

Organizational Crisis Communication Translated in the Networked Society

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Abstract

Between approximately September 1, 2012 and February 1, 2014, the popular Canadian fashion retailer Lululemon Athletica Inc. faced an organizational crisis due to quality management problems. Beginning with manufacturing complications, the quality issues expressed themselves through various crisis symptoms (e.g., financial issues, legal issues, and senior leadership turmoil). The organization enacted crisis communication strategies to mitigate reputational risk and to inform the public and its stakeholders about the crisis. The news media also reported on the crisis extensively, which contributed to the public and stakeholders' perceptions of the company and crisis. This dissertation draws on theories of narrative, translation, communication and media, and crisis communication to develop a theoretical foundation to guide the goals of this study. It is based on theories that conceptualize textual journalism as a process of both intralingual and interdiscursive translation that results in new narratives for the purpose of news media content creation. A qualitative content analysis informed by principles of critical discourse analysis is conducted to examine the narration of the crisis as depicted in the company's textual communication about the crisis (e.g., press releases, annual reports), and the depiction of the crisis as narrated in textual media reports about the organization's crisis. The two information streams are first analyzed individually to extract the main themes and sub-themes presented. Based on these analyses, a comparison of the two different information streams and their respective crisis narratives is conducted. The project investigates the ways in which the media translated information about the crisis to create their own narratives of the crisis. The findings of this dissertation show the process through which translation occurs, namely the linguistic and discursive variance between these two information streams. An analysis of the patterns in the linguistic and discursive variance between these two information streams indicates how the different social contexts in which each information stream is embedded may have impacted how the translation/journalism process occurs.

Keywords: Canadian media; crisis communication; interdiscursive translation; intralingual translation; journalism; Lululemon Athletica; narrative; narrative theory; organizational crisis communication; textual journalism; translation; translation theory

Résumé

Entre le 1er septembre 2012 et le 1er février 2014, l'entreprise canadienne populaire et connue pour ses vêtements de sport « tendance » Lululemon Athletica Inc. a subi une crise organisationnelle en raison de problèmes liés à la gestion de la qualité de leurs produits. Les complications ont débuté avec des problèmes de fabrication qui se sont répercutés sur la qualité par l'entremise de divers signes de crise (par ex. financiers et juridiques ainsi que des tensions au sein de la direction générale). En raison des problèmes encourus, l'entreprise a dû mobiliser des stratégies de communication de crise afin d'éviter les atteintes à la réputation de la marque de commerce et de renseigner le public et les actionnaires sur ce qu'elle considérait important à retenir de cet état d'exception. Les médias ont produit des reportages et par là même contribué à orienter les perceptions du public et des intervenants. Notre cadre conceptuel s'appuie notamment sur la théorie du récit, de la traductologie, de la communication, et des théories des médias afin d'orienter les objectifs de cette recherche. Les théories mobilisées conçoivent l'activité journalistique comme un processus traductif à la fois intralinguistique et interdiscursif qui produit de nouveaux récits aux fins de la création de contenus par les divers médias étudiés. Nous avons mené une analyse qualitative des contenus fondée sur l'analyse critique du discours afin d'étudier le récit de crise selon deux perspectives différentes. D'une part, selon celle de l'entreprise dans le cadre de son plan et de sa stratégie de communication (par ex. communiqués de presse et rapports annuels), et, d'autre part, selon la perspective diffusée et représentée dans les textes médiatiques. Les deux discours sont d'abord analysés individuellement afin d'en identifier les thèmes et sous-thèmes récurrents. Par la suite, à l'aide de cette première analyse, les deux discours et les deux versions du récit de crise sont comparés. Ainsi, il s'agit de mieux comprendre comment les médias ont traduit et, par là même créé leurs propres récits de cette crise. Les résultats de l'analyse montrent que le processus traductif, notamment les variantes linguistiques et discursives répertoriées dans les deux versions, produit des différences notables. Une analyse des tendances linguistiques et discursives des deux types de récits (corporatif et journalistique) indique les différents contextes sociaux dans lesquels ces différents discours sont produits et selon quelles logiques ils opèrent.

Mots clés: communication de crise; communication de crise organisationnelle journalisme; Lululemon Athletica; médias canadiens; théorie du récit; traduction interdiscursive; traduction intralinguistique; traductologie

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List of Abbreviations

Chief product officer	CPO
Critical discourse analysis	CDA
Lululemon Athletica	Lulu
Lulu's communication (about the OQMC)	LC
Media reports about Lulu	MRL
Organizational quality management crisis	OQMC
Translation studies	TS
Board of directors	BoD
Senior leadership	SL
Sheer luon issue	SLI
Qualitative content analysis	QCA
Quality management	QM

Chapter 1

Introduction

Preface

We relate to, understand, and interact with our reality through stories; where we came from, who we are, and what we can be are told to us through meaningful chronologies that are crafted in the human mind. Driven by our evolutionary instincts, we have devised new tools to convey our stories, but the way we frame our world and our understanding of it remains. Central to the longevity of the many tales that persist in our species is the transmission of these stories from one source to another: from one person to another, from one language to another, from one culture to another, from one medium to another. This process of transmission is fundamental to information sharing and knowledge development. Though the analytical lens has often focused attention on the stories themselves, the process of transmission that enables the survival of these narratives offers a wealth of intelligence that goes beyond the manifest content of rhetoric. The analysis of the *translation* of information allows for a microscopic look at how our realities and understandings have developed, and the processes and procedures that have contributed to our ways of knowing across time and space. The field of translation studies (TS) looks exactly at these processes. The analysis and theorizing of the ways in which information is passed through time and language is one of critical importance when looking at our histories and seeking to understand the variables that influence how we relate to our realities.

Professional translation and the academic discipline of TS are typically associated with interlingual translation or “translation proper”, which is “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language” (Jakobson, 1959/2000: 127). This understanding of translation dominates general understandings of translation, and is still very much the focus of research in TS today. Despite this focus or preoccupation on translation proper, furthering research on other types of translation, such as intralingual translation, interdiscursive translation, and intersemiotic translation, is considered particularly important. Going beyond the interlingual understandings of translation allows for incorporating, responding to, and furthering understandings of the new, ever-evolving, and growing demands of translation. Our shift into a networked society is a strong contributor to the changes in our translation needs, motivating some scholars to push the boundaries of the terms and uses associated with translation.

The networked society is one in which a combination of media and social networks shape its prime mode of organization and most important structures at all levels (i.e., societal, organizational, and individual) (e.g., Castells, 1996; van Dijk, 1991). These media and social networks are facilitated by digital innovations¹ that impact most aspects of our lives (e.g., communication, business, education, and government). The rise of digital innovations has dramatically changed how we communicate; our communication has become more digitalized, but the tools and methods through which we obtain and share information continue to rapidly change.

¹ Typically, the term “information communication technologies” has been used, however, as the technological revolution has unfolded, the term “digital innovation” has become favourable, as it is more inclusive of the many different technological creations being developed.

With these changes, how we translate, what we translate, and the reach and influence of translation activities have changed. These changes have impacted many entities that affect our daily lives, namely the news media and the role of translation in journalistic pursuits.

Though journalism is commonly examined through the lens of communication studies, scholars have looked at the role of translation in journalism (e.g., Bielsa, 2007; Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009; Conway, 2008; Jaber, 2016; McLaughlin, 2011; Valdeón, 2012; Vuorinen, 1997), and the process of news reporting as a form of translation (e.g., Mohan, 2009; Mossop, 1983; van Doorslaer, 2010; Stetting, 1989). The analysis of journalism is very much a self-reflective task; it allows us to look at how our reality is depicted and understand the variables that influence, control, and censor one of our primary information sources: the media. The application of the theoretical lens of TS is deemed especially useful to deepen our comprehension of the intricate processes involved in how information is transmitted and re-narrated for the purpose of the news media. Research on translation and journalism is most commonly focused on interlingual translation of content between different languages to create news stories (e.g., Holland, 2006; Jaber, 2016; Kang, 2007; Lee, 2006; Schäffner, 2008; Orengo, 2004; Tsia, 2005). Recent research on news translation in TS has been primarily concerned with the better-researched field of print media interlingual translation (Tsai, 2012) (see Chen, 2011; Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009; Bielsa, 2007). Though less common, some scholars (e.g., Boykoff, 2008; Orengo, 2004) have looked at other types of translation and their role in news content creation, namely intralingual translation. Focus on intralingual translation—an “interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs in the same language” or “*rewording*” (Jakobson, 1959/2000: 127)—in journalism affords researchers the opportunity to look at the ways in which different variables influence how stories are told and the processes involved in journalistic content creation.

The public turns to the media to obtain information about what is occurring in the world and in their local community. This reliance on the media for information gathering makes them a highly powerful entity; the ways in which they frame events and people can impact how people perceive and relate to such. Additionally, due to digital innovations, such as the Internet, the spread of information by the media can be rapid and global. Therefore, individuals and organizations—for example—that have reputations and brand images to uphold can be vulnerable to media coverage that may depict issues or events pertaining to them in a manner that is converse to their desired representation. The purpose of the media is to act as a tool through which diverse narratives and opinions can be expressed to allow the public access to content variety. However, it can be argued that the media are becoming increasingly market-driven entities that create content for the main purpose of revenue. Furthermore, large media outlets are often criticized for their political and corporate affiliations, as they are seen to disseminate content that perpetuates their ideological goals. Thus, in viewing journalism as translation, it is possible to look not only at the variables that influence the choices to include or exclude information for the “source text” (e.g., the online news article), it is also possible to examine how the narratives presented in the media may differ from the multiple and hybrid sources on which they draw.

The networked society has certainly seen great changes in how media content is created and consumed. News media is increasingly digital and readily available through mobile devices and smart phone applications. As journalists see their content being increasingly consumed online, they are also seeing their content being placed in a progressively cluttered and competitive mediascape. The shift to online content, coupled with the explosion of social media, has put impactful financial strain on media companies that have traditionally thrived on subscription and pay-to-read consumer models. The results continue to be been devastating for many media outlets

that are unable to keep up with rapid changes spawned by the digital media industry. For those media outlets left standing, finding new and innovative ways to keep audiences engaged and, in turn, advertising revenue flowing, remains critical. The new reality and accompanying pressures of the world of digital journalism has spawned a new era of news media reporting, wherein the media draw on news values that are particularly mesmerizing to audiences, namely scandal, conflict, and a propensity to crisis (Schranz & Eisenegger, 2016). In fact, empirical studies of news coverage of these types of news values demonstrate that the tarnishing of individuals and organizations due to public embarrassment or wrongdoing is of increasing importance in the media (Allan & Savingy, 2012).

The heightened interest, awareness, and reporting of crises is also demonstrated in the coverage of organizational crises. In the process of their own commercialization, the news media have discovered that companies and the business world as topics have the ability to boost viewer circulation and engagement with audiences (Allan & Savingy, 2012). Therefore, the probability that organizations will be covered by the media during a time of crisis has increased (Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 2003). As organizations in crisis becoming increasingly attractive storylines for the news media, comes a growing importance to regularly reflect upon organizational crisis communication response strategies, so as to inform the development of current theories and approaches to crisis management and response.

Crisis communication research has long been housed in the communication studies sub-discipline of public relations, wherein scholars have been mainly focused on the examination of organizations' communication strategies and channels, while failing to look specifically at the ways in which the media and journalists operate in crisis reporting. Being that media approaches to crisis communication affect the judgments of the public and stakeholders, it is particularly

important for research on organizational crisis communication to shift its focus to the media and their content creation practices and processes (Schranz & Eisenege, 2016). Though the examination of the field of journalism and news media content creation has typically occurred in communications and media studies, this dissertation draws upon translation theories to look at the process of news media content creation by conceptualizing journalism as (intra-lingual and interdiscursive) translation. Not only is intra-lingual translation and interdiscursive translation of online textual content about organizational crises inadequately explored, textual journalism is considered particularly influential in shaping public perceptions about crises. This study seeks to investigate this less studied area and describe how the changing face of journalism shapes the way news is produced and translated, albeit in the same language, and expressed through crisis narratives that are represented through text and discourse. Thus, in this dissertation I seek to foray into the rarely researched nexus between media/journalism studies, translation studies, and crisis communication studies.

Research Problem and Objectives

In this dissertation, a case study of the depiction of an organizational crisis faced by a high-profile Canadian fashion retailer, Lululemon Athletica (Lulu), is presented. Between approximately September 1, 2012 and February 1, 2014 Lulu faced an organizational crisis due to quality management (QM) problems. Beginning with manufacturing problems, the quality issues expressed themselves through various crisis symptoms, such as: decreased store traffic and sales; legal problems; senior leadership (SL) turmoil and turnover; public backlash due to controversial public comments made by the company's founder Dennis "Chip" Wilson; and general degradation

of the company's brand image and reputation that are heavily dependent on quality and innovative products and fabrics. The company communicated publicly about the crisis, releasing numerous online textual communications publicly via their website (<http://shop.lululemon.com/>). The media covered the crisis thoroughly throughout the lifecycle of the crisis, providing narratives of the various crisis symptoms affecting the company.

A theoretical framework that fuses narrative theory and translation theory in the context of media/journalism studies and crisis communication theories guides the study. It is based on theories that conceptualize textual journalism as a process of translation that results in new narratives for the purpose of news media reporting.

The study is guided by four main research questions:

RQ1: How does Lulu's communication narrate the crisis?

RQ2: How do the media reports narrate the crisis faced by Lulu?

RQ3: How do the media translate Lulu's communication about the crisis to create their own narratives?

RQ4: How do the narrations of the crisis differ between the two information streams?

A qualitative content analysis (QCA) informed by principles of critical discourse analysis (CDA) is conducted to examine the narration of the crisis as depicted in the company's textual communication about the crisis (e.g., press releases, annual reports), and the depiction of the crisis as narrated in media reports about organization's crisis. The purpose of including the two analytical methods (i.e., QCA and CDA) are to analyze two different layers of translation: the QCA is used to examine the *textual/linguistic* changes in the two different information streams (and is thus concerned with the intralingual translation processes involved in the news media content creation);

and the CDA is used to examine the *discursive* changes in the two different information streams (and is thus concerned with the interdiscursive translation processes involved in the news media content creation). The two information streams are first analyzed individually to extract the main themes and sub-themes presented. Based on these analyses, a comparison of the two different information streams and their narratives is conducted. In this, I seek to understand the ways in which media intralingually translate and interdiscursively translate information about the crisis to create new or “alternative” narratives.

Drawing on the findings of the analysis, the study looks at the ways in which the media’s translation practices can impact an organization’s crisis communication and management strategies. I posit that the media have the ability to influence how a company’s customers, the general public, and stakeholders may perceive an organization and its brand due to the media’s presentation of alternative narratives about a crisis. I suggest that the volume and variety of source narratives readily available to journalists—which are predominantly mediated by digital innovations in our networked society—provide access to a plethora of perspectives and ideas that allow journalists to tell stories that may be different from the organization’s original version of the narrative or even challenge the organization’s narratives.

Thesis Overview

The next chapter (Chapter Two: Literature Review) outlines the theories that inform the theoretical framework of this research. An exploration of the relevant themes, theories, and epistemological roots results in the development of a unique theoretical framework necessary to guide this study. This study is guided by theories that conceptualize textual journalism as a process of translation

(in the case of this study, namely intralingual translation and interdiscursive translation) that results in new narratives for the purpose of news media reporting.

The literature review first looks at translation and narrative theories. Drawing on Fisher (1987) and other scholars (e.g., Calvin, 1990; Bruner 2004; Hauser, 1988; Mancing 2003; Mateas & Sengers 2003; Read & Miller 1995; Turner 1996) I first explore the links and similarities between human communication and storytelling. Building on this idea, I then look specifically at Baker's (2006) conceptualization of narrative and narrative theory. Next, I situate the discussion of narrative and narrative theory in the field of TS; I draw on Baker's (2014) work wherein she conceptualizes translation as a form of (re-)narration.

The evolution of the uses and understandings of translation is then discussed. Drawing on the work of Cronin (2010) and others (e.g., Gottlieb 2005; Tymoczko 2007), I look at translation in the networked society, noting that the changes in our globalized economy continue to place new demands and expectations on translation. I examine definitions of translation that seek to go beyond the basic confines of interlingual translation, namely Jakobson (1959/2000), Steiner (1975), and Toury (1995). Looking at the work of Lefevere (1992, 1996), Setting (1989), Tymoczko (1999), Mossop (1983), and others, I explore the meaning and uses of intralingual translation and how it can be understood as a form or rewriting. Finally, guided by Ruitenberg (2010), Sütiste and Torop (2007), and others, I look at further broadening the scope of translation, so as to include the translation of discourse. Here, Moser's (1981) introduction and definition of interdiscursive translation is presented.

Based on my review of narration, translation as (re-)narration, the broadening scope of translation, intralingual translation as rewriting, and interdiscursive translation as

recontextualization, I narrow my focus to look at journalism. I first provide an overview of the state of journalism, emphasizing the influence of the networked society and digital innovations on this industry. Here, the interconnection of the news media and power is emphasized. I examine the role of language in journalistic content creation, noting that viewing journalism as a translation process allows for a more detailed understanding of the ways in which news media content is developed, framed, and presented. The role of translation in the newsroom and the status of research on the journalism-translation nexus are discussed; here I look at the work of Bielsa and Bassnett (2009), Doorslaer (2010), and Conway (2008), among others. I then seek to weave together the various ideas pertaining to journalism and translation, exploring the ways in which journalism translates text and discourse to narrate versions of reality. I draw on the work of Baker (e.g., 2006, 2007, 2014) and Mossop (1983), among others.

In preparation for the presentation of the case study, I explain relevant scholarship on crisis management and organizational communication. Various definitions of crisis are presented, though I build mainly upon Eid's (2008) definition. Next, I look at organizational crises; I examine different definitions and diagnostic tools for identifying when an organization is in crisis, relying mainly on Pauchant's and Mitroff's (1992) conditions to determining whether an organization is facing a crisis. In this thesis I describe Lulu to be in a state of crisis; I draw upon these conditions to make this assumption. Next, I look at the ways in which an organizational crisis can be managed; George (1991) and Eid (2008) emphasize the value of effective crisis communication strategies. Effective crisis communication strategies proposed by Eid (2008, 2014) are presented.

I then present the case study. First, I provide the reader with general information on the retail genre in which the organization under investigation is categorized, which is athleisure. Being that this is a relatively new fashion phenomenon, I provide background information on this

garment trend. Second, I introduce Lulu: its history, its rise to success, and brand reputation. Third, I outline the challenges faced by the company, which segues into diagnosing the organizational crisis, which is deemed a quality management crisis. Fourth, a detailed breakdown of the various crisis symptoms experienced by Lulu is provided. Next, I offer an overview of the company, the crisis, and the issue of managing narratives about the crisis to the public. Finally, I present the main purpose of the study and explain the ways in which it draws upon translation and narrative theories to focus on how the media translate information to create their own narratives about Lulu's crisis.

In Chapter Three (Methodology) I define the concepts that are used to address the research questions and other major themes used in this study: *crisis*, *crisis communication*, *crisis response*, *crisis symptoms*, *discourse*, *effectiveness*, *interdiscursive translation*, *intralingual translation*, *lifecycle*, *narrative*, *organizational crisis*, and *translation*. I re-state the research questions. The study's research design is presented, beginning with a brief introduction of qualitative research based primarily on the work of Eid (2011). To achieve the purpose of this study and provide responses to the research questions, the study uses a qualitative content analysis informed by principles of critical discourse analysis. The QCA is guided by the method descriptions of Berg (2007) and Eid (2011), among others (e.g., Mayring, 2004; Schreier, 2012; Schreier, 2012). Critical discourse analysis is explained; here I outline the approach and how it can be used in qualitative content analyses. I draw on the work of Titscher and colleagues (2000), Wodak and Meyer (2009), and Fairclough (e.g., 1995; 2003; 2007), among others (e.g., Al-Hejinm, 2012; Hatim & Mason, 1990, 1997; Saldanha & Sharon, 2014).

Next, the processes and procedures involved in the study's data collection and analyses are outlined, such as the sampling strategy and size and data selection. I provide details specific to

each information stream and list all cases included in the study (see Table 2 and Table 3). The data coding analysis procedures are profiled. I explain the approach to the analysis of the corpora that I followed, which is based on the work of Elo and Kyngäs (2008) (i.e., preparation, making sense of the data, and reporting). The data coding and analysis procedures used for the coding phases (which occurs mainly in stage two “making sense of the data”) are those proposed by Strauss (1987): open coding, axial coding, and selective coding.

Chapter Four (Findings and Discussion) presents the results of the analysis, revealing the ways in which Lulu and the media narrate the crisis and the ways in which the media translate Lulu’s information about the crisis to create their own narratives, which is said to occur specifically through intralingual translation and interdiscursive translation. I present the main themes and sub-themes that emerged from the analysis and demonstrate the linguistic and discursive variance demonstrated between the two information streams. The findings of this study seek to exhibit the ways in which narratives are translated through different information streams, depending on the social context in which the information stream operates.

This is followed by an exploration of the differing interpretations of the crisis. I explain the ways in which the narrations of the crisis were different based on my analysis of the two different information streams. I discuss the ways in which various narratives emerged in the two different information streams and the role of various source narratives in the ways in which the news media create their narratives. I suggest the ways in which the volume of alternative narratives presented by the media may have impacted Lulu’s ability to manage the crisis. Here, I explore the linguistic and discursive variances between the two information streams, which are believed to change over the lifecycle of the crisis. Finally, I build upon the findings of the study and relate them to broader

discussions on news media narration, translation, organizational crisis management, and the networked society.

Chapter Five (Conclusion) summarizes the most significant findings of this dissertation and analyzes how this study responds to the research questions posed in Chapter Three (Methodology). This chapter also acknowledges and explains the limitations of this thesis and details the contributions to knowledge.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to discuss the relevant threads of knowledge that are utilized to guide this study and are referenced in explaining the findings of this thesis. The investigation of relevant intellectual contributions allows for the development of a unique theoretical framework that yields an examination of the ways in which Lulu narrated the crisis and the ways in which the media translated such to create their own narratives of the crisis. It also guides the analysis of how linguistic and discursive variances that occur in the translation of text for the purpose of news media content can be influenced by social constructs and ideological factors. This study is guided by theories that conceptualize textual journalism as a process of intralingual and interdiscursive translation that results in new narratives for the purpose of news media reporting.

Communication through Storytelling: Translation and Narrative Theory

Human Communication as Narration

To interpret, understand, and explain the world to itself is a fundamental function of the human brain. An increasing number of cognitive psychologists, philosophers, biologists, and neuroscientists have stressed that the “human brain is less a computer than a storyteller” (Mancing, 2005: 44). Mateas and Sengers situate narrative at the very core of human communication, stating that it is a central component of our biological makeup: “people are narrative animals” (2003: 1).

While the brain is sometimes seen as an interpreter, philosopher William H. Calvin (1990) describes the role of the brain as narrator. For him, the brain operates like a “Darwin Machine”, having the ability to evolve anticipated scenarios rapidly in a virtual environment. In other words, the human brain tells us stories constantly in order to anticipate the future and to understand the world and itself (Mancing, 2005). Turner (1996) argues that the single most significant cognitive process is narrative; from this perspective the basic principle of human knowing and exploring is through stories and storytelling.

According to Bruner (2003), narrative is fundamental to human understanding and intentional behaviour; that is, humans make sense of intentional action by assimilating it into narrative structures.² For humans, experience and memory are organized mainly in the form of narrative; it is a “conventional form, transmitted culturally and constrained by each individual’s level of mastery and by . . . [their] conglomerate of prosthetic devices, colleagues and mentors” (Bruner, 2003: 44). In this, the telling of a story and its comprehension as a story depend on the human capacity to process knowledge in this interpretive way. Bruner asserts that compelling evidence exists to indicate that narrative comprehension is not only one of the most widely used forms of organizing human experience, but also among the earliest powers of the mind to appear

² Bruner (2003) advances this notion in his work on narrative psychology, which is an area of research that focuses on how human beings use narrative to understand the world and one another. It insists on the importance of stories in human understanding, contrasting with statistical, abstract, and logical approaches, popular in many subfields of psychology that seek to understand and explain humans’ way of knowing and communicating.

in young children. Prior to the days of writing and the privatization of experience, narrative was a communal activity and its power to generate shared emotions and understandings would have been evident (Currie, 2010). The origin of narratives is thought to potentially have been a crucial milestone in the evolution of primate social intelligence (Read & Miller, 1995).³ Read and Miller argue that it is because of humans' need to socialize and effectively manage social interactions that we developed stories, stating that it is "stories that make us human" (1995: 150).

While some narrative researchers attempt to specify minimum conditions for what can count as narrative, it remains to be a highly dynamic concept that is challenging to define. This is namely because narrative is "radically" interdisciplinary (Mateas & Sengers, 2003: 21), drawing on many concepts and ideas from various humanistic fields of study. However, Mateas and Sengers (2003) are particularly astute in framing the dynamism of this concept:

Narrative is not a single entity or single, tightly related set of concepts. As the term is used in humanistic discourse, narrative can mean many things. Narrative can mean a tightly woven story communicated by a strong authorial voice to an audience. Narrative can mean the internal imposition of coherence by which a person makes sense of their life, or the communally constructed group memory by means of which a group organizes past experience. In the broadest sense, narrative can mean an entire worldview (as in "grand" or "master" narrative) . . . Thus narrative is a family resemblance concept, a cover term for a rich set of ideas.

(Mateas & Sengers, 2003: 21)

³ Dautenhahn (2003) explains the *Narrative Intelligence Hypothesis* (NIH): the evolutionary origin of stories and narrativity was correlated with increasing social dynamics in human primate stories, in particular the need to communicate about third-party relationships. She states that the evolution of the human storytelling mind was possibly correlated with the evolution of complex mechanisms of social understandings and a complex social field.

For Fisher (1987), narrative is the fundamental basis for human communication and narrativity is paradigmatic of public moral argument. He claims that narratives serve as bridges between one's experiences and the norms to which they subscribe. All humans are definitively storytellers: they are the species of—not homo sapiens—but "*homo narrans*" (Fisher, 1987: 62, *emphasis in original*). Narration is the "master metaphor" for describing humans and their communication (Fisher, 1987: 62). This is because to exist as a human is a continuous process of recounting or accounting for human choice and action. Recounting takes such forms as history, biography, or autobiography. Accounting takes such forms as theoretical explanation or argument. Thus, recounting and accounting for "constitutes stories we tell ourselves and each other to establish a meaningful life-world" (Ibid). The character of the narrator, the conflict, the resolutions, and the ways in which information is expressed will vary, but ultimately, humans work through and live processes of narration: recounting and accounting for experiences.

Fisher bases the view of reason and rationality on narration; the term "narration" here refers to "symbolic actions—words and/or deeds—that have sequence and meaning for those who live, create, or interpret them" (1987: 58). With this understanding, "narration has relevance to real as well as fictive creations, to stories of living and to stories of the imagination" (Fisher, 1987: 58). Fisher's narrative paradigm is meant to be a philosophy of reason, value, and action; thus, it is a conception that recognizes the interplay of all three of these features of human communication. This understanding is in marked contrast to the perception that narration is merely an element in rhetorical discourse or is a specific literary genre. Narration and the narratives that connect our experiences inform our cultural consciousness (Fisher, 1987). Our identities are taught to us through narratives and we express and represent our reality or imagination through narratives. The representations and performances that make up our identities and cultures seek to translate the

structures of narratives we encounter into language forms. In this light, all communication must be seen as a story form to be properly understood (Hauser, 1988). However, there is logic to stories, validated by the characteristics of coherence and fidelity, which humans have a natural capacity to understand. This logic, according to Fisher, ought to be employed when assessing human communication.

Narrative Theory

Though the assessment of communication continues to be explored by a variety of scholars in various disciplines, narrative theory—which has captured a great amount of attention by scholars in various fields in recent decades (Benkhedda, 2016)—expands upon the philosophical understanding of human communication as narration. This attention on and use of narrative theory is not limited to only the humanities and social sciences; the “narrative turn”⁴ has spread into other disciplinary fields such as artificial intelligence, medicine, and computer science (Ibid). This expansion has endowed narrative theory as a “paradigm for knowledge theory” (Patron, 2005: 479).

⁴The “narrative turn” is a term used by social scientists to refer to a trend that emerged in recent decades, wherein researchers have shown an increasing interest in individuals’ and groups’ narratives or stories (Goodson & Gill, 2011). The narrative turn emerged in the context of a new wave of philosophical discussion on the relationships between self, other, political, community, historical, and social dynamics (Ibid). It also includes questioning and challenging the positivist approach to examining the social world and understanding human experience (Ibid).

Like Fisher (1987), Baker—the initiator of narrative theory into translation and interpreting studies—views narrative not as an optional mode of communication, but instead as a “meta-code that cuts across and underpins all modes of communication” (2006: 9). Narratives, according to Baker, are:

[P]ublic and personal “stories” that we subscribe to and that guide our behaviour. They are the stories we tell ourselves, not just those we explicitly tell other people, about the world(s) in which we live. The terms “narrative” and “story” are interchangeable in this context.

(Baker, 2006: 19)

Baker’s (2006) work also includes the notion of framing as “an active strategy that implies agency” (2006: 106), and—drawing extensively on Fisher’s (1987) narrative paradigm—ways in which we assess and ultimately subscribe to different narratives. Baker (2006) describes four types of social narratives in an attempt to outline the social functions and political importance of narrativity: ontological, public, conceptual, and meta-narrative. Ontological narratives are stories we tell ourselves about our own personal history and our place in the world. While they are mainly focused on the self and its immediate world, they are interpersonal and social in nature. Public narratives are a group of ontological narratives that are elaborated and circulated by social institutions, such as the media. Public narratives also include narratives about international events, public figures, and ideology, or political movements. These narratives circulate in any culture and society, and can change over time in response to, for example, political or social changes. In effect, translation—particularly interlingual translation—has the ability to play a pivotal role in the survival of public narratives through the articulation and/or circulation of these narratives within different linguistic and cultural boundaries. Conceptual narratives consist of stories and explanations that academic scholars and professionals elaborate for themselves and others about their object of inquiry. Meta-narratives can travel beyond cultural, geographical, or linguistic

boundaries in any society due to platforms such as the media, and also due to the direct involvement of translators and interpreters in these types of narratives. Meta-narratives can be about, for instance, capitalism versus communism, the individual versus the community, and nature versus nurture.

While most linguistic and literary approaches tend to treat narrative itself as a genre, Baker (2006) indicates that there is no genre. This distinction is important, as it is often assumed that the narrative framework can only be adapted for the study of, for example, literature and political discourse, but not scientific or technical materials. Narrative is a mode of being that is independent of genre: the growth of a child, the development of land, the evolution of an animal—“any set of events that can be arranged in a sequence and related can also be narrated” (Landau, 1997: 104). Baker goes on to explain that other communication products, such as scientific theories and reports are narratives, as they are stories that have a beginning, middle, and end. Thus, “[c]ategories, whether scientific or otherwise, do not exist outside the narrative within which they are constituted” (Baker, 2006: 10).

Translation as Re-Narration

Baker indicates the importance of using narrative theory as a theoretical framework in TS due to her conceptualization of translation as a form of (re-)narration that “*constructs* rather than *represents* the events and characteristics it re-narrates in another language” (2014: 159, *emphasis in original*). Therefore, translators and interpreters do not mediate cultural encounters that exist external to translation, but instead participate in configuring these encounters. They function within the narratives that circulate in the context in which they produce a translation and “simultaneously contribute to the elaboration, mutation, transformation and dissemination of these

narratives through their translation choices” (Baker, 2014: 159). Baker asserts that the most important element of a translators’ or interpreters’ work is that they “intervene in the processes of narration and re-narration that constitute all encounters, and that essentially construct the world for us” (Ibid). Thus, the narrative approach provides translators a great amount of agency, as it acknowledges the decisive role they play at the local and global level.

The use of narrative theory in TS allows for an investigation of translation activities that goes beyond accuracy and equivalence; it also seeks to recognize that translation is a highly complex process that is influenced by different goals and functions (Phelan & Rabinowitz, 2012). According to Baker (2006), narrative theory allows us to examine the function of translation and the role of translators in situations of, for example, conflicts and wars, but also in the elaboration of competing narratives of the same event. While narrative theory is often applied in explorations of interlingual translation activities, it is important to note that other types of translation—though often under-researched or under-represented in TS literature—can benefit from this theoretical framework.

Translation Today: “Translation” in Flux

Translation in the Networked Society

Many characteristics of today’s hyper-tech, globalized, networked society, such as international cooperation and intercultural communication in business and politics, have resulted in the placement of new demands and expectations on translation. The forces of globalization have become increasingly bound to translation due to the “nature of economic practice in late modernity, namely that the economy is *informational* and *global*” (Cronin, 2010: 134, *emphasis added*). *Information* has become an “omnipresent” element of the economy in the age of globalization, as

the productivity of entities such as nations and corporations demonstrate a growing dependence on their abilities to effectively develop, understand, and apply knowledge-based information (Ibid). Being that core economic activities (e.g., production, consumption, and distribution) and components (e.g., capital, labour, raw materials, information, management, and technology) are organized on a global scale, either directly or through a network of connections between different economic agents, the economy is said to be *global* (Ibid).

These two characteristics of the globalized economy have created new exigencies on translation that span beyond traditional translation activities. Here, “traditional” translation activities refer to interlingual translation (or “translation proper”), which is the movement of meaning from one language into another (e.g., French text into English text). Undoubtedly, the need for interlingual translation persists as today’s networked society continue to drive cross-cultural communication. Yet, a variety of objects and ideas must also be translated (e.g., cultures, people, brands, and ideas) to satisfy the global economy’s needs (e.g., Gottlieb, 2005; Strowe, 2013; Zethsen, 2007). The proliferation of variety in the terms and uses referred to as translation reflect the diversity of this discipline (Hatim & Mason, 1997), which is attributed to the evolving understandings of this concept that draw upon some of its core processes and purposes, such as transfer and transformation (Basalamah, 2010; 2014). These developments indicate a steady movement away from positivist attitudes about the criterion of translation, resulting in a decrease in certainties and facts within the field, while simultaneously allowing for greater “self-reflexivity” in the discipline (Tymoczko, 2007: 51). The increased need for translation activities that have not typically been associated with this discipline has sparked debate among translation scholars as to the contemporary definition of this term and the activities that should be labeled as “translation”.

Many scholars (e.g., Gutt, 1991/2000; Newmark, 1981; Shuttleworth, 1997) and areas of TS research (e.g., sociology of translation, descriptive translation studies, literary translation, audiovisual translation, and translation technologies) remain predominately focused on interlingual translation (Pillière, 2010). Defining translation within these confines is counterintuitive to the field's further development, as translation's potential uses and adaptations continue to expand in the globalized and networked society. Instead, the acknowledgement of the wider capacities of translation among translation scholars offers a plethora of opportunities to utilize translation theories to understand different processes of transfer (e.g., adaption, reformation, and exchange) in various disciplines and contexts (Striphas, 2006). Since the 1980s, many TS scholars continue to move away from the discipline's early focus on language and linguistics, pushing the boundaries of the practices and objects characterized as "translation", both within TS and in other disciplines (e.g., Bachmann-Medick, 2006; Baker, 2006; Basalamah, 2005; 2007; Bassnett & Lefevere, 1990; Brisset, 2010; Latour, 1979; Sturge, 2006; Tymoczko, 2005; Wolf, 2002; Zethsen, 2009).

