

Drought, social agents and the construction of discourse in Andalusia

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Abstract

Despite the severity of the last droughts in Spain, there has not been any significant shift in the current planning strategies, due to a significant resistance to abandoning traditional practices against this hydrological risk. To better understand the origin of this resistance, the changing role of the relevant stakeholders in the debate and the key issues, this paper is aimed at undertaking a discursive analysis of the information conveyed by the media in hydrological years 2004–2005 and 2011–2012, through the application of the software Atlas.ti.

Keywords: Andalusia; discourses; scarcity; risk; drought

1. Introduction

Qualitative analysis, especially with regard to discourse and contents, is a useful method for comprehending the way facts are understood and communicated by the different stakeholders involved in a given debate (Alonso, Volken, & Gómez, 2012; Flick, 2014). More specifically, this sort of discursive analysis can help to achieve a clearer understanding of drought management processes and identify aspects where action is required in order to minimise the effects of this form of hydrological risk. This discursive and contextual analysis can be useful not only for the identification of the relevant stakeholders for the debate on definition and management, but also for the monitoring of the evolution of key issues over time. Ultimately, this study aims to explain resistance to change and to gain a new insight into a drought-related conflict.

There are several well-known studies on the construction and analysis of discourse and on communication patterns and frameworks (Benford & Snow, 2000; Hajer, 1995; Wodak & Meyer, 2003). In addition, many authors have stressed the important impact of discourse on slow-developing phenomena, such as drought; in addition, the chronological and geographical limits of drought are often difficult to pinpoint, which makes it more susceptible to the emergence of different definitions and solutions (Sonnett, Morehouse, Finger, Garfin, & Rattray, 2006; Wilhite & Buchanan-Smith, 2005; Wilkins & Patterson, 1990).

This work aims at examining the nature of the institutional response to drought and the effects of the experience accumulated during the latest episodes of drought occurred in Andalusia, including the possible effects, if any, of the new cycle of hydrological planning implemented after the publication of the Water Framework Directive (WFD)¹ in 2000. In order to achieve this, we shall focus our analysis on the discourses on drought presented in the media by the

different stakeholders, whereby the different stakeholders try to legitimise their perspectives, values and management proposals.

Previous work on episodes of drought in Spain has already been useful in this context (Bayés, Ribas, & Saurí, 2003; Pita, 1985). As pointed out by Cuvardic (2002), media content analysis is open to different interpretive frameworks, understood as linguistically structured perspectives, from which the examination of social manifestations can be described and assessed: 'To begin with, social agents [...] use frameworks in their statements; these, through different degrees of linguistic formulation, will be given media visibility; in addition, media companies can filter information through their own interpretive framework' (Cuvardic, 2002, p. 84).

2. Drought in Andalusia in hydrological years 2004–2005 and 2011–2012

This work has focused on the analysis of the debate as reflected in the regional media in Andalusia, a region in southern Spain with a total area of 87,597 km² (17.3% of the national territory). The region is affected by alternating cycles of dry and humid conditions. During the last significant drought episodes (1941–1945, 1979–1983, 1990–1995 and 2005–2008) precipitation dropped by between 23% and 30% in the different basins in which the region is divided.²

Specifically, our analysis has focused on hydrological years 2004–2005 and 2011–2012; in Spain, the hydrological year goes from 1 October to 30 September. Year 2004–2005 corresponds with the beginning of the latest significant drought. In year 2011–2012, meteorological drought conditions predominated and the beginning of a new severe drought was thus feared. Ultimately, these concerns were not realised. These periods have in common the intensity of the debate on drought and drought management, and a context of relevant institutional changes, which clearly shows the position of the different stakeholders involved and facilitates the analysis of instances of institutional change with regard to hydrological planning in the period under examination.

In Andalusia, hydrological year 2004–2005 was characterised by drought conditions, the mobilisation of the agricultural associations and their request for help from the administration, and urban supply restrictions. These conditions led the central and regional governments to adopt emergency measures, most particularly the publication of an action protocol for the basin of the Guadalquivir – the largest in the region – in July 2005 (Figure 1).³ This document was based on experience accumulated during the 1990–1995 drought.

