



Master thesis

**Promoting Practices: How Activists Employ
Online Tactics to Promote Energy Efficiency**

A Social Movement Perspective on Institutional Innovation



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ABSTRACT

Social movements have influence on innovation, the creation of new markets, and institutional change. Research into the field of social movements is important for organizational scholars because social movements aim for organizational and institutional change and are able to stimulate or hamper innovations. Social movements use different methods to achieve change in the markets; by opposing existing norms and by promoting new norms. However, the majority of existing research neglects the latter process and therefore in this study the ways in which a social movement organization (SMO) attempts to set a new norm are investigated. To gather attention and support for their cause, SMOs develop media strategies. Moreover, SMOs increasingly make use of the Internet to support their cause. Researchers have started to study the use of online means in action campaigns, but the knowledge about how online means are used for promoting a new norm is limited. Therefore this research combines institutional and social movement theory to explore the question how SMOs use online tactics to promote new institutional norms. In this thesis the tasks that are necessary to affirm new norms and achieve institutional change and the online tactics that are used to execute these activities are identified. The literature on social movements, institutional change and online activism is combined to develop a conceptual framework to investigate how the activities and online tactics are used to organize an action campaign. A retrospective case study at a SMO in the Dutch environmental movement is conducted to empirically explore the use of online tactics and describe the process of an online action campaign using the conceptual framework. A process approach is adopted to analyze the development of an online campaign and therefore semi-structures interviews, archival data and online statistics are used to gather data on events during the campaign. Subsequently, different data analysis techniques are applied to make sense of the raw data. After the identification of key events, a campaign narrative, temporal bracketing, and visual mapping were used to understand the data. Thereafter, quantification is used to analyze the key events and social media data. The findings provide insights into how the SMO uses online collective action tactics, and illustrate how framing processes and mobilizing structures are digitally equipped to engage participants and market parties to promote a new institution. Furthermore, the empirical evidence shows how pragmatic arguments and incentive structures are important to gather support from the audience for an abstract cause such as climate change. The findings stress the strategic importance of choosing tactics for institutional change. Moreover, the case highlights the importance of tactics for mass participation in order to persuade and motivate both consumers and businesses to adapt their attitude towards sustainability. This study contributes to the management knowledge by showing how a SMO operates and what role companies play in an action campaign. Firms should adopt a strategy in case they are targeted by such an organization. Moreover, this study highlights the possibility for firms to collaborate with SMOs in order to improve their reputation and gain access to potential customers. These findings are also of interest to the management of SMOs and social entrepreneurs that are considering using online tactics in their action campaigns, because they shows that SMOs can effectively use online tactics for framing purposes, for mobilizing structures, and collective actions.

Preface

This research represents the ending and most important milestone of my masters Business Administration at the University of Twente and Innovation Management & Entrepreneurship at the Technical University of Berlin. During the past months, I enjoyed the opportunity to conduct scientific research at the Dutch research organization TNO. I am very thankful for the chance to do research for the most well-known scientific research institute of the Netherlands. Every research project has its upsides and downsides, its plusses and minuses. The process of doing research and writing a master's thesis can be stressful and tense. However, although there were many challenges along the way, I would describe my research project at TNO as a marvelous learning experience. This project gave me the chance to continue to develop skills and knowledge about doing research, and practical lessons of working at a research institute.

At the start of my search for an appropriate research topic for completing my master degree I had one main aspiration: doing research at a large firm or organization in order to not only acquire research skills, but also attain practical knowledge. TNO and the research topic made this combination possible by facilitating my research in the field of social movements and giving me the opportunity to arrange my own research considerations. With a background of Business Administration, the research into a more sociological field like social movements was an opportunity to broaden my horizon and learn about a new topic. In addition, the methodological approach of a qualitative process research formed a good approach to increase my knowledge about different methods.

A lot of support made my period of conducting research and writing my thesis a lot easier. First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor at TNO Tijs van den Broek for the chance to work at TNO and conduct this research. Moreover, his support, advice, and feedback along the process was very valuable and much appreciated. In addition, I would like to thank my supervisor from the University Michel Ehrenhard for his guidance and feedback, and his help to get in touch with TNO. Two colleagues of TNO deserve a lot of credit for taking over the supervision of Tijs van den Broek during the months he could not be there. Many thanks for Noor Huijboom and David Langley for helping me out, it was difficult to suddenly takeover the project but we managed it very well thanks to your support. I also like to thank my direct colleagues of TNO and especially the other interns for their support and for the pleasant work environment. Last but not least, I like to thank the people of the HIER Klimaatstraatfeest for their insights and openness in how an online action campaign can be organized.

