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Joanna Ann Mei SIAH  
*Nanyang Technological University*

Namrata BANSAL  
*Nanyang Technological University*

Augustine PANG  
*Singapore Management University, [augustine@smu.edu.sg](mailto:augustine@smu.edu.sg)*

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# New media: a new medium in escalating crises?

Joanna Siah Ann Mei, Namrata Bansal and Augustine Pang

*Wee Kim Wee School of Communication and Information,  
Nanyang Technological University, Singapore*

## Abstract

**Purpose** – The use of new media in crisis is a double-edged sword. On one hand, its pivotal role in online monitoring and dissemination of information can help an organisation manage crisis. On the other hand, it can also create organisational crisis. The purpose of this paper is to examine how new media can be used to escalate crisis.

**Design/methodology/approach** – Four crises were examined: the 2008 Edison Chen sex scandal in Hong Kong; and in the USA, New York Taco Bell-KFC rats infestation crisis in 2007; JetBlue Airways crisis in 2007, and the Kryptonite locks crisis in 2004.

**Findings** – The very characteristics that make new media unique, such as user interactivity and integration of multimedia effects, are also its Achilles heel.

**Research limitations/implications** – Research has revolved around new media as a tool, a useful aid in times of need. The paper presents an emerging and under-explored side of new media of how it is used as an accessory in escalating crises.

**Practical implications** – Practitioners can be equipped to better prepare themselves against the threats posed by new media.

**Originality/value** – The paper has developed a new model on how organisations could harness new media to their advantage while implementing safeguards against possible threats posed by the medium. This model, called the new media crisis communication model, is an integration of the crisis management model posited by Gonzales-Herrero and Smith and the contingency theory of strategic conflict management.

**Keywords** Multimedia, Electronic media, Communication technologies, Worldwide web, Corporate communications, Conflict management

**Paper type** Case study

## Introduction

Since new media exploded into the corporate communications consciousness, much of the work researching into the new phenomenon began to surface on how organisations could ride on this new wave. The dynamic platforms the new media offered at once granted organisations unlimited possibilities of connection with stakeholders and to further their agenda. Hill and White (2000), for instance, studied how the internet could fit into the organisation's communications mix. White and Raman (1999) studied how corporate communications could use the internet to further the organisation's goals through careful web planning.

In times of crises, the new media presented another avenue of communicating with stakeholders. DiNardo (2002) studied how the banking industry used the internet as a crisis management tool to deal with the threat of the Y2K crisis that thankfully did not materialise. Greer and Moreland (2003) examined how both United and American Airlines used the web to communicate their efforts during the September 11 terrorist

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attacks. Beyond *ad hoc* measures, Perry *et al.* (2003) explored how organisations could holistically integrate the internet into their crisis communications approach.

Thus, far, it appears that research has revolved around new media as a tool, a useful aid in times of need. There are, however, always two sides of the coin. This study presents the other side, an emerging and under-explored side of new media of how it is used as an accessory in escalating crises. Through four case studies, the authors seek to examine how new media can escalate the crisis for organisations. First, we examine how the traditional media and new media differ in covering the crisis; second, how new media have been used as platforms to escalate each crisis, and third, what organisations can do to prepare for crises involving new media.

More importantly, this study sheds light on the perils posed by new media in communicating information through its lack of gatekeeping as well as the empowerment of the individual when it comes to creating and disseminating news online. The paper also illustrates how vestiges of crises continue to thrive in cyberspace, long after the uproar dies in traditional media.

The authors conclude by positing a crisis management model on how organisations could harness new media to their advantage while implementing safeguards against possible threats posed by the medium. This model, called the new media crisis communication model, is an integration of the crisis management model posited by Gonzalez-Herrero and Smith (2008) and the contingency theory of strategic conflict management (Cameron *et al.*, 2008; Pang, 2008). It is hoped that practitioners would find this model useful as they integrate it into their crisis management planning.

## Literature review

### *New media*

Goggin and Newell (2003, p. xiii) defined new media as:

[...] new digital communications technologies that include the internet and broadband networks (fast, high-capacity data services), advanced telecommunications networks (offering services such as caller ID, digital mobile phones, third-generation mobile telecommunications, video telephones), and digital broadcasting (with digital television).