The need for this protocol – the only one published in Andalusia – was reinforced by the delay in the preparation of special drought contingency plans, which were demanded by the relevant Spanish legislation.⁴ In theory, these plans should have been published by 2003,⁵ and were intended as a formula for the improvement of drought prediction and thus for the transformation of traditional drought management policies. According to these policies, drought is a critical situation to be tackled through the mobilisation of extraordinary resources.

In addition, the exceptionality of the situation⁶ also prompted the publication of a nationwide drought decree⁷ and of the draft of another decree specifically for the Province of Malaga.⁸ These decrees were aimed at 'setting up whatever measures are considered necessary for the exercise of the public domain over water, even if this has been made the subject of concession of rights'. In addition, the publication of these measures implicitly declared the public interest in, and the urgency of, whatever works, surveys and studies were deemed necessary for their implementation, including the temporal occupation or expropriation of private property and rights.

The earliest of these decrees was already in force by the end of the hydrological year under examination, and established different measures: it created tax exemptions for agricultural

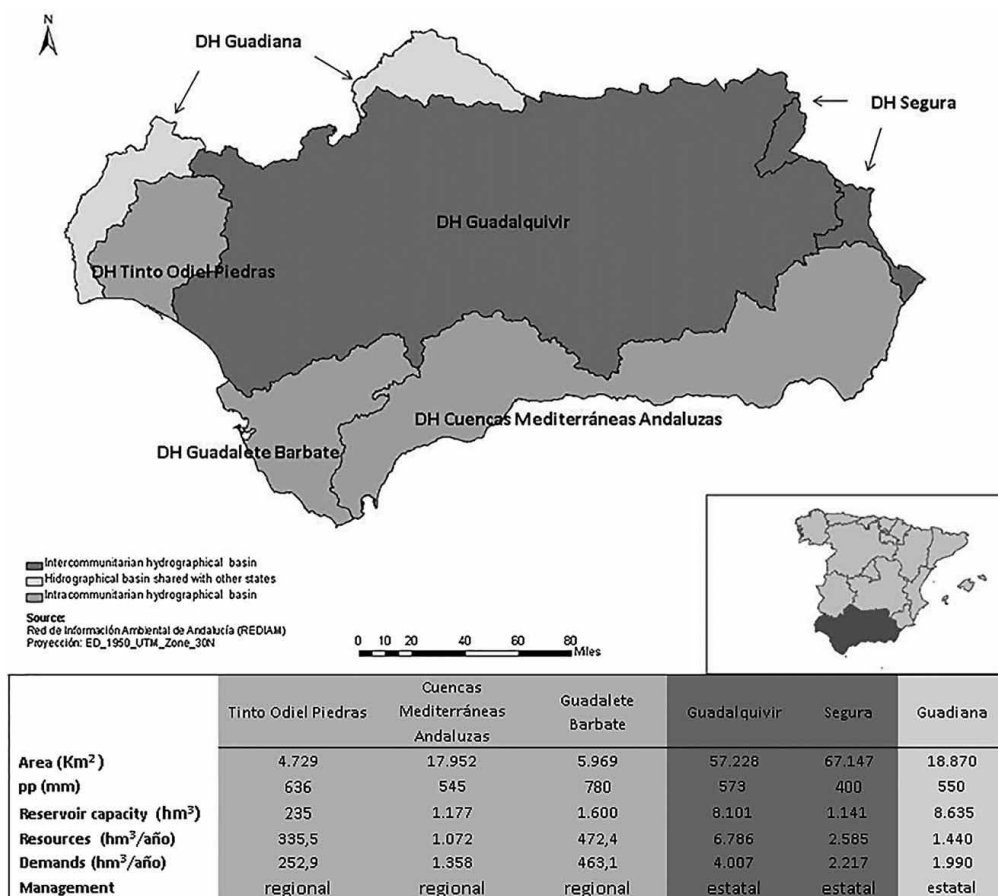


Figure 1. River basins in Andalusia.

activities, increased the flexibility of water rights for irrigation, set up a line of credit, facilitated the use of infrastructures for the connection of different basins (Negratín–Almanzora) and planned urgent hydraulic works aimed at improving and updating existing irrigation infrastructures. In Andalusia this later measure affected a total area of 126,614 ha.

