At the latest since the historical analysis of Habermas (1962) about the “Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere” it is known that besides social and political changes also changes of media technologies contribute to the differentiation of the public sphere. Therefore it is clear from an empirical point of view that with the widespread introduction of the Internet the public sphere might face further transformations. In earlier stages of Internet research, various scholars formulated optimistic as well as pessimistic positions towards the interconnections between Internet technology and the political public sphere. The enthusiasts spelled interactivity and decentrality as the magic formula for a more democratic public sphere whereas sceptic positions pointed to potential dysfunctions such as the enforcement of existing power relations, increased control or fragmentation.¹ Current research has left the ground of pure normative presumptions and engages in empirical studies. Several studies analyse the qualitative characteristics of online publics in comparison to publics mediated by mass media; in most of the cases, print media publics are compared with online publics. The empirical findings range from more pluralistic to less pluralistic depictions concerning the actors involved and the issues negotiated. For instance, using the example of the issue of human genomic research, Gerhards and Schäfer compare the coverage in two German nationwide newspapers (Süddeutsche Zeitung and Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung) with the online coverage in three search engines (Google, Yahoo, Fireball). Concerning the levels of issues and actors, the findings of their content analysis show that the net does not offer a more democratic, or egalitarian public space than print media; online communication even tends to be more one-sided and less pluralistic than communication in print media (Gerhards/Schäfer 2007: 224). By contrast, a more extensive study conducted by Zimmermann (2006) reveals that indeed the Internet offers better chances of being ‘heard’ for civil society actors. But still, due to steering mechanisms of attention such as search engines, governmental actors remain at the centre of public attention on the net as well. Zimmerman’s comparison of online

¹ For an overview see Donges (2000: 258ff.) for instance.
coverage in two search engines (Google, Fireball) with the coverage in two German national newspapers (Süddeutsche Zeitung, Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung) concerning seven policy fields draws the conclusion that political power relations are also structurally expressed in online publics (ibid: 31).

Similarly, research on the use of digital technology by civil society actors has recently attained the common position that virtual spaces neither provide a silver bullet for non-institutionalised actors nor entail a fragmentation of civil society into countless activist groups and counter-publics. Instead, a conjunction of online and offline structures is assumed as for example della Porta and Mosca (2005) constitute in the context of their evaluation of the use of computer mediated communication by the movement for global justice: “There is no sign that offline and online environments as alternative to each other. Since they are more and more integrated and overlapping, human activities such as protest also take place in both environments.” (ibid: 186) Comparably, Hamm (2006) introduces the term of “hybrid space of communication” in respect to the extension of street-based protest through the adoption of media techniques especially in the shape of Internet platforms like Indymedia or the Independent Media Centers. For Hamm, the linkage of online and offline practices contributes to the affective and material occupation of virtual and physical spaces and provides new scope for political action and social movements’ protest. Moreover, Surman and Reilly (2003) refer to the conjunction of online and offline spheres in terms of market-oriented protest:

“[…] successful mobilization in the Internet era does not mean the abandonment of offline protest and campaigns. In fact, there has been a close relationship between the Internet and the mass anti-corporate protests we have seen in recent years. From Seattle to Genoa to Cancun, networked technologies have played a key role in mobilization. […] The simplistic portrayal of such protests as ‘street protests’ by the media, belie their true nature: a complex conglomerate of offline and online protest.” (ibid: 42)

Furthermore, an in-depth analysis of three Anti-Corporate Campaigns launched in Germany in the 1960s, 1990s and the first decade of the 21st century arrived at the conclusion that in the course of changing media landscapes protest actors modify their media strategies: While the “Anti-Springer Campaign” (1967) by the German student movement primarily targeted counter-publics in the form of street protests and pamphlets, the “Brent-Spar Campaign” (1995) launched by Greenpeace aimed at mass media coverage, especially at TV-coverage. The most recent campaign, “Lidl ist nicht zu billigen” (“Not to approve: Lidl”) (2005/6) by Attac, employs a mixed strategy and illustrates a certain counter-trend to the increasing

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2 The adjective ‘billig’ (cheap) is hidden in the German verb ‘billigen’ (to approve). Therefore, Attac uses this play of words intentionally to symbolise the campaign’s main message comprising that dumping policies of discounters lead to the decrease of social welfare forms (Attac 2006).
centralisation and orientation towards spectacle of political protest until the 1990s. While the presence on the web plays an important role for the decentralisation of the Attac campaign, the campaign also exhibits tensions as it tries to manage the balancing act between bottom-up protest and consistent, concise media address (Baringhorst et al. 2007).

