsuperscript{12}

1.1 Nostalgic paradigm in philosophy and socio-cultural theories of modernity/ model cases

„The ambivalent experience of modernity and nostalgia inspires not only nineteenth-century art but also social science and philosophy.\textsuperscript{13}\” Svetlana Boym also states that modern sociology is based on the distinction between traditional community and modern society and that it tends to idealize the unity, intimacy and the transcendental view of the world in the traditional society. The narrative of establishing modern society is parallel to the biblical story of the banishment from Eden.

The contents of socio-cultural theories are composed of various narrations leaning towards the nostalgic. These become part of the nostalgic paradigm. Turner states that ontological nostalgia is a permanent dimension of the classical German philosophy and social theory, as their accentuated resort – \textit{the will to live} – has always been in contradiction with the forms of social relationships.\textsuperscript{14} „Kierkegaard, Schopenhauer and Nietzsche were philosophers of the will who laid the philosophical basis for the emergence of a nineteenth-century sociology in Germany which was itself a sociology of the will, that is an analysis of meaningful action. The theme which linked together Tönnies, Simmel, Weber, Lukács and finaly Adorno was the notion that we constantly create life-worlds (Lebenswelt), which through alienation and reification negate the spontaneity and authenticity of the will and its conscious subject, Man."\textsuperscript{15} The fact that Georg Simmel and Max Weber


\textsuperscript{14} Turner states that in the 19th Century American sociology, the tendency towards nostalgia was not markedly noticeable, unlike in France, where its primary source was the loss of rural integrity and religious authority, while in English social theory, the ideas of Alasdair MacIntyre are a lapidary example of the nostalgic paradigm (see below). (TURNER, B. S.: A note on nostalgia. In \textit{Theory, Culture & Society}, 1987, Vol. 4, No. 1, p. 151-152.)

are considered to be sociologists of “tragic ethos” is another proof of ontological nostalgia. Also, Paul Ricœur labels the three philosophers Sigmund Freud, Friedrich Nietzsche and Karl Marx the “hermeneutics of distrust”. These titles imply the presence of nostalgic tendencies in their thought and worldview.

1.2 Dimensions of nostalgic paradigm

The proposition of the “end of the social”, according to which there is a crisis of the society as of an empiric reality and a concept (social theory), forms the background for Turner’s conception of nostalgic paradigm. He states that most of the efforts to grasp this crisis are based on the assumptions of loss of society as of a means of solidarity or a social structure. Based on this, Turner states that in classical sociology, the motives of solidarity and community are components of the general nostalgic paradigm, which is not only reflected in sociology, but also generally in Western culture. Turner recognizes three major dimensions of nostalgic paradigm, which basically represent some sort of sets of possible reasons or sources of nostalgia:

1.) “...sense of historical decline and loss, involving a departure from some golden age. The messianic message of Old Testament Judaism and New Testament Christianity typically involved some sense of a lost space and lost time from which contemporary social systems can be measured and found wanting. (...) This Judeo-Christian background has had a profound impact on Western thought in general and on Marxist sociology and critical theory in particular which have also often embraced a cataclysmic vision of history as a violent progression of revolutionary events into an unknown future from a garden of perfect harmony. This was a radical catastrophic
world-view, and found tragic expression for example in the work of critical theorists such as Walter Benjamin.\textsuperscript{19}

2.) „...sense of the absence or loss of personal wholeness and moral certainty. In this dimension, human history is perceived in terms of a collapse of values which once provided the unity of human relations, knowledge and personal experience. This nostalgic theme contains a theory of secularization in which the sacred canopy of religious certainty is fractured by catastrophic social processes, typically the emergence of markets, capitalist relations and urban cultures as the negation of rural naivety. We can find this theme prominent in the philosophy of Jean-Jacques Rousseau.\textsuperscript{20}

3.) „...sense of loss of individual freedom and autonomy with the disappearance of genuine social relationships. With secularization and the loss of moral coherence, the isolated individual is increasingly exposed to the constraining social processes of modern institutionalized regulation, which gradually undermines the individual, who is strangled within the world of state bureaucracies. This theme was one aspect of Weber’s metaphor of the iron cage in which individuals were merely cogs of modern social processes. (...) This sociological tradition was inherited by the Frankfurt critical theorists, some of whom described modern society as an administered world in which the isolated individual is wholly subordinated to the rationality of instrumental reason and capitalist relations of production. With the decline of natural law, human beings lived a world of fractured moral traditions in which perspectivism became a dominant theme of ethical theory.\textsuperscript{21}


2 Discourse on method

The aim of this paper is to present the identification methods of nostalgic paradigm in socio-cultural theories. Due to the limitations in extent, we confined to detecting nostalgic paradigm in the works of Michel Maffesoli. First, we defined and specified the object of the research - nostalgia, since even at the initial interpretation Maffesoli texts we have found that the term is found in various contexts. Thus we have identified three types of occurrence of nostalgia:

1.) Standard
   The occurrence of the term *nostalgia* in the sense of a standard term or a component of the standard lexicon. All the lexical and morphological variations (nostalgia, nostalgic, etc.) belong to this category. The use of *nostalgia* by the author can, but does not necessarily need to be, conscious.

2.) Thematic
   This type of occurrence indicates that the author uses *nostalgia* consciously and intentionally to refer to something, describe something or label something. This type of occurrence reveals the attitude of the author towards nostalgia and aids in characterizing nostalgia. With this type, it is not necessary to explicitly use the term *nostalgia*.

3.) Rhetoric
   Indicates the nostalgic nature of the expression or rhetoric of the author and it is not necessary to use the term *nostalgia*. This type is the most complex and least explicit of the three, and thus it is considerably difficult to identify it, while requiring deep understanding and highly developed interpretation skills. In identifying the presence of this third type of nostalgia, we used a theoretical construct called nostalgic rhetoric. The rhetoric type of occurrence is derived from this construct.

There are two aspects to the characteristics of nostalgic rhetoric: content and form. The *content* is based on the definitions and characteristics of nostalgia which we have derived from generally acknowledged definitions of nostalgia. We gained additional knowledge on nostalgia from literary sources on the nostalgic. These helped us to define and specify the term *nostalgia* more precisely and widen the characteristics, thus deepening our understanding of this phenomenon and aiding the development of the concept of *nostalgic rhetoric*. 
2.1 Identification of the categories of nostalgic rhetoric

We found that different definitions and views on nostalgia may differ in details, yet, along with Aaron Santesso\textsuperscript{22}, we can point out the existence of a consensus between these definitions.\textsuperscript{23} The categories of identification of nostalgic rhetoric draw on this consensus. Santesso asserts that the common denominator of all the definitions is that they are aimed at the aspect of reviving the past. He does not recognize the craving for the past as the key moment of nostalgia, rather he finds nostalgia in its idealization. We extend these features with pointing out the fact that nostalgia is a project of a lost object. This aspect has become another one of those characteristics of nostalgia which are crucial from the perspective of identifying nostalgic rhetoric, as our goal was also to identify the object of nostalgic reaction.

The features of the contents of nostalgic rhetoric – the traits based on which nostalgic rhetoric was detected (the categories of identification of nostalgic rhetoric) - can be summarized as follows:

- **The issue of the past and the present**
  - References to the past, confronting the present with the past, axiological subordinating of the present to the past

- **Idealization and stylization**
  - Attribution of idealized traits to a lost object/ an object absent in the present

- **Discussion about loss and/or return**
  - Discourse on the loss of an object, abstraction or an ideal absent in the present, reacting to its absence in the present or expressing the desire for the return of the lost object

The formal aspect of nostalgic rhetoric is hindered by the specificity of the mode of expression, method of reasoning, lexis, etc. of the author. Thus, we adjusted the analysis itself and the method of isolating individual text segments to the mode of writing and the formal features of the text.

\textsuperscript{22} This author was the most inspiring for the methodical part of our paper from among other literary theorists. In his work *Careful Longing: The Poetics and Problems of Nostalgia* (2006), Santesso focuses on nostalgic poetry of the 18\textsuperscript{th} Century while striving to: a) provide an alternative to the standard definition of nostalgia as a personal experience primarily related to past and b) map the problems arising when working with emotions (sentiment).

These segments are often presented as *pars pro toto*, i.e. representing a larger text (an essay, article or a fragment).

The nostalgic rhetoric will therefore vary based on the nature of the analysed text. As a result, the analysis needs to be focused primarily on content, not the form. The method used in this stage of research was *non-quantitative content analysis* with the aim to identify and isolate segments in which the variable – the term *nostalgia* – can be found.

### 2.2 Inspiration by Svetlana Boym’s theory of nostalgia

Svetlana Boym’s way of identifying nostalgic reaction in modernist artistic, cultural theoretical and philosophical works was an inspiration for our methodical technique: „Baudelaire’s love at last sight, Nietzsche’s eternal return and Alpine forgetting and Benjamin’s confrontation with the angel of history. Baudelaire looks back at urban transience, Nietzsche, at the cosmos and the wilderness, and Benjamin, at the wreckage of history. Baudelaire tried to ‘represent the present’ through a shock experience and juxtaposition of opposites, Nietzsche, through self-conscious and involuntary irony, and Benjamin, through a dialectic at a standstill and the unconventional archaeology of memory. All three poetic critics of modernity are nostalgic for the present, yet they strive not so much to regain the present as to reveal its fragility.“

This short fragment was an impulse for creating a table containing the basic data that were evaluated in the later stage of the research. The sample table reflecting the text of Svetlana Boym describes nostalgia in the works of Ch. Baudelaire, W. Benjamin and F. Nietzsche and derives its components:

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Table 1  Model table of the components of nostalgia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Triggers</th>
<th>Mode of expression</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charles Baudelaire</td>
<td>love at last sight</td>
<td>urban transience</td>
<td>woman in the urban crowd(^{25})</td>
<td>shock experience and juxtaposition of opposites</td>
<td>lost potential happiness in the present(^{26})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walter Benjamin</td>
<td>confrontation with the angel of history</td>
<td>the wreckage of history</td>
<td>Parisian shopping arcades and urban flea markets(^{27})</td>
<td>dialectic at a standstill and the unconventional archaeology of memory</td>
<td>present and its potentialities(^{28})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friedrich Nietzsche</td>
<td>eternal return and Alpine forgetting</td>
<td>cosmos and the wilderness</td>
<td>Alpine landscape, Zarathustra(^{29})</td>
<td>self-conscious and involuntary irony</td>
<td>pre-nostalgic state of being, happiness beyond the integrated civilization and traditional communities of the past(^{30})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The categories were derived directly from this text with respect to nostalgic terminology. Consequently, content (the signified) was assigned to the individual categories (the signifier) based on the fragment of the Svetlana Boym's text. This process was demanding due to the need to correctly identify the source, trigger and the object in the text. These difficulties also emerged in further application of the process, yet the sample table was a useful aid, as it allowed us to compare the new contents of categories identified by us with those identified by Svetlana Boym. Hence, the sample table was used as a methodical guide. The individual categories in the table were characterized as follows:

**Topic**

It can be a topic of an essay, article, aphorism or another textual unit; the topic is what connects the selected segment to the whole (i.e. even if due to limitations of capacity the whole analysed text cannot be quoted, the

topic is the category covering the segment which, at the same, introduces the reader the context from which the segment was taken)

Sources
They form the wider basis for nostalgic reaction; they are based either on the past, or the present

Triggers
They are the specific grounds for nostalgic reaction - events, things, people or moments triggering nostalgic reaction

Mode of expression
The manner in which the author mediates the nostalgic reaction emphasizing the formal and explicit expressing of nostalgia in the text

Object
The specific entity of nostalgic reaction usually representing something lost or something absent in the present – an ideal, abstraction, an object, etc.

In evaluating both types of tables, we adhered to the aforementioned and pre-defined outline with the following points:

• Introduction, the summary of notions of individual text segments; in what topics and contexts can nostalgic tendency be found?
• The evaluation of the results from the tables: the description of the nature of nostalgia (the source, trigger, mode of expression, object): what is the source, the trigger and the object of nostalgia and how is nostalgia expressed?
• The deriving of wider dimensions of nostalgia: what are the basic objects of nostalgic desire?
• The description of the nature of nostalgia: what is nostalgia like?
• The comparison of the dimensions of nostalgic paradigm defined by Bryan S. Turner and wider dimensions of nostalgia identified by us in the conception of Michel Maffesoli.

