Crisis Preparation Communication in Universities

A case study of Jönköping University

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“Every calamity is overcome by endurance” – Virgil, Roman Poet

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“It’s a marathon not a sprint” – Unknown, cited often by my dad

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Abstract

With an increase in schools and universities being targets for malevolent attacks in many countries, the need for crisis preparation is high. To prepare their stakeholders, these institutions need to know how they can effectively communicate with them. This qualitative exploratory study investigates crisis communication at Swedish universities during the pre-crisis phase, and how universities can prepare their stakeholders, the students. The authors adopted a primarily deductive approach, through the use of a case study. Four group interviews of students were conducted to address the research question: How do students at Jönköping University want to be prepared for a potential malevolent crisis? The results of the research showed that students had not received malevolent crisis preparation information beforehand but desired it, and thought it was the university’s responsibility to prepare them. Students preferred two-way communication and combining communication channels. A majority desired these channels to have mandatory participation. Finally, the authors believe to have found a potential link between excessive crisis preparation and fear built into the mutual relationship between crisis and threats. It is recommended that this link receives attention in future research as well as how the perception of a crisis is dependent on the student’s culture.
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1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the reader to the background of the problem discussion, providing a broad view of crisis management, with a focus on crisis preparation communication with one key stakeholder group, the students, during the pre-crises stage. Furthermore, the research purpose, research questions, and perspective of the research are presented. Finally, the delimitations of the research are identified, and a list of key definitions is provided.

1.1 Background

Malevolent crisis, or attacks to an organization which are driven by a desire to cause harm to others (Coombs, 2015), are prevalent in universities around the world, exemplified through school shootings, bombings, or on-line threats which lead to violence. In 2015, there were a total of 23 university shootings solely in the United States (Sanburn, 2015). This is not limited to the US, as Australia also serves as an example of a country which has in the past decade experienced malevolent attacks to a university in the form of a school shooting, i.e. the Monash University shooting (Anderson, 2015). However, whilst the United States has the most mass shootings, European countries such as Switzerland, Norway, and Finland all have higher rates of deaths due to mass shooting per capita (Schildkraut & Elsass, 2016). In this thesis a university is defined as “A high-level educational institution in which students study for degrees and academic research is done” (Oxford Dictionaries, 2016).

Sweden, the country under analysis for this thesis’ case study, does not compare to the United States regarding the highest number of mass shootings per capita. However, it does maintain physical boundaries with Finland and Norway, and therefore potentially fall under the same risks of malevolent crises. An example of Sweden’s vulnerability to malevolent crises was brought to light in October, 2015 when a young man killed two teachers and one student with a sword at Kronan Elementary School in Trollhättan (DN, 2015). To this day there have been no attacks to Swedish universities, however, the attack in Trollhättan highlights the incredible need for crisis management in public institutions, and crisis preparation of key stakeholders. Crisis preparation particularly needs to reach out to one of the university’s most important stakeholder groups, namely the students (Jin, Liu & Austin, 2014). The students are key stakeholders as they are a major source of revenue for the university (Universitetsklanslerämbetet, 2016), in addition they spend several days a week on campus grounds.

Although a malevolent crisis at a Swedish University has not yet occurred, university threats have grown prevalent. In 2015, Linköping University and Lund University received threats suggesting attacks via a cellphone application (Fagerberg, 2015; Sjögren, 2015). Additionally, Jönköping University, the selected university for this thesis’s case study, received a bomb threat via an email in 2015 (Jönköping University, 2015). Most recently, in 2016, Örebro University received an anonymous threat via a student application (Berglin, 2016). These events suggest that university
threats are widespread throughout Sweden, that is, they are not concentrated to a particular province. It also suggests a connection with threats and on-line platforms, indicating that threats to universities may become more common place with increasing internet usage.

According to Coombs (2015), every organization has specific crisis vulnerabilities, which are due to the many variations of an organization’s industry, size, location, and risk factors. A university brings together a diverse group of stakeholders; professors, lecturers, students, sports teams, business owners, delivery drivers and more. All of these individuals differ in the relationship they hold to one another and responsibilities they hold towards the university. In addition, the diverse group of individuals differ in the amount of time they spend at the university, their general knowledge of the university grounds, and the network of people they know within the university. However, one thing that all of these individuals have in common is that they will be affected if a university crisis occurs.

Attacks on universities are reminders that, although they are often viewed as sheltered hubs of higher education, universities are vulnerable to the acts of disturbed individuals, or malevolent attacks (Sokolow, Lewis, Keller, & Daly, 2007). “As the complexity of institutional operations, technology, and infrastructure increases, the risks facing universities and their leaders multiply” (Mitroff, Diamond, & Alpaslan, 2006: 62).

It is often following malevolent attacks to universities, such as the Virginia Tech mass shooting in the United States (Hauser & O’Connor, 2007), in which the university comes under scrutiny, and the question is asked: could the attack have been prevented (Sokolow et al., 2007)? However, because the nature of a crisis is inherently unpredictable, it may be more beneficial to ask: in the event of a crisis, can the causalities of the attack be lessened or eliminated if the university stakeholders are prepared prior to the crisis (Seeger, 2006)? Tackling these questions requires crisis management (CM), or the practice intended to mitigate damage by a crisis to an organization, its stakeholders, or the industry in which it operates (Coombs, 2015). However, CM research is heavily focused on the crisis response, and the post crisis stages, rather than what can be done during the pre-crisis stage (Selart, Johansen, & Nesse, 2013; examples include Walker, 2012; Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1997).

![Figure 1: Three Phase Model (Coombs, 2007)](image)

The pre-crisis stage is particularly important to universities as it deals with managing and communicating before a crisis. This process involves “identifying crisis vulnerabilities, creating
Crisis teams, selecting spokespersons, drafting crisis management plans, developing crisis portfolios (a list of the most likely crises to befall an organization), and structuring the crisis communication system” (Coombs, 2015:11). Plainly said, it involves preparing an organization for a crisis. Crisis Communication (CC) deals with explaining the causes of a crisis event and mitigating its consequences. It is not to be confused with risk communication, which is closely linked with CC and sometimes used indiscriminately. According to Seeger risk communication “has typically been associated with health communication and efforts to warn the public about the risks associated with particular behaviors” (2006: 234).

Crisis preparedness relies heavily on communication with stakeholders, such as selecting and training individuals to act when necessary, to learn from previous crises and transfer the knowledge about operations, as well as to find effective ways to collaborate with key players for the organization (Wassenhove, 2006). Although university staff may be required to undergo basic crisis preparation, how often do universities provide university students with the same preparatory opportunity? Researchers agree that there is little theory on how universities prepare their institution, most notably their students, for crises (Mitroff et al., 2006). This is detrimental to universities, as Pollack, Modzeleski & Rooney (2008) found that incidents of targeted violence at schools are rarely sudden impulsive acts by the perpetrator, rather critical warning signs occur before hand. However, bystanders disbelieve that the attacks will occur and thus do not report them (Pollack et al., 2008). Through the implementation of crisis preparation, a student can develop from a liability or potential victim, to rather become an asset which strengthens the university’s security. It is for these reasons the authors chose students as the key university stakeholders under investigation for this thesis.

1.2 Problem Discussion

The topic of this study will be on crisis preparation within universities during the pre-crisis stage; more specifically, how universities can effectively strengthen their organizational preparedness for malevolent crises by distributing crisis preparation information out to their students. This study needs to be conducted as there is ample literature on CM, yet a theoretical gap reveals itself in the context of crisis preparation (Gomez, 2015). Research exists on how a university should prepare its response during or after a crisis has occurred (Ha & Riffe, 2015; Madden, 2015; Walker, 2012), however most crisis preparation articles fall short of mentioning how the stakeholders of an organization can be prepared against a crisis before the crisis occurs (Austin, Liu & Yin, 2012; Johansen, Aggerholm, & Frandsen, 2012; Combs, 2007).

In addition, some authors focus on preparedness of stakeholders directly inside the institution (e.g. the teachers and staff), however disregard other stakeholders whom are equally affected by a crisis (e.g. the students) (Walker, 2012). Finally, crisis preparation in universities is an under-
developed field, the authors could not find any studies on how a university should explicitly prepare against a malevolent crisis.

This needs to be addressed as universities have been repeatedly exposed to such crises and threats in the past and most likely will be exposed to them again in the future. It is thus of paramount importance that students, one of the university’s biggest stakeholders, receive information from universities through communication channels, in order to prepare and protect themselves and others from a crisis. Therefore, CC needs to be more rigorously adopted into crisis preparation, where it currently receives little attention, in order to strengthen stakeholders through preparatory communication (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006).

Jönköping University was chosen as the subject for this thesis’ case study. It is a young Swedish university with four faculties within education, health, engineering, and business. It currently has a crisis management plan in place (Jönköping University, 2007). Its selection depended on both the accessibility to the authors, whom are students of the university, and its generalizability. That is, the university is ranked top five, by Sveriges Universitetsranking (2014), making the results more generalizable to other top ranking universities within Sweden. In addition, as based on the numbers from the Swedish annual university report for 2015 (Kahlroth & Inkinen, 2014), the ratio between Swedish and international students is approximately equal between Jönköping University and Sweden’s student population in general. This makes it more representative, as a sample of the population.

1.2.1 Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this thesis is to analyze crisis preparation of malevolent crises, specifically crises communication channels for university students in Sweden. More explicitly, through which channels universities can distribute preparatory information, to prepare and educate students against a malevolent crisis, during the pre-crisis phase.

1.2.2 Research questions

To help guide this thesis in achieving its purpose, the authors formulated one main research question (RQ). In order to be able to draw conclusions and make statements about Swedish universities crisis preparation in general, the authors decided to look at a specific Swedish university, namely Jönköping University. To be able to answer how Jönköping University can prepare its students against a malevolent crisis, the authors asked three additional sub-questions (RQa, b, and c):
RQ: How do students at Jönköping University want to be prepared for a potential malevolent crisis?

This question opens up a number of related sub-questions that the authors deemed necessary to answer as well, in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the situation and prevent a short, one sided argument. The sub-questions are:

**RQa:** What do students currently know about Jönköping University’s crisis preparation information plan for malevolent crises?

With this question the authors planned to find out whether Jönköping University’s existing crisis preparation plan did reach out to its students, and to what degree.

**RQb:** Do the students at Jönköping University think it is necessary that they are prepared for a malevolent crisis, i.e. do they perceive a threat from a potential malevolent crisis?

With this question the authors planned to find out if there existed an interest amongst the students to be prepared. This question was crucial; if the answer was positive it would validate that crisis preparation was desired. If the answer was instead negative, it would have generated different conclusions for the thesis.

**RQc:** What communication channels do students of Jönköping University prefer to receive malevolent crisis preparation information through?

The authors formulated this question, as a more technically focused version of the main research question. Based on the frame of reference, the authors made the assumption that an interest would exist amongst the students to be prepared against a malevolent crisis and that there would be channels the students preferred. This question is crucial, as it builds on the answers from the previous questions and thus connects them with the main research question, which in turn connects to the purpose of this thesis.

1.3 **Perspective**

This thesis will take a university management perspective, focusing on a top down approach of crisis preparation communication. The university students’ preferred channels will be used towards exploring the demand of different types of university communication channels. This perspective is taken, in order to help guide universities in selecting appropriate communication channels aimed towards informing and preparing students for crises.
1.4 Delimitations

Firstly, this thesis will cover CM from the perspective of crisis preparation during the pre-crisis phase of the crisis lifecycle. Therefore, it will not cover the crisis response, or the post crisis phase of the crisis lifecycle.

This thesis will not investigate the actual realized form of information that students want to receive to prepare against malevolent crises i.e. the actual instructions, but only through which channels they want to receive this information such as mail, videos, lecture, or speaker announcement. Finally, this thesis will not focus on risk communication, which overlaps and occasionally is confused with CC, as it was deemed not specific enough.

1.5 Definitions

The Authors: Always refers to the writers of this thesis, Elise Chamberlain and Simon Edin, unless explicitly stated otherwise.

Communication Channels: “A system or method that is used for communicating with other people” (Cambridge Dictionaries Online, 2016). These are composed, amongst others, of digital channels, such as emails and chatrooms, as well as physical channels, such as blimps and newsletters.

Stakeholder: One person or several people that are affected by an organization’s actions or can influence said organization (Coombs, 2015). Stakeholders are also most likely to suffer should a crisis strike the organization (Ulmer, 2001).

Crisis: A crisis is unpredictable thus unexpected, often connected to a trigger event, and creates a great uncertainty. It is a period of increased risk that will disrupt current operation and can cause various kinds of damage to the parties involved - such as damage to reputation, wellbeing, assets, and lives (Coombs, 2015; Schultz & Göritz, 2011; Bharosa, Janssen, Meijer, & Brave, 2010; Schenker-Wicki, Inauen, & Olivares, 2010; Spence, Lachlan, & Griffin, 2007; Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006; Ulmer, 2001).

Malevolent Crisis: When an outside actor launches extreme measures to attack the organization and its employees i.e. kidnapping, theft, or terror (Coombs, 2015). Malevolent crises include attacks against the organization. In the case of a university the authors argue that this definition can be extended towards including an attack on the life and safety of its students.
**Disaster:** A disruption that physically affects a system as a whole and threatens its priorities and goals. It can be natural or man-made (Wassenhove, 2006).

