Simona Bevern

Party Communication in Routine Times of Politics

Issue Dynamics, Party Competition, Agenda-Setting, and Representation in Germany



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Simona Bevern Mannheim, Germany

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To my best friend, Ulrike

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Simona Bevern

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List of Abbreviations

ADF Augmented Dickey Fuller test

ADL autoregressive distributed lag model

AIC Akaike information criterion

BIC Schwarz Bayesian information criterion

BLUE best linear unbiased estimator

BTW Bundestagswahlen (German national elections)

CAP Comparative Policy Agendas project

CCF cross-correlation function

CDU Christlich Demokratische Union

(Christian Democratic Union)

CHES Chapel Hill Expert Survey
CIA Central Intelligence Agency
CMP Comparative Manifesto Project

CSU Christlich Soziale Union (Christian Social Union)

d deviation

e. V.

df degrees of freedom

DIP Dokumentations- und Informationssystem für

Parlamentarische Vorgänge

(Parliamentary Material Information System) eingetragener Verein (registered association)

ECM error correction model

ECOFIN Economic and Financial Affairs Council of the EU

EU European Union

EUROPUB Europäischer Gerichtshof (European Court of Justice)
The Transformation of Political Mobilisation and

Communication in European Public Spheres project

EZB Europäische Zentralbank (European Central Bank)

FA Foreign affairs

FAZ Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung

FDP Freie Demokratische Partei (Free Democratic party)

FT Foreign trade

GAL-TAN green-alternative-libertarian/

traditional-authoritarian-nationalist

Grüne Bündnis90/Die Grünen (Green party)

Hartz IV colloquial: long-term unemployment benefits

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HQIC Hannan-Quinn information criterion

ID identification number

IRF impulse-response functions
Linke Partei DIE LINKE (Left party)

LR likelihood ratio test

max maximum minimum

MIP most important problem

ML multi-level

MP Member of Parliament
MRG Manifesto Research Group

NPD Nationaldemokratische Partei Deutschlands

(National Democratic Party of Germany)

O.-W. Ost-West (East-West)
OLS Ordinary least squares

PaO partisan opinion

Parl parliamentary activities PC party communication

PCG party communication of government PCO party communication of opposition

PDF portable data format

PISA Programme for International Student Assessment

PO public opinion
PP party position
PR press releases
Prob probability

r Pearson's correlation coefficient

RILE left-right position

S salience

saldiss salience-dissent sd standard deviation se standard error

SEQ structural equation model

SFB Sonderforschungsbereich (Collaborative Research Center)

SPD Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands

(Social Democratic Party)

SZ Süddeutsche Zeitung

TEURO colloquial: the expensive Euro

UK United Kingdom

US United States of America

v volume

VAR vector autoregression

var variance ver vertical

ZACAT social science data portal provided by GESIS

(Leibniz Institute for Social Sciences)

ZDF Zweites Deutsches Fernsehen

(Second German television network)

List of Abbreviations xxi

UK United Kingdom

US United States of America

v volume

VAR vector autoregression

var variance ver vertical

ZACAT social science data portal provided by GESIS

(Leibniz Institute for Social Sciences)

1 Introduction

1.1 Party communication in routine times of politics

"Parties can best be conceived as means of communication" (Sartori 1976, 24)

In Germany, as well as in other European democracies, we empirically observe that political parties put considerable effort into their daily communication during routine times of politics — which is the time period between two national elections. They send out virtually hundreds of press releases every month, stage press conferences on a weekly basis, give public speeches and regular interviews to the mass media. While the scholarly debate on party communication, and party behavior more generally speaking, mostly centers on election times, it seems fit to ask "[...] what is the purpose of this continual bombardment of information, views, opinions and debates?" (Lilleker 2008, 10) when there is no election upcoming in which it makes intuitive sense that parties use their communication campaigns to get out the vote and win the election.

