

Važnost pismenosti iz privatnosti u prevladavanju digitalnog jaza s naglaskom na ulogu knjižnica

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Etički kodeksi knjižničarske struke propisuju skup pravila i načela ponašanja s namjerom unaprjeđenja struke i uređivanja odnosa između stručnjaka kao i odnose stručnjaka prema osobama kojima se osiguravaju određene stručne usluge. Prihvatanjem profesionalnih vrijednosti pripadnik profesije preuzima i odgovornosti za kvalitetno pružanje usluga. Profesionalna odgovornost knjižničara obuhvaća: osobnu odgovornost, odgovornost prema građi i korisnicima, odgovornost prema kolegama i profesiji te odgovornost prema društvu (Horvat 2007, 5-10).

Kada govorimo o vrijednostima knjižničarske struke, najprihvaćenija je tipologija vrijednosti M. Gorman. Gorman navodi osam temeljnih vrijednosti knjižničarske profesije: briga i upravljanje (*stewardship*), usluga, intelektualna sloboda, racionalnost, pismenost i učenje, jednakost pristupa zabilježenom znanju i informaciji, privatnost i demokracija. Gorman komentira da važnost različitih vrijednosti varira s obzirom na vrijeme te da su za pojedine generacije neke vrijednosti važnije od drugih. Vrijednosti su često u konfliktu i konstantno se mora brinuti o uspostavi ravnoteže (Gorman 2000, 26-27). C. Foster i D. McMenemy istražili su prisutnost Gormanovih vrijednosti u etičkim kodeksima knjižničarskih udruga i zaključili da je prosječno prisutno pet od osam navedenih vrijednosti, među kojima su najpopularnije: usluga, privatnost, jednakost pristupa zabilježenom znanju i informaciji, briga i upravljanje i intelektualna sloboda (Foster i McMenemy 2012, 249-262). Knjižničarska struka tako spaja pismenost i učenje, jednakost pristupa informacijama i privatnost kao osobite vrijednosti i odgovornosti.

Porast korištenja računala, interneta, društvenih mreža i sl. zahtijeva kontinuirano stjecanje novih vještina u računalnom i mrežnom okruženju. Thomas Froehlich identificirao je upravo djelatnike u knjižničnim i informacijskim znanostima između drugih stručnjaka vezanih uz rad s informacijama i informacijskim sustavima koji istražuju načine na koje bi trebali rješavati pitanja koja se nameću kao posljedica korištenja informacijsko-komunikacijskih tehnologija (Froehlich 2004).

Korištenje interneta i društvenih mreža osim dobrobiti donosi i određene rizike. Predstavljanje svog identiteta, mišljenja i stavova na društvenim mrežama može biti izvor rizika za reputaciju i ugled prilikom nalaženja posla u bilo kojoj struci. Isto tako nepažnja prilikom objave privatnih sadržaja, fotografija, videa, razmišljanja, mišljenja o drugoj djeci, stavova o školi i učiteljima djeci mogu donijeti niz rizika i problema koji bi ih mogla obilježiti na dugo vremena. Objava privatnih sadržaja i osobnih podataka mogu dovesti osobe do nepovoljnijeg položaja u suvremenom dobu kada i djeca i starije osobe mogu poboljšati svoj društveni život sudjelovanjem

The ethical codes of the library profession prescribe a set of rules and principles of conduct with the intention of improving the profession and regulating the relations between professionals and the relations of professionals towards the persons who are provided with certain professional services. By accepting professional values, a member of the profession also assumes responsibilities for the quality provision of services. The professional responsibility of librarians includes: personal responsibility, responsibility towards the material and users, responsibility towards colleagues and the profession, and responsibility towards the society (Horvat 2007, 5-10).

When we talk about the values of the library profession, the most accepted one is the typology of values by M. Gorman. Gorman specifies eight core values of the library profession: stewardship, service, intellectual freedom, rationalism, literacy and learning, equity of access to recorded knowledge and information, privacy, and democracy. Gorman comments that the importance of different values varies with time and that some values are more important to some generations than others. Values are often in conflict and a balance must be constantly sought (Gorman 2000, 26-27). C. Foster and D. McMenemy researched the presence of Gorman's values in the ethical codes of library associations and concluded that an average of five of the eight values were present, the most popular of which were: service, privacy, equity of access to recorded knowledge and information, stewardship, and intellectual freedom (Foster and McMenemy 2012, 249-262). The library profession thus combines literacy and learning, equity of access to information and privacy as special values and responsibilities.

The increase in the use of computers, the Internet, social networks, etc. requires the continuous acquisition of new skills in the computer and network environment. Thomas Froehlich identified precisely librarians and information science professionals among other information and information systems professionals who explore ways in which the issues arising from the use of information and communication technologies should be addressed (Froehlich 2004).

The use of the Internet and social networks, in addition to benefits, also brings certain risks. Sharing your identity, opinions and attitudes on social networks can be a source of risk to your reputation and prestige when finding a job in any profession. Likewise, carelessness when posting private content, photos, videos, thoughts, opinions about other children, attitudes about the school and teachers can bring children a number of risks and problems that could mark them for a long time. The disclosure of private content and personal information can lead

na raznim društvenim platformama i općenito koristeći internet. U radu će se pokušati pojasniti zašto je upravo pismenost iz privatnosti značajna u društvu 21. st.

IFLA (*International Federation of Library Association and Institutions*), međunarodna organizacija koja okuplja i predstavlja knjižničarske udruge i društva kao i pojedince, 2015. je godine usvojila *Izjavu o privatnosti u knjižnici* koja sadrži preporuke vezane uz privatnost u knjižnicama. Preporuke govore kojim se načelima treba voditi u knjižničnom poslovanju kada je riječ o komunikaciji s korisnicima, podizanju svijesti korisnika o zaštiti osobnih podataka, a daju se i preporuke o edukaciji knjižničara. U *Izjavi o privatnosti u knjižnici* stoji da “kad knjižnice i informacijske službe pružaju pristup izvorima, uslugama ili tehnologiji koja može ugroziti privatnost korisnika, knjižnice trebaju osvijestiti korisnike o posljedicama i upoznati ih sa zaštitom podataka i privatnosti.”

2. Društvena isključenost i društvena uključenost

Problemi socijalne ili društvene isključenosti¹ počinju se pojavljivati 1970-ih godina nakon intenzivnog ekonomskog rasta koji je slijedio nakon Drugog svjetskog rata. Ekonomsko restrukturiranje razvijenih kapitalističkih zemalja dovelo je do recesije te se uz stare socijalne probleme pojavljuje i niz novih. Kako pojašnjava Z. Šućur (1995) pojam *isključeni* prvenstveno je bio vezan uz Francusku i francusko govorno područje, a uključivao je sljedeće skupine ljudi: mentalno retardirane, osobe s invaliditetom i socijalno neprilagođene (zlostavljanu djecu, ovisnike i alkoholičare, delikvente, nezaposlene, siromašne, psihijatrijske bolesnike, marginalne, asocijalne i osobe sklone samoubojstvu). Izraz je prvi put upotrijebio Rene Lenoir 1976. godine. Nešto kasnije, 1980-ih godina, pojam isključenih počinje obuhvaćati i razne skupine migranata, etničke i rasne grupe čija su prava na neki način ograničena. Takvim pristupom obuhvaćaju se i problemi vezani uz nacionalno-političku dimenziju, a zatim i prostornu dimenziju kada se u isključene počinju ubrajati i stanovnici perifernih gradskih četvrti (Šućur 1995, 223-224).

Iako su se oko definicije pojma društvene isključenosti vodile akademske rasprave (usp. Šućur 2004, 45-60), može se reći da društvena isključenost obuhvaća materijalne i nematerijalne aspekte životnoga standarda te označava nepotpuni pristup pravima građanskog statusa, koja su važna pretpostavka osiguranja zdravstvene zaštite, osnovnoga obrazovanja, materijalnoga standarda i sl. (Hrvatska enciklopedija 2021). Društveno su isključeni oni pojedinci

people to a disadvantage in the modern times when both children and the elderly can improve their social life by participating in various social platforms and by generally using the Internet. The paper will try to explain why privacy literacy is important in the 21st century society.

The International Federation of Library Association and Institutions (IFLA) is an international organization that brings together and represents library associations and societies as well as individuals. In 2015, IFLA adopted a *Statement on Privacy in the Library Environment* which contains recommendations related to library privacy. The recommendations specify the principles that should be followed in library activities when it comes to communication with the users, raising the awareness of users about the protection of personal data, and recommendations are also given on the education of librarians. *The Statement on Privacy in the Library Environment* specifies that “when libraries and information services provide access to resources, services or technology that may compromise users’ privacy, libraries should encourage users to be aware of the implications and provide guidance in data protection and privacy protection.”

2. Social exclusion and social inclusion

The problems of social or societal exclusion¹ began to emerge in the 1970s after the intense economic growth that followed World War II. The economic restructuring of the developed capitalist countries led to a recession, and in addition to the old social problems, a number of new ones emerged. As Z. Šućur (1995) explains, the term *excluded* was primarily related to France and the French-speaking world, and it included the following groups of people: the mentally retarded, disabled and socially maladapted (abused children, addicts and alcoholics, delinquents, the unemployed and the poor, psychiatric patients, marginalized, antisocial and suicidal persons). The term was first used by Rene Lenoir in 1976. Somewhat later, in the 1980s, the term *excluded* began to encompass various groups of migrants, ethnic and racial groups whose rights were in some way limited. Such an approach includes problems related to the national-political dimension, and then the spatial dimension when the excluded began to include the residents of peripheral urban neighborhoods (Šućur 1995, 223-224).