My special thanks goes to my parents and sister, for their unconditional support and trust. In addition, the support of friends made this research project a lot easier. Martijn deserves a special note, for his unconditional support and trust. It has not always been easy; therefore your continuous encouragement and support were very important for me.

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1 Introduction

Social movements can stimulate and increase the acceptance of innovations (King & Pearce, 2010; Rao, 2009; Schneiberg, 2013; Weber, Thomas, & Rao, 2009), for example by opening up opportunities for entrepreneurship (Hiatt, Sine, & Tolbert, 2009; Sine & Lee, 2009; Weber, Heinze, & DeSoucey, 2008), instigate institutional change or innovation (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006; King & Soule, 2007; King, 2008a), and facilitate new organizational forms (Rao, Morrill, & Zald, 2000; Swaminathan & Wade, 2001). Because of that influence, many researchers have investigated the ways in which social movements achieve these changes. Current organizational research shows the growing activity of campaigners directly addressing markets and organizations to achieve institutional change (Soule, 2009), instead of the conventional means of indirectly challenging the firms through public policy and relying on the government to take action (Berry, 2003; de Bakker, 2012; Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; Spar & La Mure, 2003). Hence, firms should be aware of the fact that they can be directly addressed by social movements that try to force organizations to change their practices, and try to force institutional innovations to the market, which means that the institutional change is an unprecedented departure from the past (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006). This has opened up the opportunity for social movement organizations (SMOs) to take over the role of governments and contest the behavior of firms, to construct new corporate practices and legitimize alternatives (King & Pearce, 2010). SMOs do this, for example, by retaining innovations via protest, but they can also affirm and stimulate innovations or even create markets themselves.

The strategic considerations of social movements depend on the institutional change process they aim at (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Deinstitutionalization, or breaking down existing norms, is a phase of institutional change that is relatively well known, as is illustrated by research about boycotts, protests and other strategies to damage the addressed firms (see for example King & Soule, 2007; Soule, Model, & King, 2013; Vasi & King, 2012; Weber et al., 2009). However, current research aims at increasing the knowledge about reinstitutionalization, how social movements stimulate a new norm, as these processes are less well known. Recently, more research is focused on the creation of market alternatives through innovation and entrepreneurship (Hiatt et al., 2009; Rao, 2009; Sine & Lee, 2009; Swaminathan & Wade, 2001). The social movements in these studies played a critical role in stimulating entrepreneurial activity and innovation. By focusing on advocating alternatives to existing organizations and practices, they concentrated on reinstitutionalization (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Examples are the advocacy of recycling (Lounsbury, Ventresca, & Hirsch, 2003), the wind energy sector (Sine & Lee, 2009), and the purchase of environmentally sound wood (Bartley, 2007). One main aspect of these examples is the creation of new markets or market alternatives by institutional entrepreneurs (King & Pearce, 2010). Although these examples illustrate that increased scholarly attention has been given to the advocacy of alternative practices, knowledge about *how* SMOs pursue these changes is lacking. Hence, in this thesis these processes of reinstitutionalization with the goal of advocacy of new practices will be further investigated.

To gain support for these campaigns aimed at institutional change, and distribute information about their activities, activists use media strategies (Friedman, 1999; King & Pearce, 2010). In the past decade media has changed consumer protest (Friedman, 1999), as media attention became an important success factor of social movement's campaigns (King, 2008a). To gain public interest and eventually support for their cause, activists depend on media (Koopmans, 2004;

Oliver & Maney, 2000), as the media links events to the general public (Oliver & Meyer, 1999). In addition to traditional media, activists increasingly use the Internet to put pressure on firms and governments (Burrell, 2012; Roper, 2002), for example by using online business protest tactics to mobilize consumers to pursue change in unsustainable practices of firms (Martin & Kracher, 2008). The Internet offers movements the possibility to use new tactics to obtain resources and to mobilize followers, and thereby draw attention from supporters and traditional media.