The internet is the “electronic network of networks that links people and information through computers and other digital devices allowing person-to-person communication and information retrieval” (DiMaggio *et al.*, 2001, p. 35).

Pavlik (1996) argued that the new media revolution has altered the way institutions work while Castells (1996, p. 468) discussed on the “pervasive expansion” of what he calls “the networking form of organisation” in every realm of social structure. An important element in digital technologies is convergence where information is stored and transmitted digitally, and can be shared across previously separate devices (Goggin and Newell, 2003).

Another crucial element to understanding the internet is that of diffusion, which Rogers as cited in Perry and Taylor (2005, p. 209) defines as “the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system.” Rogers elaborated, “innovations that are perceived by individuals as possessing greater relative advantage, compatibility, and the like, have a more rapid rate of adoption” (Perry and Taylor, 2005, p. 210).

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### *New media and crises*

In times of crisis, the internet signifies the loss of a certain amount of control organisations have over their communications channels (Wheeler, 2001). It has been estimated that one out of four crises today are related to the internet (Herbst, 2001).

Changes in communications processes and structures as a result of new media have led to an increase of corporate exposure to the public (Krzeminski and Zerfass, as cited in Conway and Ward, 2007), and have inadvertently exposed organisations to crises (Coombs, 1999).

Hilse and Hoewner (1998) posited the internet crisis potential model, identifying four major internet crisis typologies:

- (1) *Reinforcing crisis*. The internet is used in addition to traditional media as a communications channel to present stakeholder opinions.
- (2) *Absurd crisis*. This emerges from the internet's uncontrollable and diverse content, i.e. a crisis results due to absurd theories and opinions circulating online.
- (3) *Affecting crisis*. This occurs when organisations are critically scrutinised virtually by stakeholders and they become the subject of public discussion with negative impact.
- (4) *Competence crisis*. This can be characterised by a difference in competences between the aggressor (stakeholder) and defender (corporation). Competence leads to power in this arena, i.e. there are online experts having the capability to damage the corporation despite possessing limited resources.

If new media has the potential of escalating crises, this study seeks to examine:

*RQ1*. How do new media and traditional media differ in covering crises?

*RQ2*. How new media act as a platform to escalate a crisis?

*RQ3*. How can organisations prepare for crises involving new media?

### **Method**

We propose to examine how new media can escalate crises through examinations of case studies. The purpose of case studies is to empirically investigate a "contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context" and address a "situation in which the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 1993, p. 59). Case studies typically combine data-collection methods such as archival searches, interviews, questionnaires, and observation. The evidence are used to test hypotheses or generate theory (Eisenhardt, 1989).

Merriam (1988) listed four essential characteristics of case study research:

- (1) *Particularistic*. This means that the case study focuses on a particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon, making it a good method for studying practical, real-life problems.
- (2) *Descriptive*. The final product of a case study is a detailed description of the topic under study.
- (3) *Heuristic*. A case study helps people to understand what is being studied.

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- (4) *Inductive*. Most case studies depend on inductive reasoning. Principle and generalisations emerge from an examination of the data. Many case studies attempt to discover new relationships than verify existing hypotheses.

This study falls under the inductive case study category and is particularly useful in exploring the relationship between new media and crises. As Eisenhardt (1989, p. 532) argued, this approach is especially appropriate in new topic areas and the “resultant theory is often novel, testable, and empirically valid.”

The authors have employed a multiple case study approach here. Yin (1993) argued that multiple case studies should follow a replication. This means that two or more cases should be included within the same study precisely because the investigator predicts that similar results (replication) will be found. If such replications are indeed found for several cases, one can be confident in the results. The development of consistent findings over multiple cases can thus be considered sound and robust.