Although there have been academic debates over the definition of social exclusion (cf. Šućur 2004, 45-60), it can be said that social exclusion encompasses the material and non-material aspects of living standards and that it signifies incomplete access

¹ U radu se koristi izraz društvena umjesto socijalna isključenost i uključenost

¹ The paper uses the term social instead of societal exclusion and inclusion.

koji nisu u mogućnosti sudjelovati u normalnim aktivnostima društva zbog čimbenika koji su izvan njihove kontrole, poput nezaposlenosti, siromaštva, nedostatka osnovnih sposobnosti, diskriminacije i dr.

Koncept isključenosti povezo je materijalne i socio-psihološke aspekte životnog standarda jer biti isključen ne znači samo biti bez prihoda ili materijalnih resursa već i izgubiti svoje mjesto u društvu, odnosno naći se na margini društva ili blizu dna društva (Šućur 2004). Pojedinci tako mogu biti isključeni iz različitih područja društvenoga života: zaposlenja, obrazovanja, stanovanja, poštovanja, odlučivanja i dr. Kronauer navodi sljedeće dimenzije društvene isključenosti: isključenost iz tržišta rada, ekonomska isključenost, kulturna isključenost, društvena isključenost, prostorna isključenost, institucionalna isključenost. Važno je naglasiti da se oni koji se dobrovoljno povlače iz društva ne ubrajaju u navedene skupine. Suprotnost pojmu društvene isključenosti je društvena uključenost. Ona se odnosi na uključivanje pojedinaca u različite dimenzije društvenog života, a uključuje ekonomsku, kulturnu, socijalnu i političku participaciju pojedinca (Kronauer 1998).

Društvena uključenost može se poimati u širem smislu kao relativno nov koncept koji predstavlja osnovu za koheziju postmodernog informacijskog društva. S druge se strane društvena uključenost može shvaćati kao intervencijski model usmjeren prema društveno isključenim grupama pojedinaca (Šućur 1997). Za razliku od društvene integracije (asimilacije), koja prema nekim definicijama podrazumijeva uključivanje pojedinaca ili grupe u novu zajednicu, uključenost je proces uklapanja u šire društveno okruženje, pri čemu se zadržava određeni stupanj vlastitog identiteta. Drugim riječima, dok integracija podrazumijeva jednosmjernan proces prilagodbe pojedinca, uključenost je dvosmjerna prilagodba u kojoj se manjina prilagođava većini, ali i većina prihvaća manjinu.

3. Koncept digitalne podjele

Isključenost iz društva obuhvaća i pojedince koji u suvremenom informacijskom društvu nemaju pristup informacijsko-komunikacijskom tehnološkom sustavu. Pojam digitalna podjela izvorno koristi Lloyd Morrisett 1990-ih godina za označavanje procjepa koji dijeli ljude u dvije grupe: ljude koji koriste tehnologiju i internet (*digitalno uključeni*) i ljude koji ne koriste tehnologiju i internet (*digitalno isključeni*). Čimbenici povezani s digitalnom podjelom u ekonomski razvijenim zemljama poput Ujedinjenog Kraljevstva i SAD primarno su razmatrani kao društveno-ekonomski čimbenici (Hoffman et al. 2000). Ljudi s nižim razinama obrazovanja, kao i oni s nižim primanjima, više su izloženi riziku

to the civil status rights, which are an important prerequisite for health care, primary education, material standard, etc. (Croatian Encyclopedia 2021). Socially excluded are those individuals who are unable to participate in the normal activities of the society due to the factors beyond their control, such as unemployment, poverty, lack of basic skills, discrimination, etc.

The concept of exclusion connected the material and socio-psychological aspects of living standards because being excluded does not only mean being without income or material resources, but also losing one's place in the society, i.e. being on the margins of the society or close to the bottom of the society (Šućur 2004). Individuals can thus be excluded from different areas of social life: employment, education, housing, respect, decision-making, etc. Kronauer cites the following dimensions of social exclusion: exclusion from the labor market, economic exclusion, cultural exclusion, social exclusion, spatial exclusion, institutional exclusion. It is important to emphasize that those who voluntarily withdraw from the society do not belong to these groups. The opposite of the notion of social exclusion is social inclusion. It refers to the inclusion of individuals in different dimensions of social life, and it includes the economic, cultural, social, and political participation of the individual (Kronauer 1998).

Social inclusion can be understood in a broader sense as a relatively new concept that represents the basis for the cohesion of the postmodern information society. On the other hand, social inclusion can be understood as an intervention model directed towards the socially excluded groups of individuals (Šućur 1997). Unlike social integration (assimilation), which according to some definitions implies the inclusion of individuals or groups in a new community, inclusion is the process of fitting into the wider social environment while maintaining a certain degree of one's own identity. In other words, while integration implies a one-way process of individual adjustment, inclusion is a two-way adjustment in which the minority adapts to the majority, but the majority also accepts the minority.

3. The concept of digital divide

Exclusion from the society also includes individuals who do not have access to an information and communication technology system in the modern information society. The term *digital divide* was originally used by Lloyd Morrisett in the 1990s to denote a gap that divides people into two groups: people who use technology and the Internet (*digitally included*) and people who do not use technology and the Internet (*digitally excluded*). Factors associated with the digital divide in the economi-

digitalne isključenosti. Digitalna podjela se shvaća kao simptom trajnog problema siromaštva i nejednakosti (Servon 2002).

Neravnomjerna dostupnost i primjena novih tehnologija prati intenzivan znanstveno-tehnološki razvoj u 20. stoljeću što dovodi do nejednakosti u društvu. Generalni tajnik organizacije Ujedinjenih naroda Kofi Annan na sastanku Generalne skupštine posvećene informacijskoj i komunikacijskoj tehnologiji 2001. godine u New Yorku navodi da “usprkos iznimnim naporima razlika između onih kojima su tehnologije dostupne i onih kojima nisu – stanje poznato kao *digitalni jaz* – sve se više širi” (Dragičević 2015, 62). Nastojanja da se prevlada digitalna podjela najprije se pojavljuju u najrazvijenijim zemljama pa tako u SAD u ranim 1990-ima počinje projekt *Nacionalne informacijske infrastrukture*, zatim grupa G-7 dogovara suradnju kako bi se ostvarile zajedničke vizije o *Globalnom informacijskom društvu*, a u Europskoj uniji se osmišljava niz projekata kojima se nastoji prevladati digitalni jaz. Projektima su zajednički ciljevi među ostalima promicanje jednakih mogućnosti za građane te omogućavanje šireg pristupa informacijama i različitim uslugama i ujednačavanje informatičke pismenosti. Europska komisija 1994 donosi plan *Europe's way to information society* kojemu je cilj utvrditi utjecaj informacijskog društva na razne aspekte života građana te načine promicanja informacijskog društva jačanjem svijesti o mogućnostima i opasnostima koji ga prate. Godine 1995. Europska komisija osniva savjetodavnu organizaciju od 88 članica – *Information Society Forum*. Prvi izvještaj organizacije donosi vrlo zanimljive rezultate: uočeno je da ljudi, institucije i tvrtke nisu pripremljeni za nove tehnologije, zbog čega ne mogu iskoristiti ono što one nude pa su potrebne radikalne promjene da bi se ostvario brži gospodarski rast, zapošljavanje i bolja kvaliteta života. Osobito je istaknuta važnost permanentnog obrazovanja. Da bi informacijsko društvo postalo *društvo cjeloživotnog učenja*, izvori se obrazovanja moraju proširiti izvan tradicionalnih institucija, a pristup online javnim uslugama i informacijama mora biti opći i sveobuhvatan. Nadalje, *Digitalna agenda*, kao prvi od sedam stupova Strategije Europa 2020, kao ciljeve između ostalih donosi promicanje brzog i ultrabrzog pristupa internetu svima, jačanje online povjerenja i sigurnosti te promociju digitalne pismenosti, vještina i uključivanje (usp. Dragičević 2015, 63-67).

Kao što je ranije navedeno, kada se govori o digitalnoj podjeli, misli se na ostvaren ili neostvaren pristup informacijsko-komunikacijskim tehnologijama. To podrazumijeva pristup računalu i internetu. Uglavnom se misli i na pristup mobitelu, pametnom telefonu, ali i drugom digitalnom hardveru ili softveru. Koncept digitalne podjele odnosi se na

cally developed countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States have been primarily considered as socioeconomic factors (Hoffman et al. 2000). People with lower levels of education, as well as those with lower incomes, are more at risk of digital exclusion. The digital divide is understood as a symptom of the enduring problem of poverty and inequality (Servon 2002).