In year 2011–2012, Andalusia went through a meteorological drought. This particularly affected some agricultural crops and extensive stock breeding activities, due to the effect of rain on pasture growth. The debate around drought management was once more reactivated, with further demands for help on the part of the agricultural associations and the different responses of regional and national agencies.

The institutional framework was different from 2004–2005, after the introduction of new normative and planning policies, beginning with the publication of the drought plans for the Andalusian river basins between 2007 and 2009.

In addition, the new regional water law⁹ came into effect in 2010. According to the text, the law was based on the principle of prudence and took into account the effects of dry cycles and predictions regarding climate change.¹⁰ This norm stressed that drought management plans must clearly outline the different stages into which this phenomenon is divided and define which measures are of application in each of them in order to decrease water consumption.

Finally, and with considerable delay, the planning documents for each basin¹¹ were also approved, as required by the WFD. In these documents, drought management was finally divorced from the traditional critical or catastrophic framework. The plans for the basins Cuencas Mediterráneas Andaluzas y Guadalete-Barbate and Cuenca Tinto-Odiel-Piedras¹² were published in 2010, while the draft for the Guadalquivir basin was presented in 2012.

3. Qualitative analysis

The source used for the discursive analysis is the daily regional media (most of them belongs to Vocento and Joly editorial groups). The news items were filtered through the national and international media open access database iConoce, which has yielded a total data yield of 460 relevant items. Given the considerable volume of data available, and in order to begin with the systematisation, codification and analysis of the discourses therein, we decided to use the software Atlas.ti, a type of computer-aided qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS).

It must be clarified that the task undertaken was content analysis, which consists of the application of different techniques to a set of given documents. This results in the highlighting of a set of previously set indicators, which can be of a quantitative or of a qualitative nature. With these indicators, systematic inferences can be drawn from the characteristics of the messages under examination. For this process to work it is essential to have clearly defined targets and working hypotheses; to adequately select and organise the documents to be scrutinised; to create formal and significant categories; and, to develop a system of codification which enhances the reliability of the data. This process is ultimately aimed at 'highlighting the meaning which underlies social and cognitive practices which use the media instrumentally to improve interaction[...], examining what is concealed, latent, inconspicuous, potential, unsaid, in every message' (Raigada, 2002, p. 4).

It is also important to stress that Atlas.ti does not analyse the data automatically (in general, no CAQDAS software does), but rather offers a series of tools which expedite the process of qualitative analysis. These programs are very useful in identifying character chains or data segments in a large variety of combinations, but the researcher must predefine the codification mode and the data segments (Friese, 2012a). CAQDAS software, therefore, does not undertake the analysis autonomously; it simply helps the interpreter by speeding up some of the processes involved in the analysis and qualitative interpretation of texts. Correctly used, Atlas.ti makes for a swifter and easier systematisation of data. This allows the researcher to ask questions that would otherwise be impossible to answer due to the complexity of the data. Similarly, the framing of data and documents, which come in different formats, into an integrated structure homogenises the information and increases the reliability of the results, especially in the conceptual stages of the analysis. Finally, the method facilitates the recording of the whole process, including the possible modification of codes and concepts. This makes the procedure more transparent and more amenable to reliability tests (Friese, 2012b).

Our work with Atlas.ti commenced with the creation of a *Hermeneutic Unit*¹³ with the *primary documents*, including the full content of the texts under examination. Afterwards, *codes*¹⁴ or labels were assigned to sections of text which were considered to be of particular interest. The criteria for the selection were relevance for the issue at hand and content. When a fragment was thought to contain a particularly complex message, *memos*¹⁵ were created.

