IMPROVING NATO STRATEGIC COMMUNICATIONS TERMINOLOGY

Content

1 Project Objectives

The proposal for "StratCom Terminology Improvement" came from the Netherlands, one of the founding member of the NATO StratCom COE,[1] and was approved by the Steering Committee in December 2017. The Terminology Working Group held consultative sessions throughout 2018.

THE PROJECT'S KEY OBJECTIVES ARE:

- Ensuring that the core terms and definitions are coherent across different areas of NATO StratCom and can be equally understood and applied by the military and civilian side.
- Creating a sense of responsibility of Strategic Communications throughout all of NATO.
- Improving the core terms and definitions to enable NATO to speak to the rest of the world in a language that is intuitive and limits potential misinterpretations.
- Contributing to the process of building a joint and future-oriented outlook of Strategic Communications within NATO.

Terminology projects are usually concerned with making communication within a specialised language community more efficient and minimising misunderstandings.[2] Improving StratCom terminology aims to unify different NATO agencies in their endeavours but also increase efficiency in planning and executing military (communications) operations.[3] NATO is a multi-national organisation with civilian and military personnel, working toward political and military objectives. A common language (in the broader sense) is one of the key success factors for effective Strategic Communications.

Terminology is linked to the political, intra-agency questions of the place of StratCom because the discursive environment in which it operates is particularly complex. StratCom-related terms are introduced into, and used within, an institution with its own pre-existing linguistic culture.[4] When terms are used that already have a different meaning within NATO, not only can this lead to misunderstandings, but intra-institutional rivalries. NATO communications activities and capabilities include Strategic Communications (StratCom), Public Diplomacy, Public Affairs (PA), Military Public Affairs, Information Operations (Info Ops) and Psychological Operations (PSYOPS) (For definitions of these, consult Table 2 in the annex of this paper.). Each of these approaches developed independently and, when considered alongside each other, reveals different understandings and interpretations of certain concepts and terms. For example, does Public Affairs inform or influence? While 'target audience'

ENTITY	ROLE
North Atlantic Council (NAC)	Provides overall guidance and direction to NATO StratCom efforts, and mission-specific strategic and political guidance for NATO information activities.
Secretary General (SG)	Provides specific direction and guidance on StratCom. Principle Spokesperson for the Alliance.
NATO Spokesperson	On behalf of SG, provides day-to-day direction of all HQ media activities, including messaging. Offers guidance to military Public Affairs to ensure that all NATO messaging and communications are consistent with political direction and decision.
Assistant Secretary General for Public Diplomacy (ASG PDD)	Oversees the coordination of all StratCom activities across all NATO civilian and military bodies and commands. Directs all public diplomacy activities.
Military Committee (MC)	Provides overall policy for NATO Military PA, Info Ops, PSYOPS and military advice to NAC on StratCom issues.
Chairman of the Military Committee (CMC)	Principle military spokesperson for the Alliance.
International Military Staff (IMS) **Office of the Public Affairs and StratCom Advisor** (PASCAD)	Provides spokesmanship for MC, its Chairman, and Director IMS on StratCom issues. Provides guidance to DG and Directors, IMS on all PA issues, liaising with PDD, PA at SHAPE, SACT and all Joint Commands, national NATO Delegations, and national PA departments in Joint Chief of Staff Offices and Ministries of Defence. Principle point of contact in IMS for StratCom issues.
IMS Information Operations (Info Ops)	Responsible for MC policy on Info Ops and PSYOPS, facilitates cooperation between the two Strategic Commands and the MC on Info Ops and PSYOPS issues.
Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR)	Provides guidance on StratCom within Allied Command Operations (ACO), incl. Military PA, Info Ops, PSYOPS, in accordance with overall StratCom directions from NATO HQ (NAC, SG, and the MC). Principle spokesperson for current Alliance operations.
Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT)	Provides guidance on StratCom within Allied Command Transformations (ACT), StratCom concept and capability development in close coordination with ACO. Principle military spokesperson on NATO transformations.
Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) **Chief StratCom / Director of Communications**	Responsible to SACEUR for development and integration of StratCom plans in support of NATO current operations and ACO activities, in accordance with overall StratCom direction from NATO HQ; for the coordination of Military PA, Info Ops, PSYOPS outputs in support of those plans; for overseeing execution of plans, in coordination with NATO HQ and subordinate ACO HQs.
SHAPE Chief Public Affairs Officer (PAO)	Directs, plans, and executes strategic level Military PA in support of NATO current operations and ACO activities.
SACT Chief Public Affairs Officer (PAO)	Directs, plans, and executes strategic level Military PA in support of ACT activities.

Table 1 Roles and Authorities in relation to Communications[5]

is a more neutral term in social sciences and sometimes used by politicians, in PSYOPS it has a very particular military meaning.

As seen in Table 1, different elements of Strategic Communications at NATO are carried out by parts of the civilian and military structures, as well as additional agencies. A visual aid showing the NATO Command Structure and various spokespeople is provided in Figure 1.

1.1 Terminological Tensions – Project Rationale

The Project intends to bring more coherence to the StratCom language used throughout NATO structures. It is mindful of the pre-existing usages of certain terms in different areas engaged in NATO StratCom (e.g. PSYOPS, Info Ops) and does not seek to interfere with their internal processes. Instead this Project aims to improve the existing terminology by making it more generic to Strategic Communications where applicable. This involves removing potential "traps" and unnecessary constraints from existing definitions. *Highly specific definitions are often too limiting when used outside a specialist domain. They can even cause misunderstandings when it is a term that no single specialised language community has exclusive ownership of.*

The term "narrative" is a good illustration of this. NATO StratCom-related documents often use the Oxford English Dictionary's first meaning: "A spoken or written account

of connected events; a story." At the same time, the Info Ops community is proposing to the NATO Terminology Board (at the time of the writing of this paper) that the definition of a "narrative" could be: "A concise but comprehensive written statement of an organization's situation and purpose, which can stand on its own as the principle context to strategic planning directives or be used to support the creation of individual culturally attuned stories that will resonate with particular audiences and foster cohesion within the organization."

In this case we face two major issues. Firstly, the Oxford English Dictionary's first definition of "narrative" as an "account of connected events" suggests that it is a straightforward, uncomplicated term. However, from a governmental communications perspective "narratives" are tied to identity politics[6] and questions of legitimacy. Secondly, the definition proposed by the Info Ops community has been forged to fit their purpose and way of doing business, although Info Ops does not exclusively own the term. Limiting narrative to a "written statement" might be the preferred way of communicating Commander's intent or recording the decisions of NATO Summits, but in essence a narrative does not need to be a *written* statement. Narratives exist and are shared in society; they are developed and promoted by adversaries, and in neither of these cases is "written statement" a prerequisite to be called or recognized as a narrative. Moreover, narratives are not necessarily "concise". Many grand narratives
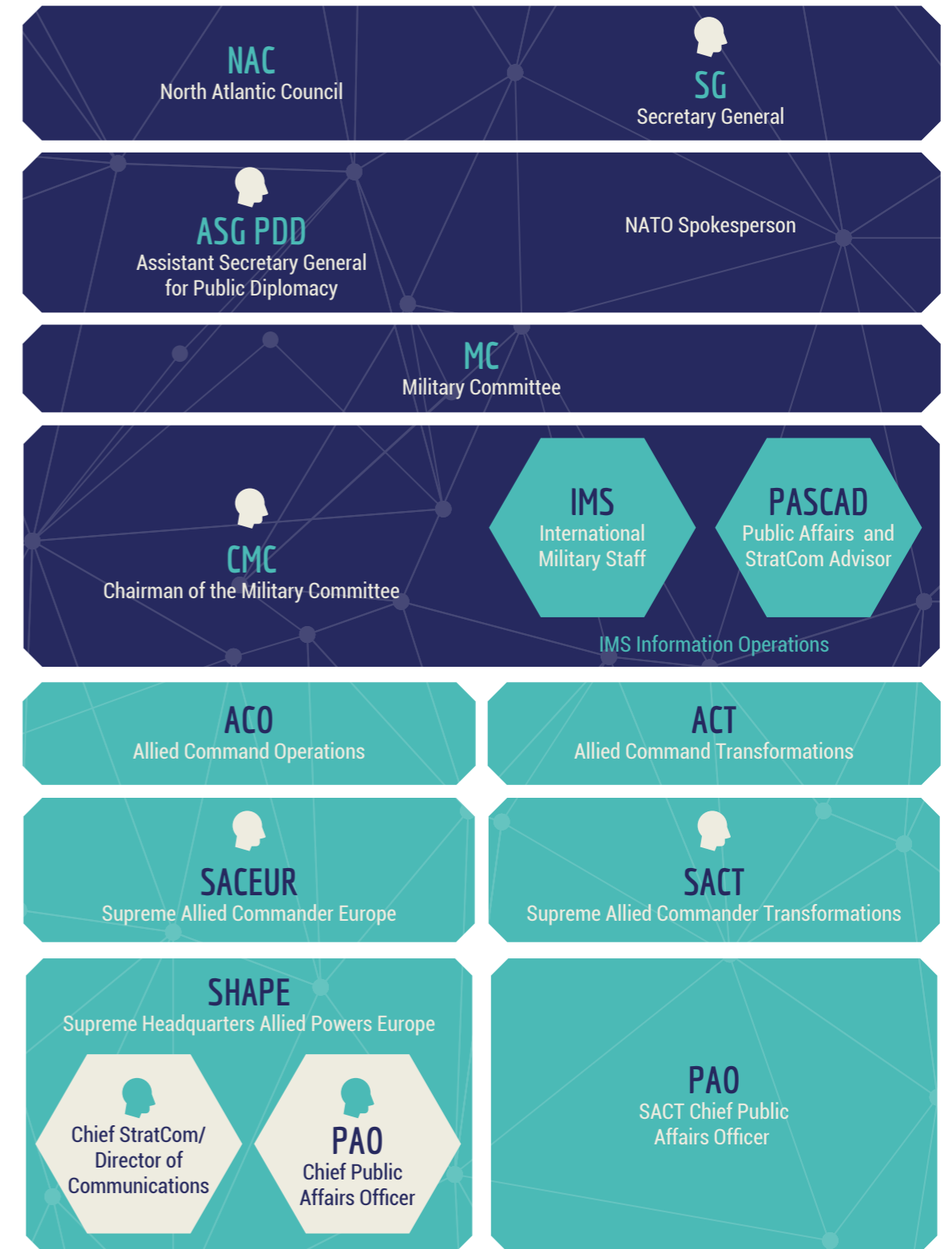

Figure 1 NATO Command Structure Elements directly involved in Communications and Spokespersons.
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"StratCom should be the concern of all of NATO, not just dedicated elements and branches. In running its daily business as well as particular operations, NATO is constantly engaging and communicating with the outside world. NATO's language should therefore be comprehensible to wider society, mass media, and other international organisations.

lack specificity (think "Workers of the World Unite" or "The meek shall inherit the earth"). It appears that the reference to "concise" is an appeal to how a narrative *should* be rather than a reflection of its essential characteristic.

Narratives, as communicated through stories, tend to reduce complexity and offer a path towards a desired conclusion which can be applied to a range of different situations. It follows that narrowly defining "narrative" as a "statement of an organization's situation" or as "strategic planning directives" is unnecessary. *Such definitions can be helpful in doctrine documents or Handbooks but should not become part of a generic definition for NATO StratCom terminology.*

Narratives play a central role in Strategic Communications. It is of utmost importance that strategic, operational, and

tactical levels in NATO share a common understanding of the term. Moreover, given that Strategic Communications is a holistic approach to communications, it should be easily understood by different communities outside the organisation that NATO tries to either affect or engage with in its Strategic Communications effort (e.g. mass media, non-governmental organisations, academia, commercial sector). Therefore, the definition needs to be as generic, simple, clear and applicable to other fields as possible.

This brings us to the second important consideration for this Project. Here it attempts to go beyond the traditional aims of terminology projects. By clarifying StratCom terminology the project hopes to improve understanding of Strategic Communications for those outside the discipline and create a greater sense of responsibility for communications throughout the NATO Command Structure.

StratCom should be the concern of all of NATO, not just dedicated elements and branches. In running its daily business as well as particular operations, NATO is constantly engaging and communicating with the outside world. NATO's language should therefore be comprehensible to wider society, mass media, and other international organisations. As well as NGOs and commercial companies with whom NATO works to deliver its mission, and scientists and academics consulted by NATO to advance its research and innovation. That is why the intent to have the new NATO's Allied Joint Publication on Strategic Communications as a public document is a very important step in the direction of creating joint understanding. But this is also why it is critically important that the language used in this document reflects clarity of thinking when it comes to the nature and purpose of Strategic Communications.

1.2 Challenges

We must consider the review cycle of NATO Alllied Joint Publications and Policies. These documents were created at different times (for example, the NATO StratCom Policy dates back to 2009, whereas NATO Military Policy on StratCom came into force in 2017) and have different review cycles. Besides, the documents observe a hierarchical order which makes it challenging to bring lower-level documents up to date unless the same changes are made to the guiding document. The

glossaries used for these different NATO documents do not have a joint point of reference. Some opt for the first definition given in the Oxford English Dictionary, some propose their own definitions, and some use definitions from other NATO documents. Hence there is lack of consistency even with some of the core terms. In addition, as far as the NATO StratCom domain is concerned, there is no one joint conceptual framework for terminology, pointing out the relationships between different terms and positioning them in a certain hierarchy.

Further complications arise from the fact that NATO is a multilingual organisation and politico-military community where StratCom-related language overlaps with the language of other political institutions such as national governments and the European Union, the commercial sector, and academia as well as everyday language. In this project, the Terminology Working Group finds that *boundaries are blurred not only between the terminology of agencies within NATO but also between a NATO-specific register and wider public discourse.* This extends beyond the internal NATO community, namely between military and civilian (think of how the term "narrative" is variously used across the member states) to the different national cultures and languages of its 29 allies. More than in the specialised discourses of medicine and science, *there is significant overlap between terms used in common language and specialised StratCom language. This increases the potential for miscommunication when people refer to or*

access different understandings of the same term.[7] The Project's working group was in fact a great example of this phenomenon, where everyone was putting up their own national and professional interpretations and applications of different terms for discussion.

Last but not least, in any specialised field there are varying degrees of understanding and expertise. This is also the case in Strategic Communications: between NATO's military personnel and civilian employees, between political leadership and operators, and between its different branches and departments, as well as outside NATO in national governments, media, civil society.[8] In the wider NATO community Strategic Communications has often met with a lack of interest and acceptance.[9] The Project conducted a side-experiment of interviewing militaries with little background in professional communications. It revealed that individuals did not feel that StratCom was their responsibility. This was attributed to a lack of understanding of Strategic Communications and the non-intuitive nature of some terms it uses. These findings are important since a core idea of StratCom is that Strategic Communications is everyone's business in some shape or form, and not just the concern of designated communicators.

While this makes the task of this terminology project challenging, requiring compromises sensitive to pre-existing usage of terms and precedents contained within doctrine, the project is also an opportunity to better communicate the rationale for and importance of Strategic Communications within NATO.

2 Who is the end-user?

Given the objectives of the project, it must clarify who exactly the NATO Strategic Communications Terminology is intended for, as well as what problems it intends to alleviate.

2.1 Which communities interact with NATO language? Is this a problem?

Communities define and distinguish themselves by cultivating a certain language use, creating a sense of shared identity.[10] Not only can this create a feeling of belonging, but for those outside the community it becomes a basis for identifying and making value judgments about that in-group. This can be observed on a national level, for example, with the Catalan language in Spain or French in Quebec, Canada.[11] But it also applies to organisations such as NATO. There are two main reasons to consider other language communities [national governments, civil society, other international institutions (EU, OECD, UN, the media, academia, and commercial sector interacting with NATO language and users) of NATO's specialised discourse.