**Threat:** A threat is the danger anticipated by the organization and its stakeholders. This danger can be well founded or be amplified by media and the social context (Ayoub, 2014; Meyer, 2009).
2 FRAME OF REFERENCE

This chapter will begin by defining the concepts of threat and crisis, with a focus on malevolent crises. It will then present the reader with an overview of CM, with a focus on CC, and CC channels. Throughout the frame of reference, the focus will always lie within crisis preparation and relevant links will be created to highlight how the selected theories can be applied to universities.

2.1 Threats

From a legal standpoint a threat is the intention to coerce someone into cooperation e.g. by threatening violence (Law, 2015). Within social sciences however threats can be understood better as “socially constructed within and among the discourses of experts, political actors and the public at large, each using their own lenses through which they see ‘the threat’” (Meyer, 2009: 648). It can also be the expected danger to a persons or a group’s lives (Ayoub, 2014).

For this thesis, threat is defined in concurrence with both Ayoub (2014) and Meyer (2009). A threat is the danger anticipated by the organization and its stakeholders. This danger can be well founded or be amplified by media and the social context. An example of such is the threat of school attacks in Sweden. This is an actual threat as tragically demonstrated by the attack in Trollhättan and the threats against various universities around the nation.

The fact that these threats exist and the real possibility that they might be enacted is reason enough to spend time and resources crafting an appropriate response. CC must be integrated into this response, as must the students of the university. If the students are informed beforehand on how to act, should such a crisis occur, its impact can be lessened significantly. Various authors support this idea that crisis preparation by educating the stakeholders can help to mitigate a crisis (Gomez. 2015; Wassenhove, 2006).

2.2 Crisis

2.2.1 Difference between crisis and disaster

The definition of a crisis varies amongst context and scholars; however, most researchers do agree on a set of common characteristics. From previous literature, the authors have synthesized the following definition of a crisis, which will guide this thesis: A crisis is unpredictable thus unexpected, often connected to a trigger event, and creates a great uncertainty. It is a period of increased risk that will disrupt current operation and can cause various kinds of damage to the parties involved, such as damage to reputation, wellbeing, assets, and lives (Coombs, 2015;
Schultz & Görtiz, 2011; Bharosa, Janssen, Meijer, & Brave, 2010; Schenker-Wicki et al., 2010; Spence et al., 2007; Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006; Ulmer, 2001).

An important distinction to make is between a crisis and a disaster, since they are tightly connected. A crisis is the “precursor to a disaster” (Schenker-Wicki et al., 2010:338) i.e. a disaster develops from a crisis, more specifically a badly handled one. A crisis does not need to have a negative effect on the parties involved if it is handled properly (Selart et al., 2013). There is still a possibility to control a crisis and prevent the damage. A disaster on the other hand is beyond the control of the involved parties and the damage done to the involved parties is permanent and usually non-repairable (Schenker-Wicki et al., 2010) i.e. bankruptcy or death.

The example of a school shooting can be used to illustrate the difference. An active shooter on campus is a crisis. The time, day, and place of the attack cannot be predicted. The attack might be triggered by an event in the shooter’s life. There will be widespread uncertainty and possibly chaos while the staff and the students try to understand what is happening and attempt to take appropriate measures, while at the same time the shooter poses a risk to all those in the vicinity. However, the shooter can still be subdued before injuring an individual. Thus, harm has been averted and the crisis is at an end. However, if the shooter is not stopped in time and kills an individual this is a disaster. It developed from the previous crisis and there is nothing that can be done to save the victim, even if the shooter is stopped shortly afterwards.

2.2.2 Types of crises

Crises can take a number of forms (Jin et al., 2014; Spence et al., 2007; Seeger, 2006; Ritchie, 2004; Egelhoff, & Sen, 1992; Marcus, & Goodman, 1991). These have been compiled by Coombs (2015:67) into six different classes:

1. Operational disruption - routine processes are disrupted
2. Workplace violence - an (potentially former) employee attacks another
3. Rumors - false and misleading information is purposefully spread to harm the organization
4. Unexpected loss of leadership - a key leader becomes unavailable potentially through sickness or death
5. Malevolence - an outside actor launches extreme measures to attack the organization and its employees i.e. kidnapping, theft, or terror.
6. Challenges - discontent stakeholders demand a change in operations.

As can be deduced from the problem statement and purpose of this thesis, it will concern itself with only one type of crisis, namely number five, malevolence. According to its definition, malevolent crises include attacks against the organization. In the case of a university the authors
argue that this definition can be extended towards including an attack on the life and safety of its students. The scope of the investigation is additionally narrowed, due to the fact that this thesis focuses solely on crises before they have happened, based on the three stage crisis model by Coombs (2015). Malevolent university crises include, but are not limited to: employee sabotage, terrorist attacks, ethical breaches, kidnapping, malicious rumors, and major crimes (Mitroff et al., 2006).

2.3 Crisis Management (CM)

2.3.1 Introducing crisis management

CM can be defined as the practice that intends to mitigate or reduce the damage inflicted by a crisis to an organization, its stakeholders or the industry in which it operates (Coombs, 2015). It was first assigned its own field of study in 1982 following an incident of the poisonous compound cyanide being maliciously added to Tylenol medical capsules (Mitroff et al., 2006). Today most of CM’s focus lies undisputedly within how an organization can protect itself and manage a crisis while the crisis is happening, rather than analyzing what can be done to prepare the organization and its stakeholders for potential crises before they happen (Selart et al., 2013; examples include Walker, 2012; Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1997). Students are arguably one of the most important stakeholders a university has (Jin et al., 2014) and a malevolent attack presents concrete dangers for the health and safety of said students. Hence, it is logical to expect that a university should prepare its students for the event that such a crisis could occur so that they can react in a manner that limits or prevents harm inflicted to them.

2.3.2 Preparation within crisis management

Crisis preparation within CM can be summarized in the following quote: “A good offense is the best defense - anticipate a crisis and be prepared” (Walker, 2012:381). The most frequently suggested preparation practice is to design and implement a CM plan (Coombs, 2015; Selart et al., 2013; Walker, 2012; Schwarz & Pforr, 2011; Mitroff et al., 2006; Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006; Seeger, 2006; Wassenhove, 2006; Benoit, 1997). Such plans should contain information such as contact details, suggested actions in case of a crisis, and the scheduling and frequency of staff training (Selart et al., 2013; Walker, 2013). Again, the focus lies on the organization and its employees. In the case of the university, it would suggest that faculty members should be trained and prepared, while the students are simply being overlooked. However, some scholars point out that it is of crucial importance that the plan includes “training and preparing key stakeholders” (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006:369) and realize the significant effect these stakeholders, such as the students, can have on those plans (Mitroff et al., 2006).
2.3.3 Adaption of the Effective Disaster Management Model

This thesis introduces a model featured by Wassenhove (2006:481) on disaster management. The model has been adapted, more specifically, the word disaster has been exchanged for the word crisis. This change is made because both crisis and disaster share multiple characteristics. In addition, since both fields are closely related, the motivation for each section of the model can be applied to both disaster management and CM. Hence the model will not change in terms of content but merely in its definitions. The authors believe that synchronizing the vocabulary increases the readability of this thesis and enhances the comprehensiveness of the discussion. The individual aspects of the adapted model, as well as the arguments for the adaptions will be explained following the figure.

![Diagram of the adapted model](image)

*Figure 2: Model adapted by Chamberlain & Edin (2016), based on Wassenhove (2006)*

2.3.4 Human resources

This is the idea of “Selecting and training people who are capable of planning, coordinating, acting and intervening where necessary” (Wassenhove, 2006:481). Crisis preparedness also includes training of personnel as a vital aspect (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006) hence this concept is transferable to the adapted model.

2.3.5 Knowledge management

This concept focuses on the ability to use experiences from previous disasters and apply them to the current plan (Wassenhove, 2006). As already touched upon there has been extensive research about how to manage crises (Selart et al., 2013) as well as research on the origin and nature of crises and the effects the different types of crises can have depending on their characteristic (Jin et al., 2014; Seeger, 2006). It can be assumed that experiences from previous crisis have been used to facilitate this research, hence this concept is transferable.
2.3.6 Process management

The core of process management within disaster management is: “Recognizing logistics as a central role in preparedness. Then setting up goods, agreements and means needed to move the resources quickly” (Wassenhove, 2006:482). Similarly, within CM planning helps in understanding the crisis process and thus makes responses more coordinated, and can identify the necessary resources should a crisis occur (Seeger, 2006). Hence the concept is transferable.

2.3.7 Resources

This concept deals with making enough money and other needed resources available to the organization ahead of time (Wassenhove, 2006). One such resource within CM could be a CM plan, which the organization can fall back upon, should a crisis occur (Selart et al., 2013). Another example is pre-fabricated messages to address the stakeholders (Crisis and Emergency Risk Communication (CERC); 2014). Hence, the concept of resources is transferable.

2.3.8 Community

Wassenhove outlines the community concept as: “Finding effective ways of collaborating with other key players such as governments, military, business and other humanitarian organizations” (2006:482). This can be interpreted as communicating with and preparing the organization’s stakeholders, as has been suggested in academic crisis preparation literature as well (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006; Mitroff et al., 2006). Hence the concept is transferable.

Combined, these five concepts make up the model Disaster Preparedness or, as it will be referenced to henceforth, Crisis Preparedness. Crisis preparedness in addition with the crisis response constructs CM. However, the crisis response is not part of this thesis' investigation, and will therefore not be further elaborated upon.

This adapted model is useful to illustrate that this thesis operates within the field of crisis preparedness, which falls within CM. This thesis aims to identify the communication channels that students at Jönköping University would prefer the university to use in order to share with them information about how to prepare for malevolent attacks. As such, it falls under the concept of Community and Human Resources, since the students are key stakeholders within the university and their safety is of high concern. It also falls under Knowledge Management, as information that has been gathered from previous events should be used in order to prepare the students. The process of communication opens a subfield within CM, CC, which shall be discussed in the following section.
2.4 Crisis Communication (CC)

According to the US Department of Health and Human Services and the Center for Disease Control and Prevention a crisis generates an “information vacuum” (CERC, 2014:12) or a demand by an organization’s stakeholders to find out what is happening, why it is happening, and what can be done against it. This is supported by the academic literature, as Spence et al. point out that “individuals engage in information seeking” (Spence et al. 2007:542) where they will seek out any source which they believe provides accurate and trustworthy information. Understandably, there is a need for the organization to supply the public with information, if it wants that information to be accurate. One reason to communicate with stakeholders inside and outside the organization is to keep the public’s fears at bay. (CERC, 2014). Hence CC is a well-studied field within CM. CC can be practically defined as “the communication activities of an organization or agency facing a crisis”, (CERC, 2014:6). Within academia there is no agreed upon definition of CC (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006). Academically it can be defined as the communicative actions taken to prevent and mitigate the harm inflicted by a crisis by informing those involved (Spence et al., 2007). This thesis will use the Spence et al. (2007) definition since its phrasing is not limited to the last two phases of the crisis lifecycle. Measures to prevent and mitigate the effect of a crisis can be taken before the crisis event occurs, which is the core concept of crisis preparation. Although the aims of CC can sometimes conflict with each other, Seeger points out that “one universal goal is to reduce and contain harm” (Seeger, 2006: 234).

The authors found, in concurrence with scholars (Austin, Liu, Yin, 2012; Johansen, Aggerholm, & Frandsen, 2012, Avery, Lariscy, Kim, & Hocke, 2010) that the majority of CC research focuses on the organization during the crisis response and post crisis phases (examples include Ha & Riffe, 2015; Madden, 2015, Walker, 2012; Coombs, 2007, Benoit, 1997). Relatively few studies exist on CC during the preparation phase and even fewer on preparing stakeholders such as students. This is despite the fact that communication before a crisis is included into the CC theory, but it is narrowly researched (Reynolds & Seeger, 2005). Regardless, it is stressed that keeping stakeholders - such as students - well and accurately informed is one of the most vital elements within efficient CC (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006). This is a process of educating the stakeholders about the potential dangers a crisis can pose and how to react to it, in order to increase the efficiency of proposed actions during a crisis and thus, “reduce the likelihood of harm.” (CERC, 2014:11). This is achieved by providing stakeholders with the information they need to be aware of what they should do as well as the motivation and self-confidence to actually do it (Coombs, 2015). This could include, but is not limited to: Educating the students about how to engage with a potential attacker, giving them background knowledge about how similar actions have played out in the past, and holding workshops where they can train disarming.

This can be linked back to the adapted crisis preparation model. It is illustrated that CC in the preparation phase aims to fill exactly the needs outlined by the concepts of Knowledge Transfer.
CC makes use of information and experiences gathered from previous crisis and crisis responses from other perhaps similar institutions and communicate them to the stakeholders surrounding the organization in order to educate them about how to react to reduce inflicted harm. In the spirit of this thesis a university may look to what other universities have done in order to protect themselves against the possibility of a malevolent attack. The staff can then adapt that knowledge to their own institution and share it with the students of their university. The question now remains, by what means can this information be transferred? To analyze this, the next section focuses on CC channels.