These online activism tactics are relatively new, but increasingly used by activists to communicate with businesses (Martin & Kracher, 2008). To date, organizational researchers have paid little attention to the mechanisms of online activism, although pressures of these activists on organizations rise (Van den Broek, 2013). Hence, target organizations have little knowledge about the functioning of online activism and the way online business activism works and they struggle to communicate effectively with these movements. The use of the Internet and social media is a source of increasing complexity, leading to uncertainty how to deal with these new dynamics of the market (Day, 2011). This research contributes to practical knowledge for these businesses by providing information about the tactics that are used by social movements. Another point of practical relevance is the contribution to the knowledge how social movements can use digital media to pursue their goals of establishing new norms. Two forms of online business activism are distinguished: those that support business practices and those that oppose business practices (Martin & Kracher, 2008). There has been growing attention for online tactics and deinstitutionalization (de Bakker, 2012; Krishnamurthy & Kucuk, 2009; Martin & Kracher, 2008), however the attention for online activism and reinstitutionalization is lacking. There is a need for a more detailed investigation of how online activism contributes to the process of reinstitutionalization. The current thesis responds to the call of Martin & Kracher (2008) to focus on online tactics aimed at the advocacy of a new institutional norm. To date, little academic attention has been given to this, as most researchers focused on the distinction between online and offline tactics and did not give consideration to the institutional change process (Clark & Themudo, 2006; Earl & Kimport, 2009; Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010). Therefore, particular attention will be given to which online advocacy tactics can be identified. In addition, empirical knowledge about the application of these tactics is scarce, as most researchers focus on a description instead of the application of tactics (Stein, 2009).

Concluding, the Internet may change the role of social movements and enables new tactics and organizational forms. These developments require insights in how these social movement organizations operate and what tactics they use to advocate new norms. Therefore, the current research is concerned with the objective to investigate what online tactics are used by this new form of online activism. Because little is known about online tactics focused on the promotion of alternatives, this research will focus on tactics for reinstitutionalization. Looking at the development of campaigns over time can provide important insights how tactics can be deployed at different stages of the institutional change process (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Therefore the research is specifically interested in the underlying methods and proceedings how action campaigns develop over time and what the role of online tactics is. The research goal is to study the process of an action campaign with the goal of institutional change and the ways in which online tactics are deployed. For social movements, it is important to know how they can use online advocacy tactics, while for target organizations it is important to learn to react quickly to changing conditions from outside and to incorporate online tactics and contingencies in their strategies (Leizerov, 2000). Next to that, understanding the tactics of activist groups

might lead to a better response from firms to actions of social movements and the possibility to be engaged in the process of reinstitutionalization (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). This in-depth research aims to provide these insights to both activist groups and firms in order to increase their understanding and thereby offer possibilities to cope with these online advocacy tactics.

Hence, this research contributes to the theory by addressing multiple research gaps. Firstly, the literature on social movements and institutional change is predominantly focused on tactics for deinstitutionalization (King & Soule, 2007; Soule et al., 2013). However, also different tactics for reinstitutionalization are conceptualized by Den Hond & Den Bakker (2007) and should be researched empirically. Secondly, a start was made to investigate online tactics used by SMOs (Earl, 2006; Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010). Still, these studies neglect the underlying institutional change processes as little knowledge is available about the online tactics used to advocate new norms. Thirdly, research to investigate the application of online tactics during campaigns is scarce. Moreover, knowledge about processes of online activism striving for change is limited as the literature about social movement processes focuses on offline tactics (McAdam, McCarthy, & Zald, 1996; Rao, 2009). Fourthly, studies that adopted a process approach to investigate the influence of social movements on change often neglect the perspective from a single SMO (Arbuthnott, Eriksson, & Wincent, 2010; Arjaliès, 2010). From an academic perspective, it would be interesting to know how SMOs use tactical repertoires to achieve change. Lastly, no studies have been found that are focused on the application of online tactics by social movements that aim for reinstitutionalization of a new norm. In the current study this research gap is addressed using process methodology and the literature is extended with insights into how SMOs aiming for new norm can use online tactics. This contributes to the knowledge by illustrating how and when tactics are applied and how they relate to the envisioned institutional change.

1.1 Research questions

This overview leads to the following central research question of this paper:

- ❖ ***How do social movement organizations use online tactics to advocate alternative practices aimed at institutional innovations?***

The following sub-questions will be addressed in this paper:

- What kind of online tactics are currently being used by SMOs to advocate institutional innovations?
- What are the characteristics of these online tactics?
- How do SMOs apply the several online tactics during a campaign?
- How do these online tactics contribute to the SMOs' goal of institutional innovation?

To answer these research questions a literature review and a single case study will be conducted. The case study entails an online action campaign in the environmental movement. The case will be further introduced in Chapter 4. In the next chapter the literature on social movements, institutional change and online action tactics is introduced and leads to a process model. Thereafter, the research design is explained and process methodology is further discussed. Next, the findings of the action campaign are presented and online tactics are identified by using the different phases of the process model. In Chapter 6 these findings will be analyzed and discussed, and compared with phases and tasks of the process model that is further refined. In the last chapter conclusions, contributions, limitations and potential future research directions are given.