Against the backdrop of the sketchy picture drawn above, it becomes clear that there is no coherent line between offline and online realms as 1. the structures of political public spaces are claimed to be quite similar in online and offline spaces when it comes to mechanisms of public attention, 2. civil society actors try to deploy social practices of political protest online as well as offline at the same time, and 3., related to the latter, online campaign publics are no pure alternative spaces in the sense of a counter-public but may feature various references to offline mass media publics. Taking these considerations as a starting point, the aim of this paper is to go beyond dichotomised accounts of online and offline publics and to set out a more dialectical analysis, embracing online-/offline interconnectivity with the example of Anti-Corporate Campaigns. The need for further research in this field is exemplarily stressed by Schönberger (2005): “Social movements increasingly detect a practice which connects political and social action in online and offline realms. The result is a considerable need for research […]” (ibid: 3, translation V.K.). ³ Hence, the aim of this article is to further elaborate the idea of the public sphere as a ‘public of publics’ towards a notion of public sphere which emphasises the interrelations 1. between virtual and physical spaces of public communication as well as 2. between diverse publics such as campaign publics and (mass) media publics.

The development of a networked space of public communication, which can be characterised as rather multiplex than as unified is not only a linked to the development of new media technologies such as the Internet but is also connected to the end of “the old dominance of state-structured and territorially public life mediated by radio, television, newspapers and books” (Keane 2000: 76) as well as to processes of transnationalisation of public political communication. Therefore, in general terms, the concept of the public sphere increasingly faces the challenges of grasping differently sized, overlapping and interconnected publics. Concerning the Internet, Bohman (2004; 2007) introduces the notion ‘public of publics’ which suggests that a network character can be attributed to the public sphere: “[A]s a public of publics, it permits a decentered public sphere with many different levels” (2007: 76) and embraces normative features of publicity and responsivity (ibid: 75). Starting from these considerations and going beyond the Internet, we want to stress the fundamental significance

³ “Die sozialen Bewegungen finden zunehmend eine Praxis, in der politisches und soziales Online- und Offline-Handeln verknüpft sind. Daraus resultiert ein erheblicher Forschungsbedarf […].”
of inter-public linkages as structural conditions for both the normative features and the form of public sphere. While online publics can be characterised as encounter publics on the micro level or as issue publics on the meso level, they do not establish a networked, distributive public sphere on their own, but through their linkages, the connections they develop to the public located on micro, meso and/or macro level. Hence, these linkages are essential for the network character of the public sphere. Moreover, the permeability between the different publics is constitutive for the character of publicity as Bohman’s claim of “expanding dialogue” (2004) can be also understood as means of expanding the communicative interactions beyond the Internet in order to enable citizens “to become a participant in a public sphere embedded in other public spheres” (2007: 78). Therefore, we argue that in the age of digital communication technology and denationalised spaces of communicative action it might be fruitful for the conception of public sphere to overcome the binary codes of the virtual and the physical, and to dwell on the so called online/offline-interconnectivity. In doing so, we do not consider online structures per se as public political communication. Again we argue in line with Bohman that “for the Internet to create a new form of publicity beyond the mere aggregate of all its users, it must first be constituted as a public sphere by those people whose interactions exhibit the features of dialogue and who are concerned with its publicity” (ibid). Bohman particularly sees potential in civil society organisations concerning their capability to ensure responsibility for publicity on the net:

“[t]hey have organizational identities so that they are no longer anonymous. They also take over the responsibility for responsiveness that remains indeterminate in many-to-many communication. Most of all they employ the Internet users; they create their own spaces, promote interactions, conduct deliberations, make information available, and so on.” (ibid: 80)

As Anti-Corporate Campaigns are usually conducted by civil society organisations, they seem to be a suitable research object for the analysis of inter-public linkages. The empirical findings presented in the following are based on the research project ‘Changing Protest and Media Cultures’ at the University of Siegen. Following a short outline of characteristic

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4 Here we refer to the notion introduced by Foot and Schneider (2006: 18) who “[…] conceptualize an online structure as a set of features, links, and texts that provide user opportunities to associate and to act. An individual Web site can constitute an online structure, as can a set of features, links, and texts within a site, as well as a co-produced set than spans multiple sites” and they ,[…] contend that campaigns’ act of making on the Web reflect the electoral [resp. protest, J.N.] arena, existing organizational structures, and prior practices, and result in particular organizational and online structures“ (ibid).

5 Only six percent of all campaigns in the sample are run by individuals.

6 It should be pointed out that we concentrate on the inter-public linkages themselves and neglect the question if and how public political communication is linked to political institutions which are able to formulate and implement positive law.

7 www.protest-cultures.uni-siegen.de.
aspects of Anti-Corporate Campaigns and the exploration of methods and research design, the relationships between online and offline structures, campaign publics, and mass media publics shaping anti-corporate protest will be portrayed in more detail.