Firstly, when speaking to actors outside the NATO community, certain terms might not be understood in the same way, leading to misunderstandings. For example, in the fight against ISIS Western governments and media used various terms interchangeably: ISIS, IS, ISIL, and Daesh (the Arabic acronym of ISIL, used widely by the coalition fighting ISIS to capitalise on the negative connotations of the term in Arabic), initially causing some confusion among domestic populations.[12] Secondly, using acronym-heavy and euphemistic language might seem "natural" within a military in-group, and an effective way to talk about violence in softer terms: e.g. by calling a tank a "Future Rapid Effects System" or psychological operations "Military Information Support Operations."[13] However, such language can be perceived as dishonest and as trying to conceal what these terms actually refer to by those outside the community.[14] *The lesson NATO can draw from this is that when using certain terms, it is important to consider how the use of these words might be misconstrued outside the immediate context; how language use can contribute to the impression of NATO itself.* Another example is Information Operations. As the Project's small side-research shows, people associate Info Ops with cyber and computer-related activity rather than with Strategic Communications. The name of the term is not intuitive and causes misunderstanding and confusion. Psychological Operations, for example, were mostly perceived as something that only the adversary engages in and not something that NATO does because it involves unethical, illegal
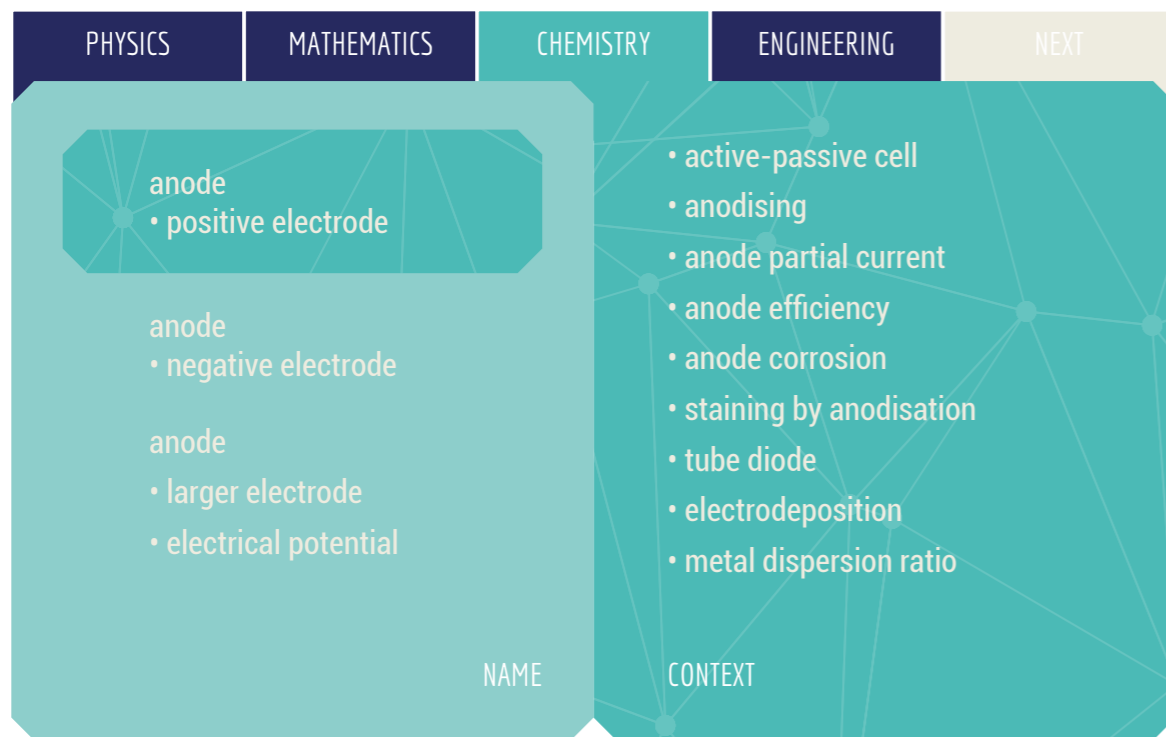
anode
• positive electrode

anode
• negative electrode

anode
• larger electrode
• electrical potential

NAME

• active-passive cell
• anodising
• anode partial current
• anode efficiency
• anode corrosion
• staining by anodisation
• tube diode
• electrodeposition
• metal dispersion ratio

CONTEXT

Figure 2 "Simulation of results – anode/positive electrode" Nahod (2015)[15]

termbank includes terminological units from a number of specialised knowledge domains.[18] One of the main difficulties his team encountered was how to create entries for terms used in more than one specialised domain and in slightly different ways. He illustrates this with the example of anode/cathode, which can have different and at times even contradictory meanings in Physics, Engineering, and Chemistry. Harmonising these multiple meanings into one, comprehensive definition was not feasible. Anode/cathode was part of a bigger conceptual difference in understanding related categories across these different fields (for a more in-depth discussion of frameworks of understanding see chapter 5).

To overcome this, Nahod and his colleagues devised a system that listed the most important fields in which a term like anode was used together with its respective definitions. Consequently, the Termbank allows users searching for a term to select the subfield in which s/he has encountered the term. Moreover, definitions in different fields also include references to other, related terms frequently used with the term in question. This is because the specific understanding of a term will have implications for how other terms in that context are understood. Perhaps offering several, context-dependent definitions should be considered for terms that have conflicting or contradictory definitions in different sub-domains.

targeting of populations for 'brainwashing'. Note that this was the perception of military personnel, not complete outsiders. This Project provides a secondary benefit for how NATO can manage its image by raising awareness of how language used by members of the community influences an outsider's perception of NATO.

2.2 Using terms outside NATO – What role does context play?

Terminologists increasingly recognise that terms and their definitions are not fixed but highly dependent on their situation of use.[16] As a result many terminologists have adopted a *dynamic* approach to terminology variation. This means that the "meaning" of a term depends on what features of the object, phenomenon, or activity it denotes are being emphasised or what other terms are being invoked in a given text.[17] So what does this mean in practice? How can a multiplicity of potential contexts be addressed in writing definitions?

Bruno Nahod works on the Croatian National Termbank (Struna). This

3 Why terminology and not lexicography?

This section takes a step back to explain why this is a terminological project and not a lexicographic one. It reviews the beginnings of terminology as a discipline as well as the most recent literature, and what that means for the methodology of this project.

3.1 What is lexicography?

The discipline of lexicography sits within the field of applied linguistics and is preoccupied with observing, recording and *describing* words in a given language,[19] highlighting their most characteristic features and their meaning(s).[20] Thus, the work of lexicographers is considered to be *descriptive rather than prescriptive*; recording established language use rather than setting standards for "correct" use.[21]

Moreover, lexicography and terminology also differ in the linguistic "object" they study. While specialist dictionaries look at a given language (or languages) as a whole, terminologies or technical dictionaries focus on a specific subfield that is defined by a community of expertise (rather than shared linguistic features).[22] So a terminological dictionary usually deals with the language of a particular trade, profession, or

academic field. *In our case, the language area under consideration is defined by: a) the institution of NATO in terms of the primary users of the outputs from this project, and b) the field of Strategic Communications in terms of the area of expert knowledge.* Both the boundaries constituting the "NATO linguistic community" and the extent of Strategic Communications as a field require further interrogation and definition (see the discussion in Chapter IV).

3.2 Terminology versus Lexicography in Practice

In its more traditional form,[23] Terminology distinguishes itself from Lexicography in the following respects:

- Lexicography starts with the word and tries to record the most important definitions for that word used in a given language. This is also referred to as a semasiological approach (determining the meanings of lexical units). Terminology, on the other hand starts with the concepts that are in need of definition and tries to identify/designate suitable terms (an onomasiological approach). Terminology is thus much more prescriptive than lexicography.

- While the objective of the lexicographer is to help readers interpret texts, a terminological project aims to help produce texts.

- Lexicography is more about reflecting or describing established language use. Terminology is guided by principles of clarity and efficiency in specialised communication, so prescribing and potentially wishing to change how language is used.[24]

Lexicographers sometimes compile specialised dictionaries. However, *this project deals with the language used by a specialised language community, which is part of an institution (i.e. NATO). So a terminological approach is more suitable.* Moreover, lexicographers must carefully weigh scientific objectivity against offering authoritative entries.[25] Yet this balancing act is not of central concern to this terminology project in NATO Strategic Communications. *With Strategic Communications being a relatively new field of research and practice (at least under that name), there have been no comprehensive efforts to standardise the language used by strategic communicators.* This leads us to another reason why this is a *terminology* rather than a *lexicography* project: it has grown out of very specific needs in the NATO community to improve communication between different branches and national governments, rather than to describe and record the current use of terms.[26]

3.3 What is terminology?

This section offers a brief overview of major developments in the discipline of terminology and how these feed into the approach chosen by this terminology project.

3.3.1 Early developments in Terminology

Terminology is a relatively young field of research. It only became an object of independent study in the 1930s[27] when it was first conceptualised as a discipline with the work of Austrian industrialist (and later, terminologist) Eugen Wüster (1898-1977) and his followers. His theory of Terminology was based on his experiences as an engineering expert and from compiling *The Machine Tool. An Interlingual Dictionary of Basic Concepts* (1968), a project sponsored by the OECD.[28] Given his background in engineering and entrepreneurship, it is hardly surprising that he developed a theory of Terminology where language was considered to be strictly utilitarian. Like the parts of a machine, specialised language should live up to standards of precision, efficiency, and economy.[29]

Wüster's theory of Terminology gained currency and legitimacy both in academia and the practical application and study of terminology in international institutions.[30] The fact that his ideas came to dominate the field of Terminology would be heavily criticised from the 1990s onwards.[31]

But before exploring these critiques further, a closer look at Wüster's theory of Terminology is required.

3.3.2 A General Terminology Theory (GTT)

Eugen Wüster considered language to be an instrument for enabling the best communication. He compares language to a tool (*Werkzeug*) and a vehicle (*Fahrzeug*) carrying a "load" of ideas/thought (*Gedankenlast*).[32] Central to his theory is that terminological work should start with the concept (*Begriff*).[33] The work of the terminologist, in his eyes, was to prescribe the use of terms designating concepts that are clearly distinct from one another ('one word-one meaning').[34] Critics have frequently pointed out that such an approach disregards context and the coexistence of multiple meanings for one term (polysemy), the fact that some words might be spelled alike or sound alike but have different meanings (homonymy), and that sometimes more than one word may describe a concept (synonymy.) [35] *A lot of the terms discussed in this project, indeed present definitional hurdles that these critics point out: there are multiple meanings associated with the term "communication" for example, and likewise "narrative" and "story" are frequently used interchangeably.* For more on this, see the 7) *Background and Examples for Proposed Definitions* chapter below.

Critics highlight further areas where the General Theory of Terminology (GTT) did

not stand up to empirical data detailing how terms were used in everyday life.

- A "subject field" of specialised knowledge under consideration in a terminology project is not a given but is consciously defined in the course of a terminological project.

- Terms can have many meanings (polysemic) and be ambiguous.

- Concepts and terms depend on language, context, and the function they fulfil in a text.

- GTT models are better suited to defining terms that describe entities like objects, living beings, or locations, but not more abstract concepts that designate activities, properties or relations.

- Only rarely do terminology projects start with the concept and then find the word (onomasiological approach). Frequently terminology research is based on corpora research, starting with the word then defining the concept (semasiological approach).[36]

NATO Strategic Communications terminology is living proof that these points of critique are highly justified and require a more flexible approach to terminology.

- *The NATO StratCom community is not strictly separated but intermingles with other civilian and military areas*

of NATO, national and international institutions, and academia, the commercial sector, and media institutions.

- *Many concepts and terms used in the NATO StratCom field are complex, fluid, and "messy" and have a long history of philosophical debate.*

- *Terms are used in a multi-lingual and multi-cultural space. At the same time words are frequently used as a means of marking inner-institutional boundaries and areas of action, e.g. the prefix "information" used widely in doctrine and policy describing NATO Info Ops and their activities.*

- *Finally given that this project has a practical outlook, the definition of words that currently cause confusion and misunderstanding were prioritised.*

3.3.3 Beyond the General Terminology Theory

So what did critics of Wüster's General Terminology Theory offer instead? In reaction to the GTT, sociocognitive approaches to Terminology developed around the turn of the 21st century[37] stressing that the meaning of words is not fixed but shaped by the context in which they are used.[38] Furthermore, words in these theories are not simply tools of communication (as Wüster thought) but constitutive of worldviews. [39]

This final section will explain how these sociocognitive theories of terminology have contributed to the methodology of this project. For a more detailed discussion of the individual theories, consult the annex of this document.

Inspired by Socioterminology[40] this Project does not consider concepts to exist independently of language "out there" in the world.[41] The use of certain terms and what concepts they are chosen to describe is strongly dependent on the professional, social, and cultural background of language users. Moreover, especially in cases where there is potential for inter-agency rivalry in NATO, terminology is sometimes used to institutionalise power relations.[42] When defining terms, the Project must remain sensitive to both these concerns.

So how can this awareness be translated into the practice of terminology? In her Communicative Theory of Terminology (CTT) Linguist and terminologist Teresa Cabré defines three key elements of the *terminological unit*.[43] *Terminological units are at the same time units of language, units of knowledge, and units of communication.[44] Because these three elements co-exist, the analysis of oral and written discourses (in our case pre-existing NATO documents, dictionary definitions, and academic texts) and the way terminological units are used in practice (the side-study of this project) is central to a terminology methodology.*

How should this analysis of existing meanings be carried out? Rita Temmerman, an expert in translation, multilingual intercultural communication, and terminology, has developed a socio-cognitive theory of terminology. She argues that language strongly informs the conception of categories and, by extension, how we make sense of the world. In her view, the "fuzziness" of terms should not be considered a shortcoming of language. Rather, it is an object of study through the use of corpora-based research methods.[45] This means that texts from the specialised discourse are collected in order to understand how different words are used and in what context. For her terminology involves studying a term's history, its evolution of meaning, and its use by different speech communities, in specialised as well as general discourse.[46] The *Background and Examples for Proposed Definitions* chapter of this report intends to do just that, explaining how a term's legacy and use in different fields as well as problem's associated with these different uses have led the working group to the proposed definitions given in the glossary.