2 Theoretical framework

In this chapter, the theoretical background of the focus topics will be discussed. We start with a discussion of social movements and the mechanisms which describe the ways they can instigate institutional change. Next, the importance of media strategies and online tactics will be analyzed. The last part will be dedicated to the available online tactics and how these can be deployed. In accordance, a process model will be presented that is used for analyzing an action campaign.

2.1 Social movements

Social movements consist of activists who form a group to challenge or defend a common goal, Snow, Soule, and Kriesi (2004, p. 11) define a social movement as:

collectivities acting with some degree of organization and continuity outside of institutional or organizational channels for the purpose of challenging or defending extant authority, whether it is institutionally or culturally based, in the group, organization, society, culture, or world order of which they are part.

As social movements use collective action to reach a shared goal, there needs to be coordination and therefore some kind of organization (Snow et al., 2004). Such a social movement organization (SMO) is “[...] a complex, or formal, organization which identifies its goals with the preferences of a social movement or a counter movement and attempts to implement those goals” (Mccarthy & Zald, 1977, p. 1218). The social change that social movements try to attain is achieved by the recognition and exploitation of political opportunities, which are institutional arrangements or political circumstances encountering the social movement organization; the framing of their causes, are used to contest the meaning of social issues; and the mobilization of resources through mobilizing structures, which are networks of actors and resources available to mobilize and engage in collective action (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006; McAdam et al., 1996). People can decide to cooperate in changing their conditions, if their interests and identities sufficiently overlap (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007), either in loosely coupled organized networks (Diani & McAdam, 2003), or more formal organized organizations (Mccarthy & Zald, 1977). Not only do social movements have different levels of formal organization, they also have different repertoires of tactics (Clemens, 1993). Many scholars have studied the ways in which they try to attract public attention (McAdam et al., 1996). SMOs do this by action repertoires, which are all forms of action used by contentious politics (Tilly, 1978). Tactical repertoires are defined as “[...] *interactive episodes that link social movement actors to each other as well as to opponents and authorities for the intended purpose of challenging or resisting change in groups, organizations, or societies*” (Taylor & van Dyke, 2004, p. 266). As one of the main goals of social movements is to achieve institutional change (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006; Schneiberg & Lounsbury, 2008), it is necessary to analyze the different ways in which social movements instigate institutional change.

2.2 Institutional change

Institutions are schemas, norms, and regulations developed by people, that enable and constrain the behavior of social actors, that give meaning to social life and that make it more predictable (North, 1990; Powell & DiMaggio, 1991; Scott, 2001). Institutional change is defined as a difference in form, quality, or state over time in an institution (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006). When there is a noticeable difference and if “[...] the change is a novel or unprecedented departure from the past, then it represents an *institutional innovation*” (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006, p. 866). Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) distinguish two phases of institutional change:

deinstitutionalization and reinstitutionalization, whereby the former is the decline of an institution, while the latter is the replacement of an institution by another institution (Jepperson, 1991). Before an institution is entirely changed, the old institution has to be deinstitutionalized and the new institution has to be reinstitutionalized (Greenwood, Suddaby, & Hinings, 2002; Tolbert & Zucker, 1996). Figure 1 shows that activist groups therefore have multiple ways to pursue change, including by stimulating deinstitutionalization and by promoting reinstitutionalization (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Various strategies and tactics to achieve these goals by social movements are identified, based on their ideological background different tactics are applied according to Den Hond and De Bakker (2007). The current study is focused on reinstitutionalization; therefore this part will be discussed in the next section.

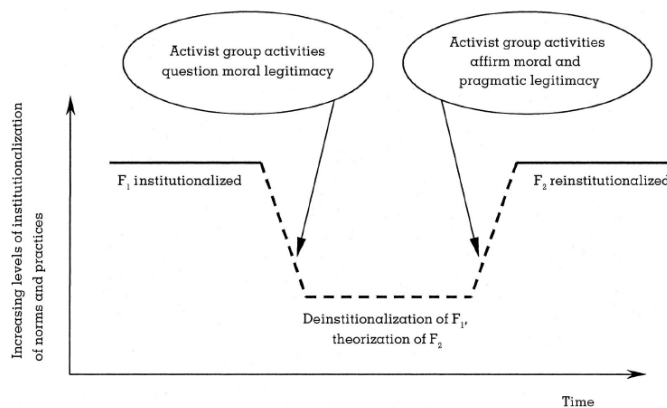


Figure 1: Processes of Transformation by Den Hond & De Bakker (2007)