3 Michel Maffesoli: conception of return

Maffesoli states that the era of the postmodern has not ended yet; rather that we live in it at the moment. His social theory is stemming from the “luxury and generosity of thought” that is not critical, rather emphatic
and understanding. He focuses more on the inconspicuous emerging tendencies and phenomena than on the obvious motives of social life. Maffesoli’s theory is stemming from the assumption of symbiotic coexistence of archaisms (tribalism, nomadism) and new technology (internet, social networks), which allows and supports the hedonistic “co/-existence” of the members of society and revives the interest in the “us” and the “others”. Maffesoli states that some archaic elements are returning to the current social life, such as *tribal social system/tribalism, nomadism, Dionysian orgies, ambient paganism or savageness*. Paradoxically, archaisms then co-exist with new technologies in symbiosis and synergy.\(^{31}\)

3.1 Application of method

To each segment relevant from the perspective of nostalgia, a table listing the components of nostalgia belongs, as evidenced by the common labelling of the text and the table:

**A/ Type of occurrence: rhetoric**

“The paradigm of the network can then be seen as the re-actualization of the ancient myth of community; myth in the sense in which something that has perhaps never really existed acts, effectively, on the imagination of the time. This explains the existence of those small tribes, ephemeral in their actualization, but which nevertheless create a state of mind that, for its part, seems called upon to last.”\(^{32}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Triggers</th>
<th>Mode of expression</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tribalism</td>
<td>antic community</td>
<td>contemporary tribes and networks (internet, social networks)</td>
<td>metonymy</td>
<td>community which has never really existed/ myth of community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---


B/ Type of occurrence: rhetoric
“Even a flaneur, focusing on idleness with all the related ‘vices’, as economic morality calls them, can be once again seen as an archetype of a particular form of resistance. (…) A contrario, the flaneur calls our attention to a different type of need: the need for a more open, less domesticated way of life, to nostalgia for an adventure.”

Table 3 (B)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Triggers</th>
<th>Mode of expression</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>idleness, forms of resistance</td>
<td>unboundedness of life, archetype of the form of resistance</td>
<td>contemporary flaneur</td>
<td>fenomenological descriptions, irony</td>
<td>adventure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C/ Type of occurrence: rhetoric
“The logic based on the economy of an individual inscribed into a wider framework of the economy of salvation, which is inherent to Christian soteriology, has been overcome altogether. Rather, it seems as if the collective effervescence returned to some kind of Boschian ‘Garden of Earthly Delights’; to a garden in which the time stops, the moment is eternalized, which leads to some kind of invagination of the senses. We can see some symptoms of a radical change in épistémê, which is no longer based on a rational individual, rather it prioritizes the masses. Tribal masks are returning bringing about primal force, a force releasing a source of energy anyone can draw on.”

Table 4 (C)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Triggers</th>
<th>Mode of expression</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>metaphor of invagination of sense</td>
<td>Bosch´s artwork Garden delights</td>
<td>tribal masks/personas</td>
<td>metonymy</td>
<td>timeless space</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D/ Type of occurrence: rhetoric
“...in contrast to the historical and practical perception oriented towards a particular goal, the perception the foundations of which are found in the soteriological perspective, which is specific to the Judeo-Christian tradition, as well as to the modern (Hegelo-Marxist and functionalist) historical philosophy, that in contrast to this linearism, something more pagan and also more relativistic is being born...”

Table 5 (D)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Triggers</th>
<th>Mode of expression</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>principle of history</td>
<td>distrust in the efficiency and soteriology of modernist tradition</td>
<td>contemporary value, cultural and religious polytheism</td>
<td>dichotomous perception of traditional modern and postmodern</td>
<td>pagan and relativistic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E/ Type of occurrence: rhetoric
“In general, it can be said that this odyssey, which every life path necessarily is, causes us to become some supreme-being or super-being through this adventurous life... (...) There are moments when the more empirical ‘me’, the Cartesian ‘ego’, comes through as what it really is: a mere fiction. Then we can get to what Peter Sloterdijk calls ‘pre-individual vacuum’ and what can be compared to some primeval substance (Anaximandros) or collective unconsciousness (Jung). It is some sort of primal energy that can be found at the end of a long process in which the individual gradually got rid of the labels, orders and intellectual and carnal poses which were forced on him by the society.”

Table 6 (E)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Triggers</th>
<th>Mode of expression</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>meaning of life odyssey</td>
<td>non-rational instances of Sloterdijk, Anaximandros and Jung</td>
<td>contemporary forms of adventure</td>
<td>dichotomy of rational and emotional</td>
<td>super-existence, primal energy of non-socialized and non-culturalized</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**F/ Type of occurrence: rhetoric**

“In this love of the remote, even the famous saudade, which is inherent to this earth and its inhabitants, may find its origin. It is nostalgia for an adventurous past, but, at the same time, for future that finds its full expression in realizing the potentialities that were left behind by this past.”

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Table 7  (F)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Triggers</th>
<th>Mode of expression</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese epic on Sebastian</td>
<td>love to the distant</td>
<td>contemporary wanderlust</td>
<td>method of analogy</td>
<td>adventurous past, future capitalizing the potentialities of the past</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### 3.2 Rationality versus emotional effervescence

In Maffesoli’s concepts, the contours of the dichotomy of the past and the present are markedly distinctive. According to his thesis, we are entering the era of the postmodern that succeeds the period of the modern, which was dominated by the paradigm of individualism subordinated to rational logic. From the perspective of the discourse on nostalgia, we can state that this dichotomy is largely expressed through the perception of history. Maffesoli claims that the perception of history as a project or that the belief that history has a meaning has been overcome. He also disclaims the teleological and soteriological ideas of history (C). The concept of nomadism and the related forms declaring dynamism, non-conformity or perpetual motion present a counterweight to economic morality (B).

### 3.3 Idealization

Our research proved that Maffesoli looks back to the past towards cultures and civilizations that had an important role and seeks to resurrect them in the conditions of the present. The fact that he idealizes the cultural formations of the past as genuine expressions of the joys of life, which he sees as a source of social coherence, points towards nostalgic reaction. On the other hand, this aspect of sociality is some kind of an ideal within

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social reality, as well as of sociological analysis (A). Among others, these idealized formations include: Ancient Greece, Roman decadence, Middle Ages, Judeo-Christian culture, Italian renaissance - based on rituals and other super-individual principles which are a source of social cohesion and fellowship. Maffesoli idealizes their social architectonic which is to become a model or which he proposes to be a model for the current forms of sociality.

### 3.4 Nostalgic object

Maffesoli announces the return of the logic of pleasure and presentism represented by the eternity of the moment and the invagination of sense (C). The rational individual is replaced by the subjectivity of masses that is a sum of tribal masks impersonating some kind of a primal force (E). He claims that the desire for blending with others is returning. Tangible figures or emblematic figures (celebrities, various gurus, athletes, etc.) of today and the closely related mass gatherings are replicas of antic rituals and mysteries. The aim of these public spaces is primarily to enable mystic participation and provide an opportunity for blending with others.

The nostalgic aspect is more evidently manifested in the author’s concept of neo-nomadism, as roaming and wandering are naturally associated with this phenomenon, while the category of home is presented as an ontological paradox in this context. The yearning for home forms a historic and, after all, an etymological basis for nostalgia. However, the infiniteness of desire is the ontological principle of nostalgia as returning home is not a solution for nostalgia. Being tied to a place and marching towards a non-place– the ambivalence specific to nomadism and the perpetual Ahasveran unrest foreshadows some kind of nostalgia for nostalgia (A, B).

Maffesoli’s thematising of nomadism is, in essence, the phenomenology of the nostalgic desire for the “elsewhere” that is a foundational and revitalizing moment. Idleness, indifference and opposition typical for a nomadic way of life, as well as the necessity of nostalgia for a flaneur-like adventure (B) are the main motives of this concept. Maffesoli emphasizes the constructive and creative nature of nomadism through idealising adventure that he claims to contribute to super-existence (B). The author himself claims nomadism to be a nostalgic moment, a memory
and a reminder of the beginning and of an adventure and, at the same
time, he underlines its existence in a paroxysmal form.

In contrast to the linearity of modernity, Maffesoli announces the birth
of the pagan and the relative (D) from the perspective of values, culture
and religion. In this manner he expresses his own nostalgia for the
dynamic forms (a community based on a perpetual movement of people)
of heterogeneous nature (personas, standardized and disparate roles).

Maffesoli’s philosophy of culture represents a return to all the proto-
and pre-, to the collective unconscious, the primal, the free and the
times before culture and civilization (E). Community, as interpreted by
Maffesoli, is idealistic itself, just as its function. Thus we can presume
that Maffesoli’s nostalgia is a desire for something that has never existed
(A). This assumption is self-reflexively confirmed by the author himself
when he calls his conception holistic and a continuation of the tradition of
organic solidarity, which may never have really existed. Thus he himself
recognizes the possibility of nostalgia for something that has never been.

In Maffesoli’s narrations, we can even find references to nostalgia for
the future capitalizing on the potentialities of the past (F). We see this
object of nostalgia as the author’s wish and desire – the author’s own
nostalgia. According to Maffesoli, archaic forms represent nostalgia
for completeness and a nostalgic desire for wholeness. However, these
archaic forms are the constructs of the author, so we also believe that
they represent his own nostalgia for the aforementioned abstractions.38

This proposition is illustrated by the results in the tables which
uncover the fact that the objects of nostalgic desire practically overlap
with the triggers of nostalgic reaction, as the triggers are already the
revitalizations of the desired object; these two categories being then their
respective pendants (mass sports events = modern forms of adventure –
the yearning for return of primal energy and freedom as the ideal aspects
of sociality). Thus, the object of desire is immediately returned. Hence, in
Maffesoli’s conception, we cannot see a loss of some kind of an object or
nostalgia in the classical sense. Maffesoli’s nostalgia begins in the present
or is shifted into the present, where the author can find a way to deal

38 This dimension of Maffesoli’s nostalgia corresponds to the dimensions
of nostalgic paradigm identified by Turner. This aspect is addressed in
another section of the paper.
In Maffesoli’s conception, the object represents an ideal that is not lost, but it is found and updated to reflect the current conditions. This object is what substitutes the modern archaic tribe or a techno-subculture. It is an ideal aspect of a specific form of sociality (super-existence, social coherence, mystic participation, etc.). The modern variant of personifying ideal abstractions (techno-subculture/archaic tribe) is the trigger of nostalgia shifted into the present.

Conclusion

Comparing Maffesoli’s nostalgia with the dimensions of nostalgic paradigm defined by Bryan S. Turner we can conclude that Turner’s dimensions are so widely conceived that we would be able to identify them all in Maffesoli’s writings. This is mainly due to the archetypal essence of thinking of both authors.

However we must hereby state that Maffesoli’s nostalgia is a bit more complicated. Turner’s loss, involving a departure from some golden age is reflected in Maffesoli’s conception in the form of collective effervescence which returned to some kind of Boschian ‘Garden of Earthly Delights’. Further, his super-existence and supreme-existence which refer to the contemporary nomadism as way of life represent Turner’s loss of personal wholeness except that Maffesoli proclaims its revival. Finally Turner’s aspect of loss of individual freedom and autonomy with the disappearance of genuine social relationships finds its counterpart in Maffesoli’s attempt to revive the archaic community with its exceptional ability of social coherence, paganism, wanderlust and phenomenon of adventure which incorporate freedom etc.

We can summarize that Maffesoli’s objects of nostalgia include following: nostalgia itself, desire for something that has never existed and nostalgia for the future capitalizing on the potentialities of the past. Maffesoli’s nostalgia is characterized by the interconnection of different archaic, religious, mythical, pagan or technological elements which together create an extraordinary reflexion of the conditions of contemporary culture and society. Maffesoli’s kind of nostalgia functions on the one hand as a formative instance with reference to sociological analysis and
on the other hand as a creative principle which is as important for social theory as the creative aspect of nomadism for social reality.

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UNDERSTANDING THE EMERGENT ORDER AND THE SYSTEM CURRENTLY ON THE GROUND

Getnet Tamene

ABSTRACT:
Contemporary human interactions involve the knowledge of global environment that impacts us all. The global environment includes the order and system in which we live, work, interact and attempt to realize our ambitions. The order and its system(s) embody issues impacting contemporary human polities and the fiduciaries acting on behalf of us all. It has to be obvious that the issues now affecting all of us are not merely national in scope. As the examples of economic crisis, fuel and many other issues such as conflict, ecology, and economic disparity made it clear, the systems and problems they embody affect all actors. The current global system may be referred to as uni-multipolar. Understanding the nature of this system and the behavior of some of its major and minor actors may help to make sense of the emergent global order, the systems and the underlying transformation. This work employs analytical tools to elaborate on the theme.