**Anti-Corporate Campaigns – protest within the market-sphere**

Against the backdrop of the economic globalisation and the increasing power of multinational corporations, Anti-Corporate Campaigns aim for a shift of consumers’ attitudes and behaviour towards a more societal responsible usage of consumer power by so-called ‘consumer citizens’. They target single corporations and/or industries and thus concentrate their critique on the ‘Corporate Globalisation’.\(^8\) Employing various strategies, reaching from confrontational to cooperative communicative action, these civil society campaigns are launched in order to scandalise the negative effects of the economic globalisation such as inadequate labour conditions or environmental pollution and call for alternative solutions. In conjunction with the question of global governance, Anti-Corporate Campaigns can be regarded as attempts by actors of the civil society to fill the ‘political vacuum’ evoked by missing binding rules and regulations for multinational corporate activity (Hellmann 2005). By addressing the market-sphere and further by attaching citizens’ rights and responsibilities to corporations and consumers, Anti-Corporate Campaigns result from as well as promote an increasing evolvement of the political and economic sphere. The transformation of the political in terms of an increasing blurring of the dividing line between political and private action coincides with an increasing digitalisation of public communication. Following Scammell, the digital technology “[…] is re-writing the rules of the marketplace“ (Scammell 2000: 355). With the introduction of the net, the basis of information of consumer decisions has been improved immensely. Apart from these structural factors, the politicisation of consumption is also a consequence of micro-social factors related to the changing individual identity-formation. For instance, the cultural coding of protest adapts to the evolving technical possibilities and to individual life-worlds: ideological differences among protest actors are compensated by the newsworthy focus on single corporations and by ‘branding’ strategies of protest messages such as adbusting. Since Anti-Corporate Campaigns are usually organised by broad networks and plural coalitions with different social and national backgrounds and without a coherent ideology (Hilton 2005: 2f.), they are often faced with major challenges when it comes to creating publics and contributing to the public sphere. Generally, protest networks which operate as ‘extra-constitutional actors’ derive their legitimacy and influence

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\(^8\) Some authors like Starr (2000) even speak of an Anti-Corporate Movement.
essentially from the credible presentation of their concerns’ relevance as well as the effective and visible mobilisation of various supporters. They aim at public attention and persuasion in order to set their claims on the political agenda and to generate reactions in the field of policy-making. Thus, protesting inevitably is communicative action focused on the political public sphere. Hence, Anti-Corporate Campaigns seek mass media coverage in several national contexts but address diverse publics like political institutions, consumers, and their associations, corporations, and industries as well as a variety of civil society actors bound to old and new social movements from the Northern and Southern hemisphere at the same time. The chances of building broad coalitions consequently need to fulfil the requirement to integrate fragmented publics.⁹

**Analysing anti-corporate protest**

Until now, research on anti-corporate protest has been mainly focused on the United States, Great Britain and Scandinavia (e.g. Bennett 2004a, Harrison 2005, Manheim 2001, Micheletti 2004, Rosenkrands 2004, Stolle et al. 2005). By contrast, the research project ‘Changing Protest and Media Cultures’ at the University of Siegen concentrates on campaigns with emphasis on German-speaking countries. For the years 1995 to 2005, 109 transnational¹⁰ Anti-Corporate Campaigns which are (partially) conducted by German-speaking civil society actors or address German-speaking publics and target corporations or industries were identified. The search was conducted via the search engine Google, websites of civil society actors (e.g. www.germanwatch.de), movement orientated online media (e.g. www.ngo-online.de), and archives of the supra-regional daily newspapers die tageszeitung, Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung and Süddeutsche Zeitung. In addition, the snow-ball-method was applied, i.e. other campaigns the already identified campaigns referred to were added to the sample when fulfilling the selection criteria. Subsequently, the 109 identified campaigns were systematised.¹¹ The classification was done with an explanation in a free-text-field and was also coded and entered in SPSS.

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⁹ Furthermore, the qualitative interviews that have already been conducted with campaign representatives show that on the national level, Anti-Corporate Campaigns also face the challenge of countering the advertisement-power of multinational corporations. In particular, local newspapers fear that corporations retract their advertisements if they are criticised.

¹⁰ A transnational orientation can be expressed through transnational networks of actors or organisations, the addressing of transnational publics as well as through transnational discourses.

¹¹ Here we distinguished the following categories: Timeframe, thematic focus (human rights, peace, labour rights, fair trade, environmental protection, animal rights, food/health, and freedom of media), coverage by campaign organisation (national, transnational), initiating/supporting organisation (member belonging NGO, member supported by NGO, individuals, trade union, churches/religious organisation, grassroots organisation, network organisation, network), addressees (corporation, industrial sector, political institution), goals (public attention, corporate policy, legal regulation, human rights, democratisation, fair trade), discourse strategy
In a subsequent phase of research, the project is currently analysing ten transnational Anti-Corporate Campaigns in detail. In order to carry out the microscopic in-depth-analysis of thick case studies, the project uses a mixture of methods whereas qualitative-interpretative methods dominate. In a first step, a media response analysis was conducted which served as a basis for the campaign selection. The archives of the national daily newspapers die tageszeitung, Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung and Süddeutsche Zeitung, as well as the results obtained from the online sources Google-News and Paperball, and (if possible) the press review provided on campaign websites were used for the search. In a second step, using the methods of frame and content analysis, campaign artefacts such as flyers and the campaign website (including all available downloads) are analysed. Moreover, with help of the issue crawler, the hyperlink structures to other websites are explored. In a third step, on the one hand, semi-structured expert interviews with the national and local organisers of the campaign and online-questionnaires with the mobilised actors are conducted. On the other hand, semi-structured interviews with representatives of the targeted corporations are carried out. The interviews serve as a backup for the empirical results gained through frame and content analysis and/or serve a corrective function. In addition, a further analysis of online and offline media in German, Swiss, and Austrian media is conducted in order to gain more detailed insights about the media response and media framing of the campaign. The following empirical conclusions draw mainly upon the results of the complete inventory of the 109 identified campaigns but also include findings of already completed case studies.