Hargrave and Van de Ven (2006) introduce an action model of institutional innovation and according to them, institutional innovation seen from a collective action perspective can be understood as a dialectical process wherein two parties adhere to conflicting opinions to create and change institutions. Institutional innovation only occurs when the new idea is presented appropriately and is perceived more valuable than the existing practices (Greenwood et al., 2002). The development from theorizing to diffusion takes place when new ideas are aligned with existing norms, giving them moral legitimacy (Suchman, 1995; Tolbert & Zucker, 1996), or when the new practice is superior to the existing practices, providing pragmatic legitimacy (Suchman, 1995). Much scholarly attention has been given to the ways social movements can influence these changes, especially by using different strategies and tactics (King & Pearce, 2010) and the effects of social movements on organizational change (Hall & Martin, 2005; Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006; King & Soule, 2007; King, 2008b). In sum, social movements can influence the institutional change process: in the next section the ways in which social movements attempt to change institutions are discussed.

2.2.1 Social Movements & Institutional Change

In their review, King and Pearce (2010) examine the role that social movements play in changing markets. The target that a movement selects shapes the character and range of tactics that it employs (Barkan, 1979; Manheim, 2000; Smith, 2001; Wood, 2004). As more and more movements target firms, researchers started to delineate different types of market strategies that social movements use to do this: (1) addressing corporations directly, (2) creation of transnational systems of private regulation, and (3) the creation of market alternatives through institutional entrepreneurs (King & Pearce, 2010). In the following section different strategies

that social movement use to attain their goals will be briefly discussed with the framework of King and Pearce (2010), and the description of strategies of Den Hond and De Bakker (2007).

2.2.1.1 Strategies of social movement

King and Pearce (2010) describe two different mechanisms that social movements use to change or construct new corporate practices: social movements within organizations and social movements using extra-institutional tactics. This study focuses on the latter, describing activism from groups outside the firm, also called secondary stakeholders. As social movements lack the ability to influence a firm's resources directly (King, 2008b), they use extra-institutional tactics to achieve their goals. King and Pearce (2010) distinguish two effects that are generated by extra-institutional tactics: persuasion and disruption (Andrews, 2001). Persuasion includes the messaging of a movement's conviction to the outside world (King & Pearce, 2010). Disruption includes destabilization of corporations and inducing costs on the target (Andrews, 2001). Additionally, Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) discuss the degree of radicalness of activist groups to explain the different tactics they use, distinguishing between radical and reformative groups. They designate groups that have a comprehensive solution and strive for drastic change as *radical*, whereas *reformative* groups are more moderate and think that companies can be part of the solution as well. The latter indicates that not only contestation is a strategy to evoke changes, but that also cooperation can be a way to instigate change (Van Wijk, Stam, Elfring, Zietsma, & Den Hond, 2013). Likewise, firms might collaborate with activist groups to enable them to gain legitimacy because these activist groups can help promote them to customers (de Bakker, 2012). Therefore, for both social movements and targeted corporations different strategies are available to invoke, resist or guide change.

2.2.1.2 Reinstitutionalization tactics

This thesis is interested in tactics of reinstitutionalization; therefore this paragraph is focused on the tactics involved. Social movements supplement arguments for institutional change by promoting the legitimacy of alternative institutions (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Tactics for reinstitutionalization entail gathering support for the alternative practices by affirming moral and pragmatic legitimacy (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Social movements do this by making themselves relevant for the challenged organizations, with tactics of material or symbolic gain (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). These tactics are related to showing the benefits of the alternative practices or increasing the reputation of the target firms by lending the reputation of the social movement, and thereby persuading organizations to alter their practices and adopt the alternatives (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; King & Pearce, 2010). In addition, social movements can support a new economic entity, hereby creating a material gain for firms adopting such an alternative institution (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) state that activists focused on reinstitutionalization have two different paths: (1) to work with proactive firms, and (2) to establish an alternative field. According to them, reformative activists are focused on collaboration with proactive firms, while radical activists establish alternative fields (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). In both cases, activists will use tactics of symbolic and material gain. To do this, reformative activists not only use arguments of moral legitimacy, but supplement these with arguments of pragmatic legitimacy (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). For extensive and complete overview of these different tactics see Appendix 9.1. Creating a new norm can also be done by institutional pressures to establish new organizational fields independent from the incumbent organizations (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Their success depends on the ability to mobilize sufficient resources, create collective identities, and

legitimate new categories (King & Pearce, 2010). This corresponds with the framing processes and mobilizing structures described by various scholars in the field of social movements (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006; McAdam et al., 1996; Rao, 2009). Mobilizing resources is important because SMOs can thereby support new norms, for example by providing infrastructure, collective action frames, or alternative organizational models to institutional entrepreneurs (Swaminathan & Wade, 2001). Hence, framing and mobilizing are important success factors of contentious actions as well as the creation of alternative institutions.