KEY WORDS: 
order, system, transformation, theories, history, hegemony, media

1 Introduction

The study of human interactions is not an easy one. It is not like studying the physical laws of the universe. There are no fixed principles that could be used to predict with certainty how the order and systems in which they interact develop in the future. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify some of the more common kinds of features and changes that occur in human relationships over time and consider what these changes may mean for the human polity at large. The human polity, thus, cannot be thoroughly comprehended only in terms of the interactions it conducts directly or indirectly without recognizing the impact of the environment or the orders and systems in which the interactions take place.

The knowledge of transformation that moves the human polity to another level is strongly related with our knowledge about how the system develops within a given order. Concerning the system currently on the ground, some indicate that it is a uni-polar system. This is probably due to the fact that one superpower survived the fierce struggle in which the
other actor collapsed at the end of the last international system, namely, the bipolar system. Others think that the system currently in place is a multi-polar one. They explain the reason by tracing to the fact that there are several power centers across the globe. This paper, however, takes the view that combines both approaches. It claims that the system currently on the ground is arguably a combination of both uni-polar and multi-polar systems, thus it is safe to refer to it as a uni-multi-polar system. The emergent order\(^1\) in which this system was incepted can be called the world society order. Currently, the emergent order and its new system provide the environment in which all actors interact. The paper tends to elaborate on this emergent order and its initial system in a nutshell.

2 The Concept of order and system

An order may be simply understood as a prevailing course of societal history; long-listing framework or regime that encompasses various components referred to as systems. Order displays various norms, values, customs, cultures and civilizations; however, it is named after the entity or entities dominant within it. As the order is geared to function in their favor, the dominant entities strive to perpetuate that order. They do this, mainly, by innovating norms, or by conquest. Systems are

\(^1\) Here, order refers to a long-lasting societal framework in which harmonious and coherent or violent and disharmonious societal relations are possible. An order has a life span, its systems, too. Orders are loose frames in which dominant customs, norms, values, cultures and civilizations enjoy favorable environment to flourish, and hold together the whole human polity through the actors across constituent systems. Orders encompass successive international or world systems. Orders often emerge after a worldwide war, when actors constellate on the triumphant empire, great or super power that led and ultimately won the war. Then the lead power thus becomes innovator of norms for the alignment in the newly emergent order. Therefore, the threat of war and becoming triumphant seem the means of organizing a new order. Nevertheless, one cannot rule out the peaceful methods of creating alignments to establish an equitable order. Each order of the human polity reflects specific features that likens or differ it from the other order(s). Why do societies cohere within a certain social order, is among the central concerns of sociology, and it still preoccupies various social scientists of the current time. Orders change due to various reasons including large wars from within the order, economic crisis, when the last component of the order gets fatigue. A new order replaces the predecessor order.
apparently, brief spaces of times in which the distribution of power among actors is vividly observable. Orders and the systems that orders contain reflect the quality of a given order or patterns of the embodied systems, which actually are subject to change. Thus we describe a certain order as an old order or a new order; we thus designate systems, too, as a bygone old system or as a successive new system. Orders and the systems they contain may be peaceful or violent; prospers or miserable; they may generate threats to justice, freedom and democracy, or they may serve to enhance these values. According to the definition of several authors, world order refers to “rules that govern – albeit in a messy and ambiguous way – the most important relationships of the interstate system in general, and the world’s great powers in particular.”

Bull defines ‘international order’ as a pattern of activity that sustains the elementary or primary goals of the ‘society of states’ or ‘international society’. He distinguishes international order from ‘world order’; the latter implies the patterns or dispositions of human activity that sustain the elementary or primary goals of social life among humankind as a whole. International order is understood as order of states; but since states are simply groupings of people, people may be grouped in such a way that they do not form states at all, and generate different structures.

Orders are human constructs; they work in favor of a dominant actor or a group of actors, who rise and take the initiative of innovating norms in the international or global environment to perpetuate the order that works in their favor. Orders are longstanding frameworks, they reflect the dominant norms, customs, habits, rules and culture that associates with the dominant actors’, who impact the order in their favor, while a wider range of array in the order have no impact on it. Those actors innovating norms for the order would like to see the order long-lasting, because it works in their favor. They try all they can to protect and maintain the order. Order thus refers to loose set of rules that govern the most important relationships of the constituent interstate systems in general, and the major powers in particular. Those, for whom the order is not working well, would thrive to see a different order in which a wider array of marginalized actors will be stake holders. A system is justifiable
part of an order. Systems are arrangements in which several units or parts are assembled by some form of regular interaction. Basically, systems are apparently shorter arrangements across which global power distribution is identified. For instance, if the system is bipolar, then the schema of global power sharing is between solely two major actors, whose interaction affects the whole human polity. The recently bygone bipolar system is reminiscent of this perceivable experience. Systems are component parts of an order. Modern human history presents several such consciously construed orders, each of which covers a longer historical space of time as compared to the systems these orders encompass. History of the human polity emphasizes that the orders and systems that have occurred, heretofore, have functioned in favor of a single power or a group of powers, such as chieftains, empires, and states. This is in agreement with Diamond who claims that the recorded history of politics indicates the evolution of organizational complexities of the human polity ranging from less complex ones to the more complex structures. Achieving and maintaining an order requires different approaches for different theorists. For instance the neorealist approach assumes that order is achieved via an automatic balancing mechanism, while the approach of the English School suggests that order is achieved and actively protected through a set of institutional mechanisms. The idea of international order as reflecting an institutional arrangement has also been developed within the liberal tradition (American School) of international relations.

It is possible to list three such orders and about six systems since the seventieth century. These include: the Westphalian order and its three systems, the twentieth century order and its two systems, as well as, the emergent twenty-first century order and its initial system.

8 CUTLER, R.: The Complex Evolution of International Orders and the Current
Recently, the use of the term “new world order” has been very frequent in global politics. Except for its use in conspiracy theories presenting a Masonic New World Order, where a group of very few super wealthy elites are assumed to have secretly established themselves as world government, for instance, Epperson thinks, “historical events occur by design for reasons that are not generally made known to the people.” In fact, this is opposed to the view held by the majority of historians today, which is the Accidental View of History. The term, “new world order”, has been used also to refer to any new period of history evidencing a dramatic change in world political thought and international relations. In spite of its various interpretations, the term “new world order” is connected mainly with the ideological notion of global governance, and it solely denotes the sense of new collective efforts aiming at tackling worldwide problems that are above the capacity of individual actors, nation-states or non-states alike.

Among the most well-known Western uses of the term “new world order” was Woodrow Wilson’s fourteen points. He mentioned it in this document and in a call for a League of Nations following the devastation of World War I. Wilson’s new world order was part of the crusade to make the world safe for democracy and in pursuit of the American dream. He also pushed for a UN-like organization.

The term came into frequent use at the end of the Cold War period, when Presidents Mikhail Gorbachev and George H. W. Bush had used it in attempt to define the nature of the post Cold War world, and the rising possibility of cooperation between great powers.

When the term “new world order” was used at the Malta conference, in 1989 by both Presidents, it sounded like the replacement of containment with superpower cooperation. The term seemed to refer to this cooperation between great powers, while leading to solve such issues like reducing armaments and troop deployment, settling regional disputes, stimulating economic growth, lessening East-West trade restrictions,

the inclusion of the Soviets in international economic institutions, and protecting the environment. This amazing tendency of cooperation between antagonistic rivals was seen as nothing less than the new world order that both powers and other leaders struggle to shape.\textsuperscript{11}

Nevertheless, the term “new world order,” gradually, stopped to denote what it was assumed to indicate, that is, a spirit of an inclusive attitude and a cooperative end; in this stead, it started reflecting a sense of U.S. triumphalism. It plummeted to serve single actor domination, when several elites including media who sympathized with the ideologies of this actor rushed to conclusion and declared that history has ended at the level of this actor’s regime,\textsuperscript{12} arguably, this has significantly harmed the dawning positive course of cooperation.

The sudden collapse of the governing international order and its last system that came about with the end of the Cold War period, has conditioned much of the attitude in international relations in the past two decades or so. This includes the concept of a “New World Order” that has caused considerable debate, amongst policymakers and scholars of various arrays. Thus, in the post-Cold War period, the initial positive notion of the phrase ‘new world order’, and the whole range of issues of international relations was geared to be founded solely upon a ‘Western’ model of World Order, which is always around ever since it was incepted at Whestphalia.\textsuperscript{13}

In the post-Cold War period, the existence of differing concepts of Order is becoming obvious. This emanates, among other reasons, from defying a one-way street of imposing Westphalian based order through its Western actors and sympathizing elites and media, on the rest of other

\begin{itemize}
\item\textsuperscript{11} Compare with \textit{The Month that Shook the World, New York Times}, September 2, 1990
\item\textsuperscript{12} FUKUYAMA, F.: \textit{The End of History and the Last Man.} New York : Free Press, 1992.
\item\textsuperscript{13} The Westphalian order was the origin of the Western order. Its inception goes back to the 17\textsuperscript{th} century. Ever since, this order was installed (1648), it has dominated the whole planet, imposing itself on those who are beyond the West. The act of extending this one way street has continued even after the Cold War period, this indicates the suffering of the notion of inclusiveness and cooperation on one hand, and the lust of perpetuating the Westphalian order further more, while wanting global relations to remain founded solely upon the Western model of world order.
\end{itemize}
wider array of actors, who wish to see a transformed order in which they function as equals.

While the sympathizing elites and media remained loyal to the perpetuating order and imbue with the system it advances, a larger array of others think critically about the nature of the contemporary international or/and global relations. The latter dare to examine the extent to which Western interests, institutions, culture, norms, and habits dominate the world system and the challenges and responses that have been generated as a result of that dominance. This development may be discerned by involving approaches that entail both theoretical and empirical dimensions.

3 World Orders in Historical Context

History has seen ancient and modern world orders. Some authors categorize the history of world orders by highlighting two periods – pre AD 1000 ancient orders and post AD 1000 orders, which they elaborate using appropriate theoretical explanations.

As for the prior period, overall, this period of time underscores the historical reality of a fragmented world, disconnected for the most part into regional enclaves of conflict and interaction where typically, one Empire maintained order with minor exceptions where regional powers maintained a sense of multi-polar order, mainly, in the area of trade, cultural exchange, and communication. In fact, there are areas that were excluded from such interactions. The areas excluded from such influence were characterized by competing tribes and local systems of power.

Post AD 1000 world order evolved in similar ways, meanwhile, its trends were accelerated during the 1500-2005 timeframe, with the Westphalian order marking justifiably the ongoing Western domination, which has been now encountered by emerging new actors and other trends. Overall, post-AD 1000 order with particular emphasis on 1500-


2005 world order has been characterized\textsuperscript{16} by such aspects like dominant Empires with regional systems of power sharing that is at times dictated by shifting multi-polar or bi-polar relations, while at other times it was being colored with a shift toward balance of power system particularly in Europe, which then evolved to an international power sharing system known as the bi-polar or the Cold War system. This bygone system is currently followed by the combination of both unipolar and multipolar system, which may be referred to as a uni-multipolar system.\textsuperscript{17} This new system, in this early 21\textsuperscript{st} century, anchors itself in the emergent new order, ostensibly, referred to, by several thinkers, as world society order.\textsuperscript{18} This emergent order and the system that has been anchored in it seem to have been dominated, currently, by the hegemonic globalization trend of the US, which is spearheading the West, in an attempt of maintaining Western friendly order by innovating norms that ensure solely the universalization of values of the West.

This tendency has become adequately observable after the destruction of the bygone Cold War system. Ever since, the U.S. has represented the “lone superpower” and seemed to resemble the Sun with orbiting smaller powers in a multi-faceted hierarchy of regional and world order.\textsuperscript{19} Moreover, the U.S. hegemony represents long-term policy plans with historical roots. It has been reflected in various materials that scholars and government policy-makers strive to sustain U.S. hegemony on the planet, as famously indicated below:

Our first objective is to prevent the re-emergence of a new rival. This is a dominant consideration underlying the new regional defense strategy and requires that we endeavor to prevent any hostile power from dominating a region whose resources would, under consolidated control, be sufficient to generate global power.


There are three additional aspects to this objective. First, the U.S. must show the leadership necessary to establish and protect a new order that holds the promise of convincing potential competitors that they need not aspire to a greater role or pursue a more aggressive posture to protect their legitimate interests. Second, in the non-defense areas, we must account sufficiently for the interests of the advanced industrial nations to discourage them from challenging our leadership or seeking to overturn the established political and economic order. Finally we must maintain the mechanisms for deterring competitors from even aspiring to a larger regional or global role.  