Virtualised Anti-Corporate Campaigns

The comprehensive thesis of a connection between online and offline realms is empirically substantiated by the findings of the overall campaign research. As the search of campaigns was conducted via the Internet, the selected campaigns had to feature the online dimension either in terms of their own web presence or at least in terms of the announcement of certain statements, appeals to action, etc. on the websites of related actors or issue-platforms. About 90 percent of the analysed campaigns have own web spaces at their disposal – approximately half of them in the shape of an independent website and half of them in the shape of one or

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12 We like to thank Christian Hensel for his support.
13 The issue crawler is a tool of online network analysis and visualisation provided by the Govcom.org Foundation, Amsterdam, and its partners. For the software tool see http://www.issuecrawler.net/ [03/04/2007] and for information see http://www.govcom.org/scenarios_usc.html [03/04/2007].
more sub-domain(s) of the coordinating organisations. Analysing the campaigns with regard to their offers for participation and their attempts to create public spaces, we could ascertain that the full sample also comprises the offline dimension as all campaigns call for activities in physical spaces.

A campaign’s degree of virtualisation depends on the one hand on its media use: does the campaign exclusively or predominantly make use of the Internet in order to inform or does it also publish print brochures or produce audio-visual transmissions beyond the net? On the other hand, virtualisation can be measured by means of offers for participation. Do campaigns call for letters of protest to corporate representatives, a certain shopping behaviour, or the attendance at demonstrations in front of department stores? Or is mobilisation focused on web-based protest-like online petitions, e-mail bombings, or denial-of-service attacks?

Evaluating the campaigns on the basis of these criteria, we can differentiate between campaigns with dominant online structures, campaigns with dominant offline structures, and campaigns with a balanced proportion of online and offline structures. A campaign is classified as ‘dominant online’ if information as well as participation offers are almost exclusively provided through online structures, i.e. the campaign does not actively disperse information outside the Internet and does not organise campaign activities in physical realms. In contrast, campaigns are classified as ‘dominant offline’ if they concentrate predominantly on offline spheres, i.e. online information about the campaign is not provided in a systematised and bundled way and is often only available through third parties. Furthermore, these campaigns do not call for online participation. The 109 campaigns were classified as follows: Ten campaigns are characterised by dominant online structures, nine feature dominant offline structures and the prevailing number of 90 campaigns operate to a similar extent in online and offline environments. When looking at the categories in more detail, it can be stated that dominant online structures can be found especially within campaigns initialised by individuals or smaller groups of persons whereby the thesis is confirmed that the Internet empowers actors who lack financial or human resources (e.g. Marschall 1999: 122f.). Moreover, these campaigns often represent boycott platforms which collect and bundle information about certain corporations or industries and call for a boycott but without connecting their appeal to an active coordination and enforcement of the boycott action itself. Examples are several campaigns focussing on the war on Iraq in which US-based corporations are targeted because of their direct or indirect support of the US-government or the war
industry (e.g. “Consumers against war” or “Boykott den Kriegstreibern”\textsuperscript{14}). Furthermore, dominant online structures associated with Internet-oriented claims such as freedom of information in the digital age. Thus, the “The Microsoft Boycott Campaign” has the purpose to “return real choice to the computer industry by defeating Microsoft and its chokehold that destroys innovation and competition” (MSBC undated) and the campaign “Boykott der Musikindustrie” (“Boycott the Music Industry”) confronts the attempts of the national and international music industry to prevent the digital duplication and exchange of media (Chaos Computer Club e.V. undated). Campaigns with dominant offline structures on the other hand have partly been conducted at earlier stages of the survey period. For instance, in 1995, Greenpeace called for the boycott of companies directly involved in French nuclear testing or partly owned by the French state in the “Campaign against Nuclear Testing” (Damjanov 1995). In 1999, the German environmental NGO, Robin Wood, targeted the Swedish furnishing house Ikea with the slogan “Achtung! Elch im Tropenwald” (Attention! Elk in the Tropical Forest) in order to prevent the selling of products made of non-certified tropical wood (Robin Wood 1999). As both NGOs are also represented in the sample with campaigns that strongly adopt Internet technology, it can be assumed that in these cases the predominance of offline structures can be attributed to yet undeveloped infrastructures than to the rejection of digital technology. Furthermore, dominant offline structures can be discovered in cases were online structures are not assumed to contribute significantly to the campaign’s realisation. By this means, a couple of campaigns initialised by old social movement actors concentrate almost exclusively on historically developed internal structures and traditional patterns of mobilisation and participation. Examples are the campaign against the closing of a factory in Nuremberg producing for the Swedish corporation Electrolux organised by the trade union IG Metall or the campaign “Produzieren für das Leben – Rüstungsexporte stoppen” (“Produce for Life – Stop the Export of Armaments”) which is conducted by an association of several Christian organisations. Likewise, campaigns that focus their mobilisation attempts mainly on local realms partly leave online structures aside (e.g. campaigns of the association “Ohne Rüstung leben”\textsuperscript{15} which are primarily carried out around Stuttgart). However, the mentioned characteristics of campaigns featuring dominant online or offline structures are not invertible, i.e. not all campaigns conducted by individuals can be characterised by dominant online structures just as old social movement actors are not only represented in campaigns showing dominant offline structures. With regard to the large number of campaigns operating to a similar extent in online and offline spheres it has to be