Although elections are key institutions in modern democracies, if nothing happened in between elections, "[...] this could also be described as a dictatorship with a finite term" (Lilleker 2008, 1). There are a number of political scientists who reason that it is notably during routine times of politics that "[...] the real business of governance takes place" (Martin and Vanberg 2008, 502). In parliament, parties deliberate over policies, some policy issues gaining more importance than others. Government parties back their government (or rebel against it) in the passing of new legislation; opposition parties monitor and critically assess the actions of government, at the same time trying to push their own policy issues on the parliamentary agenda. The public constantly watches and evaluates the political elite on their actions as well as non-actions, their responsiveness to citizens' issues, needs and preferences, and their quality of governance — only a few examples for what happens in routine times of politics that should be of great interest to political scientists. All these activities in routine times of politics are intimately linked with communication.

Allegedly, communication provides the link between the state and the citizens. Many communication scholars stress that the distinction between policymaking and interest mediation is merely analytical. Communication is an integral part of politics and policy-making being the primary mechanism linking formulation and implementation of collectively binding decisions (Jarren and

2 1 Introduction

Donges 2006, 38). In other words, communication is not a subdomain or dimension of politics, but its central *modus operandi* (Marcinkowski 2001, 238). In its basic meaning, communication is defined as a process in which information is transferred from one entity to another (McNair 2007). While this definition is a good starting point, it lacks a major attribute marking the world of politics, namely purpose. Purposeful communication implies that the senders of messages aim at influencing their environment. This is why scholars of *political* communication usually define their object of study as the "[...] construction, sending, receiving, and processing of messages that potentially have a significant direct or indirect impact on politics" (Graber and Smith 2005, 479). In a nutshell, political actors use communication as a resource to promote and enforce their interests.

In this study, I focus on political parties and their communication during routine times of politics. Given that political parties are central actors in parliamentary democracies, I argue that it is essential to study their communication behavior, theoretically as well as empirically, to gain a deeper understanding of parties, politics and the role of communication outside the electoral game. To understand and explain parties' communication behavior during routine times of politics – in other words, what they communicate and why – we have to engage more closely with the functions and goals of political parties as well as with the notion of communication itself. Communication is often said to be key in any political system. Despite this ascribed centrality of communication in routine times of politics, political scientists and communication scholars have only devoted little attention to its role and effects.¹

Most theories of communication, and especially the literature on political communication, build on the seminal work of Harold Lasswell who asked a seemingly simple question defining the essence of communication: who says what to whom with what effects via which channels (Lasswell 1927)? This famous question translated into the classic model of communication, encompassing a source (who), a message (what), a receiver (whom), an effect and a channel. Thus, in order to understand communication, we have to learn more about the sources, the messages, the receivers, the effects and the channels. The tricky thing about political communication is that it seldom takes place in a vacuum and that it is recursive, meaning that it usually flows in at least two directions: a source sends out a message to a receiver, but the receiver might also send a message back to the source, hence becoming itself a source and the source becoming a receiver. To make things even more complicated, time plays a crucial role: communication between actors may happen simultaneously or the process of communication between the actors unfolds sequentially over time or even both. When studying communication, its dynamics over time should be taken into account.

Notable exceptions in recent years have been scholars of coalition politics (Martin and Vanberg 2008; Sagarzazu 2011; Sagarzazu and Klüver 2012).

Starting from the general assumption that parties' communication behavior is not random but displays certain regular patterns, I seize upon different strands of literature to conceptualize the content of party communication and to derive hypotheses about the messages that mutually influence political parties and their communication. As Aldrich puts it, parties are unusually 'endogenous' institutions shaped by the same political actors that at the same time shape legislation and other political outcomes (Aldrich 2008, 557). Thus, to answer the main research questions, namely why and what parties communicate during routine times of politics and how their communication is related to the senders and receivers of their messages, in the following paragraphs I analytically dissect the individual components of Lasswell's communication model to present what I intend to study when speaking of party communication. Starting with the source, we have to ask: who are political parties and what are the goals and motivations underlying their communication output in routine times of politics? Answers to these questions lead us to whom (i. e., the receivers) and what parties might want to communicate (i. e., the messages). Narrowing down the content and the audiences of parties' communication help us to formulate expectations about the effects of their communication – as senders of political messages and receivers of other actors' communication at the same time