### *The cases*

*Edison Chen sex scandal*. On January 27, 2008, a photo showing Hong Kong celebrity Edison Chen with singer-actress Gillian Chung in bed was posted on an internet forum. This was followed by a photo of Chen and his alleged ex-girlfriend Bobo Chan in a sexual act. This was the start of an intensive three-week intense coverage of the scandal by popular Hong Kong newspapers (Wan, 2008). On February 4, 2008, police revealed they have uncovered about 1,300 racy pictures where four out of the six women shown in the pictures were said to be well-known celebrities.

In his first press conference on February 21, 2008, Chen admitted that majority of the photos were taken by him. They were illegally stolen and distributed without his consent (Chow, 2008). In total, 114 articles about this crisis were collected and analysed.

*KFC-Taco Bell rats infestation incident in New York*. The video of rats rampaging a fast food restaurant in New York was uploaded online on February 23, 2007 and soon, more than 1,000 blogs had cited or spread the story and footage, according to a Technorati search.

The rats running amok in the restaurant were first aired on early-morning TV news by local station, WNBC-TV (Daly, 2007). The riveting footage was soon posted on countless web sites for a global audience in the millions (Daly, 2007). In all, 140 articles related to this crisis were collected and analysed.

*JetBlue Airways*. When an ice storm hit Eastern USA on February 14, 2007, many airlines cancelled flights, except JetBlue Airways, which kept their planes circling the runways. At the peak of the problem, angry passengers sat trapped in the airplanes for more than ten hours. Horror stories of angry passengers and a non-responsive airline, accompanied by pictures of overflowing toilets soon made their way around the world via mass media, as well as on blogs and YouTube videos (Harmon, 2007). Phone calls were made to CNN (2007) about how food and water were not dispensed by the crew. Company Founder and then Chief Executive Officer (CEO) David Neeleman apologised and a video of this was posted on YouTube. The crisis cost JetBlue US\$41 million. Its reputation also took a beating (Wehr, 2007). In all, 15 relevant articles were identified and analysed.

*Kryptonite bicycle locks*. “Your brand new U-Lock is not safe,” read a message posted September 12, 2004 by cyclist Chris Brennan on popular fan site [www.bikeforums.net](http://www.bikeforums.net)

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(Polgreen, 2004). A video showing him popping a Kryptonite lock open with a pen was posted in his entry. The lock's vulnerable mechanism was further highlighted when New York-based Benjamin Running posted another homemade video (Polgreen, 2004). One week later, around 300,000 people had viewed the warning online and more people have posted their own versions of accomplishing the trick (Buchanan, 2004). Another 170,000 viewers had seen Brennan's posting, starting a full-fledged nationwide panic (Polgreen, 2004). Victims filed a class action suit against Kryptonite on September 20, 2004 (Longley, 2004). The company eventually replaced over 400,000 locks free of charge, and redesigned its products (Lager, 2007). A total of 35 articles were identified and analysed.

### *Data analysis*

Drawing insights from DiNardo's (2002) study on how organisations used the internet to manage crises, this study similarly uses the qualitative method of analysis. First, all available documents such as newspaper and magazine articles, press releases, as well as articles were read through thoroughly.

Second, such information was collected in a chronological manner, from the time the respective crisis erupted till the very latest update the authors could obtain as of May 31, 2009. The database Factiva was tapped on for archived articles while organisations' web sites were systematically searched for press releases as well as other corporate news. Through internet search engines, a host of other miscellaneous articles contributed by public relations practitioners, bloggers as well as the general public were collected.

Third, the authors also kept track of all relevant blogs and discussion forum threads to follow the latest news on the four cases. Audio-visual material from popular video-sharing site YouTube, most notably the infamous video from the KFC-Taco Bell case study, was also used to substantiate the study.

Four, each of the four case studies was closely examined before patterns across the cases were identified. Examining a number of cases enhances the accuracy, validity, and reliability of the results by capturing the holistic essence of the subject studied.

## **Findings and discussion**

### *New media versus traditional media*

The *RQ1* examined how did new media and traditional media differ in covering the respective crises. The key difference between new media and traditional media is that of gatekeeping, the process by which vast array of potential news messages are winnowed, shaped, and prodded into those few that are actually transmitted by the news media (Shoemaker *et al.*, 2001). Typically practised in newsrooms, gatekeeping does not appear to be applicable to the internet. In the virtual world, virtually everyone can be a news producer.