We defined codes and assigned codes and memos to text fragments after examining all texts and quotations in detail and making a first assessment of each stage of the process; that is, the definition of codes and the elaboration of memos have been carried out in an interactive way, so the process could be progressively refined. In the second level of analysis, we made a distinction between two different types of code: those connected with the stakeholders and processes

under examination, which we divided into *families* due to their high number, and the so-called ‘thematic codes’, which are related to relevant issues discussed in the texts.

Finally, we used analytical and visualisation tools in order to produce tables and text documents (outputs), which also include some useful quantitative information. Specifically: (i) frequency of primary codes (resulting in a table of primary code documents), used to analyse the presence of agents, families of stakeholders and thematic codes in the media documents under examination and (ii) concurrence analysis (resulting in a code concurrence table), used to analyse different codes which have been used to codify the same fragments and which, therefore, concur or overlap in said fragments (in this regard, particular attention has been paid to the concurrence between thematic codes and families of stakeholders).

4. Results

4.1. Concentration in, and capitalisation of, the discourse by the agricultural sector

The first of our questions concerned which stakeholders were present in the media coverage of drought in hydrological years 2004–2005 and 2011–2012. The purpose of this was to identify who has a voice in the debate and who does not, the media projection of each stakeholder and possible changes in these parameters between the two periods under examination.

In order to obtain these results, we clustered a total of 98 stakeholders into 12 families, and carried out a frequency analysis (primary code) (Figure 2).

We may highlight that, both in 2004–2005 and 2011–2012, three families appear to be particularly prominent: first, ‘agricultural associations’, with 27% in 2004–2005 and 35.2% in 2011–2012; second, ‘national public water agencies’ (21.4% and 17.6%) and third, ‘regional public water agencies’ (20.7% and 19.4%).

In contrast with the concentration of the discourse on the largest consumer group and the agencies responsible for drought management, other associations have little presence. This has a negative effect on the variety of messages conveyed by the media: ‘environmental associations’ (whose presence barely rises from 0.2% to 0.6%); ‘consumers’ associations’ (from 0.4% to 0%) and, ‘local associations’ (from 0% to 0.9%). Moreover, the latter family is, for the most part, only represented by public-park-friends’ groups and urban district associations.

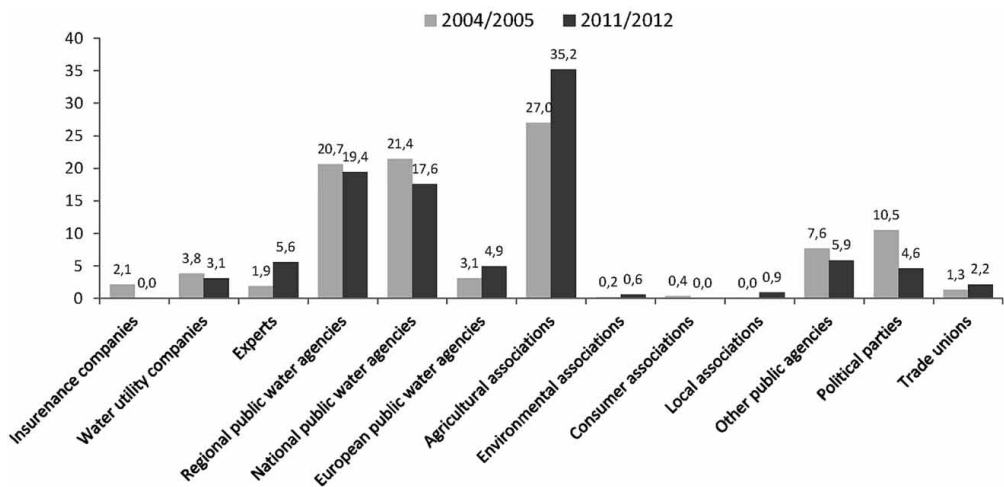


Figure 2. Frequency of families of actors presence (%).