\textsuperscript{14} “Boycott the Warmongers!”.

\textsuperscript{15} “Living without Armaments”.
pointed out that there is gradation, of course – neither do campaigns make use of online structures in exactly the same way as they do of offline structures, nor is the proportion of online and offline structures identical in comparison of different campaigns. We can rather speak of a continuum which comprises campaigns employing the net extensively, e.g. making multiple offers for online participation, and campaigns focusing more on physical spaces.

As a quantifiable classification becomes less significant with fewer differences between particular campaigns it appears more fruitful to concentrate on qualitative analysis and to elaborate the interconnectivity of campaign publics. A deeper insight can be obtained along the two dimensions outlined in the introduction: 1. the relationship between online and offline realms within campaigns and 2. the relationship between the issue public a campaign establishes on its own and the (mass) media public.

**Shaping online and offline realms**

Looking at the use of online structures in offline dominated campaigns and the use of offline structures in online dominated campaigns already sheds some light on the interaction between virtual and physical spaces. Thus, the Internet is employed by campaigns which primarily feature offline structures to distribute calls for action, press releases, or general information about the campaign via websites of involved organisations or independent platforms. By contrast, online dominated campaigns reach beyond virtual spaces by their reference to unconventional forms of political participation located in physical spaces like boycott action (although usually online dominated campaigns do not further coordinate or enforce physical protest). These findings can be validated with a view to campaigns that emphasise both online and offline structures. Here, distinctions can be drawn along the levels of information and participation: The differentiation between information and participation derives from political theory as theories which accentuate representative elements of democracy (e.g. Schumpeter 1950) highlight the importance of informed citizens whereas theories of participatory democracy (e.g. Barber 1984) stress the role of an informed citizen who is actively involved in the political process. Moreover, deliberative democracy theory attaches importance to an active informed citizenry; though, as a demarcation from participatory democracy theory, the realisation of deliberative politics is not regarded to be realised by a citizenry capable of acting collectively but by the institutionalisation of appropriate procedures. Hence, we define information and participation as categories for our analysis in order to meet the different normative claims. Concerning participation, we distinguish performative (e.g. demonstrations, boycott) and supportive (e.g. petitions, donating) unconventional forms of participation in
delineation from Lengfeld et al. (2000). They differentiate between protest actions which are characterised as demonstrative in a collective manner (e.g. demonstrations, boycotts) and actions which are demonstrative in an individual manner (e.g. petitions, donating). We refuse the terms collective/individual as for example repertoires of political consumerism which are characteristic for Anti-Corporate Campaigns make this dichotomy appear to be rather fuzzy. Thus, Micheletti (2003: 25) speaks of political consumerism as “individualized collective action”. Likewise, Beetz (2007: 35) stresses difficulties to distinguish between individual and collective aspects of political consumption. Against the backdrop of virtualised campaigns, the dichotomy between active and passive (which differentiates between low-threshold and high-threshold participation) remains blurred given that ‘click to protest’ indicates a rather low-threshold in the realm of active forms of participation such as demonstrations as well. For these reasons we differentiate between performative forms of mobilisation and supportive forms of mobilisation as this distinction stays valid regardless of whether the form of participation is performed on- or offline.