The main theoretical contribution of this study is to build a bridge between theories of communication, party competition (Downs 1957; Meguid 2005; Petrocik 1996; Robertson 1976), agenda-setting (Baumgartner et al. 2008; Green-Pedersen and Mortensen 2010b; Soroka 2002a), and representation (Hobolt and Klemmensen 2008; Soroka and Wlezien 2010; Stimson et al. 1995), and to explicitly spell out expectations about parties' communication behavior and interactions with other actors and institutions such as citizens and parliament. The proposed hypotheses take up the recursive nature of communication aiming at different audiences at a time, resulting in partly conflicting and seldom mutually exclusive expectations. Theoretically as well as empirically, I offer a systematic analysis of party communication in routine times of politics. In the following paragraphs, I sketch out the role of communication for political parties that is closely related to the functions they (should) perform and the goals they pursue, whom they seek to communicate with, which also gives an idea why communication matters in routine times of politics. After this concise introduction to the theoretical framework guiding the empirical analyses, I briefly present the research design, spell out why German political parties make for an interesting case, and provide a plan of the book that already includes some of the most important findings of this study.

Why parties communicate

In the enormous scholarly literature on political parties, it is rather undisputed that parties play a crucial role in the functioning of modern democracies. Studies

4 1 Introduction

of political parties focus on how political systems operate and concentrate on how democratic principles are deployed in a core domain of actual democratic practice. While in the 21st century, new challenges like the decreasing importance of long-established societal cleavages resulting in declining party identification, less socio-structural voting and higher electoral volatility (Dalton and Wattenberg 2000) have arisen that question the continuing importance of political parties as the central intermediary institutions linking citizens and the state, "[...] parties have come to be seen as necessary for democracy, even amidst increasing concern that their actual functioning is inadequate for a healthy performance of democracy" (van Biezen and Saward 2008, 24).

Basically, there are two main lines of research on political parties, building on different views: functionalist versus rationalist. These general frameworks provide distinct answers to the question why parties communicate. While I ultimately cannot solve these inherently conflicting conceptualizations of political parties, they may well serve as a starting point to derive expectations about parties' communication behavior. For communication scholars, there is no doubt that communication is always multi-faceted and serves multiple purposes. Hence, "[...] when we study political communication we have to consider all the intended functions across all the different audiences that will receive the message" (Lilleker 2008, 12). This is exactly what I do in the present study.

According to the first view on political parties, these serve to fulfill different functions. Although the definition of "[...] what a political party is and what functions it should assume is hardly an objective task. Rather, it is a normative one" (White 2006, 6), party theorists in this line of research aim at the identification of common attributes and functions played by parties in all political systems irrespective of their institutional, social, or cultural diversity (for an overview, see Gunther et al. 2002). One of their basic functions is to provide the *link* between citizens and government (Sartori 1976). They fulfill the task of interest aggregation and mediation, they contribute to opinion formation by informing the public – which is sometimes also called *political socialization* - and they facilitate and encourage citizens' participation in the political process (Karp and Banducci 2007, 217; see also Mair 1994). Next to representation, which "[...] also takes place in the legislative arena, following the election, when bills are drafted and deliberated upon" (Gunther and Diamond 2001, 8), their essential function is the organization of government. Political parties in government propose policies that become collectively binding decisions once they have passed parliament. The main task of parties in parliament is to monitor and control government. While government parties in parliament usually back their governments and thus contribute to the smooth implementation of policies, opposition parties have to resort to other strategies to influence policy, such as the mobilization of public support (Schattschneider 1960). In their struggle over policies, parties also structure the choices and alternatives along different issue dimensions (Gunther and Diamond 2001). This list of party functions is not exhaustive, but it becomes clear that all of these functions require communication —with citizens, but also with each other and within a party itself (Norris 2005; Sellers 2010).