Uneven availability and application of new technologies is accompanied by intensive scientific and technological development in the 20th century, which leads to inequality in the society. The Secretary-General of the United Nations Kofi Annan said in 2001 at the Meeting of the General Assembly devoted to information and communication technologies in New York that “despite extraordinary efforts, the gap between those who have access to technology and those who do not – the state known as the *digital divide* – is widening” (Dragičević 2015, 62). The efforts to overcome the digital divide first appeared in the most developed countries. Thus, in the early 1990s, the *National Information Infrastructure* project began in the United States, followed by the G-7 who agreed to work together to achieve shared visions of the *Global Information Society*, and the European Union came up with a number of projects designed to bridge the digital divide. Some of the common goals of the projects were the promotion of equal opportunities for citizens and the provision of wider access to information and various services and the harmonization of information literacy. In 1994, the European Commission adopted the *Europe's Way to the Information Society* action plan, which aimed to determine the impact of the information society on various aspects of citizens' lives and the ways to promote the information society by raising awareness of the opportunities and dangers that accompanied it. In 1995, the European Commission established an 88-member advisory organization, the *Information Society Forum*. The organization's first report yielded very interesting results: it was observed that people, institutions and companies were not prepared for new technologies, which is why they could not take advantage of what those technologies offered, and radical changes were needed to achieve faster economic growth, greater employment and better quality of life. The importance of continuing education was particularly emphasized. For the information society to become a *society of lifelong learning*, educational resources must expand beyond traditional institutions and the access to online public services and information must be general and comprehensive. Furthermore, the *Digital Agenda*, as the first of the seven pillars of the Europe 2020 Strategy, aims to promote fast and ultra-fast Internet access for all, to strengthen online trust and security, and to promote

društvenu i informacijsku nejednakost, a prema Van Deursenu i Van Dijk, ovaj pojam često inspirira barem četiri nesporedna, odnosno krive pretpostavke. Prva je da je razlika između dvije grupe ljudi jednostavna. Druga je da je jaz između te dvije grupe nepremostiv. Treća je da pojam implicira da su razlike apsolutno nepremostive te četvrta da je digitalna podjela statično i trajno stajanje (Deursen i Dijk 2019). Autori u članku pojašnjavaju da je digitalna podjela interdisciplinarna aktivnost koja je započela oko 2000. godine, a pristupa joj se s gledišta raznih disciplina: komunikacijskih znanosti, sociologije, psihologije, ekonomije i obrazovanja.

Kao što navodi Van Dijk, komunikacijske znanosti pri tome imaju u fokusu pristup i upotrebu digitalnih medija, sociologija se bavi društvenim nejednakostima dok se informacijskom i digitalnom pismenošću bavi područje obrazovanja. Pitanje pristupa informacijsko-komunikacijskim tehnologijama zapravo podrazumijeva fizički pristup hardveru, softveru, priključku za internet. Nedugo zatim znanstvenici iz područja komunikacijskih znanosti počinju ukazivati na problematiku izvan okvira samog fizičkog pristupa, problematiku vještina potrebnih korisnicima, različitih upotreba interneta te kompleksnosti pristupa koji je utemeljen na tzv. potpunom prihvaćanju tehnologije (Dijk 2017). Prilikom ovih zaokreta u poimanju digitalne podjele Hargittai uvodi pojam "podjela druge razine" (*second-level divide*) (Hargittai 2002), dok Van Dijk uvodi pojam "produbljujuća podjela" (*deepening divide*) (Dijk 2005). Tim se pojmovima opisuje razina problematike koja nastaje nakon što se pojedincima omogući pristup tehnologiji i internetu, a odnosi se na probleme koji ne prestaju omogućavanjem pristupa i ne prekidaju digitalnu podjelu, već počinju upravo početkom upotrebe digitalnih medija u svakodnevnom životu. Do 2005. godine u akademskim se raspravama koristio deskriptivni stil koji je pojašnjavao korelaciju demografskih elemenata i pristupa tehnologiji i internetu, a nedostajalo je teorijsko utemeljenje. Razlog je ležao u pretpostavci da nedostatak pristupa vodi do društveno nepovoljnijeg položaja. Nakon 2005. znanstvenici se bave učincima pristupa i korištenja na društveno ponašanje, odnose i društvene učinke. Van Dijk pojašnjava koncept *pristupa* i u širem smislu od samog fizičkog pristupa: odnosi se na sve vrste digitalne podjele, pa i one "druge razine" koja se odnosi na čitav proces prihvaćanja određene tehnologije. Fizičkom pristupu prethodila je motivacija, stav i očekivanja od omogućavanja pristupa. Omogućavanje fizičkog pristupa tehnologiji nema smisla ako se pojedinci ne znaju njome služiti jer pristup znači i kontinuirani proces pristupanja novim softverima, hardveru, opremi i pretplatama. To znači da su vještine i kompetencije neophodne za pristup techno-

digital literacy, skills and inclusion (cf. Dragičević 2015, 63-67).

As it has been mentioned earlier, when we talk about the digital divide, we refer to the realized or unrealized access to information and communication technologies. This includes access to a computer and the Internet. It also mainly refers to the access to a mobile phone, smartphone, but also other digital hardware or software. The concept of the digital divide refers to social and information inequality, and according to Van Deursen and Van Dijk, this term often inspires at least four misunderstandings or misconceptions. The first is that the difference between the two groups of people is simple. The second is that the gap between the two groups is insurmountable. The third is that the term *digital divide* implies that the differences are absolutely insurmountable and the fourth is that the digital divide is a static and permanent state (Deursen and Dijk 2019). In the paper, the authors explain that the digital divide is an interdisciplinary activity that began around 2000 and it is approached from the perspective of various disciplines: communication sciences, sociology, psychology, economics and education.

According to Van Dijk, communication sciences focus on the access to and the use of digital media, sociology deals with social inequalities, and the field of education deals with information and digital literacy. The issue of access to information and communication technologies actually implies physical access to the hardware, software and Internet connection. Shortly afterwards, scientists in the field of communication sciences began to point out the problems outside the framework of the physical access, i.e. the problems of the skills needed by the users, of the different uses of the Internet and of the complexity of the access based on the so-called full acceptance of technology (Dijk 2017). During these shifts in the notion of the digital divide, Hargittai introduces the term *second-level divide* (Hargittai 2002), while Van Dijk introduces the term *deepening divide* (Dijk 2005). These terms describe the level of problems that arise after individuals are given access to technology and the Internet, and it refers to the problems that do not stop once access is acquired, since access does not automatically break the digital divide, and a new series of problems actually begins once the individual starts using digital media in everyday life. Until 2005, a descriptive style that clarified the correlation of demographic elements and the access to technology and the Internet was used in academic discussions, whereas a theoretical foundation was lacking. The reason laid in the assumption that the lack of access led to a socially disadvantaged position. After 2005, scientists began working on the effects of the access and use

logiji i internetu (Dijk 2017, 2). Osim prve i druge razine, uspostavlja se i treća razina digitalne podjele (*third-level divide*) (Deursen i Helsper 2015). Ona se odnosi na ishode korištenja interneta i opipljive koristi koje nastaju upotrebom interneta.

Ovakav pristup tehnologiji u komunikacijskim znanostima prema Van Dijk se temelji na raznim teorijama prihvaćanja tehnologije. U psihologiji postoje teorije poput modela prihvaćanja tehnologije i teorije planiranog ponašanja, koje se fokusiraju na motivaciju i stavove. Čim prihvaćanje prijeđe u proces donošenja odluka, koriste se teorije usvajanja poput difuzije inovacija. Značajna teorija koju razvija Van Dijk jest teorijski okvir za analizu pristupa, koji obuhvaća sljedeće konstrukte: kategoričke nejednakosti u društvu produciraju nejednaku raspodjelu resursa; nejednaka raspodjela resursa uzrokuje nejednak pristup digitalnim tehnologijama; nejednak pristup digitalnim tehnologijama također ovisi o značajkama tih tehnologija; nejednak pristup digitalnim tehnologijama donosi i nejednaku participaciju u društvu; nejednaka participacija u društvu pojačava nejednakosti i nejednaku raspodjelu izvora. Kategoričke nejednakosti dijele se na osobne (dob, spol, etnička pripadnost, inteligencija, tip ličnosti i zdravstveno stanje) i pozicijske (stanje zaposlenosti i pozicije na poslu, obrazovanje, bračni status, pripadnost razvijenoj ili nerazvijenoj zemlji) (Dijk 2017, 3-4).

4. Uloga knjižnice u digitalnoj uključenosti

Aktivnosti koje su neophodne za omogućavanje pojedincima i zajednicama da imaju pristup i da koriste informacijsko-komunikacijske tehnologije i na taj način pojedincu omogućavaju uključenost u informacijsko, digitalno društvo obuhvaća pojam digitalne uključenosti. Prema definiciji *National Digital Inclusion Alliance* digitalna uključenost okuplja pet elemenata: pristupačnu širokopojasnu uslugu interneta, uređaje s pristupom internetu koji zadovoljavaju korisnikove zahtjeve, pristup edukaciji za digitalnu pismenost, kvalitetnu tehničku podršku i aplikacije i internetski sadržaj koji su dizajnirani da omoguće i potaknu samodostatnost, sudjelovanje i suradnju (National Digital Inclusion Alliance 2021).

Literatura navodi mnoge beneficije koje proizilaze iz digitalne uključenosti. Na društvenoj i psihosocijalnoj razini digitalna uključenost pomaže ljudima da se osjećaju povezanim sa svijetom, prijateljima, obitelji i online zajednicama. Digitalna uključenost pomaže starijim osobama da stječu nove društvene kontakte i time pridonose razmjeni društvenog kapitala, poboljšavaju svoju sposobnost da budu uključeni u trenutni društveni diskurs i razmišljaju o budućnosti i napretku te da korištenjem računala i interneta budu društveno aktivni (Benett 2011).

on social behavior, relationships, and social effects. Van Dijk explains the concept of *access* in a broader sense than that of mere physical access: it refers to all types of the digital divide, including the “second level” that refers to the entire process of accepting a particular technology. The physical access was preceded by motivation, attitude and expectations from providing access. Providing physical access to technology has no sense if individuals do not know how to use it, because access also includes a continuous process of accessing new software, hardware, equipment and subscriptions. This means that skills and competencies are necessary for the access to technology and the Internet (Dijk 2017, 2). In addition to the first and second levels, a third-level divide is established (Deursen and Helsper 2015). It refers to the outcomes of using the Internet and the tangible benefits that come from using the Internet.