2.3 Online Activism Tactics

2.3.1 Media and the Internet

Media strategies and communication processes are very important for activist groups to mobilize support for their protest (Friedman, 1999; King & Pearce, 2010). Activist groups rely on the media in order to create public attention for their cause and gather support (Koopmans, 2004; Oliver & Maney, 2000), as the media serves as a link between public events and public audience (Oliver & Meyer, 1999). The advent of the Internet only increases the importance of the media and communication strategies (Den Hond & De Bakker, 2007; Martin & Kracher, 2008). For example, social movements can use the Internet to bypass mainstream media gatekeepers and communicate directly with their constituencies and audiences (Boyd, 2003). Thus, not only traditional media are used by activist groups; there also is a rapid development of using new media such as social media like Facebook or Twitter to communicate and engage with stakeholders (Lovejoy & Saxton, 2012; Bortree & Seltzer, 2009). Additionally, activist groups use social media to communicate with their audience on a daily basis and the use of new media enables them to accomplish their advocacy goals (Obar, Zube, & Lampe, 2012). Online media are also used for activism, such as online business protests, to mobilize people to change practices and policies of firms (Martin & Kracher, 2008). The Internet puts forth new dynamics and new organizational set-ups among activist groups to put pressure on corporations, which in turn have to develop new strategies to cope with these online processes (Illia, 2002). In a definition by Denning (2001), online activism involves the use of computer technology to support or compete against an agenda or cause. Furthermore, two forms of online business activism are identified: those tactics that support business practices, and those tactics that oppose business practices (Kracher & Martin, 2009). Based on the definition of Martin and Kracher (2008), online advocacy tactics in the current research are defined as deliberate and directed actions conducted over the Internet that support a cause. They are deliberate because they are intended and they are directed because they are aimed at a specific audience (Martin & Kracher, 2008).

2.3.2 A classification of Online Collective Activism

In order to understand what online activism tactics are, researchers started to define different forms and typologies (Clark & Themudo, 2006; Earl, Kimport, Prieto, Rush, & Reynoso, 2010; Earl & Kimport, 2011; Martin & Kracher, 2008; Postmes & Brunsting, 2002; Van den Broek, 2013; Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010; Vegh, 2003). Specifically, typologies are used to distinguish online activism from offline activism as there is a discussion about the influence of the emergence on the role of social movements (Earl et al., 2010). However, to understand these differences scholars should analyze the type of activism and the degree of virtuality (Earl et al., 2010). The degree of virtuality ranges from Internet-supported to Internet-based (Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010). Internet-supported activism includes the use of the Internet as an additional way to communicate, raise awareness or coordinate actions, while Internet-based activism entails the use of Internet for actions that are only possible online (Vegh, 2003). Possible

examples of Internet-supported activism are the provision of a protest agenda on a website or providing information about the movement online, leading to physical actions offline. Examples of Internet-based activism are the organization of a virtual sit-in or the act of hacking a website. Van Laer and Van Aelst (2010) further developed the typology of (Vegh, 2003) by adding the threshold of the tactics as a dimension. When combined, four types of online action are distinguished (see Appendix 9.4).

These different categories have different characteristics and they are deployed for different outcomes in the organizational context. Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) present a typology of tactics that are used to change organizational policies; ranging from individual tactics to collective tactics, and from persuasive tactics to disruptive tactics. Disruptive tactics are focused on causing damage to target organizations, which can either be symbolic damage or material damage (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; King & Pearce, 2010). Persuasive tactics are based on encouraging and urging target organizations to change, by either providing symbolic gain or material gain (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; King & Pearce, 2010). However, Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) only describe Internet activism as a disruptive and elite tactic. The typology in Table 1 combines Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) and online activism literature and shows that Internet activism can also be used for other intended outcomes and participatory forms (Martin & Kracher, 2008; Postmes & Brunsting, 2002; Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010).