In terms of information, we can state a widespread use of Internet technology. Nearly all analysed campaigns provide their supporters with background information via the Internet thereby using various possibilities the technology provides. Hence, information is structured and edited with databases (e.g. the “Index of Landmines” on the website of the “International Campaign to Ban Landmines”) or presented with help of slide shows, Flash presentations or interactive surfaces. This information frequently goes beyond the oversimplified communication that campaigns are often criticised for (e.g. Schulz 1996: 63f.) as can be illustrated with the example of the “Kolumbienkampagne” (“Columbia Campaign”) targeting Coca Cola for collaborating with the Columbian paramilitary system and preventing unionisation. The campaign substantiates its claims with several dossiers broaching the issues of neo-liberalism, war, and militarism. Moreover, the Internet has become the central platform for the distribution of ‘offline materials’. In addition to the merchandise of books, surveys, brochures, etc., campaigns often offer these documents as free download on their websites. Likewise, campaign newspapers (which normally are of low-circulation due to financial restrictions) are published on the net to outreach the limited radius of the print publication. Finally, campaigns link online and offline realms of information when publishing corporate responses to their claims on the net. For instance, the campaign “Klimasünder ausbremsen” (“Thwart Climate Sinners”) publishes the reactions of BMW, DaimlerChrysler, Porsche, and Volkswagen to the campaign’s demand of abandoning their suit against a Californian law for climate protection. Connected to the publishing of the answers is the deconstruction of
corporate action as a strategy of evasion. Altogether, strategies of information on online structures do not only facilitate the reasoning of campaign demands in respect of content but also with regard to the acceleration of the dynamics of conflict.

Concerning appeals for prevailing supportive protest actions, no strong tendency towards online or offline structures can be constituted. Supportive forms of unconventional participation are mainly expressed through donating, signing of petitions, or writing letters of protest and can be performed either online or offline. In fact, most campaigns combine online and offline realms in order to gain support. Thus, several campaigns have established the possibility to donate via the e-commerce system Pay Pal in addition to the traditional ways of payment via cheques or bank transfers. In view of signing petitions or writing letters, the amount of campaigns enabling those types of support on the net is approximately the same as the amount of campaigns which seem to prefer supportive protest in offline realms. On the one hand, the traditional way of collecting signatures in physical spaces as well as writing individual letters to corporate representatives can be traced back to the widespread assumption that ‘real’ signatures and individually composed letters are more authentic and credible (Rucht 2005: 81f.). On the other hand, the Internet offers diverse possibilities to enhance supportive action in quantitative and qualitative terms. The individual signature or e-mail may cause a lower impact because only ‘one click to protest’ is required; but the number of signatures or e-mails a campaign website may evoke is much higher and thereby constitutes a potential threat for corporations. Consequently, the campaign “Make Trade Fair” for example is able to attach the following explication to their call to “join the Big Noise”, i.e. sign an online petition: “[…] Join more than 20 millions of others who have signed up to The BIG NOISE to Make Trade Fair!” (Make Trade Fair undated). Moreover, protest e-mails offered on campaign websites often contain preset phrases but can be adapted individually in order to give potential protesters the opportunity to connect a personal element to the low-threshold protest. To sum up, the different aspects of supportive protest, a coexistence of online and offline structures rather than the conjunction of both spheres can be stated which means that Internet technology is employed to simplify or enhance supportive action but traditional ways of expression remain important in this area.

By contrast, performative protest action features different characteristics. On the one hand, physical realms play the decisive role for campaign action. On the other hand, online structures contribute directly to campaign action in physical realms so that online and offline

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16 About 30 percent of the campaign sample calls for the signature of online petitions and about 40 percent call for offline signature, letter of protest, or e-mail of protest.
structures are interrelated. With regard to the first mentioned aspect, our campaign analysis shows a well-defined prevalence of activities in physical spaces. About 90 percent of the sample makes use of classical protest action in the shape of demonstrations, manifestations, or different consumer related activities like the public ‘branding’ of certain products with protest marks in the context of a call for boycott. Only ten percent of the campaign sample relocates campaign action entirely or partly into virtual realms. Examples are virtual demonstrations like in the case of the Greenpeace campaign “Stop Esso”\textsuperscript{17} within which supporters could provide their own digital photographs with speech balloons to express their disapproval. Those statements were bundled and sent to Esso (Stop Esso undated).

Figure 1: Digital photographs with speech balloons, Stop Esso, undated.

Another well-known example is the denial-of-service attack in the context of the campaign “Deportation Class” which has been criticising Lufthansa for carrying out deportation flights. The campaign called for action against the Lufthansa booking page that was heavily interfered on 20 June, 2001 by the combined access of protest actors (amplified by special software). But even those creative ways of employing Internet technology for protest action are largely linked to physical protest as the case of “Deportation Class” illustrates. The date for online action was chosen deliberately to complement protest at the shareholders’ meeting on the same day (Libertad undated). The outstanding importance of performative protest action in offline realms indicates that physicality is still regarded as a decisive factor for a campaign’s success. Nevertheless, Internet technology has established new dimensions of anti-corporate protest – even though less in terms of the protest action itself but more in terms of preparing and reinforcing campaign activities. About 80 percent of the sample uses online structures to