According to Van Dijk, this approach to technology in the communication sciences is based on various theories of technology acceptance. In psychology, there are theories such as the technology acceptance model and the theory of planned behavior that focus on motivation and attitudes. As soon as acceptance moves into the decision-making process, adoption theories such as the diffusion of innovations are used. A significant theory developed by Van Dijk is the theoretical framework for analyzing the access that encompasses the following constructs: categorical inequalities in the society produce an unequal distribution of resources; an unequal distribution of resources causes unequal access to digital technologies; unequal access to digital technologies also depends on the characteristics of those technologies; unequal access to digital technologies also brings unequal participation in the society; unequal participation in the society reinforces inequalities and the unequal distribution of resources. Categorical inequalities are divided into personal (age, gender, ethnicity, intelligence, personality type and health status) and positional (employment status and job position, education, marital status, belonging to a developed or underdeveloped country) (Dijk 2017, 3-4).

4. The role of libraries in digital inclusion

Activities that are necessary to enable individuals and communities to have access to and to use information and communication technologies, and that thus enable the individual to be included in the information and digital society are encompassed by the concept of digital inclusion. According to the definition of the National Digital Inclusion Alliance, digital inclusion brings together five elements: accessible broadband Internet service, devices with Internet access that meet user requirements, access to digital literacy education, quality technical sup-

Benett također ne vidi da korištenje IKT uzrokuje depresiju i usamljenost već upravo suprotno – potpomaže komunikaciju s obitelji i zajednicom. Prema Charlstonu na digitalnu se uključenost može gledati kao na sredstvo za osnaživanje pojedinaca kako bi mogli preobraziti svoj život i motivirati druge. Charleston sugerira da se osnaživanje postiže izgradnjom socijalnog poštovanja, društvenog kapitala, stvaranjem društvenih mreža i aktivnim sudjelovanjem u mrežnim aktivnostima ili sudjelovanjem u raspravama o zajednici ili politici. Individualno iskustvo osnaživanja povezano je sa sudjelovanjem u izradi internetskih sadržaja za razliku od uobičajenog pasivnog gledanja sadržaja na internetu (Charlston 2012).

Williams navodi da su u sklopu digitalne uključenosti, uz pristup i vještine, osnovne komponente i motivacija i povjerenje. Ljudi se također mogu osjećati osnaženo i uzbuđeno radi pristupa mnogim uslugama, informacijama i zabavnim sadržajima i zbog činjenice da imaju mogućnost pratiti svoje interese i tražiti posao online (Williams 2011).

S vremenom je, osobito u razvijenim, ali sada već i u slabije razvijenim zemljama sve postalo digitalno: plaćanje računa, komunikacija s prijateljima, rodbinom, sudionicima obrazovnog sustava, čitanje vijesti, pa čak i glasanje. Ako čovjek nije “online”, bit će mu uskraćene mnoge mogućnosti, aktivnosti i usluge (usp. Carmi i Yates 2020). Značenje je pojma digitalne uključenosti promjenjivo kao što su promjenjive i vještine, prakse i razmišljanja potrebna da bi nešto bilo “digitalno” (Jaeger et al. 2012). U znanstvenim se raspravama postavljaju pitanja koje su vještine potrebne da bi se moglo sudjelovati u digitalnom društvu, trebaju li ljudi razumjeti na koji način radi internet i trebaju li biti višestruko pismeni s obzirom na različite vrste pismenosti, kao i jesu li vrste pismenosti vezane za različite faze života.

Jedan od dva središnja izazova za knjižnice u informacijskom društvu prema Svanhild Aabo upravo je porast digitalnog jaza između onih koji imaju i onih koji nemaju pristup informacijsko-komunikacijskim tehnologijama i potrebne vještine. Aabo vidi ulogu narodnih knjižnica u jačanju građanskog statusa (*citizenship*), potpori obrazovanju, informiranju i osobnom razvoju, potpori društvene kohezije i društvenog uključivanja u digitalno doba. Društvena participacija i sudjelovanje u zajednici središnja su pitanja za društvenu uključenost, a participacija i društvena uključenost podrazumijevaju informacijsku pismenost i pristup informacijama. Budući da su knjižnice jedna od rijetkih mjesta koja povezuju pristup znanju i literaturi, kulturi i tehnologijama i smještene su u lokalnim zajednicama, one čine idealno mjesto za sastajanje u digitalnom društvu (Aabo 2005).

port, and applications and Internet content designed to enable and encourage self-sufficiency, participation and collaboration (National Digital Inclusion Alliance 2021).

Literature lists many benefits that arise from digital inclusion. At the social and psychosocial level, digital inclusion helps people feel connected to the world, friends, family, and online communities. Digital inclusion helps older people to make new social contacts and thus contribute to the exchange of social capital, to improve their ability to be involved in the current social discourse and think about the future and progress, and to be socially active by using computers and the Internet (Benett 2011). Benett also does not see that the use of ICT causes depression and loneliness, but quite the opposite – it supports communication with the family and community. According to Charlston, digital inclusion can be seen as a means of empowering individuals to transform their lives and motivate others. Charleston suggests that empowerment is achieved by building social respect, social capital, creating social networks, and actively participating in online activities or participating in discussions about the community or politics. Individual empowerment experience is associated with participation in the creation of Internet content as opposed to the usual passive viewing of content on the Internet (Charlston 2012).

Williams states that as part of digital inclusion, in addition to access and skills, the basic components are also motivation and trust. People can also feel empowered and excited because of the access to many services, information and entertainment content, and due to the fact that they have the opportunity to follow their interests and look for work online (Williams 2011).

Over time, especially in the developed, but now also in the less developed countries, everything has become digital: paying bills, communicating with friends, relatives, education system participants, reading the news and even voting. If a person is not “online”, s/he will be deprived of many opportunities, activities and services (cf. Carmi and Yates 2020). The meaning of the term *digital inclusion* is as variable as the skills, practices and thinking required to make something “digital” (Jaeger et al. 2012). Scientific discussions ask what skills are needed to participate in the digital society, whether people need to understand how the Internet works and whether people need to be multi-literate with regard to the different types of literacy and whether literacy types are related to different stages of life.

According to Svanhild Aabo, one of the two central challenges for libraries in the information society is precisely the widening of the digital divide between those who have and those who do not have access

Gorman smatra da se tehnologija može upotrijebiti za smanjivanje nejednakosti tako da informacijske usluge budu uključene u knjižnične programe (Gorman 2006, 37-38). Siromašni su između ostalog i žrtve nedovoljno financiranog javnog školstva i knjižnica i niske razine pismenosti (Gorman 2006, 81).

Smjernice za informacijsku pismenost u cjeloživotnom učenju važan su dokument u knjižničarstvu koji ističe da je za uspjeh pojedinaca, ustanova i država u sveopćem informacijskom društvu ključna strateška i afirmativna veza između informacijske pismenosti i cjeloživotnog učenja. Knjižnica prema *Smjernicama* ima važnu ulogu u institucionalnim programima informacijskog opismenjavanja. Knjižničari prema tome trebaju promicati aktivnosti vezane uz informacijsku pismenost. Kada se informacijska pismenost i cjeloživotno obrazovanje međusobno podržavaju, pozitivno utječu između ostaloga na društvene i životne izbore, dobivanje zadovoljavajućeg zaposlenja i sudjelovanje pojedinaca u društvenom, kulturnom i političkom životu zajednice (Lau 2011, 25-28).

5. Kritička informacijska pismenost u društvu 21. st.

Informacijska je pismenost višedimenzionalan fenomen za koji se ne može reći da je samo zbroj elemenata kao što su informacijska infrastruktura, pristup računalnim mrežama, računalna ili digitalna pismenost, obrazovanje, već je i pod utjecajem obrazovnih sustava, tržišta rada, informacijske politike i društvenog konteksta, pa i tradicija u knjižničarstvu (Špiranec i Banek Zorica 2008, 31). Pokušaji definiranja informacijske pismenosti započeli su 1974. kada ju je P. Zurkowski definirao kao sposobnost korištenja informacijskih izvora i alata na radnom mjestu (Zurkowski 1974). Ova se definicija smatra početnom točkom razvoja koncepta informacijske pismenosti (usp. Špiranec 2018, 4-5).

Pojava različitih definicija informacijske pismenosti potakla je znanstvenu zajednicu na rasprave koje su rezultirale stvaranjem dvije struje: dio znanstvenika tvrdi da je informacijska pismenost usmjerena na vještine, pri čemu je vrijednosno neutralna percepcija informacija koja generira ekonomski rast, a druga struja razvija obilježja tzv. kritičke informacijske pismenosti, koja je usmjerena na emancipaciju pojedinca koji tumači i vrednuje informacije u odnosu na politički i društveni milje u kojem informacije nastaju (Špiranec 2018, 5). Tako se prema Elmborgu kritička informacijska pismenost definira kao informacijska pismenost koja se fokusira "manje na prijenos informacija, a više na razvoj kritičke svijesti kod studenata" tako da oni "mogu učiti preuzimati kontrolu nad svojim životima i vlastitim učenjem kako bi postali aktivni agenti, propitujući

to information and communication technologies and the necessary skills. Aabo sees the role of public libraries in strengthening citizenship, supporting education, informing and personal development, supporting social cohesion and social inclusion in the digital age. Social participation and community participation are the central issues for social inclusion, and participation and social inclusion include information literacy and access to information. Since libraries are one of the few places that link the access to knowledge and literature, culture and technologies, and are located in local communities, they make an ideal meeting place in the digital society (Aabo 2005).