In the Edison Chen scandal, sensitive parts of the pictures were digitally blocked when they were published in newspapers. News coverage was relatively nuanced as readership was targeted at society on the whole. It was a different case online. For instance, *Shanghai Daily* (2008) reported how an estimated 40 percent of primary and middle school students in Hong Kong saw the photos in their full natural state online. Similarly, for the JetBlue crisis, CNN (2007) covered it in a factual manner, giving objective coverage to both sides of the story. This was opposed to the onslaught of furious commentary by disgruntled passengers online, in particular the blog set up an

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enraged passenger at: [www.jetbluehostage.com](http://www.jetbluehostage.com). The blog consists of full details of the event and the follow-up of the incident, including the passenger's encounter with JetBlue Founder Neeleman.

As the internet becomes a powerful platform, a concomitant effect is the rise of citizen journalism online. News in traditional media are usually covered by professional journalists and handled with relative objectivity. This may not be the case with citizen journalism, defined as "individuals or groups who are not aligned with publishers as 'professional journalists' and who collect, edit or directly publish news material that are out of publishers' reach" (Tilley and Cokley, 2008, p. 95). Citizen journalism offers an alternative source of news apart from traditional media. While agenda setting and news framing are typically practised in traditional media, citizen journalists usually have no qualms mixing their personal biasness with the coverage of news events.

The posting of the lock-picking video by bike enthusiast Chris Brennan opened the floodgates to the Kryptonite crisis, sparking massive outrage within the community. Brennan became an opinion leader and he spared no efforts to bring the issue to public attention and influencing others in the process. The crisis gained such momentum online that traditional media soon got wind of it and brought it to wider public attention when the matter made it to broadcast radio (Norris, 2004). The rise of citizen journalism with the surge of new media technologies is of no coincidence. The average layman now has multiple avenues to air his views and the general public too have more choices in determining their news source. This could be detrimental to individuals and organisations as they could fall victim to malicious slander and sabotage.

Another key difference between traditional and new media is that of user interactivity. Traditional media are typically one-way communication and do not allow for much participation. This is not the case online. In the Edison Chen sex scandal, for instance, netizens have voted 280-to-one on the credibility of Chen's statement versus his victim, Chung's public statement (Mak, 2008) and bloggers have "photoshoped" their own choice of women alongside Chen's images (McCabe, 2008).

Forums and online discussions are an important part of the internet, which bring people together on a common platform, and help them exchange information. For instance, the most popular video covering the KFC-Taco Bell incident on YouTube received 2,644 responses and two video responses. The video sparked comments such as "No more KFC for me" and "when a business allows for such rodents to run freely, the message to us consumers is consumers come last." A search on YouTube about the JetBlue Airways crisis yielded more than 30 hits, with the most popular video generating an audience of over 30,000. Related articles on the Kryptonite locks crisis generated about 7,780 articles online. These all attest to the prowess of the internet as a trove of rich virile information – where once information has been uploaded, it will stay there for an infinite period of time, unless the owner chooses to take it down.

Traditional newspapers are bound by space constraints their online counterparts do not face. This is where online newspapers have come to the fore to provide options for readers to comment, discuss and e-mail practically every article. Type "rats and Taco Bell" into the online edition of *New York Times*, and it will yield over 700 stories. A similar search for JetBlue Airways crisis shows 185 related articles, while the Kryptonite locks controversy gave 162 hits. The online version also gives the option of related searches and past coverage, providing a comprehensive description of the



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entire event that is impossible to achieve in print media. Frequent updates are also one of the advantages online news offers.

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The RQ2 examined how new media act as a platform to escalate a crisis. New media, most notably the internet, was found to be key in escalating the crises. A crucial element to the internet is that of diffusion, and people have adapted so well to the internet that it is available almost everywhere today. There are relatively low-entry barriers in gaining access to the internet, and this has made it a very accessible realm for all. This explains why when the crises were reported in online media, more people became aware of them and even helped perpetuate them by circulating them further.