Beyond Translation Proper

Jakobson's (1959/2000) classical categorization of translation is commonly referred to when mapping out the various types of translation. Stating that translation is an element "of all language transactions" (Zethsen, 2009: 797), he divides translation into three types: interlingual translation, intersemiotic translation or "transmutation", and intralingual translation or "rewording" (Jakobson, 1959/2000: 127). Although intersemiotic translation and intralingual translation are often deemed peripheral among translation scholars, Jakobson's broad and hermeneutic definition serves as a versatile delineation of this term. His work on the multiformity of translation influenced

many other scholars to further explore the broad conceptualizations of translation, making way for more inclusive approaches to this term.

Steiner (1975) defines this term in a wider sense, identifying and exemplifying a variety of acts associated with interpretation that occur within the same language (i.e., intralingual translation). Like Jakobson, Steiner⁵ observes resemblances between the challenges associated with identifying equivalence in interlingual translation and the challenges in finding synonymy in intralingual translation. Steiner states that the epistemological challenges faced by interlingual translation are fundamental because they are already “implicit in all intralingual discourse” (1975: 414). He notes that consuming or understanding information within one’s own language is a complex act of interpretation that is often not even consciously recognized. The process of translation within one language is constant; it is performed without awareness, rarely receiving pause for or recognition of its essentiality to the human existence. He asserts that humans are translating in the “full sense of the word” when receiving a speech-message from any other human being (Steiner, 1975: 47). Steiner qualifies expressing ideas with words (both orally and in writing) as translation. Language is understood as a mirror to the world, which is used to represent and communicate information about our realities. He emphasizes, that whether “*inside or between language, human communication equals translation*” (Steiner, 1975: 47, *emphasis in original*).

⁵From his perspective, within the fields of language and communication, translation is fundamental and is thought to be equal to communication; thus, Steiner is most focused on the operation of language itself and seeks to include all three of Jakobson’s translation types.

Going beyond the interlingual understandings of translation allows for also incorporating, responding to, and furthering understandings of the new and ever-changing demands of translation. Thus, though seemingly abstract in comparison to translation proper, updating and reforming definitions to remain relevant and meaningful is crucial (e.g., Schäffner, 1999; Snell-Hornby, 1999). Other scholars, such as Toury (1995), seek to identify a more pragmatic definition of translation (Tymoczko, 1998) that extends “the range of objects of study to match real-life situations which are regarded to be translational activities” (Zethsen, 2007: 290). His “working hypothesis”⁶ asserts that all assumed translations, that is, “all utterances which are presented or regarded as such within the target culture, on no matter what grounds” (Toury, 1995: 32) can be thought to be translation. Therefore, Toury’s explanation of translation can accommodate whatever a specific culture decides to define as translation due to its inherent flexibility (Zethsen, 2007). Although his description of translation is deemed useful in that it allows the definition of translation to be tailored to a distinct time and culture, it is criticized for its broad criteria that lack defined boundaries (Pym, 1998).⁷ Thus, while definitional debates persist, Extremera (2015)

⁶Toury (1995) refrained from proposing an absolute definition, preferring to provide a working hypothesis of such to avoid being too restrictive.

⁷Here it is possible to see how defining translation in an inclusive sense can also be seen as a slippery slope. Some scholars see the creation of an overly broad definition as an invitation to categorize a seemingly endless list of activities as “translation”. Thus, while Toury’s definition is useful, it is possible to question whether or not this broad scope is actually meaningful for TS (Tymoczko, 2005).

indicates that current explorations of the parameters that outline translation are better suited to avoid myopic approaches and seek to be inclusive to a variety of translation activities.

Though seemingly trivial, the definitional impulse among translation scholars that continues today is an “essential element” of academic research required to guide the object of study (Tymoczko, 2007: 51). The definitions and perspectives that seek to include a variety of translation activities are important and productive, as they validate many translation scholars’ work that falls outside the confines of translation proper. In reflecting on research in translation in the last half century, Tymoczko notes that approaches that have initially been characterized as oppositional to or outside of the scope of translation should be seen “not as antithetical but as contributing in complementary ways to the attempt to define translation, approaching a common problem from different directions” (2005: 1083). An inclusive approach to defining the various strands of translation research makes it easier to understand the various histories of translation research and the ways in which contemporary schools of research have evolved or propagated from earlier activities (Tymoczko, 2005). While satisfaction may come from the belief that the stage of defining translation is done, Tymoczko asserts that the task of defining translation is incomplete and will continue to be a “central trajectory of translation research in the decades to come” (2005: 1084).

For Tymoczko (1998), *translation* is a “cluster concept” or “cluster category”; that is, there is no simple core identity for the cluster of objects identified as translation. Instead, translation forms a category linked by many partial and overall commonalities. The great assortment of human cultures and realities leads to the variety of understandings and uses of translation; it is this “variety that prevents us both pragmatically and theoretically from drawing a neat line . . . around the category *translation*” (Tymoczko, 1998: 3, *emphasis in original*). To project research trajectories

in translation research, Tymoczko (2005) states that it is necessary to realize the implications of the true openness and flexibility of the concept of translation. This understanding of translation can be seen as too broad, making it challenging for translation research findings, such as imposing narrow limits of applicability and jeopardizing the field's contribution to knowledge. Tymoczko, however, does not seek a completely boundless definition of translation, but instead for an “understanding [of] the various features of aspects of translation processes that enter into many but not necessarily all translation products of all translation processes” (2005: 1085-1086). Thus, the goal of definitional exercises should “only” be an open definition. This is particularly important, as some scholars are shifting their focus to types of translation that—although under-researched—represent a large, and arguably, important strand in the contemporary and globalized field of TS, namely, intralingual translation (e.g., Baker, 1998; Zethsen, 2007) and interdiscursive translation (Moser, 1981)

Intralingual Translation

Intralingual translation or rephrasing is a process of translation that seeks to transform information from the source text into the target text, creating a different version of the text within the same language (Gentzler, 2017). This process is often motivated by a specific need of the target audience or specific intention of the translator. Exploration of intralingual translation is particularly prominent in audiovisual translation research, which is concerned with the transfer of multimodal and multimedia speech (e.g., monologue, comments, and dialogue) (Gambier, 2013). Intralingual subtitling is a “shift from the spoken mode of the verbal exchange in a film or TV programme to the written mode of the subtitles” (Ibid: 49). There are two main purposes of intralingual subtitling: for language learning (e.g., migrants and young people), and for accessibility, which seeks to

provide certain groups with access to audiovisual texts in the case of the deaf and hard-of hearing. Various professions also depend upon intralingual translation, such as medicine⁸ and law⁹. It is also relied upon by many activities, such as summaries, rewording of texts in the same language (e.g., from one dialect to another)¹⁰, science communication (Oborn, Barrett & Racko, 2010), easy-readers for children (Zethsen, 2009), news media content production (Mossop, 1983), and expert-to-layperson communication (Zethsen & Askehave, 2006). In this sense, intralingual translation can be seen simply as a form of rewriting.

Lefevere (1992) poses that translation—not just intralingual translation—is a form of rewriting, meaning that any text produced on the basis of another has the intention of adapting that other text to a certain ideology or to a certain poetics, and usually to both. Rewriting is a process

⁸ Scholars continue to research intralingual translation in medical settings (e.g., patient-physician communication and physician-nurse communication), as this form of rewording or reconstruction of ideas is necessary for effective communication in healthcare industries (e.g., Jensen & Zethsen, 2012; Jucks & Bromme, 2007; Muñoz-Miquel, 2012).

⁹ Intralingual translation is also explored in the context of legal texts, as the jargon, terminology, and phrases in legal writing can be challenging for laypeople to understand (Bhatia, 1997). In this context, intralingual translation can be used in the “easification” (Ibid: 210) of legislative texts to provide the non-specialist audience with a version that is easy to understand.

¹⁰ For instance, the *Harry Potter* books have been intralingually translated from British English (the English dialect in which the book was written) to American English to enhance readability, particularly for young readers who may be unaware of the meanings of British phrases and slang used in the books (Nel, 2002).

of manipulation—one in which the “original” text is then changed or reformulated. Thus, translation of a literary work is one way of rewriting a literary text. He suggests that other forms of rewriting are, for example: the compilation of anthologies, the development of literary criticism and literary histories, and the editing of texts (Lefevere, 1996). These transformations—whether within the same language or between two different languages—should not be analyzed in isolation, but be studied as a part “within a system of texts and the people who produce, support, propagate, oppose, censor them” (Lefevere, 1985: 237). In his view, rewriting plays an “analysable part in the manipulation of words and concepts, which among other things, constitute power in a culture” (Lefevere: 1985: 241). For him, translations are “probably the most radical form of rewriting in a literature, or a culture” (Ibid). Building on Lefevere’s understanding of translation as rewriting, the process through which various linguistic products are developed can be recast for various purposes, such as understanding pragmatic texts and media discourse. Jakobson’s (1959/2000) explicit enlargement of the object of translation is “clearly present” in intralingual translation, editing, and the telling of stories through the news media (van Doorslaer, 2010: 182).

Mossop presents a model of “the translator as rapporteur” (1983: 244). In this, he begins by describing his approach within the context of translation proper: he states that translation is more than a set of two texts demonstrated on two separate pieces of paper. Instead, translation involves so much more, and should be seen as a “*social act*” (Ibid, *emphasis in original*). He elaborates:

An individual or group A is writing to another individual or group B for some specific purpose. The shape and the resulting text is determined in part by the language A and B share, in part by the various text-composing habits (the “rhetorics”) of their culture, and in part by the social and personal identities of A and B and their purposes on that occasion. B combines linguistic and rhetorical knowledge with knowledge of the specific occasion at hand (identities, purposes

and preceding utterances; aspects of the world with A and B are currently concerned) and assigns some interpretation to what A has written.

Thus meaning is something that resides not in the text but in the interaction between A and B. Behind words there are always social relations.

(Mossop, 1983: 245)

Mossop explains that the notion of translating as a process of equivalence-seeking is counter-productive for training or self-improvement purposes. He suggests that a radically different view of the translator's activity is required: "one in which not the texts but the translator and the other participants play the central roles" (Mossop, 1983: 246). He then proposes a diagrammatic representation of his proposed alternative, which he refers to as "Model 2" (see Figure 1):

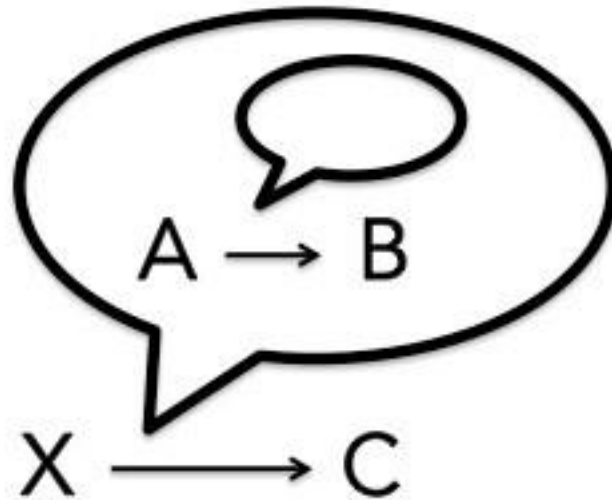


Figure 1: Mossop's *Model 2*

(Mossop, 1983: 246)

Mossop (1983) explains the model:

X reports in writing to C what A has written to B . . . This model is not specifically a model of translation. The language of the report which X makes to C may or may not be the same as the language A used in writing to B. If it is not the same, then the rapporteur X is a translator. At the centre of the model we find not a pair of texts linked by the equivalence relation, but a social act, the act of reporting something to someone. One act (source text author A writing to source-text reader B) is embedded in another (rapporteur X writing to report reader C).

(Mossop, 1983: 246)

Mossop's model demonstrates that translation is not simply the transfer of a message from one text to another or one language to another; instead it is the removal from one complete language-transaction system ($A \rightarrow B$) and incorporation into another ($X \rightarrow C$). The translator (X) is represented as the author of the translation, but more specifically, "X is a rapporteur in whose reporting voice we hear embedded the reported voice of A" (Mossop, 1983: 249, *emphasis in original*). In his explanation of the model, Mossop seeks to flesh out the concept of the translator as rapporteur. A rapporteur is someone dissimilar to the source-text author (A) who is asked by someone else to tell C what A wrote to B. In most cases, X analyzes what the source-text author A has written, and then makes a selection they deem relevant to C. In extreme cases (e.g., journalism), only one or two words of the original may be cited.

Stetting (1989) coined a term for such journalism writing activities that include both translating and editing and which has also been referred to in later research as "transediting". Stetting argues that a certain amount of editing has "always" been a part of translation (1989: 371); such as, removing information that is deemed irrelevant to the target culture context and adding explanations to source culture referents to make information clear to the target audience. She asserts that changing, removing, and adding are textual actions that editors also do with texts in their own language. Stetting provides a list of five cases where transediting is practiced: 1)

shortening of text passages for subtitling; 2) making the text of an interviewed politician idiomatic and well structured; 3) cleaning up inadequate manuscripts; 4) journalists drawing on material in other languages for writing their own texts; and 5) extracting information from various documents for producing promotional company material in another language (1989: 373-374). She also states that transediting is practiced in a “minor way” in the translation of literary, historical, and religious texts, which she categorizes as “cultural texts” (Stetting, 1989: 374).

Dissimilar to Stetting’s (1989) journalism scope, Tymoczko describes a similar process, but in the context of literary works, stating that these are simply “recreations, retellings, or rewritings”, whether they are written, oral, modern, or ancient (1999: 41). She emphasizes the value in looking at literature in this manner, as the “investigation of the way any particular type of rewriting functions also potentially illuminates other types of recreation, rewriting, or refraction” (Tymoczko, 1999: 41). A literary work, like a translation, depends on previous text; this dependence can also be seen in other communication forms, such as various other performance types (Tymoczko, 1999). For instance, content, form, and performance techniques of a culture’s traditional song or story derive from established patterns that the performer inherits and, in turn, passes on to their successors (Ibid).

According to Tymoczko (1999), a basic feature of retellings or rewritings is that they are metonymic.¹¹ For her, the power of the discourse around the metonymics of rewritings and retellings as a framework for the discussion of translations is illuminated by the characteristics of

¹¹ *Metonymy* is a “figure of speech in which an attribute or an aspect of an entity substitutes for the entity or in which a part substitutes for the whole” (Tymoczko, 1999: 42).

the rewritings and retellings that are most familiar to literary scholars: written versions of myths. In this, she states that “[e]very telling is a retelling” (1999: 43). Metonymic structures within literary texts are, therefore, “densely woven, referring to various aspects of the literary system and to other cultural systems alike” (Tymoczko, 1999: 45). It is emphasized that although the metonymic dimension of translation is particularly apparent in translations of, for example, marginalized texts, all translation is in fact a metonymic process. This process, however, is described as “partial”, “whereby some but not all of the source text is transposed, and in the way that translations represent source texts by highlighting specific segments or parts, or by allowing specific attributes of the source text to dominate” (Tymoczko, 1999: 282). Tymoczko goes on to argue that it is this “partial” (i.e., metonymic) nature of translation, which locates it firmly with the realm of the ideological and political. For her, the selective nature of metonymy is of specific interest:

In the decisions of the translator—the large decisions such as when to translate, what to translate, what to omit from the translation record, how to render tone, what standards of accuracy to adopt, and how to render a literary form, as well as the small decisions of how to translate specific cultural concepts or how to spell names—can be traced to the translator’s response to the text of the framework of the source culture on the one hand, and to the political, social, esthetic, and ideological context of the receptor culture on the other hand.

(Tymoczko, 1999: 293-294)

Through the explorations of conceptualizations of intralingual translation and rewriting in this section, and the explorations of narrativity in previous sections, it is useful to see a convergence between, for example, Baker’s (2006) analysis of narrativity in translation research and Lefevere’s (1992) understanding of translation as rewriting. The important nexus between these two ideas occurs from highlighting that, for Baker (2006), narrative underpins human communication. Communication is driven by the stories we understand and the stories we use to

comprehend and communicate our realities. In this, translation—regardless of the type (e.g., intralingual, interlingual, intersemiotic, or interdiscursive)—is a narrative process, as translation is a form of communication. The original text can be seen as one version of the story, and the “translated” text can be seen as another version of the story. Observing this simple process allows for the acknowledgment that both versions are narratives in their own right, yet they rely on the process of rewriting—or the translation—of the story to create the second version.

Interdiscursive Translation

According to Ruitenberg (2010), inevitably, a translation is an interpretation and may indeed be an activity that seeks to make sense of a text. This view of translation as an interpretive activity places emphasis on seeking meaning and understanding, even if no certainty about the correctness of that understanding exists. Thus, “even if we are not using a translated text in the interlinguistic sense, each text we are using is still translated in the Derridean sense that all language is ‘from somewhere else’” (Ruitenberg, 2010: 108-109). There are “gains, losses, changes, excesses, remainders, and commissions involved in all acts of translation” (Ruitenberg, 2010: 113). Translation cannot take place in isolation from “experience of culture and the technological environment” (Sütiste & Torop, 2007: 187). The introduction of new technologies and communication methods has very much impacted how people relate to their surroundings and each other, gather information, and communicate. These changes have, in turn, impacted translation processes and how translation is conceptualized and analyzed. The new media environment, Sütiste and Torop argue, has “brought back the relevance of the old methods of translator training”, which placed “great emphasis on intralinguistic translation in the form of either interdiscursive translation or textual manipulation (abridgement, recomposition, etc.)” (2007: 203).

Interdiscursive translation, though not included in Jakobson's (1959/2012) widely referred to list of translation categories (i.e., interlingual translation, intralingual translation, and intersemiotic translation), was coined by Moser (1981). He posits that the term "translation" should be taken in its etymological meaning of "carrying over". Moser states that there is an advantage of widening the scope of translation; that is:

Instead of being confined to its communicative usefulness and reduced to a rather mechanical and purely linguistic (grammatical) operation, instead of being isolated from similar operations (such as parody, paraphrasis, imitation, pastiche, etc.) translation is related to the larger area of text processing and text transformation and appears more generally as an important method of discourse production.

(Moser, 1981: 5)

He states that translation should not be primarily burdened with the postulate of equivalence, particularly not with that of semantic equivalence, "for even less than 'translation proper' can interdiscursive translation be reduced to a semantic problem" (Moser, 1981: 14). Moser indicates that not only can text or image, for instance, be translated, so can *discourse*. Peterlicean (2014) states that a discourse can be considered organizations of reality through language, impacting our ideas, views, beliefs, and expectations. Discourses and their translation are observed in the use of written, spoken, and sign language, as well as multimodal or multimedia communication forms. Thus, Moser suggests adding a fourth category to Jakobson's (1959/2012) translation classifications: *interdiscursive translation*, which he defines as consisting of the:

. . . carrying over of discourse elements from one discourse to another. The discourse elements can be of a quite different nature: verbal features, stylistic features, modes of predication, concepts, objects, methods, pragmatic features, institutional connections. The operation of interdiscursive translation performs the transversal mobility of the discourse system and in this function, is always an indicator and an operator of its modification.

(Moser, 1981: 14-15)

Moser's (1981) addition of interdiscursive translation to Jakobson's (1959/2012) categories of translation is considered particularly important when looking at the process of intralingual translation. Being that intralingual translation is an "interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs in the same language" or "rewording" (Jakobson, 1959/2000: 127), it is commonly used to translate information for a different purpose or audience. In this, though the information is communicated through the same language in both instances (i.e., in the source text and target text), each instance likely entails unique social or cultural conventions that influence how the discourse within the text is translated and ultimately understood in the target context. Nida, for instance, states that "texts are adjusted to relate the receptor to modes of behaviour relevant within the context of his own culture" (1964: 159). Thus, translations are subject to the contextual and cultural constraints of what Toury (1995) terms "mainstream norms", which are governed by the dominant conventions of the receptor culture. Lefevere (1992) also explores the influence of social and cultural constraints; he coined the term "patronage", which refers to any kind of force that can influence translation—educational systems, government, and publishing companies (to name a few). Lefevere's patronage is the "umbrella term used to refer to the ideological pressures to which a translator, or any 'rewriter' is subject and which are at work at different levels of the rewriting process" (Ulrych, 2003: 22).

Interdiscursive translation is thought to occur simultaneously to other translation activities, namely intralingual translation; that is, as information from a source text is being processed for a target text, changes at both the textual and discursive level are at play. Fairclough (2007) conceptualizes the analysis of texts as dual-layered, stating that the investigation of texts should include two dimensions: linguistic analysis and interdiscursive analysis. For instance, the process through which a journalist writing a story about a highly specialized, complex, and new medical

technology entails both intralingual and interdiscursive translation practices at the same time. Information about the new medical technology will likely be reworded, so as to be understood by layperson readers. This requires the journalist to draw on alternative terms and phrases that are more accessible to the target audience; at this level, an intralingual translation process is at play and identifiable on the textual level and recognized through linguistic clues.

Due to the social context, constraints, and goals faced by journalists, the depiction of the new medical technology may also be impacted by the political and ideological disposition of the media outlet for which they are employed, and/or the economic factors that drive news media content creation practices. The journalist may choose to emphasize or omit information based on these social factors, which drive the discursive changes that may be found in the target text (i.e., the news media story). At this level, an interdiscursive translation process is a play and identifiable through an analysis of the discourse(s) found in the text. Identification of these discursive changes, though perhaps represented through linguistic changes, requires an analysis of the different discursive realities that make up both the source and target text, so as to understand and analyze the social factors that influence how information may be recontextualized when moving across different information streams. That is, an understanding and awareness of the social contexts, constraints, and goals that are omnipresent in texts (and, in turn, translation) are paramount to recognizing the functioning of discourse in texts, and ultimately the process of interdiscursive translation. Thus, as textual changes occur through intralingual translation (which are identified through linguistic differences), discursive changes can occur in the tandem through interdiscursive translation (which are identified through discursive differences).

Translating Reality: Journalism

Journalism in the Networked Society

Today's media space is highly dynamic; arguably, most forms of media are experiencing trying periods of intense self-reflection, restructuring, reinvention, and—in some cases—extinction. Change is a constituent characteristic of the media's evolutionary behaviour; as communication mechanisms and trends develop, so do the media. Recent years reveal rapid changes in technology that have arguably expedited cycles of change in media behaviour, resulting in a space that demands new methods of delivery, governance, and analysis. While most forms of media are facing these changes, the journalism industry is perhaps one of the most threatened media genres. Social media, blogging, vlogging, “citizen *journalists*”¹², and the ever-growing capabilities of digital innovations have allowed for the creation of a highly interactive and crowded space. As citizens continue to share information through free platforms, which may or may not face censorship, journalists must also compete with the likes of automated computer-generated news (Graefe et al., 2016) and fake news (e.g., Berkowitz & Schwartz, 2016; Ott, 2017), for example. To make matters worse, newsrooms across the world are seeing aggressive restructuring, commonly resulting in the loss of jobs due to the lack of revenue flow for news media content (e.g., O'Donnell, Zion & Sherwood, 2016; Zion et al., 2016). Canadian newsrooms continue to

¹²Emphasis is added here to highlight the precarious use of the term “journalist” in this context. While it is agreed that citizens are now using platforms to share information about events, peoples, and happenings, it is also argued that the profession of journalism is one, which comes with many specific tasks and responsibilities that are not necessarily required of citizens.

not be immune to this trend (e.g., Evans, 2016, January 19; Watson, 2016, August 10). Though the financial hardships hitting the news media are not new, the cuts to the industry today are particularly great, and are thought to have the ability to endanger the health of the nation's democracy. Albeit these uncertain times for professional journalists, their role remains critical: they must seek to provide citizens with informed and credible information.

However, this moral expectation of journalists is not so straightforward. While a view of journalists as ethical, objective, and unbiased storytellers may reinforce our faith in the need for these communicators, it is also utopian. Journalists can be seen as arms of the state and/or large corporations, which can act as mouthpieces for powerful people and/or organizations (Sussman, 2010). With this, it cannot be forgotten that a complex mix of power relationships (e.g., linguistic, national, political, ideological) determines the choices regarding not only the selection of news, but also the editing and translation of news. Given the potency of the media's influence on society, all the decisions associated with the creation of news stories have particularly impactful consequences on how media consumers understand events and people through these narratives. News agencies inevitably reiterate and endorse norms linked to origins, corporate alignment, and/or political biases, which are reflected in their selection and de-selection principles as well as their framing approach (van Doorslaer, 2010). Ultimately, the news media and power are interconnected; they can shape understandings of the self, others, and our surroundings through the narratives they share with audiences.

Media, Power, and Language: Locating Translation

Aristotle characterized human beings as political animals (*politikon zoon*) who live in a *polis* (Greek *polis*, which means "state"). Any human community is determined by interaction and

relationships, including power relationships (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010). Studies of politics have therefore often explained politics in relation to power. Chilton and Schäffner state, “politics cannot be conducted without language” (1997: 206). Human interaction very much involves language, and linguistic interaction is embedded in and determined by historical, socio-cultural, institutional, and historical conditions. Though reality does exist outside of language, it is constantly mediated by and through language; what we know and say is produced and through discourse (Hall, 1980). Language is one of the most important mediums through which information, knowledge, and power are communicated through the media. The language of the news media constructs social understandings, allowing the audience to locate itself socially, culturally, and politically. Though many different mediums and methods can communicate information about our realities, power, and power relations, the media are said to play a significant role (e.g., Borchers, 2013; Conboy, 2007).

The news media function to share information with audiences about people, events, and happenings. Journalists collect information about stories, which are then disseminated through a variety of different platforms and mediums. Though representation methods impact how the story is depicted (e.g., audio, video, image, and text), language remains central to how journalists learn about, comprehend, and develop content for news stories. The process through which information and events are understood and depicted in the media is a highly complex process that is heavily influenced by social structures of power that drive how media content is created for mass audiences. From a macro perspective, the development of news media content is a communication process. However, looking at the various types of translation activities—which are sub-processes of the broader communication process—allows for a more detailed understanding of the ways in which information in the news media is understood, framed, and presented.

News media reporting as a form of social practice has been studied extensively in various disciplines, such as sociology, cultural studies, political economy, and media studies (Gialabouki, 2010). While research in these fields has significantly enhanced our understandings of the conventions and practices of news reporting and the institutional context, it has also given rise to various issues pertaining to the ideological implications of this form of social practice and its contribution to the reproduction of dominant representations of the world and social reality (Ibid). However, Gialabouki (2010) states that something that is often overlooked in such approaches is the role language itself plays in these processes. The subjective intervention or stance that the news media play in portraying events through their translation of such is largely overlooked in most studies on journalistic translation (Pan, 2014). Yet, the wide research on ideological manipulation in news reports as well as in other media studies aided by socio-linguistic approaches provides translation scholars opportunities to borrow relevant linguistic methods and media theories for the exploration of subjective aspects such as stance and attitude in the various types of news translation (Pan, 2014).

Journalism and/as Translation

Inside the newsroom, translation is commonly not done by translators. Instead, it forms an integral part of journalistic work: “a complex, integrated combination of information gathering, [intralingually] translating, selecting, reinterpreting, contextualizing and editing” (van Doorslaer, 2010: 181). However, the relationship between language (knowledge) and journalism has often been stressed and described in the margins of linguistic (pragmatic, stylistic, discursive) or communication research (van Doorslaer, 2010). Interest in the specific position of translation in the news media industry, both as a process and a product in the field of TS—though present—

remains limited and relatively new. Yet, various aspects of translation can be found at several levels of the news process, such as during the initial news gathering stage and the handling at news agencies (i.e., writing and editing). Following the discipline's traditional cynosure on translation proper, most scholarly interest in the translation and journalism nexus focuses on the role of interlingual translation and news content creation (e.g., Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009; Gambier, 2006). Such work tends to examine the ways in which interlingual translation can influence the telling of stories among different languages and cultures (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009). A central element of such inquiry focuses on how the socio-cultural context of the translator, the news agency, and the nation, for example, impact the translation of a story from one language to another. Schäffner (2008) looks at a corpus of translated journalistic texts and political quotes that were recontextualized for the home audience (without any reference to the translation act). She demonstrates that institutional and ideological conditions of translation production are of decisive importance in these cases of political journalism and political communication.

Conway (2008) suggests that research on translation and journalism should not focus solely on the journalist, but instead on the larger social space within which they function, such as journalists' and news agencies' political, national, and corporate interests. By removing the sole concentration on the journalist, it is possible to take into consideration the roles played by other important actors that influence how a journalist's story is created. Journalists draw on various information sources—whether it is a random person's opinion on the street, government documents, corporate press releases, or social media content—to create a new news media narrative from various other narratives. Each of these “source narratives” is charged with political and/or ideological themes that may or may not influence how the journalist translates the information to create the “new narrative”. Thus, research on news media as a translation process

should consider the ways in which the journalist mediates various narratives to create this new content.

Though people may act as mediators on occasions—taking up a particular discourse role—this may not be part of a fixed, long standing social role. However, other people will have fixed social roles, which regularly imply mediation. Journalists, for example, can be seen as carrying out a fixed social role as mediators of narratives, as they seek, gather, and synthesize information to tell a story. Mediation, in the sense of the journalist—being both a social and linguistic process—thus raises questions of authority and rights to speak, particularly, rights to reformulate powerful discourses. In the case of news media journalists, some may have access to extremely influential communication channels that not only provide them with an exclusive and privileged platform to mediate/translate/narrate a story, they also may have access to powerful information sources and knowledge that also influence their development of news content.

Baker sees journalism as a form of “reportage” (2014: 171), as journalists create content based on other information sources to develop stories and reflections of events. However, the process of creating content through translation is not a matter of objectively recounting factual material; instead, content of other messaging sources is rephrased to develop a new text that is guided by the goals and expectations of journalists and their ideological interests (Baker, 2006; 2007). This new text, which is considered a product of translation processes, contains a new narrative, which is a representation of a linked sequence of events—more specifically: it is a “*multidimensional purposive communication from a teller to an audience*” (Phelan & Rabinowitz, 2012: 3, *emphasis in original*). This rephrasing, which results in the new media text, creates a narrative that allows humans to make sense of the world and their place within it, filtering a form of reality (Ibid).

Depending on one's narrative location, we are constantly being socialized into narratives, which tend to embody the truths of social elites and their publics. News media practitioners play a large role in communicating these messages. Thus, when contextualizing translation as an activity carried out by media content developers (e.g., journalists and editors), it is useful to understand the target text or the media text that contains different narratives as influenced by ideological constructs. These variables ultimately impact how audiences perceive reality and, in the case of the mass media, can strongly impact society's opinions and ideas about people, places, and events, such as crises or high stress situations. In turn, the ways in which the objects of news stories are narrated by the media also impacts the ways in which the public perceives them.

According to Hobbs (1998), media messages are *constructions*; they are representations of events or ideas that are often communicated through text (e.g., newspaper articles, magazine articles, and blog posts). Despite conceptualizations of translation as a process of, for example, reformulation and/or rewriting, there is a paucity of research on the ways in which the translation of discourse communicated through text for the purpose of creating news media content occurs in the same language. Specifically, the ways in which journalists translate discourse from various verbo-centric sources to create a story—or narrative—and how this interdiscursive translation process impacts public understandings of people and events. The process of translating discourse communicated through text involves mediation, which comes into play when there is a perception (actual or supposed) of distance between an utterance and its addressee (Baynham & Masing, 2000). From this perspective, this mediation process is to do with closing an information gap; these gaps and differences can occur intralingually, interdiscursively, interlingually, or intersemiotically. The gaps or variances that occur intralingually and interdiscursively are the focus of this study, and will be explored within the context of a case study involving crisis

communication. Textual artefacts (e.g., press releases, blogs, website announcements, and online news stories) are central to communicating about a crisis and in the analysis of such.

The sections to follow introduce concepts and theories pertaining to organizational crises and organizational crisis communication. This is followed by an introduction to the case study, the focus of which is a Canadian women's retailer that faced an organizational crisis that was widely publicized in the Canadian and international media.

Organizational Crisis Communication

Organizational Crisis

Contemporary scholarship on crisis¹³ is diverse, revealing a variety of definitions for the term (Kanel, 2012). Today, crises are understood to be the “most extreme of all stress situations”; they can happen on a variety of levels, such as national, organizational, international, and regional, and occur in various systems or fields, such as environmental, political, economic, and social (Eid, 2008: 41). From a systematic perspective, Richardson defines a crisis as a phase in which the “breakdown or transformation of a system (a pattern of relationships) is threatened” (1994: 10).

¹³ According to Sellnow and Seeger (2013), the term “crisis” comes from the Greek “krisis” and “krinein”. Krisis was a medical term used by Hippocrates (a Greek physician and writer) to describe the turning point in a disease; krinein means to decide, separate, or judge. In its Eastern etymology, crisis refers to a “decision point requiring a decision of judgment” (Sellnow & Seeger, 2013: 6). Hay traces the etymology of the term “crisis” to the Greek, meaning literally “to sift or separate and hence to discriminate or decide” (2001: 267).

Kanel (2012) outlines the three essential parts of a crisis, which is referred to as the “trilogy definition of a crisis: 1) a precipitating event; 2) a perception of the event that causes subjective distress; and 3) the failure of usual coping methods, causing the entity (e.g., nation, person, or corporation) experiencing the event to function at a lower level than prior to the event. Eid takes the characteristics approach to defining crisis, which seeks to look at the primary features of the “main distinguishing and determining attributes of the situation” (2008: 44). By exploring the uniquely distinctive characteristics of crisis, Eid (2008) defines a crisis as follows:

A situation of sudden threat of destruction to the basics of a system combined with uncertainty as to the unfolding of events. It has a lifecycle that begins instantly and grows quickly towards maturity that may or may not be managed, but may not be resolved.

(Eid, 2008: 44)

Though a large amount of scholarly literature on crisis at the organizational level¹⁴ exists (e.g., Burnett, 1999; Coombs, 2007; Guth, 1995; Milburn, Schuler & Watman, 1983; Probst & Raisch, 2005; Ray, 1999), research on this topic continues in response to the changing climate of communication in today’s society (Hagiwara, 2007). Although Pauchant and Mitroff (1992)

¹⁴Meyers and Holusha (1986) describe nine common types of crises that organizations may face: public perception, sudden market shift, product failure, top management succession, industrial relations, cash crises, hostile takeover, regulation/deregulation, and adverse international events. Though they emphasize that this list may not be exhaustive, they state that it includes those crises for which all organizations should at least have some minimal level of preparation. Organizational crisis can cause harm to various actors involved in the organization, such as customers, employees and their families, retirees, creditors, stockholders, suppliers, competitors, and the community in which the organization operates (Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 2003).

acknowledge that a wide variety of definitions for organizational crisis exist, they present two conditions for identifying whether an organization is facing a crisis. The first condition considers whether the whole organization or system is involved, or only a section or subsystem. The second condition evaluates the level of impact to the organization; specifically, whether an isolated form of damage is involved, or if the impact reaches further to the symbolic or social level. Based on these two main considerations, an organizational crisis occurs when the phenomenon involves the entire organization or system and when its impact goes beyond material damage, resulting in a symbolic effect by disturbing the corporate culture and the social assumptions of the group and its identity.