4   Definitions

4.1   NATO as a specialised language community and the Discipline of StratCom

According to terminologist Rita Temmerman "a special language can be defined as the collection of spoken and written discourse on a subject related to a discipline."[47] While this is a good start, difficulties arise when trying to identify terms "related to" the "discipline" of Strategic Communications.
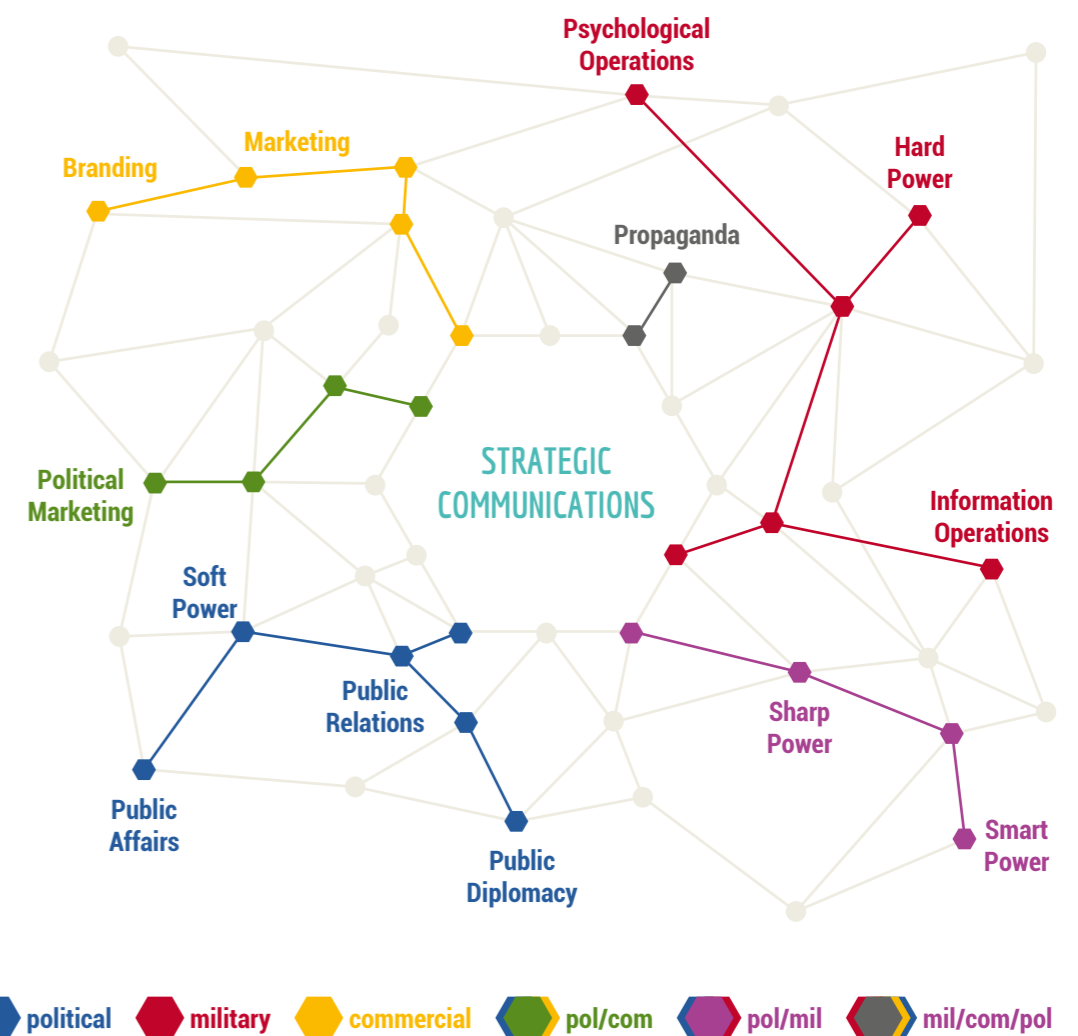

Figure 3 Strategic Communications Universe © 2017 Leonie Haiden

The boundaries of the discipline of Strategic Communications are not clearly defined. Strategic Communications is related to the fields of Information Operations (Info Ops), Psychological Operations (PSYOPS), Political Marketing, Public Diplomacy (PD), to name but a few. The graphic illustrates the complexity of defining boundaries of the Strategic Communications field.

Moreover, the question of where StratCom sits exactly in relation to other NATO structures such as Info Ops, PSYOPS, Public Affairs and Public Diplomacy is contested within the institution. Last but not least, the peculiarities of how different nations organise StratCom in their governments should be considered. Some NATO members, like the U.S. do not always call what they do Strategic Communications. Also, according to the COE's research on the utility of Info Ops and PSYOPS in peace

time, not all nations have these functions and capabilities, and if they do, then their mandate is affected by differences in national legislation and political will. Therefore it is even more difficult to streamline a single understanding of Strategic Communications within NATO.

4.2   Concept

Concepts are a way of structuring objects in the world around us to allow us to think and communicate about them. They can be concrete or abstract (e.g. house or love); describe properties (e.g. cold); identities (e.g. friends, spouse, president); or functions and activities (e.g. growth, exchange).[48]

4.3   Term

The term, then, is an expression describing a concept. It can be everything from a word, to a symbol, formula, or acronym.[49]

5   How to carry out this project

Atkins and Rundell propose some key questions that should be considered when planning a dictionary,[50] but these also apply to a terminology project, allowing us to outline basic features and scope of the project at hand:

1	Language	English
2	Coverage	StratCom domain
3	Size	see paragraph below
4	Medium	report and online
5	Organization and Layout	word to meaning (alphabetical order)
6	Users' languages	English, frequently as a second language
7	Users' skills	Primarily individuals working in a communications-related domain in NATO (PD, Info Ops, StratCom) but also military and civilians in NATO more generally.
8	Intended use	decoding (to understand the meaning of terms) and encoding (using a term correctly)

Traditionally terminologists tried to identify key concepts and study them (an onomasiological approach). It is now common to also conduct corpus-based terminology,[51] which assesses the frequency and distribution of lexical items used by the target language community (those for whom the terminology project is being created).[52] Ideally a combination of these two methodologies should be used.[53] *Given the limited resources available to the project, as well as the relatively small sample of authoritative NATO documents on Strategic Communications, a manual extraction and analysis of key terms in consultation with* *experts in the fields was carried out to identify which terms should be prioritised.*

Then definitions were formulated (or adapted) according to agreed criteria (see section on Methodology), formulating the definition in a manner most useful for the end-user.

During this process terms were also placed in categorisation frameworks to ensure that, in the overall context of Strategic Communications, definitions make sense. As the Project has not come to a strict end and will carry on in some shape or form, these frameworks will be continually expanded and revised.

5.1 Methodology: How will concepts be defined?

5.1.1 Best practice for writing definitions

A key aim of this project is to formulate definitions that are accessible to a wide audience; understandable outside military, academia and politics. Thus, based on previous terminology projects, the original project proposal[54] and discussions at the first Terminology Working Group meeting,[55] definitions of terminological units should be:

Simple: the definition should be concise, clear, avoid complicated vocabulary[56], and be no longer than one sentence.[57]

Intuitive/Predictable: The definition should explain where the concept sits in the categorisation framework (see section 2 in this Chapter) and should be worded so it meets the needs of its users.[58]

Affirmative: The definition should specify features that distinguish the concept from other terms.[59] Avoiding statements like "concept C is not concept Y". Instead, they should explain the relationship between concept C and other concepts in that domain: e.g. spouse, *n.*: "A husband or wife, or (in later use) a person joined to another in a comparable legally recognized union, considered in relation to his or her partner."[60] This also implies that the definitions are not unnecessarily limiting (as illustrated with the example with the term "narrative" and the definition proposed by the Info Ops community discussed above).

Non-circular: Do not use (parts of) the term that is being defined in the definition.[61]

Two additional points to keep in mind:
- In cases where there are synonymous terms (several words designating the same concept) these should be included in the terminological entry. If there are synonyms for terms but subject-matter experts advise against their use, this should also be indicated in the final entry.
- Different meanings of the same term should be labelled and tagged.[62] This is especially important in the field of Strategic Communications, where the lexical field is diverse in its applications and whose users might differ in their expertise.[63]

5.1.2 Tensions

The qualities described above offer a good guide for the formulation of terms. However, there is an underlying tension within this project between a purist understanding of terms and the reality of their practical application in NATO. NATO's objectives and actions are guided by doctrine set out in a series of Policy and Allied Joint Publication[64] documents. These documents already include definitions for terms used throughout the organisation, with definitions given in glossaries. In some cases, these definitions will conflict and perhaps contradict with "ideal" definitions suggested by the working-group. Below the most relevant documents in relations to Strategic Communications are listed. First on the list are policies, which are higher-level documents that inform NATO doctrine. These are followed by Allied Joint Publications (AJPs). There are 3 levels of AJPs:

1. capstone (AJP-01) and keystone (AJP-2, -3, -4, -5, -6) publications.
2. documents supporting joint doctrine for specific functional areas at the operational level (see examples in table below).
3. publications contain tactics, techniques, and procedural-level doctrine that support and enhance AJPs.

Document Type	Document Title	Publication Date	Relevance
Policy	**PO(2009)0141** NATO STRATEGIC COMMUNICATIONS POLICY	29 SEP 2009	
	MC 0628 NATO MILITARY POLICY ON STRATEGIC COMMUNICATIONS	10 JUL 2017	
	MC 0402/2 NATO MILITARY POLICY ON PSYCHOLOGICAL OPERATIONS	3 OCT 2012	Psychological Operations are a communications capability coordinated by Info Ops based on NATO Strategic Communications framework.
	MC 0411/2 NATO MILITARY POLICY ON CIVIL-MILITARY COOPERATION (CIMIC) AND CIVIL-MILITARY INTERACTION (CMI)	12 MAY 2014	CMI is informed by Strategic Communications political-military guidance on synchronisation of messaging and operations (5).
	MC 0422/5 NATO MILITARY POLICY FOR INFORMATION OPERATIONS	11 FEB 2015	Information Operations (Info Ops) is a staff function coordinating all capabilities of a joint operational staff based on the NATO Strategic Communications framework.
	MC 0457/2 NATO MILITARY POLICY ON PUBLIC AFFAIRS	8 FEB 2011	Public Affairs are a communications capability coordinated based on the NATO Strategic Communications framework.

Document Type	Document Title	Publication Date	Relevance
Allied Joint Publication (AJP, Level 1)	**AJP-01(D)** ALLIED JOINT DOCTRINE	DEC 2010	Capstone document.
	AJP-3(C) ALLIED JOINT DOCTRINE FOR THE CONDUCT OF OPERATIONS	Edition C, Version 1 under review	Strategic Communications is listed as an Operational Consideration for joint and multinational operations (1-14).
	AJP-5 ALLIED JOINT DOCTRINE FOR OPERATIONAL-LEVEL PLANNING	JUN 2013	Strategic Communications is listed as one of the Doctrinal Principles for Allied Joint and Multinational Operations (1-6).
Allied Joint Publication (AJP, Level 2)	**AJP-3.10** ALLIED JOINT DOCTRINE FOR INFORMATION OPERATIONS	Edition A, Version 1 DEC 2015	These doctrines are consistent with their related policies.
	AJP-3.10.1 ALLIED JOINT DOCTRINE FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL OPERATIONS	Edition B, Version 1 SEP 2014	They provide a framework to help commanders and their staffs think, plan and operate. They focus on the operational level, but also have utility at the strategic and tactical levels too
	AJP-3.2 ALLIED JOINT DOCTRINE FOR LAND OPERATIONS	Edition A, Version 1 MAR 2016	The majority of operations takes place on land.
	AJP-3.4(A) ALLIED JOINT DOCTRINE FOR NON-ARTICLE 5 CRISIS RESPONSE OPERATIONS	Not yet ratified	One of the most important kind of operations in NATO.
Allied Administrative Publication	**AAP 6** NATO GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND DEFINITIONS (ENGLISH AND FRENCH)	Edition 2015	Collection terms and definition already agreed on and used throughout NATO.

Additionally, there are Allied Administrative Publications (AAPs). AAP 6 is a collection of all NATO terms. It is especially relevant to this project since it sets out definitions and terms already in use throughout NATO.

5.1.3 Methodological Assumptions

Having shown how pre-existing NATO documents shape the background of this project, this section will discuss the theoretical assumptions underlying the project. Three assumptions guide the formulation of definitions for concepts.[65] These principles form the basis of the methodology of this project. *(1) Reality is a context, i.e. People inherit meaning. They do not have access to any other objective reality beyond the "reality" that language refers to.[66] (2) schemas are the basic building blocks*

of knowledge about this "reality" (3) in-group/out-group selections play a vital role in shaping these "schemas" or "frames".

Reality is a Context

According to this view, based on postmodern and poststructuralist philosophy, there is no objective reality beyond language or a "reality" that language refers to. Signs and images are interpreted from within a conceptual framework that has already attached meanings and symbolic values to them.[67] *In this project the strategic communications domain is understood to be the "reality" being structured and constructed through the terminology we are developing.* In other words, our definitions of terms are based on an understanding of the world and information flows as seen through a Strategic Communications lens.

Schemas

These conceptual frameworks (also "schemas" or "frames") can also be described as the templates for how we structure knowledge, i.e. how we accommodate and categorise new information into our understanding of the world.[68] *It is language that activates these schemas or frames in our brain. These schemas are based on past knowledge and our physical experience of the world.*[69] Furthermore, they both assimilate and are modified by new inputs.[70]

In-Groups and Out-Groups

Schemas that are particularly fundamental in shaping human understanding of the world are those which underlie group-affiliations and are thus responsible for shaping social

identities (so called *in-group* (the group one considers oneself to be part of) and *out-groups* (the groups one does not consider oneself to be part of)).[71] In-group/out-group schemas usually also entail a value judgment. While empirical studies into this phenomenon have been undertaken mainly in cognitive psychology and social linguistics, the power of in-group/out-group selections has also been identified as an underlying mechanism in extremist propaganda.[72]

These three assumptions are based on post-modernist / post-structuralist philosophy[73] and might appear quite theoretical and distant from the needs of the NATO community whom this project serves. However, it was agreed that these theoretical principles would aid internal coherence of the conceptual mapping of terminological units (such as strategic, communication, information).

Nonetheless, *the philosophical (post-structural) and pragmatic, utilitarian (based on pre-existing NATO language use and culture) approaches to terminology need to be kept present and in conversation throughout the project.* This calls for a continual discussion and negotiation between a more purist, theoretical, and systematic understanding of StratCom concepts, and the practical reality of NATO terminology as it is (and will be) used in Doctrine (and consequently, within the whole NATO structure). Throughout the process definitions will have to be checked

against and amended to their practical application in the NATO community.

5.2   Why Categorisation Frameworks?

Given the philosophical basis of the methodology of this project (context is the "reality", schemas, in-group/out-groups), a Frame-Based Terminology approach is a suitable practical application of these basic assumptions. *Frame-Based Terminology (FBT) considers words to be part of conceptual systems that underlie a specialised language field. It is based on the idea that in order to understand individual words, one has to understand the relations between terms in that system.*[74]

For example, for the <breakfast> concept, in English, it is necessary to understand the common practices of the culture in which this category is used in order to properly understand its meaning in context and create the corresponding prototypical

framework, since the cultural reality may differ from country to country (e.g. UK and U.S. or its equivalents in Spain or Germany).[75]

Another example, when we think of the phrase "buying a product", a number of related concepts are activated to imagine a prototypical situation which includes terms such as "seller," "buyer," "sell," "buy," "product."[76] Given the need to understand how a given term relates to other terms in that field, it has become common to create a categorisation framework when defining terminological units.[77] This involves considering the different categories of terms in a given field.

Given that several of the terms under consideration (e.g. information, media) are also used in general language and NATO doctrine (e.g. narrative, strategy), it makes sense to define these terms in a way that clarifies where they sit in the Strategic Communications ontology.
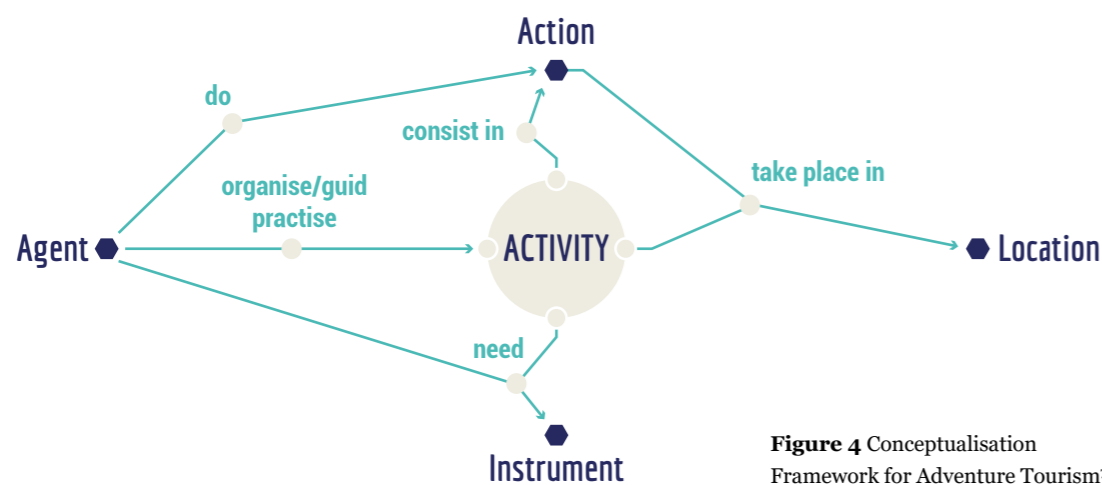

Figure 4 Conceptualisation Framework for Adventure Tourism[78]

Figure 6 Overview Cluster 2 – Applied Strategic Communications

5.2.1   Categorisation Frameworks in Practice

To illustrate terminology frameworks, translation and terminology specialist Durán-Muñoz and her colleagues looked at the terminology of adventure tourism[79] and came up with *Action, Agent, Activity, Location,* and *Instrument* as preliminary categories, visualised as can be seen below.[80]

When devising such a framework, one should look for the following kinds of relationships:
- Hierarchical (*generic* and *specific* concepts, e.g. vegetable-broccoli; *whole-part concepts*, e.g. computer-keyboard)
- Associative (*spatial* or *temporal* link between concepts, "producer-product;

action-result; action-tool; container-contents; and cause-effect."[81])

In the context of this terminology project, subject-matter experts distinguished between several clusters of words associated with Strategic Communications. Cluster 1 – *Elements of Communication* is a more *hierarchical* framework, for example the "operating environment" is part of the "information environment". The relationship in Cluster 2 – Applied Strategic Communications are more *associative*. "Influence" and "hybrid threat" are certain related terms but are not in a hierarchical relationship (Figure 5). A visualisation of the connections and relations between concepts has been devised using the Prezi Software.