	Mass Participation		Elite Participation	
Material damage	Boycott	<i>Boycott (www.saiagon.com/nike), Virtual sit-in</i>	Blocking gates, sabotages, occupation, Internet activism ('hacktivism'), lawsuits	<i>Hacktivism, cultural jamming, cyber-terrorism, DDoS-attack (attacks on Dutch banks)</i>
Material gain	Buycott	<i>Buycott (Carrotmob), money donation (The Hunger Site)</i>	Cooperation	<i>Cooperation</i>
Symbolic damage	Writing letters/emails, marches, petitions, rallies	<i>Online petitions (MoveOn), email campaigns (Grassroots Recycling)</i>	Shareholder activism, street theater, negative publicity, research	<i>Blogs (Business ethics blog), protest websites (Hall of Shame)</i>
Symbolic gain	Voluntary action	<i>Voluntary action</i>	Positive publicity, cooperation	<i>Blogs, informational websites (Fair trade movement)</i>

Table 1: Typology of online activism tactics

Online tactics with a high threshold usually aim at damage with confrontational tactics, such as boycott, virtual sit-ins, hacktivism or cyber terrorism; while online tactics with a lower threshold are more frequently aimed at persuasive tactics, such as the donation of money, online petitions, and blogs (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; Martin & Kracher, 2008). Furthermore, Postmes and Brunsting (2002) distinguish between individualistic tactics (such as letter writing and sabotage) and collective actions (such as petitions and rioting). This corresponds to the logic of the numbers, which Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) mention. The distinction between persuasion and disruption also applies for online activism as Postmes and Brunsting (2002) show with their categorization: actions such as emails and online petitioning are used with the purpose to persuade organizations to consider another viewpoint, while actions such as hacktivism and virtual sit-ins are related to disrupt a target organization. Therefore confrontation corresponds to the material damage, while persuasion corresponds to the symbolic damage category of Den Hond and De Bakker (2007).

Online counterpart examples of the typology of Den Hond & De Bakker (2007) are widespread. Online forms of mass participation tactics such as boycotts, buycotts, petitions, and writing

campaigns are widely practiced. Websites like *Saigon* call to boycott Nike's products (Martin & Kracher, 2008), while organizations like *Carrotmob* create online boycott campaigns in which participants are encouraged to buy products of partner organizations. The Hunger Site uses online tactics to directly donate money to charity partners (Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010). Organizations such as *MoveOne* offer an online platform on which different kinds of petitions can be made (Earl, 2006; Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010). Likewise, online tactics are used for elite participation. Types of hacktivism activities are email bombs and virtual sit-ins, also referred to as distributed denial of service attacks (Martin & Kracher, 2008). Examples of recent DDoS attacks were the attacks on Dutch banks, which led to the inaccessibility of their payment systems (Rijksoverheid.nl, 2013; Telegraaf, 2013). Besides hacktivism, online tactics are also used for negative and positive publicity, and publishing research. An example of a protest website is the Hall of Shame of Infact (Martin & Kracher, 2008), in which corporate abuse is described and thereby negative publicity for firms is achieved. In a similar vein, blogs such as the Business Ethics Blog can provide information about the ethics of firms and thereby evoke symbolic damage (Martin & Kracher, 2008). Conversely, informational websites are used to gain support for initiatives such like the Fair Trade Movements by offering an online tool for comparing fair products (Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010).

2.3.3 Antecedents of online collective action processes

For legitimization SMOs use media strategies, and as explained social movements use online media as well. In the next part, we focus on framing processes and mobilizing structures of online activism, because they are antecedents of collective action (King, 2008b; McAdam et al., 1996; Rao, 2009). Balsiger (2010) discusses the difference between two types of tactics used by social movement organizations, the ones with substantive use and the ones with internal or mobilization use. The latter includes the actions that keep a group mobilized and give them opportunities to participate and be involved, thus creating a collective identity (Balsiger, 2010). They target broader audiences and eventually influence consumers, therefore they are designed to raise awareness among consumers (Balsiger, 2010). In the following sections, these antecedents of collective action are discussed.

2.3.4 Framing processes

New market categories often lack the legitimacy of the incumbent organizations; therefore they might fail to gain enough customers in an industry or for a technology (King & Pearce, 2010). Changes in markets are often preceded by social movements advocating alternatives to the incumbent practices or organizations, as is for example shown in the emergence of cooperative organizations in the USA (Schneiberg, 2013), the emergence of the windmill industry (Sine & Lee, 2009), and the thrift industry (Haveman, Rao, & Paruchuri, 2007). King and Pearce (2010) argue that social movements are extremely relevant in this process of institutionalization of alternative organizational forms. Legitimization of these alternatives involves framing processes that help to break down cognitive barriers (King & Pearce, 2010). To implement these changes, social movements have to develop a vision to make the case for change and create followers as well (Battilana, Leca, & Boxenbaum, 2009). They are engaged in the production and maintenance of meaning for their audience, this meaning construction is called framing (Snow & Benford, 1988). Framing "[...] denotes an active, processual phenomenon that implies agency and contention at the level of reality construction" (Benford & Snow, 2000, p. 614). Collective action frames are the result of framing activities (Benford & Snow, 2000). Issues that social movements face when trying to develop a vision for change are: framing of the problem that the change is