Nevertheless, this U.S. hegemonic behavior has been vigorously encountered by those actors that are beyond the West, who aim at transforming the one-way street Western domination in favor of all inclusive order and systems. As of now, as Tamene claims, “international politics suffers the absence of a legitimate central authority. This absence ... is the attribute of international politics that has not been given an appropriate weight even at the outset of the 21st century. Despite a lip service, dominant actors remain reluctant, and tend to maintain the traditional pattern of imperial domination, to delay any best possible option.” Nevertheless, one can argue, that currently, “global politics envisages a substantial shift in human attitudes, helpful to set in motion the technical, institutional, and social changes needed to meet the multiple challenges to humanity in a timely manner. In the political sense, this substantial shift engenders the potential of disrupting hitherto perpetuating and hardly delivering vicious circles of hegemonic powers.” Several scholars, for example, Raskin refers to such substantial shift as Great Transformation of complex nature with a global reach, to indicate that a desirable community of highly awakened citizens is quite


achievable, and that it is within the bound of human capacity, in the same way the UN or the EU and many other far reaching organizational complexities were. Thus, as Tamene et al suggest, it is now about time to contemplate for an option of global institutional design that diminishes the unproductive arrangement of nation-states and empires or the pathway to series of hegemons in favor of citizen based world society order and its constituent systems in which public good is ensured through cooperation than via domination.24

On the other hand, the notion that claims that global public good cannot be ensured without the help of hegemonic domination denies all possible options in favor of upholding the importance of a hegemon or ranges of hegemons. Concerning the discussion, whether ranges of hegemons in general, and the current U.S. hegemon in particular shall be able to sustain itself as a hegemon for longer period of time, there are more doubts on the ground rather than hopes and signs of continuity. In this regard, probably, the comment of a well known scholar Samuel P. Huntington would be relevant here. While discussing recent trends in international politics related to U.S. power, he emphasizes that:

...the United States has found itself increasingly alone, with one or fewer partners, opposing most of the rest of the world’s states and peoples. These issues include UN dues; sanctions against Cuba, Iran, Iraq, and Libya; the land mines treaty; global warming; an international war crimes tribunal; the Middle East; the use of force against Iraq and Yugoslavia; and the targeting of 35 countries with new economic sanctions between 1993 and 1996. On these and other issues, much of the international community is on one side and the United States on the other. The circle of governments who see their interests coinciding with American interests is shrinking....While the United States regularly denounces various countries as “rogue states,” in the eyes of many countries it is becoming the rouge superpower.25

This brief historical sketch of world orders and systems analysis, above, has been accompanied by several paradigms in an effort of explaining

the nature of orders, shifting alliances and fluctuating systems, in which the distribution of power is quite observable.

4 Limitations of Theories of International Relations

While theories of international relations are generally understood as tools that help to comprehend the complex world around us in a systematic way, currently, they fail to explain why the global system is as chaotic as we observe it today, and where it is heading. They do not predict, or provide guidelines about changes and transformations that ought to occur. For most international relations’ scholars, the end of the Cold War starkly revealed that existing theories of international relations were incapable of explaining or anticipating fundamental changes in the international system. It is equally questionable, whether the theories are better equipped to address subsequent phenomena, such as the resurging ethno national conflicts, the consequences of new trends towards democratization and market economy, the nature and implication of the emerging international system – the alleged “new world order.” Several scholars, for instance, Holm\(^26\) has pointed out, our universal theories; most importantly realism and liberalism are not more adequate for understanding the emerging world order than for explaining the changes that overwhelmed the bipolar Cold War system.

A number of mainstream theories including realism and liberalism and other theories of international relations including the marginal ones, attempt to address the global environment and the interactions among actors based on such concepts like: balance of power, polarity, global capitalist trade systems, the end of history, perpetual peace theories, oligarchy, hegemony, imperialism, neo-Marxist and neo-anarchist critiques such as anarcho-syndicalism and the “façade” of democratization, and the clash of civilizations.

Historically, Realism has been used as a major explanatory theory. Numerous thinkers, who belong to this school of thought have utilized the realist approach to explain the State, power, sovereignty, and balance of power. These thinkers include among others: Thucydides, Machiavelli, Hobbes, Grotius, Clausewitz, Niebuhr, Carr, Morgenthau and Waltz.

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notion of balance of power that they suggest to ensure stable world
order also includes discussions about the international system(s) as
being spaces of interactions functioning within anarchic structures.
Within these anarchic structures, as they claim, the main actors, that
is to say, states are assumed to retain sovereignty and the distribution
of capabilities, resources, and stability on a healthier level of power
equilibrium, which will in turn help to maintain cohesion of the orders
and systems, while preventing any cataclysmic destruction.

This realist school based balance of power theory argues that modern
global politics is characterized by shifting coalitions and alliances aimed
at preventing an unequal distribution of power in the global arena
and that such a balance is the best guarantee for world order\textsuperscript{27} and its
constituent systems. To confirm this notion, Europe’s various shifting
alliances that have been seen in history are being taken as evidence
of proof. Modern thinkers of this school such as Kissinger argue that
countries fear and loathe hegemons and that it is better to have a balance
of power to stabilize the system.\textsuperscript{28} Also, this balance of power notion has
been utilized, recently, to explain the alliance of France, Russia, and China,
when these actors intended to counter-balance the US unilateral actions
against Iraq in 2003.\textsuperscript{29} Most balance of power theorists claim hegemons
always fail and that the history of modern world orders runs in cycles
illuminating the rise and fall of great powers. In an attempt to adjust the
drawback of the realist school, neorealism sees the notion of hegemonic
stability as a viable circumstance to perpetuate state based and solely
Western dominated order and systems that have been maintained since
Westphalia. Neorealism assumes that history is subject to continuity and
repetitive cycles of hegemonies, thus inadequate to explain international
relations more generally. Its most fundamental limitation is its insistence
that international politics cannot be understood without a reference to

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the logic of anarchy.\textsuperscript{30} To the Hegemonic Stability Theory\textsuperscript{31}, one power capable of exerting international influence can stabilize the world and function as a quasi international enforcer of laws and order in a more adequate manner than any other alternative forms. The hegemon is seen as necessary and sufficient condition for the construction and maintenance of liberal international economy.\textsuperscript{32}

As indicated above, the Hegemonic Stability Theory attempts to address the issue of world order. It relies on the possibility of one power being capable to stabilize the world, thus function as bedrock of the order. However, it is obvious that this stance reflects notions very similar to arguments justifying empires. Anyways, proponents of the theory argue that the hegemonic world order would increase free trade, prosperity, and international cooperation on the level that it supersedes regional, federal, or other models of power distribution. The Hegemonic Stability Theory is not as positive as it has been argued by the neo-realist scholars such as Keohane, 1984; Kindleberger, 1981; Waltz, 1979 and Gilpin, 1981\textsuperscript{33} who insist that without the hegemon the stability of world order and its constituent systems would be uncertain or even impaired.

On the other hand, critics of the hegemonic stability model warn that powerful nations generate a backlash of guerilla and asymmetric warfare while being forced to confront terrorism and defeat other ideologies.
that seek to undermine the legitimacy or power of the hegemonic regime. Basically, the hegemon’s legitimacy is unfounded; its right to dominate or regulate the international institutions and rules has no adequate justification. Since the Hegemonic Stability Theory condones this deficiency its scope in international politics or economics is solely one-sided. The fact that its proponents hold the view that the decline of the hegemon will hurt the stability of the system of states, indicates that they provide the theoretical support for the hegemon to control the international institutions and expand its own power, constituting the so-called American soft power, besides the US’s vigorous use of its hard power, in the current world system.

As contributions of critical theories for example, Cox 1983; 1987; 2002 and also as the neo-Gramscian school has made it clear, arguably, the Hegemonic Stability Theory is merely an explanation of the previous historical evidences that two hegemon (Britain 1846 – 1914 and the United States 1941 – 2001) were existed in two peaceful and stable periods respectively. Nevertheless, it cannot be an empirical predication or normative reference for the political scientists, politicians, historians, journalists, and other observers of international affairs to affirm that hegemon is the sufficient condition of stability. We cannot be so duped, unless utterly forced, to embrace hegemony as an only viable choice, while undermining more workable options of multilateral cooperation, compatible to the development of human polity of the new century.

The critics of hegemonic stability theory, thus, claim that multiple alternative models shall promote world order much better. Mainly, these liberal theorists promote the prevalence of multi-polar model. They argue that a harmonious world order is most likely to occur when numerous


power sharing systems rely on interdependence, interconnection, and cooperative interaction, or hierarchies of power and regional authority, while others argue institutions that mediate are essential to observe the progress of order. These thinkers include, among others, scholars like Kant, Brzezinski, Doyle, Keohane, Nye, and several others.\textsuperscript{38}

The claim of multi-polarity is often characterized by pro-democratic arguments based on economic coordination, international law, and international cooperation.\textsuperscript{39} The multi-polarity school argues that numerous powerful nations should counter-balance each other’s influence while establishing order in their respective spheres. An extension of the multi-polarity model includes discussions about the North-South economic gap; where the wealthy North will encourage poor economies of the South to enable them integrate into the “core” of the stable systems.\textsuperscript{40} Radical theories are critical in the face of the issue of world order: They claim that the root cause of the gap is the order that favors domination of imperialism, colonialism, and exploitation of capitalism over the Third World.\textsuperscript{41} Other thinkers have argued about the root of stable, wealthy, and advanced order by tracing agricultural, static societies.\textsuperscript{42} Mainly, the multi-polarity school relies heavily on collective security through alliances and federations often referencing the perpetual peace theory of Kant and linking the discussion to such institutions like the League of Nations, the UN, NATO, the EU, and a host of other alliance systems. Nevertheless, multi-polarity and its theory of liberalism too present limitations. It is criticized for being weak, ineffectual and too “soft” when dealing with aggressive leaders or nations.\textsuperscript{43} Despite its limitations, comparably, the multi-polar arrangement represents a better option.

\textsuperscript{38} See MOSELLE, p. 5.
There are alternative theories of world order that include ranges of varying approaches. Among these are polyarchy, Marxism, anarcho-syndicalism, and other spin-offs. Polyarchy may be understood as numerous centers of power most often linked to a participatory democracy model. Some critics of polyarchy argue that the “façade of promoting democracy” functions as a mask for large capitalist democracies allowing elite minorities to maintain control and perpetuate the status quo and thus suggest that liberal democracy should be treated as a totalizing ideology similar to Marxism or Fascism.\(^{44}\) Other critics claim that radical regions could elect overly-zealous or extreme leaders who pose a threat to world order, thus polyarchy could contribute to the germination of aggressive personalities and nations.\(^{45}\)

As to the critics from the anarcho-syndicalist spectrum, they argue that world order should be predicated on the interactions and articulated desires of all individuals and those systems of power and authority are not anathema to innate human qualities.\(^{46}\) These scholars claim that federal systems of communities would more adequately reflect the interests of disparate and complex groups rather than a larger unitary world system. This school vociferously denounces the U.S. as imperialistic, hegemonic, and exploitative, they argue that the U.S. actually undermines democracy in favor of business and elitist interests.\(^{47}\)

There are, overall, various world order theories that attempt to address orders and systems as thoroughly as possible, however, the most popular recent ones include balance of power theory and hegemonic stability theory. Varieties of aforementioned and other models supplement and illuminate other aspects of world order theories that are still under ongoing discussion.


5 The Progressing World Society Order and Its Constituent Systems

Arguably, the world society order is the emergent new order that has replaced the international society order or the twentieth century order, because the latter was destroyed when its last system (the bipolar system) collapsed in 1991. It witnesses the transformation towards the new order that is now in progress.

As of now, the initial system of this new world society order may be understood as unilateral-multipolar (uni-multipolar) system. At this level of progression of the new order, within this order’s initial system, the remaining sole super power dominates the process of decision making about global issues. Thus most actors will show resentment to this behavior and rather tilt to a multilateral-multipolar arrangement, which allows them to participate in the process of real decision making.

Given the average life span of an international system, which is estimated to be at an average around 40 years, a new period of system transformation for the 21st century may be projected to begin in the early 2040s and last about 10 years. It’s likely that the emerging next system would be an initial at least four-polar version global political system, in a series of open multilateral-multipolar systems of the progressing World Society order. This sub-part of the present work will attempt to discuss the emerging system, as well as, its principal actors and their possible relationships.

6 Behavior of Major Actors within the Progressing New Order

As many have argued, there is a vivid tendency of dominating the new order by major actor. To dominate the new order, for example, the U.S. seems to be adapting newly proposed international norms, such as, “the law of humanitarian intervention in civil conflict”, to its own particular advantage. The cases of Chechnya in Russia, and Tibet and Xinjiang in China, provide explanations, why Russia and China oppose this new U.S. inclination to adapt norms of intervention on the basis

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of humanitarian pretexts.\textsuperscript{49} On the other hand, we observe opposition to the new normative initiative. To oppose a new normative basis is to seek to conserve the old ones, which is expressed through the bipolarity of the Twentieth Century order. We would then have the interesting development, at first glance paradoxically, of the status quo power in the new system, the U.S. unilaterally, becoming the innovator of norms for that international order. The behavior is, discernably, causing a tendency that drifts the initial system (uni-multipolar) of the world society order towards a new bipolarity.