6 Glossary of Proposed Definitions (alphabetical)

communication, *n.*: The exchange of meaning.

conversation, *n.*: An oral and/or visual exchange between two or more individuals.

discourse, *n.*: Accepted positions that constrain debates and shape worldviews; they are created and maintained through communication.

hybrid threat, *n.*: A threat of mixed origin that avoids declaration of war and accountability.

influence, *n.*: The ability to achieve effects on opinions and behaviour through words, images and actions.

information, *n.*: *In strategic communications*, processed data.
  N.B. *In NATO Intel Community*, unprocessed data (information does not become 'intelligence' until it is processed).

information environment, *n.*: Dynamic physical and/or virtual settings interpreted by the mind.

intended audience, *n.*: Selected individuals or groups to be influenced.

manoeuvre, *n.*: The employment of resources in the operating environment to achieve a position of advantage over an adversary.

meaning, *n.*: The product of coding and decoding of a message or information.

message, *n.*: A transmitted and/or consumed unit of information enriched with meaning.
  N.B. Sometimes the receiver attributes the qualities of a message to a unit of information that was not intended as a message.

message environment, *n.*: A setting where interaction of messages affects the meaning of an event or phenomenon.

narrative, *n.*: Morals drawn from stories.

operating environment, *n.*: The dynamic setting that impacts decision-making and behaviour for achieving a given objective.

script, n.: Pattern of expectations shaped by experience and idealisation.

story, n.: A temporally, spatially, and causally connected sequence of events.

strategic communications, *n.*: A holistic approach to communication based on values and interests that encompasses everything an actor does to achieve objectives in a contested environment.

7 Background and Examples for Proposed Definitions

Based on the project proposal for "StratCom Terminology Improvement" by the Netherlands, recommendations from practitioners, and discussions at the first Terminology Working Group meeting in February 2017, two clusters of terms were given priority: **Cluster 1 - Elements of Communication** and **Cluster 2 - Applied Strategic Communications**. Additionally **Cluster 3 - Storytelling** includes words based on the act of messaging and storytelling, which were reviewed and defined at a Working Group meeting in February 2019.

Cluster 4 which will include generic or professional categories of information and influence activities (see Figure 4), will be reviewed and defined at a Working Group meeting to be confirmed.

Below we provide details about why existing terms were considered problematic as well as a rationale for formulating the improved definitions the way we did in the first three clusters. Moreover we offer examples to illustrate what is meant by these terms.

7.1 CLUSTER 1 – ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

💬 **INFORMATION, *n.*:** in strategic communications, processed data.
N.B. In NATO Intel Community, unprocessed data (information does not become 'intelligence' until it is processed).
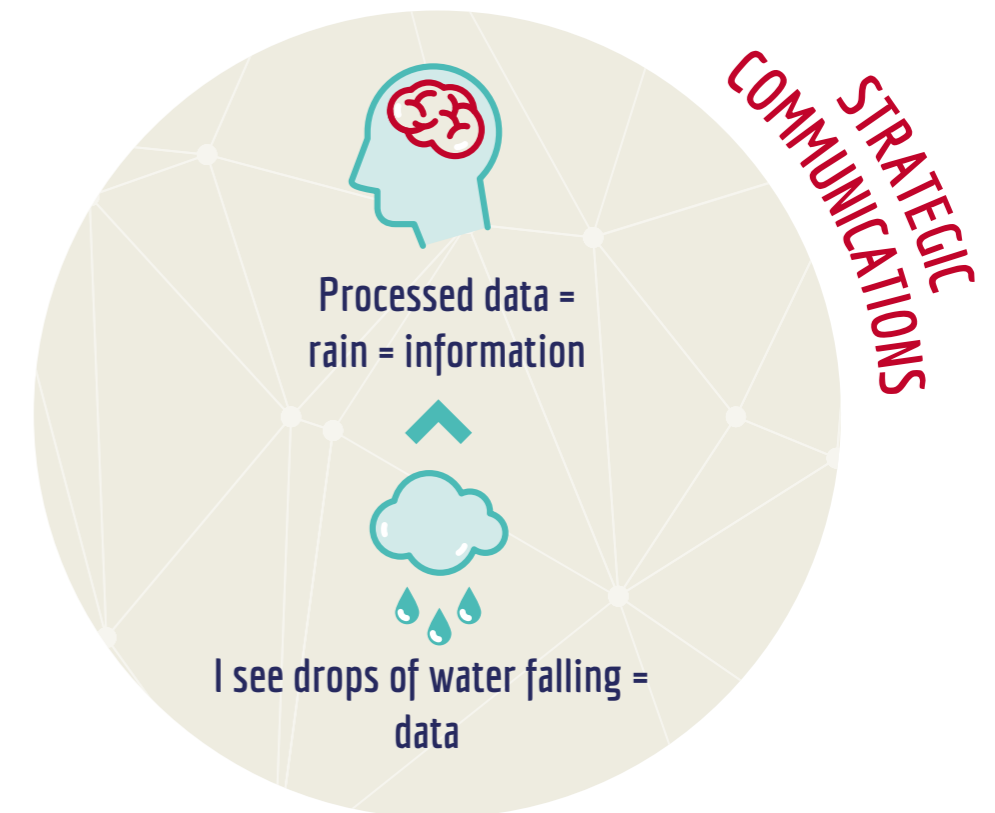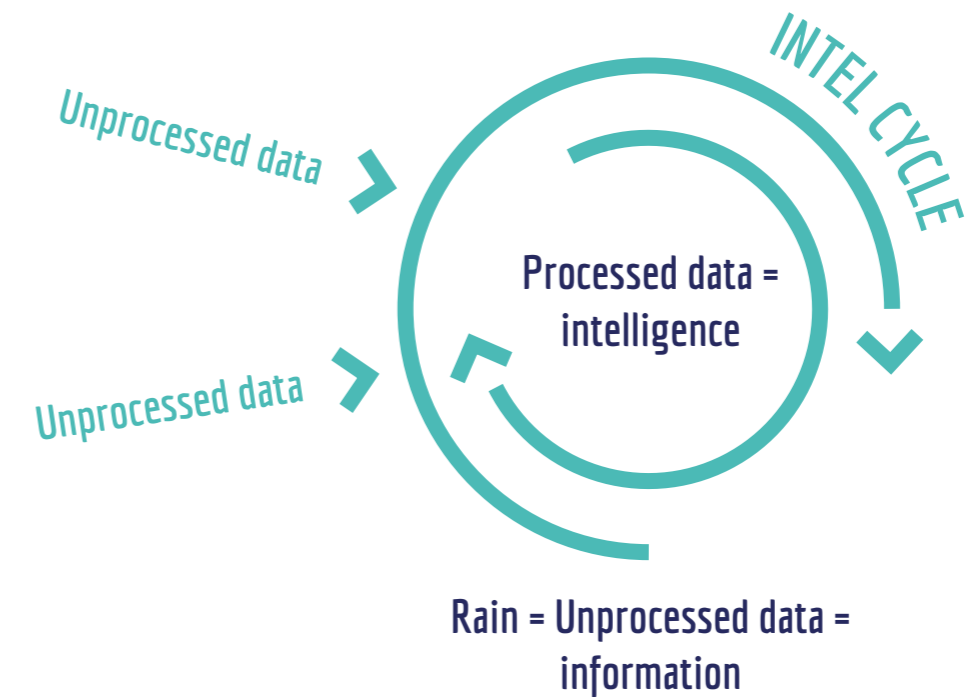
Background: 'Information' as a concept has been intensely theorised since the beginning of the 20th century, with the development of computers. It then entered philosophy and theories of communication via computer science.[82] One tension in attempts to define 'information' is that, on the one hand, information is an entity that can be sent and received, and, on the other, it is the result of meaningful interpersonal communication.[83] Speaking to the latter point, the Oxford English Dictionary defines information as 'the imparting of knowledge' and more specifically as 'knowledge communicated concerning some particular fact, subject, or event; that of which one is apprised or told; intelligence, news.'[84] By introducing 'knowledge' and 'facts' into the definition, one opens up a complex philosophical discussion into what qualifies as true or legitimate knowledge/fact.

In the NATO context more specifically, the main concern in defining 'information' is that the intelligence community commonly defines the term as '*un*processed data' (AAP-06; AAP-39, NATO agreed 2015) whereas information as it is understood on the civilian side of the house, in common language and the political and academic sphere is *processed* data.[85]

Rationale: The improved definition is a result of negotiating the two points raised above. Firstly, by using the term 'data' we are circumventing the philosophical debate about what qualifies as 'true' information, raised by such words as 'fact' or 'knowledge'. Secondly, 'processed expresses the idea that what qualifies as information is not an objective given, but is the result of some kind of categorisation, interpretation or transformation of data.

Example, *When Harry Upset Sally*: *Harry is lying on the sofa reading. When he glances out the window, he sees drops of water falling from the sky. He says to himself: "It's raining."*

Visual stimuli reach Harry's eye when he looks out of the window. They are processed by his visual cortex and lead him to the conclusion that it is raining.

INTEL CYCLE

Unprocessed data

Unprocessed data

Processed data = intelligence

Rain = Unprocessed data = information

STRATEGIC COMMUNICATIONS

Processed data = rain = information

I see drops of water falling = data

Background: Operating Environment is a problematic term precisely because it attempts to express two things simultaneously:

1. 1. As mentioned above, information constitutes the world, and therefore the 'information environment', and the 'operating environment' within it, is what we call 'reality'.
2. 2. At the same time, actors operating within and aware of this 'reality', nonetheless require something tangible to act on, to target, to disrupt, to protect.

This, second, more practically oriented element of the term explains why past definitions have been more focused on the physical, practically-oriented side of the concept. This results in a discrepancy between the intangible, all-encompassing nature of both the information and operating environments, and the need to constrain them using terminology that cannot satisfactorily express the complexity and fluidity of the concepts.

Rationale: The goal for this definition was to clarify and simplify the existing definition[86] as well as make it transferable to a non-military context. Moreover the new definition reflects that the operating environment is part of the information environment (not vice versa as suggested by recent definition proposal within NATO at the time of writing this document). Its 'borders' are set by the given objectives that need to be achieved, limiting its scope in terms of priorities, time, geography. In contrast to the information environment, this term is operationally and practically much more specific.

Even though operating environments are subjective, and can be conceptual/ intangible, they are not meaningless. Virtual or imagined operating environments such as cyber space are not secondary to physical operating environments simply because they are intangible. The adjective 'dynamic' in the proposed definition, moreover, stresses the fact that the operating environment is not only intangible but lacks fixity and precision. Consequently, its limits are subject to expansion or contraction, and what unfolds within it is subject to contest; hence it is dynamic in different ways.

Again, the word 'setting' was chosen because it was considered to have less overtly physical connotations, than the word 'environment'. Setting can be imagined, virtual and physical and thus help to move the term away from the purely physical domain.

Example, *When Harry Upset Sally:* *Sally walks into the room. Harry sees her carrying her backpack and holding the house keys in her hand.*

The rain outside and Sally walking carrying her keys and backpack are part of Harry's operating environment. This 'setting' will prompt Harry to tell Sally that it has just started raining and remind her to bring an umbrella.

message, n.: a transmitted and/or consumed unit of information enriched with meaning.
N.B. Sometimes the receiver attributes the qualities of a message to a unit of information that was not intended as a message.

Background: Existing definitions of 'message' were found wanting for two reasons. Both the Oxford English Dictionary and Merriam-Webster define it as a 'communication' conveyed or transmitted by different means (oral, written, signal).[87] These definitions lack conceptual clarity of where information/communication/messages sit hierarchically. Moreover, they suggest that what qualifies as a message is unambiguous. However, a key question is whether a message has to be *intentional* in order to be considered a message, i.e. whether there needs to be a 'source' whose intention is that the message be consumed by a recipient. Does a piece of information also qualify as a 'message' when the recipient interprets it as such, even though there was no intentionality in sending it? After some discussion the group decided that the intentionality of the source is central to the definition, as indeed communications studies literature has also found.[88] Crucially, this intentionality need not have been a historical reality. It can also be attributed to a message by a receiver in hindsight.

Rationale: To convey that information can become a 'message' from either or both the sender/receiver's end, we chose the phrasing 'a transmitted and/or consumed unit of information'. In order to convey the idea that a message is the unit or vehicle of communication, we briefly considered using terms such as 'package of information', or 'discrete unit of information'. In the end, we opted against such phrasing because it lacked clarity.

Example, *When Harry Upset Sally*: *Harry turns towards Sally and says: "It just started raining."*

Harry is indicating that the words he is uttering are addressed to Sally by starting his speech (verbal messaging) when she enters the room and turning toward Sally (non-verbal messaging).

message environment, n.: A setting where interaction of messages affects the meaning of an event or phenomenon.

Background: This term was devised to express one element often subsumed into 'information environment'. The latter term is frequently used when designing communication strategies to describe all the factors relevant when it comes to a specific communication (campaign).

Rationale: The message environment is part of, but not limited to, the operating environment (see below); when broadcasting a certain message as part of a communications campaign, this will involve analysing and predicting the 'message environment'. However, since this 'environment' is by no means fixed, unpredicted and unpredictable factors and events might come to influence how an event/phenomenon or message is interpreted and understood by the intended audience.

Example, *When Harry Upset Sally*: *Sally can see the washing line through the window behind Harry. Harry cannot see the washing line from his position. He therefore does not anticipate that the washing line will influence how Sally receives his message (i.e. be part of the message environment). It was not, in other words, part of his operating environment (the factors that influenced his message to Sally in the first place).*

The washing line induces Sally to 'decode' his statement as a reference to the laundry drying outside, and not, as Harry anticipated, a reminder to take an umbrella with her.

Background: The group took issue with traditional definitions of 'meaning'[89] because they did not satisfactorily address that the 'meaning' of something is not straightforward, fixed, or can be conclusively known. Merriam-Webster gestures towards this by referring to information as 'purport' ("the thing one *intends to* convey especially by language") and 'import' ("the thing that *is conveyed* especially by language").[90] The revised definition aims to convey that meaning is subjective and constructed by both the originator and interpreter of a message.

Rationale: Meaning is created through both what the 'sender' intends to communicate and what the 'receiver' understands. 'Meaning' is therefore produced, or 'co-created' by the recipient and the source. The sender assigns meaning to what they want to communicate, just as the audience does.[91] To articulate this 'co-creation' effectively, the terms 'coding' and 'decoding' were chosen, which are commonly used in communication theory.[92]

Example, *When Harry Upset Sally*: *Sally replies to Harry: "Ugh Harry, you know I'm in a hurry, can't you grab the laundry from outside?"*

Harry meant to inform Sally of the change in weather; to remind her to bring an umbrella. He 'coded' this meaning in the message "it just started raining."