Classifying a crisis is important to addressing the confusion and uncertainty regarding responsibility and causes, particularly during the initial moments of the crisis (Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 2003). It is common for organizations to define a crisis strategically to shift the blame or to absolve them of responsibility; in this, competing narratives pertaining to responsibility can arise, ultimately impacting how the crisis is managed (Ibid). Traditionally, preserving the current state of affairs in an organization and returning to “business as usual” has been the mindset of many organizations during and following a crisis; however, an organizational crisis can be seen as an opportunity to change—for the better—and abolish the status quo (Crandall, Parnell & Spillan, 2010). Although immunity to organizational crises is rare, these events can be used as vehicles of renewed growth and success for the organization or system (e.g., Fink, Beak & Taddeo, 1971; Hwang & Lichtenthal, 2000; James, 2008).

Organizational Crisis Communication

Sellnow and Seeger (2013) suggest that crises—like many event-based, complex social phenomena—possess a very clear developmental structure and commonly demonstrate identifiable, and sometimes predictable, order and patterns. However, the underlying structure and sequence in crises are often masked by the prominence of harm, disruption, and disorder. Unlike conflicts, which can be resolved, a crisis resists resolution throughout various stages of the lifecycle, but can be managed and, in turn, de-escalated (Eid, 2008). Thus, effective management of a crisis can result in “the de-escalation or inactivation of the crisis, but not the end, until the emergence of new cause(s) reactivates or at least partly implicates the old, to constitute a new and different crisis” (Ibid: 44). While a variety of scholars have identified specific strategies for managing crises, George (1991) states that crisis management strategies should be tailored to the specific crisis; that is, strategies should be “context-dependent” (Eid, 2008: 48).

Organizational crisis management is a “set of various methods, principles, procedures and operational tools which have been developed to allow an organization to deal with crisis situations in the most effective manner” (Bugdol & Jedynek, 2015: 163). Strategic crisis management continues to be considered an important element of successful organizations; it is generally believed that employee crisis training, establishing crisis management teams, and contingency planning help to avoid losses and prevent threats to an organization’s well-being (Bugdol & Jedynek, 2015). Coombs suggests that organizational crisis management plans need to be “carefully integrated” into the organizational culture and made a part of the “organizational DNA” (2006: 91). For this to occur, regular updates to the plan, annual drills, and constant monitoring of threats are necessary. Yet, regardless of the approach or strategy employed, communication is said to be one of the most important elements of crisis management (e.g., Botan, Ferguson & Sintay,

2014; Coombs, 2009; Eid, 2008; Garnett & Kouzmin, 1999; George, 2012; Seeger, 2006; Ying & Pheng, 2014).

Crises today can quickly unfold on the world stage due to the power of communication technologies and the global nature of the news media (Eid & Fyfe, 2009), amplifying the impact of crises (Bucher, 2002). People often come to know about large events such as crises through the news media (Eid, 2004); thus, organizations must strive to be in control of the communication surrounding the situation to avoid uncertainty among the public and stakeholders. Eid is particularly astute in framing the pivotal yet sometimes precarious role of communication in crisis management, stating that it can be understood as a “double-edged sword” (2008: 49). Communication can be used to outline the parameters of the crisis and provide information to the public and stakeholders; however, communication can also exacerbate the situation, resulting in confusion and uncertainty among actors. The mass media are said to be potentially positive channels in the de-escalation of a crisis, but sometimes they can worsen the situation by interfering in the crisis decision-making process, potentially resulting in the spread of misinformation and rumours through their own narratives about the situation. Eid argues that during crises, the media decision-making process “must be effective” (2008: 56), stating that such effectiveness is dependent on two major dimensions: rationality and responsibility (Eid, 2008; 2014). When rationality and responsibility are used, the media can become key players in managing a crisis.

Communication is the “lifeblood that fills the knowledge demands created by a crisis”, providing those involved with the information needed to make sense of the crisis throughout its lifecycle (Coombs, 2009: 115). The primary focus of crisis communication is the provision of clear and accurate information, as it is a fundamental need of stakeholders (Lewis, 2006). This task can be challenging as the information required to be communicated may be sensitive, technical, or

highly complex, necessitating the reconstruction and tailoring of messages to ensure that they are properly received and easily understood (e.g., Stephens & Malone, 2012; Stephens, Malone & Bailey, 2005; Taneja et al., 2014). Without strategic formulation to effectively communicate, information can be misinterpreted, resulting in confusion, uncertainty, and negative backlash (Coombs & Holladay, 2014). Essentially, the use of language that “is not interpreted or understood in the way it was meant” (Eid, 2008: 50) can exacerbate the situation. Maximizing the effectiveness of communication by developing positive opinions among stakeholders requires carefully customizing messages’ content based on the stage of the crisis and type of information available throughout all phases of the crisis’ lifecycle (e.g., Eid, 2008; Sturges, 1994).

According to Ray (1999), the purpose of communication during a crisis is to influence the public’s perception of the organization and to uphold a positive image or restore a damaged image among stakeholders. Communication objectives during a crisis many seek to convince, inform, or motivate certain stakeholders to action. Another key objective of messaging strategies during a crisis is “damage control” to prevent drastic negative changes in relationships with environmental components (Sturges, 1994). A secondary objective may be for the organization to leverage the opportunity to educate the public about their mission, values, and operations (Lerbinger, 1997). Considerations of strategy choice include the target audience, severity of damage, available evidence, legal issues, and the company’s performance history (Coombs, 1999). The strategy choice must also fit the damage inflicted by the crisis. Credibility is another element that is important in strategy choice; stakeholders are more likely to believe and forgive a company with high credibility (Coombs, 1999). Culture also frames the communication strategy each organization chooses during a crisis (e.g., Heath, 1994; Ray, 1999). Culture impacts how the organization communicates to various stakeholders by influencing what are considered appropriate

responses. Culture may have a strong influence on whether an organization takes responsibility, places blame on somewhere/something else, or offers an excuse (Ray, 1999). Coombs (1995) integrated the works of Allen and Caillouet (1994) and Benoit (1992, as cited in Coombs, 1995) to develop a five-category model of message strategies used in response to crises. Coombs' (1995) model is described by Stephens, Malone, and Bailey (2005):

Nonexistence strategies. The nonexistence strategies attempt to eliminate the crisis by denying its existence, clarifying that no crisis exists, attaching a more aggressive strategy, or intimidating others who are less powerful. *Denial* makes a statement that the crisis did not occur. *Clarification* explains why there is no crisis. *Attacks* confront those who incorrectly report a nonexistent crisis occurred. *Intimidation* threatens organizational power against someone, such as a lawsuit.

Distance strategies. The distance strategies attempt to weaken the link between the crisis and the organization. In doing so, they clearly acknowledge the crisis but then begin to make excuses or justify the crisis. *Excuses* minimize the organization's responsibility by denying intention or volition. *Denial of volition* consists of blaming someone else for the crisis. *Justification* attempts to minimize damage by convincing the public the crisis was not that serious, the victim deserved what happened, or claiming the crisis was misinterpreted.

Ingratiation strategies. The ingratiation strategies focus on ways to gain public approval such as *bolstering* the existing organizational image, *transcending* the crisis to a more desirable position, and *praising others* in an attempt to gain their approval.

Mortification strategies. The mortification strategies attempt to win forgiveness and create acceptance. These include *remediation* to offer compensation to the victims, *repentance* to ask for forgiveness, and *rectification* to clearly show that mechanisms are in place to prevent a similar crisis from occurring again.

Suffering strategy. The final strategy . . . is the suffering strategy. The goal of the suffering strategy is to portray the organization as a victim and draw sympathy from the public.

In addition to these strategies, Coombs also mentions two other strategies. The first is silence—a response that Coombs claims is passive because it suggests uncertainty on the part of the organization-in-crisis. A second strategy is much more effective and likely useful during technical crises because it uses the “endorsement of an outside expert” . . . to help boost the credibility of the organization. He suggests that this is a helpful follow-up strategy and these experts can either praise

the handling of the situation or confirm that the organization-in-crisis is assessing the situation correctly.

(Stephens, Malone & Bailey, 2005: 396-397, *emphasis in original*)

Organizational Crisis Communication in the Networked Society

The majority of crisis communications research is classified as belonging to the communications studies sub-discipline of public relations; this bias often motivates the examination of communication strategies and channels of organizations, while ignoring the macro-social context of which the media play a large role (Schranz & Eisenege, 2016). In this, studies of organizational crises commonly fail to look specifically at the ways in which the media and journalists operate in crisis reporting. Being that the ways in which the media narrate crises affect the judgements of stakeholders, it is particularly important for organizational crisis communication studies to shift their focus to the media and their content creation practices (Ibid).

According to Schranz and Eisenege (2016), the media play a key role in investigations of crisis framing. In fact, most stakeholders learn of an organizational crisis only from media reports; thus, the way in which the media report on a crisis is seen as decisive for how the stakeholders and the public think about an organization and its crisis response. While the fundamental significance of the media in organizational crises is undisputed, remarkably few studies of crisis communications make the media and their processes their central focus in the examination of the mechanisms of the media constructions of organizational crises. Despite this, it is evident that the media are becoming increasingly important for the crisis communications of organizations. Not only has the intensity of reporting on organizations increased, it can now be shown that communications by organizations—specifically crisis communications—are increasingly subject to the logic of the commercialized media system. The media can highlight and give prominence to

certain events and fundamentally determine perceptions on crises. Therefore, “the media do not act merely as information mediators, but as agents with their own agenda who project meanings and create social realities” (Schranz & Eisenegger, 2016: 166).

The increasingly powerful role of the media in organizational crisis communications is also associated with a quantitative increase of organizational crises in media reports. Empirical studies of scandals and high-stress situations show that the tarnishing of individuals and organizations by wrongdoing or public embarrassment is of increasing importance in the media (Allan & Savingy, 2012). In the process of their own commercialization, the mass media have discovered that companies and the business world as topics have the ability to boost viewer ratings and circulation (Ibid). Therefore, the probability that organizations in general will be covered in the media during a time of crisis has increased (Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 2003). Other major factors for the significance of corporate crises for the media are the editorial policy and ideological stance of the respective medium or publisher. For instance, a study by Benediktsson (2010) found that of reporting by approximately 50 American media on corporate crises (white collar crime) that media close to the US Republican Party report less about corporate scandals than others. This and other similar studies illustrates the growing significance of organizational crises as being especially due to the media system itself. Media organizations are more heavily commercialized and subject to greater advertising pressure than ever. For their voice to be heard in the intensified competition for consumer attention and advertising revenues, the media select and present their topics with a stronger orientation to news values, such as scandal, prominence, conflicts, negativism, and a propensity to crisis. The 24/7 journalism that characterizes the online news embodies a particularly strong presence for organizational crises (Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 2003).

Best practices pertaining to organizational crisis communication are arguably in flux. As digital innovations push (and in some cases, erase) communication boundaries, organizations in high stress situations face a continuously changing communication landscape that is not easily managed. Within the rapidly changing landscape is the news media; what was once a seemingly static entity has morphed into a versatile, round-the-clock reporting mechanism that has instantaneous, global reach. Journalistic sources are no longer contained to a Rolodex; instead, social media, Wikileaks, citizen-generated content, and more, contribute to how the news media translate information to create new narratives. In turn, these changes to the news media landscape have influenced how the journalist translates information to create a news story, which—in turn— influence how an organization and its brand are perceived.

Perceptions of a company can vary among stakeholders and observers; though a company does have the ability to participate in the manufacturing of its brand, understandings and communication about a company's brand and reputation do not occur in a vacuum. People develop opinions of companies based on a variety of influences. The media play a large role in how people interpret and relate to organizations and their brands; in addition to the news media, other forms of media (e.g., entertainment media) include portrayals of brands that can largely contribute to how people understand an organization. This is especially the case for retail companies, which often rely on celebrity endorsements and popular culture references to boost visibility and solidify positive brand recognition. I argue that brand alignment with the media is perhaps the strongest it has ever been; corporations today work aggressively—yet meticulously—to manufacture positive brand recognition through product placement and partnerships that work to ingrain and cement reputations that command desire and fixation among target consumers. With the ever-increasing powers of the Internet of things (IoT) that continues to collect troves of customer data, coupled

with the ever-growing powers of search engine optimization (SEO), the online mediascape has become especially fertile ground for conditioning brand perception among consumers with the intent to win customers. However, just as quickly as these tools can be used to produce positive outcomes for a company, the media can become a threatening space of uncertainty and risk. It seems that today even the slightest false move or message can go viral, quickly impacting a company's brand reputation, and resulting in devastating financial setbacks.

When companies today enter a state of crisis, they are not only tasked with developing strategies to mitigate the problems threatening the company's well-being and operations, they are also tasked with developing a strategy to manage their reputation and brand. With the increasing volume and intensity of media reporting on organizational crises, companies are more often than not faced with managing the varied realities of the crisis that can be created by not only the company itself, but also the media. Narratives are developed through intralingual and interdiscursive translation of a multitude of sources to translate the crisis; these meanings and representations, however, also participate in the translation of a brand. Though the media can reiterate the sentiments and values of a brand through their narrations, they can also create narratives that are detrimental to the company's reputation.

To explore effective crisis response and further understand the ways in which the media participate in the construction of narratives about organizational crises, the following section introduces the case for this study. Being that the organizational crisis under investigation occurred at a women's retail company, a brief introduction to research on women's fashion and media coverage on women's fashion is presented. Information on the important role of branding and brand recognition in the fashion industry is presented. This is followed by an introduction to "athleisure", which is a popular genre of women's retail today, and the type of clothing most

commonly sold by the organization under investigation, which is Lululemon Athletica (Lulu). Information on the organizational crisis faced by this company is then presented. After presenting the case under investigation, the theoretical framework used to guide the study, which is based on the nature of the case, is outlined.

The Case Study: Lululemon Athletica

Women's Fashion and the Emergence of Athleisure

Up until the 19th century, limited research on the women's fashion and garment industry—let alone public discussion or media coverage about such—existed.¹⁵ Historically, public fascination and media coverage of fashion tends to obsess over the trends exhibited by European fashion houses and those worn by royalty, celebrities, political elite, and socialites. According to Barthes, “[d]ress is, in the fullest sense, a ‘social model’, a more or less standardized picture of expected behaviour—it is essentially at this level that it has meaning” (2006: 14). We make decisions about the social status and the role of the people we meet based on what they are wearing: we treat clothing as a communication tool. Barnard (1996) explains:

For centuries there were as many clothing items as there were social classes. Every social condition had its garment and there was no embarrassment in making an outfit into a veritable sign, since the gap between the classes was itself considered to be natural. So, on the one hand, clothing was subject to an entirely conventional code, but on the other, this code referred to a natural order, or even better to a divine

¹⁵ Barthes suggests that “truly scientific” research on dress began around 1860 (2006: 3). Dress and fashion continues to be based on a “leadership” that is aristocratic; it is very much a privileged and elitist industry (Barthes, 2006: 4).

order. To change clothes was to change both one's being and one's social class, since they were part and parcel of the same thing.

(Barnard, 1996: 6)

Fashionable clothing continues to be used in Western capitalist societies to affirm both membership of various cultural and social groups and individual/personal identity (Barnard, 1996). Fashion and clothing are considered reproductive practices; they are a method through which class and gender identity are signaled and constructed (Ibid). They can also be seen as revolutionary practices; for example, in choosing to wear or not wear a certain garment, colour, slogan, or logo, one may seek to communicate a distinct political stance or ideological message (Ibid). Clothing can allow the consumer to showcase their cultural and ideological identities and positions; it can also act as a vehicle for mediating social relationships (Oswald, 2012). Fashion-conscious consumers internalize popular messaging about fashion trends, as exhibited in the news media, popular culture, and specialized media texts (e.g., women's fashion magazines), and unspoken social rules about style and brand association, to create their image that is expressed through dress.

The role of brand in consumer fashion decisions is paramount to understanding fashion trends and communication materials about garments and the fashion industry at large. Oswald states that a brand is a “sign system that engages the consumer in an imaginary/symbolic process of need-fulfillment, differentiates the brand from competitors, and adds measurable value to a product offering” (2012: 44). Brand development and management is extremely important in today's fashion climate; it drives product development, advertising initiatives, and consumer interaction with products. In an industry that is constantly in flux—as new trends move in and out of vogue—brands must seek to stay recognized and relevant. Typically, haute couture has driven fashion trends, which ultimately influence the trends seen in less-expensive clothing brands. Though this top-down process of high-end brands influencing lower levels of the retail market

persists, the emergence and proliferation of the athleisure retail market in women's fashion is considered a unique and interesting case. This is due to athleisure's roots in leisure and athletic wear, which has traditionally not been considered high fashion.

One of the biggest trends in the fashion and retail worlds today is the rise of athleisure—athletic apparel that people can wear in both athletic and non-athletic settings (Petro, 2015, September 16). The trend has become so popular, it has carved out its own space in the clothing industry and is now included in the Merriam-Webster (2017) dictionary, where it is defined as “casual clothing meant to be worn both for exercising and for general use”. The general retail industry of athleisure is still surging after years of growth, which has spawned a high number of competitors from specialty players, such as YogaSmoga, Lole, Under Armour, and Nike.¹⁶ Athletic wear is now also being integrated into high fashion settings and being used to develop unique branding opportunities, as seen in, for example, Adidas' collaboration with celebrities and respected clothing designers such as Kanye West and Stella McCartney, respectively (see Figure 2). This intersection of leisurewear and haute couture continues to influence trends at various spectrums of the retail industry. Athleisure has proven to be more than a trend, with fashion observers and investors confirming that though once considered a fad, athleisure has now matured

¹⁶Other brands that have not traditionally been involved in carrying athleisure are now carrying athleisure lines, such as Victoria's Secret, Walmart, Gap, H&M, Forever 21, and Joe Fresh. Even luxury designers, such as Tory Burch, Versace, and Chanel have picked up the spirit by including athleisure-inspired designs in their collections (Shaw, 2016, December 12). The category of apparel is also now seen in department stores such as Hudson's Bay Company, Nordstrom, and Sears.

into its own retail genre. Canadian sales of athleisure have annually grown by an average of seven per cent since 2010 to an estimated \$4 billion market in 2016, up from \$2.7 billion in 2010, according to NPD Group Inc. (2016, September 27) (see Figure 3).



Figure 2: adidas by Stella McCartney Advertisement

(Stella McCartney, 2017, September 2017)

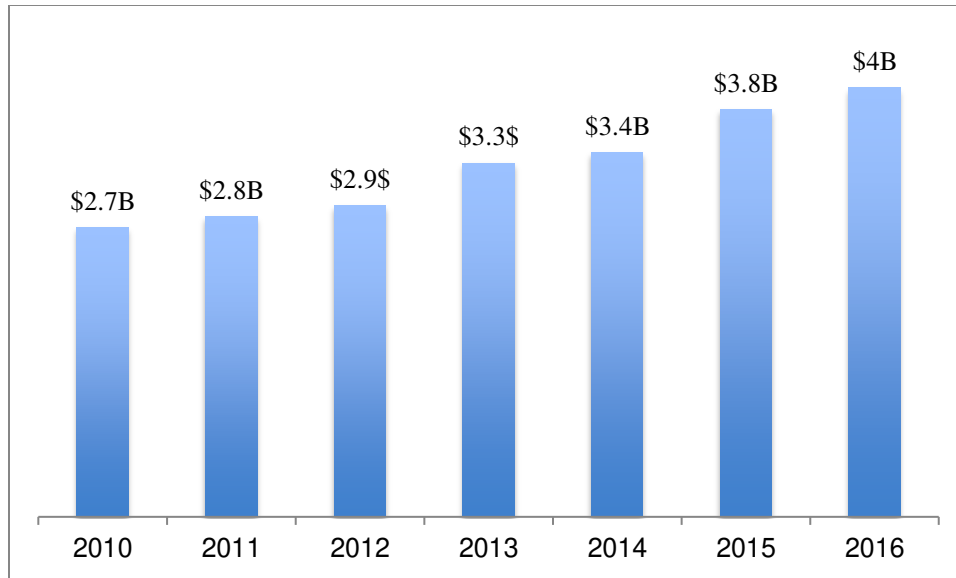


Figure 3: Canadian Athleisure: Dollar Sales

(NPD Group, 2016, September 2017)

Many companies and designers have propelled the athleisure trend, though few have been as influential as Canadian retailer, Lululemon Athletica. The company was able to drive the development of a unique genre of fashion (i.e., athleisure) through their product and brand innovation that has spawned a large movement in the fashion industry. Being that the company saw such great success, its crisis (which is the focus of this study) was highly publicized, garnering extensive media reports in Canada and abroad. Images of some of Lululemon's athleisure styles are exhibited below, which are followed by a detailed description of the case study, including a detailed description of the company and the crisis it faced.



Figure 4: Lululemon Athleisure Clothing (“Love Tee III”)

(Lululemon, 2017b)



Figure 5: Lululemon Athleisure Clothing (“Effortless Jacket”)

(Lululemon, 2017a)

Company Overview

Lululemon Athletica Inc. (NASDAQ: LULU) is a designer and retailer of technical athletic and leisure apparel marketed under the brand names of Ivivva Athletica (targeted at female youth ages 6-15) and Lululemon Athletica (targeted at adults). Both labels are based in Vancouver, British Columbia and carry similar products and accessories; however, Lulu was created first in 1998, while Ivivva is a newer addition to the company, created in 2009 (Ivivva, 2014). While Ivivva is gaining prominence in the youth athletic and leisurewear market, Lulu is the focus of this study, as its rise to success has made it one of Canada’s top brands and is a highly visible example of Canadian popular culture (e.g., Krashinsky, 2012, June 6; Shaw, 2014, April 8; Statista, 2014). As of January 27, 2017, Lulu boasts 351 stores worldwide and continues to grow (Lululemon

Athletica, 2017e) (see Table 1). Lulu’s ability to increase sales in existing stores and open new retail locations is driven by growing demand for the company’s technical athletic apparel and increasing recognition of the Lulu brand, which aligns with many activities and values in Canadian society (e.g., outdoor activities, healthy living, and athleticism).

United States	245
Canada	51
Australia	27
United Kingdom	9
New Zealand	5
China	3
Hong Kong	3
Singapore	3
South Korea	2
Germany	1
Puerto Rico	1
Switzerland	1

Table 1: Location and Number of Lulu's Stores Worldwide

Inspired by the emerging interest in yoga and athleticism among women and the lack of compatible technical fabrics for such (e.g., cotton), founder Dennis “Chip” Wilson created an athletic yet stylish clothing line. Central to Lulu’s success is “luon”; invented by Wilson, it is the company’s signature fabric. This proprietary four-way stretch material used to make various clothing articles (e.g., shorts, fitness pants, jackets, skirts, and tops) is moisture-wicking,¹⁷

¹⁷ Moisture-wicking fabrics are alleged to increase comfort and reduce heat stress of the wearer by wicking moisture and sweat away from the skin (Nassar & Abou-Taleb, 2014). These types of fabrics have become increasingly popular in professional and recreational sporting clothing (Bishop et al., 2013).

breathable, feels cottony soft, and does not shrink (Lululemon Athletica. 2014d).¹⁸ Although the clothing company originally occupied a niche market comprised mainly of female athletes, the retailer currently manufactures athleisure clothing for an assortment of purposes, such as leisure wear and street wear,¹⁹ is becoming increasingly popular among males, and sells fitness-related accessories (e.g., bags, yoga mats, and water bottles). Lulu employs a distinctive branding strategy, which focuses on community involvement, innovation and technology, and ensuring that retail spaces²⁰ are constantly being stocked with new materials, placing a sense of urgency on buyers.

¹⁸ In addition to luon, various other technical fabrics unique to Lulu are currently used in the design of its apparel.

¹⁹ Leisure wear is a casual form of clothing designed mainly for comfort to be worn during times of recreation and/or relaxation, such as jogging pants and hooded sweaters, for example. Street wear, while also containing elements of casual and comfort, is more fashion-forward than leisurewear, placing focus on stylish and trendy ways to dress casually. Street wear designs are also more likely to come from top shelf designers than leisurewear.

²⁰ Lulu sells their materials through three platforms: retail stores (i.e., corporate-owned stores and showrooms), direct-to-consumer, and other. The majority of Lulu's sales are gained through corporate-owned stores, which are retail spaces that carry both the company's core items (products that are sold year-round) and seasonal items. Showrooms are also retail spaces, but they are usually located in regions where no corporate-owned locations have opened yet; they tend to carry only core items or items that are specifically suited to the community and have select operating hours. Showrooms are often temporary spaces (commonly open through busy shopping seasons, such as December) that operate as a testing space for the brand to see how it is received in the community, so as to gauge if and how a corporate-owned

The company’s “Manifesto” is also central to its brand (Lululemon Athletica, 2017f), which is comprised of one-line prescriptions that appeal to self-betterment (e.g., “breathe deeply”, “do one thing a day that scares you”, and “friends are more important than money”) (see Figure 6).



Figure 6: Lululemon Manifesto

(Lululemon Athletica, 2017c)

space would be effective. Direct-to-consumer sales are facilitated through Lulu’s e-commerce website (www.lululemon.com). Lulu also derives revenue from other sources, which include outlets, wholesale, and warehouse sales. Outlets and warehouse sales occur infrequently per annum and are meant to sell unsold inventory from prior seasons and slow-moving items to the public at discounted prices. Lulu also sells through wholesale customers (e.g., select premium health clubs, fitness centres, and yoga studios).

Lulu began with bright beginnings and was well-received by its target consumers; today, it is also enjoying growth. However, the company faced a challenging patch between 2012 and 2014. According to Lulu's 2013 annual report, the company's net revenue increased from \$40.7 million in fiscal 2004 to \$1.6 billion in fiscal 2013, representing a compound annual growth rate of 50%. Although the net revenue increased from \$1.370 billion in fiscal 2012 to \$1.591 billion in fiscal 2013, the report disclosed a substantial revenue loss in fiscal 2013 due to the costs incurred by company turmoil, resulting in a lower than expected growth rate for the company. Between 2013 and 2014, most of the changes and additions to the Lulu board of directors (BoD) (which is currently comprised of nine members) were strategic moves to help the company overcome issues pertaining to brand perception and product quality, and to continue global growth. Following the challenges faced by Lulu, their 2013 annual report indicated the need for future growth and recalibration. The company indicated that it sought to: increase net revenue in its current retail footprint; focus on the burgeoning opportunities in e-commerce sales; and to expand their global presence (e.g., to Europe and Asia). However, three main challenges were identified in these goals: 1) Lulu no longer monopolized the women's athleisure apparel market, as other strong competitors emerged, such as Under Armour, Nike, Adidas, Victoria's Secret, and various boutique designer brands; 2) global expansion proved to be complicated and risky due to differences in foreign markets; and 3) Lulu needed to repair its image after facing an organizational crisis that resulted in product quality issues, turmoil among senior leadership, and was highly publicized by Canadian and international media.

Organizational Quality Management Crisis

A preliminary review of its corporate literature and media reports (mostly Canadian and some international) revealed that Lulu faced an organizational quality management crisis (OQMC), which occurred due to a lack of quality management (QM). With an approximate lifecycle spanning between March 2013 and August 2014, the OQMC resulted in a variety of events that seriously impacted the organization in its entirety. Though a wide body of research on QM exists (e.g., Crosby 1979; 1984; Deming 1986; Gitlow, 2001; Jones, 2014; Juran; 1986; Paraschivescu, 2014; Rahmani & Emamisaleh, 2014; Sathishkumar & Karthikeyan, 2014), the description proposed by Liepiņa, Lapiņa, and Mazais is particularly useful in the context of this study: they define QM as “the process whereby certain operations are performed to ensure the achievement of the objectives and improve the company’s performance” (2014: 630). QM is necessary “to identify, target, control and coordinate the various elements (aims, processes, resources, etc.) within the organization” (2014: 630), allowing for organizations to ensure that the quality of their products, services, and performance remain within the expected standard guidelines. QM requires constant evaluation of standards, complete corporate involvement, and succinct communication throughout all levels of the organization. The absence of QM can result in a vast array of issues and, in the case of Lulu, led to an organization-wide crisis involving various negative events, such as product quality issues, senior leadership turmoil, and serious threats to the company’s brand reputation.

Lulu’s QM issues were expressed through a variety of symptoms that demonstrate multiple instances in which various players and aspects of the organization failed to meet standards and guidelines that are governed by QM. Based on a review of the symptoms of Lulu’s OQMC

(outlined below), a variety of questions emerge pertaining to the ways in which this crisis could have been de-escalated more quickly, sustained a shorter lifecycle, or simply been avoided.

S1: Product Quality Issues

On March 18, 2013 Lulu issued a press release stating that approximately one-fifth of all women's yoga pants (made with the company's signature fabric called "luon") available in stores since March 1, 2013 did not meet their technical fabric specifications, resulting in a level of sheerness that did not meet Lulu's standards (e.g., Dietrich, 2014; Lululemon Athletica, 2013, March 18a; Lululemon Athletica, 2013, March 18b). Stock suspected of defects was removed from the stores and Lulu offered customers who had purchased pants since March 1, 2013 a full refund. This issue cost the company approximately US\$60 million in sales (e.g., Clifford, 2013, March 21; Strauss, 2013, March 21) and sparked debate over the quality of the retailer's clothing and its supply and manufacturing arrangements. The various problems related to the women's luon yoga pants (e.g., transparency of fabric, unsatisfied customers, women's luon yoga pants stock shortage) is referred to as the sheer luon issues (SLI).

S2: CEO Steps Down

Approximately three months after S1, Lulu's CEO Christine Day stepped down after five and a half years in the position (Jopson, 2013, June 10). Day's resignation was deemed a large loss due to the positive impact that her leadership had on the company. While Lulu has been successful throughout its existence, it demonstrated notable growth during Day's tenure; the company's annual revenue more than quintupled to US\$1.37 billion and profits rose nearly nine times to US\$271 million under Day's leadership (Ng, 2013, June 10). Day agreed to continue in her role

until a new CEO was hired; Laurent Potdevin has been the CEO since January 2014. Potdevin is a strong candidate for the position; he has worked in various industries relevant to Lulu, such as women's luxury fashion, retail, and sporting goods. Despite praise of his abilities and credentials, Potdevin took on the CEO position in the wake of a costly and reputation-marring crisis.

S3: Founder's Comments on Women's Bodies

On November 6, 2013, founder Dennis Wilson discussed the women's yoga pants sheerness issue during an interview with Trish Regan on Bloomberg TV, stating that the company's pants do not work for all female body types (e.g., CBC News, 2013, November 7). The public received these comments negatively; many people accused Wilson of female body shaming. Wilson's comments were particularly damaging to the company's reputation, as Lulu's target market tends to be adult women and much of the company's branding centralizes around self-betterment and female empowerment.

S4: Senior Leadership Turmoil and Turnover

Approximately one month after Wilson's comments about Lulu's pants and their suitability with only some women's bodies, the founder stepped down from his position as chairman, remaining a director (e.g., CBC News, 2014, August 7). His resignation—which was highly publicized in the media—resulted in turmoil between the board of directors and Wilson. To avoid further turbulence and company damage, the BoD and Wilson agreed to settle their issues in August 2014 (Strauss, 2014, August 7).

S5: Decrease in Lulu's Profits

Due to a succession of negative events experienced by Lulu, the company experienced a decrease in profits. Financial reporting continued to indicate lower numbers than expected due to a meaningful deceleration in online traffic and sales, prompting the company to issue various warnings to investors, which resulted in a decrease in the value of the company's shares.

Translation of Lulu's Crisis

Organizational Crisis Communication Today: Managing the Message(s)

One of the most effective organizational crisis management tools is strategic communication to inform the public and stakeholders about the situation (Griese, 2002). In the case of Lulu, strategic crisis communication was particularly pertinent to help combat sales decreases and the jeopardization of its reputation. However, being that the organization has become a popular brand, the media have also seen success in covering stories about the company—even prior to the OQMC. Although media attention to the company was predominantly positive prior to the OQMC, particularly when covering Lulu's rise to stardom as a Canadian company, these negative events became increasingly attractive to the media due to the organization's high visibility and large consumer base. Thus, both parties (i.e., Lulu and the media) had vested interests in communicating about the crisis. For Lulu, communicating about the crisis in a strategic manner was necessary in managing the situation and reducing damages to the organization. Yet, for the media, coverage of this event was known to be of interest to many audience members due to its popularity and well-known success. For the media, this became an opportunity to unveil a dramatic story about an organization that had been traditionally seen as a positive, reliable, and innovative brand. In this, the crisis communication administered by the organization in an attempt to manage the situation was challenged by the media's alternate narratives.

The climate in which organizations must communicate today poses a plethora of new challenges and opportunities that require strategic decision-making, which commonly fall outside the boundaries of traditional organizational communication practices. To succeed and survive, organizations must be adaptive to the continuously evolving and highly competitive markets in which they function. Crisis communication strategy is a distinct type of organizational communication that is not immune to the changes spawned by technology and globalization. While organizational crisis communication today still seeks to manage these “severe stress situations” (Eid, 2014b: 251), the strategies employed must consider the dynamic nature of the society with which it is communicating. A central challenge to this process is ensuring that the messages disseminated to external audiences are developed to properly portray the information in a manner that is clear, concise, and that seeks to de-escalate the crisis. However, audiences and stakeholders may also rely on other communication channels, such as the news media, to obtain or verify information about the crisis.

The news media have become highly powerful entities; conglomerates often have global reach, rapidly providing audiences with information about events. In response to these challenges, an organization’s crisis communication strategy must seek to understand how external forces, such as the media, impact the management of crises to develop practices that combat such issues. Discourse is ultimately an inherent part of the social construction of organizations and the crises they may face; it is a part of organizational action, as it defines and redefines what is justified and legitimate (Vaara & Tienari, 2002). Organizational discourse constructs social identities, which also means the (re)production of power relationships. Media texts are an essential part of this (re)production, although organizational scholars have only lately given specific attention to this area of research (Ibid).

Competing Narratives of the Crisis: Lulu versus the Media

Journalists who seek to depict a crisis often turn to an organization's communication about the event (which includes the organization's narratives of the crisis) to develop content; this may include press releases, annual reports, or blog posts about the event. They also may rely on other media coverage (e.g., past news reports or news reports from other media outlets) or information shared via social media (e.g., messages sent from the organization's social media accounts or information sent from peoples' social media accounts who work at the organization). Through their interpretations of such, they create a new narrative by reformulating this information. These media narratives entail discourse that has been translated by the rephrasing of lexical items, grammatical structures, rhetoric, argumentation, and discourse of the source text (the organization's crisis communication) to explain, clarify, or develop for the purpose of the target text (the media story), creating an alternate narrative of the event. This process is highly complex, particularly because the process of a journalist's translation procedure is subject to variables (e.g., past personal experiences, personal vested interests in the crisis, and the media outlet's corporate interests), which influence the output of this process. Thus, although strategy can be employed by an organization to create clear and concise communication, there remains a margin of uncertainty in the journalism—or translation—process. To understand how media narratives are developed and how they may impact audiences' perceptions of a crisis, it is useful to perceive journalists as translators who seek to re-create narratives and communicate them through media texts. Here, competing narratives can emerge in the texts, namely, the narratives of the crisis communicated via the organizational crisis communication, and the narratives of the crisis communicated in the media.