The emergent world order and its initial system may continue to be dominated by U.S. “hegemonic globalization” over a brief period of time in the beginning of this century, with secondary order relegated to multipolar power with emphasis on economic, political, and cultural blocs or federations, this refers to the EU in particular, in conjunction with Russia, Japan, and China. Perhaps, other regional powers too may assert more prominence, for instance, regional cooperation would boost between OPEC countries, BRICS, South East Asian countries and Latin American Countries. Nevertheless, their influence remains marginal in relation to the emergent order and its initial system in which the U.S. threatens to dominate, persistently.

The U.S. strategy of world domination is currently very visible in all possible areas, ranging from financial to military. The process goes on in a vicious circle mode. Military power allows the US to maintain the so called dollar hegemony on the whole world. It continuously prints new bank notes for itself and this consequently devalues the value of property in other countries. This is a vicious circle, but the vicious circle would hardly persist for ever.

Thus, the process of transformation that is simmering, right now, within the new world society order, from its initial system of unilateral-multipolarism to the next phase of multilateral-multipolarism, seems to have imbued an eminent conflict between unilateralist or hegemonic tendency of empire on one hand and the multilateral multipolar tendency of the next phase of the initial system of the world society order, which ensures proportionate global power sharing, on the other hand. The initial world society system which is engaged in a fierce struggle against the upcoming multilateral-multipolar system is the unilateral-multipolar system.

\textsuperscript{49} See CUTLER above, on this he provides a sensible explanation.
The popping up of provoked conflict escalations in various parts of the world; the latest being the conflict in Ukraine may be understood as mini flashpoint reflecting the chaotic and unmanageable crisis of the current system. It refers to the confrontation between US dominated uni-multipolar system currently on the ground and the multilateral multipolar tendency on the horizon, which purports to become the next system.

It is risky but, some scholars argue that greater escalation and continued crisis, mainly in Europe, if well managed, will benefit the U.S. on the other side of the Atlantic, to set a new long wave of economic growth. Nevertheless, if conflict escalations become unmanageable to the US, then follows enormous loss. Concerning this discussion and while reflecting the unfolding events, for instance, Poláček has pointed out three scenarios about the U.S. strategy and their medium term perspective. Firstly, there is optimistic scenario: this sees world globalization as a phenomenon, which could be manageable and mutually beneficial for all countries or actors. Nevertheless, this scenario is unlikely, because the American elite are not ready for this, since it would mean the loss of their global leadership. Secondly, there is the catastrophic scenario, which is represented by the collapse of the Anglo-Saxon financial system as well as the world’s disintegration into a range of self-contained economic areas. This is quite possible scenario. In the case it succeeds, the one billion wealthy part of world population would be significantly affected. They would loose the possibility of using the rest six billion people on the Earth. Thirdly, there is the inertial scenario, this is characterized by the maintenance of the existing order of things on behalf of supporting „peripheral“ countries, for instance, the American actions take place in Ukraine within the context of this scenario.50

Others see the significant regress in the U.S. economy that might occur with advancement of the BRICS countries and other regional actors; this may lead to reducing the dollar’s share of world expenditure, which would likely force the U.S. to cut down its military and scientific programs. On top of this, there is the U.S. debt issue, which is threatening to collapse the economy at any time. If major lenders from the U.S. put the dollar reserves and Government bonds on the market, the dollar is

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assumed to fall, and after the collapse of the dollar, probably, the U.S. will become unable to finance its numerous military bases.\textsuperscript{51}

The major component part of the U.S. strategy, thus, seems the gaining of full control over the EU and Russia, and then utilizing this advantage in the fight with China. It considers that Russia is unfriendly and hindrance to its strategies, thus, it should be punished. The ongoing crisis in the Ukraine may be seen as a manifestation of already existing frictions and geopolitical conflict of interest between these major actors. Russia has been consistently characterized in the western media as the aggressor; however, several experts on this situation indicate that the U.S. and NATO played an essential role in fomenting the uprising that resulted in a coup that ousted Yanukovych in Ukraine. Also the ongoing support for the new government in Kiev, alongside persistent demonization of Putin’s role, is being seen as, has placed Eastern Europe back on the verge of a conflated military conflict. Concerning this issue, for example, Kucinich argues that “Under the guise of democratizing, the West stripped Ukraine of its sovereignty with a U.S. backed coup, employed as a foil to advance NATO to the Russian border and reignited the Cold War, complete with another nuclear showdown.”\textsuperscript{52}

7 The Media Nexus

The media are integral components of today’s globalized human polity; they relate to each of us. The media play several significant roles within the human polity, in the national and global spaces, including entertaining, opinion shaping, educating and the function of being a platform of communication. As politics is being significantly shaped by global transnational forces, simultaneously, communication becomes essential in the process.

The media can facilitate effective intercultural and transcultural communication. As a vehicle of ideas, it could transfer nonbiased information, scientific knowledge to the human polity, about various aspects of life, to update and sharpen their thought, including the nature

\textsuperscript{51} VASILKO, T.: \textit{Rekordný dlh USA vyzerá hrozivo, no od bankrotu majú ďaleko.} [online]. [2013-10-10]. Available at: <http://ekonomika.sme.sk>.

\textsuperscript{52} This has been cited by JON QUEALLY. In: Common Dreams, December 21, 2014. Also see DENNIS KUCINICH’S article in the edition of December 16, 2014.
of the global order and its constituent systems, as well as, the behavior of the actors that interact on behalf of us all.

Nevertheless, the environment in which the media function today is under a huge influence of political and economic factors or the market. As a result of this and related pressures, several corporate media prevalently reflect their lust for profit. As a result, the relevant tasks indicated above remain blurred, while generating enormous unwanted outcomes. Since media are stakeholders similar to national and global actors, their critics towards the mainstream political apparatus in general and against oneself in particular are very unlikely. The media is also an intermediary in forming an important public opinion. This critical ability of the media is often manipulated and is misused in favor of exercising the interests of the media owners. Editorial offices do not have the ability to deform the minds of the masses one hundred percent, but they can mediate selected information, to the receiving end, which has an obvious effect of slightly modifying their opinion. As reported by Denis McQuail, media are a potential means of influence, control and promotion of innovation in the company, a source of information vital to the functioning of most social institutions and basic instrument of transmission.

The media nexus in condoning hegemony today is beyond doubt. Here, for example, Gramsci’s viewpoint becomes relevant. He understands hegemony as a process by which dominant classes or class fractions through their privileged access to social institutions such as or mainly the media propagate values that reinforce their control over politics and the economy. These values form a dominant ideology such as neoliberalism. The ideology in each society is a common sense that legitimates the existing distribution of power or the system. Ideology makes the structure of power seem inevitable, and thus, as though beyond challenge.

In fact, the mass media are apparently acting as protectors of the public, but the fact that current recipient of the media is dependent on passive reception of messages; he has no way of verifying the authenticity and assessment veracity of mediated messages is one of the issues to be weighed. Everything that seems resolved in the media is not really

always true. Furthermore, some media may be serious, progressive, lean to function in a transparent way and not abusing their persuasion in own favour. However, the media are generally still less serious, and unscrupulous. The problem is not solely connected with the fact that they finance their activities by themselves, and thus should increase revenue to support their businesses, but it is because there is no limit to their profit making lust, which ultimately becomes the main goal of their activity. This evokes the need for progressive media, whose main target is not making extreme profit but a reasonable balance between income and service.

Conclusions

The task this paper was set for is to examine the nature of international orders and systems in a nutshell. The paper has tried to cover this task within the framework of International relations discipline and global politics. While assessing how orders and systems impact the human polity as a whole, the study has contributed in some depth, to the ongoing debates, particularly, with regard to how the fiduciaries of the human polities interact in the global environment. It has tried to briefly assess, how the behaver of the major actors, significantly, affect issues that matter to all of us, in the process of their interactions. The study has shaded some light on the current global politics and the political strategies of major actors, including how these actors pursue their objectives of controlling global politics. The study has covered various theories that help to grasp and explain the political, economic and social aspects of present day global environment, and the inevitability of transformations that will give birth to a new system.

The paper has outlined how orders and systems transform themselves over time, and how they in turn affect the human polity in one-way or another. The analysis has been applicable to the emergent order, to this orders initial current system, and to the looming next system that is now on the horizon. It emphasizes that the human polity and its genuine intellectuals, including the progressive media, should rise up, to encourage the transformation that has been headed towards positive objectives against selfish motives. The paper suggests the need of finding and encouraging a favorable trajectory for the betterment of ever worsening conditions of present day human polity. Its finding cautions
that bandwagoning a one-way street would only harm than help the system of human interaction.

The current global situation between the West, as spearheaded by the U.S. and NATO on one hand and the non-Western actors such as Russia on the other, has the taste of an upcoming war. The development and outcome of the situation is to be seen. As of now, whether Russia and the non-West would build a coalition, strong enough to resist and withstand the U.S. and G7 that will fight for their objectives till the end, seems an issue for further discussion. Also, whether the antiwar coalition, that Russia is trying to put together under the BRICS, and the move to produce a universal payment system that is equivalent to the Western banking system SWIFT, as well as the relevance of creating their own rating agencies, would work, remains a subject of further observation. Moreover, whether the effect of the coalition in which Russia will take the leading role would make Russia stronger actor or remain under the brunt of the U.S., is to be seen. In this work, media have been briefly discussed as a powerful component part of the whole global environment ostensibly impacting us all. Needless to say that many of the issues this paper has raised are contributions to the ongoing discussions in the realm of social sciences, and they may require further research of an interdisciplinary nature by those interested in the field.

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ABSTRACT:
Globalization brings new opportunities but also difficulties in understanding intercultural communication. This study is based on a comparison of research studies concerning the media images of people who are viewed as “different” by means of a quantitative content analysis of the Czech media together with an examination of values and attitudes towards those viewed as “different” among high school students. The aim is to show the vicious circle of reproduction of stereotypical thinking without critical reflection in school and in the media, which confirms our subjective, stereotyped reality. In today’s globalized world this is perceived as a problem that multicultural education could deal with. However, in the Czech Republic, the multicultural approach in the educational process, due to its reduction to “Roma problem”, does not meet our expectations or is in fact failing, since to date this approach leads to a superficial acceptance of postmodern values, which includes for example toleration of differences among pupils (and often also among teachers).

KEY WORDS:
educational process, media image, multicultural education, social constructivism, transcultural communication

1 Introduction

Globalization brings new opportunities but also difficulties in understanding intercultural communication. The theory of multiculturalism is naturally linked to the cultural and political discourse of postmodernism. Contemporary society is living in an age of globalization, and with it also an age of plurality of ethical and political values. We must accept the reality of a world inhabited by people with different experience, creating various stories about the world, living their lives in different ways and holding different political views and religious beliefs. This said, from the position of postmodernism, means that we do not live in a single world, but we de facto inhibit a number of different worlds and we use varied, personal dictionaries to describe them.
Education leading to support for tolerant multicultural coexistence and general tolerance towards diversity, implying a development of cross-cultural and intercultural communication, should therefore be an implicit part of education in contemporary societies. We are aware that the school environment is not the only factor influencing the values and attitudes of the younger generation, but that the family (socio-economic) environment and the media also have a significant influence. However, schools are a reflection of the society to which they belong¹, and as many research probes focused on the issue of the media construction of the reality reveal, the mass media interfere significantly in the transformation of our society.

We return, here, to the themes that we have developed previously² and through our experience in managing the ESF OP VK project “Anti-prejudice workshops” we focused on the practical application of the ideas of multiculturalism in the educational process. In 2010-2012 we carried out under this project a research which sought to uncover the value orientation of secondary school students, with a focus on the multicultural aspects of their education.

In comparison with criticism of the media conditioning of social structures and the stereotypical and prejudiced view of members of minorities in our society, its results bring significant findings in relation to the media.

2 Context

Multiculturalism, meaning the one we are striving for, is a pluralistic and tolerant ideology, intentionally completely opposite to all the grand narratives of the past: Christianity, fascism, communism, all the totalitarian systems that advocate a single truth, a single path and a single justice. The population growth cannot be stopped, however, the fragmentation of ways of life, social class, belief and education can

be overcome with another ideology, an idea to sanctify diversity and plurality as the new core values of humanity.