Sally hears Harry say that it is raining but 'decodes' the message in a different way. She interprets the message as a request to carry the laundry in from the washing line in the garden. Thus, the 'meaning' of "it just started raining" is not clear or fixed, it is a combination of what Harry intended to express and what Sally interpreted it to mean.

The meaning is not fixed or an inherent quality of a piece of information or a message. Think of it as a series of layers. But note that these layers are purely illustrative and a metaphor to aid our understanding of the complex relationships between the terms information, meaning and message. These layers should not be seen as static and fixed, but fluid and a combination of subjective and inter-subjective understandings. Therefore the term 'aura of meaning' could be more suitable to describe it.
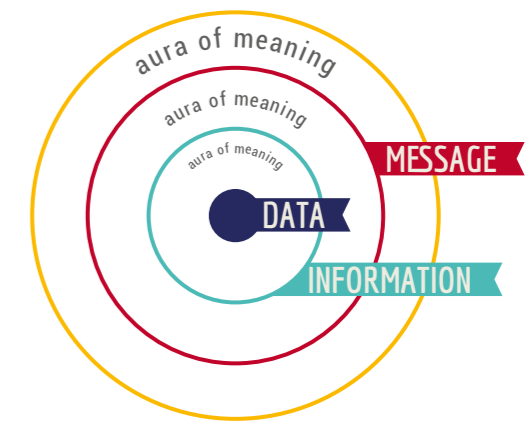
In the beginning we have a piece of data which becomes *information* once it has been processed. The *meaning* we derive from *information* is the combination of encoding and decoding by the receiver and sender. It is therefore not fixed and always a co-creation of the two perspectives. Now, this *information* can be packaged as a *message*. This means that more auras of meaning are added.
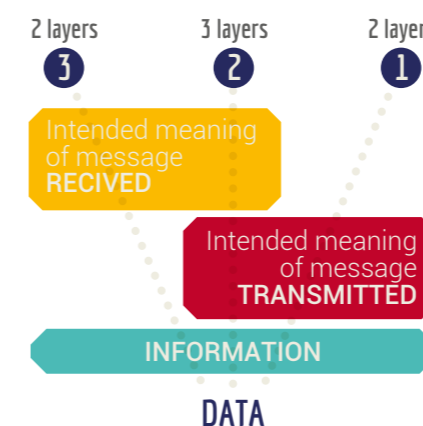
There are several options how *information* can become a message.

❶ **a unit of information is transmitted *as a message*,** adding an additional aura of meaning to the meaning already contained in the original unit of information. *> 2 layers*

❷ **a transmitted message is consumed *as a message*,** and decoded according to the receiver's understanding of what the message intends to communicate**.** Not only is there meaning communicated in the act of packaging the information as a message, but additional meaning or a slightly different meaning is added by the consumer or decoder of this message. So we have the original meaning of the unit of information, plus the intended meaning when it was transmitted as a message and the interpreted meaning when it was received as a message *> 3 layers*

❸ **a unit of information is consumer *as a message* even though there was never a transmitter who consciously intended it to be received *as a message*.** Meaning is attributed through a process of decoding without there ever having been encoded *as a message*. There are 2 auras of meaning: the meaning of the unit of information and the meaning derived by the receiver who has interpreted it as a message. *> 2 layers*

Background: The term 'information environment' can be traced back to German architectural journals in the 1960s, which discussed the intersection of architectural space and futurology. Non-military/ government agencies or journalists do not commonly use the term. They tend to use the term 'information space'.

The term was first used in NATO in 2002 and has since then become a 'buzzword' within the NATO community, where especially the military side of the house is familiar with the term. However, the term 'information environment' is only really used in military doctrine that speaks about the 'operating environment'. This is also reflected in the proposed NATO definition[93], which categorised the information environment as part of the 'operating environment'. Moreover, the suggested NATO definition is quite long and considers cognitive, virtual and physical spaces to be on the same level. It does not emphasise the cognitive processes involved in conceptualising the information environment.

Rationale: Based on discussions at the Working Group and the philosophical assumptions of this project everything can constitute the 'Information Environment' as long as there is a human brain observing the world and categorising his/her surroundings as such. This is not to say, however, that the information is a subjective construct of the _individual_. It is also strongly shaped by social and cultural forces within an iterative process and has communal effects. Hence the definition uses the word 'mind', and does not specify whether this is an individual or group.

Taken to its logical conclusion, 'information environment' becomes another term for 'reality' (see discussion of methodological assumptions - 'reality is a context' in Chapter V). For that reason the Working Group decided it was unnecessary to define 'information effect' or 'information activity', since they were simply effects and activities happening in the operating environment.

Note also that the proposed definition uses 'mind' rather than 'human mind' to accommodate the potential role of artificial intelligence (AI) and other non-human cognitive systems in interpreting an information environment. The choice of the word 'setting' was inspired by its frequent use in Oxford English Dictionary definitions for 'environment'.

While each person's perception of his environment is subjective, we nonetheless share some understandings of our environment with people in our community (familial, local, national, global). Yes each of our perceptions is slightly different but it is our shared perceptions, our intersubjective interpretations and attributions of meaning that enable communication and social life. It is this intersubjective understanding of the information environment that strategic communicators seek to shape.

Intersubjective agreement / overlap of IEs is what enables comms and social life › what we try to shape in StratCom
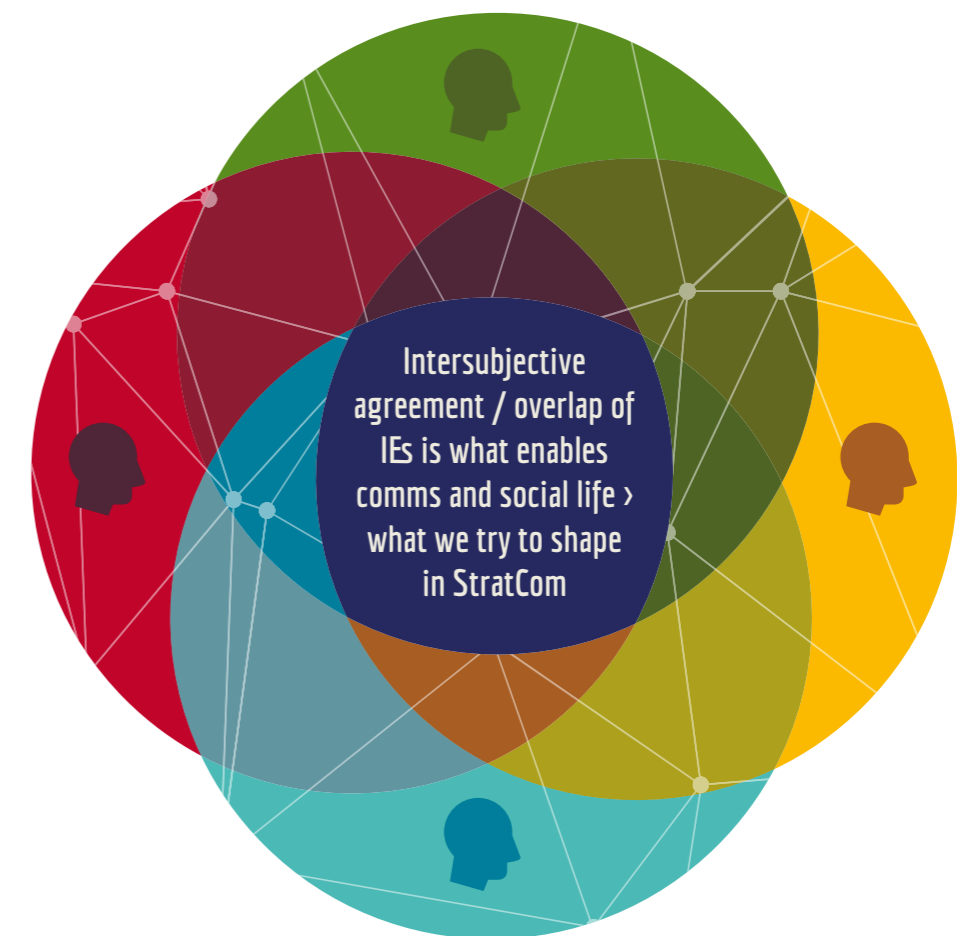
Example, _When Harry Upset Sally:_ _The physical and temporal setting (the rain, the room they are in, the view through the window, their physical appearance, the backpack, the keys, the washing line, possible communication channels) as well as non-tangible aspects, such as Harry's and Sally's intentions, their moods, cultural background, social conventions (e.g. women as house-keepers in the back of Sally's mind), the (past) relationship between Harry and Sally, as well as many other elements are all part of the information environment. They could potentially be interpreted by Harry or Sally's mind, and influence their behaviour._

The 'boundaries' of the operating environment are set by an actor in pursuit of an objective, following an analysis of his/her surroundings (the information environment). However, the factors observed by this actor might not include all the aspects that, in the end, influence how a message is received. The 'message environment' is therefore only partly covered by the operating environment. Some unpredicted, neglected elements of the message environment are only part of the information environment.
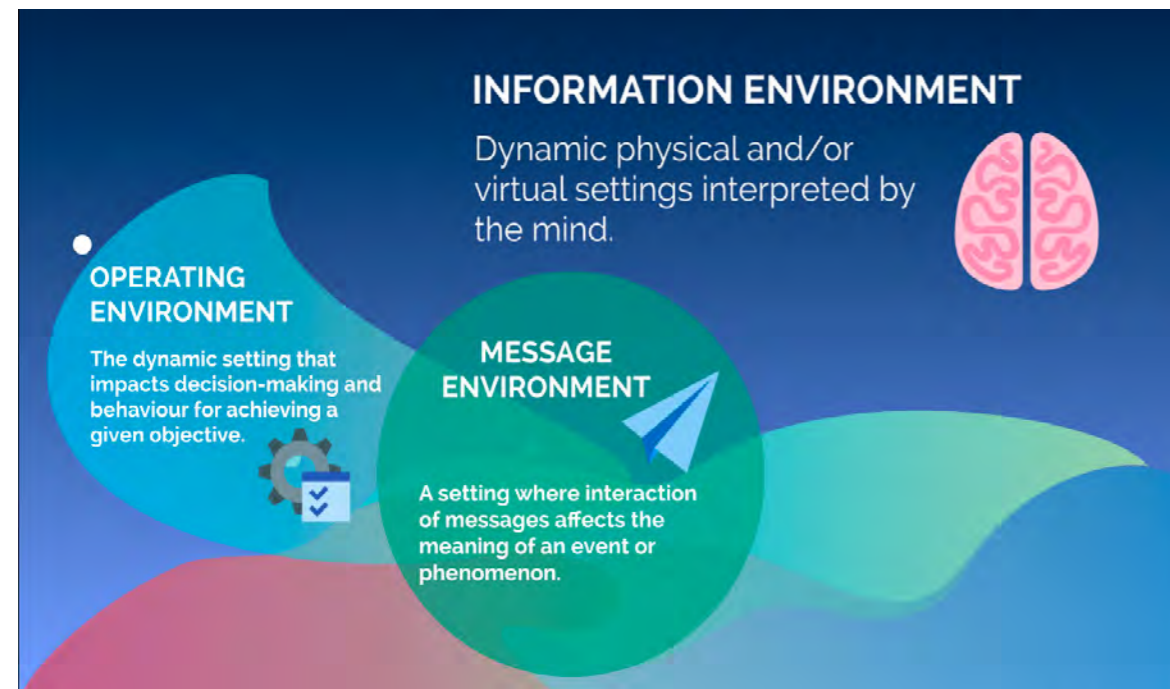

Figure 6 Explaining the Information Environment, Operating Environment and Message Environment. © 2018 Leonie Haiden

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💬 communication, *n*.: the exchange of meaning.

Background: There are, broadly speaking, two schools of thought in Communication Studies. Beginning with Shannon and Weaver's mathematical theory of communication, the 'process school' defines communication as the *transmission of messages*. Such a definition of 'communication' is preoccupation with accuracy and efficiency when it comes to en- and decoding messages and the 'hardware' required to do so.[94] It conceives of communication as a linear process from information source sending a signal via a transmitter to a receiver.[95] However, in the framework of Strategic Communications, we draw on a definition that considers communication to be about the *production and exchange of meaning*. It focuses on *how* a text is read, how texts *interact* with people, influenced by psychology, sociology and cultural studies.[96]

Rationale: Why is *communication* the *exchange of meaning*? The term *communication* describes social interaction between thinking subjects. The act of simply transmitting or imparting information does not qualify as communication according to this working group. "The transmission of information" does not require that this information is actually being processed or understood by a recipient. Communication is effective or successful when the meaning understood by the recipient(s) is as close to that intended by the sender as possible.

Example, *When Harry Upset Sally*: *Hearing Harry utter the words "it just started raining" makes Sally understand that it is precipitating outside. Harry hears Sally's reply "Ugh Harry, you know I'm in a hurry, can't you grab the laundry?". He understands that his message was misinterpreted. He also perceives annoyance in Sally's answer.*

Communication between Harry and Sally is taking place. But, as is frequently the case Sally only partly understands the meaning of what Harry intended to say. Nonetheless, they are still communicating.

When Harry Upset Sally

Example	Term	Note
Harry is lying on the sofa reading. When he glances out the window, he sees drops of water falling from the sky. He says to himself: "It's raining."	**information, *n.*:** in strategic communications, processed data. **N.B.** In NATO Info Ops, unprocessed data (information does not become 'intelligence' until it is processed).	Visual stimuli reach Harry's eye when he looks out of the window. They are processed by his visual cortex and lead him to the conclusion that it is raining.
Sally walks into the room. Harry sees her carrying her backpack and holding the house keys in her hand.	**operating environment, *n.*:** The dynamic setting that impacts decision- making and behaviour for achieving a given objective.	The rain outside and Sally walking carrying her keys and backpack are part of Harry's operating environment. This 'setting' will prompt Harry to tell Sally that it has just started raining and remind her to bring an umbrella.
Harry turns towards Sally and says: "It just started raining."	**message, *n.*:** a transmitted and/or consumed unit of information enriched with meaning. **N.B.** Sometimes the receiver attributes the qualities of a message to a unit of information that was not intended as a message.	Harry is indicating that the words he is uttering are addressed to Sally by starting his speech (verbal messaging) when she enters the room and turns toward Sally (non-verbal messaging).
Sally can see the washing line through the window behind Harry. Harry cannot see the washing line from his position. He therefore does not anticipate that the washing line will influence how Sally receives his message (i.e. be part of the message environment). It was not, in other words, part of his operating environment (the factors that influenced his message to Sally in the first place).	**message environment, *n.*:** A setting where interaction of messages affects the meaning of an event or phenomenon.	The washing line induces Sally to 'decode' his statement as a reference to the laundry drying outside, and not, as Harry anticipated, a reminder to take an umbrella with her.