2.5 Crisis Communication Channels

A communication channel is defined as the “medium or route through which a message is communicated to its recipients” (Colman, 2015). Since CC is defined as the means by which the organization informs its stakeholders about the crisis, a CC channel can be any means by which information about the crisis is transferred from the organization to the stakeholders. Consequently, a CC channel will most commonly be oral or written. Channels such as direct conversation - i.e. lectures on campus safety - or telephone calls would be classified as oral channels, while posters, letters, emails, chats, Facebook posts, and Twitter would be classified as written (Berger & Iyengar, 2013). The main difference between oral and written communication is that oral communication channels tend to be synchronous i.e. they happen in real time, while written channels are predominantly asynchronous since time will pass between the writing and the reading of the message (Robinson & Stubberud, 2012). As seen, most of the online communication channels do involve written information, however the authors want to point out that oral online communication channels exist as well, for example posted videos. The Internet is a powerful tool and already widely used by organizations to communicate with their stakeholders. It can therefore be assumed that it would make a successful channel for CC (Taylor & Kent, 2007) during the pre-crisis and preparation phase (Coombs, 2007).

There has been a study conducted on general communication preferences amongst university students at American and Norwegian universities which stresses the need for universities to adapt their communication channels to the needs and wants of their students (Robinson & Stubberud, 2012). The study investigated how students viewed different communication channels and by which channel they desired the university to contact them. Yet the authors wish to stress that this research did not focus on channels the students desired for receiving potentially lifesaving crisis preparation information. As such, the study by Robinson & Stubberud (2012) can still be of great value for this thesis since it creates an initial map of the communication channels used by universities, the effect this has on the students, and the manner in which such an investigation can be carried out. Useful results from the study show that speed is a quality indicator - i.e. the faster the better - as well as that certain written messages - such as email and text messages - actually were not viewed as written communication by the studied students. It was also found that
the preferred communication at school was face-to-face, followed by email, then telephone. Robinson & Stubberud (2012) believe this preference of face-to-face and telephone contact shows a desire for synchronous communication.

2.6 Summary

To summarize the frame of reference the authors have constructed the Crisis Preparation Communication Overview (CPCO) Model (Chamberlain & Edin, 2016):

![Figure 3: The Crisis Preparation Communication Overview (CPCO) Model](image)

The CPCO model can be viewed as beginning with Threat, as a pre-step to Crisis, and the reason for the existence of CM. The relationship between Threat and Crisis is portrayed using a double arrow, as it depicts the co-dependent nature of the phenomenon; a threat comes before the crisis, but the crisis can also generate a threat in the eyes of the stakeholders. The threat will either lead to the realization of a crisis, to the implementation of CM, or both. For example, the threat of a school shooting is based on the actual danger of said shooting. The box labelled Crisis has six protruding arrows beneath it, each representing a different type of crisis as defined by Coombs (2015). The fifth arrow is slightly longer than the rest, and is labelled, to explicitly show which type of crisis this thesis focuses on, namely Malevolent Crisis.

If no CM is in place, the Threat will translate into a Crisis, which likely will translate into a Disaster. This is shown on the left side of the CPCO model, where an arrow points directly from
Crisis to the occurrence of a Disaster. For example, if no CM is carried out then when the crisis occurs a disaster, such as the death of one or several stakeholders of the university, is likely.

The right side of the CPO model illustrates the use of CM. If CM is implemented into an organization, then a Crisis likely translates into Crisis Averted or Disaster Mitigated. This entails that if CM is carried out then the disaster can be mitigated, meaning less victims, or the crisis can be averted, meaning no victims.

The middle of the model depicts the three phases of CM, as defined by Coombs (2007): Pre-Crisis, Crisis Response, and Post Crisis. As stated, this thesis focuses on the Pre-Crisis phase, and therefore, all remaining elements of the CPO model stem from the Pre-Crisis phase.

The Pre-Crisis phase marries two fields of research within CM, namely Crisis Preparation and CC. The left side of the box introduces Crisis Preparation, which develops into the Crisis Preparedness Model. The Crisis Preparedness Model is presented in the frame of reference to depict the various elements of Crisis Preparedness which bring up communication, such as the Community, Human Resources, and Knowledge Management. The right side of the box is made up of the field of CC. CC develops into CC Channels. The CC Channels are included to draw attention to the mediums in which recipients can receive crisis preparation information through. Together the fields of Crisis Preparation and CC are married together, to create Crisis Preparation Communication, i.e. the communicatory means by which a university can prepare its students against a malevolent crisis. Finally, the elements within the Pre-Crisis phase are directly related to the Preparation of Key Stakeholders. For this thesis, the key stakeholders under analysis are the students.
3 METHODOLOGY

This section presents the reader with the chosen research method and methodology, explaining the research philosophy, approach and design. It introduces the specific methods used for sampling and data collection. Furthermore, the analysis and credibility of findings are discussed. All sections are constructed with the purpose in mind.

3.1 Research Philosophy

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), the research philosophy refers to the development of knowledge and the nature of said knowledge. Understanding the research philosophy is important as it dictates the perspective through which the researchers approach their research purpose and interpret their findings. Four main philosophies which define the research literature are: positivism, realism, pragmatism, and interpretivism (Saunders et al., 2009). The purpose of this underlying study is to analyze crisis preparation of malevolent crises, specifically CC channels for university students in Sweden. In other words, this research studies what communication channels students wish to receive crisis preparation information through in order to make them prepared stakeholders of the university. Therefore, the authors adopted an interpretivist approach. The positivist and realist philosophies were omitted as this thesis does not conform to the standards of the natural sciences, and does not solely exist within an objective context (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2011; Chandler, & Munday, 2011; Buchanan, 2010; Creswell, 2009; Grix, 2004).

According to Saunders et al. (2009) interpretivism is highly appropriate for the case of management research, particularly organizational behavior and human resource management. Interpretivism aims to uncover subjective meanings and social phenomena of individuals, leading to adjustments of one’s meanings and actions (Saunders et al., 2009). Furthermore, the authors of this thesis are students, and thus are subjective to the sample group being researched, further strengthening the interpretivist philosophy of this thesis.

Throughout this research, multiple signs of interpretivism can be seen. For example, within the data collection, the interpretivist stance is adopted, since the researchers need to interpret interview questions, and understand the answers of the students in a way that produces enough data for the research questions. In addition, interpretivism is used when analyzing the students’ answers, as the researchers must interpret which answers by the students fall under which categories, in order to understand how the students view crisis preparation at their university, and how they wish to be prepared.

In addition to the epistemological view of interpretivism, this thesis also adopts the ontological standpoint of subjectivism in order to take into consideration the meanings which individuals
attach to social phenomena (Saunders et al., 2009). The subjectivist view takes the stance that “social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors (Saunders et al., 2009: 111).” In addition, it is tightly connected to the interpretivist philosophy that it is “necessary to explore the subjective meanings motivating the actions of social actors in order for the researcher to be able to understand these actions” (Saunders et al., 2009: 110). This is achieved as the authors aim to understand what the students desire in terms of crisis preparation within the university, and how they view themselves in relation to the university. The social actors, the students, are put under analysis to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon of crisis preparation within universities.

3.2 Research Approach

The research approach influences how the theory is applied, which data collection methods are carried out and the design of the thesis (Saunders et al., 2009). There are two predominant research approaches: deductive and inductive. A deductive approach entails testing a theory, or developing one or several hypotheses and a research strategy to test said hypothesis. An inductive approach, or theory building, involves collecting data and developing a theory as a result of the data analysis. Furthermore, an inductive approach attempts to understand ‘why something is happening,’ rather than the deductive approach of describing ‘what is happening’ (Saunders et al., 2009). The purpose of this thesis is to analyze crisis preparation of malevolent crises, specifically crises communication channels for university students in Sweden. This thesis makes use of existing literature within crisis preparation and communication to gain a better understanding of crisis preparation within Swedish universities. Therefore, it predominantly adopts a deductive approach, as the deductive approach entails setting a clear research design based on already existing theory, and that a theoretical position is tested throughout the collection of the data (Saunders et al., 2009). Moreover, this thesis makes use of a highly structured methodology, to improve future replication, which shows signs of a deductive approach (Gill & Johnson 2002). Finally, throughout the analysis, the empirical findings are compared to the theoretical framework, the purpose of the thesis, and research questions, using pre-determined categories, established prior to collecting the data. This type of analysis makes use of a deductive approach.

However, although this thesis does make use of existing literature to formulate research questions and coded categories prior to the data collection, it does not deduce a hypothesis and express said hypothesis in operational terms. This implies that it cannot be strictly deductive, for it does not test a hypothesis, rather it seeks to shed light upon several research questions. Therefore, this thesis additionally makes use of an inductive research approach. The inductive approach is typically concerned with a small sample size, to gain a more in-depth understanding of the context in which the research takes place (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2008). Since this study is supported by interviews of a sample of university students, and aims to gain a deeper
understanding within the phenomena of university crisis preparation and communication, the inductive approach is applicable. Consequentially, due to the application of both a deductive and inductive research approach, given that the deductive approach has greater emphasis, an increase in understanding of already existing theories related to crisis preparation and communication within universities is developed.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Research design

According to Saunders et al. (2009) the research design is the general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research questions, and includes the research strategies, research choices and time horizons. The aim of designing research is therefore to define the procedures used in order to gather the information which allows the researcher to solve the research problem (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

To begin to construct the research design, the purpose of the research must be classified amongst three categories: descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory (Saunders et al., 2009). However, it is noted that the purpose of a study may in fact change over time (Robson, 2002). The exploratory approach was selected as the purpose of this thesis was to seek new insights into the phenomenon of crisis preparation communication. In addition, the exploratory method is used in order to clarify the understanding of a problem, which in this case is the problem of pre-crisis preparation in universities.

There are three principle ways of conducting exploratory research: a search of the literature, interviewing experts in the subject, and conducting focus group interviews (Saunders et al., 2009). This thesis is an exploratory study as it uses methods such as a literature review and conducting group interviews to explore and analyze preparation of malevolent crises. Although exploratory research is more flexible, this does not entail that it lacks direction. It entails that the focus is initially broad and becomes progressively narrower as the research progresses (Adams & Schvaneveldt, 1991). In the case of this thesis, CM was analyzed in general, then it developed into analyzing CC and preparation more narrowly.

3.3.1.1 Case study: Jönköping University

The next step of the research design is selecting the appropriate research strategies. The choice of research strategy is guided by the research questions and objectives, the extent of existing knowledge, and amount of time and other resources available to the researcher (Saunders et al., 2009). Research strategies include: experiment, survey, case study, action research, grounded
theory, ethnography, and archival research. Due to the research questions of this thesis, and its purpose to analyze the phenomenon of preparation for malevolent university crises, the research strategy of a case study was selected. Through the use of a case study the authors aim to gain a rich understanding of crisis preparation in Swedish universities and the act of preparing students through different communication channels. In a case study, the boundaries between the phenomenon being studied and the context within which it is being studied are not clearly evident (Saunders et al., 2009). The phenomenon being studied, crisis preparation, is a developed field. However, the context within which the authors are studying crisis preparation, namely Swedish universities, is not a developed field of research, and thus the context might not seem clearly evident.

The case study was applied to the Swedish university Jönköping University, located in southern Sweden. Jönköping University was chosen as the subject for the case study as it fulfilled the requirements needed to explore the purpose of the thesis, namely it is a Swedish university, with a crisis plan in place, which includes students as key stakeholders. “Jönköping University operates on the basis of an agreement with the Swedish Government and conforms to national degree regulations and quality requirements. It is characterized by internationalization, an entrepreneurial spirit and collaboration with surrounding society.” (Jönköping University, 2016). It is a young university, roughly 20 years old, with a high amount of international students, nearly fifteen percent (Jönköping University, 2016). The university is ranked top five, by Sveriges Universitetsrankning (2014), making it a top university in Sweden. In addition, as based on the numbers from the Swedish annual university report for 2015 (Kahlroth & Inkinen, 2014), the ratio between Swedish and international students is approximately equal between Jönköping University and Sweden’s student population in general. This makes it more representative, as a sample of the population. The total number of students who attend Jönköping University is around 10,000. It has four faculties: School of Education and Communication, School of Health and Welfare, School of Engineering, and the International Business School.

A case study is a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, using detailed and multiple sources of evidence (Robson, 2002). This thesis makes use of the students’ view of crisis preparation as it relates to them, but approaches the research problem from a university management perspective. In addition, it compares the students’ views to existing research within the field. This multiple source approach was chosen in order to understand what the students prefer in regards to crisis preparation, so that the university can aim to implement the results into their crisis preparation, which will further strengthen the university’s resilience.

A single case, rather than a multiple case, was selected for this thesis due to time constraints, but also because a single case allows the researcher to analyze a phenomenon that few have considered before (Saunders et al., 2009). This case study will be embedded, rather than holistic,
as it is predominantly concerned with sub units within an organization (the university students) and not solely the organization (the university) (Saunders et al., 2009). The data collection technique used, group interviews, for the case study will be elaborated upon in section 3.5.2 Primary Data. Finally, due to time constraints, this is a cross-sectional study (Adams & Schvaneveldt, 1991).