Gorman believes that technology can be used to reduce inequalities by including information services in library programs (Gorman 2006, 37-38). The poor are, among other things, victims of underfunded public education and libraries and low levels of literacy (Gorman 2006, 81).

The Guidelines on Information Literacy for Lifelong Learning are an important document in librarianship. The document emphasizes that the strategic and affirmative link between information literacy and lifelong learning is crucial for the success of individuals, institutions and states in the general information society. According to the Guidelines, the library plays an important role in institutional information literacy programs. Librarians should therefore promote information literacy activities. When information literacy and lifelong learning are mutually supportive, they positively influence, among other things, the social and life choices, the obtaining of satisfactory employment, and the participation of individuals in the social, cultural, and political life of the community (Lau 2011, 25-28).

5. Critical information literacy in the 21st century society

Information literacy is a multidimensional phenomenon that cannot be perceived as just the sum of elements such as information infrastructure, access to computer networks, computer or digital literacy, or education, but it is also influenced by education systems, the labor market, information policy and the social context, even by the traditions in librarianship (Špiranec and Banek Zorica 2008, 31). Attempts to define information literacy began in 1974 when P. Zurkowski defined it as the ability to use information resources and tools in the workplace (Zurkowski 1974). This definition is considered to be the starting point for the development of the concept of information literacy (cf. Špiranec 2018, 4-5). The emergence of various definitions of information literacy has prompted the scientific community to debate, which has resulted in the creation of two

i postavljajući pitanja koja su važna njima i svijetu oko njih” (Elmborg 2006, 192-193).

Johansson i Limberg razrađuju manifestacije kritičkih pismenosti prema dvije razine pristupa u praksi: razinu kritičkog vrednovanja i procjene te transformativnu razinu. Transformativna razina podrazumijeva osnaživanje za akciju, kritičko propitivanje u kojemu pojedinac više nije samo pasivni primatelj informacija već se potiče na aktivno stvaranje i komuniciranje informacija i sadržaja (Johansson i Limberg 2017).

U posljednjem desetljeću među raznim vrstama pismenosti artikulirala se i podatkovna pismenost (*data literacy*) s obzirom na sveprisutnu pojavu, korištenje i utjecaj podataka na društvene pojave – datafikaciju (usp. Heeks i Shekhar 2019, 992). Koltay i Prado i Marzal definirali su podatkovnu pismenost kao sposobnost razumijevanja, pronalaženja, čitanja, interpretacije, vrednovanja, upravljanja i korištenja podataka (Koltay 2017; Prado i Marzal 2013). Koltay tvrdi da postoji preklapanje između informacijske i digitalne pismenosti te se podatkovna pismenost može smatrati dijelom informacijske pismenosti, kao i logičnim nastavkom informacijske pismenosti.

U raspravi o teoriji podatkovne pismenosti Špiranec, Kos i Michael (2019) raspravljaju o pet tema vezanih za podatkovnu pismenost koje se pojavljuju u znanstvenoj literaturi. Jedna od njih opisuje podatkovnu pismenost kao etiku, te kao kritički koncept sa svrhom promocije društvene pravde i javnog dobra, razumijevanja odnosa moći i asimetrije moći, kao i smanjivanja društvenih, ekonomskih, političkih i drugih vrsta nejednakosti (Špiranec, Kos i Michael 2019, 1-3). U navedenoj raspravi autori govore o kritičkoj podatkovnoj pismenosti kao o potrazi za kritičnom demokratskom misijom i društvenom ulogom. Podatkovna pismenost se, kako navode autori, ni u jednom trenutku ne prikazuje kao puki skup vještina, već se kontekstualizira u potražnji za aktivnim sudjelovanjem građana i nadzorom etički upitnih praksi vezanih uz podatke (Špiranec, Kos i Michael 2019, 9).

Društvo 21. stoljeća prema nekim se autorima naziva “dataficirano društvo” (Carmi i Yates 2020), a prema nekima “društvo platformi” (Helm i Seubert 2019, 144). Datafikacija je spomenuta u radu, a društvo platformi kao pojam uvodi Srnicek (2017). Obilježja takvog društva su određena vrsta digitalnih infrastruktura koje povezuju korisnike i nude im alate za interakciju, a osmišljene su za prikupljanje, proizvodnju i akumulaciju podataka. Koncept platformi nadograđuje se na koncept Castellsovog informacijskog društva.

Jedan od ključnih problema ovakvog društva je ugrožena privatnost pojedinaca, pri čemu je razvidno da dosadašnji pristupi zaštiti podataka temeljeni

currents: some scientists claim that information literacy is focused on skills, with a value-neutral perception of information that generates economic growth; while some scientists develop the characteristics of the so-called critical information literacy that is aimed at the emancipation of the individual who interprets and evaluates information in relation to the political and social milieu in which the information originates (Špiranec 2018, 5). Thus, according to Elmborg, critical information literacy is defined as information literacy that focuses “less on information transfer and more on the development of critical awareness in students” so that they “can learn to take control over their lives and their own learning in order to become active agents who challenge and pose questions that are important to them and the world around them” (Elmborg 2006, 192-193).

Johansson and Limberg elaborate the manifestations of critical literacy according to two levels of approach in practice: the level of critical evaluation and assessment, and the transformative level. The transformative level implies empowerment for action, the critical questioning in which the individual is no longer just a passive recipient of information, but is encouraged to actively create and communicate information and content (Johansson and Limberg 2017).

In the last decade, data literacy has been articulated among various types of literacy with regard to its ubiquitous occurrence, use and influence of data on the social phenomena – datafication (cf. Heeks and Shekhar 2019, 992). Koltay and Prado and Marzal defined data literacy as the ability to understand, find, read, interpret, evaluate, manage, and use data (Koltay 2017; Prado and Marzal 2013). Koltay argues that there is an overlap between information and digital literacy and that data literacy can be seen as part of information literacy and a logical continuation of information literacy.

In a discussion of the data literacy theory, Špiranec, Kos and Michael (2019) discuss five topics related to data literacy emerging in the scientific literature. One of them describes data literacy as ethics, and as a critical concept with the purpose of promoting the social justice and public good, understanding the relationship of power and asymmetry of power, as well as reducing the social, economic, political, and other types of inequality (Špiranec, Kos and Michael 2019, 1-3). In the above-mentioned discussion, the authors speak of critical data literacy as a search for a critical democratic mission and social role. According to the authors, data literacy is never presented as a mere set of skills, but is contextualized in the demand for active citizen participation and the supervision of ethically questionable data-related practices (Špiranec, Kos and Michael 2019, 9).

na kontroli pristupa podacima i mogućnosti izbora u kojim uvjetima i s kim će podaci biti dijeljeni ne uzima u obzir ogromnu produkciju i obradu podataka na dnevnoj razini od strane navedenih platformi koja često nije u skladu s načelima zaštite podataka. Problem privatnosti u društvu platformi nije samo problem pojedinih zemalja nego internacionalni problem (Helm i Seubert 2019, 144-145). Korisnici platformi daju svoje podatke, pri čemu im se nudi izbor u kojoj situaciji žele dati svoje podatke i dati izjavu da pristaju na uvjete obrade podataka. Međutim, pojedinci zapravo čine izbor između toga da budu isključeni (ako ne daju podatke, neće im biti pružene usluge) i stoga marginalizirani ili da svoje podatke prodaju. Takav izbor nije istinski izbor, već je uvjetovan, a nedavanjem pristanka na obradu podataka pojavljuju se skupine isključenih ljudi.

S ciljem uključivanja ljudi u takva dataficirana društva ili društva platformi, zemlje i organizacije razvijaju različite vrste pismenosti. Ranije spomenuta podatkovna pismenost način je na koji "pojedinci mogu bolje koristiti osobne podatke koji su generirani njihovim vlastitim digitalnim praksama" (Pangrazio i Selwyn 2019). Koncept koji Pangrazio i Selwyn razvijaju fokusiran je na pet područja: identifikacija podataka, razumijevanje podataka, refleksija podataka, upotrebe podataka, taktike vezane uz podatke.

Za uključivanje ljudi u spomenuta društva platformi i dataficirana društva koristi se pojam digitalna uključenost, koja se može šire definirati kao skup različitih strategija koje omogućavaju da svi ljudi imaju pristup, mogućnosti i vještine kako bi mogli uživati beneficije digitalnih tehnologija i sustava (ITU 2019). Prema Carmi i Yates, digitalne nejednakosti koje uzrokuju, između ostalih elemenata, i razina vještina i pismenosti postale su važan dio širih trajnih problema i pitanja društvene nejednakosti i društvene pravde. Osim toga, budući da djeca i mladi učestalo koriste mobilne telefone i razne društvene servise, izloženi su većem riziku za cyber-bullying, izloženost neprikladnim sadržajima i raznim rizicima za privatnost kao što su distribucija i uređivanje osjetljivih fotografija drugih i sl. (Carmi i Yates 2020, 4-6).