Example	Term	Note
Sally replies to Harry: "Ugh Harry, you know I'm in a hurry, can't you grab the laundry from outside?"	**meaning, *n.*:** the product of coding and decoding of a message or information.	Harry meant to inform Sally of the change in weather; to remind her to bring an umbrella. He 'coded' this meaning in the message "it just started raining." Sally hears Harry say that it is raining but 'decodes' the message in a different way. She interprets the message as a request to carry the laundry in from the washing line in the garden. Thus, the 'meaning' of "it just started raining" is not clear or fixed, it is a combination of what Harry intended to express and what Sally interpreted it to mean.
The physical and temporal setting (the rain, the room they are in, the view through the window, their physical appearance, the backpack, the keys, the washing line, possible communication channels) as well as non-tangible aspects, such as Harry's and Sally's intentions, their moods, cultural background, social conventions (e.g. women as house-keepers in the back of Sally's mind), the (past) relationship between Harry and Sally, as well as many other elements are all part of the information environment. They could potentially be interpreted by Harry or Sally's mind, and influence their behaviour.	**Information environment, *n.*:** Dynamic physical and/or virtual settings interpreted by the mind.	The 'boundaries' of the operating environment are set by an actor in pursuit of an objective, following an analysis of his/her surroundings (the information environment). However, the factors observed by this actor might not include all the aspects that, in the end, influence how a message is received. The 'message environment' is therefore only partly covered by the operating environment. Some unpredicted, neglected elements of the message environment are only part of the information environment.
Hearing Harry utter the words "it just started raining" makes Sally understand that it is precipitating outside. Harry hears Sally's reply "Ugh Harry, you know I'm in a hurry, can't you grab the laundry?". He understands that his message was misinterpreted. He also perceives annoyance in Sally's answer.	**communication, *n.*:** the exchange of meaning.	Communication between Harry and Sally is taking place. But, as is frequently the case Sally only partly understands the meaning of what Harry intended to say. Nonetheless, they are still communicating.

7.2 CLUSTER 2 – APPLYING STRATEGIC COMMUNICATIONS

strategic communications, *n*.: a holistic approach to communication based on values and interests that encompasses everything an actor does to achieve objectives in a contested environment.

Background: The political level 2009 definition of NATO Strategic Communications is considered dated by the majority of the StratCom community since it does not capture the mind-set of Strategic Communications. Although the latest NATO definition of "strategic communications" in MC 0628 NATO MILITARY POLICY ON STRATEGIC COMMUNICATIONS (2017) sought to find a definition that would not limit strategic communications to governments or military but allow it to be applicable in the non-governmental sector and commercial world as well.

Rationale: Subject matter experts from NATO, academia, and the commercial sector agreed that 'holistic approach' would be an effective way of communicating the synchronised nature and 'mindset' element of strategic communications.

The definition of "strategic communications" is more than the sum of the single definitions for "strategic" (see working definition devised by the committee in footnote) [97] and "communications" (see 1) above). This is because the definition has to convey the following core features of "strategic communications": i) the understanding that everything we do communicates (words, deeds, and images); ii) the intention to affect and change attitudes, perceptions and behaviours; iii) the pursuit of high-level strategic goals in adherence to certain values. Additionally, the definition has to reflect that, in the modern-day environment, strategic communications activities take place in an ever-changing, competitive environment. Moreover, it has to be clear from the definition that strategic communications is not simply a synonym for public affairs.

Example: *The Marshall Plan* (liberal economic ideas combined with economic aid and cultural/political appeal of American "way of life", which stood in stark contrast to planned economy Soviet Communism and political oppression).

influence, *n*.: the ability to achieve effects on opinions and behaviour through words, images and actions. [98]

Background: According to the OED's definition, "influence" is about producing effects covertly, invisibly and without the use of material force or formal authority. However, given that influence is a key goal of strategic communications activities and these are carried out by military (alliances) and governments exercising both formal authority and material force, this definition was considered to be wanting.

Rationale: The new definition acknowledges that influence can be achieved through words as well as through kinetic activity and that these do not have to be covert.

Moreover, the definition is open about the fact that those who strive for influence, are intentionally and purposefully doing so. In fact, influence is the desired outcome of strategic communications. This aspect had already been foregrounded in the Canadian definition of "Influence Activities." [99]

Example: *A government campaign that encourages people to quit smoking by putting a tax on tobacco (action), prohibiting smoking in public spaces (action) and warnings on cigarette packages (words and images), leading to a reduction in cigarette sales (behaviour) and increased awareness about negative side-effects of smoking (opinion).*

Background: This definition and term arose out of a discussion of the term 'target audience'. The working group took issue with the word 'target'. Although 'target audience' is a commonly used term in the civilian world, in the PSYOPS operational context the term has a very specific meaning. Also, it characterised the audience as too passive, as receivers rather than co-producers in the act of communication.

Rationale: 'Intended audience' was chosen as the preferred term, allowing for more agency on behalf of that group. Moreover, 'intended' expresses the fact that when individuals or groups are identified as the preferred audience for a message or communication, this is never fully realised. Some will not receive the message, and at the same time the message will reach unintended audiences since the spread of messages can never be fully controlled.

Background: The current NATO-agreed definition of manoeuvre describes it as "Employment of forces on the battlefield through movement in combination with fire, or fire potential, to achieve a position of advantage in respect to the enemy in order to accomplish the mission."[100]

It was considered out-dated by the working group. It speaks about "movement of forces in combination with fire or fire potential". This is unnecessarily limiting and not appropriate in the context of modern-day warfare. The definition is written from a military/defence perspective, expressed in references to an "enemy" and "mission". It is therefore not very applicable to other domains. Actors might engage in manoeuvres towards their competitors (not enemies) and this is not necessarily stated in a clearly defined "mission", but perhaps part of a political campaign.

Rationale: "Fire and fire potential" were thus replaced with the more generic "employment of resources". The location of manoeuvres was widened to the operating environment (rather than just the battlefield). "Enemy" was replaced with the softer and less-militaristic "adversary". "Mission" was omitted from the definition since, to achieve a position of "advantage" in a confrontation, implies that one has already envisioned a defined end-goal. The proposed definition still makes sense in the context of direct combat but it also allows for wider application. For example, the "position of advantage" achieved over an adversary might simply be rhetorical.

Example: *The 'WeAreNATO' campaign designed to increase awareness in its member states, especially among younger citizens, about the activities and importance of the North Atlantic alliance. It uses social media channels (YouTube and Twitter) as well as tailored-messages addressing national and cultural differences. However, the authors of the campaign cannot ensure that, firstly, all of the young citizens will be reached by the campaign (they can only intend) and, secondly, the authors cannot control that nobody else but the young citizens will come across the campaign and be affected by it, potentially even interpreting the campaign in a different way than originally intended.*

Example: *The US space programme to put a man on the moon in the 1960s to create a favourable image of U.S. leadership and power on the international stage, and improve national morale which was suffering due to setbacks in the Vietnam War.*[101]

> 💬 **hybrid threat, _n._**: A threat of mixed origin that avoids declaration of war and accountability.

Background: The term was approved in the NATO Term Database on 12 April 2018 and defined as 'a type of threat that combines conventional, irregular and asymmetric activities in time and space' (AAP-06).

This definition categorises hybrid threats purely as an 'unconventional' type of conflict. However, the working group questioned the binary between conventional and unconventional threats suggested by the definition. Moreover, the current definition is ambiguous and lacks specificity. For example, what are the criteria that make a threat 'unconventional'?

Rationale: Instead the proposed definition singles out two important elements of 'hybrid' threats:

Firstly, extensive discussion revealed that in most cases the adjective 'hybrid' is used in front of 'threat' or 'war' to describe a conflict that is short of officially declared war (similar to the term 'cold war'). Actors engaged in hybrid threats do not declare war and avoid accountability. Secondly, 'hybrid' is frequently used in the domains of biology and engineering (hybrid plants, hybrid cars). In this context, dictionaries frequently refer to hybridity in terms of a 'composite of mixed origin'. The notion of 'mixed origins' also applies to hybrid threats, which may use a combination of cultural, economic, political, military, legal means to further an objective. Some scholars of strategic theory reject this concept since such aspects of threat, they suggest, are to be found in all warfare historically.

Example: _Cyberattacks targeting websites of Estonian political, media and business organisations in 2007, likely to have been sanctioned by the Russian government._

7.3 CLUSTER 3 – STORYTELLING

> 💬 **conversation, _n._**: An oral and/or visual exchange between two or more humans.

Background: The _Oxford English Dictionary_ defines _conversation_ as the "interchange of thoughts and words; familiar discourse or talk."[102] Similarly, _Merriam-Webster_ defines it as "oral exchange of sentiments, observations, opinions, or ideas", "an informal discussion of an issue by representatives of governments, institutions, or groups" and as "an exchange similar to conversation".[103]

Rationale: The proposed definition remains close to pre-existing definitions but has been simplified and adapted to reflect modern modes of communication, e.g. e-mail conversations, and conversations that combine verbal and visual media (text and emojis/memes) as well as traditional face-to-face conversations, hence _oral and/or visual exchange_.

Examples:

U.S. Senators had a conversation with their constituents about the government shutdown on Twitter.

Lucy had a conversation with her friend on WhatsApp yesterday.

The principle called in Johnny's parents to have a conversation about his behaviour in school.

discourse, n.: Accepted positions that constrain debates and shape worldviews; they are created and maintained through communication.

Background: The ubiquitous use of the term *discourse* has intensified confusion surrounding the concept.[104] Generally we can distinguish between two common uses of *discourse*. On the one hand it can refer to the action/process of communication, the "interchange of words; conversation, talk". On the other hand, the *Oxford English Dictionary* defines it as a "The body of statements, analysis, opinions, etc., relating to a particular domain of intellectual or social activity, esp. as characterized by recurring themes, concepts, or values; (also) the set of shared beliefs, values, etc., implied or expressed by this."[105] Such a view of "discourse" finds its roots in post-structuralist thought and especially the work of Michel Foucault which foregrounds the close relationship between language use and hegemonic power.[106]

Rationale: In pursuit of terminological clarity and simplicity, the working group decided that the first meaning (the action/process of communication) should be covered by the word *conversation* (see above), the second meaning by *discourse*. The definition therefore does not mention specific media of communication. Instead it focuses on how hierarchies of power and dominant ways of categorising the physical and social world influence how we attribute meaning, make language choices, and present arguments.

Example: *The discourse of capitalism.*

Linguist Christian Chun explains:

"There is much at stake in how we engage with these discourses of capitalism because how we view our economy and its role and functions in society in which we live, work, love, and die, and behave accordingly have been shaped in large part by its hegemonic representations through its mediated manifestations in policies and practices, academic literature, media discussions, and popular portrayals."[107]

story, n.: A temporally, spatially, and causally connected sequence of events.

Background: One of the main problems with the terms *narrative* and *story* is that the two words are often used interchangeably, both in political discourse and everyday life.[108] To make the distinction between *narrative* and *story* meaningful, this working group proposes that the idea of a causally, temporally, and spatially linked-up sequence of events and ideas should be attributed to *story*. *Narrative*, on the other hand, should speak to the moral dimension of telling stories.

Rationale: The focus on the structural features of a story in this definition goes right back to Aristotle's description of Greek tragedy: it is temporally, spatially and conceptually bounded and has a clear beginning, middle, and end. Events have been organised into a sequence, i.e. a plot, enacted by certain characters.[109] A story can be communicated visually and orally, an account of real events or complete fiction.

Example: *Romeo and Juliet* by William Shakespeare (Note that the *narrative* of the *story* of Romeo and Juliet might be "love overcomes all obstacles", more details on this on the following page.)

Background: *Narrative* has frequently been defined in ways that make it almost indistinguishable from *story*. Because its prolific and indiscriminate use has somewhat devalued *narrative* as a term, this working group sought to distance it as much as possible from definitions of *story*. Most definitions of *narrative* mention contingency, i.e. the linking of events and ideas into a sequence.[110] However, as mentioned above, the working group decided that contingency should be made an essential feature of *story* rather than *narrative*. *Narratives* should speak to the moral dimension of storytelling. The group agreed that narrative is communicated through stories, meaning that narrative is formed and maintained in human memory and stories are the way of conveying narrative to others, whereas scripts are ways of acting within the framework of a narrative. The confusion in the usage of 'narrative' and 'story' appears because narrative is expressed in the form of stories.

Rationale: The difficulties encountered when trying to describe the essential structural features of narratives that went beyond the Aristotelian description of Greek theatre, led to a definitional approach that focused on the key themes of a *narrative*. These were considered to be i) fostering understanding, ii) reducing complexity and, iii) offering a vision towards some sort of (achievable or non-achievable) end-state. All three of these aspects carry within them more or less explicit moral judgments: Who is the target audience for the narrative? What differences are brushed over, which ones are emphasised? For whom exactly is the offered end-state or vision desirable? A story, on the other hand, does not necessarily have to be offering a path toward a desired conclusion/vision that carries such judgments because it can be a simple account of events (e.g. a story about how I missed the bus in the morning). In "The Narrative Construction of Reality"[111] Bruner says that humans organise experience and memory of human happenings mainly in the form of narrative. He also emphasises that it is extremely difficult to distinguish what may be called the narrative mode of thought from the forms of narrative discourse since the structure of language and the structure of thought eventually become inextricable and it becomes pointless to say which is the more basic - the mental process or the discourse form that expresses it.

Example: *Marxism* (workers of the world unite!).

Unlike stories or scripts the narrative *of Marxism does not primarily tell a story (it does not emphasise a connected sequence of events) but instead suggest a desired end state. The narrative of Marxism calls for the unification of all workers of the world, but it does not spell out how exactly this should be achieved. The narrative has a moral dimension in that it singles out "workers" as the desired in-group. Moreover, the call for unity implies that there is some antagonist or obstacle that workers must take a stance against (i.e. capitalist rule of the bourgeoise).*

However, unlike the proposed definition by the NATO Info Ops community describing 'narrative' as a 'written statement,' narratives might be articulated through speech or visuals. See for example Martin Luther King's "I Have A Dream" speech given on 28 August 1963 at the Lincoln Memorial in Washington D.C.: https://bit.ly/1LFkVm0.

Rationale: 'Narrative' is often used in conjunction with prefixes, as in the examples above. The working group agreed that the addition of a prefix or a qualifying adjective does not necessarily add specificity to the term. In fact, instead of clarifying different types of narratives, these terms frequently increase confusion. For instance, as it is currently used a master-narrative does not always imply a bigger or more important narrative, and a meta-narrative does not strictly refer to a self-referential narrative. The working group strongly discourages the use of these terms.

The Project group adopted Fernand Braudel's conception of the plural temporality and _longue dur_ée to the Terminology Project which allows to see the singularity of our world. Braudel clarified his idea of time as a social construct, rather than a simple chronological parameter. He reiterated his conception of time as _durée_, duration, and his differentiation of a relational plurality of social times -the short term of events or episodic history (for instance, political history), the medium term of conjunctures (such as, among others, economic cycles), and the long term, the _longue dur_ée, of structures (the organizational regularities of social life). Similarly, the group agreed, some of the terms can project connotation that transforms from _longue dur_ée to mid- and short-term. For example, the term "narrative" can apply to all three levels.

Long-term	narrative	discourse	legend, myth	tradition, custom
Mid-term	narrative	discourse	story	script, tradition, custom
Short term	narrative	discourse, conversation	story, event	script

script, _n._: Pattern of expectations shaped by experience and idealisation.

Background: The concept of _scripts_ finds its origin in the work of Robert Abelson and Roger Schank at RAND working on AI in the 1950s-1970s, who used it to refer to "frequently recurring social situations involving strongly stereotypical conduct."[112]
Through the contributions of strategic studies scholar Professor Lawrence Freedman, the concepts of scripts in the context of political science gained popularity. In his seminal work _Strategy: A History_ (2015), he defines a script as "stereotypical situations which set expectations for appropriate behaviour."[113]
According to Jeffrey Michaels the absence of a scripts can lead to the _narrative_ of an event becoming a new script which is then used to meet future challenges.[114]
While Michaels mentions narratives neither he, nor Freedman, clearly spell out what the relationship between a narrative and a script is. At times they even seem to be using script, narrative and story interchangeably.

Rationale: The proposed definition for _script_ is not too different from Lawrence Freedman's, but has a different emphasis. Freedman suggests that scripts are activated by "stereotypical situation", implying that we all know what these are. In contrast, the proposed definition suggests that the sources of these "expectations" are experience (both what has been personally experienced first-hand as well as what has been learned and experienced indirectly, i.e. what one has read, heard, seen been told etc.) as well as a socially-conditioned understanding of what the "ideal" script would be. Our definition thus allows for more variation and flexibility when it comes to who follows what scripts in which situations.
The relationship between narratives and scripts is similar to that between narratives and stories. While a script is more specifically about expected behaviour in a given situation, the narrative element of a script carries moral and value judgements about the actors involved. It guides overall direction, rather than every single action.