Translation for the purpose of news content creation—whether interlingual, interdiscursive, or intralingual—is dependent on two contexts: the original discourse situation, which is anchored in a specific discourse content, and the target discourse situation, which is located in and oriented toward a new context of use. As the translating agent (e.g., the journalist) links the two situations by engaging in an act of re-situating the first context into a new discourse-in-context, parts of the prior discourse as manifested in the source text may be lifted from the original setting, re-perspectivized, differently foregrounded, blended with other voices, and relocated in a new setting. Fundamental to the exploration of the translation of text and discourse for the purpose of the media (which results in a re-narration), is the translator’s/journalist’s use of a wide range of discursive translation strategies of omission, addition, re-perspectivation, generalization, and particularization to transfer and transform meaning. “People seek information about the crisis and evaluate the cause of the event and the organizational responsibility for the crisis based on media coverage of the crisis” (An & Gower, 2009: 107). Therefore, it is important to look at how the media narrate a crisis event, the cause of the crisis, and the actors responsible for it, because those narratives influence the public’s perception and impressions on the organization.

Crisis Response, Crisis Narratives, and Organizational Reputation

The symptoms identified in a preliminary review of the crisis indicate that the QM issues—which began with the SLI—extended into many aspects of the company. With this, there is an opportunity to examine how the crisis was managed, to potentially identify aspects of the crisis response that were effective in de-escalating the crisis, and aspects that were not effective, and therefore further escalated the crisis. Ultimately, the effectiveness of the crisis response impacts whether the

company may recover from the incident, which is heavily influenced by how the crisis is perceived. Public perception in organizational crises is critical to an organization's ability to recover from a crisis. An organization's reputation and brand image are valued resources (Coombs & Holladay, 2002). Crises—which ultimately disrupt an organization's operations—threaten to damage organizational reputations. An organization's communicative response to a crisis can serve to limit and even to repair the reputational damage. However, the advent of digital innovations has spawned a highly interactive and powerful, global mediascape that involves social media, blogging, and a 24-hour news cycle. This multimedia mediascape manufactures meaning of—for example—people, events, and organizations, that can have profound influence on how the public perceive, understand, and relate to such. While the meanings and perceptions of crisis can be developed and disseminated through a variety of mediums, van der Meer and Verhoeven (2013), insist that outside of crises that generate shocking, visceral images (as seen, for instance, in catastrophic humanitarian crises and war), *meaning is given to a crisis predominantly by words*. This is especially true in organizational crises, when the cause of a crisis may be driven by symptoms that may not produce highly impactful visual evidence, such as corporate scandals, financial reporting, and legal issues. In the case of an organizational crisis, perceptions about the company are more important than reality (Benoit, 1997). For example, it does not matter if the company is in fact responsible for the crisis, but whether the company is thought to be responsible for it by the relevant audience (Ibid). It is text that contributes to the development of narratives about the crisis that influence how the organizational crisis is perceived.

Central to learning about crisis response best practices is examining the effectiveness of crisis communication in crisis scenarios (Len-Ríos, 2010). To evaluate the effectiveness of organizational crisis response, scholars have often used attitudinal (e.g., opinion poll data) or

behavioural measurement (e.g., voting results, purchasing activity) at the late crisis stage or after the crisis has been de-escalated (Ibid). However, this study looks specifically at textual artifacts that are produced during a crisis that can impact how a crisis and organization are perceived. Here, perception of the crisis is directly linked to communication about the crisis. For the purpose of this study, communication is conceptualized in relation to narratives. This is because the basic principle of human knowing and exploring can be conceptualized through stories and storytelling (Turner, 1996); narrative is fundamental to human understanding and intentional behavior (Bruner, 2003). Our realities—the events, people, and institutions, for example—that we encounter are understood through narratives. To understand how a crisis is understood and perceived, examining the textual narratives created by information streams relevant to the goals of this study can allow for a comprehensive analysis of the outcomes of an organization’s crisis response. According to Yang, Kang, and Johnson (2010), crisis communication “is essentially narratives” (2010: 3).

The ways in which communication is developed ultimately impacts how audiences receive it and also how the media create narratives pertaining to the situation. Without attention to the process through which information is developed for the purpose of communicating with the public and stakeholders about a crisis, negative outcomes can arise. This is because the media are highly powerful entities in today’s networked society; they are influential opinion shapers that have increasingly broad global reach. Organizations must seek to develop and protect their brand through communication strategies that seek to minimize the flaws of news media translation (i.e., intralingual and interdiscursive translation) of the organizational crisis and its crisis management strategies. Therefore, this study seeks to examine the ways in which both text and discourse are translated in news media coverage of an organizational crisis; specifically, the ways in which the Canadian news media intralingually translate and interdiscursively translate information about

Lulu's OQMC to create new narratives for media content. Therefore, this study first documents the nature of the narratives presented in the company's corporate literature. Next, the study analyzes the nature of the narratives presented in the media reports about the crisis. In analyzing these two information streams, it is possible to examine the different themes and sub-themes presented in the text and dissect the process through which narratives were translated from the corporate literature to the news media coverage. To thoroughly examine the process through which narratives are translated from one information stream to another, the analysis is twofold: it looks at the textual/linguistic changes demonstrated between the two texts, and also the discursive changes demonstrated between the two texts. This seeks to develop a thorough understanding of the intralingual and interdiscursive practices that are involved in the (re)narration of the OQMC presented by the news media.

This study draws primarily upon translation theories, focusing particularly on intralingual and interdiscursive translation models and narrative theory to understand and analyze the ways in which the media translate information to create their own narratives about Lulu's crisis. Crisis theories are also drawn upon to understand and analyze the role of communication in organizational crisis management. Here, it is important to identify effective crisis communication strategies and understand how they can be implemented. A specific focus of the crisis communication theoretical investigation is the ways in which the contemporary, globalized environment impacts organizations in crisis, especially with regards to the ways in which the media can participate in or obstruct an organization's communication with the public. Although the media can often help in de-escalating a crisis, in the case of Lulu, it is evident that the media often presented alternate or additional narratives of the crisis, potentially obstructing the organization's ability to deescalate the crisis in a timely manner and limit damage to the company's brand.

Translation activities are central to this process; thus, the ways in which information was reformulated and expressed in the different information streams through narratives are evaluated. By indicating the patterns and processes of translation (both intralingual and interdiscursive), this study seeks to examine the ways in which translation processes function in news media content creation to create and ultimately rewrite narratives through intralingual and interdiscursive processes. By examining the themes and sub-themes presented in the text and discourse, it is possible to analyze the different narratives presented in the two information streams about the crisis. In doing this, the study also seeks to consider the crisis communication strategies employed by Lulu, to potentially provide insight into the ways in which organizations can optimize their communication strategies in the future, based on the information gained from this study regarding news media translation of high stress situations.

Situating Translation

In presenting the theoretical framework that will guide this study, the case that is the focus of this study, and presenting the purpose and context of this study in this Chapter, I have demonstrated the prominent role of the field of TS and translation theories in this dissertation, seeking to explain and justify an understanding of translation that goes beyond translation proper. I have ventured to re-imagine translation beyond the traditional understandings of interlingual translation, and demonstrate how the process of journalism (i.e., in the case of this study: textual news media content creation) can be envisioned as a translation process—one that entails both intralingual translation processes and interdiscursive translation process—which draws on a variety of sources to create a new, hybrid version of a text for the purpose of news reporting. I have worked to demonstrate that not only is it advantageous for TS scholars to look beyond that traditional

confines of translation definitions, it is also particularly opportune for other disciplines to draw on theories and models from TS due to their ability to dissect and explore the functions and processes involved in the movement of information from one domain to another.

Certainly, one may argue that other fields offer similar tools, motivating questions such as” “Why is this translation?”, “Why must this be understood as translation and not some other activity?”, or “Why must textual journalistic content creation be considered translation and not simply a communication activity?”. Though all valid and constructive, these questions are thought to represent the traditional—and thus instinctive—placement and categorization of journalism and textual news media content creation into the domain of communication and media studies. Surely, this is not a false or incorrect understanding of journalism; however, the nature and goals of this study require the drawing upon of translation theories and models, which resulted in the need to conceptualize and understand journalism as an intralingual and interdiscursive translation process. Namely, the study’s focus on organization crisis communication makes the translation approach especially pertinent.

A review of current literature on organizational crisis communication points to the media’s growing fascination—and in turn, coverage of—organizations and organizational crisis (e.g., Allan & Savingy, 2012; Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 2003). In this, the media’s choices in which crises they cover and how they are framed largely impact an organization’s ability to manage high stress situations and general organizational behaviour and decision-making (Czarniawska & Sevón, 1996). The media’s influence on the depiction of organizational crises also places various challenges and threats to organizations in crisis seeking to manage the event and maintain a positive reputation. In this, there emerges an urgent need to reflect upon and further refine

organizational crisis communication strategies, to inform innovative approaches and theories to organizational crisis management theory.

Like journalism, crisis communication has traditionally been housed in the communication studies sub-discipline of public relations, wherein scholars have been mainly focused on investigating organizational crisis communication strategies and channels, while failing to look specifically at the ways in which the media and journalists *operate* in crisis reporting. Schranz and Eisenege (2016) explicitly state that it is becoming increasingly important for organizational crisis communication research to shift its focus to the media and their content creation processes. Thus, being that this study seeks to examine organizational crisis communication as narrated by the company in crisis and the media, a microscopic look at the functioning of textual and discursive changes is required. Though other disciplines have certainly looked at the interaction between the organizations and the media during a time of organizational crisis, this study ventures to examine the processes involved in how narratives are transferred across realities, recontextualized for different audiences, and adapted to meet the goals and constraints of different ideological spheres.

The core essence of translation—arguably unlike other transformative concepts—emphasizes a realization and allows for an analysis of the movement of knowledge through text and discourse (e.g., Eid & Basalamah, 2012 & Basalamah, 2014). This approach of understanding the process of transfer through language continues to be an essential pillar of translation theory and research today, and thus, provides a plethora of models and ideas to support the exploration and analysis of such activities in a variety of contexts. In this, the conceptualization of textual journalistic content creation as a translation activity not only allows for a detailed and granular analysis of the changes in the (re)narration of information about the crisis in the news media, but it also offers an opportunity to respond to the compelling need to re-envision approaches to

exploring solutions for the new organizational crisis communication challenges faced by organizations in today's ever-changing networked society.

Chapter 3

Methodology

As outlined in previous chapters, this study is guided by theories that conceptualize textual journalism as a process of translation, which results in new narratives for the purpose of news media reporting. This translation process is said to be both *intralingual* and *interdiscursive* in nature; that is, not only is the text linguistically translated to create a new version of the text (i.e., for the purpose of creating a news story), but these linguistic changes are also said to represent the recontextualization of discourses in the text. To examine the workings of this process, this study looks at the ways in which two different information streams narrated the OQMC faced by Lulu. The two information streams are Lulu's communication about the crisis (LC) and media reports about Lulu's crisis (MRL). For the purpose of this study, LC is deemed the source text and MRL is deemed the target text.

The messages found in LC and MRL are analyzed to examine the ways each information stream narrates the crisis. To do so, corpora are analyzed for the themes and sub-themes presented in the text. The analysis looks not only at the two depictions of the crisis in the two separate information streams, but also seeks to examine the ways in which the media translate messaging about the crisis to create narratives that are, for example, similar or contradictory to the messages communicated by the organization in crisis. In this Chapter, I first present and define the concepts that are used to address the research questions and other major themes used in this study. Next, I outline the research questions. This is followed by an explanation of the research design and then

the research methods, which include a qualitative content analysis (QCA) and critical discourse analysis (CDA). I then explain the data collection and analysis; this includes information on the sampling strategy and size, the data selection procedures, and the data coding and analysis procedures. This is followed by a detailed description of the outcomes of the analysis.

Concepts and Conceptualization

In qualitative research, the concepts central to the study must be reflected upon; thus, to ensure accurate measurement in this study, key concepts are defined and their scope delimited; a process called conceptualization. Conceptualization refers to “taking an abstract construct and refining it by giving it a conceptual or theoretical definition” (Neuman, 2011a: 168). While it is acknowledged that many different definitions for a single construct can exist, the process of conceptualization is employed to link the language of theory with the language of empirical measures (Neuman, 2011a). This process requires thinking through the various possible meanings of a construct and developing a conceptual definition that presents a “clear, explicit, and specific meaning” that corresponds to the main goals of the study (Ibid). The following concepts are used to address the research questions and other major themes used in this study: *crisis*, *crisis communication*, *crisis response*, *crisis symptoms*, *discourse*, *effectiveness*, *interdiscursive translation*, *intra-lingual translation*, *lifecycle*, *narrative*, *organizational crisis*, and *translation*.

Crisis

Eid’s (2008) definition of crisis is the most appropriate for the purpose of this study; by employing the characteristics approach to defining a crisis, he seeks to evaluate the primary features that distinguish and determine the attributes of a crisis situation. Eid defines a crisis as a sudden

destructive threat to the foundation of a system in combination with uncertainty as to the evolution of events. A crisis “has a lifecycle that begins instantly and grows quickly towards maturity that may or may not be managed, but may not be resolved” (Ibid: 44).

Crisis Communication

Crisis communication entails the provision of information about the situation to audiences and stakeholders, which seeks to de-escalate the crisis, limit the duration of the lifecycle, and reduce the impact of the crisis on the agents and systems affected (e.g., Garnett & Kouzmin, 1999; Ulmer, Sellnow & Seeger, 2015). Crisis communication techniques (e.g., how much information is shared, the channels through which information is shared, and the information sharing timing) vary depending on the crisis and should “direct stakeholder responses and impressions” about the system in crisis (Ray, 1999: 48).

Crisis Response

Crisis response is characterized by how an organization in crisis behaves; specifically, what and how crisis management techniques that seek to result in the de-escalation or inactivation of a crisis are deployed (e.g., Eid, 2008; Lewis, 2006; Reid, 2000). The purpose of crisis response is to manage the situation and to preserve the vital interests of the system; it should seek to mitigate the crisis and provide support to those affected by it (Crandall, Parnell & Spillan, 2010). Crisis response techniques and tools may vary depending on the specific crisis; however, communication is critical in effective crisis response (e.g., Botan, Ferguson & Sintay, 2014; George, 2012; Seeger, 2006; Ying & Pheng, 2014).

Crisis Symptoms

The term “crisis symptoms” refers to the ways in which characteristics of a crisis are expressed. Crisis symptoms, like symptoms of an illness experienced by a human, are observable indications of a crisis occurring within a system (Pierotti, 2009). They can be mistaken for the actual crisis itself; however, a crisis is a larger invasion of the system that requires expansive management techniques (Ray, 1999). Crisis managers can more easily decide on the most appropriate response to a crisis by classifying the situation based on its symptoms (Lerbinger, 2012). Thus, identifying symptoms of the crisis and distinguishing them from the crisis itself are essential to crisis management.

Discourse

Discourse refers to the meanings and ideas conveyed through language (Saldanha & O’Brien, 2013). It is the “language above the sentence”; that is, “words, clauses, phrases, or sentences are never considered in isolation, unless they constitute texts in themselves” (Ibid: 52). Discourse is language that has, and is informed by, social and ideological dimensions (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). The discourse of specific focus in this study is that which is found in Lulu’s narration of the crisis (which is found in its organizational communication throughout the lifecycle of the crisis) and the media’s narration of the crisis (which is found in media texts, such as newspaper articles). Being that the discourse under investigation will be in corporate literature and media texts, it is important to note that the language found in such is considered text that is positioned to communicate specific corporate and institutional ideologies. Media texts, however, possess special properties that are related to the structure and interests of media conglomerates, which often have powerful agendas pertaining to corporate agendas (Davis, 1985).

Effectiveness

Effectiveness refers to the organization's communication about the crisis and its ability to manage the crisis. In the case of crisis communication, the purpose of messaging is to provide information in a way that seeks to de-escalate the crisis (Ulmer, Sellnow & Seeger, 2015). Effective crisis communication entails accurate uptake of information that results in the management of the crisis (Griese, 2002); thus, the more effective the communication, the better the prospects for managing the crisis successfully (Crandall, Parnell & Spillan, 2010).

Interdiscursive Translation

Drawing on Moser, interdiscursive translation is defined as “carrying over discourse elements from one discourse to another” (1981: 14). He states that discourse elements can vary in nature: stylistic features, verbal features, concepts, methods, objects, and modes of predication (to name a few). The operation of interdiscursive translation “performs the transversal mobility of the discourse system and in this function, is always an indicator and an operator of its modification” (Moser, 1981: 14-15). Thus, in the context of this study, interdiscursive translation refers to the process through which discourse is translated from one context (i.e., information stream, either LC or MRL) to another.

Intralingual Translation

Intralingual translation is defined as the rephrasing of lexical items and grammatical structures—“rewording” (Jakobson, 1959/2012: 127)—of the source text to create the target text (Pillière, 2010). It is a monolingual process that involves adapting a text for a new purpose in the same language (Zethsen, 2007). For the purposes of this study, intralingual translation is contextualized

as a process through which Lulu's communication about the crisis is rewritten by the media to create alternative narratives of the crisis.

Lifecycle

When the human body is infected by an illness, the unfolding of the sickness and the healing of such entails duration, which is dependent on many variables. It can have a short or lengthy timespan and may require specific methods of treatment to neutralize or disarm the bodily invasion. Similarly, when a system (e.g., nation, organization, or person) is in crisis, it is also infected; this infection takes place over a timespan that is referred to as the "lifecycle" of the crisis (e.g., Fink, 1986; Gonzalez-Herrero & Pratt, 1996). Though the duration of crises' lifecycles varies, all pass through distinct phases of emergence, escalation, and de-escalation (e.g., Avraham & Ketter, 2008; Coombs, 2007; Moore & Seymour, 2005).

Narrative

Narrative is a (re)presentation that seeks to communicate information by telling a story (Herman, 2012). It is a communicative process in which information about an event or sequence of events is conveyed by a particular kind of narrator to a particular audience (Herman, 2009). Although narratives can be found in any text that contains languages, gestures, images, or aspects of these (Wigston, 2001), due to the focus of this study, only narratives found in Lulu's communication about the crisis and media texts about the crisis are investigated. Thus, a narrative is a structure that is manifested in a media text, which is made up of specific discourse and context (Herman, 2009).

Organizational Crisis

For this study, the definition of the term “organizational crisis” is guided by the conceptualization of the term “crisis”. That is, an organizational crisis is simply a crisis that occurs within a specific system, which is, in the case of this study, an organization. This type of crisis is an unexpected event or series of events that result in high levels of uncertainty and “simultaneously present an organization with both *opportunities* for and *threats* to its *high-priority goals*” (Ulmer, Sellnow & Seeger, 2015: 8, *emphasis in original*).

Translation

As outlined in Chapter Two, “translation” continues to be a challenging term to define. Not only is the term used and appropriated in various contexts outside of the academy and within various scholarly disciplines, even scholars within TS continue to grapple with pinpointing its definition. Thus, here I seek to outline how translation is perceived and understood so as to support the purpose of this study, which is to examine the ways in which information is recontextualized from one information stream to another (i.e., LC and MRL). Being that each information stream exists with different goals and realities, information is not only transferred, but it may be *transformed* (e.g., adapted or reformed) to meet the goals, contexts, or constraints of the target text’s reality (Basalamah, 2010; 2014). Therefore, translation is seen as a transformative or recontextualizing process that involves the movement of information and discourse across information streams for the purpose of creating new narratives that fulfill the goals and expectations of the various realities that are (re)constructed through discourse.

Within this specific study, this transformation/recontextualization process is understood within the context of textual news media content creation about an organizational crisis faced by

a company (Lulu). For the purpose of this study, Lulu’s corporate literature (i.e., Lulu’s communication about the crisis, “LC”) are deemed the source texts, and the textual news pieces that cover the organizational crisis are deemed the target texts. These different information streams are understood as platforms through which narratives about the crisis are created and communicated through text, which have the ability to construct the crisis in different ways through linguistic functions and discursive practices. Thus, the creation of news content about the crisis is considered a process of translation. Though both the source text and the target text move across the same language (i.e., English)—and is thus an intralingual translation activity—both the source text and the target text do not share the same discourse, as they are situated in different realities with different contexts, goals, and constraints, and is thus an interdiscursive translation activity. Therefore, not only is translation in the context of this study deemed a process of transformation for the purpose of news media content creation, but it is understood on both the textual/linguistic level (intralingual translation) and on the discursive level (interdiscursive translation).

Research Questions

Research questions are a major component of this thesis, as they drive the inquisitive direction of this study. To explore the variances between Lulu’s communication (LC) and the media reports about Lulu (MRL) during the crisis, the following are key research questions (RQs):

RQ1: How does LC narrate the crisis?

RQ2: How do the MRL narrate the crisis?

RQ3: How do the media translate LC about the crisis?

RQ4: How do the narrations of the crisis differ between the two information streams?

Research Design

This study evaluates the messages found in LC and MRL to conduct an analysis of the ways in which Lulu narrated the crisis and the ways in which the media translated such (through intralingual translation and interdiscursive translation) to create their own narratives of the crisis. Employing inductive reasoning, this study focuses on the specific messages communicated in LC and MRL, and then generalizes the findings to the wider issues of news media translation and organizational crisis communication. It is microscopic, as it only utilizes content focused specifically on Lulu's OQMC; however, in comparing the narratives of the two information streams and investigating the media's translation processes, the study may be able to relate the findings to other companies facing a similar crisis. To achieve the purpose of this study and provide responses to the research questions, this study uses a qualitative content analysis, which is informed by principles of critical discourse analysis.

Qualitative Research

According to Eid (2011), qualitative research is concerned with issues of the texture, richness, and feeling of raw data because its inductive approach emphasizes developing generalizations and insights from the data collected. It also seeks to become intimate with the details of a natural setting or a specific cultural-historical context; thus, this type of research tends to rely on interpretive or critical social science. Qualitative research stresses conducting detailed examinations of cases that arise in the natural flow of social life, and tries to present authentic interpretations that are sensitive to particular socio-historical contexts. In qualitative research, fewer explicit steps or standardized procedures are used; it is not uncommon for on-the-spot techniques to be devised for one situation or study. Qualitative researchers rarely separate design and planning decisions into a distinct pre-

data collection stage, but continue to develop the study design throughout early data collection. Being that this study is concerned with the themes and sub-themes communicated through text and discourse to create narratives in the two information streams, approaching this study from a qualitative perspective and using qualitative analytical methods is used.

Methods

This study draws on the principles of two analytic approaches: qualitative content analysis and critical discourse analysis. These two approaches are used for this study to respond to the study's goals to examine the translation of narratives about the OQMC from the LC to create the MRL. As discussed in Chapter Two, the processes of textual content creation for the purpose of news media reporting is conceptualized as a translation process. In this, LC is deemed the source texts (wherein the narratives about the OQMC are said to have originated) and the MRL is deemed the target text (wherein the new narratives about the OQMC are said to be rewritten and recontextualized to meet its goals, constraints, and contexts). To analyze how the two different information streams depict the crisis through narrative, this translation process is considered simultaneously intralingual and interdiscursive—that is, a dual-layered activity that occurs at both the linguistic and discursive level. This dual-layered approach to the analysis of the corpora is largely guided by Fairclough (2007).

According to Fairclough, analysis of texts includes two dimensions: 1) linguistic analysis of “actional representational and identifying meanings, and of their realisation in the linguistic form of the text”; and 2) interdiscursive analysis of which “genres, discourses and styles are drawn upon and oriented to in a particular text, and how they are articulated together in the text” (2007:

25-26). This dual-layered analysis allows for an investigation of the textual/linguistic changes between the two corpora, and also the discursive changes between the two corpora. Thus, the purpose of the QCA is to identify and analyze the intralinguistic changes between the LC and the MRL (and therefore examine the textual/linguistic changes), and the CDA is to identify and analyze the interdiscursive changes between the LC and MRL (and therefore examine the discursive changes). In the sections to follow I will provide further detail on how these approaches are used.

Content Analysis

Content analysis is a “careful, detailed, systematic examination and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes, biases, and meanings” (Berg, 2007: 248). This form of analysis is used in various disciplines for a multitude of purposes; it is mainly a coding operation and data interpreting process (e.g., Berg, 2007; Mayring, 2004; Schreier, 2012). There are certain steps and concepts involved in the procedure of content analysis: “from the data collected that are transformed into a text or document, to the construction of categories and the coding process, to the patterns resulting from the coding” (Eid, 2011: 8). Originating in positivistic assumptions about objectivity, qualitative content analysis (QCA) allows for an exploration of the meanings of messages found in texts (Altheide & Schneider, 2013). It is a method for “describing the meaning of qualitative material in a systematic way” (Schreier, 2012: 1). This is done by assigning successive parts of the material to the categories of a coding frame. The analysis examines both manifest and latent content found in the data to understand the surface structure of the messages as well as their deep structural meanings (Berg, 2007).

In content analysis, the process of specifying the content characteristics being examined interacts with the application of unequivocal rules for identifying and recording those characteristics (Eid, 2011). For instance, from the very beginning of the process, researchers must establish clear selection criteria concerning which parts of the document or text will be included in or excluded from the analysis. Researchers need to specify the characteristics of the sample chosen (e.g., indicate the focus of the analysis: words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, chapters, sections, themes, sub-themes, etc.). As is the case with some other research designs, one major limitation of content analysis is its ineffectiveness in testing causal relationships (Ibid). When a topic or theme seems to reappear frequently in a document or text, for example, the researcher can only conclude that there seems to be a trend or an emerging pattern. No causal explanations should be attached to these, as only experimental designs allow for cause and effect conclusions.

Critical Discourse Analysis

Language is directly implicated in social struggles for the production, reproduction, or transformation of power relations and the ideologies that preserve them (Gialabouki, 2010). CDA seeks to uncover the underlying correlations between discursive events and the social structures and practices that shape the conditions for the production, reproduction, or transformation of power relations (Ibid). CDA views discourse as social practice, “as an element of social life which is closely interconnected with other elements” (Fairclough, 2003: 3). It attempts to combine the linguistic analysis of texts (micro-level) with social theories about the role of language in the constitution of reality, which do not usually include detailed analysis of texts (macro-level) (Gialabouki, 2010). CDA involves investigating how texts are used to perform certain functions; this is done by identifying patterns (Saldanha & Sharon, 2014: 55). The identification of patterns

is often facilitated by resorting to a set of analytical concepts, which can suggest what to look for (Saldanha & Sharon, 2014).

The “young science” (Titscher et al., 2000: 145) of CDA emerged after a small yet productive symposium in Amsterdam in January 1991 (Wodak & Meyer, 2009). Scholars such as Gunther Kress, Ruth Wodak, Teun van Dijk, Ron Scallan, Seigfried Jager, and Norman Fairclough have led CDA. Titscher and colleagues (2000) outline the origins of the theoretical framework:

Louis Althusser’s theories of ideology, Mikhail Bakhtin’s genre theory, and the philosophical traditions on Antonio Gramsci and the Frankfurt School. Michel Foucault has also been a major influence on some exponents including Norman Fairclough. In addition, Fairclough’s CDA is related to Michel Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics . . . whereas Ruth Wodak or Teun van Dijk have been more influenced by cognitive models of text planning.

(Titscher et al., 2000: 144)

CDA is not a homogenous method. Its general theoretical background, basic assumptions, and overall goals may be outlined, but its methodology can only be presented with reference to particular approaches and with regard to their specific theoretical backgrounds (Titscher et al., 2000).

Titscher and colleagues (2000) summarize the general principles of CDA as described by Wodak (1996):

- *CDA is concerned with social problems.* It is not concerned with language or language use per se, but with the linguistic character of social and cultural processes and structures. Accordingly CDA is essentially interdisciplinary.
- *Power-relations have to do with discourse* (Foucault, 1979, Bourdieu 1986), and CDA studies both power in discourse and power over discourse.
- *Society and culture are dialectically related to discourse:* society and culture are shaped by discourse, and at the same time constitute discourse. Every single instance of language use reproduces or transforms society and culture, including power relations.
- *Language use may be ideological.* To determine this it is necessary to analyse texts to investigate their interpretation, reception and social effects.

- *Discourses are historical* and can only be understood in relation to their context . . . Discourses are not only embedded in a particular culture, ideology or history, but are also connected intertextually to other discourses.
- *The connection between text and society is not direct*, but is manifest through some intermediary such as the socio-cognitive one advanced in the socio-psychological model of text comprehension . . .
- *Discourse analysis is interpretive and explanatory*. Critical analysis implies a systematic methodology and a relationship between the text and its social conditions, ideologies and power-relations. Interpretations are always dynamic and open to new contexts and new information.
- *Discourse is a form of social behaviour*. CDA is understood as a social scientific discipline which makes its interests explicit and prefers to apply its discoveries to practical questions.

(Titscher et al., 2000: 146, *emphasis added*)

Guided by these tenets, scholars who use CDA explore various themes related to power. However, it is important to note that there is little uniformity regarding the ways in which such explorations are conducted. While it can be stated that most CDA scholars subscribe to at least some of the tenets listed, the processes of data collection and analysis are seen by most as “hermeneutic” (Wodak & Meyer, 2002: 23). That is, CDA does not constitute a well-defined empirical method, but instead a “cluster of approaches” (Ibid). For example, there is no guiding theoretical viewpoint or data collection method commonly used within CDA.

Fairclough (1995) consolidates CDA as a three-dimensional framework where the aim is to map three separate forms of analysis onto one another, which are the analysis of: language texts (spoken or written), discourse practices (processes of text production, distribution, and consumption), and discursive events (as instances of sociocultural practice). He emphasizes that the analysis of texts should not be artificially isolated from the analysis of institutional and discursive practices within which texts are embedded. For example, in analyzing the text of a television show, the researcher must also pay attention to the routines and processes of the production of the show, and the practices and circumstances of audience reception. CDA differs

from other branches of linguistics in that it focuses on whole texts (Saldanha & Sharon, 2014). While text analysis is an essential part of CDA, the focus is not only on the relationship between text and context, but also between text and what Fairclough, following Foucault, calls the “order of discourse” (2003: 3). That is, “the relatively durable social structuring of language which is itself one element of the relatively durable structuring and networking of social practices” (Fairclough, 2003: 3).

In the field of TS, the work of Hatim and Mason (1990; 1997) laid the foundations for the use of CDA. Since then, CDA has been used extensively to explore issues of ideology in the translation of a wide variety of written genres (Saldanha & Sharon, 2014). Al-Hejin (2012) suggests that translations and the translation process present fertile research areas for multilingual or monolingual CDA. The importance of using CDA in exploring translated texts seems “obvious” to Al-Hejin (2012: 312), considering the centrality of intertextuality²¹ and recontextualization in the work of critical discourse analysts. According to Fairclough (2003), intertextuality may be external (referring to the relationship between a text and other texts) or internal (referring to the grammatical, lexical, and semantic features within a text). He sees internal intertextuality as dealing not only with syntagmatic relations “between elements which are actually present in the text”, but also paradigmatic relations “between what is actually present and what might have been present but is not—‘significant absences’” (Fairclough, 2003: 37). Baker also speaks of such absences, referring to “selective appropriation”, which refers to the inevitable choices translators

²¹ Intertextuality refers to the fact that texts explicitly or implicitly recontextualize elements from previous texts (Al-Hejin, 2012).

and authors make regarding what will and will not be included in a text (2006: 71). Drawing on narrative theory, Baker explains that these choices may be influenced by thematic, temporal, or spatial grounds, but also by ideologies or “meta-narratives” (2006: 72).

Data Collection and Analysis

The procedures used for the data collection and analysis strive for reliability and validity in the research findings. In qualitative research, reliability refers to “dependability or consistency” (Newman, 2007: 222); therefore, the processes used to collect and analyze data in this study aimed to be as consistent and standardized as possible. Validity in qualitative research means truthfulness; that is, the researcher will seek to give a balanced, fair, and honest account of the subject matter (Ibid). Although achieving complete reliability and validity in qualitative research is challenging due to its subjective nature (Ibid), I aimed to maintain these principles as much as possible to reduce bias. In addition to seeking to follow the analytical methods outlined previously, I also sought to document the analytical process in as much detail as possible, so as to provide the most truthful and accurate recounting of the processes I followed. In the sub-sections to follow, greater details on my data collection and analysis are outlined, wherein I worked to provide a fair, balanced, and honest account of the activities involved in this study and demonstrate the interventions and methods used to strive for a consistent and standardized analysis.

Sampling Strategy

Given the QCA research design, the study uses a nonprobability sampling strategy. In gathering LC materials, the purposive sampling technique was used because it allows the researcher to locate as many relevant cases with a specific purpose in mind (Neuman, 2011b). This sampling technique

was used because it allowed me to use as many instances of LC throughout the lifecycle of the crisis to understand if and how the organization communicated about the crisis. Thus, throughout the timespan of the sampling, all the possible cases of LC materials that were available and relevant to the study were obtained for analysis. For the MRL, a sequential sampling technique was used, as it requires that the researcher continue “to gather cases until the amount of new information ends or a certain diversity of cases is reached” (Ibid: 333). These sampling techniques allowed for the creation of a sample that demonstrated the greatest richness and relevancy to the goals of the study.

Data Selection

This study examines LC and MRL between September 1, 2012 and February 1, 2014. This sample was chosen based on the preliminary analysis of the OQMC; September 1, 2014 is approximately six months prior to the SLI (a press release pertaining to the SLI was issued on March 18, 2013; however, the organization offered a full refund on all pants of the affected style that were purchased after March 1, 2013). February 1, 2014 is selected as the cut-off date for the timespan because the BoD issued a statement approximately six months prior (August 7, 2014) indicating that issues and disagreements on the board had been resolved and that a plan for mending such had been agreed upon and implemented. Though one could argue that a wider timeframe could have been used, these specific dates were picked because it allowed for focus on the most climactic and pivotal moments of the crisis. Limiting the timeframe was also important, as it allows for a more in-depth analysis of the content under investigation. All data collected and used for the study was retrieved from the Internet. Further details of the process are provided in sub-sections to follow.

Lulu's Communication

For LC, data was collected from the company's website. In addition to offering a comprehensive online store, the Lulu website provides a wide-array of company information. Figure 7 shows a screenshot taken of the site index displayed on the bottom of the website's homepage (www.shop.lululemon.com). The heading "Investors" has been highlighted (with a red rectangle) in Figure 7, as this is where all the data collected for analysis was obtained.