3.3.2 Sampling Design

According to Malhotra & Birks (2007) the sampling design includes six steps, as seen in the figure below:

![Sampling Design Process](image)

*Figure 4: Sampling Design Process (Malhotra & Birks, 2007)*

The target population is defined as the collection of elements or objects that possess the information sought by the authors and about which inferences are to be made (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In order to support the effectiveness of the research, the target population needs to be clearly defined in terms of elements (usually represented by the participants), sampling unit, extent and time (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). As the purpose of this thesis is to analyse crisis preparation communication at Swedish universities, the target population of this thesis was identified as Swedish university students, both national and international, and more specifically as full-time students of the four faculties at Jönköping University.

The sampling frame is the representation of elements of the target population which consists of a set of directions for identifying the target population (Malhotra & Birks., 2007). It was not specified for this thesis as non-probability sampling was used, and the discrepancy between the sampling frame and the population was small enough to disregard.

In the sampling techniques step, the researchers are required to make several decisions regarding the sampling design. The first decision is whether the researchers should use a Bayesian approach or traditional sampling (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The authors used a traditional approach for this thesis, meaning that the entire sample was selected before data collection began. This was done
because the sample size was relatively small, and did not require population parameters, as enforced in the Bayesian approach (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

The second step was to choose between probability sampling or non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling, or when the probability of each case being selected from the population is not known, was used for the purpose of this thesis (Saunders et al., 2009). Non-probability sampling entails that the sample is picked based off of the researchers’ subjective judgement. Non-probability sampling was chosen to meet the objectives of the research questions and gain theoretical insights through undertaking an in-depth study which focuses on a small, information rich case of students. The specific non-probability sampling technique used to select the individuals to interview was purposive sampling. Purposive sampling allows the authors to use their judgment to select cases which will best enable the answering of the research questions (Saunders et al., 2009: 237). Purposive sampling was deemed appropriate as it is used when working with small samples, particularly case research, and is useful for research which focuses on key themes (crisis preparation, malevolent crises), in-depth answers, and where the case is of huge importance (the case of Jönköping University’s crisis preparedness) (Saunders et al., 2009).

The sample size denotes the number of elements to be included in the study (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). According to Saunders et al. (2009: 233) “for all non-probability sampling techniques the issue of sample size is ambiguous and, unlike probability sampling, there are no rules”. The authors of this thesis put great emphasis on the sample size supporting the relationship between the sample selection technique and the purpose and focus of this research (Saunders et al., 2009). Following the reasoning by Krueger & Casey (2000), the authors chose to begin with four group interviews, one group from each faculty. According to Krueger & Casey (2000) the researcher should plan to undertake three or four group interviews, when if, after the third or fourth group interview, the researcher is no longer receiving new information, then the saturation point has been reached. With regards to the interview questions asked, the authors felt the saturation point was reached after four group interviews, and therefore, the back-up interviewees were not needed. In addition, following the reasoning by Guest, Bunce, & Johnson (2006), research aimed at understanding commonalities within a fairly homogenous group, will suffice with interviewing twelve individuals.

Finally, execution of the sampling process and sample validation are the final steps of the sampling design. In the execution of the sampling process a detailed specification of the above mentioned steps is implemented in order to guarantee the consistency of the conduction of the whole process (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). As aforementioned, the focus of this thesis is on Swedish university students, more specifically, Jönköping University students and malevolent crisis preparation communication at the university. Students were selected after an advertisement announcing possibility for participation in the research was created on Facebook, and promoted on the student Facebook page for Jönköping University. The sample size was selected to represent
the population, and twelve students, three students from each of Jönköping University’s four faculties, were recruited to participate in the case. Extra students were lined up, in case the saturation point was not reached, however, after four group interviews, extra interviews were not deemed to add to the study, as the saturation point had been reached. Five male and seven female students were interviewed in total. All students were Swedish except for two, whom were international. Students were divided into group interviews, based off of their faculty, and asked qualitative semi-structured interview questions. Semi-structured interviews are particularly useful for exploratory studies, as they find out what is happening and seek new insights (Robson, 2002). However, the authors took into account that the likelihood of a sample produced from purposive sampling being representative of the total population is low, and dependent upon the researcher’s choices (Saunders et al., 2009). Therefore, the authors of this thesis chose to select students from four different faculties at Jönköping University, rather than just one, to increase the representation of the total population.

3.3.3 Data Collection

There are two forms of data collection techniques to be discussed, qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative approach makes use of data collection techniques, such as interviews, and data analysis procedures, such as categorizing data, to generate non-numerical values (Saunders et al., 2009). This thesis used a mono method approach, meaning solely a qualitative approach for both the data collection and analysis procedures were used. The qualitative approach is suitable for this thesis as qualitative interviews were used to gain in-depth data on the phenomenon of crisis preparation in Swedish universities. In addition, qualitative data analysis procedures were used to categorize and understand the results from the interviews, in order to answer the data rich research questions. The primary data was supplemented with the findings from the secondary data.

3.3.3.1 Secondary data: compiled data

Secondary data includes data which has been collected for a purpose other than this thesis, which can serve as a useful source to answering the research questions and thesis objectives (Saunders et al., 2009). Secondary data includes both raw data, which undergoes little processing, or compiled data, which has received some form of selection or summarizing (Kervin, 1999). To collect the data necessary for the case study, this thesis made use of compiled data in the form of published journals, books, articles, and magazine articles as a secondary source of data collection, in order to build and structure the frame of reference. According to Saunders et al. (2009) accessing compiled secondary data will be dependent upon gatekeepers within the organization. This thesis made use of the Jönköping University library’s data base, in order to access the published materials necessary to create the frame of reference.
Through understanding the context of the research and charting the already existing theories the frame of reference helps to legitimize and support the argument brought forth in this thesis (Vogt, Gardner, & Haeffele, 2012). The frame of reference also aided in spotting topics of interest and relevant gaps within the field (Vogt et al., 2012; Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2011; Creswell, 2009; Grix, 2004). The published journals, articles, and books were collected through lifting forth and searching key names, words, and concepts that are available within the field (Grix, 2004), such as crisis, crisis preparation, CC, communication channels, university crisis, malevolent crises, and the pre-crisis phase.

Several of the journals used in this thesis’ data collection have an impact factor of two or less; such as the Public Relations Review, or the Journal of Crisis and Contingency Management. However, the authors do not view this as a weakness. Due to the highly specific nature of the field of CM, a lower impact factor is to be expected, compared to journals which cover more generally applicable fields within management studies. In addition, the authors support the low impact journals used in this thesis with theories and arguments published in journals with high impact factors, such as the Academy of Management Journal, the Journal of Consumer Research, the Journal of Tourism Management, and Management Communication Quarterly.

3.3.3.2 Primary data: group interviews

The data for the case study of Jönköping University was collected through a qualitative primary data approach, namely group interviews. This was achieved by collecting and analyzing the personal interpretations and preferences amongst the participants, rather than collecting data for statistical analysis (Flick, 2014; Babbie, 2013; Berg & Lune, 2012; Creswell, 2009; Grix, 2004; Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2000). The group interview approach is similar to a case study as proposed by Creswell (2009), since it seeks to gather information on a particular event that is hard to measure numerically (Grix, 2004). Group interviews were selected for the case study in order to properly address the data rich research questions, such as “what?” “how?” and “why?” (Saunders et al., 2009). They are appropriate as they supply subjective, in depth knowledge about particular events (Vogt et al., 2012); a necessary step to fulfill the purpose of this thesis. In addition, Because of the presence of several participants, the group interviews allow for a number of opinions to emerge and for the group to respond to these views (Saunders et al., 2009).

Twelve students were interviewed in total, where three students made up one group. The groups were formed based off of the faculty the students studied. The group interviews were semi-structured, meaning they were non-standardized. The order of the questions stayed consistent within each conducted group interview, however, additional questions were posed throughout the four group interviews, to either further explore a topic or to make a vague interviewee answer more understandable. The questions asked in the interview can be seen in Appendix I. The questions were asked firstly in English to all participants, however, they were additionally
translated into Swedish, for the Swedish participants. The interview questions were based on the literature gathered for the frame of reference, and aimed to capture information about what perceptions students had about crisis preparation communication, as they were closely connected to the purpose of this thesis. In the event where Swedish participants answered in Swedish, then the quotes were translated into English for this thesis. The original Swedish quotes, and their English translations can be seen in Appendix II.

The authors took several measures to counter the existing researcher bias. Firstly, the semi-structured interview questions were mostly open-ended in order to promote discussion (Flick, 2014; Berg & Lune, 2012). This allowed the authors to make meaningful comparisons between the different interviews as well as allowed the interviewees to free themselves somewhat from the authors’ bias by taking the discussion into their own hands. In addition, the authors followed the guidelines set by qualitative research experts (Flick, 2014; Berg & Lune, 2012) in terms of the design and conduction of the interviews. The authors realize that peer pressure could potentially skew the participants answers. Therefore, the authors made sure to provide an opportunity for each participant to answer, and promoted an environment which safely allowed for a critical discussion. Special focus was put on creating questions that connected with the theory and the research question and on the sequence in which the questions were asked. In addition, the questions were designed to be as straightforward and unambiguous as possible so as not to confuse the interviewees (Flick, 2014). The interviews were conducted in a familiar location to the students, where the participants were not subject to interruption.

3.3.4 Data Analysis

3.3.4.1 Transcription

The first step of the data analysis was the transcription of the text, or when the collected data from interviews via the audio recordings was transformed into written text. As is indicated by Saunders et al. (2009) and Williamson (2002) qualitative research can quickly produce a large amount of data. The authors expected and found ample small talk during the interviews. This small talk helped to engage the research subjects and made them feel more at ease but at the same time increased the amount of data. The authors therefore decided to only transcribe the parts that were connected to the questions asked by the interviewers. This enabled the researchers to view the text more clearly, as only the responses related to the research were retained, subsequently organizing the data as well as increasing the ability of others to replicate the study and thus raise its validity (Berg & Lune, 2010). However, the full records of the interviews are kept by the authors. The participants were kept anonymous, and therefore when transcribing they were not identified by their name, rather by their faculty and a number 1, 2, or 3, to differentiate the
participants within each group interview. The four abbreviations for the faculties are based off of their original Swedish titles, and are as follows:

1) School of Health and Welfare-(Hälso)
2) Jönköping International Business School-(JIBS)
3) School of Engineering-(JTH)
4) School of Teaching and Communication-(HLK)

3.3.4.2 Coding

The second step of the data analysis was to segment the collected data, or to organize it into categories (Boeije, 2010). These categories, also called “analytic description” (Warren & Karner, 2010:218), are codes which have to be developed by the researchers either through the empirical data gathered or by deriving it from the frame of reference (Saunders et al., 2009). The authors chose the categories based on the frame of reference, the purpose, and the research questions. Therefore, the categories were prepared before the interviews were conducted. The categories are as follows:

1) Threats and malevolent crises
2) Existing crisis preparation plan
3) Desired crisis preparation plan
4) Existing crisis preparation communication channels
5) Desired crisis preparation communication channels

This structure, known as a structured deductive approach, entails that the data is coded according to previously developed research questions that are based on a theoretical framework. It is common within social research and also known as the “cut and paste’ procedure” (Hardy & Bryman, 2004). This deductive approach allows the data analysis to keep relevant to the purpose and problem by excluding information with no connection to the thesis topic. This method does not aim to quantify the data, and so the inherent meaning within the quotes from the interviews is preserved (Berg & Lune, 2012).

The transcribed data was allocated to the categories it fell under. If one piece of data was relevant to several categories, then it was copied and placed in all applicable categories. Transcribed interview data that was deemed connected to the topic of CM in universities but not directly to any of the established categories was categorized as Further Information to see if a connection would not reveal itself in the continued analysis.

3.3.4.3 Processing

This thesis uses a combination of inductive and deductive processing. While the data was dominated by the deductively developed categories from the coding section, it was analyzed in an
inductive manner since there were no hypotheses to test. Instead, the authors worked inductively to see what answers and observations the collected and coded data provided for the purpose and the research questions, in addition to any external observations the data provided. Results and interpretations from the data were recorded, summarized and then examined against other possible interpretations to test their validity.

The results were further cross-examined with conclusions from other categories to see if there existed a connection spanning across categories. In practice, the process started out with the authors using the collected and coded data to answer the four sub-research questions. The results from the sub-research questions were summarized and then matched with originally transcribed interview data that had been categorized under the main research question. With this combination of datasets, the authors formulated their answer to the main research question and used it to address the thesis’s purpose.

This process has several advantages. First off, the data, although segmented into categories, was still regarded as part of a whole (linked to pre crisis preparation), and thus enabled the researchers to make more general conclusions. Secondly, by analyzing both the summaries from the sub-research questions and the coded data, the main research question could be answered in a more comprehensive way as the data had been analyzed several times, allowing the authors to form additional conclusions during each round of processing.

3.3.5 Quality of Research Findings

3.3.5.1 Researcher and participant bias

This thesis is a qualitative study and as a qualitative study the findings presented will never be free of data interpretation (Boeije, 2010). According to Babbie (2013) no research can claim to be a hundred percent objective, hence this section will present the authors’ biases. This is because it is with these in mind that the authors will interpret and analyze the data and it is therefore critical that the authors themselves reflect upon them in order to decrease the subjectivity of the findings.