\textsuperscript{17} Greenpeace blames the company for sabotaging international climate change negotiations and blocking agreements that would lead to greenhouse gas emissions reduction (Greenpeace undated).
prepare protest action in offline realms. Thus, contact details of local groups are published on the net to ease the involvement of new supporters. Likewise, campaign websites are used to call for physical action (e.g. to participate in demonstrations, corporate annual meetings, or boycott action). Furthermore, campaigns provide their supporters with activist tool-kits which contain e.g. models for flyers and posters as well as ideas and checklists for local activities. Of particular importance, however, is the adoption of Internet technology to establish public spheres beyond local spaces. On the one hand, this may be the case in the run-up to local action. Here, the campaign “Gendreck weg” (“Away with Genetic Crud”) can be mentioned which is based on acts of civil disobedience. Once a number of at least 250 supporters has signed a public declaration of intention, a so-called “Feldbefreiung” (“field-liberation”) is conducted by which a certain field is ‘freed’ from genetically modified crops. The public character required for acts of civil disobedience (e.g. Habermas 1983: 35) is achieved by publishing a declaration of intention (containing name and residence of the supporters) as well as time and place of the field-release on the net (Gendreck weg! undated). On the other hand, online structures are widely used to reinforce campaign activities following local action. Nearly all analysed campaigns publish reports and picture galleries of past action or a complete chronology on their websites. Especially with regard to widespread activities of small local groups, the website is used to bundle and merge those activities. Hence, the campaign “Lidl ist nicht zu billigen” which criticises the German discounter Lidl because of deficient labour and trade conditions, records more than 60 local activities on the campaign website (Attac undated). Within the interplay of online and offline structures, Internet technology is applied to support protest in physical spaces, i.e. to enlarge the extent and duration of protest action and to create issue publics. With regard to the thesis that issue publics need to be connected to larger publics to display societal processes of deliberation and that public spheres – also in transnational contexts – created by mass media still contribute significantly to these processes (Kolb 2003) the question arises how and to what extent issue publics of Anti-Corporate Campaigns are linked to mass media coverage.

**Connecting publics**

‘Connecting publics’ goes beyond a transition from micro (e.g. email, lists) and middle (e.g. blogs, organisation sites, e-zines) to mass media (Bennett 2004b: 131). In the following, we aim for a multiplex description of inter-public linkages which can, but do not have to be unidirectional. One the one hand, linkages between media publics and campaign publics can be provided by the campaign actors themselves: The large amount of information provided on most campaign websites is not only addressed to (potential) supporters but also to
representatives of the media system. Agnes Schreieder, one of the organisers of the “Lidl-Kampagne”, describes the role of the campaign website as follows:

“[…] it is not only a possible resource for the active supporters, i.e. professionals and volunteers […] in addition, we know that a lot of people, journalists as well, which are in turn multipliers, can consistently refer to it […]” (Interview conducted by Veronika Kneip on 23 October, 2006; translation V.K.)

Similarly, one initiator of the already mentioned campaign “Gendreck weg!” stresses the importance of the campaign website to get in contact with journalists as…

“[…] journalists beginning their search for information about us or have heard something about us or come across us, of course first of all through the website.” (Interview conducted by Johanna Niesyto on 6 March, 2007; translation J.N.)

On the one hand, the fact that campaigns actively try to encourage media response through online structures also becomes apparent when the press releases many campaigns publish on their websites are scrutinised. On the other hand, campaign websites do not only constitute platforms that provide information preceding media reports. Furthermore, campaigns mirror their media coverage by composing press reviews. Thereby, they reflect the external discussion about the campaign within the issue public of the campaign website. This reflection of the ‘outside’ discussion is also enhanced by references to online sites of established news media. Here, the Nikeground campaign’s online network (see figure 2) serves a prime example as the website of one of the supporting organisations (in the map named “t0.or.at”) refers rather to various websites and articles of established online print media (“derstandard.at”, “krone.at, “kurier.at” ,“lecourrier.ch”) and radio (“fm4.orf.at”) than to alternative online media such as “at.indymedia.org”.

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18 The campaign has been initialised by the German trade union ver.di with the aim to achieve better working conditions and a higher level of integration of workers’ councils at the discounter Lidl.

19 “[…] es ist nicht nur eine mögliche Ressource für die Aktiven, also Haupt- und Ehrenamtlichen […] darüber hinaus wissen wir, das zahlreiche Menschen, auch Journalisten, die wiederum ja auch Multiplikatoren sind, sich immer wieder darauf beziehen können […]”

20 “[…] Journalisten, die sich jetzt selbst anfangen zu informieren über uns oder irgendwie was von uns gehört haben oder auf uns stoßen, bei denen passiert das natürlich immer über die Website erst mal. ”

21 The Nikeground campaign realised in 2003 aimed for initiating a public discourse about the interrelations of symbolic and real space at the example of a fake which announced the renaming of the Karlsplatz in Vienna into Nikeground.

22 All online networks presented in this article were generated by using the issuecrawler which conducts and visualises co-link analyses. Due to the operational mode of the programme dyadic network relations are excluded. Hence the map can serve as a first but not overall picture.