Kritičku pismenost iz područja Velikih podataka (*Big data literacy*) predlaže Sander. Kritička pismenost pokušava dosegnuti iznad vještina korištenja podataka, odnosno podiže svijest o tome da sustavi poput bankarstva, zapošljavanja ili društvenih usluga dolaze sa temeljnim ekonomskim, političkim i društvenim implikacijama za pojedinca. Zato pojedinci trebaju biti upoznati s činjenicom da takvi sustavi utječu na razne sfere njihovog života te je potrebna kritička javna rasprava o podatkovnim praksama. Isto tako pojedinci trebaju moći prepoznati rizike i beneficije povezane s povećanim pri-

According to some authors, the society of the 21st century is called a "datafied society" (Carmi and Yates 2020), and according to other authors, a "platform society" (Helm and Seubert 2019, 144). Datafication was mentioned in this paper, and the platform society is introduced as a term by Srnicek (2017). The characteristics of such a society are a certain type of digital infrastructures that connect users and offer them tools for interaction, and they are designed for data collection, production and accumulation. The concept of the platform is upgraded to the concept of Castells' information society.

One of the key problems of such a society is the endangered privacy of individuals, where it is clear that previous approaches to data protection based on the control of data access and the possibility of choosing in which conditions and with whom the data will be shared do not take into account the huge production and processing of data that are often not in line with the data protection principles and are carried out on a daily basis by the mentioned platforms. The problem of privacy in a platform society is not just a problem of individual countries, but an international problem (Helm and Seubert 2019, 144-145). The users of platforms provide their data and are offered the possibility to choose in which situation they wish to provide their data and give a statement on whether they agree to the conditions of data processing. However, individuals are actually making the choice between being excluded (if they do not provide their data, they will not be provided with services) and therefore marginalized or selling their data. Such a choice is not a true choice but a conditional one, and by not giving consent to data processing, groups of excluded people emerge.

With the aim of involving people in such datafied societies or platform societies, countries and organizations develop different types of literacy. The aforementioned data literacy is a way for "individuals to make better use of personal data generated by their own digital practices." (Pangrazio and Selwyn 2019). The concept developed by Pangrazio and Selwyn is focused on five areas: data identification, data understanding, data reflection, data use, and data-related tactics.

For the inclusion of people in the above-mentioned platform societies and datafied societies, the term digital inclusion is used, which can be broadly defined as a set of different strategies that allow all people to have access, opportunities and skills so that they could benefit from the digital technologies and systems (ITU 2019). According to Carmi and Yates, the digital inequalities that are caused, among other elements, by skill levels and literacy, have become an important part of the wider enduring problems and issues of social inequality and social justice. Additionally, since children and young

kupljanjem i analitikom podataka, automatizacijom i prediktivnim sustavima i trebaju ih moći kritički razmatrati (Sander 2020, 2).

6. Važnost pismenosti iz privatnosti

Općenito, istraživanja o korisnicima interneta pokazala su da briga o privatnosti često izaziva strah od zloupotrebe osobnih podataka na internetu. Neki će korisnici zbog toga zazirati od korištenja interneta i društvenih mreža i na taj način smanjiti svoje mogućnosti za aktivno sudjelovanje u društvu (usp. Xu, Michael i Chen 2013).

Ciljana skupina za informacijsko opismenjavanje s ciljem prevladavanja digitalne podjele u knjižnicama mogu biti stariji građani, koji su u obrazovanju propustili prilike u tradicionalnom obrazovanju, zatim osobe koje su prerano napustile školovanje pa su ostale bez kvalifikacija i nezaposlene su ili imaju niska primanja, kao i djeca iz obitelji s nižim društveno-ekonomskim statusom. Upravo takve osobe imaju veću potrebu za razvijanjem vještina i cjeloživotnim učenjem (O'Loan i McMenemy 2005, 7).

Ljudi slabijih primanja prema istraživanjima imaju nižu razinu digitalne pismenosti, slabiji pristup internetu i računalima, kao i manje ljudi u svojoj okolini koje bi mogli pitati za pomoć oko tehničkih pitanja pristupa internetu (Dijk 2005). Mada se briga o privatnosti i siromašniji ljudi nisu previše povezivali u istraživanjima, ipak jedno istraživanje, koje su proveli Vitak et al., donosi rezultat da se ljudi niskog društveno-ekonomskog statusa suočavaju s nizom rizika za privatnost i informacijsku sigurnost te mnogi od njih nemaju povjerenja da će razne tvrtke i online stranice čuvati njihove osobne podatke (Vitak et al. 2018). Oni će zazirati od ostavljanja svojih podataka zbog neznanja o mogućim postavkama privatnosti u online okružju koje je moguće kontrolirati. U današnje vrijeme, kada se mnogo poslova može naći preko interneta, i to na način da tražitelji posla trebaju ispunjavati razne obrasce upravo na internetu, to će značiti da ljudi niskog društveno-ekonomskog statusa neće iskoristiti mnoge prilike (Wu, Vitak i Zimmer 2020, 487).

Ne treba zaboraviti niti opasnosti po privatnost za djecu i maloljetnike. Njihovo učestalo služenje internetom i društvenim mrežama nosi sa sobom određene rizike kojih često nisu svjesni i mogu im naškoditi u budućnosti budući da su skloni neoprezno dijeliti sadržaje, fotografije i svoje osobne podatke, kao i mišljenja na društvenim mrežama. Nedostatak opreza u djece može izazvati dugoročne posljedice za njihovu osobnost pa i isključenost iz važnih aktivnosti, što ćemo obrazložiti u daljnjem tekstu.

Livingstone et al. navode tri dimenzije dječje privatnosti u online okruženju: interpersonalnu (kako se podaci stvaraju, kako im se pristupa i kako se multi-

people frequently use mobile phones and various social services, they are at a greater risk for cyberbullying, exposure to inappropriate content and various privacy risks such as the distribution and editing of sensitive photos of others, etc. (Carmi and Yates 2020, 4-6).

Big data literacy is suggested by Sander. Critical literacy seeks to reach beyond data use skills, i.e. it raises awareness that the systems such as banking, employment, or social services come with fundamental economic, political, and social implications for the individual. Therefore, individuals need to be made aware of the fact that such systems affect various spheres of their lives, and a critical public debate on data practices is needed. Moreover, individuals should also be able to recognize the risks and benefits associated with increased data collection and analysis, automation, and predictive systems, and they should be able to critically consider them (Sander 2020, 2).

6. The importance of privacy literacy

Research on Internet users has generally shown that concerns about privacy often raise fears of misuse of personal information on the Internet. Some users will therefore shy away from using the Internet and social networks and thus reduce their opportunities for active participation in the society (cf. Xu, Michael and Chen 2013).

The target group for achieving information literacy in libraries with the aim of overcoming the digital divide can be senior citizens who missed educational opportunities in traditional education, then people who left school too early and lost their qualifications and are hence unemployed or have low incomes, as well as children from families with a lower socio-economic status. It is precisely such individuals who have a greater need for the development of skills and lifelong learning (O'Loan and McMenemy 2005, 7).

According to research, people with lower incomes have lower levels of digital literacy, poorer access to the Internet and computers, and fewer people in their environment whom they could ask for help when it comes to the technical issues of Internet access (Dijk 2005). Although the link between privacy concerns and poorer people has not been too closely connected in research, one study conducted by Vitak et al. brings the result that people with a low socio-economic status face a number of risks to privacy and information security, and many of them do not trust that various companies and online sites will store their personal data (Vitak et al. 2018). They will be reluctant to leave their data due to the ignorance of possible privacy settings in an online environment that can be controlled. Nowadays,

pliciraju u online društvenim vezama), institucijsku (kako državna i javna tijela prikupljaju i obrađuju osobne podatke) i komercijalnu (kako se osobni podaci prikupljaju za poslovne i marketinške svrhe) (Livingstone et al. 2018, 12-15). Istraživanje je pokazalo da razlike među djecom (razvojne, društveno-ekonomske, vezane uz vještine, rodne ili razlike u razinama ranjivosti) mogu utjecati na angažman djece u online privatnosti (Livingstone et al. 2018, 4). Istraživanje donosi zanimljive uvide u ponašanje djece u Velikoj Britaniji gdje s oko 11 godina djeca prelaze iz lokalnih manjih škola u veće škole. Upravo u toj fazi života djeca su pod pritiskom želje za uklapanjem u novi društveni kontekst online i offline. Tako će zbog društvenih i institucijskih razloga (više nego kognitivnih) pristupiti novim aplikacijama i uslugama i time davati svoje osobne podatke. Isto tako će i djeca s poteškoćama u razvoju ili s invaliditetom nailaziti na pritiske pridruživanja na društvene mreže i sl., mada možda nisu prešli dobnu granicu za samostalno korištenje tih mreža i usluga. Tek u kasnijoj dobi, odnosno s više navršenih godina, razumijevanje privatnosti postaje kompleksnije, a želja za privatnošću se povećava. Privatnost je od vitalnog značaja za razvoj djeteta – ključne vještine pismenosti vezane uz privatnost usko su povezane s nizom razvojnih područja djeteta kao što su autonomija, identitet, intimnost, odgovornost, povjerenje, pro društveno ponašanje, prilagodljivost, kritičko razmišljanje i seksualnost (Livingstone et al. 2018, 17).

Povezanost društveno-ekonomske nejednakosti s privatnošću nije dovoljno istražena, ali prema nekim se postojećim istraživanjima pretpostavlja da posjedovanje uređaja za spajanje na internet i praksa roditelja mogu izazvati nepovoljniji položaj za neku djecu. Djeca iz obitelji bivšeg društveno-ekonomskog statusa rjeđe imaju javni profil na društvenim mrežama i rjeđe dijele svoje podatke poput broja telefona ili adrese. Tinejdžeri (12 – 17 godina) čiji su roditelji višeg stupnja obrazovanja pokazuju veću brigu o privatnosti – češće će postavke prilagoditi da profil bude privatniji u cjelini ili djelomično. S druge strane, mladi (14 – 19 godina) iz obitelji nižeg društveno-ekonomskog statusa češće žele kontrolirati tko ima pristup njihovim podacima i u kojem kontekstu, no zbog situacije moraju dijeliti uređaje s drugima pa su izloženi većem riziku za privatnost. Isto tako, istraživanja pokazuju da su osobe nižeg društveno-ekonomskog statusa češća meta za nadzor kroz razne obaveze i aktivnosti (Livingstone et al. 2018, 26-27).