The most critical point to present is that both authors are students themselves in addition to being novice researchers. As this is a thesis that concerns itself with student perceptions, the authors will have a natural incentive to share the perspective of the students. In order to counter this the authors have worked to place this study on a secure academic footing by designing the empirical research i.e. the interviews and their questions based on extensive academic research. This has given the thesis a more rigid structure that will help collect and present the data with a higher degree of objectivity as the process was systematic and not changed on the whim of the authors.
The authors were aware that the participants possessed their own bias which could influence the truthfulness of their responses. The sample was voluntary, therefore, the participants could potentially have had a desire to join the interview due to a previous interest in the topic of CM. The authors took this into consideration when analyzing the empirical results.

3.3.5.2 Internal validity

This section will elaborate why the findings of this thesis are internally valid, that is that the authors have interpreted the data in a proper manner and produced valid results (Gerring, 2012). The authors have undertaken several steps to ensure the internal validity of the data.

One procedure carried out was member checking - the process of letting the research participants read through and comment on the results - was suggested by several authors (Williams & Morrow, 2009; Merriam, 2002). This process ensured that the authors interpreted the data in the way that the participants had originally intended and did not add an extra meaning to it that does not exist.

A second step to ensure internal validity is to show evidence for the conclusions (Williams & Morrow, 2009). The authors accomplished that by extensively accounting for how the data was treated and by presenting quotes as evidence to each conclusion drawn. That way the reader can easily reassure themselves that the statements being made are actually grounded in data.

A third step was guaranteed by the nature of this research project. Since this thesis is written by a pair of authors all questions, theories, procedures, and conclusions presented had to be reached in agreement. This lead to them being constant reevaluated. These reevaluations in turn forced the authors to repeatedly engage with the different aspects of the study over and over again thus helping to weed out mistakes and inaccuracies that might otherwise have been missed. This process is also known as a part of triangulation (Merriam, 2002).

The fourth steps to ensure internal validity was to have the thesis reviewed by the author’s peers. This was achieved in part by repeated oppositions as well as research colleagues who would read through this thesis and point out where discrepancies could be found or which parts were difficult to understand. The authors then took measures to alter or augment these parts in order to produce the final version of the thesis.

3.3.5.3 External validity and generalizability

This section will elaborate why and to what extent the findings in this thesis are externally valid i.e. can the generalizations based on the findings of this thesis be trusted? (Gerring, 2012). Merriam (2002) points out that generalizability is highly difficult to achieve especially for inexperienced researchers.
The authors believe that a major factor when it comes to generalizability is the reliability of the study. Since this is a qualitative study it has - as mentioned - depended largely on personal interpretation, not only by the authors but also the participants. Therefore, the authors have extensively described and explained their methods used. This has two major reasons. For one, it will allow other researchers to recreate the investigation, although - due to the qualitative nature - only the procedures can be recreated with any certainty (Williams & Morrow, 2009). Secondly, by readily accounting for the conducted research in order to create internal validity, this study also creates external validity as readers can easily understand how conclusions have been reached and how similar the studied setting was to their own, that is how applicable the findings are to them.

As such the authors are aware that the findings are generalizable to a certain extent only. The rigorous and systematic approach and the clear protocolling of the data will allow other researchers to easily recreate this study in their own setting. The conclusions drawn will be strongly applicable to Jönköping University but also to similar institutions.
4 EMPIRICAL RESULTS

In this chapter the empirical results of this exploratory study will be presented. The findings from the four group interviews are presented, using direct quotes from the interviews. This chapter is divided into five sections, according to the predetermined coding categories. The results are further enriched by including summaries and observations made by the authors during the interviews.

4.1 Categories

The empirical results were categorized by the researchers amongst the five chosen categories: threats and malevolent crises, existing crisis preparation plan, desired crisis preparation plan, existing crisis preparation communication channels, and desired crisis preparation communication channels. This structure was implemented in order to follow a similar structure as the frame of reference, in order to increase the understanding and cohesiveness for the reader.

4.1.1 Threats and malevolent crises

When asked to define and give examples of a malevolent crisis, the participants defined malevolent crises as man-made threats, more specifically bomb threats, stabbing, kidnapping, beating, hostile takeover, and death threats. One participant additionally defined malevolent crises as malicious rumors. The two examples of a malevolent crisis which were brought up the most by the participants were terrorist attacks and assault. When asked about malevolent crises, many participants brought up a general concern for the lack of security in place at Jönköping University, particularly when the students find themselves in situations where they are alone. The following quotes from the respondents emphasize these observations.

“Yes I guess so. Cause for me it is first terrorism and then illness.” (JIBS1)
“I think of a third party, like an external threat. But I suppose a malevolent crisis can occur from within a university as well.” (Hälso3)
“Kidnapping, if you sit in a lecture hall and someone comes in and holds the whole room hostage for example.” (HLK2)
“I was sitting in a group room like this, and I thought someone could come in, and lock it, and hurt me or attack me. Which is really scary.” (HLK1)

The authors observed a general tendency of the participants to answer questions about malevolent crises by referring to other forms of crises, namely, fires and a human emergency, although the definition of malevolent crisis was repeatedly explained during the interview. This could hint at that the participants have encountered crisis preparation for these types of crises, more often than malevolent crises preparation. This assumption is further emphasized when the participants themselves referred to pre-university training events, which do not include malevolent crisis
preparation. The following quotes illustrate the tendency in which students tended to make references towards other types of crises.

“Cause actually we don’t have... they haven’t even provided us knowledge what should we do with fire.” (JIBS2)

“For example, I don’t really know where I should go if the fire alarm goes off.” (JTH3)

“If a teacher fell down I would call 112, but I don’t know anything else. Only common sense.” (HLK3)

Additional quotes highlighted that the participants have received crisis preparation training during previous instances in their lives.

“But to run outside [when there is a fire] you have known that since kindergarten.” (JTH1)

“Like when I was in high school at least you had like this training for heart and lung. Sure maybe I remember some but it would be nice to revive it a little bit.” (JIBS3)

To gain a general understanding of the participants’ threat perception within Sweden and within Swedish universities, the authors asked if the participants felt threatened by a potential malevolent crisis. The overall perception was that no clear threat existed, and could not affect the participants directly. However, they did perceive a threat to society in general, and that a malevolent threat to Swedish universities did not exist now, but it was on the horizon, meaning it will happen in the future.

“Yeah, I don’t think about it but actually it is really possible. You never know who goes crazy with the stress or how people handle different things so.” (JIBS2)

“Since it’s never happened then it feels so far away.” (HLK2)

“It will happen. I mean it happens everywhere else. It happened in Trollhättan. So it is just a question of time.” (HLK3)

“I feel safe. But I wouldn’t be surprised if a school blew up somewhere else in Europe or something like that.” (JTH3)

“I don’t think of Sweden I think of USA, and school shootings.” (Hälso3)

### 4.1.2 Existing crisis preparation plan

To begin with, the authors asked the students if they were aware of or had come in contact with a crisis preparation plan at Jönköping University. There was ambiguity amongst the students’ answers. Most participants answered with an unsure yes, meaning they based their answer solely off of the fact that they assumed that there was a crisis preparation plan in place. However, when
When asked, they did not know for certain, because they had never physically come in contact with it nor have the majority of the participants been informed by Jönköping University that such a plan exists. A recurring answer indicated that participants believed a plan did exist, because it ought to exist, however they were unaware of its content or where to find it.

“Yes, they have to have that. Otherwise I’ll be angry.” (Häls01)
“Yes something exists, but it is not made available.” (HLK3)
“I definitely believe that. They must have one, don’t they?” (JTH1)
“Yes, something probably exists. But I don’t know how extensive it is.” (JTH3)
“Yeah, I don’t even know what is being done. Do they actively do something? I have no idea.” (JTH1)
“I rather do believe that there exist documents somebody has forgotten about [...] I don’t think they go and alter or add stuff to it. But at the same time I believe they have something.” (JTH2)
“I don’t know if a crisis plan exists, only escape exists and the such. Like fire escapes.” (HLK2)
“If someone would fall down there are heart stoppers, but I don’t know where they are.” (HLK2)

When asked how the participants defined their relationship with the university, the majority of them expressed a sense of belonging to the school. All participants expressed that the university foremost provided them with an education, and a facility to learn. Moreover, when the authors asked the participants if they identified themselves as stakeholders of the university, all but one said yes. However, all participants, including the one who did not identify as a stakeholder of the university, felt that they should be included into the crisis preparation plan for Jönköping University.

“Yes we are affected by the university. We are a part of it.” (HLK2)
“Yes, we are affected. If the university got shut down, then we wouldn’t have anything to do. It’s our job.” (HLK3)
“We just talked about that today, we think so. I think so. I mean, depending on how the school is doing, I am affected by it.” (JTH2)
“I think it is essential to have focus groups with students and staff to provide feedback cause sure they are the ones that sit in the security department and can think whatever but we are the ones that are actually in danger if something happens.” (JIBS3)

4.1.3 Desired crisis preparation plan

When the authors asked the participants what their expectations of Jönköping University was in terms of security they answered in four different ways. Firstly, several participants expressed a
desire for university security because of increased threats in other Swedish cities, the specific cities which were mentioned were Uppsala, Lund, and Trollhättan.

“Before, I have not thought about it. It hasn’t been needed in Sweden, is what I thought. But now things have happened, in Lund and Uppsala that got threatened. And they got shut down. So maybe we need more security.” (HLK3)  
“It will happen. I mean it happens everywhere else. It happened in Trollhättan. So it is just a question of time. Of course some university in Sweden will be affected. It is just a question of time. Either a bomb, I mean it happens everywhere.” (HLK1)

Secondly, the participants expressed expectations of security within the university because of how easily accessible it is for any individual to enter the campus. In addition, they expressed concerns over how easy it would be to bring a concealed weapon to Jönköping University, hinting at poor security measures.

“I feel like we don’t need to have that high security... yet! But I think it is too easy to access some part of the school for non-students or even where students shouldn’t go.” (JIBS1) 
“The same like if you see someone with a gun in the bag you should probably contact the police first but then, who do you contact at university? I have no idea.” (JIBS1) 
“Just in case cause you never know, that is the thing like you never know what you have in your bag.” (JIBS2)

A third response encompassed that the university has a responsibility to implement some form of security because of the great number and diverse nature of the student body:

“Yes, I think so. Since they have to take care of so many people. I’m sure they have some form of administrative authority training. I think they do, otherwise I would be disappointed if they didn’t have anything in place.” (Hälso3)  
“I haven’t thought about it, but of course it could happen to us. We will have no idea. And so many people come here, every day. And no one is watching all the people, so yes, you should be wary, because we can all be affected.” (Hälso2)

Finally, nearly all of the participants expressed a concern that too much university security would make the participants feel less safe and even potentially trigger a crisis to occur. The word ‘fear’ was repeatedly brought up in connection to security measures, as many of the participants felt that too much security would emphasize that a crisis could in fact occur, and thus trigger a crisis event.
“It creates fear, you know, security creates fear.” (JTH1)

“Of course I don’t think we should consider it because otherwise we would have to live with fear but yeah it is always a possibility. Unfortunately, I think in these days, in this world.” (JIBS2)

“If there is a lot of talk about it, then it could trigger some crazy person who is seeking attention. I definitely think we should be made aware of the risk, but you can’t go around thinking about it.” (Hälso3)

“You get more scared of that [metal detectors], because you think something would happen.” (HLK2)

“Many students could get anxious if they get information of what happens if there is a crisis, then everyone will think that something is going to happen here. Have they gotten a threat? Otherwise why would they bring it up now?” (HLK3)

Moreover, the authors felt it was important to note that one participant expressed a desire for crisis preparation and security because they felt that every individual reacts differently to an actual crisis event, and thus you increase the chance of at least one individual being able to mitigate the crisis situation.

“I think it creates security when you know your friend knows what to do in case a crisis occurs. Because everyone acts different when a crisis occurs. And then some will handle it well and some will not. Then it could be make sure that not just one person knows. So it’s safer and more secure if everyone knows. But then of course you become aware of crisis, and you might get nervous.” (HLK1)

4.1.4 Existing crisis preparation communication channels

Firstly, the authors asked the participants what communication channels existed between them and the university. All participants identified several channels, which could be categorized under either written or oral, synchronous or asynchronous, one or two way, theoretical or practical, and analogue or digital. The most frequently brought up channels were the university’s online platform, PingPong, and its cell phone application, JU app. Additional examples, which were brought up were the university website, email, social media, more specifically Facebook and Instagram, and personal communication.

The only CC channels that the participants were aware of, were in connection to the crisis response and post crisis phases, when crises occurred abroad and potentially threatened students on their exchange semesters.

“I mean, regarding terror attacks and natural disasters or when an accident happens somewhere, then they have a very good idea of where their students are
on exchange and so on, and they directly inform us that: we have students here, we have made contact with them, they are fine or they are not fine.” (JTH2)

“When it was in Pakistan, regarding the attack, they said: we don’t have students there but we do have students here, you can go here to help. And in Brussels they also said like, we currently are contacting everyone. Or like the bus crash in Spain where they like: ok we have three students there, one was apparently on the bus now she is fine.” (JIBS1)

4.1.5 Desired crisis preparation communication channels

To encourage answers about desired crisis preparation channels from the participants, the authors asked two questions. The first was what channels the students would prefer to receive the preparatory information through, and the second question was how the participants would like the university to prepare them. The participants provided the authors with a plethora of information.