Another two families must be highlighted due to their relevance for the drought debate, and whose presence increases, even if only moderately: ‘experts’ (from 1.9% in 2004–2005 to 5.6% in 2011–2012) and ‘European public water agencies’ (from 3.1% to 4.9%). Regarding the experts, increased frequency is mostly due to consultation work carried out on behalf of the national meteorological agency,¹⁶ which is in fact the only agent of the family with a presence in 2011–2012. University experts and the committee of experts of the Spanish ministry in charge of drought management,¹⁷ which were present in the previous batch, are therefore absent from the second. This reflects the fact that in 2004–2005 the drought was more severe. Thus, this episode was categorised as ‘hydrological drought’, defined by the effects of periods of precipitation shortfalls, while in 2011–2012 the drought was categorised as ‘meteorological’, defined by the degree of dryness and the duration of the dry period (Wilhite & Glantz, 1985).

Finally, ‘European public water agencies’ are more prominent in the second batch, but always in connection with requests for financial aid. Most of these requests were issued by the agricultural sector and the Spanish government. Agriculturalists requested that Common Agricultural Policy subsidies be paid before their due date, while the Spanish government demanded solutions from the EU, including the publication of a specific directive concerning drought. Other references to the EU – such as those related to the European Drought Observatory and, more relevantly, the WFD – disappear in the second batch.

4.2. Weakening, consolidation and emergency in the drought-related debate

Apart from evaluating the presence of each family of agents in the media in the years under scrutiny, we also analysed which were the key issues in the debate. After identifying these 15 key points, we codified directly related fragments before proceeding to analyse their frequency (Figure 3).

The survey indicates that some themes are less prominent in 2004–2005 than in 2011–2012, such as ‘desalination plants’ (from 7.5% to 2.9%), ‘insurance’ (from 7.7% to 4.18%) and ‘wells’

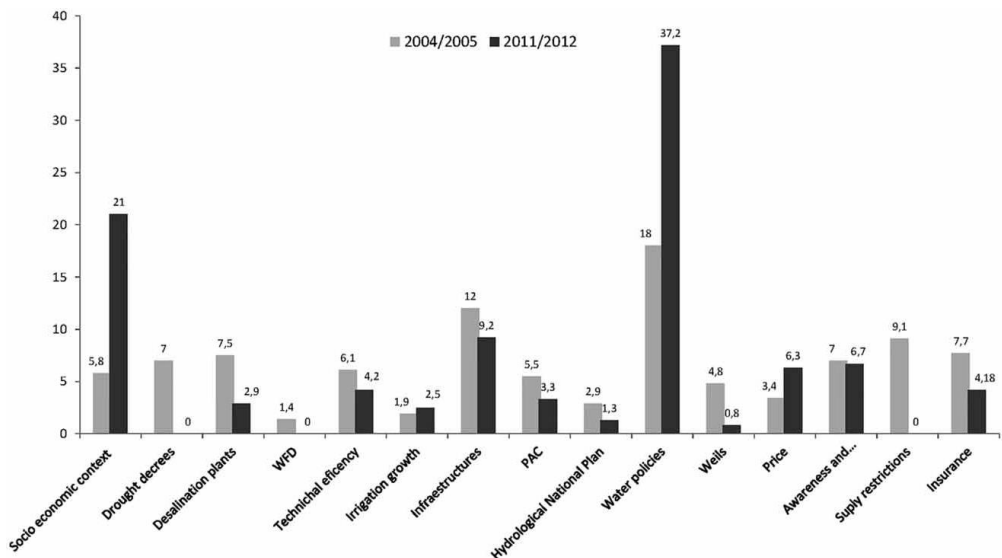


Figure 3. Frequency of thematic codes (%).

(from 4.8% to 0.8%). Some of them even disappear altogether, for instance ‘supply restrictions’, ‘drought decrees’ and ‘WFD’ (with 9.1%, 7% and 1.4% in 2004–2005, respectively).