Information today is no longer bound by any geographical or spatial boundaries, and people can even form virtual communities of their own (Pavlik, 1996). Lack of physical boundaries and the near impossibility of curbing content online have led to the flourishing of typically censored material. In the Edison Chen sex scandal, for instance, after the first picture was released on January 27, 2008 on the Hong Kong Discuss Forum, it was downloaded within minutes and uploaded to other popular forums such as Uwants and HKGoldens. Over the next few days, it was estimated that about 1,300 images and videos were released progressively online, spreading quickly through blogs, e-mails and chat rooms (*Sunday Tribune*, 2008).

The speed of the internet in spreading bad news is also illustrated in the KFC-Taco Bell incident where the news spread to over 1,000 blogs and was discussed by thousands. The earliest video of stranded passengers onboard a JetBlue Airways plane was posted a mere two days after the crisis. Running's video was downloaded by some 125,000 people in merely three days in the Kryptonite scandal. In the aftermath of JetBlue's failure to take off, more and more disgruntled passengers posted videos of their being trapped onboard, drawing attention to their plight. All four crises found their way to YouTube, garnering more eyeballs in the process.

The rapid escalation of the crises was also due to the use of multimedia. A product in which information could be communicated only through text and still images can now be told in different ways on diverse platforms (Boczkowski, 2004). For instance, the crises escalated for KFC-Taco Bell, JetBlue Airways and Kryptonite when videos were uploaded online. The multimedia feature the internet offers heightened the audio-visual impact of news and people's reaction to them. The crises became more dramatic and alive, and people could have the event replayed any time they want. Similarly, in the Edison Chen sex scandal, users were able to verify the authenticity of the pictures by comparing them with previous pictures Chen took of his bedroom as well as with the female starlets' tattoos.

The video in the Kryptonite case sparked off a series of copycat videos where bicycle owners started creating their own version of how a pen could be used to unlock their bicycle lock. The rampaging rodents in the KFC-Taco Bell scandal are a reminder that today's crises can sometimes morph into mini horror movies, and their impact can exceed written or even photographed reports (MacArthur, 2007).

Just as how the crises gain momentum online, the remnants of the crises continue to linger online long after coverage in traditional media has tapered off. Even after the crisis is long over, a wealth of information can still be found online. Type key search terms related to each crisis into a search engine and one would be able to digest



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information related to each in detail. For instance, type the words “Edison Chen” into the Google search engine and eight of the ten top hits on the first page would lend mention to the sex scandal. As of May 19, 2009, there were 2,719 comments pertaining to the “Rats take over KFC/Taco Bell” video, a video that has gained over one million views (YouTube, 2007). The “present-ness” of the crisis, long after it has died down, is reinforced and reiterated online. It is as if the crises are constantly perpetuated as long as they have made their ignominious mention online.

Compounded by subjective commentary and damaging audio-visual material, and a newcomer to the case would probably be adversely influenced and form a negative opinion of the organisation, despite its efforts in resolving the crisis.

Katrina Halili – Filipino actress who was embroiled in a sex scandal with a young plastic surgeon known for his relationship with an older and famous plastic surgeon in Philippines – succinctly summed up the power of the new media, “Long after I’m dead, the video (of their sexual liaison) will continue to live on in the internet” (*The Sunday Times*, 2009).

#### *The new media crisis communication model*

The RQ3 examined how organisations can prepare for crises involving new media. First, there is a need to harness new media. Organisations have to acknowledge the importance of new media in order to combat threats posed by the same medium. The internet offers the advantage of up-to-the-minute reporting 24/7, and a company besieged by crises of this magnitude ought to be proactive and show the public that efforts are in place to rectify the problem. When these efforts are made as transparent and as accessible as possible on online channels and traditional means, this could help restore stakeholder confidence and aid in the company’s recovery phase. JetBlue Airways is a good case in point. Although videos of frustrated passengers could still be seen on YouTube, the same search results on the site typically also show a remorseful Neeleman. Indeed, among the four case studies, JetBlue Airways has demonstrated the best use of new media in its crisis management response. Even today, its “Customer Bill of Rights” remains a visual promise on its web site.