“We live in a global age, where barriers of race, ethnicity, distance, and civilization are continuously crumbling.” However, new barriers are being created, namely barriers arising from the economic situation of families living in the separate social classes. We believe that a multicultural approach to education should primarily emphasize that which strengthens the equality and justice within society. As a result, we sympathize with an illustrative conception of multicultural education, namely that all students regardless of which group they belong to (according to gender, ethnicity, race, culture, language, social class, religion or other differences) should experience equality in education. Such an education could eliminate the factor that some students have a greater chance of success than others on the basis of certain special (predominantly external) characteristics, and could consequently contribute to a disruption of the labels “successful” or “unsuccessful” on the basis of membership of a certain group.

In the age of a global human society, where races, ethnicities and nations disappear, man attains a new value of humanity – tolerance for the different. Multiculturalism is the political impact of the activities of humanities after the Holocaust. Cultural and social anthropology are among the disciplines that largely contributed to its definition. Anthropology is a science searching for the meaning of survival of the Euro-American civilisation through the dynamics of societies that were despised by this society generation after generation. We remain here after tens of millions of victims of the wars that took place during the last hundred years, after the Holocaust, after a number of famines that happened at the same time as other parts of the world witnessed economic conjuncture of unprecedented proportions (long-term increases in production, consumption and foreign trade). Truth changed into a random attribute, rendering things more or less valuable here and there. A value defined by the increase rate and index on stock markets, by inflation and GDP. It is a time of recession, chaos and confusion – not of economy, but of values. Interpersonal relations are handled with one finger on the trigger.

Particular attention is paid to the construction and detection of our own stereotypes and prejudices, which we could not live without, as they play an important role in the structures of our personalities, when it comes to values. This is also why we are engaged in the description of findings based on the quantitative anthropological and pedagogical research of value-orientations of students; and of other findings based on quantitative analyses of the presentation of the “different” in Czech news media. In the centre of our attention, however, remains the relationship that participants in the educational process have with tolerance towards difference and with intercultural communication.

During the nineties, we witnessed a liberalization of the post-socialistic societies, which resulted in the emergence of ethno-politics, or identity politics, in these regions. We may see the reasons for this in an increasing need for societal solidarity as a result of a rapid social stratification, or perhaps in a negative reaction to this stratification in the sense of a heightened sensitivity towards “the others”, especially manifested in the Czech Roma minority. The so-called “Roma issue” is multiculturalism’s most debated topic in the Czech environment. Problems associated with the Roma minority, be it their social and spatial exclusion; or the emergence of community schools, which many consider to be the best possible way of integrating the Roma into the majority, while others see it as the beginning of a segregated “ethnic” school system; or higher criminality, manifested especially among the inhabitants of Roma ghettos; or that many Roma families are considered to be living “at the expense of society”, as seen in their dependency on government support; or failed attempts of governmental and non-governmental organizations alike to change the given situation, are all undoubtedly grave problems. However, in the context of the issue of multicultural co-existence of citizens of Central European countries, especially Czech Republic, the problems of racial inequality should not overshadow other, often more important problems. Fixation on the so-called “Roma problem”, or its excessive accentuation, devalues the goals of multicultural politics as well as education towards the values of a pluralistic, modern, democratic society striving towards a transcultural dialog and multicultural coexistence.
3 Research studies

Czech society is in no way based on an equal access to education, employability, social status, financial remuneration, etc., in the sense of equality across all ethnicities, genders, sexual orientations, social classes or health conditions. The so-called “racial” inequality, set to the forefront by the media, is merely a fleeting reflection of a larger and deep-rooted issue of social inequality, which is reflected in a multitude of social problems.

Multiculturalism, however, deals with a much broader range of human diversity and its manifestations, which are then accepted or rejected by the majority of society. We point out that multicultural education should (for this reason) not consider the “Roma problem” to be its centrepiece. This sort of practical politics ultimately leads to linking negative social phenomena to the Roma as representatives of a group identity. By this process it helps to shape the social reality, in which it re-confirms their predominantly negative position.

Applying the principals of individualization instead of ethnic or cultural identity could lead to the elimination of Roma stigmatization (and of members of other minorities) and thus provide opportunities to prevent their social exclusion. The goal of multicultural education is primarily to prioritize those values that lead to a socially just society and a socially just education.

The school (as an institution) reflects general patterns of social discrimination, which is why teachers should be able to unveil these tendencies and lead their students to reflect on their views of particular discriminated groups in light of new findings, personal experiences, empathy, tolerance and solidarity. Multicultural education should help reform the educational process while taking into account the fostering of not just cognitive, but also emotional abilities, leading to a perception of the school as a social system, where all its main variables are closely linked to the goal of providing equal conditions for achieving study results by a diverse body of students.

The Czech society is ethnically, or rather culturally, nearly homogeneous and the percentage of foreigners and national minorities in the Czech population suggests, that the probability of meeting a different culture
is minimal. Yet, we can see tendencies towards xenophobic ways of thinking and racist declarations in the Czech society.

Why is this the case? To what extent are these trends fed by an image of foreigners or those who are visibly different, who are spoken of within contexts which are no surprise to a member of the majority, which is presented within the contours given by the media influence and their construction of reality? A critical revision of the value orientation of youth, reflecting the values and beliefs of contemporary Czech society, could help us understand the sources upon which xenophobic thoughts and the racist manifestations of the majority are based.

Values given priority to as convictions and ideas arise not only on the basis of on personal experience, but are no less often formed through education, therefore they are culturally determined. In relation to other, foreign cultures we tend to view their representatives within the categories of “us” and “them”. As Jan Kosek notes, the coexistence of different cultures and religions has always been associated with the perception of otherness and the creation of stereotypes about us and the others. Sameness and difference, basic attributes of the concept of identity, are social constructs. A role in their creation is played by a generalization of basic human attributes, frequently visible differences referring to basic similarities between people, which are no less often determined by a shared culture. On the other hand, the people are different precisely thanks to this commonly shared culture.

First, we focus on the way Czech media display “the different” (on examples of foreigners in general and Muslims and the Roma specifically), which, especially if the readers have no personal experience with a certain group, often function as an arbiter of reality. We then compare the findings of these researches with the results of our own quantitative survey, carried out under the ESF OP VK project. The results of the survey into values and attitudes of grammar school students confirmed a lower

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level of tolerance for members of the Roma minority, as compared to any other minority.

The fact that the media construct and reaffirm our reality was dealt with Berger and Luckmann in their now classic work The Social Construction of Reality. The media contribute to our orientation within the world; they validate our subjective and stereotyped reality. They provide a widely available yet stable guide for locating a framework of our world, since they define what constitute its parts and what already stands outside it, what is perceived as “normal” and what represents a foreign element, which it is necessary to wrestle with somehow. This element standing beyond the boundaries of our world then becomes represented by different cultural or ethnic groups, with regard to which we have the need to define ourselves.

4 Media images of those who are different

The research investigations described here were realized by the method of quantitative content analysis, which enables efficient processing of large amounts of research material, in which this primarily concerns detecting the frequency of categories predetermined by the researcher. Secondly it also deals with the relationships between these categories.\(^9\) It is clear that the use of a quantitative content analysis does not provide an explanation of the examined problems, but enables a systematic examination of a large amount of material, reducing it to relevant data,\(^{10}\) which is most acceptable to us for detecting the media image.

4.1 Foreigners in Prague print media

The presentation of foreigners in the Prague print media was dealt with by Blanka Moravcová in her bachelor thesis. Her analysis covered 324 articles thematically focused on foreigners, which were published in 2013 in selected journals (Prague Daily: Section 1, Mladá fronta Dnes: Annex Praha and Metro – Praha).

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The research showed that in terms of their thematic breakdown, most of the articles were related to crime stories (68 %), followed by culture, sports (9 %) and tourism (8 %) news.\textsuperscript{11} Less space was devoted to topics such as multiculturalism or accidents (around 3 %), school and education, health and social issues, immigration policy, demography (1 %).

The high percentage of articles related to crime is also confirmed by the study conducted by Klvačová and Bitrich, which was realized from September 2001 to August 2002 and identified a 75 % share of similarly focused articles about foreigners (specifically citizens of Vietnam, Romania and Ukraine). It is also important that foreigners are usually written about “within contexts that most readers intuitively expect. Vietnamese are primarily written about in connection with market stalls, Ukrainians are written about in connection with labourers or members of organized criminal groups, and Romanians are mostly represented as beggars, pickpockets or thieves”.\textsuperscript{12} This manner of representation confirms stereotypical conceptions of certain nationalities in society. Moravcová also identified a link between nationalities and the thematic focus of the articles. “Whilst in some of them the criminal connection prevailed throughout the research, among others, it represented only a small, relatively insignificant part.”\textsuperscript{13}

For example, in the case of the Bulgarian nationality the theme of crime was identified exclusively, and high representation of this theme can also be detected in the case of Vietnamese, Danish, Slovak or Ukrainian nationality. In contrast, among the Chinese, German and British nationalities different topics are emphasized. Tourism comes to the fore, and in the case of Great Britain also culture and sport. Tourism was also often associated with the Russian nationality. In this respect the information in question is not surprising, since the members of mentioned nationalities rank among frequent foreign visitors. The research results confirm the assumption that “foreigners are most likely to be portrayed

somewhat one-sidedly, rather in a negative light and within the context of a very limited set of issues, most frequently associated with criminal activity"\textsuperscript{14}. The overall assessment of foreigners is negative in more than half of the articles analyzed.

Although the nationality of the foreigner was not usually determined in the articles, it is possible to distinguish a different portrayal of foreigners in the media according to their citizenship, which corresponds to the general concept of “the others” in the Czech society.

4.2 The media image of Muslims in the Czech Republic

The research conducted by Monika Abrahámová is focused on the presentation of followers of the Islamic religion in the Czech media. Its goal was to determine the context within which the monitored media provide information about Czech Muslims and which topics are associated with them.

Compared to Western European countries (Germany, France, United Kingdom), the percentage of Muslims in the Czech population is very low, even in terms of comparison with other minorities within the country. However, we can recognize in the media a tendency to categorize Islam as a threat, which is especially evident over the last year with regard to the existence of Islamic State, the terrorist attack on the editorial board of Charlie Hebdo, etc. “The social climate probably unconsciously begins to shape the prognosis, which has no real justification within the Czech context and arises rather on the basis of media publicized experiences abroad.”\textsuperscript{15}

The method of content analysis was used to analyze 111 articles dealing with this topic published in 2012 in the newspapers MF Dnes, Právo, Deník, Lidové noviny, economic newspapers, on the news web servers Novinky.cz and Aktuálne.cz, as well as in the tabloid press Aha! and Blesk.\textsuperscript{16} The theme which appeared most frequently across the analyzed media


was categorized as the “threat of Islam” (34 %), which covered articles dealing with the spread of Islam in Europe and its possible presence in the Czech Republic. Additionally, the articles focused more attention on general issues of Islam which were not perceived as a potential threat, but were associated with considerations of tolerance and democracy (20 %). Approximately 13 % of the articles were concerned with customs and traditions.\(^{17}\) Abrhámová identified negative connotations in almost half of the articles (46 %). Articles with a neutral tone (38 %) represented a less numerous group. Articles with a positive orientation were recorded in 16 % of cases.

We view the risk of the detected trends as residing primarily in the fact that the majority of the Czech population has no personal experience with Muslims. The members of the majority to a large extent form their views and attitudes towards Muslims on the basis of media messages which confirm their stereotypes about them through the presentation of conflicts. The aspect of media influence on the values and attitudes of the population is even more striking in relation to the Roma minority.

### 4.3 The image of the Roma minority in the Czech media

The creation of the media image of the Roma minority in the Czech Republic was dealt with in his bachelor thesis by Michael Barton. His aim was to determine the context within which selected media (news webservers iDnes.cz and Aktuálne.cz) informed Czech society about the life situation of the Roma minority in the Czech Republic and abroad over a given period of time (the whole year of 2011).\(^{18}\) The analysis was based on a total of 208 articles, within which 328 negative events were identified (such as generalization, crime, inflexibility, poor socio-economic situation, low education and racism). The Roma minority is frequently associated in the press with high crime (in 90 cases). “The articles often mentioned use of alcohol in public places, various episodes of shouting and loud manifestations (during night hours), etc.”\(^{19}\)


It was found that in the most cases, the articles focused on the Roma minority were of an evaluative character (Aktualne.cz 71%, iDnes.cz up to 80%). Positive-sounding articles were more often identified on iDnes.cz (8%). In contrast with this, articles on Aktualne.cz had a positive tone in only 2% of cases. It is evident that in the analyzed media only a few messages without value judgments can be found, comprising less than 16% of the reports relating to this topic. The fact that the Roma minority is mainly presented in association with negative phenomena confirms the stereotypical notion that the Roma minority (meaning all Roma people with only a few exceptions) is related to problems which threaten social order and harmony among the readers of the media.