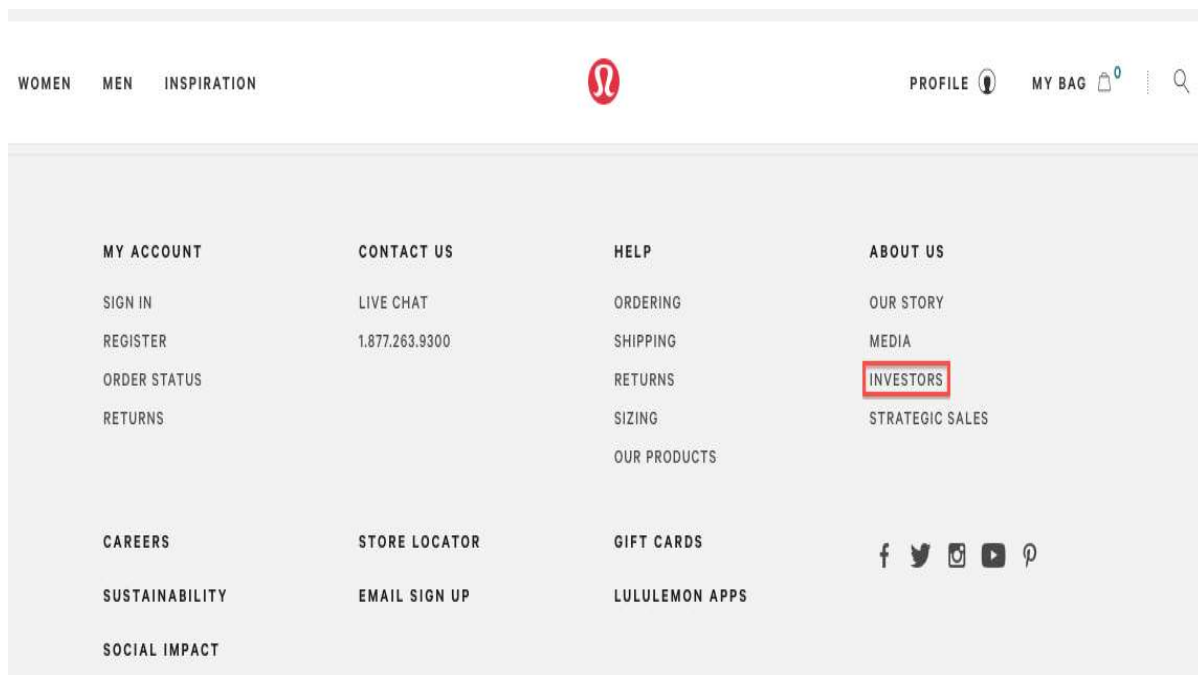


Figure 7: Lululemon Homepage Site Index

(Lululemon Athletica, 2017c)

The "Investors" page (Lululemon Athletica, 2017d) includes a variety of different headings/links to other pages that include company reporting and information, such as "Recent Press Releases",

“Latest Webcasts and Events”, “Corporate Governance”, “Financial Information”, “Stock Information”, and “Investor Resources”. These pages were of interest throughout the study, as they provided a plethora of detailed company information that informed this study. The sections that contain literature relevant to communication about important information and events—specifically, the crisis under investigation—are “Recent Press Releases”, “Latest Webcasts and Events”, and “Financial Information”.

All three of these sections allow users to search the literature by date, which was useful, as it allowed me to view all the materials published in the study’s timeframe. For the Recent Press Releases section and Latest Webcasts and Events section, I included almost all the materials published in the timeframe. This was because QCA and CDA are very much exploratory processes; while I had developed a general understanding of the OQMC prior to the data collection and analysis, I wanted to make sure that my LC sample was as inclusive and comprehensive as possible. There were a few instances when I did not include an LC item, this was only when it was deemed repetitive. For instance, a PowerPoint presentation that was a summary of a press release; in this case the PowerPoint was not included, as it entailed a simplified version of the press release. I also included Lulu’s 2012 and 2013 annual reports (located under “Financial Information”). While they include detailed information on many elements related to the company, I reviewed them and analyzed the parts of the reports that discussed the OQMC.

Upon deciding to include a piece of corporate literature in the study, I then downloaded the item (saved in PDF format), recorded the basic information about the article into an Excel spreadsheet (e.g., date published, the location on the website from which it was retrieved, and the title) and labelled each article with an alphanumeric code to help me organize and store the data

(e.g., L1, L2, L3). This resulted in the collection of 31 LC documents for analysis: (see Appendix A)

- 24 press releases (which were in the “Recent Press Releases” section);
- 5 “archived events” documents (which were in the “Latest Webcasts and Events” section);
- 2 annual reports (which were in the “Financial Information” section)

Media Reports about Lulu

Three large national news collections were used for the MRL data: *CBC News*, which is an online-only publication; *National Post*, which is a print and online publication; and *The Globe and Mail*, which is a print and online publication. These three publications were chosen because they are prominent Canadian national English-language news publications. The purpose of including only these three publications was to control the sample size of the MRL; by including other media outlets (e.g., provincial and/or local news media) the sample would be too large to allow for an in-depth qualitative analysis of the data.

MRL data was collected through two tools: Factiva (accessed via University of Ottawa library databases) and Eureka (accessed via University of Ottawa library databases). Factiva and Eureka are both news media databases that include large collections of Canadian and international media content. Factiva and Eureka were searched in the same manner: “lululemon” was the only term used in the search; the date selection was adjusted to the study’s timeline (September 1, 2012 to February 1, 2014); and each news source was searched separately. This allowed me to go through all the articles from each news outlet at a separate time to avoid including duplicates and/or similar articles. The results of this query were then reviewed; only articles that demonstrated a primary focus on Lulu’s OQMC were included.

Upon deciding to include an article in the study, I then downloaded the article (saved in PDF format), recorded the basic information about the article into an Excel spreadsheet (e.g., date published, news outlet, the database from which it was retrieved, and the title) and labelled each article with an alphanumeric case code to help me organize and store the data (e.g., “MC1”, “MN1”, “MG1”).²² This resulted in the collection of 92 MRL documents for analysis (see Appendix B):

- 19 articles from *CBC News*
- 41 articles from *The Globe and Mail*
- 32 articles from *National Post*

Data Coding and Analysis

According to Elo and Kyngäs (2008), QCA includes two distinct approaches: inductive and deductive. When using the inductive approach, the categories are derived from the data. When using the deductive approach, the structure of the analysis is operationalized based on previous knowledge and the purpose of the study is theory testing. If there is not enough former knowledge about the phenomenon or if this knowledge is fragmented, the inductive approach should be used. “An approach based on inductive data moves from the specific to the general, so that particular instances are observed and then combined into a larger whole or general statement” (Elo &

²²Note that the letters in the case code names for MRL mean the following: the first letter (M) represents “MRL”, the second letter (which is either N, G, or C) represents whether it is a news item from *National Post*, *The Globe and Mail*, or *CBC News*.

Kyngäs, 2008: 109). A deductive approach is based on an earlier model or theory and therefore it moves from the general to the specific. Though some knowledge of the OQMC under investigation does exist, a detailed analysis and theoretical model describing the ways in which this event was depicted in different information streams (e.g., Lulu's corporate literature and/or the news media) does not exist. Thus, the analytical approach used in this analysis is inductive.

Elo and Kyngäs (2008) note that regardless of whether the analytic approach is inductive or deductive, QCA includes three general stages: preparation, making sense of the data, and reporting. Despite having these three broad stages, it is important to note that there are “no systematic rules” for analyzing data; instead, the key feature of all content analysis is that the many words of the text are classified into much smaller content categories (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008: 109). For this study I used the three guiding principles of QCA proposed by Elo and Kyngäs, and adapted the tools and processes of other scholars to create an approach suitable for the goals of the study, which I outline in the pages to follow. These QCA procedures are used primarily to organize the data and identify the textual/linguistic differences between the two corpora. Guided by CDA, these textual/linguistic changes were analyzed in greater details in the later stages of the QCA, wherein the linguistic and discursive variance was investigated in relation to the social contexts and power relations that influence how information is recontextualized across the two information streams.

Phase 1: Preparation

The preparation phase begins with selecting the units of analysis. For the purpose of this study, I sought to look specifically at themes and sub-themes communicated in the text to develop a detailed understanding of the ways in which the different information streams narrated the OQMC. The themes and sub-themes could be related to people, events, and the ways in which the company

under investigation was characterized. As previously mentioned, this study examined both manifest and latent content found in the data to understand the surface structure of the messages as well as their deep structural meanings. This was crucial for the CDA that followed the initial QCA.

Phase 2: Making Sense of the Data

The second phase of the analytic process requires that the researcher make sense of the data; that is, figure out “what is going on” in the data (Dey, 1993). The purpose of this phase is to become “immersed in the data”, which is why written texts are read through several times. After making sense of the data, the inductive analysis requires that the data be organized, which requires coding.

When coding qualitative data, one organizes the raw data into conceptual categories and creates themes or concepts (Neuman, 2011c). Instead of being a clerical task of data management, qualitative coding is an integral part of data analysis. Though research questions provide a guide, coding is very much an exploratory process. According to Neumann, “[i]t frees you from entanglement in the details of the raw data and encourages you to think about them at a higher level, moving toward theory and generalizations” (2011c: 344). The data coding and analysis procedures used for this phase are those proposed by Strauss (1987). He defined three types of qualitative data coding and suggests that the researcher reviews the data on at least three occasions, using different coding each time. The three stages of coding are: first, *open coding*; second, *axial coding*; and lastly, *selective coding*.

Step 1: Open Coding. One performs open coding during the first pass through recently collected data (Strauss, 1987). It is the initial stage of coding that examines the data to condense them into

preliminary analytic categories. According to Strauss (1987), this step requires that the researcher locate themes and assign initial codes in the first attempt to condense the mass of data into categories; one should look for critical terms, key events, central people, or themes. Information in the data can be marked and recorded, but it is important to remain open to creating new themes and to changing these initial codes in subsequent analysis. Neuman (2011c) states:

When . . . open coding you bring themes to the surface from deep inside the data. The themes are at a low level of abstraction and come from your initial research, concepts in the literature, terms used by members in the social setting, or new thoughts stimulated by an immersion in the data.

(Neuman, 2011c: 345)

Although one may begin coding with a list of concepts, most coding themes are generated while reading data during this stage. Regardless of whether one begins with a list of themes, themes should be listed *after* finishing the open coding. According to Neuman, this list serves three purposes:

1. It helps to see the emerging themes at a glance.
2. It stimulates us to find themes in future open coding.
3. We can use the list to build a universe of all themes in the study, which we reorganize, sort, combine, discard, or extend in further analysis.

(Neuman, 2011c: 346)

When analyzing both corpora (i.e., LC and MRL), I sought to first extract the instances in the text that reference the OQMC in any way. During my first pass through the corpora, I sought to include as much text as possible, so as not to leave out any content that might include information related to the OQMC. The “extraction” process occurred by simply digitally highlighting the phrases, sentences, and paragraphs that demonstrate some type of mention of some of the themes and sub-themes that could be related to the OQMC. Some notes and draft code ideas were recorded at this stage; however, this stage was primarily for identifying the information that

would be relevant for analysis. Though this QCA is intended to be exploratory in nature, it is important to note here that in preparation for executing this study, I conducted an extensive review of the company, its products, history, and the issues surrounding the crisis under investigation. Therefore, some of the crisis symptoms that I outlined in Chapter Two, which were developed during the literature review, could have influenced some aspects of this process. Despite this, I sought to remain observant to other potential symptoms and elements of the OQMC, to keep the process as unrestrictive and exploratory as possible.

Step 2: Axial Coding. Strauss (1987) indicates that the second pass through the data is axial coding. During the first pass (open coding), one focuses on the actual data and assigning code labels for themes. At this stage, one is not very concerned with making connections among the themes or elaborating the concepts that the themes represent. However, during axial coding, one begins with an organized set of initial codes or preliminary concepts. In this second pass, one focuses on the initial coded themes more than on the data. New ideas or additional codes may emerge during the pass (and they should be noted), but the primary task is to review and examine initial codes. The researcher works to move toward organizing ideas or themes and identifying the axis of key concepts and analysis. At this stage, it is important to think about “causes and consequences, conditions and interactions, strategies and processes”—that is, one should look for categories or concepts that “cluster together” (Neuman, 2011c: 347). Here, the researcher can think about if existing concepts can be divided into subdimensions or subcategories, or if several closely related concepts can be combined into one more general construct.

Following the first pass through the corpora, I had generated various ideas pertaining to codes, categorization methods, and general notes and memos. During this second stage, though I

did add additional codes, I sought to be more methodic about how I categorized themes and sub-themes through codes. For instance, in the first pass I was not concerned about potential code duplications, however, during this pass, I sought to identify codes that were similar or demonstrated overlapping themes. In this, I then worked to develop a strategy for the coding terminologies to avoid overlap and further confusion. In addition to working on refining the coding categories and developing a more thorough understanding of the themes and sub-themes being identified in the corpora (and their relationship with the study's theoretical framework and research questions), I also began to document my (seemingly) ever-changing approach to how I believed the coding categories should be organized. Though I did not finalize any specific conceptual model at this stage, I sought to produce a variety of different potential techniques (many of which were simply hand-drawn diagrams) to allow me to visualize how the categories could be related and organized in a manner that best suited the goals of the study.

Step 3: Selective Coding. According to Strauss (1987), the last step of coding is selective coding, which examines previous codes to identify and select data that will support the conceptual coding categories that were developed. This pass involves scanning all the data and previous codes, looking selectively for cases that illustrate themes, and making comparisons. Selective coding should begin after concepts have been well refined and several core generalizations have been well developed or ideas have been identified. During selective coding, major themes or concepts ultimately guide the search process. "You reorganize specific themes identified in earlier coding and elaborate more than one major theme" (Neuman, 2011c: 348). During this step, each category is named using content-characteristic words.

When I reached the selective coding step, I worked to develop a conceptual model (see Figure 8) that could guide the final organization and ultimately the reporting of the analysis. The creation of this model was very much an iterative process; the result of numerous reviews of the data and my analytic notes and memos, which were then continuously measured against the theories and research questions upon which the study is based. The conceptual model is a result of an exploratory analysis of the data, which involved identifying and organizing phrases, sentences, and small paragraphs that demonstrated a particular theme or concept. I then worked to cluster together these excerpts that demonstrated similar thematic characteristics. I then reviewed the clusters to allow me to identify the main themes, the sub-themes, and potential headings and sub-headings that could be used to title the information and further organize the data. This resulted in the identification of the main narratives found in the next (which are the headings seen in Figure 8).

During my initial review of the data I examined the corpora separately; this was pertinent in that it allowed me to examine the information streams separately to develop a wholesome understanding of each information stream. However, in addition to seeking to examine how each information stream depicts the organizational crisis, this dissertation also endeavors to understand how the media narrate the crisis through intralingual and interdiscursive translation processes. Accordingly, the conceptual model not only guides the reporting of the presentation of the main narratives and their corresponding themes and sub-themes, it also allows for the organization of information, so as to compare the presentation of such. The structure of the reporting on the analysis is thus guided by the structure of the conceptual model, wherein each of the ways in which each main narrative and corresponding themes and sub-themes are presented by each information

stream is described, which is then followed by an analysis of the similarities and differences demonstrated in the two information streams.

It is worth mentioning here that the conceptual model was built to allow for a thorough reporting of the outcomes of the QCA and CDA; therefore, there are some items that are

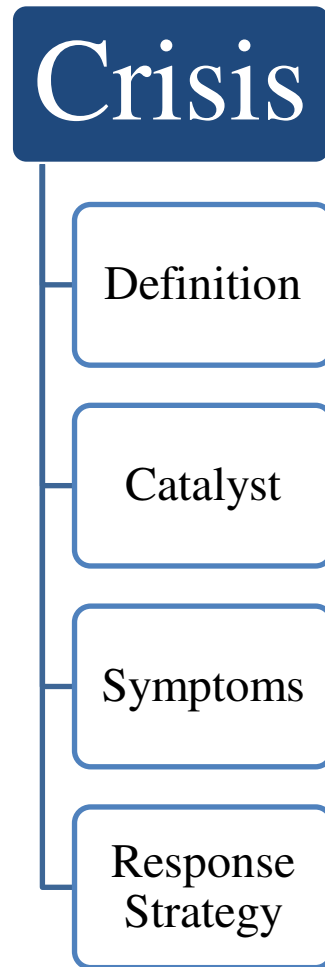


Figure 8: Conceptual Model

included that were not reflected in both information streams. The absence/presence of different themes is an important finding of this study, which is highlighted and described in detail in the sections to come. The analysis of the thematic inclusions or exclusions was particularly reliant on the CDA element of the research design.

Phase 3: Reporting

According to Elo and Kyngäs (2008), the final phase, which is reporting, requires that the researcher recount the outcomes of the analysis in as much detail as possible. They assert that to increase the reliability of the study, it is necessary to demonstrate a link between the results and the data. Chapter Four (Findings and Discussion) represents the efforts of Phase 3, which outlines the results of the QCA and CDA and seeks to answer the study's research questions. In the next section, I present the results of the analysis conducted on the two corpora under investigation: LC and MRL. The purpose of the sections to follow is to provide detailed reporting on: how Lulu narrated the crisis; how the media narrated the crisis; and examine how the media translated narratives about the crisis from both an intralingual translation perspective and an interdiscursive translation perspective.

Chapter 4

Findings and Discussion

This section outlines the results of the analysis conducted in this study. Specifically, it includes detailed reporting on how Lulu and MRL narrate the crisis. The structure of this Chapter is guided by the conceptual model. In this I not only present how each information stream narrates the crisis, but I also identify the similarities and differences demonstrated in the narrations of the crisis as identified in the LC and MRL corpora. I examine the translation processes involved in the creation news media content about the crisis by investigating the linguistic and discursive variances between the two information streams. The presentation of the findings of the analysis is followed by a discussion, wherein I reflect upon the findings in relation to the theoretical framework and research questions of the study.

Overview

The results of the analysis reveal the ways in which Lulu and the media narrate the crisis and the ways in which the media translate Lulu's information about the crisis to create their own narratives of the crisis. The results indicate that the different social constructs within which each information stream exists influences how the OQMC is narrated. Though various instances are identified wherein the media's translations demonstrate minimal linguistic and discursive variance in

comparison to the LC corpus, as the lifecycle of the crisis continues over time, the media draw on a wider body of source narratives, which tends to result in increased linguistic and discursive variance between the two corpora. This variance is often manifested in a range of ways, depending on the crisis narrative being translated and when in the crisis life cycle that the information is being translated. The variance of linguistic and discursive representations of the crisis narratives in the media is frequently indicative of the company's lack of control over the communication about the crisis. This lack of control can contribute to confusion about and distrust of the Lulu's ability to manage and recover from the crisis.

In the sections to follow I report on the findings of the analyses. For each section I seek to demonstrate how each information stream characterized the crisis narrative. I then demonstrate the linguistic and discursive variances between the two information streams. For crisis narratives that appear in both information streams, I discuss how information was translated between the two corpora. There are some crisis narratives that are found in the MRL, but not in LC; in these cases, I illustrate how the media depicted the crisis narrative and suggest the motivation behind the company's decision not to include content on such. This process of comparing the different information streams also unveiled the tensions that exist between the two information streams. The different goals and constraints that guide the two information streams are due to the social contexts in which they operate. Thus, I also include a section wherein I discuss the patterns of discursive tensions identified in the analysis. Here, I elaborate on the different ideologies that drive Lulu and the media and discuss how these were manifested in the linguistic and discursive variances identified in the corpora over the lifecycle of the crisis under investigation.

Overall, Lulu's communication about the crisis presents a consistent and controlled narration of the OQMC faced by the company; linguistic and discursive variance within the corpus

is minimal. The company draws on the same terms, phrases, and words to refer to the crisis, so as to maintain a static approach to describing the crisis. The uniformity of the narratives indicates the company's strategy to release information that seeks to deescalate the crisis and instill stakeholders' trust in the company and its ability to recover from the OQMC. Lulu does not self-identify as being in a state of *crisis*, but instead dealing with manufacturing/production issues (i.e., the SLI) that result in few symptoms, such as financial set-backs and legal concerns. Regardless of Lulu's unwillingness to self-characterize as being in a state of crisis, the detailed analysis of the events facing the company (which are presented in Chapter Two) indicate that the company is in fact facing an organizational crisis that is the result of quality management issues, and includes various symptoms. Though less frequent, the company does make mention of the SL changes that occur during the lifecycle of the crisis, and provide information on the company's crisis response strategy and its efficacy. The company seeks to avoid relational association between crisis narratives; multiple crisis narratives are rarely discussed in the same text. Wherein multiple crisis narratives are mentioned in close proximity to one another (e.g., in the same document, paragraph, or sentence), the company is usually seeking to disassociate the problems from one another (e.g., "event X is completely unrelated to event Y").

Overall, the MRL analyzed in this study are diverse in their use of linguistic and discursive functions to narrate the crisis. Unlike LC, which does not present diverse narratives of the crisis, the MRL corpus includes a vast range of themes and subthemes (some of which are not even mentioned in the LC corpus) that not only present narratives that demonstrate limited linguistic and discursive variance from Lulu's descriptions of the crisis, but also narratives that demonstrate great linguistic and discursive variance from Lulu's descriptions of the crisis. In the analysis, I seek to demonstrate how these differences in variance were manifested in the translation of

information to create news media content on the OQMC. I also seek to establish the manifestation of power relations between the two information streams, and how this may have influenced the translation of crisis narratives over the lifecycle of the crisis through the analysis of the linguistic and discursive variations between the two corpora.

Crisis Narratives

How an organization chooses to respond when in a state of crisis can depend on a variety of factors. Due to the nature of today's networked society, organizations function in social environments that allow people to obtain and share information with speed and ease. This increased connectedness—in some instances—can pressure and/or motivate organizations to operate with greater transparency and accountability in crisis situations. Organizations can use their communication platforms to disseminate information about the crisis; for instance, companies can be the first to break news to the public about a situation, which can sometimes allow them to “stay ahead” of the message: defining the crisis, maintaining control of messaging about the crisis, and providing details to the public about the cause(s) and symptoms of the situation. The analysis of the study's corpora reveals the variable ways in which the crisis is announced, defined, and discussed. Understanding the construction of these narratives is not only useful in developing a deeper comprehension of how each information stream developed narratives of the OQMC, but also useful in identifying the linguistic and discursive variances of the narratives. In this, it is possible to understand the translation processes involved in media content creation about Lulu's OQMC.

The sub-sections to follow report on how the crisis narratives were constructed by both information streams and the translation processes involved in the creation of the media narratives.

In this, I demonstrate how the crisis is defined (sub-section *Definition*); how the catalyst of the crisis is described (sub-section *Catalyst*); how the symptoms of the crisis are discussed (sub-section *Symptoms*), and how the crisis response strategies are characterized (sub-section *Response Strategy*).

Definition

Lulu's definition of the crisis remained largely consistent over time in the LC corpus. The only detectable changes found in Lulu's crisis definition were due to what Lulu presented as the confirmation of new information that emerged pertaining to the crisis. The first time the company acknowledged any symptoms of the OQMC is on March 18, 2013 in a press release titled "Black luon pants shortage expected" (L10). This press release is one of the most succinct and detailed accounts of the crisis found in the LC corpus; therefore—although quite long—it is included, as it is considered an important benchmark in how Lulu defined the crisis. Though few documents published subsequently include additional details, this remains an important definitional crisis narrative in the LC corpus:

. . . lululemon athletica inc. . . . today notified guests that **we expect a shortage in our supply of black luon pants and crops. We have determined that certain shipments of product received from our factories and available in store from March 1, 2013 do not meet our technical specifications.** The items affected are certain styles of women's bottoms in our signature black luon fabric. The ingredients, weight and longevity qualities of the pants remain the same but the coverage does not, resulting in a level of sheerness in some of our women's black luon bottoms that falls short of our very high standards.

Over the past weekend we pulled all of the affected black luon women's bottoms from our stores, showrooms and e-commerce site and are working with our supplier to replace the fabric and our other manufacturers to replace these key items as quickly as possible. **We believe the affected items represented approximately 17% of all women's bottoms in our stores and for the near term there will be a shortage of these styles available to our guests.**

. . . We have used the same manufacturing partner on key fabrics since 2004. This event is not the result of changing manufacturers or quality of ingredients. We are working closely with them to understand what happened during the period this fabric was made. **Guests who purchased black luon pants after March 1st, either online or in stores, and believe they have affected product are welcome to return the product for a full refund or exchange.**

We expect this issue will have a significant impact on our financial results.

(L10)

An analysis of Lulu's initial press release that announces the SLI (L10) indicates three main problems: some of their women's pants are sheer (resulting in unhappy customers); there will be a stock shortage of such pants (due to the removal of the pants from stores and warehouses); and Lulu's profits will be impacted. This document indicates that the root cause of the SLI is not clear at the time of publication, however, the company does state that the materials and manufacturer are not any different than usual. Being that women's luon pants are such a central item for Lulu, the company certainly has a duty to communicate this problem to its investors as soon as possible because of the impacts of the incident on profits. However, communicating to their customers and the public is also essential, as the luon pants are one of Lulu's feature items, which attract many consumers due to their unique design and fabric.

The existence of this initial announcement text speaks to the company's immediate reaction to manage the crisis through communication. In reflecting on how the crisis is depicted over time by Lulu, it is clear that at this early stage in the crisis lifecycle that the company—though shaken by the potential damage of the SLI—senses that this is an isolated incident, which can be managed through messaging about what is happening in the company. By publishing a press release shortly after the problem is identified, it allows the company to be the first to communicate officially about the problem (none of the media reports about the SLI are published before Lulu's initial press release). Throughout the LC corpus, there are few instances that seek to title, name, or specifically

characterize what the company is facing; though Lulu is said to be facing a crisis, the company does not use this term, however, other terms and phrases are used, such as: “the black luon setback” (L18).

This technique—of avoiding the use of the term “crisis”—is not an uncommon approach to managing large-scale organizational problems or threats. Though communication about such is a strategic response to managing a crisis, organizations often turn to terms and phrases that carry connotations that do not instill panic, chaos or heightened concern. This strategy, through driven by the goal of managing a company’s reputation and image, is also compelled by the economic implications that an organization can face in the case that they are in—or perceived to be in—a state of crisis. Though external evaluations of the company may lead to the labelling of a company in crisis, it is considered a strategic move on behalf of the company to rely on terms and phrases that are not self-harming—as the term “crisis” can emote a level of severity and/or chaos within the company.

The crisis is also directly referenced and described in the 2012 annual report (L30), the 2013 annual report (L31), and the Luon FAQ (L27). An excerpt from the L30 is provided below, wherein the company characterizes the crisis:

In mid-March 2013, we determined that certain shipments of women’s black luon bottoms received from our factories and available in our stores from March 1, 2013, did not meet our technical specifications. As we became aware of this issue, we pulled what we believe to be all of the affected items from our stores, showrooms and e-commerce sites and began working with our supplier to replace the fabric and with our other manufacturers to replace these items as quickly as possible. The lost revenue, additional costs expected to be incurred and the write down of affected product on hand from this issue will negatively impact our results from operations in Fiscal 2013.

(L30: 22-23)

Events that occur in a high-profile company tend to be considered newsworthy content. This is the case for coverage of Lulu's OQMC, as it is considered a retail star, which has—in many ways—strongly influenced the Canadian retail market and participated in the global spread of the athleisure trend. Lulu's popularity among consumers makes it an attractive entity to cover in the media. Canadian media have not shied away from chronicling Lulu's activities; therefore, when the company entered into a state a crisis, which was first evidenced in the announcement from Lulu about the SLI, the media were quick to react, participating in the re-narration of the crisis. Immediately following the announcement of the SLI, the media did not use terms or phrases that alluded to the company being in a state of crisis. Coverage of the SLI—like Lulu's corporate literature—sembled narratives in a way that focused on the manufacturing glitches, commonly citing the organization's action plan to avoid similar missteps in the future (i.e., implementing a new quality assurance team to oversee Lulu's manufacturing and production facilities). The problem is decidedly isolated, and the lexical terms and discursive practices employed to characterize the narratives around the crisis definition at this time do not indicate severity.

The problems facing the company are described as: “sheer pants debacle” (MN13); Lulu's “pants setback” (MG56), “pant problem” (MG61), “see-through black-pant setback” (Ibid), and “pants recall” (MN29); and a “too-sheer pants recall” (MN25). These terms and phrases do not narrate the crisis in an urgent or acute manner; instead, the messaging remains predominantly consistent with the narrative themes demonstrated in LC (see Figure 9). Here, the linguistic and discursive variance between the two information streams is minimal. This is attributed to the volume and nature of information on the crisis available at the time. In the few weeks following the SLI, the incident was perceived by the media (and likely the public) as being localized to the company's manufacturing divisions. Table 4 demonstrates the minimal linguistic and discursive

distance between the terms and phrases used by Lulu and the media to define the situation facing Lulu in the early days and weeks following the crisis. The likeness in the terms used to describe the crisis indicates the media’s strong reliance on LC as a source narrative to understand and contextualize information for the purpose of their own coverage.

LC	MRL (early)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “the black luon setback” (L18) • “quality issues with our black luon” (L15) • “black luon production issues” (L27) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “sheer pants debacle” (MN13) • “pants setback” (MG56), • “pant problem” (MG61) • “see-through black-pant setback” (MG61) • “pants recall” (MN29) • “too-sheer pants recall” (MN25)

Table 2: Terms Used to Define Crisis in Early Stages of Life Cycle (LC and MRL)

As the additional crisis symptoms become public (either through direct reporting from the company or discovered by the media from additional sources and then reported), the media begin to draw inferences among the various symptoms that are occurring at the company. The media then begin to use terms and phrases that describe the company as facing more than one isolated incident, but in a state of greater disrepair than characterized in LC.

The company’s problems, which were initially portrayed as an isolated incident (e.g., a debacle or problem), are then described as worse: for instance, Lulu is said to have faced a “black-pant *crisis*” (MG61, *emphasis added*) on September 13, 2013 and “sheer pants *crisis*” (MN30, *emphasis added*) on October 31, 2013. These examples, which are found in articles that were published six and seven months, respectively, after Lulu’s first announcement of the SLI, demonstrate how the media reflects on the company. Media coverage acknowledges the company to be in a state of crisis due to the impactful outcomes of the SLI and the other symptoms that

occurred because of QM problems in the company. The use of the term “crisis” is particularly important; this term is indicative of the broader narratives portrayed in the media, which motivate audiences to perceive the company in a critical situation that expands beyond just the SLI and into the company’s broader operations.

As the media gains more information of the crisis, reporting on one, some, or all the crisis symptoms they identify, they create narratives about the crisis that are increasingly critical of the company and its operations. The introduction of these narratives in the media present a much greater threat to the company’s reputation, referring to Lulu as being amidst a “PR mess” (MN24), grappling with “image problems” (MN1), in a “state of turmoil and change” (MG39), and in the middle of a “firestorm” (MG39). The OQMC is summarized as a “string of missteps”, leaving the company with a “serious image problem”:

They include product quality snags, the unexpected departure of its chief executive and embarrassing comments from its founder Chip Wilson. Now it needs to persuade disenchanted customers to buy its pricey athletic wear in a tough environment that is being invaded by rivals offering cheaper alternatives.

(MG49: July 15, 2013)

The crisis is also defined in relation to the longevity of the lifecycle of the crisis. For instance, the company is described as facing:

[M]onths of missteps—an embarrassing recall of see-through yoga pants that made the company the butt of jokes . . . ; the subsequent overhauling of the senior management team; now a problem re-stocking the shelves that is holding back sales.

(MG68: September 13, 2013)

A report in *The Globe and Mail* on December 11, 2013 calls the year in which the OQMC occurred an “annus horribillis” (MG59). Lulu is described at the end of 2013 as spending the year “[lurching] from one corporate crisis to another” (MN4). In early 2014, the company is said to be facing public image problems “after a series of stumbles last year” (MG45). The media also define

it as a reputation-marring event, emphasizing the “image problems” (MG49) that the company continues to battle. The crisis is said to have “bruised and battered” the company’s reputation, which held a positive and strong image before the QM problems struck.

LC	MRL (early)	MRL (mature)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “the black luon setback” (L18) • “quality issues with our black luon” (L15) • “black luon production issues” (L27) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “sheer pants debacle” (MN13) • “pants setback” (MG56), • “pant problem” (MG61) • “see-through black-pant setback” (MG61) • “pants recall” (MN29) • “too-sheer pants recall” (MN25) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “black-pant crisis” (MG60) • “sheer pants crisis” (MN30) • “state of turmoil” (MG29) • “firestorm” (MG39) • “corporate crisis” (MN4) • “a series of stumbles” (MG45)

Table 3: Terms Used to Define OQMC in Early and Mature Stages of Lifecycle (LC and MRL)

As demonstrated in Table 5, as time passes, the definitions of the crisis change in the MRL; this trend is echoed in the analyses to follow, which examine other narratives and corresponding themes and sub-themes. In this case of the shifting definitions of Lulu’s OQMC, in the beginning (i.e., recent weeks after the crisis is announced by Lulu), the company’s problem(s) is/are not characterized as a crisis, but instead, an isolated incident. The media draw on similar lexical items to characterize the crisis, demonstrating the early lead that Lulu had on controlling media messages about the OQMC. This changes over time: instead of the media drawing directly on the lexical and discursive strategies used by Lulu to characterize the events being faced by the company, the media begin to adopt their own lexical and discursive strategies that are dissimilar from the terminology used to describe the crisis by Lulu and the media in the early stages of the crisis lifecycle (as

illustrated in Table 5). The differences in how the crisis is characterized in the media texts tend to draw attention to the severity of the situation, abandoning Lulu's strategic approach to defining the crisis, wherein the lexical items used seek to downplay the events.

The evolutionary nature of how the media defines the crisis is considered indicative of the growing source narratives that become available as the lifecycle of the crisis continues. In the initial wake of the SLI announcement, Lulu is one of the only (if not *the only*) source narrative available. However, as the crisis lifecycle continues, the media gain access to a growing body of information on the crisis: media coverage from other outlets, social media messages posted by customers, and opinions of retail market commentators who begin to weigh in on the crisis, to name a few. With this, the crisis begins to take on definitions that expand beyond the conceptualizations of the crisis that are manufactured by Lulu. These new definitions, though potentially useful for the audience—in that they, for example, provide them with a more detailed, accurate, or alternative depiction of the crisis—are detrimental to the company's image, due to the ways in which many of the later mentions of the crisis construct the company in a negative light.

The limited linguistic and discursive variance between the two information streams in the early stages of the crisis lifecycle indicates the company's early ability to control how the crisis was defined by the media. In this, Lulu used the media to augment the reach and impact of its crisis communication; this activity in itself is a crisis communication strategy. In having the media publish phrases and terms that emote similar discourse, Lulu was able to leverage the power of the media to widely disseminate and reify their crisis messaging. However, as the crisis lifecycle continues, the terms and phrases used to define the crisis demonstrate greater discursive distance; for instance, the media begin to title the company in a state of crisis. Due to the greater reach and influence of the media, they have the ability to have a stronger influence on public perceptions

about the crisis. It is suggested that the media begin to draw on terms and phrases that emote a state of crisis due to media consumers' known attraction to media coverage on organizational crisis. Here, the media's translation practices result in greater linguistic and discursive variance from Lulu's crisis definition; this translation practice is believed to be driven by the company's desire to generate attractive media content to audiences. This is exemplary of how the commercial interests of the media drive how journalists enact decision-making pertaining to the characterization of organizational crisis.

Catalyst

The results of the QCA indicate that LC characterizes the SLI as the catalyst for the issues being faced by Lulu. That is, due to manufacturing and product design and development issues, popular Lulu items central to the company's success and brand image did not meet the company's standards. This resulted in dissatisfaction among customers who purchase the faulty product, and potential distrust or brand devaluation among current customers or brand observers. Though the OQMC is a result of a larger QM issue, the company focuses on the SLI and the financial impact of the SLI, and not on the broader QM issues that the company is facing.

A follow-up document (L12) is used to update people on the status of the SLI, which is published on April 3, 2013 (16 days following the initial announcement of the SLI) titled "Lululemon announces luon production update". In this document, Lulu announces the root cause of the SLI, which is the use of new design techniques, causing a higher demand of stretch on the fabric, resulting in sheerness for some women in the butt and thigh areas of the popular black luon pant. The company reiterates that the same materials and manufacturing are used, but this new design is the root cause. The document announces that adjustments to this faulty pattern are made,

and a new quality management team is assembled to: ensure that only the best fabrics are used; enforce stringent product standards; carryout the necessary product testing; and ensure factory oversight. An excerpt of this pertinent document is provided with emphasis on the key aspects of the update:

Lululemon athletica inc. . . . today provided an update on its black luon production issues.