Firstly, the authors noticed a preference amongst the participants for oral channels, more specifically, for a crisis lecture and drills. Nearly all of the participants who suggested oral channels as a means of communicating preparatory malevolent information, additionally stated that the lectures and drills should be obligatory. The desired number of lectures and drills varied, however, all participants agreed that information via oral communication channels should be distributed at least once a year, during the start of the school semester.

“I think it’s really important to have some form of demonstration, especially in our building which is 11 stories high. It’s pretty dangerous if you are stuck at the top. You can’t jump from the 11th floor.” (Hälsö3)

“If you have those events were people can practice what happens, even if you do it like this day is for the one year IM students, the first year, then the other people in the school will see this so they will get to know a little bit better.” (JIBS3)

“You should have that during the first day of school, during the orientation, when you come here as a new student and enroll. [...] everyone should go to the HLK aula and there will be a one-and-a-half-hour lecture on exactly here you have those things, here are our security routines. You are supposed to be told that. It should be mandatory.” (JIBS2)

The idea of mandatory information was also brought up through other communication channels. Such as simulated alarms and crisis event days. However, one participant felt that the mandatory information should not take up one’s personal time, but rather fall under the school schedule.
“Now I thought of that if you do drills [...] if you simulate fire alarm and bomb threats. All these things you should be a bit accustomed to yourself because then the routines often work a bit better, when you have experienced it firsthand.” (JTH1)

“So maybe not like mandatory days but maybe like special events for like: know how to quench a fire with your backpack and something like that. That would be cool.” (JIBS3)

“Ya lectures are better, and they can take it during regular classes.” (HLK 3)

Several digital communication channels were brought up as a desired form of receiving preparatory information. Not only did the participants bring up social media platforms, specifically Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter, but they also stated that teaching methods are becoming more digitalized, and thus so should the communication with the students. They mentioned having virtual maps (online), with meeting spots and exits, for example.

“It should be more towards a virtualization... I mean, things are getting more and more interactive with videos and such on lectures” (JTH2)

“It could be good to get a map with all of the exits, and all of the spots to gather outside of the university.” (Hälso2)

“Of course from many channels. Definitely spoken, but also through social media platforms. Because there are many people that see and read it. I mean when my JU app beeps, I barely go in and read the news section. Mail is not a good way either, mostly spoken is best. And then of course after you have received it spoken, then to get it several other ways as well to strengthen the message.” (HLK1)

Some of the participants expressed a desire for crisis preparation tutorials, to be posted on PingPong. Following said tutorials should be a mandatory, however, ungraded, test, to ensure that all students on campus have in fact taken part of some form of crisis preparation.

“You could receive is as tests, like tutorials, like they do at airports. Where you watch the videos and then answer the questions.” (Hälso2)

“I think we should have like in PingPong for example like online test that are mandatory. You don’t get a grade or anything but everybody should do them who is a part of the university. That we would have like this... everybody would have perception like what to do.” (JIBS2)

Finally, several of the participants wanted the communication channels to be easy to access, and the communicated information to be short and repetitive. In addition, solely one communication channel was not desired, rather several, as seen in the below quotes:
“But whatever the information it should be like short and repetitive, because you know like the airline safety things is kind of short but you know what to do, help yourself before you help the others. You know that by heart.” (JIBS3)

“Yeah, it should be - these videos should not be hidden away somewhere so I have to click myself through ten pages before I find the crisis plan but there should be a short crisis plan that I can find quickly and smoothly.” (JTH3)

“I would do all of them. A talk and after the talk you receive it on paper, so if some people wants to remember what they said they can reread. And then videos so you can actually remember.” (JIBS1)
5 ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the empirical results are analyzed within the context of the theories outlined from the Frame of Reference. This is done systematically, following the same structure as the previous chapter, where the five coded categories set the frame for the analysis. In addition, comparisons are continuously made to the purpose of this thesis in order to tie up the holistic argument.

5.1 Threats and Malevolent Crises

To begin with, clear support for Meyer’s (2009) theory, in which threats are socially constructed, is present in the results. Several of the participants expressed that they had not previously thought about a threat to the university, but that they believed it could happen. Therefore, during the social interaction with the researchers, the threat was constructed. The authors observed how the credibility of the threat amongst the participants grew over the course of the interview.

An additional example of how a threat is socially constructed is highlighted in the results, as none of the participants stated to have experienced a crisis at their university. However, when asked about if a threat existed, the participants based their perception of a threat using crisis examples from Sweden, such as Trollhättan, Uppsala, and Lund, Europe, and North America. This is in compliance with Meyer (2009) and Ayoub (2014) that a threat is an expected danger to an individual, which is seen through their own individual lens. Threats can exist, even if an individual has never physically come in contact with a crisis before. This gives support to the claims of the CPCO-model (Chamberlain & Edin, 2016) where threat and crisis create a circle, each connected to the other. The participants stated belief that the crisis can happen, because they perceived a threat from, for example, an extremist attack. At the same time the occurrences of these attack - such as the example of Trollhättan - change the nature of how the threat is perceived; in the studied case the threat becomes more credible.

The authors took note of that the participants continuously connected malevolent crises to a non-malevolent crisis, namely a fire. The example of a fire was used by the participants to elaborate upon their comments and ideas on malevolent crises and threats. Therefore, it might be concluded that a fire is perceived as a more probable threat to the participants than a malevolent attack. This might be because the participants stated to have been primed throughout their early educational lives for the possibility of a fire but not for a bomb threat or other malevolent crises. This could also be a result of the participants having been more exposed to threats caused by natural disasters than threats caused by malevolent crises through media exposure.

Regardless of how the participants have or have not been exposed to a particular type of crisis, according to the results, by exposing an individual to a threat, it becomes prevalent in their minds. The collected theory from this thesis’ frame of reference, falls short of exploring the causality
between the exposure to crisis preparation and the perceptions of a threat. More specifically, how crisis preparation can actually create the threat in an individual’s mind.

The participants had a clear perception of what a malevolent crisis is. All of the examples provided by the participants, such as terrorism, bomb threats, kidnapping, and assault, are in alignment with Coomb’s (2015) definition of a malevolent crisis. Therefore, the established theory appears to be in alignment with the perceived reality of the participants. However, although most of the types of malevolent crises were brought up by the participants, they all put varying degrees of emphasis on the different forms. That is, some participants alluded more towards terror, whilst others to crime. The authors believe that this could be a result of a potential cultural difference amongst the participants. However, the scope of this thesis does not extend to culture and therefore any possible connection will have to be subject of further research.

5.2 Existing Crisis Preparation Plan

With a single exception, all of the participants identified themselves as stakeholders of Jönköping University. This is consistent with the theory, as a stakeholder, according to Coombs (2015), is a person or group of people that are influenced by an organization. The participants did not only view the university as a place to learn, but also understood that the university served as an institute which had some form of control over their schedule, quality of education, and also their safety. Many participants made the connection between the university’s security choices and their own wellbeing. In addition, all participants expressed the opinion that they should be included into the crisis preparation plan. According to Jin et al. (2014) students can be classified as one of the key stakeholder groups of a university. Cloudman & Hallahan (2006) point out that educating key stakeholders is a central point in any crisis preparation plan. The authors argue that the theory states the importance of preparing the students and that the participants themselves indicated a strong desire to be prepared. The concern could be raised that this desire was induced through the authors asking of the interview questions. Still, the authors believe that implementing a crisis preparation plan that is designed to educate the students of Jönköping’s University and communicated via desired channels would be effective and well received.

Although the existing crisis preparation plan at Jönköping University is not the focus of this thesis, the authors found it was important to validate if a plan was in fact in place at the University, and if the students had come in contact with it. The authors found that the participants had not come in contact with any crisis preparation plan thus far. This is in alignment with the gathered theory within CM, where the authors found that the focus of CM lies within crisis preparation of organizations during a crisis event, rather than crisis preparation of organizations and their stakeholders prior to a crisis event (Selart et al., 2013; examples include Walker, 2012; Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1997).
5.3 Desired Crisis Preparation Plan

The need for crisis preparation can be illustrated with the quote from the literature, “A good offense is the best defense - anticipate a crisis and be prepared” (Walker, 2012:381). This was evident within the collected data, as the participants continuously expressed a certainty that a malevolent crisis will happen someday, and therefore, Jönköping University, and universities in general, need to be prepared. However, the participants were also aware of the unpredictable nature of these attacks, which they illustrated with by talking about how easy it is to bring a weapon onto campus grounds. This can be used as a clear cut example of why crisis preparation is needed, even when no crisis has yet occurred. This connects back to the two-way influence between threats and crisis. The relative ease with which a weapon can be brought onto campus and the apparent lack of means to stop an active shooter increased the threat perceived by the students. It would thus be incorrect to state that the threat of a malevolent crisis is nonexistent within Swedish universities. The participants clearly stated that a university crisis can occur in Sweden as well, and the sole perception of a malevolent crisis is what the authors are interested in.

The literature agrees upon the necessity of designing and implementing a CM plan (Coombs, 2015; Selart et al., 2013; Walker, 2012; Schwarz & Pforr, 2011; Mitroff et al., 2006; Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006; Seeger, 2006; Wassenhove, 2006; Benoit, 1997). The participants’ views were in alignment with the authors. They supplied several arguments for why they felt a crisis preparation plan should be in place. Firstly, some expressed the idea that having a plan should be an obligation. Secondly, the fact that a university houses so many individuals was another argument for having a crisis preparation plan. The cultural diversity of the students who attend Jönköping University was brought up as a reason by the participants as different students put different degrees of emphasis on the need for and purpose of security. With regards to cultural diversity as a reason for having a crisis preparation plan, one participant expressed the inherent need for contact details to be emphasized within a crisis plan, as exchange students might not grasp basic emergency numbers to call when doing their studies abroad in a new country, such as Sweden. This train of thought is in agreement with Selart et al. (2013) and Walker (2013) as they state these should be the core elements of such a plan.

When applying the adapted effective CM model, based on Wassenhove (2006) to the collected data, the author could make a number of deductions. Beginning with the heading Human Resources, the students did identify themselves as stakeholders of Jönköping University, though are not technically human resources of the organization since they are not employed personnel. However, if the students receive the proper training in preparation of a crisis, they could become valuable human resources that can help the university to manage the crisis more efficiently (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006; Mitroff et al., 2006). The authors agree with this stance as it is in agreement with the theory, moreover, the participants strengthen this argumentation,
as they also felt that preparing them would increase the resilience of the university. Continuing with Knowledge Management, the authors do not have the data in place to access whether or not the current CM plan of Jönköping University is based on previous crisis experiences. However, the collected data did show that the participants do not live in a bubble rather that they used real life example of university threats within Sweden and elsewhere to express a desire to learn from those examples, and a need for a crisis preparation plan. As opposed to the other aspects of the model, Community was the aspect which was most emphasized throughout the data collection. On one hand, some participants felt a preparation plan should be in place because it was the responsibility of the university to attend to the university community. Additionally, the notion of preparing stakeholders was brought up by some participants, in reference to coordination. They felt that all students should be prepared, because in the event of a crisis, every individual reacts differently. Therefore, by preparing everyone, the odds of students reacting appropriately are increased. Finally, the empirical results rendered a need for the university to take charge of stakeholder coordination due to the age of the individuals studying at a university. More specifically, some of the participants expressed that they are adults, and thus no single individual has full responsibility.

5.4 Existing Crisis Communication Channels

The authors found that the participants actively used communication channels to communicate with the desired personnel at the university for information not connected to crisis information. For example, the participants brought up traditional channels Jönköping University used for non-CC, such as the PingPong page, e-mail, the website, and the JU App. However, when asked if the participants had used or come in contact with any CC channels they all responded that they had not. This can be connected to the idea of an information vacuum as laid out by the CERC (2014). Because the participants have not been exposed to a crisis, they have not experienced an information vacuum, or the acute need to know what to do. As such, the participants have not engaged in information seeking, as explained by Spence et al. (2007), and do not know what information is available, and how to retrieve it. The authors would argue that this is an area of development for the university, to improve upon making the communication channels more visible or accessible.

5.5 Desired Crisis Communication Channels

Robinson & Stubberud (2012) found a general preference of communication channels amongst university students at American and Norwegian universities. The empirical data is in alignment with the researchers, as the participants stressed a specific desire for certain channels over others. This validated the author’s view which stresses the need for universities to adapt their communication channels to the needs and wants of their students.
When initially asked about CC channels, the participants drew from examples which were in relation to the post crisis phase by Coombs (2007). That is, they identified the university’s responsibility as contacting them with information after a crisis has occurred, rather than communicating with them to prepare them, prior to a crisis. However, when the scope of the conversation was narrowed in on the pre-crisis phase, all participants agreed that the university’s responsibility was additionally to prepare them prior to a crisis. This view, together with the participants’ view that a crisis could occur at Jönköping University, is in alignment with this thesis’s definition of CC, that is, the communicative actions taken to prevent and mitigate the harm inflicted by a crisis by informing those involved (Spence et al., 2007).