23 The Nikeground campaign was based upon concepts of communication guerrilla, mainly by operating with fakes pretending to be true actions and communication of the corporation Nike. In the first article also Indymedia bought into the fake, in subsequent articles the protest was connected to political (net) art although Indymedia was not informed by the campaign organisers (Becker in interview conducted by Veronika Kneip on 26 February, 2007).
However, our first in-depth analyses suggest a varying intensity of inter-public linkages as some organisations might rather use the technique of hyperlinking for the practice of networking\textsuperscript{24} within the campaign’s issue public. In addition, considerations of keeping the website user’s attention on the campaign website might be an explanation. For instance, the networks of the Lidl Campaigns by Attac and the German trade union ver.di only refer to one online published article of a national newspaper (“zeit.de”).\textsuperscript{25}

\textsuperscript{24} For a systematisation of techniques and practices applied by Anti-Corporate Campaigns on the net see Baringhorst et al., forthcoming).

\textsuperscript{25} Attac does link to several online articles whereas ver.di does not. This is not reflected on the map because – as outlined above – dyadic relations are not visualised by the issuecrawler.
Nevertheless, it can be said that in some cases, (media) reports are contextualised with others and become visible beyond the borders of a single public. Furthermore, campaign actors become able to reassure themselves and to compare the inner and outer perception of the campaign’s claims and activities, and to engage in a discursive responsivity on the part of the campaign actors. As the maps illustrate, none of the media actors links to other actors involved in the campaign networks.

One the other hand, links between campaign and media publics can be analysed in terms of a comprehensive look at media attention towards the campaigns of the sample. After searching for the names of the campaigns in the archives of three German newspapers (Süddeutsche Zeitung, Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, die tageszeitung) and in the search engines Google-News and Paperball, we can conclude that the coverage of the 90 campaigns with mixed online and offline strategies differs between none and about 30 references. Most campaigns with dominant offline structures show slightly above-average coverage whereas campaigns with dominant online structures almost exclusively feature below-average coverage. This
result validates the already mentioned relevance of a campaign’s connection to physical spaces. Apparently, issues which are exclusively initiated on the net scarcely find their way into wider public spheres.

Conclusions and Outlook

It should have become clear that diverse publics refer to each other through communicative and technical linkages. Our analysis has revealed that campaign publics are able to contribute to a broader public sphere, particularly if they are rooted in offline space. On the level of inter-public linkages, Anti-Corporate Campaigns refer communicatively as well as through the online practice of hyperlinking to media publics whereas our analysis does not yet show that media go beyond communicative references. However, we can conclude that due to their hybrid orientation towards public attention and participative involvement of supporters, not only the journalistic system but also Anti-Corporate Campaigns are able to mediate between online and offline publics and between media and issue publics. This is also reflected by the finding that most of the analysed campaigns have built up a balanced proportion of online and offline structures. Beyond these structures, particularly performative forms of participation in physical space play an outstanding role for attracting attention in both the campaign and the mass media public.

However, the Internet serves an important infrastructure against the backdrop of deliberative democracy theories as here public spaces are generated which embed single events and provide forums of common reflection among mobilised actors, offer further information and set themselves in a responsive manner in the broader context of mass media publics. By unfolding linkages between different publics and/or different levels (micro, meso, macro), Internet campaigns do not only contribute to the normative features such as publicity and responsivity but also to discoursiveness because they provide structures for political participation on various layers which can be seen as preconditions for communicative exchange and deliberation. At this point, a need for deeper investigation arises: Is the framing of issues transformed when reaching other publics or levels of public sphere and if this is the case, how is this transformation achieved? In other words, what kinds of interrelations exist between the infrastructure and the issues negotiated in public spheres?

Given the fact that the public sphere also underlies transformations due to globalisation processes the question arises of whether Anti-Corporate Campaigns contribute to the rise of a transnational public sphere defined as a network consisting of numerous interrelated, overlapping issue and (national) media publics. The first research results confirm the
assumption that communication strategies of Anti-Corporate Campaigns can contribute to a
denationalisation of public spheres as they are able to establish online and offline structures of
protest reaching beyond the nation state: They create communicative spaces for a critical
debate on the violation of norms of global justice by scandalising corporate practices, the
revelation of the negative effects of ‘corporate globalisation’ and similar protest action in
other countries. In addition to this communicative dimension, they employ the online practice
of hyperlinking and the offline practice of common collective action in order to connect
different local and national initiatives and public responses whereas communicative linkages
seem to dominate at our current state of research. This might be due to the fact that the
analysed campaigns still strive to generate mass media attention on the national level as well.
Further research is needed in order to trace relations among media publics and campaign
publics as well as among offline and online publics on the transnational level as at the
moment, we only can assume that linkages are rather established between on- and offline
realms within campaign publics than between campaign and international media publics. Also
at the moment we can only assume for the transnational level that the technique of
hyperlinking serves predominantly the function to demonstrate the transnational and/or global
dimension of a campaign in the public in the sense of ‘weak ties’.

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