After an evaluation of lululemon’s previously disclosed black luon production issues, the company concluded that the current specification and testing protocols for the signature fabric luon that were developed in 2006 have not materially changed. However, production of luon is a **complex process with a number of different inputs, and fabric is the key factor. While the fabric involved may have met testing standards, it was on the low end of lululemon's tolerance scale and we have found that our testing protocols were incomplete for some of the variables in fabric characteristics.** When combined with subtle style changes in pattern, the resulting end product had an unacceptable level of sheerness.

Lululemon had taken steps prior to the black luon issue to bolster its internal product expertise, including the addition of senior level capabilities in quality, raw materials and production. This new team was instrumental in determining the root cause of the issue and has initiated three work streams to address what we believe are the contributing causes.

Work streams and actions include:

1. **Testing & processes:** lululemon’s quality team is assessing all luon products in the production pipeline according to newly implemented rigorous testing and quality processes that includes revised specifications for modulus (stretch), weight and tolerances.
2. **Factory oversight:** lululemon employees have been stationed in factories to monitor and test products and will educate internal teams and manufacturing partners on new testing standards and methodologies.
3. **Leadership and structure:** lululemon is building a stronger internal structure with new leadership and cross-functional team capability that we believe will create a more robust organization to support our long-term growth strategy.

(L12, **emphasis added**)

This follow-up press release is also accompanied by a “Luon FAQ”, which is relatively long, in comparison to the two press releases published about the SLI (e.g., L10; L12). Spanning nine

pages, the document answers 34 questions about luon,²³ the SLI, and the financial impact of the SLI. It also seems to work to dispel rumours and concerns about the company regarding the SL changes (which occur after the SLI), which could be seen to have been related to the SLI. The questions in this document relevant to the OQMC are as follows:²⁴

- Are you still experiencing sheerness issues?
 - When will you be fully restocked in all black luon bottoms?
 - What needed to be addressed?
 - What measures have been put in place?
 - What advice do you have for guests?
 - Why are your inventory levels different in some stores and online?
 - What was the root cause of the sheerness problem?
 - How were items affected?
 - Who determined the cause of the problem?
 - What steps are being taken to rectify the situation
 - When will you be replacing the lost inventory?
 - Can you provide an update on the financial impact?
 - What are you doing to ensure that this doesn't happen again?
 - What items are affected?
 - How are the items affected?
 - What percentage of product does this represent?
 - What materials are used to make luon?
 - When did you know?
 - What did you do first?
 - Where it is manufactured?
 - Are you diversifying your supplier base?
 - Will you be able to recycle the unusable pants or do you have to destroy them?
- (L27)

²³ Not all the 34 questions are relevant to the OQMC under investigation, as the document has since been updated to include more questions and answers about aspects of luon that are not applicable to the timeframe of the study.

²⁴ Details on how these questions are answers are presented in sections to follow.

Communication is said to be one of the most important elements of crisis management (e.g., Botan, Ferguson & Sintay, 2014; Coombs, 2009; Eid, 2008; Garnett & Kouzmin, 1999; George, 2012; Seeger, 2006; Ying & Pheng, 2014). This existence of this document indicates the company's need to fill information gaps about the crisis, dispel rumours, and educate people about the issues being faced by the company. While it does include information that is provided in previous documents (e.g., L10, the initial announcement of the SLI states what items are affected), it provides more granular information about the status of the SLI. It also suggests that this document is created to respond to the various narratives in the media about the SLI and surrounding challenges being faced by Lulu.

As demonstrated in the excerpts below, discourse pertaining to the challenges being faced by the company are commonly accompanied by mention of the SLI:

The past quarter has been one of the most important in our company's history. **While we regret that we had quality issues with our black luon** we are proud of the organization's ability to get luon delivered back into our stores within 90 days of having pulled it from our line, all the while keeping our guests happy and engaged with the brand.

(L15, **emphasis added**)

Christine Day, lululemon's CEO, stated: "2013 continues to be the most important and most productive year in lululemon's history. **We have not only worked our way back from the black luon setback**, but have also added very talented people in important functions and have taken major steps forward on a number of key fronts including the expansion of our international and men's businesses and many logistical initiatives.

(L18, **emphasis added**)

The ingredients, weight and longevity qualities of the women's black luon bottoms remain the same but the coverage does not, **resulting in a level of sheerness in some of our women's black luon bottoms that fall short of our very high standards.**

(L27, **emphasis added**)

After an evaluation of our previously disclosed black luon production issues we concluded that the current specification and testing protocols for the signature

fabric luon that were developed in 2006 have not materially changed. The production of luon is a complex process with a number of different inputs. Fabric is the key factor and while the fabric involved may have met testing standards, it was on the low end of lululemon's tolerance scale and we have found that our testing protocols were incomplete for some of the variables in fabric characteristics. (L27, **emphasis added**)

We first began to understand the extent of the issue on Monday March 11th, as part of our weekly call with store managers. **Some of our store managers expressed concern over the sheerness of some of our women's black luon bottoms . . .** Over the weekend of March 16, we pulled all of the affected black luon women's bottoms from our stores, showrooms and e-commerce site. (L27, **emphasis added**)

Following the initial announcement of the SLI, the media also report the SLI to be an isolated incident, stating that it is due to new design techniques. Table 7 provides an examples of this pattern identified in the text, wherein the two corpora demonstrate a similar approach to narrating the catalyst during early stages of the crisis lifecycle. The media coverage excerpt was published six days after the initial announcement of the SLI. The narratives in the media are similar to those in the LC corpus; the media draw directly on Lulu's wording and phrasing to describe the SLI (see **emphasis** in Table 6):

LC (L12)	MRL (MG42)
<p>While the fabric involved may have met testing standards, it was on the low end of lululemon’s tolerance scale and we have found that our testing protocols were incomplete for some of the variables in fabric characteristics. When combined with subtle style changes in pattern, the resulting end product had an unacceptable level of sheerness.</p>	<p>Lululemon said late Monday it had recalled batches of its stretchy black signature yoga pants because of an unacceptable “level of sheerness” created during the manufacturing process.</p>

Table 4: Similar Phrasing in LC and MRL (Catalyst)

However, the media do not remain compliant in covering the story in the exact same way it is presented by Lulu. The QCA of the MRL corpus reveals that while the media reports about the initial symptoms tend to demonstrate closer equivalence to the LC corpus in terms of how the catalyst is initially described, the media expands and diversifies narratives about the crisis catalyst as the lifecycle of crisis continues. Namely, the crisis and the various related symptoms are often listed, demonstrating the depth and breadth of the crisis. The inclusion of additional terms is also used to emphasize that the situation being faced by Lulu is more than the SLI, and in fact a larger organizational problem. Such narratives are thought to fill—what the media perceive to be, or what they want the audience to perceive to be—information gaps in Lulu’s narratives about the crisis. The MRL narratives tend to discuss the broader disarray that is occurring in the company, emphasizing the “uncertainty and turmoil” (MG55). The following excerpts are included as examples of ways in which the media discuss the crisis and the catalyst(s). As demonstrated through the use of emphasis below, the media often include additional information on the various

symptoms plaguing Lulu, which highlight that the crisis catalyst is more than one incident (e.g., the SLI), but a larger problem resulting in various symptoms, such as SL turmoil/change, financial losses, legal issues, and public relations problems due to controversial comments made by the company's founder.

Day's departure follows problems earlier this year that saw the company pull its black Luon yoga pants from store shelves for being too sheer.

The move forced the company to **cut its financial guidance** for the year.

The company blamed the sheerness on a style change and production problems and hired a new team to oversee the making of the pants.

Following the debacle, Sheree Waterson, **the company's chief product officer, left the company.** . . .

Soon after the recall was announced, a **U.S. pension fund invested in the company launched a lawsuit against Lululemon** over its decision to increase potential bonuses for executives prior to announcing the problems with the pants.

(MC87)

It's been a wake-up call for Lululemon, which endured **quality snags, a costly recall** of its signature black stretch **pants for being too sheer, leadership changes** and founder Chip Wilson stepping down as chairman after **he created an uproar by suggesting Lululemon pants weren't suitable for larger women.**

(MG45)

Though the MRL do not specifically classify the crisis as a QM crisis, they do tend to highlight the quality issues, disarray, and lack of strategic behaviour being exhibited by the company. The narratives pertaining to the crisis catalyst in the MRL—aside from the initial reports after the crisis was announced—tend to describe the variety of problems that are occurring in the company to demonstrate that the crisis is more than just the SLI, but in fact a larger problem for the company, which is attributed to the company's inability to manage business growth and scaling, calm SL turmoil, and manage the manufacturing woes that caused the SLI.

Symptoms

The crisis symptoms were prominently discussed in the corpora. The discussion of the crisis symptoms largely contributed to how the crisis was constructed in both information streams. The exploration, identification, and categorization of the symptoms identified in the text was particularly indicative of the differences between the two corpora. Not only are differences identified in how symptoms are narrated, but the results of the analysis on the depiction of crisis symptoms included a particular large disparity in terms of the inclusion and exclusion of narratives. This is an interesting finding of the study, as it exhibits some especially large gaps between the two different information streams. In the sub-sections to follow, I first outline the symptoms that were found in both corpora; in this, I illustrate how each information stream constructs the symptom and if/how such constructions differ. This is followed by mention of the specific narratives that were not included in the LC, but only found in the MRL corpus.

LC Crisis Symptoms	MRL Crisis Symptoms
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Financial• Legal• SL Turmoil	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Financial• Legal• SL Turmoil• Controversial Comments• Customer Complaints

Table 5: Crisis Symptoms

Financial

The topic of Lulu’s financial standing is frequent throughout the LC corpus. Though it is not always the central discussion point of the materials, it is included in: almost all the press releases, both annual reports, and most of the FAQs. This frequency of mention is attributed to the purpose of many of the documents under investigation (in the LC corpus); that is, though the documents

such as “press releases” and “recent events” are meant to inform customers and the public about the company’s financial standing and progress, they are also information streams through which investors can be updated on the company’s standing. Annual reports, for example, include very detailed financial reporting data, all of which is legally required by the company.

Lulu’s retail success and prevalent brand image is intimately related to the company’s perceived focus on innovative design and product quality. When the brand’s trustworthiness is threatened due to an actual or perceived lack of quality, customers can be deterred from buying the product, reducing sales and traffic to the stores. The analysis of the LC corpus reveals that the company’s profits are directly impacted by the SLI. Lulu is obligated to report such information to its investors. Thus, in addition to the LC data including many announcements about Lulu’s financial performance (e.g., L1: “Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces second quarter fiscal 2012 results”; L11: “Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces fourth quarter and full year fiscal 2012 results”; L19: “Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces second quarter fiscal 2013 results”), many of the reports pertaining to the SLI are accompanied by information on how this issue has or could impact the company’s future financial performance. For instance, in L10 “Black luon pants shortage expected” (the company’s first piece of corporate literature announcing the SLI), the text provides information on the nature of the problem, and then goes on to outline its financial consequences: “[w]e expect this issue will have a significant impact on our financial results” (L10).

The press release also explains that:

Up to March 17, 2013, we were tracking to a comparable-store sales percentage increase of 11% on a constant dollar basis and expected revenue guidance to be in a range of \$350 million for the first quarter of 2013. We now expect a comparable-stores sales percentage in the range of 5% to 8% for the first quarter of 2013, resulting in an expected revenue range of \$333 million to \$343 million. We are working to determine the impact on our earnings in the first quarter as well as expected impact for the balance of 2013.

(L10)

The construction of Lulu's financial setbacks due to the quality management problems directly and exclusively reference the SLI. That is, the Lulu corpus does not include instances wherein the organization's financial losses are framed in relation to any other symptoms. This is demonstrated in the excerpt below:

As we previously disclosed, the lost revenue, as well as additional costs incurred and the write down of affected product on hand from [the SLI], negatively impacted our [financial] results from operations in fiscal 2013.

(L31)

Media narratives pertaining to Lulu's financial problems in the wake of the crisis are more diverse. They tend to draw on other financial reporting sources and most commonly depict the financial problems to be larger or more complex than what is described by Lulu. Though the media do draw directly on information found in the LC (which is discussed below), they also frequently draw on the Electronic Data Gathering, Analysis, and Retrieval system (EDGAR) or The System for Electronic Document Analysis and Retrieval (SEDAR). EDGAR is a mandatory document filing and retrieval system for American public companies, and SEDAR is a mandatory document filing and retrieval system for Canadian public companies. These databases are freely available to the public online. They include publicly traded companies' financial reporting. Lulu was traded on American (NASDAQ) and Canadian (TSX) stock exchanges, however on June 10, 2013 the company announced that it would delist from the TSX, because there was "not enough trading on the Canadian exchange" (MG41). Until June 10, 2013, journalists, investors, analysts, and the public could search for Lulu's financial information on EDGAR and SEDAR; however, such information is now only found on EDGAR. Though Lulu's financial performance is reported by Lulu in their press releases and annual reports, the information on EDGAR or SEDAR provides

more granular information, as it would have, for example, all financial performance information in one place, allowing a journalist to analyze longitudinal changes and results. The analysis of the MRL reveals that not only did the media draw upon the financial reporting provided on the company's website, they also looked deeper into the more detailed information that was provided on SEDAR/EDGAR. The news media tend to pay close attention to such reporting (i.e., companies' annual reports and reporting in EDGAR and SEDAR), as it is a strong source for business-related news. It can allow for more elaborate and up-to-date financial reporting than that disclosed on a company website. Such information is particularly useful in instances wherein the company does not make financial information as readily available as that which is provided by Lulu.

Though few, some instances were identified wherein the MRL narratives about Lulu's financials demonstrate close equivalence to the LC narratives. These often use phrasing like that which is found in the LC, sometimes using direct quotes from Lulu that were also in the LC. This quoting practice is demonstrated below, wherein the media directly quote Lulu in the coverage of financial standing:

“Since the beginning of January, we have seen traffic and sales trends decelerate meaningfully,” said chief financial officer John Currie. **“Based on this recent performance and assuming these trends continue through the remainder of January, we are reducing our outlook for the fourth quarter.”**

(MN1: January 14, 2014)

The Vancouver-based athletic wear chain said late Monday that a large shipment of its stretchy black pants—long and cropped versions—didn't meet technical specifications . . . **“We expect this issue will have a significant impact on our financial results”.**

(MG67: December 10, 2013)

The capital market reactions to Lulu's financial performance are also commonly discussed in relation to the OQMC. With decreasing profits, Lulu's stock prices often took a hit—these

changes in the company's value was often discussed, frequently accompanied by quotes or paraphrased sentiments from financial analysts credited as experts in retail finance. Information about capital market reactions to Lulu's financial performance also came from EDGAR and SEDAR. When discussing capital market reactions to Lulu's financial performance, such as a decrease in the company's share value, MRL often referred to the OQMC. That is, the decrease in share value was attributed to the various OQMC symptoms, such as: the SLI, the stepping down of CEO Christine Day, and the controversial public remarks made by the company's CEO about the compatibility of the company's clothing with women's bodies. Below are some excerpts that demonstrate some of the ways in which the media drew connections to capital market reactions to Lulu's stock value and various crisis symptoms.

“The lack of information regarding the future leadership of Lululemon is of great concern,” Sterne Agee analyst Sam Poser said in a research note, downgrading her recommendations on the shares to a neutral from buy, and lowering the price target to US \$75 from US \$90. **“We believe that the cultural cohesiveness that Ms. Day brought to Lululemon will be very difficult to replace.”**

(MN15)

Shares of Lululemon Athletica Inc. sank in after-hours action today after the company posted strong first-quarter earnings, announced plans to quit Canada’s main stock exchange, and **disclosed its chief executive officer plans to leave.**

(MG41)

Jennifer Black, president of Jennifer Black & Associates of Lake Oswego, Or. recommended that investors sell their shares . . . **“We question the level of quality controls,”** . . . “We find it hard to understand how a problem of this magnitude [SLI] was not detected during wear testing and inspection. We also wonder if the quality control team is separate from the supply chain team.”

(MG43)

The company also revealed that a previously announced **recall of a batch of black Luon** pants will cut into sales and profit—pushing its outlook for the current quarter below preliminary analyst forecasts.

(MC86)

The decrease in Lulu’s share value is attributed to the loss of the company’s CEO, Christine Day, who stepped down after the SLI.

The decrease in Lulu’s share value is attributed a general perception of quality management problems; manufacturing quality control measures are questioned.

The decrease in Lulu’s share value/financial outlook attributed to SLI.

Though less common, some instances did occur in which the financial impact of the OQMC was described as being less severe than the majority of the media narratives about Lulu’s financials. In this, the financial impacts of the OQMC were downplayed through the use of terms and phrases that reassured the reader of the company’s stability and ability to manage OQMC and, in turn, the financial threats it posed to Lulu.

The pants gaffe inevitably squeezed business, although **already** Lululemon watchers say **the retailer is gaining momentum** as the company replenishes its stores shelves.

(MG56)

Brian Tunick at J.P. Morgan states that “we believe that Lululemon’s shares deserve a premium valuation given its niche, premium positioning, top and bottom-line growth potential, strong margins, and now, **margin recovery story**”.

(MN6)

Not only is the **impact to the brand from the recall expected to be negligible, Lululemon [is believed to have] benefited from increased traffic and substitute purchases . . .** As a result, the analyst anticipates upside to his first-quarter forecasts when Lululemon reports results on June 10 . . . **“Our long-term growth thesis, that rests on Lululemon increasing its production capacity to better meet demand, remains intact, particularly now that the luon recall is nearing complete resolution”**.

(MN14)

Legal

A company as large as Lulu is not immune to legal issues; they can be considered a cost of doing business. Issues regarding, for example, intellectual property, labour, and taxes, are complex litigious matters. The discussions about Lulu’s legal issues in LC, however, are identified as being symptoms of the OQMC, as four lawsuits are filed against the company in the recent time following the announcement of the SLI that are related to the events surrounding the problem.

- October 25, 2013: The Laborers’ District Council Industry Pension Fund files a books-and-records action entitled “Laborers District Council Construction Industry Pension Fund v. Lululemon Athletica Inc.”, requesting certain records from Lulu regarding the SLI, the announcement of CEO Christine Day’s departure, and certain stock trades executed by the company’s Chairman of the BoD at the time, Chip Wilson.
- August 12, 2013 and August 23, 2013: Thomas Canty and Tammy Federman file shareholder derivative actions due to the announcement of CEO Christine Day’s departure

and certain stock trades executed by Chip Wilson and Christine Day in the months leading up to that announcement. In this case, “[p]laintiffs allege violations of Section 14(a) of the Securities Exchange Act and breach of fiduciary duty, unjust enrichment, abuse of control, and gross mismanagement” (L31: 15).

- July 2, 2013: Houssam Alkhoury files a putative shareholder class action against Lulu based on certain public disclosures made by Lulu relating to the SLI and product quality in general, and public discourses related to the company’s ongoing quality control improvements and the impacts of such on Lulu’s financial results.
- May 3, 2013: Hallandale Beach Police Officers and Firefighters Personnel Retirement Fund file a books-and-records action, requesting certain Lulu records relating to the SLI, recent revisions to Lulu’s executive bonus plan, additional records relating to the announcement of CEO Christine Day’s departure, and certain stock trades executed by the company’s founder (Chip Wilson), prior to Lulu’s announcement regarding Ms. Day.

Lulu repeatedly states throughout the “legal proceedings” section of the 2013 annual report (L31) that it believes there is no merit to the plaintiffs’ claims and that it intends to defend vigorously. The emergence of these legal proceedings indicates that stakeholders of Lulu’s brand believe that there was a lack of transparency regarding the various symptoms of Lulu’s OQMC. Undoubtedly, the existence of legal proceedings can reflect poorly on the organization. Though the allegations of the suits may not be true, the ways in which these types of problems can be perceived by the public can result in negative brand association.

The legal issues discussed in the MRL data are also the lawsuits filed against the company. Because there are multiple suits, MRL tends to include information on multiple suits when reporting on this topic. The central theme of the suits, as described in MRL, is that Lulu withheld

various pieces of critical information pertaining to the SLI, the exit of Christine Day, the decision to increase executive bonuses, and provided positive information that was misleading, which artificially inflated the stock price of the company. For instance, an article in the *National Post* states that Lulu was “hit with a U.S. lawsuit accusing it of defrauding shareholders by hiding defects of yoga pants whose sheerness led to a costly recall, and concealing talks that led to the sudden departure of its chief executive” (MN11). The lawsuit is further described in this article, which states that Lulu “concealed serious discussions” about Christine Day’s departure and that founder Chip Wilson sold two million of his personal shares at an artificially elevated price, seeing proceeds of more than \$163 million (USD). Lulu’s move to increase bonuses for executives prior to announcing the SLI also resulted in a lawsuit from a U.S. pension fund, which was widely publicized in the media. The coverage tends to emphasize the suspicions surrounding Lulu’s legal and financial performance during the OQMC.

The difference in the narratives of the legal issues being faced by Lulu was more nuanced than that found in other symptoms. The information about the legal problems—though discussed in the MRL—captured less attention than other symptoms, such as the financial woes and SL turmoil. Though the media content tended to include additional details about the legal issues, they were minor. The media did not draw on many additional source narratives; though they did use information from the original lawsuit filings (which was very similar the information provided in Lulu’s annual reports), this symptom was rarely expanded upon. It is suggested that this is because these types of lawsuits can be lengthy, taking a long time to move forward. In this, the media may have chosen to focus less on this topic because it may have turned out to be a stale source of content and of less interest to audiences due to slow-moving story development. It is also important to note here that unlike narratives about the company’s financial problems, which often included quotes

from retail experts and financial forecasters, none of the MRL narratives on Lulu’s legal problems included quotes from legal professionals. Thus, in the case of this symptom, the gaps between the two different information streams were minimal; both the LC and MRL demonstrated similar narratives, and in instances where the media did provide additional information, it was not counterintuitive to Lulu’s messages and included few additional source narratives.

Senior Leadership Turmoil

Information related to Lulu’s SL occurs as a prominent theme throughout the LC. Discussions pertaining to the SL tends to focus mainly on changes to Lulu’s SL, except for a few press releases that announce SL involvement in, for example, a conference or public event. Table 8 outlines the changes to Lulu’s SL during the study’s timeframe.

Date	Event
December 6, 2012	Appointment of William H. Glenn to Board of Directors
February 4, 2013	Appointment of Robert Bensoussan to Board of Directors
April 3, 2013	Stepping down of Chief Product Officer Sheree Waterson
June 10, 2013	Stepping down of Chief Executive Officer Christine Day
October 30, 2013	Appointment of Tara Poseley as Chief Product Officer
December 10, 2013	Appointment of Laurent Potdevin as Chief Executive Officer
December 10, 2013	Stepping down of Chairman Chip Wilson (Founder of Lulu)

Table 6: Chronology of Lulu’s SL Changes

The volume of SL changes over one year can be seen as a serious challenge, especially being that such occurred concurrent to the SLI and financial and legal damages. The departure of three senior leadership staff during the timeframe of the study—and during the estimated timeframe of the crisis’ lifecycle—is considered a direct outcome of the QM issues being faced by the company. Despite this, the QCA of the LC corpus does not include any discourse that links any of the SL

departures to the SLI or any broader organizational challenges or crisis (e.g., an OQMC). The SL changes are commonly normalized, often characterized as natural changes to the SL team. They are not described as being related to any of the problems occurring in the organization. This is demonstrated, for instance, in the announcement of the first departure that occurs during the OQMC. On April 3, 2013 (16 days after the announcement of the SLI) in a press release titled “Lululemon announces organizational change”, the departure of the chief product officer is announced. As demonstrated in the excerpt below, there is no mention of the reasoning behind Waterson’s departure. There is also no connection made between Waterson’s departure and the SLI.

[L]ululemon athletica inc. . . . today announced a **leadership change** in the product organization. In conjunction with a reorganization of our product organization, **Chief Product Officer Sheree Waterson will be leaving lululemon effective April 15, 2013.** “We appreciate the many contributions that Sheree made during her time with lululemon, particularly in the area of design,” said lululemon’s CEO Christine Day. Ms. Waterson served as Chief Product Officer. She joined lululemon in 2008 and has over 25 years of consumer and retail industry experience.

(L13)

This departure, though unfortunate for both Lulu and Waterson, aligns with common changes that can occur in an organization after a publicized mishap (Charan, 2005 February). When a SL member departs an organization in the wake of a crisis closely related to their role, it can often represent the company and/or the SL member directly or indirectly taking blame or responsibility for the crisis. In this case, Waterson’s stepping down is understood as an amicable parting of ways, which is perceived by the media as a necessary outcome of the SLI (this is discussed further in future sections that outline the outcomes of the QCA on the MRL). In sum, Waterson’s departure is not particularly shocking or unexpected due to the SLI; the volume of text dedicated to this incidence is minimal (only L13).

Despite Lulu's strategy to keep the SLI and the departure of Waterson as two separate, unrelated events, the media are quick to draw inferences between the two events.

Lululemon Athletica Inc. said its chief product officer **Sheree Waterson will leave the company**, as the **clothing retailer addresses quality problems** after pulling some of its yoga pants from the shelves last month for being too see-through.

(MN17)

Just over two weeks after Lululemon Athletica Inc. was **forced to pull many of its signature black women's yoga pants from its stores because they were too see-through**, its **top product executive is leaving the company**.

(MG54)

Lululemon has struggled this year after a **recall of its black Luon pants** from store shelves after customers complained that the pants were too sheer. The recall was followed by the **abrupt departure of chief product officer Sheree Waterson**.

(MC90)

The media also highlight the company's brief and abrupt announcement of Waterson's departure, often highlighting the fact that little reasoning for the departure was provided.

No official reason was offered for the departure of Sheree Waterson . . . She will leave Lululemon by April 15, the company said Wednesday.

(MN18)

In a **brief statement** Wednesday, the company said Sheree Waterson, its chief product officer who joined Lululemon in 2008, will leave Lululemon effective April 15 . . . **The retailer would provide no further comment** or say whether Ms. Waterson would be replaced.

(MG54)

Following the debacle, Sheree Waterson, the company's chief product officer, left the company. **Specific reasons for Waterson's departure were not disclosed**.

(MC87)

Lulu dedicates more text to the announcement and discussion around the departure of the company's CEO Christine Day. This event is also covered widely in the media, with many of the reports speculating that Day's departure was due to instability and company problems (i.e., the OQMC). Therefore, the increased volume in the LC discussion of this change is considered a

response to the increased media scrutiny on this event, which ultimately forced the company to attempt to dispel misinformation about the Day's departure and gain control over the messages.

The CEO's departure is first announced on June 10, 2013 (just under three months following the initial announcement of the SLI) in a press release titled "Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces first quarter fiscal 2013 results, **announces CEO transition plan**" (L15, **emphasis added**):

Lululemon athletica in. today announced . . . that after a five and half year tenure **Christine Day will step down as the Company's Chief Executive Officer when a successor is named.** The Board has formed a search committee and enacted its CEO succession plan. Ms. Day's decision is being announced at this time so the Board has the benefit of a healthy transition period, and can openly use that time for a thorough search for the next CEO.

"Being a part of lululemon for the past five and a half years has been an incredible journey. I am proud of building a world class team that has produced one of the best growth, brand and profit stories in retail," said Ms. Day. "Plans have been laid for the next five years and a vision set for the next ten. Now is the right time to bring in a CEO who will drive the next phase of lululemon's development and growth. I will continue to actively lead the organization while the Board searches for a new CEO, and will work to ensure a smooth transition."

(L15)

The sentiments reflected in the LC corpus pertaining to Day's departure are positive and shed light on her large contributions to the company's success and growth during her tenure.

"Christine has been an exceptional leader for lululemon, successfully embracing the culture while growing the business and returning value to all of our stakeholders including our guests, employees, partners and shareholders," said Chip Wilson, Chairman of the lululemon Board of Directors. **"I thank Christine for her leadership, contributions and commitment to lululemon.** I am confident that we will find the right person to lead this strong team and continue to build on this excellent foundation."

(L15)

"As we embark on this next stage of growth, we recognize the efforts and accomplishments of those whose work has created the lululemon that we know today. **Christine Day has been instrumental in the growth and development of this brand, and she leaves in place one of the strongest business models in the retail industry,**" added Michael Casey. "On behalf of the Board and our

employees, I would like to thank Christine for her **outstanding leadership** over the past six years . . .

(L21)

L25 is particularly detailed and indicative of the company's intent to respond to public discussions surrounding the departure of the company's CEO, who was famed for her impactful legacy attributed to much of Lulu's success. It is a Question and Answer (i.e., Q&A) document that includes a variety of questions and responses pertaining to Day's departure. The existence of this document is symbolic in that it demonstrates the company's choice to respond to the media's coverage of Day's departure, which was largely speculative in nature. MRL about Day's departure often alludes to the chaotic state of the company due to the SLI and the various crisis symptoms that ensued. Being that the CEO was widely praised due to her positive impact of the company, media reports tend to portray her departure as alarming news for an organization in the depths of a crisis. As demonstrated in some of the excerpts included below, Lulu attempts to combat such concerns and uncertainty, addressing the concerns in a Q&A about Day's departure.

L25: Excerpt One

Q3: Why is she leaving now, when lululemon has had a product issue? Is there not more work for her there as a leader?

A3: Christine's decision was her own. The company has recovered from the setback around the black luon and Christine is acting on deep conviction that it is time to transition to a new CEO to lead the company through its next phase of growth. Christine and the board have put in place a **strategy** and **built a team that is well positioned** to support its **growth for the future**.

In this first excerpt, LC seeks to instill assurance in the fact that Day's departure was unrelated to the SLI or other crisis symptoms (though this is questioned extensively in the media). Lexical items are also used in the excerpt to demonstrate the stable and positive state of the company, such as "strategy", "build a team that is well positioned", and "growth for the future".

L25: Excerpt Two

Q9: With the recent departure of Sheree Waterson and now Christine Day, lululemon is losing two senior leaders at roughly the same time. Are you concerned about the impact of this on the business?

A9: With a **very strong senior management team** in place to execute the strategy and run the business, lululemon has plans in place for an **orderly transition**. Christine will continue to serve as CEO to ensure a **smooth transition** through the end of 2013 or until a successor is named. The board will oversee the transition and is actively conducting a **thorough search** for the company's next CEO.

In this second excerpt, LC seeks to combat narratives in the media that emphasize the multitude of changes occurring in Lulu's SL team. This framing by the media is used to draw on the SL turnover and turmoil narratives presented by Lulu, and create content that emotes uncertainty and strain in the company. This tactic works to create a more dramatic—and thus, a potentially more attractive—narrative about Lulu's SL changes. As identified in L25 (particularly in *Excerpt Two*), Lulu seeks to combat these translations related to Day's departure (and other SL changes). Lulu responds to doubts in the company's SL by emphasizing the strength of the company's SL team and the organized nature of CEO transition.

The analysis of the MRL corpus reveals heightened media focus on the CEO's departure; it is suggested that this document (L25) is a response to the increased media scrutiny around Day's departure. The document seeks to provide clarity around the topic and gain control of the messaging. The text provides a detailed narrative on the changes and issues being faced by Lulu, noting that, while the issues with SL turnover are unfavourable, they are depicted as the natural result of organizational change and development that occurs overtime. The LC does not depict the changes in SL to be connected to other problems, such as the manufacturing, legal, and financial woes being faced by the company. Instead, they are constructed as things that are simply happening as separate and non-related events.

The format of the Q&As published by the company regarding SL indicates the company's intended strategy, which is to try to combat misinformation and rumours about such. This is a clear indication of the company's crisis communication strategy at this stage of the lifecycle; it demonstrates that the company is aware of the threat of misinformation and is working to dispel rumours to set the message straight. The provision of questions and answers about, for example, the CEO's motives to leave the company, is indicative of the organization's desire for transparency and openness. In addition to seeking to be as open and transparent as possible, the documents seek to reiterate that the company is still on the path to success. The documents include phrases such as "[t]he board believes that lululemon has an exceptionally deep and talented internal bench", and "[w]ith a very strong senior management team in place to execute the strategy and run the business, lululemon has plans in place for an orderly [CEO] transition" (L25).

The stepping down of Christine Day is the most common SL turmoil sub-theme discussed in MRL. The narratives surrounding her announcement to leave Lulu are almost always laced with negative tones, as Day is depicted as an important part of the company's success; therefore, her departure will leave the company in great disarray. News of Day's departure resulted in a drop in Lulu's share price, which is also considered a negative outcome for the company and its investors, and was widely reported.

Day had been a very positive addition to the SL team; her vision and skills are often described in MRL as central to taking the company to new levels of success. "Day has overseen the company's expansion beyond yoga clothes and the more than tripling of the company's share value since she took over . . . in 2008" (MC90). MRL tout her as creative and innovative with a "wide breath of expertise in the international retail market" (MN15). She is known for fostering a successful "collaborative culture" behind the brand (MN20) and guiding the "powerhouse brand

through its biggest rough patch to date” (MN23). She is described as a “highly touted chief executive” (MN12) and a “retail-branding superstar” (MG68). This positive messaging is similar to the sentiments expressed in the narratives about the CEO in the LC corpus; that is, both information streams paint Day in a positive light, emphasizing her positive and important contributions to the company’s growth and success. There is little disparity between the two information streams in how they characterize Day and her contributions to the Lulu.

However, wherein Lulu’s narratives pertaining to Day’s departure are constructed as a positive change for both Lulu and Day, the media describe her departure to be negative for the company. Her resignation is described as bad for Lulu: “shocking” (MN15), “untimely” (MN12), and “a clear negative” for the brand (MN15). The LC corpus does not include any terms or phrases related to Day’s departure that emote negative outcomes for the company. The MRL, on the other hand, describe the loss of Day as leaving Lulu with a “significant void at the top” stating that replacing her will be “difficult” (MN15). Reports about Day’s departure also tend to highlight the lack of information about the reasons behind her leaving. With this lack of information, MRL commonly hypothesize about the circumstances or contributing factors that could have influenced her departure. Most of the reports point to the fact that her resignation announcement came closely after the SLI, perhaps prompting her desire to step away from the company.

The relationship between CEO Christine Day and the company’s founder Chip Wilson is also sometimes referred to in the MRL (though never in LC). Some articles speculate that not only was the SLI a driving force for Day’s resignation, but also the challenges involved in working with Lulu’s founder, Chip Wilson. Wilson is often described as having a hard time giving up control of the company he created, and that he often lacked strategic focus for driving the company. For instance, an article in *The Globe and Mail* estimates that Wilson’s behaviour and/or personality

was a contributing factor to Day’s decision to depart, noting that Wilson was “often all over the place” and that Day often had to “reign him in” (MG50). Some MRL also criticize the company for its lack of transparency about the details of Ms. Day’s stepping down. Day is, however, quoted as being optimistic about her departure; stating that Lulu is “in great shape” and that the company “will more than survive my departure, it will thrive” (MG34).

Upon announcing her resignation—without an immediate successor—Lulu is described as facing “a lot of uncertainty” (MN20: 1). “Questions linger as to why exactly Ms. Day . . . is stepping down so unexpectedly without having groomed an evident successor” (MG55). During the six months that passed between Day’s announcement and the naming of Lulu’s new CEO, a growing volume critical coverage of the company’s SL and the management of the CEO transition emerges. For instance, during this time the company is characterized as “rudderless” (MN12), scrambling to find a new CEO (Ibid), and simply “failing to navigate a leadership transition” (MN12). The lack of information regarding the future leadership of Lulu is “of great concern”, as the “cultural cohesiveness that Ms. Day brought to Lululemon will be very difficult to replace” (MN15). An article in the *National Post* harshly criticizes the company’s transition process, emphasizing the perceived importance of a pre-determined succession plan in instances of SL turnover:

It is hard to understand why the company’s board hadn’t already identified a replacement candidate internally and begun grooming that person. Few tasks are as fundamental to the maintenance of a stable and profitable company than naming the CEO and making sure there’s a qualified candidate to replace him or her on short notice or in years down the road.