The participants discussed several communication channels, that all fall under Colman’s (2015) definition, namely a means to deliver information to a receiver. As the purpose of this thesis is to identify communication channels which universities can use to distribute information through, to educate and prepare their students, the following section will introduce different characteristics of CC channels which the participants looked for, and present examples of channels which possessed these characteristics.

The most desired characteristic of a communication channel amongst the participants was for the information to be orally distributed. Examples included crisis lectures, drills, demonstrations, and short notifications at the start of a new course. All of these are generally analogue, meaning students and faculty staff will engage with each other, allowing for quick information exchange. This is in line with the theory presented by Robinson & Stubberud (2012) that students view speed as a key indicator of the message quality. The participants concurred, implying that if the messages were too long the information would not get through to them i.e. the target audience. Some participants further expressed the opinion that the time allocated to their preparation should not be taken from their own free time (i.e. written channel) but from the time they had already allotted the university. This points at a possible obstacle for Jönköping University and universities in general, as there might be an apparent lack of interest from the student body to take crisis preparation into their own hands. This can be connected back to the section on Existing Crisis Communication where the authors argued that the students did not engage in information seeking because they had not experienced a crisis before. Therefore, the authors argue that the common disbelief that a malevolent crisis will happen at Jönköping University causes the students to deem being prepared as a detail which has minor benefits, not meriting the extensive effort by them which might have to be put into it. Therefore, when confronted with the question, they will say that yes, a plan should be in place and yes, they want to know about it, but the authors suspect that this concern is later again overruled by the idea that “since it’s never happened then it feels so far away” (HLK2).

A characteristic that did not appear in the theory on communication channels by either Berger & Iyengar (2013) or Robinson & Stubberud (2012) but that many participants stressed as important
is the fact that the preparation should be mandatory to attend. The participants argued that only by making them mandatory could one ensure that the information reaches the majority of the student body. This is in agreement with Coombs (2015) who states that preparation is achieved by educating the stakeholders to have the motivation and self-confidence needed to act efficiently in face of a crisis. The authors believe this is a vital point, since, as laid out by HLK1, if all students have been provided with preparatory information, then the chances of a student mitigating the situation is increased, thus raising the possibility of crisis aversion.

The results highlighted that a combination of channels are desired, rather than receiving information through just one channel. The literature explicitly lists many communication channels within universities, such as Berger & Iyengar’s (2013) written and oral channels, Robinson & Stubberud (2012) synchronous or asynchronous channels, or Taylor & Kent’s (2007) digital channels. However, the literature does not explicitly state the advantages of communicating information through several channels. This was a predominant theme amongst the participants, who expressed that oral channels should be combined with other communication channels for two reasons: to increase accessibility, and to increase repeatability by the university. Additional channels suggested to be combined with oral information, were written (i.e. emails, maps, and leaflets), social media (i.e. Facebook, Instagram, Twitter), and to combine video tutorials with online tests, to ensure that every student is equally prepared. The use of the internet complies with Taylor & Kent (2007), who identify it as a powerful tool of communication. Moreover, a written channel which was disfavored by all participants was posters. The form of communication was to be a combination of synchronous and asynchronous, as the participants wished to have the opportunity to ask questions. For this same reason, two-way communication was more desirable than one-way communication.

Finally, the authors wish to bring up Seeger’s (2006) universal goal for CC, namely the idea to lessen and prevent damage or injury. The main assumption throughout this thesis has been that this can be done by efficiently informing the stakeholders, partially based on the argument from Cloudman & Hallahan (2006). In contrast, several participants pointed out that too much security creates fear. The authors see a possible conflict of interests within the theory. On the one hand for CC to be effective the stakeholders need to be accurately informed. On the other hand, CC should limit harm to the stakeholders. The authors therefore ask what if the distribution of preparatory information in fact creates fear? In that case should it still be distributed? This argument hinges on whether or not this fear can be classified as a harm inflicted upon the students of Jönköping University. If no, then thorough and accurate crisis education should take place. If, however this fear does harm the students, then the discussion becomes more complex. The authors argue that in such a case the university will have to weigh the benefits gained from preparing its stakeholders against the harm it inflicts upon them by placing them in a state of fear.
CONCLUSION

This chapter will draw upon the purpose of the thesis and results from the analysis to answer the defined research questions. Distinct conclusions will mirror each research question.

The main purpose of this thesis was to analyze crisis preparation of malevolent crises, specifically crises communication channels for university students in Sweden. More explicitly, this research explored through which channels universities could distribute preparatory information, in order to prepare and educate their students against a malevolent crisis, during the pre-crisis phase. To fulfil the purpose of the research four research questions were posed.

The first sub-research question, RQa, was: What do students currently know about Jönköping University’s crisis preparation information plan for malevolent crises? The results indicate that the students of Jönköping University had not come in contact with any preparatory plan or measures during their studies.

The second sub-research question, RQb, was: Do the students at Jönköping University think it is necessary that they are prepared for a malevolent crisis, i.e. do they perceive a threat from a potential malevolent crisis? The results indicate that the students of Jönköping University do think it is necessary to be prepared, during the pre-crisis phase, when confronted with the scenario of a malevolent crisis. The students perceived a malevolent crisis as likely to happen in the future. Moreover, the students thought it was necessary that the university prepared them, as they viewed themselves as key stakeholders of the university. However, it appears that malevolent crisis were overshadowed by traditional crises, as they were not emphasized as much as i.e. fires amongst the students.

The third sub-research question, RQc, was: What communication channels do students of Jönköping University prefer to receive malevolent crisis preparation information through? The results indicate that students prefer to receive preparatory information through multiple channels. The students offered insight into a wide range of channels, including lectures, on- and offline demonstrations, crisis themed events such as drills, infographics such as virtual maps, online tutorials, online tests, emails, the JU website and app, PingPong, and social media platforms.

Summing up, the main research question, RQ, was: How do students at Jönköping University want to be prepared for a potential malevolent crisis? The results indicate, based on the data collected and through combining the sub-research questions, that students desire specific characteristics from the communication channels by which the university can prepare and educate them. It appears that an oral form of communication is most desired by the students, preferably enforced as mandatory. The characteristic of oral communication which was explicitly
preferred by the students was the ability to hear and see the information, rather than to read it. Based on this preference, the students additionally desired online tutorials as an oral form of communication. Furthermore, the students preferred to have a combination of synchronous and asynchronous communication with the university. That way they would put a face to the message, as well as that they could comment, give feedback, and ask questions about the crisis preparation.

In conclusion, this thesis achieved its purpose by answering all of the posed research questions. In doing so, the authors have conducted an initial analysis of malevolent crisis and crisis preparation communication in a university setting. The authors have identified a number of channel characteristics which can be applied by not only Jönköping University but also other Swedish universities when determining which channels to use to distribute preparatory crisis information to their students.
7 DISCUSSION

This chapter introduces the final discussion of the thesis’ results. In addition, the theoretical and practical contributions, limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research will be presented.

7.1 Theoretical Contributions

To the best of the authors’ knowledge, this is the first thesis to create a comprehensive theoretical framework which integrates the fields of CM, CC and crisis preparation to better understand how university stakeholders, namely students, wish to receive preparatory information for malevolent crises. This is so that the students will engage with the information, and become crisis prepared during the pre-crisis phase. The CPCO model developed during the course of this study can be used by practitioners to gain an initial overview of the nature of preparation within CM.

Secondly, the theoretical framework in combination with the primary data collection offer an original contribution for Swedish universities, through highlighting the desired communication channels of Swedish university students for receiving crisis preparatory information, as well as their views on the topics of crises, threats, and crisis preparation in universities.

Thirdly, this thesis adds to research within the field of malevolent crises, which currently make up a small part of crisis preparation research. Therefore, through the primary data collection, the authors contribute with insights into the perception of malevolent crises and threats by university students, in addition to providing an initial glimpse into the perception of malevolent crises within Sweden by students.

Fourthly, this thesis adds to the research field focusing on the pre-crisis phase. Much of CM research focuses on the crisis response and post crisis phases. This thesis explicitly analyzes the pre-crisis phase, and therefore contributes to research focusing on the preparatory measures put in place to potentially mitigate a crisis, before the actual realized crisis occurs.

7.2 Implications for Swedish Universities and Policy Makers

The research findings of this thesis are of practical relevance and provide value to Swedish universities in general, and Swedish policy makers in particular. Moreover, Jönköping University serves as a direct benefactor, as the results are explicitly applicable to said university.

The study helps to validate the claim made by previous researchers that students are and view themselves as stakeholders of their university. They wish to receive crisis preparatory information through specific channels in order to engage and learn from it. Hence, this thesis provides support for Swedish universities, to serve as a platform for how to effectively
communicate crisis preparation information to their students - or other large groups of loosely organized stakeholders. The study provides valuable knowledge of how students view their relationship with the university, which can aid universities in establishing mutually beneficial relationships with the students, in order to provide them with the tools and education, which they would provide for all key stakeholders of the university. The empirical findings presented in this study provide Swedish universities with a deeper understanding of crisis preparation during the pre-crisis phase.

The findings revealed that students are aware of malevolent crises and threats, and even draw from examples of threats from other Swedish universities, clearly indicating that malevolent crises have crossed their minds. This could serve as an incentive for Swedish universities to make university crises part of the conversation. More specifically, to open a dialogue with the students, to learn from other universities, in order to clear up unanswered questions, and create a discussion around malevolent crises and threats.

In addition, students from other universities, within Sweden or not, who are dissatisfied with their own institution’s malevolent crisis preparation can use this thesis to derive proposals for channels that they want their universities to start using. Students could approach policymakers, who could then place awareness on, and develop solutions for the issue of crisis preparation. Thus, this thesis could contribute to increased campus security not only in Sweden but also abroad. In addition, should a malevolent crisis occur and the university was not prepared, then the students might blame the university and its policymakers for not taking measures to limit the extent of the crisis.

A key aspect from the study which policy makers can make use of is the connection between crisis preparation and fear. If excessive crisis preparation causes fear then policymakers will have to weigh the extent of preparatory measures they put into place and the additional security they gain from that against the fear that they spread by the same measures.

7.3 Limitations

Besides the previously discussed theoretical and practical value that this thesis contributes, the authors also acknowledge a number of limitations of the study.

Firstly, the qualitative nature of this study is a limitation in itself. By not including quantitative research the data analysis is based on the interpretation of the authors and is not supplemented by mathematical proof. Thus the authors cannot claim statistical significance for their results. Although a limitation this is not a shortcoming of the thesis as the qualitative nature is appropriate to fulfill its purpose. Furthermore, this thesis can be considered as laying the groundworks on which a more extensive study - qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods - can be built.
Secondly, the study is based upon a relatively small non-probability sample and as such the findings may not be generalizable to all full-time students, to all Swedish universities, or to all individuals within Sweden. However, it must be considered that this research was exploratory in nature, and investigated the phenomenon of crisis preparation from a Swedish university perspective. Thus this study provides a basis for future research, rather than providing a concrete solution through simply one piece of research.

Thirdly, the authors recognize that due to the subjective nature of the qualitative methods of analysis of this study, that some level of researcher bias is to be expected. However, multiple forms of triangulation were used to reduce the impact of potential biases.

Fourthly, the results of the case study are limited by their cross-sectional nature, the value generated from the research findings needs to be evaluated relative to the time and context in which the study was conducted. This is of importance as the perception of malevolent university crises, such as its cause and origin, is contextually dependent, and may change within Sweden, and over time.

7.4 Suggestions for Future Research

During the course of the study the authors came across numerous areas where they perceived further research would be necessary.

Firstly, a more quantitative approach could be conducted, with a similar purpose of this thesis, to see if the conclusion drawn can be validated statistically. Secondly, an area of research could target what impact the presence of a CM plan has on the stakeholders. For example, how they react to it, and if they feel more or less secure. This would be important for policymakers to be able to make well-founded decisions. Alternatively, it would be interesting to look into whether or not a CM plan raises the probability of a crisis to occur. The thought was brought up in one of the interviews and the authors believe it merits a more in-depth consideration.

Furthermore, the consideration was raised what impact a student’s culture has on the perception of threats and crisis, an idea which was influenced by the international nature of Jönköping University, an idea which follows the theme of stakeholder impact mentioned previously. Another area requiring further research is how people from various cultural background view university security measures and how it impacts their perception of the university.

With the final words of this thesis and linking to the previous paragraph about the impact of security, the authors want to once more raise the possibility that security creates fear. To the authors' best knowledge, no study exists on how increasing campus security impacts the wellbeing
of the students. This is a topic of interest, as policymakers, in times of international terror, need to find the balance between campus safety and the desire of the students to live without fear.
REFERENCES

Academic References


**Digital Non-Academic References**


APPENDIX

I: Interview questions

Introductory questions:
- Name?
- Age?
- Gender?
- Faculty?
- Program?