The negative perception of the Roma minority among the majority is also strengthened by negatively oriented statements aimed at the Roma by representatives of the state apparatus. As was determined, although their comments in 86% of cases were assessed as neutral, a significant amount (13%) of negative statements also appeared in the articles. Likewise, if members of the Roma minority were given space, their statements regarding non-Roma were predominantly neutral (62%), though positive comments (28%) appeared more frequently. Negative connotations were identified in 10% of cases. A disturbing finding is the fact, that in the media members of the majority are given far more space to comment on events (82% of all citations). This disparity illustrates the fact that the role of the media largely contributes to the reproduction of stereotypes about the Roma minority, rather than to create objective reporting.

5 Values and attitudes of high school students in relation to different ethnicity and culture

In 2011-2012 we conducted a survey of values and attitudes of students, focusing on how they perceive members of different cultures and ethnicity. Most of the surveyed students perceived Czech society as...
xenophobic or tending to xenophobic thoughts. However, they describe themselves as tolerant, liberal, with no inclination to xenophobia and racism, without fundamental differences according to the region and therefore not depending on the attended school or its environment. With regard to the presentation of foreigners in the media especially in connection with criminal activity, it is not surprising that the majority of respondents (43.8 %) were convinced that fear of foreigners is to some extent understandable, but there is a necessity to fight against it.

A considerable number (31.3 %) consider fear of foreigners to be legitimate, because they can pose a danger. Among the remaining answers the more visible trend (8.8 %) is the view that fear of foreigners is quite appropriate because foreigners threaten us (they live at our expense - take our people's jobs, draw on our budgets, etc.). The presented findings provide us with information regarding young people's attitudes towards foreigners in general. We were also interested in how the surveyed students would reflect their relationship to specific different groups of people (people of Asia, people from the former Soviet Union, people from the Balkans, Africans/African Americans, Arabs, Jews, Roma, Poles and Germans), created for the research, that any such group in itself implies a greater or lesser number of different cultures and ethnicities. Respondents from the proposed groups rated Africans/African-Americans most positively, with 66 % indicating a clearly positive or rather positive relationship with these groups. More than half of respondents had the same assessment also in the other groups (people from Asia at 56.3 %, 53.6 % Poles and Germans 52.1 %). In contrast, the most negatively perceived were Roma people, with 66.6 % reporting a clearly or rather negative attitude toward this group. There is a significantly less negative evaluation in relation to Arabs (20 %), people from Asia and the people of the former Soviet Union (9 %).

As we expected, the attitude of respondents towards the Roma is significantly different as opposed to other cultural and ethnic groups. It is obvious that negative sentiment about Roma people among high school students is very strong and is probably based on the perception of the Roma minority by the majority society in general, since most of the students, for example from the Zlin and Kromeriz district have personal experience with Roma population. Therefore, we can attribute the negative perception of the Roma minority to the negative media presentation, as shown in Barton’s research on the media image of Roma

*multikulturalismus*. Olomouc : Univerzita Palackého, 2012, p. 188-211.
people. Despite some differences between the districts with a higher proportion of Roma (Prerov/Vitkov) and with a minimal representation of Roma (Kromeriz/Zlin), the graph shows that among adolescents, negative perceptions about the Roma ethnicity predominate across regions, age groups and the representation of the Roma population in the school neighbourhood.

Besides the Roma minority we also investigated attitudes toward followers of Islam. In 40% of cases, we recorded a neutral response. Only about 6% of responses were of a positive nature. Responses of a negative tone were recorded in 20% of students. The results indicated a high degree of negativity towards Muslims, which is probably related to the society-wide negative perception of Islam and its adherents. This sentiment is partly created and supported by the media, which to a large degree displays prejudices about Muslims, creating the impression that they are all terrorists and suicide bombers.

We consider it to be a substantial finding, that there is a noticeable difference between the real attitudes of the respondents, which in some cases manifest in xenophobic comments and similar opinions, and the way they present their attitudes as tolerant (or ambivalent) towards foreigners, different cultural and ethnic minorities and coexistence with them. This discrepancy is made even more apparent by their evaluation of the Czech society and of their relatives as xenophobic, racist and intolerant. We explain this as an attempt of grammar school students...
to distance themselves from racist and intolerant attitudes at least through generalization and by ascribing these tendencies to a different generation, as they are well aware of their problematic task in the Czech society.

Within the framework of the educational process, unfortunately, there is only a superficial acceptance of multicultural and tolerant values and attitudes, rather than any actual intersubjective sharing thereof.

**Conclusion**

Even though multiculturalism, as a concept in the humanities, represents a sort of a stale topic, we have shown a space in the framework of multicultural approach in the Czech society that remains yet untaken. The exaggerated accentuation of ethnic differentiation devalues the goals of multiculturalism and of multicultural education based on a level, or rather just, approach across a multitude of types of differences, stemming from values such as plurality, solidarity, or generally humanity.

If the multicultural ideology of contemporary society has any place in the future, then it must become more critical, not only in relation to its reduction to the “Roma issue”, but also with regard to the reflection of the impact of media on attitudes and values of the students and their teachers, which are transmitted and shared in the educational process.

The above-described research illustrated the fact that the stereotypical perception of “different” from the mainstream society is the media’s own, and the intersubjective shared knowledge of the society then gives rise to the adolescents’ statements as recorded in the open questions of our questionnaire survey, in which they presented their prejudiced perception of minorities, whether this concerns the Roma minority (emphasize crime, welfare, immigration), Muslims (fanaticism, terrorism, religious issues) or Vietnamese (low-quality goods, stalls or drugs). The media creates a distorted/false image of the contemporary multicultural world, produced by diverse people, whose identity is a result of a sharing of the reality of everyday life with others and is formed during social processes.

Societies experience their own history, during which human identity is formed, but the history of these societies is made by people with a
certain identity. As people open themselves up to the world as it takes place, they also shape their world and become genuine creators of their own world, constructing their own world in which their own meanings are reflected. Berger and Luckmann are convinced that this must be so, because one cannot be idle, closed in their interior.

One must always affirm one’s own self in action. Man’s openness to the world and for the world is his “anthropological necessity”23. Society in this conception is on the one hand the creation of man, and on the other hand represents an objective reality. On the basis of such a dialectical relationship between man, society and reality, man is also conversely the construct of the society.24 Berger and Luckmann’s theory has influenced the long-term approach of the social sciences to reality. And thus the school in the true sense of the word reflects the views and attitudes of the whole society, which is not only shaped by reality, but itself creates and legitimizes reality, amongst other factors also through media representations.

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COINCIDENCE OF THE VERBAL AND THE NONVERBAL IN MEDIA COMMUNICATION

Olga Škvareninová

ABSTRACT:
The paper deals with the mutual interconnectedness and simultaneous functioning of verbal and nonverbal means in media communication. Verbal communication is defined as linguistic behaviour, e.g. using words, making speech acts, applying grammatical rules. Nonverbal communication involves a complex of acoustic, kinetic and graphic means which can accompany, substitute for, supplement, emphasize, clarify in more detail, negate and regulate verbal communication, change its meaning or contradict it. In principle, nonverbal communication is nonlinguistic behaviour, which has a certain purpose in communication and a certain meaning for the recipient. The coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication is most evident in the linguistic and nonlinguistic behaviour of anchormen and their guests in TV talk shows. It can be excellently seen in the proxemics and mirroring of their verbal speech, postures and body movements and in using gestures, facial expressions and gaze. In the conclusion of this paper, possibilities for future interdisciplinary research into the verbal and the nonverbal in media communication will be outlined.

KEY WORDS:
analogic, anchorman, coincidence, communication, digital, media, nonverbal communication, verbal communication

“The most important thing in communication is hearing what isn’t said.”
Peter Drucker

1 Introduction

Communication is fundamental to human interaction. Although people sometimes use only verbal expression, verbal means alone are not sufficient for efficient communication. This can be attested to by the fact that people “enhance” their writing through the use of different fonts and font colours, underlining, punctuation (especially exclamation marks) and, in text messages and e-mail communication, also through the insertion of emoticons. On the other hand, it is difficult to imagine communicating nonverbally only. When we visit a country whose language
we do not speak, we may try to use nonverbal means such as facial expressions and pointing. Such communication, especially if it lasts long, can be, however, quite frustrating because we cannot express everything we want through nonverbal means only. In addition, in some cultures a foreigner’s nonverbal communication may be incomprehensible, misleading or counterproductive for the locals. Although some nonverbal means are hardly perceptible, they are present in both oral and written communication since words and speech acts cannot carry the whole weight of communication. If we relied only on verbal means, there would be a lot of semiotic vacuums in communication – both written and oral.

The verbal and the nonverbal are mutually interconnected in the process of communication. They function simultaneously in a complementary relationship and sometimes overlap to such an extent that they cannot be practically separated. Zdeněk Vybíral, however, takes in this context a rather critical view and does not take nonverbal cues into consideration in certain situations. As an example he mentions the situation when the listener immerses himself in the speaker’s words to such an extent that he does not pay attention to speaker’s nonverbal reactions. Despite that, I would claim that one is constantly – even though sometimes only subconsciously – aware of the other communicator’s nonverbal communication. The ratio of verbal to nonverbal information varies depending on the function of communication, the situation, the proxemics, familiarity with the communication partner, and similar. For example, if in a political TV talk show information was transmitted mainly on a nonverbal level, the appearances of politicians would be perceived as show rather than a way of communicating information to citizens and potential voters (which, unfortunately, sometimes happens). On the other hand, both in everyday interpersonal communication and in media communication nonverbal means reveal more about the communicator than verbal means do. The coincidence of the verbal and the nonverbal is one of the most eminent signs of speech. In this context Ray L. Birdwhistell says that not studying nonverbal means while doing research into communication is like studying medicine without cardiology; language without nonverbal cues is an amputated language.

2 The verbal and the nonverbal

In order to understand the coincidence of the verbal and the nonverbal, it is necessary to differentiate and define both terms. According to some scholars, the difference between the verbal and the nonverbal is rather simple: words and speech acts constitute the verbal component of communication and everything else is nonverbal communication. However, at present researchers argue that this definition is too broad and does not fully distinguish nonverbal communication from verbal communication. As examples they mention the sign language of the deaf-mute and the tactile language of the deaf-blind who communicate using nonverbal means which are essentially linguistic. They claim that if everything except words was nonverbal communication, the physiological act of involuntary blinking the eyelid would also have to be regarded as an instance of nonverbal behaviour and examined as such. However, they argue to the contrary: this involuntary movement is not nonverbal communication.

Most generally accepted theories define verbal communication as linguistic behaviour (using words, making speech acts, applying grammatical rules) and nonverbal communication as nonlinguistic behaviour (the tone of voice, the pace of speech, body movements, facial expressions), which has a certain purpose in communication and a certain meaning for the recipient. According to Peter A. Andersen verbal behaviour is usually strategic; nonverbal behaviour is mostly spontaneous and reveals person’s inner feelings. Nonverbal cues are sometimes difficult to control – a person cannot suppress the tears that


have sprung to his/her eyes, or stop laughing in a situation in which laughter is inappropriate. However, nonverbal communication may also be strategic. People can use an insincere smile to disguise negative emotions or to make a favourable impression; or they may pretend to be sad although they feel like laughing.

More recent theories which focus on defining verbal and nonverbal communication are based on how information is transmitted in communication, whether analogically or digitally. Analogic information is information which people remember as a whole without having to divide it into smaller bits. Examples of analogic information include songs, works of art and body language. Digital information makes sense only if individual parts of information are joined into one whole. Andersen claims that communication is nonverbal if it is transmitted analogically and verbal if it contains linguistic information which is transmitted digitally. Verbal information, in his opinion, consists of separate units which are logically combined into words and sentences. In face-to-face communication nonverbal information can also be distinguished from verbal information in that nonverbal means are multimodal and multichannel and verbal ones are unimodal and unichannel. People can thus use different means of nonverbal communication simultaneously – they can give a smile, bend forward and make an open palm gesture at the same time, but they can pronounce only one speech sound or say only one word at a time.

Verbal communication employs language as the most natural, most complex and most elaborate manner of human communication. Nonverbal communication, on the other hand, involves a complex of acoustic, kinetic and graphic means which can accompany, substitute for, supplement, emphasize, clarify in more detail, negate and regulate verbal communication, change its meaning or contradict it. Nonverbal means can also divide a verbal speech act into smaller segments or emphasize important facts in it, for example, through the use of intonation or pauses, the change of posture and distance, the use of gestures, facial expressions and gaze. All communicators use their own inventory of verbal and nonverbal means from an immense number of possibilities and varieties. These means, however, vary not only among individuals, but also among societies and cultures; there are differences in media communication even within one country.