(MN12)

In addition to the uncertainty and critical coverage of the slow CEO search and transition, as the months go on, some descriptions of Day take on a negative tone, mainly due to the fact that

a successor has yet to be named. Day’s dedication to the company is questioned, as she is described to have “one foot out the door anyway” (MG68). Knowing who will run the company and how that person will deal with the crisis the company faces emerges as a sub-theme amidst the many different discussions surrounding the uncertainty pertaining to Day’s resignation.

The contrasting and/or alternative narratives pertaining to Day’s departure pose as threats to the company’s reputation. An organizations’ SL—especially the CEO—has a particularly impactful influence on not only how a company operates, but also—and perhaps more importantly—how the company is perceived. The analysis of the MRL corpus revealed that Day’s departure was considered to be a particularly important topic that was worthy of extensive coverage. Not only did it garner attention due to the capital market reactions to the announcement of her departure, but also due to the real or perceived impacts that this change could have on a company that is already in a fragile state.

The announcement of Lulu’s founder Chip Wilson decision to step down as Chairman is first announced by Lulu on December 9, 2013 in a press release titled “Lululemon Athletica appoints Laurent Potdevin as chief executive officer”. Though the purpose of this document is to announce the company’s BoDs’ decision to appoint Laurent Potdevin as the company’s new CEO and a member of its BoD, it also announced Wilson’s stepping down:

Chip Wilson, lululemon’s founder and the Chairman of its Board of Directors, informed the Board of Directors that he is resigning from the position of non-executive Chairman. Mr. Wilson will step down from the role effective prior to the company’s annual meeting in June 2014. The Board has selected Michael Casey as the next Chairman of the Board. . . . We . . . wish to acknowledge the many contributions of our founder, Chip Wilson, whose vision for the business and passion for creating beautiful technical products remain the foundation of the company today.

(L21)

Like the announcement of the CPO stepping down and unlike the announcement of the CEO stepping down, the information around Wilson stepping down from his role as the chairman of the board is brief and concise. Details on the change are not expanded upon; for both the CPO and chairman of the board changes, each announcement is mentioned once (in the entire LC corpus) and limited to approximately 100 words (text on CPO stepping down is 84 words; text on Wilson stepping down from his role as chairman of the board is 102 words). The terse nature of these announcements—though necessary communications—are examples of Eid’s (2008) “double-edged sword” analogy when describing the crux of communication as a crisis management technique. Information can be used as a mechanism through which an organization can manage a crisis; it can disseminate information that can be translated by the media, which can then be used to manage the situation by amplifying knowledge on the situation. However, the media can also translate the narratives presented by the organization into narratives that may be alternate to the organization’s, which can entail completely different information that may discredit, disprove, or challenge the narrative presented by the organization in crisis. In the case of these two SL changes, the media not only amplify the stories, their reporting on such includes speculative narratives through information that was not mentioned in the LC corpus.

Controversial Comments

On November 6, 2013, Lulu’s founder Chip Wilson discussed the women’s yoga pants sheerness issue during an interview with Trish Regan on Bloomberg TV, stating that the company’s pants do not work for all female body types (MC75). The MRL includes coverage on this interview, focusing mainly on how Wilson’s statements ignited a storm of angry customers. An article on *CBC News* notes that Wilson’s comments “ignited a public relations crisis” for Lulu, as many

women spoke out against what they believed were body-shaming comments (Ibid). By stating that some women's bodies were not compatible with the luon yoga pants, resulting potentially in sheerness or the pilling of the fabric on the legs. This resulted in a large online frenzy; social media lit up with women stating their unwillingness to further support the brand, as Wilson's comments were perceived to be "encouraging a culture of skinny women for Lululemon's pricy yoga wear" (MG3). One article in *The Globe and Mail* reported that a 1,200-signature online petition called on Mr. Wilson to apologize for the offensive remarks and to expand the chain's range of sizes (Ibid).

MRL tend to link the controversial comments made by the founder with his resignation as chairman of the board; many news reports in fact applaud his resignation, using his controversial comments as "evidence" of his unfitness for the position. For instance, an article in *The Globe and Mail* (published December 10, 2013, titled "Chairman Chip Wilson to leave as Lululemon names new CEO") states that analysts generally view Mr. Wilson's resignation as chairman as an "appropriate step" that "will allow the new CEO to operate free from the founder's micro-management style" (MG14). The LC does not include any mention of Wilson's controversial public comments about some women's bodies, and does not link Wilson's position change on the BoD to any specific catalyst. The media, however, seek to draw clear connections among Wilson's resignation as chairman and his contentious role in the organization.

Mr. Wilson announced his pending **departure** from his role as non-executive chairman of the company this week, about a month after making **controversial remarks** in a Bloomberg TV interview.

(MN3)

In a television interview last month, **Mr. Wilson tried to explain Lululemon's quality problems**, saying: "Quite frankly, some women's bodies just actually don't work for it. It's really about the rubbing. The company moved to distance itself

from Mr. Wilson, announcing he will **resign as chairman of the company's board** by June.

(MG46)

The founder and chairman of clothing retailer Lululemon Athletica is **stepping down**, about a month after he made **controversial comments seemingly blaming customers' weight for the company's recent sheer pants problem**.

(MC76)

Most of the coverage on Wilson's remarks are highly critical of his statements and tend to perceive his words as body shaming women. Regardless of whether this was his intention, MRL focuses on the online backlash, often quoting peoples' comments on Facebook and Twitter about how unhappy they are with Wilson. A common theme in the coverage of this topic is pointing out that Lulu's brand identity supposedly "empowers women" and offers a product that promotes a healthy lifestyle and body positivity. Wilson's comments, however, are perceived to be antithetical to the company mantra, and ultimately harmful to the company's brand image during a challenging time.

The omission of content in LC about the founder's controversial comments is surprising, especially because of the large amount of online backlash from women and customers who were offended or displeased. This may have been due to the company's strategy to begin distancing itself from Wilson, and while there is logic in this strategy, unfortunately for Lulu, it allowed the media to guide the narratives on this event. Wilson does not shy from the public spotlight and has invoked attention from the media and the public due to his charismatic and opinionated persona. Arguably, his allure and unconventional approach to life and business is what has created the unique brand that is Lulu. Yet, his mention of "some women's bodies" and their compatibility with some of Lulu's garments was a risk, one that was not met with positive reception. Albeit he may not have intended to offend, choosing to discuss women's bodies—with focus on their shape and size—was met with great criticism. The normalization of the objectification and sexualization of

the female body in the media places great pressure on women to look and perform a myopic version of femininity. As people continue to voice their concerns about the negative impacts that such media depictions can have on women and society, some retail brands have developed advertising campaigns and brands based on countering these beauty myths (e.g., Dove's campaign for real beauty, Special K cereal's "feminist"-inspired Own It campaign). Though Lulu's branding includes less overt messages about countering the objectification and sexualization of women's bodies in the media, much of the brand's identity is around self-acceptance and empowerment. Being that the company was first a women's-only clothing line and most of their sales continue to be to adult women, certainly the company is aware of the importance of keeping their most valuable customer happy.

Customer Complaints

A wide-ranging assortment of communication tools accessible to actors in the private and public space that facilitate expansive knowledge sharing capacities exists. People—whether in a formal reporting capacity (e.g., journalist or spokesperson) or informal reporting capacity (e.g., a citizen using a blog or social media to chronicle their experiences, or a customer using a company website to report/rate their experience)—can share their opinions and ideas with ease. These digitally mediated knowledge artefacts may be preserved publicly online, creating a vast “database” of potential source narratives for journalists seeking to re-narrate a story. Such communication can occur in a private channel (e.g., phone call or e-mail), but more and more, complaints, concerns, or feedback—especially regarding negative experiences—are communicated in public channels, such as social media and web-based feedback tools. Journalists looking to write a story on a crisis

turn to these sources to obtain information and additional perspectives on a story, which may or may not align with the discourse being communicated about the crisis by the organization itself.

Like the controversial comments made by Lulu’s founder, customer complaints are also not directly referenced in the LC corpus. Coverage of the comments, though minimal in comparison to the coverage of other crisis symptoms, was of interest and note, as they highlight the impact of the digitization of our world on crisis response, communication, and management. With the growing connectedness of our society, information about customers’ experiences and opinions is readily available online. Such information can be highly attractive to the media, as individual accounts of a company or brand—especially when it is in crisis—can contribute to compelling news coverage. For instance, some reporting on the crisis drew directly from online product reviews that are made on Lulu’s website (which are available to be viewed by anyone). In an article in *The Globe and Mail* (published March 19, 2013), direct quotes from these reviews that emote negative connotations of the company are published:

The quality-control problem has left Lululemon customers bent out of shape. **“Great, you’re accepting the crappy black luon back, but what about all the sheer colors?”** wrote a customer by the name of “lulu lover” on the company’s website. **“Too little too late for this buyer!”**

(MG43)

Other articles highlight personal stories about people’s experience with the SLI, and then also go on to note the existence of negative comments and reviews online:

Grace Fusillo-Lombardi was at a yoga class at her downtown Toronto gym about a month ago when she finally saw for herself why some Lululemon pants were making women blush. “There was a woman in front of me and I could see right through,” she says. “She was wearing a thong. And I immediately thought, that’s what they’re talking about.” Ms. Fusillo-Lombardi doesn’t know whether the woman’s yoga pants were from the batch recalled in the spring, or whether they were newer versions of Lululemon’s trademark “luon pants,” re-engineered to be less transparent though still drawing comments. Ms. Fusillo-Lombardi and her 16-year-old daughter Alessandra were surprised to see such sheer

pants after the recall and the widespread publicity. Both are diehard fans of the Vancouver-based company, she said last week as she emerged from a Lululemon outlet at a popular Toronto mall, but they're more cautious now when they shop. **Some customers interviewed had no concerns after the restocking of Lululemon's shelves with newer pants, but others still do, and they've let the company know, based on the comments on the company's website.**

(MG36)

Though it is challenging (if not near impossible) for the company to control what their customers say about their product online, the existence and media coverage of this information is undoubtedly an obstacle for Lulu. Online discussion—whether it be on social media or the company's website—allows people the opportunity to characterize a company and its products however they choose. Whether or not the sentiments are truthful or accurate, they can make for catchy or newsworthy content. Additionally, the inclusion of individual accounts and experiences of customers contributes to the development of content that includes a humanized angle. This can be particularly attractive for media content creators, and it can be alluring to readers to read about personalized experiences or interactions with the company in crisis.

Response Strategy

According to George (1991), effective crisis response strategies should be tailored to the specific crisis (e.g., consider the variables, symptoms, and risks involved in the situation); therefore, strategies must be “context-dependent” (Eid, 2008: 48). In looking to understand how a crisis is depicted, it is not only necessary to analyze how the crisis and its catalyst(s) and symptom(s) are described, but also to establish how the company portrays its crisis response. This became increasingly clear during the QCA process, as both information streams dedicated substantial content to the discussion of how the crisis would be managed, was being managed, or had been managed. Not only was crisis response strategy a prominent narrative, but it also contributed to

further understanding the similarities and differences between the two texts, which ultimately contributed to further analyzing the process through which the media translate to create their own narratives.

The purpose of including information in company literature about the crisis response strategy/strategies being used to mitigate a high stress situation seeks to facilitate transparency of Lulu's operations around the crisis and instill confidence in customers and stakeholders in the company's ability to manage the situation and move past the crisis in a productive and meaningful manner. In the LC corpus, minimal text dedicated to discussing the details of Lulu's crisis response strategies is found. Though the company does provide regular updates on the status of the crisis as issues unfolded, discussion on the exact interventions and strategies being enacted are limited. One of the few instances wherein the company does announce information on response strategy occurs on April 3, 2013 in a press release titled "Lululemon announces luon production update" (L12, see Table 8). In this, the company does disclose that it had implemented quality management measures to mitigate the production and manufacturing issues related to this SLI. The response strategy shared by LC is specifically focused on the SLI and managing the related problems. However, as the various other symptoms of the OQMC unfold, Lulu remains mum on additional strategies to mitigate such. Despite the company's lack of external messaging about other strategies, it is believed that Lulu likely developed and implemented a variety of interventions to deal with the other problems plaguing the company. In fact, the choice to withhold information on other strategies speaks to a larger approach the company was taking, which was to limit the amount of information about the inner crisis response operations occurring. This was likely to deter or curb perceptions of the company as in a state of crisis and to seek to maintain a positive reputation.

Immediate media coverage following Lulu's announcement of the SLI (L10) tends to be

like the company’s announcement of the problem: it simply states the news of the SLI,

Excerpt from L12		Various MRL Excerpts
<p>Lululemon had taken steps prior to the black luon issue to bolster its internal product expertise, including the addition of senior level capabilities in quality, raw materials and production. This new team was instrumental in determining the root cause of the issue and has initiated three work streams to address what we believe are the contributing causes.</p> <p>Work streams and actions include:</p> <p>1. Testing & processes: lululemon's quality team is assessing all luon products in the production pipeline according to newly implemented rigorous testing and quality processes that includes revised specifications for modulus (stretch), weight and tolerances.</p> <p>2. Factory oversight: lululemon employees have been stationed in factories to monitor and test products and will educate internal teams and manufacturing partners on new testing standards and methodologies.</p> <p>3. Leadership and structure: lululemon is building a stronger internal structure with new leadership and cross-functional team capability that we believe will create a more robust organization to support our long-term growth strategy.</p>		<p>The company has hired new manufacturers and beefed up on-site quality inspections of the materials, sewing standards and finished goods where they are made. (MN25)</p> <p>The company said it had already taken steps prior to the black-pants gaffe to bolster its internal product expertise, including adding senior officials in the areas of quality, raw materials, and production. The new team was instrumental in determining the root cause of the issue, it said. (MG54)</p> <p>The retailer bumped up its quality-control testing of raw materials and weights of its fabrics. (MG47)</p> <p>Lululemon blamed the sheerness on style change and production problems and hired a new team to oversee the making of the pants. (MC77)</p>

Table 7: LC and MRL Depictions of Crisis Response (early in lifecycle, minimal variance)

reporting on the known facts associated with the issue. Table 9 illustrates the similarities between the LC and MRL during this early reporting on the crisis response strategies.

Lulu’s depiction of the crisis response strategies is positive; the company defines new QM measures and does not include any terms or phrases that indicate a lack of confidence in the strategy.

However, the MRL also includes messages that denote a lack of trust in the strategies employed. This type of narrative pertaining to Lulu’s crisis response strategy is unique to the MRL, as Lulu’s depiction of the strategies emote confidence. This lack of confidence in the strategies is demonstrated in the excerpt below, which is accompanied by text boxes that demonstrate the tactics used by the journalist to discredit the viability and effectiveness of the company’s crisis response measures.

In the aftermath of the sheer pants recall, which prompted a US\$17.5-million writedown, Lululemon vastly improved its quality control measure, but those in turn prompted supply chain backlogs and ongoing inventory issues. In addition, there has been repeated questions as to whether or not consumers will stay loyal amid quality concerns and Mr. Wilson’s remarks. (MN19)

The journalist states that “vastly improved its quality control measures”; however, this is immediately followed by a statement that emphasizes problems in the company’s operations.

In addition to discussing the company’s improved quality control, the journalist the goes on question customer loyalty due to another problem being faced by the company: controversial remarks from the company’s founder.

Dissimilar to Lulu’s description of the crisis response and the media’s early reporting on the crisis response, the excerpt above demonstrates the journalist’s choice to deviate from the linguistic and

discursive functions used by Lulu, to create a narrative that—though reporting on the same narrative (i.e., Lulu’s crisis response) emotes different understandings of the crisis response. The inclusion of content that questions the strategies of the company, though potentially harmful to the company’s reputation, is a common practice in news reporting. The media are meant to not only report on people and events, but to also exercise a level of criticism and curiosity that can provide audiences with alternative opinions and perspectives. This example of the media being critical of the company’s crisis response strategies—though divergent from the company’s crisis narratives—is an important and necessary element of the media’s role.

Discursive Tensions

Throughout the analytic process, it became increasingly clear that discursive tensions existed between the two information streams. While LC and MRL are bound together by their shared goal to narrate the crisis, they each exhibit individual contexts and constraints that are shaped by their unique social agendas. These social agendas are imagined as driving forces that motivate the translation agents—which are, in the case of this study, journalists—to rewrite/re(narrate) the OQMC in different ways due to the ideological influences that shape the discourse in which each information stream operates. However, according to Palmer and Dunford (2002), given that discourses may operate in separate domains, any argument that they co-exist and are in tension should be supported empirically. They conceptualize tension between/among multiple discourses as “forces . . . pulling against each other” (Palmer & Dunford: 1050). When this is demonstrated, they suggest that it is important to analyze the connections between discourses, that is, “how they are kept in tension at one and the same time” (Palmer & Dunford: 1051). The tension—and its

production and reproduction—becomes an important part of demonstrating how discourses can co-exist. “This means paying attention to the conditions under which discursive tension becomes disrupted—and the interpretive routines and practices which are used to avoid or repair such disruptions” (Ibid).

Lulu is an organization that is driven by profits from the sale of athleisure clothing; it has been highly successful in this regard, propelling and participating in the pioneering of an innovative fashion trend that has dominated North American markets and continues to expand. The impetus for Lulu’s success is largely due to the company’s strong brand power: it has developed a “cult following” among female consumers and has dominated the Canadian athleisure market through its reputation as an innovative brand focused on quality and technical fabrics. Central to Lulu’s success as an organization is the perception among consumers of having a positive reputation, which is stimulated and sustained through efficacious communication about the company that is circulated in the public sphere.

The retail industry is economically driven; marketing, pricing models, and merchandising are used to generate a brand that is understood by consumers and profitable (Zentes, Morschett & Schramm-Klein, 2016). Therefore, crisis communication strategies used by retail organizations seek to minimize brand damage and loss of profits. Crisis communication can also be used as an opportunity to reconnect with customers or refresh the company’s products and approach. Most importantly, crisis communication seeks to instill faith and commitment among consumers that the organization is stable and capable of effectively managing the crisis. These goals that drive the retail industry (and thus Lulu), create the social context that drives the ways in which Lulu develops and disseminates crisis communication. This is evidenced in Lulu’s approach to characterizing the crisis as identified in the LC corpus.

The media, on the other hand, though also driven by profits, operate in a different social context. Although most newsrooms claim to work independently from outside forces such as advertisers and politics, the overarching corporate policy and mission of media outlets can be a significant element of editorial context—for example, in determining the newsworthiness of events and even how they will be covered (Joye, 2009). Acknowledging this selective approach to coverage and following previous research stating that for most people crises and disasters exist only when publicized by the media (Franks, 2008), it is possible to view crises as media constructs in a sense that the media “create” a crisis when they decide to recognize it (Benthall, 1993: 13). Additionally, the media have become an increasingly commercialized and competitive space, with journalists and media conglomerates operating in a highly crowded environment wherein the attention from advertisers and the engagement from consumers—though challenging—remains paramount. This has resulted in news media coverage that is more sensationalized and tabloidized than ever before, with journalists drawing on information presentation techniques that seek to motivate audiences to engage with and consume content (Suchday, Benkhokha & Santoro, (2016). Organizational crises, particularly those that occur in high-profile companies, such as Lulu, are therefore extremely attractive grounds for the media, as it allows them the opportunity to narrate a story that is likely of interest to consumers. This sensationalistic approach to translating the crisis is evidenced in many of the characterizations of the crisis in the MRL corpus.

As mentioned in previous sections, in the early stages of the crisis lifecycle the media translations of the LC were close in proximity; the lexical terms and discourses used in the texts were similar. At this time, minimal distance is exhibited between the two information streams. The analysis reveals that throughout the lifecycle of the crisis, the narratives presented in LC are linear in nature; they are structured and remain consistent. Changes in the company’s approach to

constructing the crisis do not occur and similar lexical items are used throughout to demonstrate a consistent crisis narrative. Dissimilar to a company in crisis, the media are not bound by crisis response strategies—they are driven by economic gain, which is obtained through the successful uptake of and engagement with their content. As the crisis lifecycle continued/matured, the similarities between the depictions of the OQMC in LC and MRL decreased and the variety of additional, alternative, and competing discourses in the MRL emerged.

This close textual and discursive proximity identified in the early crisis translations is indicative of the media's large reliance on the company for information. At this time, the news value of the story motivated journalists to cover the story, despite the limited amount of information available on the crisis. During these early stages of the crisis reporting, the media demonstrate a dependence on Lulu for information; they use very similar language and commonly quote the company directly. This is exemplified in Table 10, wherein I have illustrated the close relationship between Lulu and the media; here it is possible to see that not only is there limited linguistic variances seen between the two texts, despite the fact that each information stream operates in a different social context, the discourses pertaining to the crisis narratives are also similar.

Excerpt from L10 (March 18, 2013)		Excerpt from MG67 (March 19, 2013)
<p>Lululemon Athletic Inc. today notified guests that we expect a shortage in our supply of black luon pants and crops. We have determined that certain shipments of product received from our factories and available in stores from March 1, 2013 do not meet our technical specifications. The ingredient, weight and longevity qualities of the pants remain the same but the coverage does not, resulting in a level of sheerness in some of our women's black luon bottoms that falls short of our very high standards.</p> <p>. . . We believe the affected items represented approximately 17% of all women's bottoms in our stores and for the near term there will be a shortage of these styles available to our guests.</p> <p>. . . We expect this issue will have a significant impact on our financial results.</p>		<p>Lululemon Athletica In. will take a "significant" financial hit as a result of production problems and an expected shortage of its signature black "luon" women's yoga pants.</p> <p>The Vancouver-based athletic wear chain said late Monday that a large shipment of its stretchy black pants—long and cropped versions—didn't meet its technical specifications.</p> <p>The fabric of the pants affected is thinner than it should be, resulting in "a level of sheerness . . . that falls short of our very high standards."</p> <p>Lululemon has said it has pulled the items, which make up about 17 per cent of all women's bottoms in its more than 200 stores.</p> <p>"For the near term there will be a shortage of these styles," the company said in a statement, which was released after stock markets closed.</p>

**Table 8: Minimal Textual and Discursive Variance between LC and MRL
(beginning of crisis lifecycle)**

This limited linguistic and discursive variance is symbolic of the company's early control over the message. Being that the goal of corporate communication is to influence public opinions and understandings of the company, at this stage, the company is especially effective in its control over messaging about the OQMC. In this, the media acted as amplifiers to Lulu's message: the impact of discourses pertaining to the crisis were given additional reach and validity through the media's willingness to participate in the construction of the crisis in a manner very similar to Lulu.

During this early stage of the crisis lifecycle, the tension between the two information streams is not clearly manifested in the media translations of the OQMC; instead, the LC and MRL can be perceived to be working in tandem, with Lulu providing the media with information and the media translating such into similar reproductions. However, as time passes, the media perceive the crisis to be lacking resolve; the SLI is believed to be persistent and other issues within the company emerge, such as SL turmoil and negative capital market reactions to Lulu's share price. The volume of media coverage about the OQMC is compounded with additional information sources (e.g., social media, online reviews of the company). It is the appearance of these events and the emergence and usage of varying source narratives that are believed to trigger a change in how the media translate narratives about the crisis. That is, as time passes and the crisis lifecycle continues to extend, the media turn to linguistic and discursive translation practices that not only reproduce key news and announcements about the crisis (which are often from LC), but they draw on a multitude of crisis narratives, wherein they are able to create discourses about the crisis that imply an organization-wide crisis that persists over time and remains unresolved. This practice is found consistently throughout the various crisis narratives and is exemplified in Table 11, which includes the resignation announcement of the company's CEO, Christine Day from Lulu and an article from *CBC News* published on the same day (i.e., both pieces published on June 10, 2013).


Excerpt from L12 (June 10, 2013)		Excerpt from MC87 (June 10, 2013)
<p>Lululemon . . . announced today that after a five and half year tenure Christine Day will step down as the company's Chief Executive Officer when a successor is named. The Board has formed a search committee and enacted its CEO succession plan. Ms. Day's decision is being announced at this time so the Board has the benefit of a healthy transition period, and can openly use that time for a thorough search for the next CEO.</p> <p>. . . "Plans have been laid for the next five years and a vision set for the next ten. Now is the right time to bring in a CEO who will drive the next phase of lululemon's development and growth. I will continue to actively lead the organization while the Board searches for a new CEO, and will work to ensure a smooth transition."</p> <p>"Christine has been an exceptional leader for lululemon, successfully embracing the culture while growing the business and returning value to all of our stakeholders including our guests, employees, partners and shareholders," said Chip Wilson, Chairman of the lululemon Board of Directors. "I thank Christine for her leadership, contributions and commitment to lululemon. I am confident that we will find the right person to lead this strong team and continue to build on this excellent foundation."</p>		<p>Lululemon Athletica says it will begin looking for a new leader to head the yoga clothing maker after chief executive officer Christine Day announced Monday that she is leaving the company.</p> <p>Day, who offered little explanation for her departure, said she will remain with the company while the board searches for a new CEO . . . Day's departure follows problems earlier this year that saw the company pull its black Luon yoga pants from store shelves for being too sheer.</p> <p>The move forced the company to cut its financial guidance for the year.</p> <p>The company blamed the sheerness on a style change and production problems and hired a new team to oversee the making of the pants.</p> <p>Following the debacle, Sheree Waterson, the company's chief product officer, left the company. Specific reasons for Waterson's departure were not disclosed.</p> <p>Soon after the recall was announced, a U.S. pension fund invested in the company launched a lawsuit against Lululemon over its decision to increase potential bonuses for executives prior to announcing the problems with the pants.</p>

Table 9: Textual and Discursive Variance between LC and MRL (in later stages of crisis lifecycle)

Dissimilar to the news media reports that were published in the immediate aftermath of the crisis (wherein minimal linguistic and discursive variance between the two information streams is clear, see Table 11), as the lifecycle of the crisis progresses, the media are less committed to maintaining minimal linguistic and discursive variance between the two texts. For example, in Table 11, it is possible to see that the first sentence (highlighted in grey) of both information streams

entails minimal linguistic and discursive variance; both sentences emote similar discourses: announcing the CEO's departure in a neutral manner. However, in the second sentence (highlighted in red)—though the media do reflect the same sentiment about the company enacting a search committee to locate a new CEO, they also make note of the limited information provided about Day's departure. This is a mechanism used by the journalist to instill a sense of curiosity and uncertainty in the reader; in the journalist's choice to make a judgement on the volume of information provided by the company about the departure, the journalist is able to infer that the company may be withholding information about the departure. Following this second sentence, Lulu and the media's reporting on the departure diverge substantially. I have used brackets around parts of the excerpts to identify where this occurs; instead of using an arrow, used to denote the process of direct information movement, I have included an "X" to demonstrate the dissimilarities between the two texts. This X does not indicate that a translation process has not occurred, instead, it indicates that while both information streams are striving to narrate Day's departure (i.e., the same event), the linguistic and discursive items used to elaborate and further describe the narrative diverge.

Here, the journalist does not draw directly from LC, simply reproducing the same discourse (through the use of similar lexical terms and direct quotes, as demonstrated in Table 11). Though the purpose of the news article is to announce Day's departure, the journalist corroborates evidence of the company's instability by mentioning four additional problems faced by the company:

- **SLI:** “Day’s departure follows problems earlier this year that saw the company pull its black Luon yoga pants from store shelves for being too sheer”.
- **Financial problems:** “The move forced the company to cut its financial guidance for the year”.
- **SL change:** “Following the debacle, Sheree Waterson, the company’s chief product officer, left the company. Specific reasons for Waterson's departure were not disclosed”.
- **Legal problems:** “Soon after the recall was announced, a U.S. pension fund invested in the company launched a lawsuit against Lululemon over its decision to increase potential bonuses for executives prior to announcing the problems with the pants”.

The changes in the interdiscursive translation practices that are demonstrated through the differences in linguistic and discursive various in Table 11 and Table 12 are indicative of a broader translation pattern in identified in the analysis of the media’s translations of Lulu’s OQMC. That is, the discursive changes found are said to be influenced by the lapsing time, which allowed for the media to not only have more time to research and explore additional information sources, they were also granted the opportunity to spend more time developing a strategy and approach to the crisis reporting that was positioned to be successful in engaging with media consumers. Thus, as the lifecycle of the crisis continued to be prolonged, the tensions and differences between the two information streams—in terms of how they reported on the crisis and what they reported—increased.

The variety in the reproduction of meaning in the MRL suggests that the company struggled to maintain control over public understandings of this crisis. The media are able to characterize the crisis through a variety of different linguistic and discursive functions; some of which demonstrate close proximity to how crisis narratives are described by the company, but most of which demonstrate variety in the ways in which the crisis is characterized. This linguistic and discursive variance exhibited between the two information streams is problematic for Lulu; through translations of crisis narratives, the media are able to emphasize negative aspects of the company, sensationalize the crisis, and derail or discredit the information provided by the company. Here, the media wield power over the company; their power and reach are greater than that of Lulu's, allowing for the influence of the translations to have greater impact on public perceptions of the crisis. The media have a greater influence on how people relate to, construct, and understand the crisis; in this, I suggest that the linguistic and discursive variance between the LC and MRL is indicative of the media's access to control over the company's crisis communication. The results of this study indicate, that the further the distance between the two information streams (in terms of discourse), the higher the risk for the company to sustain reputation damage and effectively manage the crisis.

Discussion

Constructing the Crisis through Narratives: LC and MRL

Despite the OQMC clearly being a crisis situation that impacted different levels and operations of Lulu, the analysis of the LC corpus reveals that the LC characterized the SLI as the central problem: it described the SLI as the main catalyst consistently throughout the crisis lifecycle. This

is illustrated in the conceptual model of the crisis developed based on the findings of the analysis of LC about the OQMC (see Figure 10). As demonstrated in Figure 10, the central—and only—problem (according to Lulu) was the SLI, which resulted in three other problems: legal proceedings, decreased profits, and threatened brand identity. LC directly correlates all of these crisis symptoms as outcomes of the SLI. Figure 10 demonstrates how Lulu constructed the crisis: the symptoms were directly related to the SLI, but *unrelated* to one another.

Interestingly, the SL changes and turmoil were not narrated as being related to the SLI or as a part of a larger crisis in the company. Instead, LC consistently described the changes in SL as normal and natural occurrences in the organization. The company also describes the SLI as being over and resolved in a relatively short time, noting that the stock lost due to the SLI was returned to stores within 90 days of the occurrence. LC notes that customers reported to be happy with the product following the return of the stock.

The crisis response strategies are constructed in a manner that aligns with Lulu's general narratives around the crisis; that is, the only crisis strategies discussed pertain directly to the SLI. Mention of how the other problems plaguing the company will be mitigated is not provided. Unsurprisingly, the company's narratives pertaining to the effectiveness of these crisis response strategies are positive—they emphasize the effectiveness of the strategies and seek to provide examples of how the strategies are working effectively.

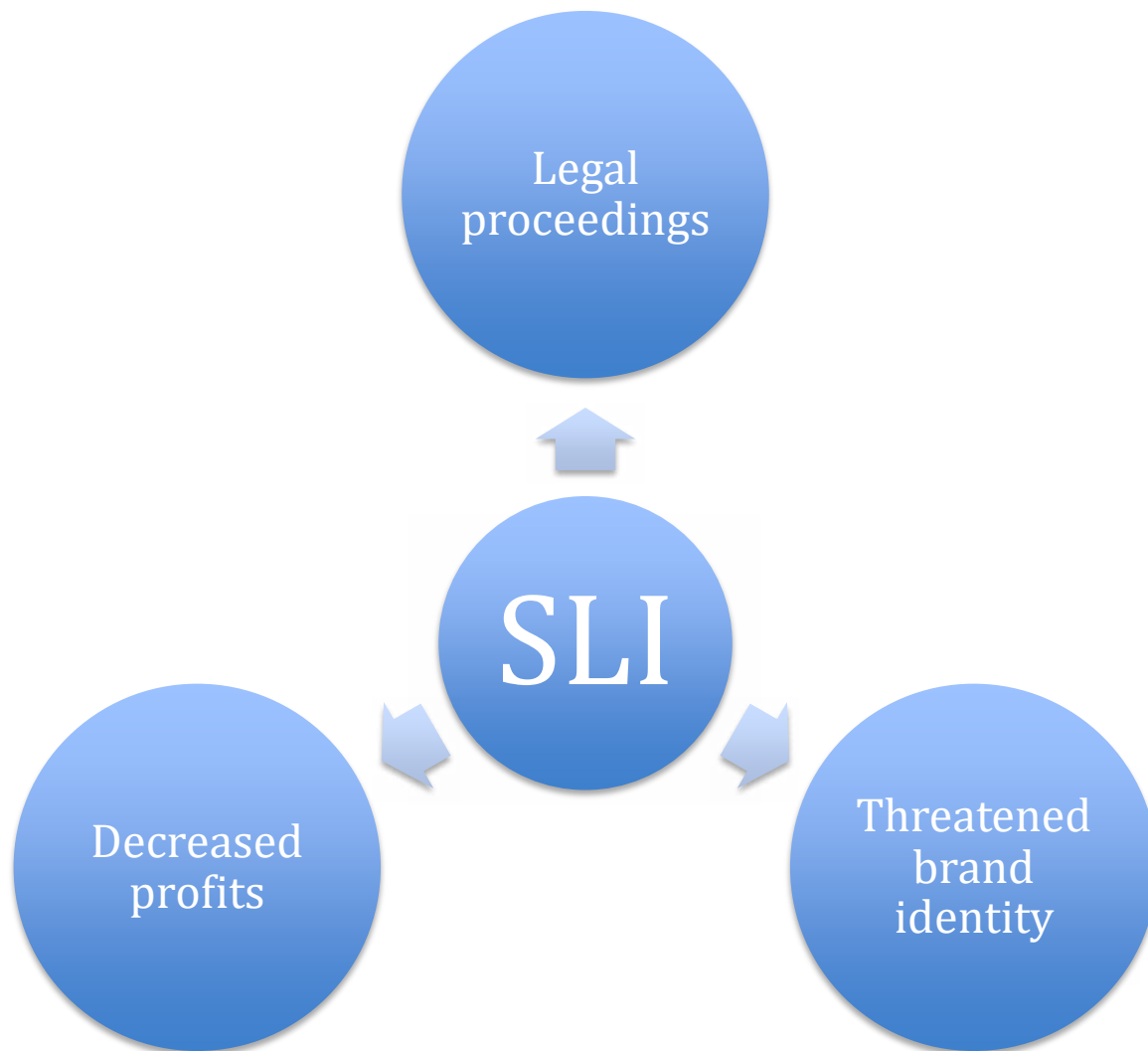


Figure 9: OQMC According to LC

The depiction of the OQMC in the MRL data evolves throughout the sample. Initial reports seem to focus mainly on the SLI. The coverage in the immediate days and weeks following the announcement of the SLI showed little distance between the narratives found the LC. As issues with managing the SLI emerge, followed by changes in SL and the controversial comments from

the company's founder, MRL's description of the company and its current state of operation and function becomes increasingly critical.