Second, corporate communications practice must be enlarged to encompass both online and offline functions. One key area is the management of web communications, primarily through the organisation’s web site. A consistent theme that has surfaced appears to be the lack of effort put into web site creation and management. Website planning could have been systematic rather than lackadaisical (DiNardo, 2002). Greer and Moreland (2003) found that many organisations could improve on the level of interactivity on their web sites. On the same note, organisations should incorporate user interactivity onto the company portal, allowing their audience an avenue to communicate with the organisation directly while keeping track of any possible dissent.

In the case of the KFC-Taco Bell rats crisis, it would have helped if the organisation took proactive steps to try and repair their image using new media technology. This is also what Pete Blackshaw, Chief Marketing Officer at Nielsen BuzzMetrics, meant by “defensive branding,” when he said that the KFC-Taco chain failed to leverage on the web to make sure positive messages were heard in the sea of negative chatter charging across the internet (MacArthur, 2007, p. 1).

Third, organisations can adopt a new media crisis management model to combat online threats. The model proposed here is integrated from Gonzelez-Herrero and Smith

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(2008)'s four-stage model for crisis management in the virtual world, and from the Contingency Theory of Strategic Conflict Management (Cameron *et al.*, 2008; Pang, 2008).

Gonzalez-Herrero and Smith's (2008) model extrapolates online threats on the crisis life cycle to help organisations view online crisis management as a holistic process. The Contingency theory helps organisations articulate their actions through the stance they adopt in managing conflicts. The theory argues that there are certain key variables that predispose an organisation to the enactment of a stance. These predisposing variables include:

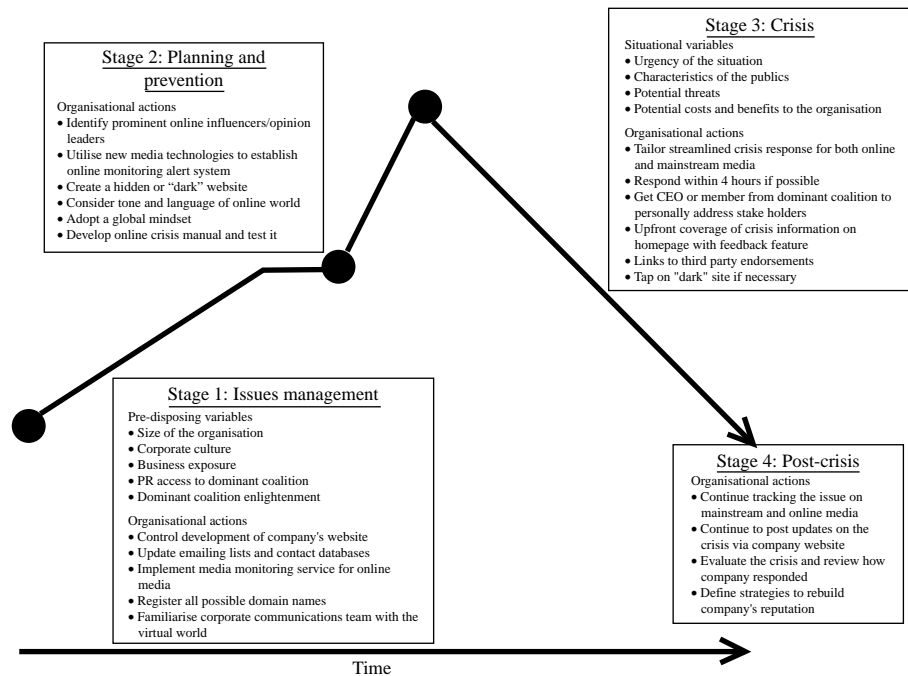
- the size of the organisation;
- corporate culture;
- business exposure;
- public relations to dominant coalition;
- dominant coalition enlightenment; and
- individual characteristics of key individuals, like the CEO (Cameron *et al.*, 2008; Pang, 2008).

Situational variables are factors that influence an organisation's stance as the situation develops. Some of the supported situational factors included:

- urgency of the situation;
- characteristics of the other public;
- potential or obvious threats; and
- potential costs or benefit for the organisation from choosing the various stances (Cameron *et al.*, 2008; Pang, 2008).