Semi-structured interview questions:

- How would you define your relationship with Jönköping University?
  o What do you provide for the university?
  o What do you expect the university to provide for you?
  o What do you think your responsibilities as a student are?
  o Do you consider yourself a stakeholder to the university?
- What are your expectations of Jönköping University in terms of security?
  o Do you think a crisis communication plan currently exists?
  o Should a plan exist?
  o How extensive should it be?
- What communication channels currently exist between you and Jönköping University?
  o What oral channels exist?
  o What written channels exist?
- What do you first think of when you hear the term malevolent university crisis
  o How likely do you think it is?
  o Where in the world do you think it occurs most often?
  o Do you think it could occur in Sweden?
  o Does it concern you?
- How would you like Jönköping University to prepare you for a malevolent attack in the future?
  o What preparations should be in place?
- What channels would you like to receive this preparation information through?
  o Would you rather receive it oral or written?
  o Would you rather receive it synchronous or asynchronous?
  o Would you like to receive it through one or several channels?
  o Would you like it to be a one or two-way communication?
II: Interview quotes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JIBS Quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Yes I guess so. Cause for me it is first terrorism and then illness.” (JIBS1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Cause actually we don’t have... they haven’t even provided us knowledge what should we do with fire.” (JIBS2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Like when I was in high school at least you had like this training for heart and lung. Sure maybe I remember some but it would be nice to revive it a little bit.” (JIBS3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Yeah, I don’t think about it but actually it is really possible. You never know who goes crazy with the stress or how people handle different things so.” (JIBS2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I think it is essential to have focus groups with students and staff to provide feedback cause sure they are the ones that sit in the security department and can think whatever but we are the ones that are actually in danger if something happens.” (JIBS3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I feel like we don’t need to have that high security... yet! But I think it is too easy to access some part of the school for non-students or even where students shouldn’t go.” (JIBS1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“The same like if you see someone with a gun in the bag you should probably contact the police first but then, who do you contact at university? I have no idea.” (JIBS1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Just in case cause you never know, that is the thing like you never know what you have in your bag.” (JIBS2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“Of course I don’t think we should consider it because otherwise we would have to live with fear but yeah it is always a possibility. Unfortunately, I think in these days, in this world.” (JIBS2)

“When it was in Pakistan, regarding the attack, they said: we don’t have students there but we do have students here, you can go here to help. And in Brussels they also said like, we currently are contacting everyone. Or like the bus crash in Spain where they like: ok we have three students there, one was apparently on the bus now she is fine.” (JIBS1)

“If you have those events were people can practice what happens, even if you do it like this day is for the one year IM students, the first year, then the other people in the school will see this so they will get to know a little bit better.” (JIBS3)

“You should have that during the first day of school, during the orientation, when you come here as a new student and enroll. [...] everyone should go to the HLK aula and there will be a one-and-a-half-hour lecture on exactly here you have those things, here are our security routines. You are supposed to be told that. It should be mandatory.” (JIBS2)

“So maybe not like mandatory days but maybe like special events for like: know how to quench a fire with your backpack and something like that. That would be cool.” (JIBS3)

“I think we should have like in PingPong for example like online test that are mandatory. You don’t get a grade or anything but everybody should do them who is a part of the university. That we would have like this... everybody would have perception like what to do.” (JIBS2)

“But whatever the information it should be like short and repetitive, because you know like the airline safety things is kind off short but you know what to do, help yourself before you help the others. You know that by heart.” (JIBS3)
“I would do all of them. A talk and after the talk you receive it on paper, so if some people wants to remember what they said they can reread. And then videos so you can actually remember.” (JIBS1)

Table 1: Quotes from JIBS Interview as found in the Empirical Results. The interview was conducted in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JTH Quotes</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Jag vet väl inte riktigt vart jag ska gå om brandlarmet går till exempel.</em> (JTH3)</td>
<td>“For example, I don’t really know where I should go if the fire alarm goes off.” (JTH3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Men det har man ju sen barnsben att man ska springa ut.</em> (JTH1)</td>
<td>“But to run outside [when there is a fire] you have known that since kindergarten.” (JTH1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Jag känner mig trygg. Jag skulle inte heller bli förvånad om det smällde en skola nånstans i Europa eller något sånt</em> (JTH3)</td>
<td>“I feel safe. But I wouldn’t be surprised if a school blew up somewhere else in Europe or something like that.” (JTH3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Det tror jag helt klart. Det måste de väl ha till och med?</em> (JTH1)</td>
<td>“I definitely believe that. They must have one, don’t they?” (JTH1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Jo, nånting finns nog. Sen vet jag inte hur omfattande det är.</em> (JTH3)</td>
<td>“Yes, something probably exists. But I don’t know how extensive it is.” (JTH3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ah, jag vet inte ens vad som görs. Görs det något aktivt? Jag har ingen aning.</em> (JTH1)</td>
<td>“Yeah, I don’t even know what is being done. Do they actively do something? I have no idea.” (JTH1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish Text</td>
<td>English Translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jag tror nog att det är dokument som någon har glömt bort snarare. [...] Jag tror inte direkt de går och ändrar och lägger till grejer i den. Men jag tror samtidigt att de har någonting. (JTH2)</td>
<td>“I rather do believe that there exist documents somebody has forgotten about [...] I don’t think they go and alter or add stuff to it. But at the same time I believe they have something.” (JTH2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Det pratade vi om senast idag, det tycker vi. Det tycker jag. Alltså beroende på hur skolan är så påverkas jag av det. (JTH2)</td>
<td>“We just talked about that today, we think so. I think so. I mean, depending on how the school is doing, I am affected by it.” (JTH2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Det skapar ju en rädsla, säkerhet skapar rädsla. (JTH1)</td>
<td>“It creates fear, you know, security creates fear.” (JTH1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[…] alltså terrorattacker eller naturkatastrofer eller när det händer en olycka nästans, då hör de väldigt bra koll på var de har sina studenter som är på utlandstermin och sänna saker och direkt informerar de att: vi har studenter här, vi har fått kontakt med dem, att de mår bra, eller att de inte mår bra. (JTH2)</td>
<td>“[...] I mean, regarding terror attacks and natural disasters or when an accident happens somewhere, then they have a very good idea of where their students are on exchange and so on, and they directly inform us that: we have students here, we have made contact with them, they are fine or they are not fine.” (JTH2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nu kom jag på att man kör tester då - alltså att man simulerar brandalarm och bombhot. Alltså alla de här så att man är lite van själv, för då funkar ju oftast rutinen lite bättre, när man liksom varit med om det. (JTH1)</td>
<td>“Now I thought of that if you do drills [...] if you simulate fire alarm and bomb threats. All these things you should be a bit accustomed to yourself because then the routines often work a bit better, when you have experienced it firsthand.” (JTH1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Det ska vara mer mot en virtualisierung... alltså det blir ju mer och mer interaktivit</td>
<td>“It should be more towards a virtualization... I mean, things are getting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
med videos och sånt på föreläsningar
(JTH2)  
more and more interactive with videos and such on lectures” (JTH2)

Ja det ska ju ligga - de där videon ska ju inte ligga gömt någonstans så jag får klicka mig genom tio sidor innan jag hittar krisplanen utan det ska vara en knapp krisplan som jag ska kunna hitta lätt och smidigt. (JTH3)  
“Yeah, it should be - these videos should not be hidden away somewhere so I have to click myself through ten pages before I find the crisis plan but there should be a short crisis plan that I can find quickly and smoothly.” (JTH3)

Table 2: Quotes from the JTH Interview as found in the Empirical Results. The interview was conducted in Swedish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HLK Quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Swedish Original</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bortröving, om man sitter i en aula och någon kommer in och håller alla gisslan till exempel. (HLK2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jag satt i ett grupprum som denna, och jag tänkte att någon kunde komma in, låsa dörren, och skada eller attackera mig. Vilket är väldigt läskigt. (HLK1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Om en lärare föll omkull skulle jag ringa 112, men jag kan inget annat. Bara liksom mitt sunda förnuft. (HLK3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eftersom det aldrig har hänt, känns det så långt borta. (HLK2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Det kommer att hända. Alltså det händer överallt. Det hände i Trollhättan. Det är bara en tidsfråga. (HLK3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ja något existerar, men det är inte tillgänglig. (HLK3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jag vet inte om ett krisplan existerar, bara utgångar och sånt. Som typ brandstegar. (HLK2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Om någon skulle rasa omkull finns det hjärtstartare, men jag vet inte vart dom finns. (HLK2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ja, vi påverkas av universitetet. Vi är en del av den. (HLK2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ja, vi påverkas. Om universitetet stängdes ner, skulle vi inte ha något att göra. Det är vårat jobb. (HLK3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innan hade jag inte tänkt på det. Det har inte behövs i Sverige hade jag tänkt. Men nu när saker har hänt, i Lund och Uppsala som blev hottade. Och dom blev nerstängda. Så vi kanske behöver mera säkerhet. (HLK3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Självklart kommer någon högskola i Sverige bli påverkad. Det är bara en tidsfråga. Antingen en bomb, alltså det händer på alla ställen. (HLK1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man blir nästan mer rädd för det [metaldetektor] för man tror att något kommer att hända. (HLK2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Många studenter kanske blir ängsliga om dom får information om vad som händer om det blir en kris, då kommer alla att tror att något kommer att hända här. Har dom fått en hot? Varför skulle dom annars ta upp det nu? (HLK3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jag tror att det skapar säkerhet när du vet att din vän vet vad man ska göra i en kris situation. För alla beter sig annorlunda när en kris faktiskt händer. Och några kommer att hantera det bra och några kommer att inte hantera det alls. Det borde göras så att inte bara en person vet vad som ska göras, det är tryggare och säkrare om all vet. Men självklart blir du ju mer medveten om att en kris kan hända, och du kanske blir nervös. (HLK1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ja, föreläsningar är bättre, då kan man ta det under vanliga lektioner. (HLK3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Självklart från många kanaler. Definitivt muntligt, men också genom social medier. För att många ser och laser det då. Alltså när min JU App plingar, går jag nästan aldrig in och läser nyheterna. Mejl är inget bra sätt heller, mest muntligt. Och självklart, efter att ha fått det muntligt, ska</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
man få det genom massa andra sätt för att styrka meddelandet.

it several other ways as well to strengthen the message.” (HLK1)

Table 3: Quotes from the HLK Interview as found in the Empirical Results. The interview was conducted in Swedish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hälso Interview</th>
<th>Swedish Original</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jag tänker på en tredjepart, som ett externt hot. Men jag antar att illvilliga hot kan förekomma inom högskolan också. (Hälso3)</td>
<td>“I think of a third party, like an external threat. But I suppose a malevolent crisis can occur from within a university as well.” (Hälso3)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Jag tänker inte på Sverige, jag tänker på USA, och skol skjutningar. (Hälso3)</td>
<td>“I don’t think of Sweden I think of USA, and school shootings.” (Hälso3)</td>
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<td>Ja, det måste dom ha. Annars blir jag arg. (Hälso1)</td>
<td>“Yes, they have to have that. Otherwise I’ll be angry.” (Hälso1)</td>
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<td>Ja, jag tror det. Eftersom dom måste ta hand om så många människor. Jag antar att dom har någon form av förvaltande träning. (Hälso3)</td>
<td>“Yes, I think so. Since they have to take care of so many people. I’m sure they have some form of administrative authority training.” (Hälso3)</td>
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<td>Jag tror att dom har det, annars skulle jag bli besviken om dom inte hade något på platts. (Hälso3)</td>
<td>“I think they do, otherwise I would be disappointed if they didn’t have anything in place.” (Hälso3)</td>
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<td>Jag har inte tänkt på det, men självklart kan det hända till oss alla. Vi kommer inte kunna ana. Och så många människor kommer hit varje dag. Och ingen har koll på alla, så ja, man borde vara vaksam, för vi är alla påverkade. (Hälso2)</td>
<td>“I haven’t thought about it, but of course it could happen to us. We will have no idea. And so many people come here, every day. And no one is watching all the people, so yes, you should be wary, because we can all be affected.” (Hälso2)</td>
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</table>
Om det är mycket prat runt omkring det, så kan det utlösa någon knäppskalle som vill få uppmärksamhet. Jag tycker verkligen att vi borde göras medveten om risken, men man kan inte gå omkring och tänka på det.
(Hälso3)

“If there is a lot of talk about it, then it could trigger some crazy person who is seeking attention. I definitely think we should be made aware of the risk, but you can’t go around thinking about it.” (Hälso3)

(Hälso3)

“I think it’s really important to have some form of demonstration, especially in our building which is 11 stories high. It’s pretty dangerous if you are stuck at the top. You can’t jump from the 11th floor.” (Hälso3)

Det skulle vara bra att få en karta över alla utgångar, och alla samlings ställen utanför högskolan.
(Hälso2)

“It could be good to get a map with all of the exits, and all of the spots to gather outside of the university.” (Hälso2)

Du skulle kunna få det genom att göra prov, som en demonstrering, som dom har på flygplatser. Där man tittar på en film och sedan svarar på frågor.
(Hälso2)

“You could receive is as tests, like tutorials, like they do at airports. Where you watch the videos and then answer the questions.” (Hälso2)

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<td>Jag tycker verkligen att det är viktigt att ha någon form av demonstrering, särskilt i våran byggnad som är 11 våningar högt. Det är rätt så farligt om man blir fast där uppe. Man kan inte hoppa från 11:e våningen. (Hälso3)</td>
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