Example: _Visiting a restaurant is a highly scripted activity. In very simple terms, in a restaurant you expect to be served food in return for money. The way one interacts with the waiter, how he/she takes the order or how one beckons him/her to the table, all follows certain conventions that together form a "script" of expected behaviour in a restaurant. This does not mean that behaviour is completely pre-determined. Every restaurant visit will be unique (depending on the type of establishment, the personality of the waiter/waitress etc.) but it will still be recognisable as a restaurant visit because we have a shared understanding of the ideal or stereotypical restaurant visit in our society. This "idealisation" of the restaurant visit then also allows us to then judge our individually experienced restaurant visits as having been good or bad._

Background: *Strategic scripts* were introduced into the field of war studies by Professor Lawrence Freedman.

Rationale: This working group discourages the use of the term *strategic script*, arguing that there are no such things as strategic or un-strategic scripts. Rather, scripts can be *used strategically.* In doing it is not disagreeing with Freedman, but rather clarifying the terminology surrounding scripts. Strategy appears when we decide to intervene into the expected course of events and behaviours. For any script to be used strategically, we must first recognise that scripts sit in our subconscious. They are made up of predictable patterns. These scripts can be many and may converge in a given situation. Instead of simply enacting our own script, we identify one that best approximates our objective.

Considering this in terms of human cognition, when we use scripts strategically, our mind moves from what psychologist and behavioural economist Daniel Kahneman describes as System 1 and System 2 analysis. For Kahneman System 1 is the mind's "fast, automatic and intuitive approach", System 2 "the mind's slower, analytical mode, where reason dominates."[115] Moreover, when strategically shaping what script is invoked in a given situation, ideally the other actors will not even realise that they are being led to follow a different script, and remain mainly in a System 1 mode of cognition.

Example: *There is a pervasive script in the UK that Brussels will cave at the 11th hour on the 28th March 2019 and concede to May's demands for the UK exit deal. This script is based on patterns of experienced EU negotiations and outcomes. It links to a narrative that goes something like "if you stay strong you will get what you want." This forms the basis of how many in the UK predict the outcome of exit deal negotiations. How, could the EU prevent this particular script from being the dominant one invoked in run-up to the 29th March deadline, i.e. use scripts strategically? Instead of simply denying that they will falter on the 28th, the EU could invoke a different script based on a different narrative, e.g. "pride comes before the fall."*

7.4 CLUSTER 4 – PROFESSIONAL CATEGORIES OF INFORMATION/ INFLUENCE ACTIVITIES

The terms below are a sample. The list of terms to be reviewed will be determined at future Working Group Meetings.

political marketing, *n.*:

propaganda, *n.*:

public diplomacy, *n.*:

soft power, n.:

sharp power, *n.*:

8 How can we test the project?
(*Impact and verifiability*)

The main deliverable of this project is a terminology collection of NATO StratCom terms and definitions arrived at through a standardised and structured methodology.[116] Entries for terms in this collection should record and potentially resolve conflicting definitions with the goal of improving the transfer of knowledge of Strategic Communications in NATO and avoiding misunderstandings. To achieve this, the final glossary of terms as well as this report will be circulated within NATO as well as in commercial, academic, political communities outside the military alliance.

The positive benefit of this project will be to increase awareness among the NATO community of the importance of a common Strategic Communications language.

When completely new terms (neologisms) for certain concepts are introduced in a specialised language community, it is easy to observe the frequency of usage at regular intervals by analysing written and spoken discourse within that community, ascertaining statistically whether or not its usage has increased relative to other terms used to designate that concept.[117] However, in this project, it is more the case that the same terms are used with a slightly different intended meaning. This makes it more difficult to determine whether the project has been successful. Still, if improved definitions are successfully included in AJP documents currently under review,[118] after a certain time, it might be possible to assess whether these definitions have been used in other official NATO documents subsequently. Ideally, these definitions would eventually be included in the NATO Terms database, operated by the NATO Standardisation Board.

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NATO
Reference Publications

AAP 6	NATO Glossary of Terms and Definitions (English and French)
MC 0628	NATO Military Policy on Strategic Communications
PO(2009)0141	NATO Strategic Communications Policy
MC 0402/2	NATO Military Policy on Psychological Operations
MC 0411/2	NATO Military Policy on Civil-Military Cooperation (CIMIC) and Civil-Military Interaction(CMI)
MC 0422/5	NATO Military Policy for Information Operations
MC 0457/2	NATO Military Policy on Public Affairs
AJP-01(D)	Allied Joint Doctrine
AJP-3(C)	Allied Joint Doctrine for the Conduct of Operations
AJP-5	Allied Joint Doctrine for Operational-Level Planning
AJP-3.10	Allied Joint Doctrine for Information Operations
AJP-3.10.1	Allied Joint Doctrine for Psychological Operations
AJP-3.2	Allied Joint Doctrine for Land Operations
AJP-3.4(A)	Allied Joint Doctrine for Non-Article 5 Crisis Response Operations

10 ANNEX

Table 2 NATO communications activities and capabilities

Name	Definition (taken from the 2009 StratCom Policy, PO(2009)0141)
Strategic Communications (StratCom)	The coordinated and appropriate use of NATO communications activities and capabilities – Public Diplomacy, Public Affairs (PA), Military Public Affairs, Information Operations (Info Ops) and Psychological Operations (PSYOPS) – in support of Alliance policies, operations and activities, and in order to advance NATO's aims.
Public Diplomacy	NATO civilian communications and outreach efforts and tools responsible for promoting awareness of and building understanding and support for NATO's policies, operations and activities, in the short, medium, and long term, in complement to the national efforts of Allies.
Public Affairs (civilian)	NATO civilian engagement through the media to inform the public of NATO policies, operations and activities in a timely, accurate, responsive, and proactive manner.
Military Public Affairs	Function responsible for promoting NATO's military aims and objectives to audiences in order to enhance awareness and understanding of military aspects of the Alliance. This includes planning and conducting media relations, internal communications, and community relations. Military Public Affairs at each level of command directly supports the commander and may therefore not be further delegated or subordinated to other staff functions.
Information Operations (Info Ops)	A military function to provide advice and co-ordination of military information activities in order to create desired effects on the will, understanding, and capabilities of adversaries, potential adversaries and other parties approved by the NAC in support of Alliance operations, missions and objectives.
Psychological Operations (PSYOPS)	Planned psychological activities using methods of communications and other means directed to approved audiences in order to influence perceptions, attitudes and behaviour, affecting the achievement of political and military objectives.

11 Background Research on Terminology (long version)

11.1 What is lexicography?

The discipline of lexicography sits within the field of applied linguistics and is preoccupied with observing, recording and *describing* words in a given language,[119] highlighting their most characteristic features and their meaning(s).[120] Thus, the work of lexicographers is considered to be **descriptive rather than prescriptive;** recording established language use rather than setting standards for "correct" use. However, given the authority of big monolingual dictionaries such as the *Oxford English Dictionary,* even though this is not the primary focus of lexicography, there is indeed an element of standardisation and language planning involved in the process of compiling a dictionary.[121]

Even so, a descriptive versus prescriptive distinction is generally useful for differentiating between lexicographic and terminological work. Moreover, lexicography and terminology also differ in the linguistic "object" they study. While specialist dictionaries look at a given language (or languages) as a whole, terminologies or technical dictionaries focus on a specific subfield that is defined by a community of expertise (rather than shared linguistic

features).[122] So a terminological dictionary usually deals with the language of a particular trade, profession, or academic field. **In our case, the language area under consideration is defined by: a) the institution of NATO in terms of the primary users of the outputs from this project, and b) the field of Strategic Communications in terms of the area of expert knowledge.** Both the boundaries constituting the "NATO linguistic community" and the extent of Strategic Communications as a field require further interrogation and definition (see the discussion in Chapter IV).

11.2 Terminology versus Lexicography in Practice

In its more traditional form,[123] Terminology distinguishes itself from Lexicography in the following respects:

- **Lexicography starts with the word** and tries to **record** the most **important definitions** for that word used in a given language. This is also referred to as a semasiological approach (determining the meanings of lexical units). **Terminology**, on the other hand **starts with the concepts that are**

in need of definition and tries to **identify/designate suitable terms** (an onomasiological approach). Terminology is thus much more prescriptive than lexicography.

- In line with this difference in approach, in its purest form, the product of terminological work

looks different compared to an alphabetically arranged dictionary. Instead it is a list of concepts (i.e. definitions) followed by the appropriate term(s) to describe them. However, in practice a terminological list (also called "conceptual glossaries") will still be arranged in alphabetical order,

Figure 3 Section indication next to the term shows what subtopic the term belongs to.[124]

with the preferred term placed in front of the concept definition in the interest of user-convenience. For example, the online *Glossary of Molecular Biology Terminology*[125] by Kenneth Kaushansky, MD, breaks down the field of molecular biology into several subtopics, within which terms are presented in alphabetical order. In addition, an alphabetical list of all terms is provided, indicating the sub-chapters where their descriptions can be found. See the example taken from the webpage below.

- While the objective of the lexicographer is to help readers **interpret** texts, a terminological project aims to help **produce** texts.

- Lexicography is more about reflecting or describing established language use. Terminology is guided by principles of clarity and efficiency in specialised communication, so prescribing and potentially wishing to change how language is used. [126]

Lexicographers sometimes compile specialised dictionaries. However, this project deals with the language used by a specialised language community, which is part of an institution (i.e. NATO). So a terminological approach is more suitable. Moreover, lexicographers must carefully weigh scientific objectivity against offering

authoritative entries.[127] Yet this balancing act is not of central concern to this terminology project in NATO Strategic Communications. With Strategic Communications being a relatively new field of research and practice (at least under that name), there have been no comprehensive efforts to standardise the language used by strategic communicators. This leads us to another reason why this is a *terminology* rather than a *lexicography* project: it has grown out of very specific needs in the NATO community to improve communication between different branches and national governments, rather than to describe and record the current use of terms.[128]

11.3 What is terminology?

11.3.1 Early developments in Terminology

Terminology is a relatively young field of research. It only became an object of independent study in the 1930s[129] when it was first conceptualised as a discipline with the work of Austrian industrialist (and later, terminologist) Eugen Wüster (1898-1977) and his followers. His theory of Terminology was based on his experiences as an engineering expert and from compiling *The Machine Tool. An Interlingual Dictionary of Basic Concepts* (1968), a project sponsored by the OECD.[130] Given his background in engineering and entrepreneurship, it is hardly surprising that he developed a theory of Terminology where language was considered to be strictly utilitarian. Like the parts of a machine, specialised language

should live up to standards of precision, efficiency, and economy.[131]

Wüster's theory of Terminology gained currency and legitimacy both in academia and the practical application and study of terminology in international institutions.[132] The fact that his ideas came to dominate the field of Terminology would be heavily criticised from the 1990s onwards. There was a widespread impression among critics that his followers (the so-called Viennese group) lacked self-criticism and were overly focused on "protecting" the independence of this young discipline from other fields.[133] But before exploring these critiques further, a closer look at Wüster's theory of Terminology is required.

11.3.2 A General Terminology Theory (GTT)

Wüster considered language to be an instrument for communication to be optimised. He compares language to a tool (*Werkzeug*) and a vehicle (*Fahrzeug*) carrying a "load" of ideas/thought (*Gedankenlast*). [134] Central to his theory is that terminological work should start with the concept (*Begriff*). Consequently, the compilation of terms should not be ordered alphabetically but in an order that highlights the structural relations between concepts.[135] The work of the terminologist, in his eyes, was to prescribe the use of terms designating concepts that are clearly distinct from one another.[136] This 'one word-one meaning' idea is one of the main points of critique that have

been raised against the General Theory on Terminology. Critics have frequently pointed out that such an approach disregards context and the coexistence of multiple meanings for one term (polysemy), the fact that some words might be spelled alike or sound alike but have different meanings (homonymy), and the fact that sometimes more than one word may describe a concept (synonymy.) [137]

11.3.3 Beyond the General Terminology Theory

In the late 1990s and early 2000s there was a resurgence of interest in Terminology. This was reflected most clearly in the number of conferences held on the subject.[138] These were devoted to formulating a theory of Terminology that was clearly distinct from lexicography and linguistics. Prior to this resurgence of interest in the theoretical grounding of the study of terminology, theories of Terminology had been based on the General Theory of Terminology (GTT). In the academic Journal *Terminology* L'Homme et al. offer an overview of developments in terminology theory during the decade 1994–2004. They highlight the main areas where the General Theory of Terminology (GTT) did not stand up to empirical data detailing how terms were used in everyday life:

- A "subject field" of specialised knowledge under consideration in a terminology project is not a given but is arbitrarily defined in the course of a terminological project.

- Terms can have many meanings (polysemic) and be ambiguous.

  - Concepts and terms depend on language, context, and the function they fulfil in a text.

  - GTT models are better suited to defining terms that describe entities like objects, living beings, or locations, but not more abstract concepts that designate activities, properties or relations.

  - Only rarely do terminology projects start with the concept and then find the word (onomasiological approach). Frequently terminology research is based on corpora research, starting with the word then defining the concept (semasiological approach).[139]

In reaction to the GTT, sociocognitive approaches to Terminology developed around the turn of the 21st century[140] stressed that the meaning of words is not fixed but shaped by the context in which they are used.[141]

Socioterminology

This approach was first developed in France and Quebec in the 1980s, influenced by sociolinguistic theories arising in the 1960s. The term "socioterminology" was first used by Jean-Claude Boulanger in the early 1980s. [142] Socioterminology stresses that

terms are not fixed but highly dependent on their context of use. Concepts are not considered to exist independently of language "out there" in the world.[143] The use of certain terms and the way they represent concepts is strongly dependent on the professional, social, and cultural background of language users as well as the power relations between different users.[144]

Communicative Theory of Terminology (CTT)

Linguist and terminologist Teresa Cabré has developed a theory of Terminology in the context of the establishment of the Generalitat de Catalunya, which adopted Catalan as an official regional language. In the 1980s the Termcat Terminological Centre was created and Cabré was appointed as its head.[145] She thus developed a theory of Terminology in the context of translation and in an environment where language use and standardisation is strongly tied to questions of identity politics and legitimacy.

In her view, a terminologist must consider terms as being embedded in a social and communicative setting as well as being constitutive of worldviews. She roots this in two assumptions. Firstly, she defines terminology as being simultaneously "a set of needs, a set of practices to resolve those needs, and a unified field of knowledge".[146] Secondly, she identifies the *terminological unit* as the element of central concern in the study of terminology.[147] Terminological

units are at the same time **units of language, units of knowledge, and units of communication**[148] just like other lexical units and words. Central to a theory of Terminology for Cabré is the recognition that these three elements co-exist in any terminological unit. Which is why she suggests a model to represent the plurality of the "object" under consideration.[149] The analysis of oral and written discourses and the way terminological units are used in practice is central to the methodology of CTT, which takes an approach to terminology influenced by linguistics.

Cognitive-based theories of terminology

Cognitive-based theories integrate ideas from cognitive linguistics and psychology into terminology research. They have arisen, often in the context of translations, as part of a trend in terminology to consider how language shapes and is shaped by worldviews (often described as conceptual networks or frameworks).[150]

Rita Temmerman, an expert in translation, multilingual intercultural communication, and terminology, has developed a socio-cognitive theory of terminology. She argues that language strongly informs the conception of categories. In her view, the "fuzziness" of terms should not be considered a shortcoming of language. Rather, it is an object of study through the use of corpora-based research methods.[151] This means that texts from the specialised discourse are collected in order to

understand how different words are used and in what context. While Wüster and his followers believed categories, concepts, and terms should be studied only in their contemporary context of usage (i.e. synchronically),[152] Temmerman says the historical uses and the development of meanings and terms across time should not be disregarded (i.e. term should be studied diachronically).[153] Such an approach comes closer to lexicography than Wüster's GTT. For her terminology involves studying a term's history, its evolution of meaning, and its use by different speech communities, in specialised as well as general discourse. [154]

Endnotes

1 P. J. J. Tiggelman, 'StratCom Terminology Improvement,' *Project Submission Form: NATO StratCom COE Project of Work* (October 2017).