In this regard, the differences in the severity of both seem again to be very significant, along with the fact that in 2004–2005 the memories of the severe drought experienced by Andalusia in the 1990s were still very fresh. This explains public support for the central administration’s project to build several desalination plants, and the discussions about the implementation of restrictive measures, such as supply limitations and the passing of drought decrees.

On the other hand, the frequency-values of two themes do not change substantially from one period to the other, which shows that the topics are consolidated factors in the debate: ‘awareness and responsibility in consumption’ (from 7% to 6.7%) and ‘infrastructures’ (from 12% to 9.2%). With regard to the latter, it is important to observe that, despite the fact that circumstances had changed between 2004–2005 and 2011–2012, the theme was mostly discussed in relation to demands for the construction of hydraulic infrastructures, which are generally regarded as the best guarantee against drought. The positions of individual stakeholders concerning this issue are never wholly consistent, but ‘agricultural associations’ and ‘Partido Popular’ show a marked tendency to request the construction of these infrastructures. This is the most consolidated theme – with regard to arguments, messages and agents – in the two periods under consideration; this is consistent with the traditional water management paradigm in Spain (Moral & Saurí, 2001).

Also, we must call stress the relevant growth of three themes over time: ‘price’ (from 3.4% to 6.3%), and most clearly ‘socio-economic context’ (from 5.8% to 21%) and ‘water policies’ (from 18% to 37.2%). Concerning ‘price’, the most recurrent item is complaints of ‘agricultural associations’ about the high cost of water. In 2011–2012, with the additional factor of drought-related added costs (artificial fodder, fuel), this sub-theme displaced all others. Thus, one of the central elements of the debate in 2004–2005 had disappeared by 2011–2012: the need to adjust water prices in order to incorporate sanctions for excessive consumption and to consider cost returns.

The increase in the frequency of items related to ‘socio-economic context’ is clearly connected with the current economic juncture. Economic recession has led ‘water utility companies’ to show concern for their falling profits and ‘agricultural associations’ and ‘trade unions’ to denounce a drop in agricultural employment as a consequence of drought. This last issue is often paired with demands requesting an extraordinary plan to promote rural employment.

Finally, ‘water policies’ are an increasingly frequent topic. The issues under consideration in both periods also vary. In 2004–2005, the debate revolved around the need to urgently approve protocols of action, due to the aforementioned lack of special drought plans. On the other hand, it could be assumed that the increased frequency of the topic in 2011–2012 was connected with the emergence of a new discourse following the publication of basin hydrological plans and their measures, which were theoretically inspired by the special plans. However, references to these plans are very scarce in the second batch of data, and totally lacking with regard to policies for individual basins. The most abundant topics in connection with this theme are the agriculturalist’s demands for public palliative measures, and the actual measures implemented by the regional and national governments.¹⁸

4.3. Stability and change in the construction of discourses

As we already pointed out in Section 3, apart from analysing frequency, Atlas.ti is a useful tool for concurrence analysis. The aim of this is to detect the concurrence and overlapping of codes in different items (in this case, text fragments). The concurrence index (coefficient-c) – a value between 0 and 1 – identifies those topics referred to by families of agents in their media projection.

Table 1. Concurrence index: families of agents and prominent topics.

	Socio-economic context		Water policy	
	2004–2005	2011–2012	2004–2005	2011/2012
Insurance companies	0	0	0	0
Water utility companies	0	0.04	0.02	0.01
Experts	0	0	0	0
Regional public water agencies	0.01	0.1	0.08	0.19
National public water agencies	0.01	0.05	0.19	0.3
European public water agencies	0.01	0.1	0.08	0.19
Agricultural associations	0	0.02	0.05	0.14
Environmental associations	0	0	0	0.03
Consumer associations	0.04	0	0	0.01
Local associations	0	0	0	0
Other public agencies	0.03	0.03	0.08	0.08
Political parties	0.01	0.05	0.12	0.1
Trade unions	0.07	0.1	0	0

In summary, this tool can be used for the identification of which topics each family of agents focuses on, which topics are paid less attention and which families have changed their discourse between the two periods under consideration.