Osobni podaci koje djeca ostavljaju prilikom neke aktivnosti na internetu "prate" pojedince tijekom cijelog života jer digitalni otisci mogu ostati trajno zabilježeni. Iz tog razloga pristup osobnim podacima može rezultirati budućom diskriminacijom i lošijim

when many jobs can be found on the Internet in a way that job seekers need to fill out various forms on the Internet, this will mean that people of a low socio-economic status will not take advantage of many opportunities (Wu, Vitak and Zimmer 2020, 487).

The dangers to the privacy of children and minors should not be forgotten either. Their frequent use of the Internet and social networks carries with it certain risks that they are often unaware of and that may harm them in the future as they tend to carelessly share content, photos, their personal information and opinions on social networks. The lack of caution in children can cause long-term consequences for their personality and even exclusion from important activities, which we will explain below.

Livingstone et al. specify three dimensions of children's privacy in the online environment: interpersonal (how data are created, how it is accessed and how it is multiplied in online social connections), institutional (how state and public bodies collect and process personal data) and commercial (how personal data are collected for business and marketing purposes) (Livingstone et al. 2018, 12-15). Research has shown that the differences among children (developmental, socio-economic, skills-related, gender, or the differences in vulnerability levels) can affect children's engagement in online privacy (Livingstone et al. 2018, 4). The research brings interesting insights into the behavior of children in the UK where at around 11 years old, children move from smaller local schools to larger schools. It is at this stage of life that children are under the pressure of wanting to fit into a new social context both online and offline. Thus, for social and institutional reasons (more than cognitive reasons), they will access new applications and services and thus provide their personal data. Furthermore, children with developmental difficulties or disabilities will also face the pressure to join social networks and similar sites, although they may not have exceeded the age limit for the independent use of these networks and services. Only at a later age, i.e. with more years of age, the understanding of privacy becomes more complex and the desire for privacy increases. Privacy is vital for a child's development – key privacy literacy skills are closely linked to a range of child development areas such as autonomy, identity, intimacy, responsibility, trust, pro-social behavior, adaptability, critical thinking and sexuality (Livingstone et al. 2018, 17).

The link between socio-economic inequality and privacy has not been sufficiently explored, but some existing research suggests that owning an Internet connection device and parenting practices may cause a disadvantage for some children. Children from families of a higher socio-economic status

odnosom, primjerice vezano za obrazovanje pojedinca, zapošljavanje, kreditne sposobnosti ili prilike za osiguranje. Djecu treba osposobiti da mogu samostalno odlučivati o učinkovitoj zaštiti u mrežnom okruženju kako bi dobila potrebna iskustva za snalaženje u neočekivanim i neželjenim situacijama i da uče iz pogrešaka (Livingstone et al. 2018, 34).

Jedna od pismenosti koja se pojavljuje u novije vrijeme jest pismenost iz privatnosti (*privacy literacy*), čiji je konceptualni okvir osmislila Dana Rotman 2009. godine, s obzirom na to da informacijska privatnost dobiva na značaju u vrijeme kada interakcija prelazi iz fizičke u online. Prema Rotman (2009) informacija koja se dijeli pri online interakciji oblikuje način na koji je identitet korisnika mreže oblikovan, preoblikovan i rafiniran. Takva informacija može se podijeliti u tri kategorije: samoidentificirajuća informacija (npr. podatak o zdravlju ili financijama), informacija koja omogućava pristup (npr. lozinka, lokacija) i ekspresivna informacija (mišljenja, pogledi i izbor životnog stila). Sposobnost korisnika da svjesno odabere koju će informaciju podijeliti, a koju ostaviti privatnom temelj je za njegovo samoupravljanje i autonomiju. Društvene mreže i blogovi često stvaraju određenu vrstu intimnog okruženja u kojemu korisnici razmjenjuju iskustva, mišljenja i sl., a poduprte su tehnologijama koje omogućavaju prikupljanje i čuvanje ogromnih količina podataka, i to često trajno. Kombinacija osjećaja intimnosti i masovne pohrane podataka predstavlja razloge za brigu i rizike za korisnike. Istraživanja koje Rotman navodi pokazala su da korisnici uglavnom nisu ni svjesni da se ti podaci pohranjuju, trajno čuvaju i da se mogu zloupotrebjavati, od krađe identiteta do cyber-bullyinga (Rotman 2009).

Rotman postavlja okvir pismenosti iz privatnosti koji se sastoji od pet međusobno nadopunjujućih elemenata: 1) razumijevanje, 2) prepoznavanje, 3) shvaćanje, 4) procjena i 5) odlučivanje. Elementi obuhvaćaju razumijevanje različitih kategorija informacija, prepoznavanje interakcija na društvenim mrežama kao mjesta za potencijalne prijetnje privatnosti, shvaćanje mogućih ishoda otkrivanja informacije na društvenim mrežama, procjenu mogućih rizika s obzirom na to da informacija može biti dugotrajno objavljena i dalekosežna te donošenje odluke hoće li se neka informacija podijeliti i u kojim situacijama.

Iako Rotman postavlja ishodište za pismenost iz privatnosti u digitalnoj pismenosti,² elementi razumijevanja, shvaćanja, procjene i odlučivanja upućuju na kritičku komponentu informacijske pismenosti što navodi na trag utemeljenja upravo u kritičkoj

are less likely to have a public profile on social networks and are less likely to share their personal data such as a phone number or address. Teenagers (12–17 years old) whose parents have a higher level of education show greater concern for privacy – more often the settings will be adjusted so that the profile is made private in whole or in part. On the other hand, young people (14–19 years old) from families of a lower socio-economic status want to control more often who has the access to their data and in what context, but due to the situation, they have to share devices with others and are at a greater risk for a breach of privacy. Furthermore, research also shows that people of a lower socio-economic status are more common targets for supervision through a variety of obligations and activities (Livingstone et al. 2018, 26-27).

The personal data that children share during an online activity “follow” individuals throughout their lives because digital fingerprints can remain permanently recorded. For this reason, access to personal data may result in future discrimination and worse treatment, for example in relation to an individual’s education, employment, creditworthiness or insurance opportunities. Children need to be empowered to make independent decisions about effective protection in a network environment in order to gain the necessary experience to cope with unexpected and unwanted situations and to learn from their mistakes (Livingstone et al. 2018, 34).

One type of literacy that has been emerging in recent times is privacy literacy, whose conceptual framework was devised by Dana Rotman in 2009 since information privacy began gaining importance at a time when interaction transitioned from physical to online. According to Rotman (2009), the information shared in online interaction shapes the way a network user’s identity is shaped, reshaped, and refined. Such information can be divided into three categories: self-identifying information (e.g. health or financial information), access-providing information (e.g. password, location), and expressive information (opinions, views, and lifestyle choices). The ability of the user to consciously choose which information to share and which to leave private is the foundation for his or her self-management and autonomy. Social networks and blogs often create a kind of intimate environment in which users share experiences, opinions, etc., and they are supported by technologies that allow the collection and storage of huge amounts of data, often permanently. The combination of a sense of intimacy and mass storage of data presents reasons for user concern and risks. The research cited by Rotman has shown that users are generally unaware that the data are saved, i.e. permanently stored, and that they can be misused, from identity theft to cyber-bullying (Rotman 2009).

² Digitalna se pismenost može definirati kao skup stavova, vjerovanja i vještina potrebnih za učinkovito pronalaženje, komunikaciju i upotrebu informacija u svim medijima i formatima (Bawden i Robinson 2012, 288).

informativnoj pismenosti, konkretno podatkovnoj pismenosti.

Wissinger u sklopu istraživanja uloge knjižničara u osiguranju opismenjenosti iz područja privatnosti za zdravstvene djelatnike navodi nekoliko definicija pismenosti iz privatnosti (Wissinger 2017). Jedna definicija kaže da ovaj pojam obuhvaća razumijevanje koje korisnici imaju o informacijskom okruženju s kojim imaju interakciju i njihove odgovornosti u tom okruženju (Langenderfer i Miyazaki 2009). Druga definicija pojam definira kao razinu razumijevanja i svijesti o načinu na koji se informacija prati i koristi u online okruženjima i kako ta informacija može zadržati ili izgubiti privatnu prirodu (Givens 2015). Wissinger zaključuje da obje definicije naglašavaju ideju pismenosti iz privatnosti kao kognitivno iskustvo ili misaoni proces koji se događa tijekom dijeljenja informacija.

Za razliku od digitalne pismenosti koja se fokusira na upotrebu informacija s obzirom na zadatke u digitalnom okruženju, pismenost iz privatnosti se fokusira na odgovornosti i rizike vezane uz dijeljenje informacija u online okruženju (Wissinger 2017).