2 Opitz, 'The terminological/standardised dictionary', 166-7.

3 Robert Williams, 'Avoidable friction: language and coalition partners', *Canadian Foreign Policy Journal,* 22, no. 2 (2016), 124.

4 Roger Fowler and Gunter Kress, "Critical Linguistics," in *Language and Control,* eds. Fowler et al. (London; Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1979), 185.

5 Based mainly on PO(2009)0141 NATO Strategic Communications Policy (29 September 2009).

6 In politics, identity content represents the "stuff" of identity: the elements supporters of an identity proposal share that form an in-group among them and differentiate them from other out-groups. This shared content – such as beliefs about membership in and desired goals of the in-group, as well as how the in-group should relate to others – is difficult to determine empirically and even more difficult to capture analytically. Specific identity proposal (e.g., what it means to be Western or liberal) sets certain norms of behaviour and changes how an in-group views its relations with a particular out-group (e.g., a shift from viewing "Europe" as an enemy to viewing it as a partner). (Hintz L., "Identity Politics Inside Out", Oxford University Press, 2018)

7 In ten Hacken's words: "terminologists attempt to counteract the vagueness of the boundaries of the concept they name, but the interaction between terms and corresponding general language words complicates this process." Pius ten Hacken and Claire Thomas, 'Word Formation, Meaning and Lexicalization', in *The Semantics of Word Formation and Lexicalization* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2013), 11.

8 Opitz, 'The terminological/standardised dictionary', 166.

9 Tiggelman, "StratCom Terminology Improvement,", 1.

10 Wilfred Dolfsma et al., "Identifying Institutional Vulnerability: The Importance of Language, and System Boundaries," (808-9).

11 In fact, as shall be seen in the theoretical discussion of terminology below, terminological approaches have often been developed in such multilingual communities where questions of language can also become questions of politics.

12 Zeba Khan, "Call it Daesh, not ISIL (or ISIS)," *CNN,* 7 October 2016, https://edition.cnn.com/2016/10/05/opinions/daesh-not-isil-or-islamic-state-khan/index.html.

13 "Journalese blacklist: Nuclear deterrent," *The Economist,* 30th July 2010, https://www.economist.com/johnson/2010/07/30/journalese-blacklist-nuclear-deterrent.

14 Stephen M. Walt, "What's in a name?," *Foreign Policy* 7 July 2010, https://foreignpolicy.com/2010/07/07/whats-in-a-name/.

15 Ibid., 122.

16 Maribel Tercedor Sánchez, 'The Cognitive Dynamics of Terminological Variation'. *Terminology* 17, no. 2 (2011): 181.

17 According to Margaret Rogers, *dynamic* means that "the same object may be referred to in a text from various perspectives if different characteristics of the concept representing that object are activated, or if different relations to other concepts are established." 'Multidimensionality in Concept Systems: A Bilingual Textual Perspective', *Terminology* 10, no. 2 (2004): 221.

18 Bruno Nahod, 'Domain–specific Cognitive Models in a Multi–Domain Term Base', *Suvremena Lingvistika* 41, no. 80 (2015): 105.

19 Bo Svensén, *Practical Lexicography: Principles and Methods of Dictionary-Making*, trans. John Sykes and Kerstin Schofield (Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, 1993), 1.

20 R. R. K. Hartmann, *Lexicography: Principles and Practice* (London: Academic Press, Inc., 1983), 4.

21 However, given the authority of big monolingual dictionaries such as the *Oxford English Dictionary,* even though this is not the primary focus of lexicography, there is indeed an element of standardisation and language planning involved in the process of compiling a dictionary. Ibid., 5.

22 K. Opitz, "The terminological/standardised dictionary," in *Systematic Lexicography*, ed. Juri Apresjan, trans. Kevin Windle, 163-80 (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000), 163.

23 Based on the General Theory of Terminology of Eugen Wüster. More recent theories of terminology have questioned some of these features.

24 Fred W. Riggs, "Terminology and Lexicography: Their complementarity," *International Journal of Lexicography* 2, no. 2 (1989): 89-91.

25 Ibid., 9.

26 Tiggelman, "StratCom Terminology Improvement,", 1.

27 Pamela Faber Benítez, 'The cognitive shift in terminology and specialized translation,' *MonTI* 1 (2009): 111.

28 Teresa Cabré Castellví, 'Theories of Terminology: Their Description, Prescription and Explanation', *Terminology* 9, no. 2 (2009), 165.

29 Eugen Wüster, *Internationale Sprachnormung in der Technik besonders in der Elektrotechnik* (Berlin: VDI-Verlag, 1931), 1.

30 His PhD thesis was used by the Soviet Union as the basis for a proposal to establish a Technical Committee ISA/TC37 for the standardisation of terminology at the International Federation of the National Standardizing Associations (ISA), later International Organization for Standardization, (ISO) in 1946. In 1969 UNESCO requested Wüster to author two reports on the state of Terminology research. On the basis of these reports the International Information Centre for Terminology (Infoterm) was created two years later. Ibid., 56-57.

31 Cabré, 'Theories of Terminology,' 172.

32 His theory was influenced by the work of linguists and terminologists from the beginning of the 20th century. Significant influences were the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, Soviet terminologist Ernst Drezen, and German linguist Leo Weisgerber. Ibid., 63.

33 Consequently, the compilation of terms should not be ordered alphabetically but in an order that highlights the structural relations between concepts. Trojar, 'Wüster's View of Terminology,' 59-60.

34 Eugen Wüster, *Einführung in die allgemeine Terminologielehre und terminologische Lexikographie*, 3rd edition (Bonn: Romanistischer Verlag, 1991), 1.

35 Quoting Helmut Felber, who authored the influential *Terminology Manual* published by *Infoterm* (Paris: Unesco, Infoterm, 1984)*,* Trojar ('Wüster's View of Terminology,' 74-75) argues that the GTT was probably more heterogeneous than traditionally believed. Moreover, at times, Wüster's ideas about Terminology have been misunderstood because only simplistic interpretations (such as Felber's) were consulted.

36 Marie-Claude L'Homme, Ulrich Heid, and Juan C. Sager, 'Terminology During the Past Decade (1994-2004)', *Terminology* 9, no. 2 (2003): 153.

37 Bruno Nahod, 'Domain–specific Cognitive Models in a Multi–Domain Term Base', *Suvremena Lingvistika* 41, no. 80 (2015): 105.

38 Faber, 'The cognitive shift in terminology,' 111.

39 Cabré, 'Theories of Terminology,' 182.

40 This approach was first developed in France and Quebec in the 1980s, influenced by sociolinguistic theories arising in the 1960s. The term "socioterminology" was first used by Jean-Claude Boulanger in the early 1980s. Besharat Fathi, "Socioterminology on Teletermino," *DG TRAD Terminology Coordination*, 7 February, 2017, accessed 6 April 2018, http://termcoord.eu/2017/02/socioterminology-on-teletermino/.

41 Boulanger 1991; Guespin 1991; Gaudin 1993, 2003

42 Faber, 'The cognitive shift in terminology,' 113.

43 Ibid.

44 Ibid., 183.

45 Ibid., 117.

46 Rita Temmerman, Koen Kerremans and Veerle Vandervoort, "La termontographie en contexte(s)" Actes des Septièmes Journées scientifiques du Réseau Lexicologie, terminologie, traduction, Bruxelles. (2005).

47 Rita Temmerman, *Towards New Ways of Terminology Description. The sociocognitive approach* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 2000), 46.

48 Nolet, 21.

49 Nolet, 18-19.

50 Beryl T. Sue Atkins and Michael Rundell, *The Oxford Guide to Practical Lexicography* (Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, 2008), 24-5.

51 ten Hacken and Thomas, 'Word Formation, Meaning and Lexicalization', 10.

52 Opitz, 'The terminological/standardised dictionary', 168.

53 Ibid., 168.

54 Tiggelman, "StratCom Terminology Improvement,", 1.

55 Ibid., 2.

56 Durán-Muñoz, 'Producing frame-based definitions', 243.

57 Pavel and Nolet, "Handbook of Terminology", 26.

58 Durán-Muñoz, 'Producing frame-based definitions', 243.

59 Ibid., 243; Pavel and Nolet, "Handbook of Terminology", 26.

60 "spouse, *n.,*" Oxford English Dictionary, 3rd Edition, last updated June, 2016, accessed 9 May 2018, http://www.oed.com/view/Entry/187543?rskey=sHEpOK&result=1&isAdvanced=false#eid.

61 Durán-Muñoz, 'Producing frame-based definitions', 243; Pavel and Nolet, "Handbook of Terminology", 26.

62 Ibid., 169.

63 Ibid., 172.

64 These documents involve all NATO members ("allied") and all branches oft the military ("joint").

65 StratCom COE, 'Minutes,' NATO StratCom Terminology Working Group 10th-11th May 2018.

66 Paul Hegarty, *Jean Baudrillard: Live Theory* (London; New York: Continuum, 2004), 49.

67 Jean Baudrillard, *Symbolic Exchange and Death* (1976).

68 French psychologist Jean Piaget developed these ideas in the 1940s and 1950s. Piaget, J., & Cook, M. T. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. New York, NY: International University Press. See also D. McAdam, et al., *Comparative Perspectives on Social Movements: Political Opportunities, Mobilizing Structures, and Cultural Feeling* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996).

69 Elisabeth Wehling, *Politisches Framing: Wie eine Nation sich ihr Denken einredet – und daraus Politik macht* (Köln, Halem: Edition Medienpraxis, 2016), 17.

70   Herbert Bless and Norbert Schwarz
        "Konzeptgesteuerte Informationsverarbeitung,"
        in *Theorien der Sozialpsychologie. Band III. Motivations-,
        Selbst- und Informationsverarbeitungstheorien,*
        eds. D. Frey and M. Irle (Bern; Göttingen; Toronto; Seattle:
        Hans Huber, 2002), 257-278.

71   John C. Turner "Towards a cognitive redefinition
        of the social group," in *Social Identity and Intergroup
        Relations*, ed. Henri Tajfel (Cambridge:
        Cambridge University Press, 2010), 15-40. Henri Tajfel,
        *Gruppenkonflikt und Vorurteil. Entstehung und Funktion
        sozialer Stereotypen* (Bern; Stuttgart; Wien:
        Hans Huber, 1982).

72   Alastair Reed and Jennifer Dowling, "The Role of Historical
        Narratives in Extremist Propaganda," *Defence Strategic
        Communications* 4 (Spring 2018): 81.

73   Roland Posner, "Post-modernism, post-structuralism, post-
        semiotics? Sign theory at the fin de siècle*", *Semiotica*
        183:1/4 (2011).

74   Durán-Muñoz, 'Producing frame-based definitions', 225.

75   Ibid.

76   Charles Fillmore, 'Scenes and Frames Semantics', in
        Linguistic Structures Processing (*Fundamental Studies in
        Computer Science*, 59), ed. A. Zampolli, 55–88 (Amsterdam:
        North Holland Publishing, 1977), 25.

77   Pavel and Nolet, "Handbook of Terminology", 1.

78   Ibid., 235.

79   Durán-Muñoz, 'Producing frame-based definitions', 228.

80   Ibid., 235.

81   Pavel and Nolet, "Handbook of Terminology", 15.

82   Patrick Allo et al., *The Philosophy of Information - An
        Introduction by The Π Research Network* (2013),
        https://socphilinfo.github.io/resources/i2pi_2013.pdf, 9-10.

83   Ibid., 16-7.

84   'information, n.,' Oxford English Dictionary,
        Third Edition, September 2008, accessed 8
        December 2018, http://www.oed.com/view/
        Entry/95568?redirectedFrom=information#eid.

85   Definition of 2.e. of "information, n." in the Oxford
        English Dictionary reads: "Contrasted with *data:*
        that which is obtained by the processing of data."
        OED Third Edition, September 2009, accessed
        14 September 2018.

86   'A composite of the conditions, circumstances and
        influences that affect the employment of capabilities and
        bear on the decisions of the commander.'
        The definition also expressed a preference for 'operating'
        over 'operational' environment, and classified the latter as
        obsolete. Record 874, 'operating environment', *NATOTerm*,
        approved 20 November 2014, https://nso.nato.int/natoterm/
        Web.mvc.

87   'message, noun,' Merriam-Webster, last updated: 4 December
        2018, accessed 8 December 2018, https://www.merriam-
        webster.com/dictionary/message. 'message, n.,' OED, Third
        Edition, September 2001, accessed 8 December 2018, http://
        www.oed.com/view/Entry/117095?rskey=YfynDU&
        result=1&isAdvanced=false#eid.

88   Both of the two main schools in communications studies,
        one preoccupied with the *transmission* of messages, the
        other with the *production and exchange of meaning* in a
        cultural context, assume that signs and codes are used with
        the intent to convey a message. Fiske, *Introduction,* 2-3.

89   Cf. 'The significance, purpose, underlying truth, etc., of
        something,' 'meaning, n.,' OED Third Edition, March 2001,
        accessed 8 December 2001, http://www.oed.com/view/
        Entry/115465?rskey=dJjQwo&
        result=6&isAdvanced=false#eid.

90   Emphasis added, 'meaning, noun,' Merriam-Webster, 2018,
        accessed 8 December 2018, https://www.merriam-webster.
        com/dictionary/meaning#learn-more.

91   Frank Castigliola, "Reading for Meaning: Theory, Language,
        and Metaphor," in *Explaining the History of American Foreign
        Relations,* eds. Michael J. Hogan and Thomas G. Paterson
        (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004), 288.

92   See for example Shannon and Weaver's mode
        of communication in John Fiske, *Introduction to
        Communication Studies,* 2nd Edition (London; New York:
        Routledge, 1990), 6.

93   'Part of operating environment, the information environment
        is comprised of the information itself, the individuals,
        organizations and systems that receive, process and convey
        the information and the cognitive, virtual and physical space
        in which this occurs.'

94   Cf. "II. Senses relating to the imparting or
        transmission of something." 'communication, n.,'
        OED Third Edition, September 2009, accessed
        8 December 2018, http://www.oed.com/view/
        Entry/37309?redirectedFrom=communication#eid.

95   Fiske, Introduction to Communication Studies, 7.

96   Ibid., 3-6.

97   **Strategic – '**Identified overall aims and interests and how to
        advance them through comprehensive means.'

98   The Project group works on the assumption that in correctly
        planned and implemented strategic communications
        influence is achieved purposefully.

99   "Influence Activities: Activities that are planned and conducted
        to have behavioural and psychological effects in support of
        the Commander's intent or mission. The key enablers of IA
        are: Psychological Operations (PSYOPS) and Civil-Military
        Cooperation (CIMIC)." Canadian Army, Units/Formations, last
        modified 16 May 2017, accessed 14 September 2018, http://
        www.army-armee.forces.gc.ca/en/5-cdn-div-ia/index.page.

100   NATO glossaries AAP-06, AAP-39; NATO agreed 1982-08-01.

101   Rita G. Koman, "Man on the Moon: The U.S. Space Program
        as a Cold War Maneuver," *OAH Magazine of History*, 8 (2)
        Rethinking the Cold War (Winter, 1994), 42-50.

102   'conversation, n.,' *Oxford English Dictionary,* accessed
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132   His PhD thesis was used by the Soviet Union as the basis
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        in 1946. In 1969 UNESCO requested Wüster to author two
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133   Cabré, 'Theories of Terminology,' 172.

134   His theory was influenced by the work of linguists and
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138 Conferences: in 2003 several workshops and conferences
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