On the basis of this analysis (Table 1), it can be claimed that ‘agricultural associations’, ‘national public water agencies’ and ‘regional public water agencies’, which have already been identified as the most media-prominent families, show the highest concurrence value. This is particularly noticeable with regard to those topics which show a high increase in their frequency value between 2004–2005 and 2011–2012: ‘socio-economic context’ and ‘water policies’. That is, these agents seem to be leading the debate and determining drought-related media messages.

The family of stakeholders ‘agricultural associations’ is the one whose presence increases the most between 2004–2005 and 2011–2012. In both periods, they have a strong media projection. Their discourse is characterised by consolidated and hegemonic interpretations. Furthermore, their discourse has a large impact on the general discourse concerning a variety of themes, including the critical interpretive framework, the generation of states of alarm, the demands for financial help, the construction of new infrastructures, the passing of drought decrees and even the national hydrological plans. The media tends to assign these themes a high profile, not only because of the historical importance of this economic sector and its social legitimacy in Andalusia (Paneque & Pedregal, 2000), but also of a detected tendency towards the ‘routine coverage’ of drought-related information. This factor also contributes to the consolidation of the hegemonic discourse.

Similarly, significant concurrences occur with regard to the theme of ‘insurance’, as well as with the stakeholders ‘insurance companies’ and ‘trade unions’ in 2004–2005 (Table 2). On the other hand, while ‘insurance companies’ disappear from the media in 2011–2012, the presence of ‘trade unions’ increases from 1.3% to 2.2%.

Finally, significant concurrences have also been observed between the code ‘infrastructures’ and the family ‘political parties’. This stresses the idea that solutions which are connected with the construction of hydraulic infrastructures are still very much part of the public debate, despite the strategic changes which recent drought plans should have brought to the fore (Estrela & Vargas, 2012). This shows that these plans are still far from adopting the preventive approach that ought to guide draught management; as pointed out by Brufao, infrastructure-based plans are limited to the ‘pre-alert’, ‘alert’, ‘emergency’ and ‘post-drought’ stages, and their philosophy is still heavily

Table 2. Concurrence index between other families and key themes.

	Insurance		Infrastructures	
	2004–2005	2011–2012	2004–2005	2011/2012
Insurance companies	0.21	0	0	0
Water utility companies	0	0	0.03	0.03
Experts	0	0	0.02	0
Regional public water agencies	0.02	0.06	0.11	0.09
National public water agencies	0.02	0.02	0.1	0.03
European public water agencies	0.03	0	0	0.03
Agricultural associations	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.05
Environmental associations	0	0	0	0
Consumer associations	0	0	0	0
Local associations	0	0	0	0
Other public agencies	0.02	0	0.03	0.05
Political parties	0.07	0.04	0.18	0.12
Trade unions	0	0.23	0	0

reminiscent of traditional perspectives. Drought plans, therefore, are often considered little more than ‘contingency plans proposing measures which are only of application once drought has become a reality’ (Brufao, 2012, p. 22).

5. Conclusions

Significant theoretical steps have been taken in the drought-related debate since the 1990s; these concern applied research in the fields of prevention, monitoring and management of drought, as well as the mitigation of the economic, social and environmental impact of this phenomenon (Rossi et al., 2003; Svoboda, Hayes, & Wilhite, 2001; Vogh & Somma, 2000; Wilhite, 1990, 1996). From the normative point of view, reforms undertaken since 2000 have incorporated some of these conceptual advances.

In addition to these legal changes, the analysis must focus on the progressive change of structured discourse on drought, which is a crucial aspect for the clarification, understanding and management of the relevant concepts. Qualitative analysis of media content is a useful tool for the identification of the agents who steer the debate and also of their position with regard to definition and management. Similarly, it is also a good way of monitoring the evolution of key themes over time and, through this, of progress, resistance and conflict within the debate.