MRL draw on various source narratives that contribute to the construction of their crisis narratives, sometimes using information quoted directly from LC, sometimes quoting sources external to the company, and sometimes drawing their own conclusions and inferences based on observations. Most articles make mention of the various different negative events (i.e., symptoms) plaguing the company; this is in contrast to Lulu's corporate literature, which discusses symptoms separately, framing them as isolated incidents. Interestingly, when depicting the company's effectiveness of the crisis response, narratives tended to be more optimistic, with many emoting confidence in the company's ability to recover and succeed past the crisis.

The analysis also reveals the ways in which the media often sensationalized or drew increased attention to certain elements of the crisis. Reports about the company facing many problems at once (e.g., manufacturing glitches, stock shortages, not having a CEO, and the volatile nature of capital market reactions to the company) were very common. This is a typical media tactic used to increase or sustain readership, and is present in the MRL.

A conceptual model is presented in Figure 11, which—based on the analysis of the MRL—seeks to demonstrate how the media portrayed the crisis. The MRL depicted the crisis as one complete entity, with each symptom playing a role in the larger QM problems facing the company. In this, each symptom is part of the crisis and builds upon the previous symptom.

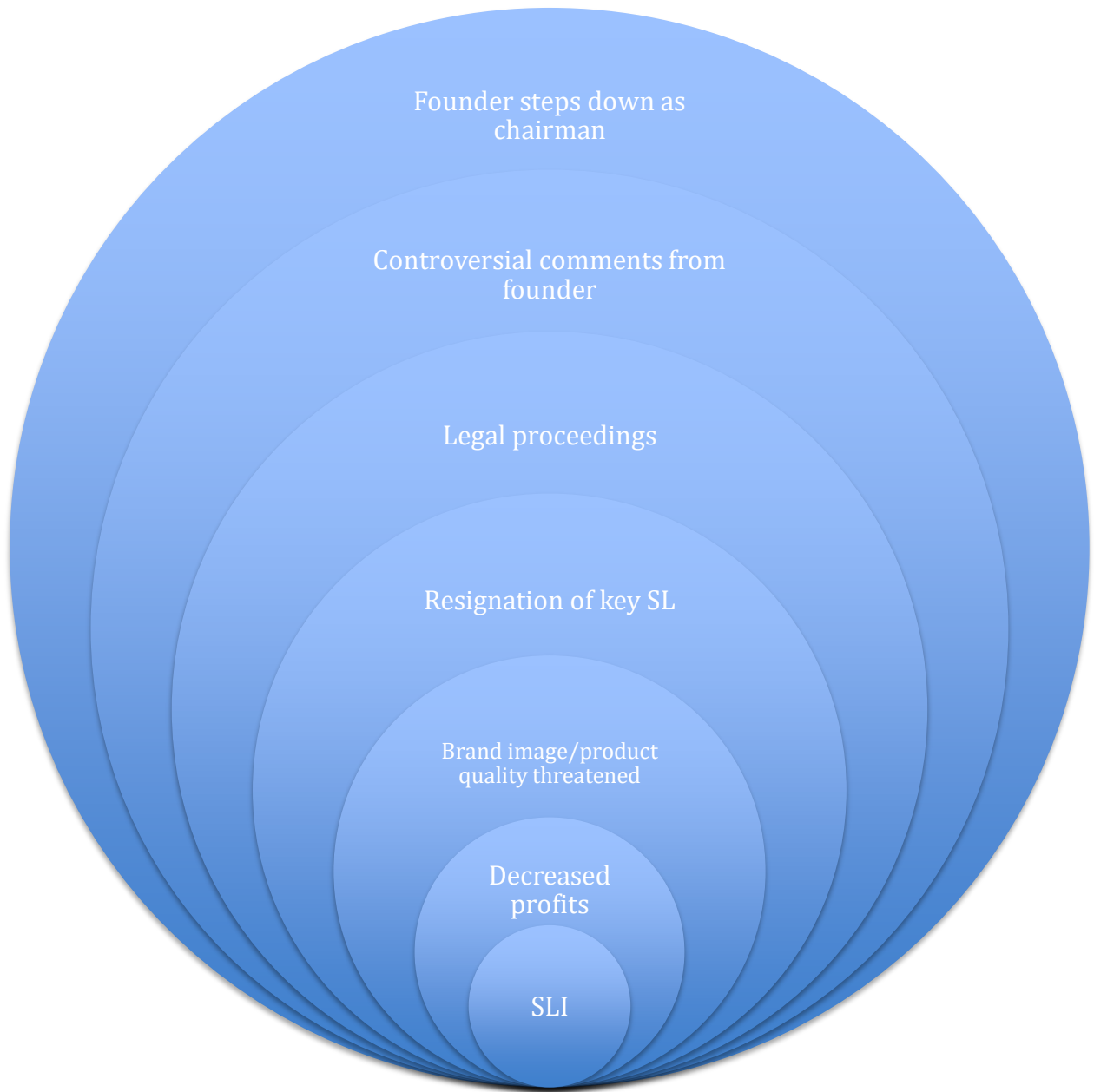


Figure 10: OQMC According to MRL

Narrative Differences: The Evolution of Change

As highlighted in various parts of the reporting, there are many instances in which the media and Lulu differ in their constructions of the crisis, which was identified through the labelling and categorization of different narratives. There are also instances wherein the narratives found in the two information streams were minimally different. In this section I further discuss the differences and the motivations that may have participated in such.

The lack of difference between the two information streams most frequently occurred in the early days and weeks of the crisis lifecycle. During this time, the media's interpretations of the crisis (as evidenced in their content) demonstrate minimal difference from LC; in fact, the media tend to draw primarily on LC to construct their coverage. The media used direct quotes and similar (sometimes identical) wording and phrasing found in the LC to create their content. These similarities, which I sometimes discussed in reference to "equivalence", are attributed to the limited volume of information available about the crisis during this time. Therefore, during this initial phase of reporting, the media's coverage of the crisis was very much in accordance to the organization's crisis communication strategy. Though the information was translated from one institutional context to another (i.e., from an organization's corporate literature to a media outlet's content), little distance is found between the two information streams.

Schranz and Eisenegger (2016) state that the media continue to demonstrate an increasing interest in the coverage of organizational crises, which is attributed to the commercial gain that can come from covering news values that are known to attract audiences (e.g., scandal, prominence, conflict, and crisis). Due to the crowded mediascape and the 24/7 online news cycle, journalists operate in a highly competitive news space. Therefore, getting the message out about the striking of a negative event, such as Lulu's SLI—even if it meant relying solely on one

information source (i.e., Lulu's corporate literature)—was more of a priority than developing a news story that included a variety of different sources. At this phase of crisis reporting, the company's information is simply amplified. This demonstrates, that during this period, Lulu was successful in their ability to stay ahead of the media and maintain control of the shaping of media narratives.

With the passing of time, the narratives about the crisis found in the media begin to take on their own "identity". It is at this stage that the media begin to investigate the organization in greater detail, creating textual content about the crisis that constructs narratives in a manner that are identified as being driven more so by the commercial goals of the media. To elaborate: throughout the lifecycle of the crisis, should the media have simply acted as an arm of Lulu's messaging, the content would have remained consistent with the company and lacked many additional details that can elicit interest among audiences, such as the problems with SL and the controversy sparked by the founder's comments about women's bodies and Lulu's products. The inclusion of additional details and the construction of sensationalized coverage of the drama occurring at the company is a highly lucrative trove of content that can attract and sustain readers. It is suggested that the media's choice to cover Lulu's OQMC was very much due to the company's high visibility in Canada—with the company being widely recognized as homegrown retail star, their missteps were known to have been an alluring story for audiences.

Drawing attention to the company, and commonly highlighting the unfavourable aspects of the OQMC, the analysis revealed that the media did not shy away from creating a grand narrative around Lulu that commonly sought to highlight shortcomings of the brand and question the company's future. Lulu was not spared media criticism and sensationalization. Certainly, the ways in which people, organizations, and events are covered in the media are commonly linked to their

involvement with and/or relation to the people who are in control of and own media outlets. The influence of media owners' ideological preferences ultimately impact what and how stories are told. This ideological preference has a "trickle-down" effect, which is expressed through journalists' approach to and coverage of stories. While Lulu was able to recover from the crisis, the high level of coverage and the variety in narratives pertaining to the OQMC—some of which were alternative, tangential, or in opposition to Lulu's narratives—indicates that Lulu's ownership and/or BoD likely did not have some type of corporate relationship with the media outlets included in the study that might have allowed for less coverage of the OQMC (so as to limit stakeholders' concern about the company's problems), and perhaps coverage that was more so in alignment with the narratives being communicated by Lulu.

The analysis of the LC data reveals that in many instances, Lulu sought to downplay the struggles it was being faced with and sometimes completely ignore or omit information about the crisis. Though this is considered a risky and potentially harmful crisis management strategy, it is a commonly used tactic by organizations in crisis. As seen in the evaluation of the LC and MRL data, and the analysis of the translation of the LC to create the MRL, the MRL entails a variety of source narratives, many of which include additional perspectives and ideas that fill in these information gaps. As the crisis unfolds, media took control as the "original" narrator of some aspects of the crisis due to the organization's inability or choice not to communicate about certain symptoms (e.g., controversial comments made by the company's founder). In this, Lulu was unable to consistently stay ahead of the communication on the crisis, allowing the media to translate, narrate, and re-narrate many symptoms of the crisis. It is suggested that because of the company's inability to stay ahead of the messaging, the lifecycle of the crisis was prolonged. However, in the same vein, it is also acknowledged that the environment in which organizations

must manage crises is one of great volatility due to the challenges faced by the multidirectional and multifaceted nature of communication tools and journalistic practices occurring today.

Translation in the Construction of Crisis

This study seeks to understand online journalistic textual reporting as a translation process. Instead of seeing news reporting merely as a communication practice in which the news media disseminate information to an audience, this study seeks to delve in to the mechanisms involved in the process through which journalistic content is created. Understanding this process and investigating the ways in which different information streams narrate a crisis allows for a detailed comprehension of how the re-reporting of narratives (which is considered a process of intralingual translation and interdiscursive translation) through the media impact how an organization in crisis is perceived.

Journalism is traditionally analyzed and conceptualized within the field of communication and media studies. Viewing journalism through a translation studies lens, and conceptualizing the task as a process of—in this case of this study—translation, allows for a more detailed understanding how the news media re-construct and recontextualize narratives about a crisis. In this, media messages are understood in alignment with Hobbs' (1998) approach, wherein media messages are considered constructions: representations of events or ideas that are communicated through text. The findings of the analysis demonstrate that the media are not submissive in their construction of crisis narratives; they do not rely solely on an organization's messaging. This ability to intervene in the process of narration and re-narration in a highly impactful communication channel (the news media) allows them to challenge information from the original text (e.g., an organizations' corporate literature), and construct new understandings of our reality through text (Baker, 2014). As seen in the findings of the analysis, the media draw on a plethora

of source narratives to create new and sometimes additional understandings of an organizational crisis. The differences in the narratives found in this study are attributed to the different social roles that each information stream performs. Lulu, seeking to “manage the message”, applied a cautious approach to messaging about the crisis, crafting narratives through terms and phrases that sought to downplay the severity of the crisis, limit discussion of additional symptoms, and reiterate the company’s commitment to quality an innovative design. In addition to the use of lexical items that emote organizational stability and control, the overall volume of content dedicated to discussing the crisis was limited. For instance, mention of large SL changes, such as the departure of the CPO and the founder’s stepping down as chairman of the board, were given minimal textual real estate in the company’s literature.

The media, however, translate information for a different purpose: to increase readership for commercial gain. Though the same general narrative is being translated—which is information about Lulu’s OQMC—the outcome of the media’s translation often demonstrates difference from the source text (i.e., Lulu’s communication). Here, Mossop’s (1983) model of “the translator as rapporteur” (1983: 244) is particularly useful in not only understanding the differences in the narratives found in the two different information streams, but also in unpacking the motivation behind the differing constructions of the crisis. Mossop’s model (presented in Chapter Two) demonstrates that translation is not simply the transfer of a message from one text to another, but instead is the removal from one complete communication system ($A \rightarrow B$) and incorporation into another ($X \rightarrow C$). The translator (X) is represented as the author of the translation, but more specifically, Mossop suggests that the “ X is a rapporteur”: someone who is dissimilar to the source-text (A) who is tasked with explaining what A wrote to B . Though in most cases X analyzes what

the source-text author A has written, and then makes decisions about what they *deem relevant* to C (Mossop, 1983).

To understand how the media reported on the crisis, I relied heavily on using Mossop's (1983) model to conceptualize reporting. His notion of the translator as the "rapporteur" is particularly relevant in looking at *(intralingual and interdiscursive) translation as journalism in the context of organizational crisis reporting. In reflecting on this model as I completed the analysis of the two information streams, I was consistently reminded—particularly when identifying the alternative or differing narratives found in the MRL that were distanced from the constructions of the different crisis narratives—that the decision making that motivated the journalists creating this content was less driven by what X deems relevant to C (as posited by Mossop). Instead, my reimagination of this model as an output of this study is that due to the media's fixation on the coverage of crises (which is attributed to the news value of scandal, conflict, crisis, etc.), X's decisions in the reporting process are less about what X deems *relevant* to C, and more about what X believes will attract C to *engage* with the text. I emphasize that in the case of organizational crisis news reporting (and most other types of news reporting), ideological and economic factors predominantly drive the journalist's decision-making process that results in the creation of C. The journalist's/translator's choices are driven less by deciding what is relevant to the audience (C), and guided more so—if not completely—by the expectations placed on the journalist/translator: which is to create content that aligns with and reifies the ideologies of the media outlet (which is dictated by media ownership) and results in engagement.

The importance in engagement, particularly online engagement, with news media is that— from an advertiser's perspective—when consumers (i.e., media audiences/consumers) are highly "engaged" with media content, they can be more responsive to advertising (Calder, Malthouse &

Schaedel, 2009). With the mediascape becoming increasingly cluttered, advertisers are keen to invest in media content that will provide the best possible return. While the news media was long seen as the epicentre for advertising space, the ever-expanding digital mediascape continues to offer advertisers a smorgasbord of new, innovative ways to showcase and sell their products. Social media mammoths, such as Facebook, offer advertisers data and engagement statistics that are stiff competition for news media outlets, which continues to pressure journalists, editors, and media companies as a whole, to offer up unique content that is worthy of today's highly sought-after advertising dollars. Therefore, in reflecting on Mossop's model, the findings of this study are thought to be potentially useful in further refining his concept of translation; instead re-envisioning that in the case of news media journalism/translation, though X draws on A's output to B to develop a general understanding of B, and A's intentions in creating B, ultimately, X makes decisions about how to construct the new narratives that will be expressed in C based on attracting and creating highly engaged users, which results in increased advertising dollars for the media outlet. In this, the process of $X \rightarrow C$ becomes a commercialized process that is charged by the media outlet's ideologies.

This is not to say that the process of $A \rightarrow B$ is not also a commercially- or ideologically-charged process. This is highlighted by the results of this study that have deconstructed Lulu's narratives about the crisis and its own crisis response strategies. When an organization (i.e., A) constructs crisis communication (i.e., B), strategic decisions guided by the organization's approach to crisis response are made. In this, B is also very much a manufactured narrative that is charged with the company's crisis communication strategy, which seeks to serve mainly the economic well-being of the company. This is illustrated in the analysis of Lulu's communication, which demonstrates the organization's approach to communicating about the crisis: it sought to limit its

mention of the various crisis symptoms impacting the company and maintain a controlled and consistent narrative throughout the crisis lifecycle.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

In this final section I first outline the limitations of the study, many of which are attributed to restrictions due to time and resources constraints. In reflecting on the limitations of this study I highlight some possibilities and ideas for future research. Finally, I provide closing remarks of the study.

Limitations

There are limitations to this study that should be considered. One such limitation is attributed to the sample size used for the analysis. Due to time constraints and a restriction of resources for this study, I analyzed 123 cases in total (31 LC documents and 92 MRL documents). Though it is believed that the sample provided a rich body of qualitative data, resulting in a rigorous analysis that allowed me to thoroughly answer the study's research questions, further research may benefit from the inclusion of a greater number of cases.

Another limitation is the nature of the sample; in this study I analyze media coverage from three prominent English national Canadian news sources (*CBC News*, *National Post*, and *The Globe and Mail*). While these three sources are deemed appropriate and informative based on the purpose of the study, further research may benefit from the inclusion of additional sources (e.g., local and regional perspectives), or even through an international lens (e.g., media reports from

other countries in which Lulu operates). Future research would especially benefit from international media coverage, as Lulu continues to expand globally.

The type of Lulu's communication that was analyzed for this study may also be considered a limitation. The LC data used for this study was collected from the "Investors" page (Lululemon Athletica, 2017d). The categories on this page that contain literature that was deemed most relevant to communication about the crisis, and thus used for the study, are "Recent Press Releases", "Latest Webcasts and Events", and "Financial Information". These sections include essential corporate communication documents, such as press releases, annual reports, and FAQs. However, Lulu continues to communicate through a variety of textual channels that could also be used for future research, particularly its social media content. Due to time and resource constraints, and in the interest of conducting an in-depth qualitative analysis of the materials collection, the Lulu materials collected were the best fit for the study.

The timespan used for this study may also be considered a limitation. For this study, the analysis includes LC and MRL published between September 1, 2012 and February 1, 2014. This sample was chosen based on the preliminary analysis of the OQMC; September 1, 2014 is approximately six months prior to the SLI (a press release pertaining to the SLI was issued on March 18, 2013; however, the organization offered a full refund on all pants of the affected style that were purchased after March 1, 2013). February 1, 2014 is selected as the cut-off date for the timespan because the BoD issued a statement approximately six months prior (August 7, 2014) indicating that issues and disagreements on the board had been resolved and that a plan for mending such had been agreed upon and implemented. Though one could argue that a wider timeframe could have been used, these specific dates to guide the sample were picked because it allowed for focus on the most climactic and pivotal moments of the crisis. Limiting the timeframe

was also important, as it allows for a more in-depth analysis of the content under investigation. However, future research on the company may benefit from including a broader timespan that incorporates more LC and MRL data to conduct a longitudinal study on narratives by and about the company.

While this study of LC and MRL about the OQMC is thought to offer insightful findings on textual journalism, intralingual translation, interdiscursive translation, and narratives in crisis communication/management, the study is also limited to looking specifically at English content. Research on the translation of LC and MRL in other languages that are prominent in the countries that Lulu operates (e.g., Chinese, Mandarin) may provide interesting findings useful for a comparative analysis of different corporate literature/news media translation in other languages.

Finally, this study looks only at text found in the LC data and the MRL. This choice was due to the study's focus on narratives communicated through text and discourse, and thus, intralingual and interdiscursive translation. However, journalistic content is becoming increasingly multimodal; in this, future research could look at other types of translation in crisis communication messaging, such as looking at intersemiotic translation.

Closing Remarks

Interest in the specific position of translation in the news media industry, both as a process and a product in the field of TS—though present—remains limited and relatively new. Despite this, various aspects of translation can be found at several levels of the news process, such as during the initial news gathering stage and the handling at news agencies (i.e., writing and editing). This study seeks to understand online journalistic textual reporting as an intralingual and interdiscursive

translation process that transmits narratives across information streams for varying purposes. It looks specifically at the ways in which an organization in crisis narrates the crisis, and the ways in which the media narrates the same crisis. The findings reveal the various themes and sub-themes presented in the two information streams. While some themes are found in both, other themes are not present in the organization's communication about the crisis, but are found in the media's reporting on the crisis. Based on the analysis of the data collected, I also examine the possible ways in which the media may have translated the narratives about the crisis, assessing the influence of the organization's actual commentary on the crisis and the influence of additional source narratives that may have contributed to the creation of alternative crisis narratives.

This study reveals various instances in which the media took the lead in narrating Lulu's OQMC. In this, the organization sometimes was unable to be ahead of the messaging about the crisis. This resulted in increased scrutiny and analysis of the organization's state by the media, often resulting in critical or negative narratives of the company, or sometimes narratives that challenged the messages communicated by the company. Thus, organizational crisis management strategies can hopefully learn from the results of the study, noting that looking beyond just the message, but instead into how the message will be received, and ultimately, translated/(re-)narrated is an essential aspect of effective crisis communication.

It is suggested that the highly crowded, competitive, and digitized space in which the journalism industry operates, and the plethora of readily available source narratives mediated by the Internet contribute to the variety and volume of source narratives—which ultimately contribute to alternative narratives of the crisis. I posit that the growing volume and accessibility of source narratives, which are mediated by our digitized world impact how journalists translate information and (re-)narrate our reality. I also suggest that these changes in translation practices impact

organizational crisis communication strategies. That is, while strategic crisis communication is said to be one of the most important crisis response strategies (Eid, 2008), messages are frequently challenged or re-narrated by the media, creating alternative understandings of the crisis that can impact customers' perception of the brand and an organization's ability to effectively manage a crisis through their communication.

Though "truth" and objectivity in the media have long been a topic of public and academic discussion, the time during which I was writing the latter stages of my thesis happened to coincide with some particularly controversial world events that attracted intense media coverage. Relying principally on the news media, the world watched as pivotal political, environmental, and corporate changes and events unfolded. The unfolding of the Donald Trump and Hilary Clinton battle was seemingly inescapable in our news. My heightened sensitivity to re-narration in the news was constantly stimulated by the vast diversity in the representations of policy and ideology. The Trump administration's love/hate relationship with "fake news" has been a fixture of debate in the media and public, with growing fascination also being seen among media scholars. Living through this time and conducting this study as these events unfolded allowed me to constantly locate the purpose of this research and the value of understanding translation as (re-)narration. It was a constant reminder of the incredible power of the media and the undeniable and dynamic relationship the powerful elites can share with the news media.

I was also able to reflect specifically on the value of looking at how people or organizations with power brands communicate under pressure and during high stress situations. During the regular flows of corporate messaging that occur daily, companies can rely on communication specialists and professionals that are presumably afforded adequate time and resources to create marketing, promotional, and public relations materials. Contrarily, during crises and high stress

situations, people and organizations are forced to respond quickly and under pressure to crisis situations that could have potentially devastating effects for their reputation and revenue. Understanding news media translation patterns and the ways in which the public and journalists perceive the narratives communicated to the public is integral to effective crisis management and the maintenance of brand reputation. Thus, in conducting this study and reflecting on the outcomes of this thesis, I hope to inspire the urgently important connections that exist between news media translation, organizational crisis communication, and brand reputation management.

This thesis also highlights—what I believe to be—the ever-growing need to re-conceptualize the study of crisis communication. As I have mentioned previously, crisis communication research is done primarily within the confines of public relations, a sub-discipline of communication studies. Undoubtedly, the contributions of public relations research have been monumental in the study and development of crisis communication theory and strategy. However, the social environment in which organizations operate today are more connected and digitized than ever before. Further, the media continues to demonstrate increasing coverage of organizational scandals and crises. To better understand crisis communication, and develop new perspectives on how our networked society impacts organizational crisis communication, future research should continue to look not only on the organization’s communication and strategy, but on the *processes* involved in how these messages are re-constructed by the media. This approach was particularly useful for this study and it is believed that further research of this nature could be fruitful in addressing the growing challenges faced by organizations in crisis.

Finally, I believe this dissertation can be considered another artifact that is representative of the critical importance of drawing on definitions and understandings of translation that go beyond translation proper. Though there is much to be learned in further exploring translation in

the traditional sense, I believe that the theories, methods, and approaches offered by TS can be used to investigate the intricate processes and procedures involved in how we understand, conceptualize, and re-construct our realities. Having spent much of my life fascinated by and professionally/academically involved in the field of journalism, I believe that today—more so than ever—it is critical to draw on theories and models that allow for the examination of the processes that result in how our news is constructed. To my mind, TS offers a plethora of theories and methods that are specifically useful in this endeavor.

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Appendix A

Case Code	Title	Date (D/M/Y)	Retrieved From (Website Location)
L1	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces second quarter fiscal 2012 results	07/08/12	Recent Press Releases
L2	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces third quarter fiscal 2012 earnings conference call	20/11/12	Recent Press Releases
L3	Lululemon Athletica Canada Inc., Calvin Klein, Inc. and G-III Apparel Group, Ltd. reached a settlement agreement in design patent litigation	20/11/12	Recent Press Releases
L4	Lululemon Athletica appoints William H. Glenn to its Board of Directors	06/12/12	Recent Press Releases
L5	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces third quarter fiscal 2012 results	06/12/12	Recent Press Releases
L6	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces participation in the 15th annual ICR XChange conference	02/01/13	Recent Press Releases
L7	Lululemon Athletica Inc. updates guidance for fourth quarter of fiscal 2012 ahead of presentation at ICR XChange	14/01/13	Recent Press Releases
L8	Lululemon Athletica appoints Robert Bensoussan to its Board of Directors	04/02/13	Recent Press Releases
L9	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces fourth quarter and full year fiscal 2012 earnings conference call	04/03/13	Recent Press Releases
L10	Black luon pants shortage expected	18/03/13	Recent Press Releases
L11	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces fourth quarter and full year fiscal 2012 results	21/03/13	Recent Press Releases
L12	Lululemon announces luon production update	03/04/13	Recent Press Releases
L13	Lululemon announces organizational change	03/04/13	Recent Press Releases
L14	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces first quarter fiscal 2013 earnings conference call	22/04/13	Recent Press Releases
L15	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces first quarter fiscal 2013 results, announces CEO transition plan	10/06/13	Recent Press Releases
L16	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces second quarter fiscal 2013 earnings conference call	29/08/13	Recent Press Releases
L17	X-STATIC® antimicrobial technology and Lululemon form strategic alliance partnership ensures premier odor control performance in athletic apparel	12/09/13	Recent Press Releases

L18	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces second quarter fiscal 2013 results	12/09/13	Recent Press Releases
L19	Lululemon Athletica appoints Tara Poseley as chief product officer	30/01/13	Recent Press Releases
L20	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces third quarter fiscal 2013 earnings conference call	27/11/13	Recent Press Releases
L21	Lululemon Athletica appoints Laurent Potdevin as chief executive officer	09/12/13	Recent Press Releases
L22	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces third quarter fiscal 2013 results	12/12/13	Recent Press Releases
L23	Lululemon Athletica Inc. announces participation in the 16th annual ICR XChange conference	31/12/13	Recent Press Releases
L24	Lululemon Athletica Inc. updates guidance for fourth quarter of fiscal 2013 ahead of presentation at ICR XChange	13/01/14	Recent Press Releases
L25	CEO transition FAQ	17/09/13	Latest Webcasts and Events
L26	CPO announcement FAQ	30/10/13	Latest Webcasts and Events
L27	Luon FAQ	05/11/13	Latest Webcasts and Events
L28	CEO announcement FAQ	10/12/13	Latest Webcasts and Events
L29	CEO announcement -Laurent Potdevin bio	10/12/13	Latest Webcasts and Events
L30	2012 annual report	21/03/13	Financial Information
L31	2013 annual report	24/03/14	Financial Information

Appendix B

Case Code	Title	Date (D/M/Y)	Retrieved From
MN1	Lulu's sales, shares shrink; Turnaround "will not be easy"	14/01/14	Factiva
MN2	Lulu looks to put 2013 behind it	15/01/14	Factiva
MN3	A Lulu of a day; Decline Thursday in Lululemon stock - 11.5%	13/12/13	Factiva
MN4	Lululemon founder's miscues stretched for effect	11/12/13	Factiva
MN5	Chip Wilson's most controversial quotes	11/12/13	Factiva
MN6	Lululemon prospects stable despite management issues	21/11/13	Factiva
MN7	Lululemon reacts to sheer fabric fiasco with "Second Chance Pant"	15/11/13	Factiva
MN8	Lululemon demand remains strong in wake of last spring's recall	06/09/13	Factiva
MN9	Lululemon faces third U.S. class action suit related to recall	06/07/13	Factiva
MN10	Jury still out on Lulu pants; Brand needs to reinvest in quality: Analyst	11/07/13	Factiva
MN11	Shareholder sues Lululemon for fraud; Sheer pants	03/07/13	Factiva
MN12	Board to blame for CEO fallout; Crisis in corporate succession planning	12/06/13	Factiva
MN13	Lululemon executives try to put fears to rest after Day's resignation	13/06/13	Factiva
MN14	Lululemon's sales should grow as recalled yoga pants return to shelves	04/06/13	Factiva
MN15	Lululemon stock plummets; Day's departure "of great concern", analysts say	12/06/13	Factiva
MN16	Lululemon sued over bonus increase approved just before pants recall	04/05/13	Factiva
MN17	Product head leaves Lululemon	04/04/13	Factiva
MN18	Analysts downgrade Lululemon after key officer's departure; Creative leader	05/04/13	Factiva
MN19	Lulu lands CEO with pedigree	11/12/13	Factiva
MN20	Lululemon gets cheeky with CEO job posting; "Really indicative of the culture"	16/06/13	Factiva
MN21	Sheer madness; Lululemon shares fall, but its quick crisis management should be lauded	20/02/13	Factiva
MN22	Only test is downward dog stance: Lululemon	22/03/13	Factiva
MN23	Lululemon begins search for new CEO; Company will delist from TSX, stay on Nasdaq	11/06/13	Factiva

MN24	Lululemon dilemma; Landfill not the answer for the sheer yoga wear	23/03/13	Factiva
MN25	Shipping woes spoil quarter for Lululemon; Forecast trimmed	13/09/13	Factiva
MN26	Class action unlikely to hurt Lululemon; Suits can take years to be certified	04/07/13	Factiva
MN27	Analysts still positive on Lululemon despite post-Christmas markdowns	11/01/13	Factiva
MN28	Lululemon says it does not require demonstrations of sheer yoga pants	28/03/13	Factiva
MN29	Lululemon recalls see-through pants; Company now expects “pants shortage”	19/03/13	Factiva
MN30	Former Kmart, Gap executive name Lululemon’s new chief product officer	31/10/13	Factiva
MN31	End in sight for Lululemon’s out of stock pants	23/4/13	Factiva
MN32	Lululemon pants “don’t work for some women’s bodies”: Founder	08/11/13	Factiva
MG33	Lululemon backs off supplier blame	21/03/13	Factiva
MG34	“I am not the culture of Lululemon”, outgoing CEO Christine Day says	13/06/13	Factiva
MG35	“Orderly transition” expected at Lululemon	10/10/13	Factiva
MG36	For Lululemon complaints about “sheerness” persist	14/07/13	Factiva
MG37	Lululemon founder’s new initiative overshadowed by foot-in-mouth pose	22/22/13	Factiva
MG38	Lululemon stumbles into 2014	13/01/14	Factiva
MG39	Lululemon to answer for “rubbing thighs” remark	08/12/13	Factiva
MG40	Some Lululemon pants still see-through, analyst says, cuts stock outlook	10/07/13	Factiva
MG41	Why Lululemon is quitting the Toronto Stock Exchange	10/06/13	Factiva
MG42	Lululemon quality in question as shares tumble; Retail watchers point to pattern of production difficulties as company grapples with rapid expansion	19/03/13	Factiva
MG43	See-through pants? How Lululemon became the butt of the Internet’s jokes	19/03/13	Factiva
MG44	Supplier insist it stuck to Lululemon design	20/03/13	Factiva
MG45	Lululemon executive team works toward image repairs	15/01/14	Factiva
MG46	Chairman Chip Wilson to leave as Lululemon names new CEO	10/12/13	Factiva
MG47	Labour woes in Asia the latest snag for Lululemon	23/06/13	Factiva
MG48	Quality issues stretch on for Lululemon	15/07/13	Factiva
MG49	Lululemon on a mission to revamp image	13/12/13	Factiva
MG50	Lululemon’s Christine Day: In sweaty pursuit of innovation	08/03/13	Factiva
MG51	Christine Day to leave Lululemon as company eyes Europe	10/06/13	Factiva

MG52	Have you seen Lululemon's CEO job posting? Must be "passionate about doing chief executive officer type stuff"	14/06/13	Factiva
MG53	Four reasons why Lululemon will bounce back	11/06/13	Factiva
MG54	Key Lululemon executive leaving	04/03/13	Factiva
MG55	CEO's exit rattles Lululemon investors	12/06/13	Factiva
MG56	Little damage expected from Lululemon recall	10/06/13	Factiva
MG57	Has the Lululemon story changed? The stock's problems are entirely due to investor dismay over Ms. Day's exit, say analysts	11/06/13	Factiva
MG58	Lululemon powers past the skeptics	06/06/13	Factiva
MG59	Lululemon in tatters? It's a bit of a stretch	11/12/13	Factiva
MG60	Lululemon's real challenge is finding ways to grow profits	19/3/13	Factiva
MG61	Delays prompt Lululemon to trim outlook	12/09/13	Factiva
MG62	Lululemon: Priced for perfection, without delivering it	12/01/14	Factiva
MG63	Lululemon's hurdle: Handling all those customers	17/03/13	Factiva
MG64	Despite taking its lumps, Lululemon will bounce back	12/06/13	Factiva
MG65	Lululemon gets to work on remaking its tarnished image	14/01/14	Factiva
MG66	Lululemon's story is stretched, but not torn	10/12/13	Factiva
MG67	Lululemon's material warning: Pants shortage threatens profit	18/03/14	Factiva
MG68	Lululemon growth story beginning to fray at the edges	13/09/13	Factiva
MG69	Why Lululemon founder believes some women's bodies "don't work" for their yoga pants	08/11/13	Factiva
MG70	Lululemon sued over bonuses	04/05/13	Factiva
MG71	Lululemon set to put yoga-pants debacle behind it	08/09/13	Factiva
MG72	Analyst predicts Lululemon earnings will be surprisingly good	18/03/13	Factiva
MG73	Lululemon set to snap back faster than expected	22/3/13	Factiva
MC74	Lululemon recalls pants for being see-through	19/03/13	Eureka
MC75	Lululemon stock sheds 15% on bleak sales slump	13/01/14	Eureka
MC76	Chip Wilson, Lululemon founder, steps down Former TOMs shoe head Laurent Potdevin named CEO	10/12/13	Eureka
MC77	Lululemon shares lose 15% as TSX opens	11/06/13	Eureka
MC78	Lululemon says recall will reduce profit	21/03/13	Eureka
MC79	Lululemon hit with class action lawsuit by U.S. investor	02/07/13	Eureka
MC80	Lululemon sued over corporate bonuses ahead of recall	03/04/13	Eureka
MC81	Lululemon stock sheds 12% on bleak sales slump	13/01/14	Eureka
MC82	Lululemon says see-through pants being worn too small	11/07/13	Eureka
MC83	Lululemon hit with 3rd class action lawsuit from investors	05/07/13	Eureka
MC84	No proof needed for Lululemon see-through yoga pant refund	27/03/13	Eureka
MC85	Lululemon shares fall following stock downgrade	04/01/13	Eureka
MC86	Lululemon profit, revenue soar in fourth quarter	21/03/13	Eureka

MC87	Lululemon CEO Christine Day stepping down	10/06/13	Eureka
MC88	Lululemon expects lower earnings, less revenue in 2013	12/09/13	Eureka
MC89	Lululemon lower after disappointing sales forecast	05/01/13	Eureka
MC90	Lululemon profit increases 15%	12/12/13	Eureka
MC91	Lululemon founder Chip Wilson says pants “don’t work” for some bodies	07/11/13	Eureka
MC92	Lululemon post quirky job ad for next CEO	14/06/13	Eureka