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There are also different contextual factors which play a role in nonverbal communication and can influence communication in different but clearly identifiable ways. Bio-physio-psychological factors, socioeducational characteristics, cultural models and environmental factors all constitute an external system of communication. Bio-physio-psychological factors include character, disposition, abilities, the current psychosomatic and physical condition, gender, age, race, image, empathy, liking and similar. Socioeducational characteristics result from achieved education, employment and social status. Cultural models involve following certain religious and moral values and ethical and aesthetic norms. In practice these three factors are connected with the influence of the communicator on the course of communication. Environmental factors relate to the influence of environment on communication.

3 Coincidence of the verbal and the nonverbal

The beginnings of the concept of the coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication go back to the publication of *Pragmatics of Human Communication* (1967) by Paul Watzlawick, Janet Beavin Bavelas and Don D. Jackson. In this book the authors elaborated on the familiar claim that “one cannot communicate” and that each piece of information has content and relates to something. According to them, people communicate even if they do not speak verbally; their nonverbal behaviour, such as gestures, facial expressions, postures and physical appearance, communicates for them. It was a revolutionary claim at the time because most researchers in the 1960s explored communication irrespective of its nonverbal component. Another groundbreaking work related to the concept of the coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication is a study by Paul Ekman and Wallace V. Friesen. The authors analyze the mutual functioning of verbal and nonverbal means and describe five types of relationship between them: repetition, substitution, complementation, contradiction and emphasis. They also explore five types of kinesic behaviour: emblems, illustrators, affect displays, adaptors and regulators.

A significant work dealing with the coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication was also published in the 1980s\textsuperscript{10} which witnessed an increase in the interest of foreign researchers in the relationship between verbal and nonverbal means. In this period Fernando Poyatos\textsuperscript{11} described a system integrating verbal and nonverbal communication which he referred to as “basic triple structure”. It consists of three components: language-paralanguage-kinesics, which are interconnected in the process of communication through a mutual inherent structure. The author also includes peace and silence among them. Poyatos claims that every communication must be studied against the background of this “basic triple structure”; he even dismisses as erroneous researching only one component of it. According to Poyatos, verbal and nonverbal means function as modifiers and regulators of the behaviour of all the communicators who are communicating with each other.

The first Slovak researcher to probe into the coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication was Jozef Mistrík. He partially dealt with it in all the editions of 	extit{Rétorika} and 	extit{Štýlistika} and he returned to it in more detail in 	extit{Vektory komunikácie}.\textsuperscript{12} In this book he understands means of communication as force elements accompanied by the content of information. They are embedded either as internal elements of the verbal functioning of text or external elements which function nonverbally alongside the verbal elements or inside them. According to Mistrík, the vectors of communication include communicators, communication situation, form of contact, verbal and nonverbal means and communicative intent.

Research into the simultaneous relationship between verbal and nonverbal means has, however, also revealed views critical of the terms “verbal communication” and “nonverbal communication”. Some researchers consider them obsolete and useless. For example, Adam Kendon pointed out that “it makes no sense to speak of ‘verbal communication’ and

\textsuperscript{10} The transcription of language, paralanguage and kinesics Poyatos first used in 1976 with a joint team from the Universities of Birmingham and Nancy in a project on discourse analysis; he published it first in 1980.

\textsuperscript{11} POYATOS, F.: Interactive functions and limitations of verbal and nonverbal behaviors in natural conversation. In 	extit{Semiotica}, 1980, Vol. 30, No. 3-4, p. 211-244.

'nonverbal communication.' There is only communication.” Although one can to a certain extent agree with these opinions, I shall use these terms and explore the mutual relationship between verbal and nonverbal means of communication. I understand the coincidence of the verbal and the nonverbal as interplay of meanings transmitted through different sensory modalities, which cannot be differentiated if only the term “communication” is used.

As far as the awareness of verbal and nonverbal communication is concerned, Poyatos is inclined to think that partners are more aware of verbal than nonverbal means in the process of communication and the listener tends to interpret the speaker’s nonverbal means rather than his/her own. Michael Argyle, on the contrary, claims that communication partners lay more emphasis on the nonverbal component of communication than on lexis and syntax. When verbal and nonverbal information are contradictory, the nonverbal information has a greater effect on the interpretation. People tend to believe spontaneous nonverbal cues rather than words. My previous research has shown that the extent of relying on verbal and nonverbal communication depends on the proxemics in the first place. The smaller the distance between partners is, the more often they use nonverbal means and the bigger emphasis they put on them. As the distance increases, so does the significance of the verbal component. The importance of nonverbal means, on the other hand, decreases. Listeners then put more emphasis on the standard form of the speech act and the intonational structure of the speech than on body language. In any proxemic theory there is a

general rule that if verbal and nonverbal means contradict each other, the communicator interprets the nonverbally transmitted information.

4 Coincidence of the verbal and the nonverbal in media communication

The coincidence of the verbal and the nonverbal in media communication is best manifested in the close link between the verbal speech and the kinetics of the speaker (here, an anchorman), which are manifestations of the same process. According to Kendon, the part of the brain which controls speech production is also responsible for kinetics. My observations have shown that in TV talk shows anchormen, shortly before speaking up, often perform movements that serve as preparation for the speech: they cross their hands, wriggle in the seats, take pens in their hands, look into the script, turn to the guest of the talk show and sometimes even groom themselves. These movements are referred to as negative body communication. Immediately after anchormen finish their speech act, their body language often suggests easing, relaxation and distance from stress and tension. These movements can be described as positive body communication.

While speaking, anchormen perform especially movements that are synchronous with their speech. These can be so subtle that a TV viewer will barely notice them, but they can also be more noticeable. The rule is that the smaller part of their verbal speech anchormen underline; the smaller part of their body is kinetically active. When emphasizing syllables or words, they move their fingers and eyes; when underlining larger segments of text, they move their hands, trunk, feet or sometimes even their whole bodies. The movements last for several seconds, minutes, or longer. The movements which are referred to as communicatively active are those which suggest interaction; for example, when anchormen turn their body toward their guest, make small head movements or gaze at the guest. I have noticed that anchormen are more kinetically active when they are speaking rather than listening. When playing the speaker’s role, they make the most movements immediately after taking the floor; when being the listeners, they move the most when they want to take the floor, or when they want to respond to what their partner has just said.

While at the beginning of TV talk shows more movements are performed by speakers, after the first two minutes it is the listeners who appear to be livelier. Their movements tell the speakers if they understand the information presented, if they consider it serious or funny, if they express agreement with the speaker, and if they are listening. The listener is thus active not only kinetically, but also verbally. These two styles of communication – verbal and nonverbal – can occur either together or each separately. For example, the nodding of the head in agreement occurs either separately, or it is accompanied by verbal text such as “yes”, “alright”, “you’re right” or “that’s great”. The nodding of the head without verbal information can be observed especially at the end of rhythmic segments of a sentence. At this moment speakers most expect a reaction to what they have said. The listener’s body language suggests preparedness to speak. The listener’s movements always follow the speaker’s speech and movements.

In the media the coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication can also be observed in the proxemics. As a rule, people who increase their distance from the partner usually also voice their disagreement verbally. Hands crossed on the chest – whether the anchorman’s or the guest’s – signal latent force which makes the verbal expression sound curt.

The interconnectedness of verbal and nonverbal communication is also manifested in the mirroring of verbal speech, postures and body movements. While verbal repetition of words is an indicator of harmony and signals the same level of communication, the nonverbal mirroring can reveal who supports whom, or who takes whose side. Anchormen who want to appear objective and unbiased should not mirror the body posture of any of the guests on their show – especially if they are politicians presenting different opinions on the topic of the show.

The coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication also shows in the use of gestures, which anchormen often employ to emphasize the point they are making, or to divide their speech into smaller segments. If anchormen want to make as apt a statement as possible, they usually withdraw their gaze and about a hundredth of a second before their verbal speech they use a gesture which helps them “describe” the reality faithfully. The reason is that it is often easier to express a thought through a simple hand movement than words. Anchormen who speak about themselves and use pronouns “I”, “me” and “my” make subtle hand movements towards their bodies. If they speak about their partners,
their gestures are directed towards them. Conspicuous hand movements are understood as an expression of impoliteness. Verbs in the future tense are accompanied by subtle gestures forward and verbs in the past tense by backward movements. While speaking, anchormen use not only involuntary, unconscious and automatic gestures, but also such gestures that possess an independent meaning. The most frequent gestures are gestures which mean “o.k.”, “here”, “there”, “here you are”, “let me”, “excuse me”, “congratulations”, which, however, can be interpreted differently in intercultural media communication.

The most subtle coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication is manifested in facial expressions. Anchormen use them in situations when they want to capture the viewer’s attention not only through their verbal expression, but also when it is desirable to send out social signals, or when it is necessary to lend subtility and discreetness to words.

Eyes play the most important role in facial expressions. Through their gaze anchormen divide their speech act into smaller segments, make their expression more dynamic, follow the guests if and to what extent they understand and signal when they are to give the floor to them. A gaze at one guest should not last for longer than seven seconds and should focus on the partner’s eyes, mouth or whole face. Anchormen should not look up and down the guests as if they were examining their whole figure. Figuratively, we could say that anchormen should not know what shoes their guest is wearing. The anchormen who spend more than 70% of the time gazing at the guest while he is speaking display a strong interest in the guest and in what he is saying. If they devote less than 20% of the time to such gazes, they show lack of interest. With regard to this, Adam J. Jackson has pointed out that the speaker who more frequently looks right during communication is an emotional and sensitive person, and the speaker who looks left more often is assertive, cautious and suspicious.21

Verbal and nonverbal means are interconnected also in media communication to such an extent that they can barely be separated from each other. It can be concluded that anchormen always communicate both verbally and nonverbally and purely verbal media communication is an illusion in real life.

Conclusion

Research into media communication cannot be limited only to the examination of its verbal component because media communication “cannot be reduced to a linguistic system, a system of social relations, or a system of values or ideologies.” If we want to clarify how means of expression function in the media, we must explore the many-sidedness and complexity of all components of communication from an interdisciplinary point of view. Dominika Rašová suggests that it is acceptable to examine mass media communication “as an interdisciplinary intersection of the social sciences, the humanities and the information sciences.” However, it must be borne in mind that media communication is an artificial communication which is intended for an absent audience; it is not meant to expand the knowledge of the partners to the dialogue.

And what direction should research on verbal and nonverbal communication take in the future? Based on my previous research and empirical observations, I would say that one of the key questions for future research is a new specification of the ratio of verbally to nonverbally transmitted information. Birdwhistell set the proportion to about 30 to 70; Albert Mehrabian, on the other hand, claims that 93 percent of information is transmitted nonverbally. In my opinion, this percentage representation changes depending on the context and aim of communication or depending on the mass medium. A person who wants to inform the other transmits a higher proportion of information verbally compared to a situation when he wants to persuade or win the other side over. The ratio of verbal to nonverbal communication is also affected by the perception of the communicator or the media audience. If listeners follow the current psychosomatic condition of speakers (anchormen), they receive a higher proportion of information through

nonverbal channels, more than the 70 percent specified by Birdwhistell. On the other hand, if the media audience (listeners, TV viewers) want to obtain relevant information, the presenter’s verbal speech is much more important. It is evident that any research into media communication must also take into account the communication context.

I would also recommend that future research on the coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication in the media explore their mutual functioning within reciprocity and compensation. Most studies until today have focused on reciprocity and compensation in the context of nonverbal communication, but little attention has been paid to the interconnection of the verbal and nonverbal component. In media communication reciprocity arises when the anchorman and the guest(s) express similar meanings through verbal and nonverbal behaviour. For example, the guest in the studio smiles and the anchorman says “That's fine”. On the other hand, we can speak of compensation in situations when the anchorman and the guest(s) express contradictory meanings through their behaviour. The guest, for example, looks away when the host asks an unpleasant question or when he disrupts the guest’s intimate zone by bending forward. Compensation of verbal and nonverbal means also arises when the anchorman uses a gesture or facial expression to counterbalance the unpleasant information that he is transmitting verbally. I think that a more detailed research into reciprocity and compensation will contribute to a better understanding of the complex functioning of verbal and nonverbal means in the process of media communication.

Another promising research area is the coincidence of verbal and nonverbal communication in social media and in social media marketing with emphasis on digital body language. One’s digital body language refers to how a person and his/her “brand speaks, engages, communicates, shares information, tweets, posts to Facebook, and much more.”

Pam Moore also enumerates one hundred and five factors that could be influencing a person’s digital body language and how the audience perceives this person. It also appears worthwhile to address the issue of the interconnection of digital body language, digital verbal expression and the whole external communication context of social media.

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