The analysis has confirmed the sustained view that the agricultural sector holds a hegemonic discourse. It has been shown that, to a large degree, this discourse determines the themes included in the debate. Nonetheless, despite this predominance, we have identified that new stakeholders have gained a significant, but still minor, role between the two periods under consideration – experts, European public water agencies and social associations. Even more noteworthy is that the participation of these new stakeholders has resulted in a diversification of discursive themes into the debate – socio-economic context and water policies. Their media projection is, however, still small and their impact on public opinion limited, which contributes to the persistence of traditional beliefs and values concerning water management. Regarding discursive themes, there is an evident dominance of water supply-related issues. This is due both to the aforementioned hegemonic position of the agricultural discourse, who keeps at using the argument demanding the construction of water infrastructures as their rallying cry, and the decrease in the presence of reactive measures in the debate, such as decrees and restrictions, usually linked

to water supply strategies. Likewise, it is also important to highlight that the predominance of the agricultural discourse was somehow expected, because of the resistance to abandoning traditional practices against droughts. However, it is important to point out that this was caused because they also dominated emerging themes, connected to the socio-economic context and water planning, in a dialogue with regional and national water agencies, thus reinforcing the concentration of drought-related discourse.

The analysis carried out also revealed concealed trends; in this regard, the absence of references to European water policies, the new hydrological plans and wider discussion frameworks may be highlighted. It is certainly remarkable that, confronted with the recurrent demands of the agricultural sector, the public agencies in charge of water management responded not by making reference to the instruments of water management available to them (drought plans, basin plans, etc.) but by making further demands to the European Union.

The strength of hegemonic discourses linked to the agricultural sector (the main water consumer) is one of the main factors in Spanish water-related policy-making. Generally, policy-makers face droughts by enacting extraordinary normative measures. This is in line with the perspective of the so-called 'hydraulic age' or 'hydraulic paradigm', and is still far from complying with the WFD objectives.

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Notes

1. Directive 2000/60/CE.
2. http://www.juntadeandalucia.es/medioambiente/site/portalweb/menuitem.7e1cf46ddf59bb227a9ebe205510e1ca/?vgnextoid=52b43f05548e5310VgnVCM1000001325e50aRCRD&vgnnextchannel=2e0fe3dbc95f4310VgnVCM2000000624e50aRCRD&lr=lang_es
3. Protocolo de Actuación en Sequías en la Cuenca del Guadalquivir.
4. Planes Especiales de Actuación en Situación de Alerta y Eventual Sequía./Ley del plan Hidrológico Nacional.
5. Art. 27 de la Ley 10/2001, de 5 de julio.
6. Following the definition in the Art. 58 de la Ley de Aguas, RDL 1/2001, de 20 de julio
7. Real Decreto Ley 10/2005, de 20 de junio, por el que se adoptan medidas urgentes para paliar los daños producidos en el sector agrario por la sequía y otras adversidades climáticas.
8. Decreto 240/2005, de 2 de noviembre, por el que se regulan medidas excepcionales ante la situación de sequía en diversos municipios de Málaga.
9. Ley 4/2010, de 8 de junio de Aguas de la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía.
10. Art. 6 Ley 4/2010, de 8 de junio, de Aguas de la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía.
11. Planes Hidrológicos de Demarcación.
12. New denominations for the aforementioned Cuenca Mediterránea Andaluza and Cuenca Atlántica Andaluza, respectively.
13. Intelligent 'container' which keeps a record of all data. The HU retains the routes of source data and archives the codes, code families, etc. When we open the HU we also open all the associated material, which is dynamised and compiled into a single unit (Friese, 2010).

14. Work with Atlas.ti starts with codification, a task that resembles highlighting or underlining passages in a normal text, like a book (Friese, 2010). This is, in fact, the most important stage of the process, and one which determines all tasks undertaken thereafter.
15. Memos permit the introduction of comments, which are independent items, to be associated with other items or used freely (Friese, 2010).
16. Agencia Estatal de Meteorología.
17. Ministerio de Medio Ambiente.
18. Orden AAA/1096/2012, de 24 de mayo, BOE de 26 de mayo de 2012, and Resolución de 12 de marzo de 2012, BOJA de 23 de marzo de 2012.

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