U navedenom istraživanju Wissinger na temelju dokumenata Američkog knjižničarskog društva navodi kako knjižničari imaju etičku obvezu poučavati korisnike o pitanjima privatnosti, bilo online ili offline, te navodi primjere američkih projekata koji se provode u knjižnicama. Projekti poput *Library Freedom Project* i *Data Privacy Project* namijenjeni su knjižničarima s ciljem omogućavanja pristupa obrazovnim materijalima na temelju kojih knjižničari mogu izvoditi edukativne programe za korisnike pa su svi materijali dostupni na web stranicama projekata. *Library Freedom Project* je suradnička grupa knjižničara, specijalista za tehnologiju i pravnika u kojoj se razmjenjuju ideje vezane uz pitanja nadzora i intelektualne slobode.

Predstavljanje svog identiteta, mišljenja i stavova na društvenim mrežama može biti izvor rizika za reputaciju prilikom nalaženja posla u bilo kojoj struci. Isto tako, nepažnja u komunikaciji na društvenim mrežama, ali i prilikom korištenja interneta, može dovesti do ozbiljnih posljedica za pojedince koji nisu osviješteni o rizicima. Općenito, Solove je izradio taksonomiju rizika za privatnost, pri čemu je podijelio ugroze na eksterne i interne, i to u četiri kategorije aktivnosti koje sadrže određene ugroze za privatnost: prikupljanje informacija, obrada informacija, diseminacija i invazivne aktivnosti. Ove četiri kategorije obuhvaćaju aktivnosti poput nadzora, agregacije podataka, identifikacije, ponovne upotrebe podataka, povrede povjerljivosti, otkrivanja podataka, ucjene itd. (Solove 2006, 477).

Uz rizike za ugrožavanje slike o sebi, na društvenim mrežama postoje i rizici prilikom korištenja računala u knjižnicama za korisnike koji kod kuće nemaju

Rotman sets up a privacy literacy framework that consists of five complementary elements: 1) understanding, 2) recognizing, 3) realizing, 4) evaluating, and 5) deciding. The elements include understanding different categories of information, recognizing interactions on social networks as places for potential privacy threats, realizing the possible outcomes of disclosing information on social networks, evaluating potential risks since information can be long-term stored and far-reaching, and deciding whether to share information and in which situations.

Although Rotman sets the starting point for privacy literacy in digital literacy,² the elements of understanding, realizing, evaluating, and deciding point to a critical component of information literacy, suggesting a foundation in critical information literacy, specifically in data literacy.

As part of the research on the role of librarians in ensuring privacy literacy for health professionals, Wissinger cites several definitions of privacy literacy (Wissinger 2017). One definition says that the term encompasses the understanding that the users have of the information environment with which they interact and their responsibilities in that environment (Langenderfer and Miyazaki 2009). The second definition defines the term as the level of understanding and awareness of how information is monitored and used in online environments and how that information may retain or lose its private nature (Givens 2015). Wissinger concludes that both definitions emphasize the idea of privacy literacy as a cognitive experience or thought process that occurs during information sharing.

Unlike digital literacy, which focuses on the use of information with respect to tasks in the digital environment, privacy literacy focuses on the responsibilities and risks associated with information sharing in the online environment (Wissinger 2017).

In the aforementioned research, Wissinger, based on the documents from the American Library Association, states that librarians have an ethical obligation to teach users about privacy issues, either online or offline, and cites examples of American projects implemented in libraries. The projects such as the *Library Freedom Project* and the *Data Privacy Project* are intended for librarians with the aim of providing access to educational materials on the basis of which librarians can run educational programs for users. Hence, all materials are available on the project website. The *Library Freedom Project* is a collaborative group of librarians, technology specialists and lawyers in which ideas related to the issues of supervision and intellectual freedom are exchanged.

² Digital literacy can be defined as a set of attitudes, beliefs and skills needed to effectively find communication and use information in all media and formats (Bawden and Robinson 2012, 288).

računalo ili pristup internetu. Tako može doći do raznih rizika, poput nenamjernog ostavljanja osjetljivih podataka (zdravstvenih podataka ili podataka vezanih uz korištenje socijalne pomoći) na računalo koje će nakon toga koristiti drugi korisnici, osobnih podataka o maloljetnicima, povijest pregledavanja internetskih sadržaja, ostavljanje otključanih profila na društvenim mrežama, ostavljanje osobnih podataka na dokumentima ispisanim na pisaču za korisnike itd.

Ulogu pismenosti iz privatnosti u traženju posla Wissinger istražuje nad zdravstvenim djelatnicima te pronalazi visoku važnost u prezentiranju privatnog i profesionalnog identiteta zdravstvenih djelatnika. Naime, ukoliko su privatne i profesionalne fotografije zdravstvenih djelatnika predstavljene na internetu u konfliktu, to može dovesti do uništavanja reputacije i čak uništavanja karijere. Wissinger predlaže da se okvir pismenosti iz privatnosti uvede u poduku studenata iz područja zdravstva od strane knjižničara, a pri osmišljavanju takvog programa mogu se poslužiti okvirima koje o takvoj pismenosti pružaju u okviru zdravstvenih organizacija putem čijih se društvenih mreža djelatnici prezentiraju javnosti.

Budući da je za očekivati da knjižnični korisnici često neće čitati razne izjave o privatnosti korporacija i web stranica ili pak obavijesti vezane uz *kolačiće* prilikom posjeta web stranicama, dobra je praksa u knjižnicama imati edukativne materijale na vidljivom mjestu (poput edukativnih postera) o zaštiti osobnih podataka. Korisnicima treba napomenuti da su njihovi osobni podaci potencijalno vrijedni za neke korporacije i da im ih ne trebaju bezbrižno prepuštati te da trebaju preispitati razloge ako web stranice zahtijevaju osobne podatke (McMenemy i Burton 2005, 32-33).

7. Zaključak

U radu se prikazalo kako su ljudi s nižim razinama obrazovanja, kao i oni s nižim primanjima, više izloženi riziku digitalne isključenosti, a pomoć u izlazu iz takvog problema može se naći u opismenjavanju iz područja privatnosti.

Koncept pristupa internetu i informacijama odnosi se na sve vrste digitalne podjele. Osim fizičkog pristupa kojemu prethodi motivacija, stav i očekivanja od omogućivanja pristupa jednako su važne vještine i kompetencije za korištenje tehnologije i interneta. Posjedovanje vještina, konkretnije što veće razine pismenosti iz privatnosti, povećava mogućnosti za digitalnu uključenost, a knjižnice mogu aktivno sudjelovati u opismenjavanju. Digitalna uključenost pomaže da se ljudi povežu s prijateljima, obitelji i online zajednicama koje dijele određene interese. Pomaže starijima da budu društveno aktivniji, a dje-

Sharing your identity, opinions and attitudes on social networks can be a source of risk to your reputation and prestige when finding a job in any profession. Likewise, carelessness in communicating on social networks, but also when using the Internet, can lead to serious consequences for individuals who are not aware of the risks. In general, Solove developed a privacy risk taxonomy by dividing threats into external and internal. He divided them into four categories of activities that contain specific privacy threats: information gathering, information processing, dissemination, and invasive activities. These four categories include activities such as supervision, data aggregation, identification, data reuse, confidentiality breaches, data disclosure, blackmail, etc. (Solove 2006, 477).

In addition to the risks of compromising one's self-image on social networks, there are also risks when using computers in libraries for the users who do not have a computer or Internet access at home. This can lead to various risks such as inadvertently leaving sensitive data (health or welfare data) on the computer that will then be used by other users, personal data on minors, browsing history, leaving unlocked profiles on social networks, leaving personal data on documents printed on the printer for users, etc.

Wissinger explores the role of privacy literacy in searching for a job in the healthcare profession and deduces that the presentation of the private and professional identities of healthcare professionals is of high importance. Namely, if the private and professional photos of health professionals presented on the Internet are in conflict, it can lead to the destruction of reputation and even to career destruction. Wissinger suggests that a privacy literacy framework that would be carried out by librarians be implemented in the teaching of health students. In designing such a program, librarians could use the framework provided about such literacy within the health organizations through whose social networks the employees present themselves to the public.

Since library users are often expected not to read various corporate and website privacy statements or cookie notifications when visiting websites, it is good practice for libraries to have educational materials on personal data protection in a visible place (such as educational posters). Users should be reminded that their personal data are potentially valuable to some corporations and should not be given to them carelessly, and that they should reconsider the reasons if websites require personal data (McMenemy and Burton 2005, 32-33).

7. Conclusion

The paper has shown that people with lower levels of education, as well as those with lower incomes,

ci da se povežu sa svojim vršnjacima. Pronalaženje posla preko interneta u 21. st. olakšat će poznavanje tokova osobnih podataka i rizika dijeljenja, ali i načina zaštite privatnosti.

Knjižnica je prepoznata kao mjesto koje ima važnu ulogu u opismenjavanju pojedinaca nižeg društveno-ekonomskog statusa. Ona djeluje kao potpora obrazovanju, informiranju i osobnom razvoju pojedinaca u svojoj zajednici.

are more at risk of digital exclusion, while help in getting out of such a problem can be found in privacy literacy.

The concept of the access to the Internet and information applies to all types of the digital divide. In addition to the physical access which is preceded by motivation, attitude, and expectations from being granted that access, the skills and competencies for using technology and the Internet are equally important. The possession of skills, or more specifically having a high level of privacy literacy, increases opportunities for digital inclusion, and libraries can actively participate in privacy literacy. Digital inclusion helps people connect with friends, family and online communities that share certain interests. It helps the elderly to be more socially active and the children to connect with their peers. Finding a job online in the 21st century is made easier by understanding the flow of personal data and the risks of sharing, but also by knowing how to protect privacy.

The library is recognized as a place that plays an important role in the literacy of the individuals of a lower socio-economic status. It acts as a support to the education, informing and personal development of individuals in the community.

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