These two theories are integrated by selecting pre-disposing and situational variables from the Contingency Theory and incorporating them along with organisational actions into the four stages of Gonzalez-Herrero and Smith's model. This model, called the new media crisis communication model, is shown in Figure 1.

In the first stage of the life cycle, the Issues Management stage, organisations are encouraged to engage in active online news monitoring and environmental scanning. The predisposing variables at work would be the size of the organisation – where a larger organisation is assumed to have more resources than a smaller organisation; the corporate culture of the organisation – where an organisation with an open culture would be open to adopt new practises; the business exposure the organisation has; the practitioner's access to the dominant coalition; and the enlightenment of the dominant coalition on the importance of corporate communications. These all play their part in encouraging the organisation towards planning for crisis erupting in new media. These translate into organisational actions. At this stage, the focus is to identify, track, and manage potentially conflicting issues online – a crucial part of corporate communications in the internet age (Gonzalez-Herrero and Smith, 2008). Such activities include the development of the company's web site; the updating of important emailing lists and contact databases; a vigilant online media monitoring service; the registering of all possible domain names; and getting the corporate communications team to gain familiarity with the virtual world.



**Figure 1.**  
The new media crisis  
communication model

The second stage of the life cycle is called the planning-prevention stage. Here, the organisation engages the online world more actively, identifying and responding to potential threats. Prominent online influencers/opinion leaders are identified; new media technologies such as RSS feeds and Twitter are utilised to establish an online monitoring alert system; a hidden or "dark" web site – a site that could be used externally in the event of a crisis to update all constituencies about the issue (Gonzalez-Herrero and Smith 2008, p.149) – is created; the tone and language of the online world are taken into consideration; a global mindset is adopted; and an online crisis manual is developed and tested.

At the crisis stage, the third stage, the contingency theory's situational variables would influence how organisations react to the crisis. These situational variables are the urgency of the situation, the characteristics of the publics involved; potential threats faced by the organisation; and the potential costs and benefits to the organisation. Organisational actions at the crisis stage include streamlined crisis response for both online and mainstream media; a response from the organisation within four hours after the crisis erupts; the involvement of the CEO or member from the dominant coalition to personally address stakeholders; the transparent coverage of the crisis on the homepage with a feedback feature; links to third-party endorsements; and the tapping on the "dark" site if necessary.

The last stage is the post-crisis stage, where the organisation embarks on several measures to help the organisation recover. This includes the continuous tracking of how the issue is portrayed in traditional and online media; regular posting of updates on the

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crisis via the company web site; evaluation of the crisis and the review of how the company responded; and defining the strategies to rebuild the company's reputation.

Incorporating such an approach requires political will, support of the dominant coalition, and involvement of corporate communications practitioners who should be at the forefront of such initiatives.

## Conclusion

This study has explored the double-edged sword that new media can pose to organisations. On one hand, they provide new platforms and means for organisations to communicate with stakeholders; on the other hand, the same platforms and means can be used to escalate crisis for the organisation. To counter crisis in new media, we offer a new model of managing new media. It is hoped that this model forms the initial template for practitioners to use to apply to real-life situations.

Further research could be done in examining specific forms of new media and their role in a crisis situation. Not all kinds of new media will produce the same impact in a crisis situation. One possibility is to categorise new media according to platforms, like blogs versus podcasts. This could throw up insights of how different forms of new media play a distinct role in escalating a crisis.

Additionally, organisations could also look into developing an online corporate communications role whose sole focus is to monitor (mis)information online and conduct environmental scanning so that prompt responses could be made.

Robert Passilkoff, President of New York-based Brand Keys consulting firm, has said, "nothing's faster than the speed of light (except) bad news on the internet" (Ruggless, 2007, p. 6). That is what this study is about, to understand how bad news perpetuates in the new media and counter them with positive information and timely responses.

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### **Corresponding author**

Augustine Pang can be contacted at: [Augustine.Pang@ntu.edu.sg](mailto:Augustine.Pang@ntu.edu.sg)

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