According to the second view on political parties, these are rational actors seeking to maximize their utility. Political parties pursue particular goals and invest their resources efficiently to attain these goals. Rationalist party scholars have identified three main goals that parties pursue, namely policy, office, and votes (Strøm 1990, 25; see also Fenno 1973; Mayhew 1974). These goals are closely related to each other and encompass the more general motivations of power and influence underlying parties' behavior. While the struggle for office and votes most clearly takes place during election times, there is room for maneuver when it comes to policy-making during routine times of politics – at least when we assume a world of post-election politics in which the electoral promises of political parties are not binding or too vague to matter (Laver 2008; Persson and Tabellini 2000, 1-14). In most parliamentary democracies, especially with multi-party settings, coalition or minority governments, this is usually the case. Hence, political parties continue to compete with each other over policies in routine times of politics. For this purpose, they make use of their communication.

Scholars of political communication share the notion that communication is all about winning over others. This may suggest a rather cynical view on politics where communication is used as propaganda or a means of persuasion, mainly concerned with the acquisition of power. But this is not at least a strange proposition for rational party scholars: communication should serve the attainment of a goal – if not, parties would not engage in it. With the 'others' to be won over, I now turn to the audiences of party communication.

To whom parties communicate – and to whom they respond

Apart from influencing policy-making that starts with the battle about who sets the issues on the *parliamentary agenda*, parties may also use their communication to build or maintain a reputation of competence among *citizens* and their potential *voters* (Fombrun and Shanley 1990; Lipinski 2004; Walgrave and De Swert 2007). Parties are always objects "[...] about which beliefs and loyalties, preferences and assessments are formed and used" (Aldrich 2008, 564). They may also want to mobilize the *public* or *other political actors* such as interest groups or social movement organizations for a certain policy (Schattschneider 1960) or signal responsiveness to their *voters* in order to be re-elected after the end of the legislative term (Hobolt and Klemmensen 2008; Stimson et al. 1995). Certainly, this is only an incomplete list of the goals that parties strive for during routine times of politics, but it points to the most important receivers of their messages: *other political parties* with whom they compete for policy attention, positions, and solutions, *governments* and *parliaments* who set the legislative agenda, not only at the national, but also at the local, regional and supranational

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levels, and last but not least, the *citizen public* who observes the parties in office, government as well as opposition, learning about politics and critically assessing the actions and achievements of their elected representatives. Interestingly, the same audiences can be identified when looking at party communication from a functionalist view: interest aggregation, mediation, opinion formation, mobilization involve the public; policy-making and deliberation take place in *parliament*, political decisions have to be communicated, views are exchanged, alternatives and choices are put forth by political parties in the parliamentary arena. It also becomes obvious that the *public* and *parliament* are not only addressees of party communication, but their actions also shape parties' behavior and communication.

Of course, parties' communication is also intended for wider distribution by the *mass media*, and although political parties are known to put considerable effort to foster their success in attracting media attention by adapting their communication to media-specific requirements (Blumler and Kavanagh 1999; Maurer 2008; Mazzoleni and Schulz 1999), the media are not per se the primary target audience parties aim at. The link between political parties, or political actors more generally speaking, and the mass media is an important one, but has only gained sparse empirical attention by scholars of political communication (Lang and Lang 1981; Shoemaker and Reese 1996), mainly due to methodological reasons – which I similarly cannot not solve here. Hence, in this study I only focus on the links between parties' communication and *their direct party competitors*, the *parliamentary agenda*, the *public* and an additional layer of governance, namely the *European Union*, due to the multi-level context in which German and other European parties operate.

What parties communicate

Political messages are complex constructs that may transmit information about certain policy issues, actions and achievements, more concretely about preferences, political positions, values, judgments, and calls for action, change or resistance. The universe of potential messages, usually consisting of a *subject*, an *object* and an *intention* or *action* (Sellers 2010, 10-11), is virtually infinite. Mainly due to time and other resource constraints, political parties have to select from this universe of potential issues when crafting their messages. At the highest level of abstraction, the object of a message revolves around an *issue* that belongs to a particular policy field. Theories of party competition and agenda-setting share a central focus on issues. In its basic meaning, an issue is an important topic or problem in a debate or discussion. An issue is "[...] a conflict between two or more groups over procedural or substantive matters relating to the distribution of positions or resources" (Cobb and Elder 1972, 32) or, in more general terms, an issue is whatever is in contention (Lang and Lang 1981). While all the information included in any political message by political parties