intended to resolve; the change has to be better than existing practices; and there have to be convincing reasons for the change (Rao et al., 2000; Snow & Benford, 1992). Battilana et al. (2009) identified three types of frames that give a reason for action: the diagnostic frame that generates urgency; the prognostic frame that presents a vision for change; and the motivational frame that promotes the vision for change. Furthermore, frame alignment is necessary for participation, this includes the linkage of individual frames to the frame of the social movement (Snow, Rochford, Worden, & Benford, 1986). To be able to construct a social problem and create collective identities, social movements should use framing in such a way that it relates to both social movement participants and the broader audience (Luhmann, 1996; Snow et al., 1986).

Diagnostic framing

Diagnostic framing refers to framing that uncovers and elucidates problems with the current situation, for example regarding a current organization or industry, to expose the problems with the existing practices, and to identify the ones to blame (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). One of the important concepts of diagnostic framing is the injustice frame; Benford and Snow (2000) discuss how injustice frames are developed. Although injustice frames were used in many studies, Benford and Snow (2000) question if a collective action frame requires the inclusion of some sort of injustice. They argue that it seems explicable that when social movements are unhappy with the current situation and wanting to change it, that they also want to identify who is responsible and to blame for the current situation.

Prognostic framing

Prognostic frames are about the perception of reality and what needs to change to the current reality (Benford, 1993). Prognostic framing is about to solve the focal issue; it “[...] *involves the articulation of a proposed solution to the problem, or at least a plan of attack, and the strategies for carrying out the plan*” (Benford & Snow, 2000, p. 616). This also means that an alternative has to resonate with interests, values and problems of the social movement’s audiences (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). In short, the prognostic frame addresses the problem that is identified by the social movement and gives a solution or alternative. Benford and Snow (2000) add that the prognostic frame is something in which different SMOs of a movement differ from each other.

Motivational framing

The last framing action, which incorporates a reason why the audience should become active and be part of a collective action (Benford & Snow, 2000). Benford and Snow (2000, p. 617) further state that this final framing task includes the development of an “*appropriate vocabulary of motive*”. The motivational frame has to give a good reason why supporters should give their approval and endorsement to a frame or cause (Misangyi, Weaver, & Elms, 2008). Social movements as institutional entrepreneurs, trying to achieve institutional change, should possess social skills that enable them to assess their position and the position of others in the field and act upon that (Fligstein, 2001).

2.3.4.1 Online framing

In order to successfully frame a cause some sort of collective identity is necessary (McAdam et al., 1996). To provide an efficient framing process, which contributes to the collective identity of the people involved, the frame has to be communicated. Media attention plays an important role in framing and generating impact of social movements (King & Pearce, 2010). Online tactics function as an substitute medium for traditional media that activists can use to frame their cause

(Clark & Themudo, 2006), they for example use Facebook and Twitter to communicate their message to their audience (Bortree & Seltzer, 2009; Lovejoy & Saxton, 2012). In this way social movements can communicate their message to their supporters and the wider audience, without having the attention of the traditional mass media (Vegh, 2003). Email distribution was one of the ways Vegh (2003) argues that the Internet may contribute to the framing of social movements. Framing and agenda building concerns the influencing of the worldwide opinion, for which the Internet and more specifically communication channels such as websites or email lists are useful tools (Vegh, 2003). Websites can be used for *diagnostic framing* in order to define the problems regarding the current situation (Benford & Snow, 2000), for example by highlighting undesirable corporate practices in a so-called *Hall of Shame* (Martin & Kracher, 2008). In addition, websites can also be used for *prognostic* and *motivational framing*, by articulating solutions for defined problems and motivate audiences to act (Benford & Snow, 2000; Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006). Websites of activists can help to spread their pre-existing message and goals (Kingston & Stam, 2013), and they can be used for dissemination of information about the identity and mission of activist groups (Stein, 2009). Motives for participation may be reinforced by the Internet (Van Laer, 2010a): as for most people the size of the group of supporters is important to determine the efficacy (Marwell & Oliver, 1993), a social network like Facebook can contribute to this feeling of efficacy because supporters can see the actual number of fans and the increase in supporters of a movement (Van Laer, 2010a).

2.3.4.2 Online Frame Alignment

The Internet can support to outline a collective action frame by framing and promoting participation of the general public (Benford & Snow, 2000). Framing involves how individuals perceive certain phenomena with their individual cognitive structures (Oliver & Johnson, 2000). These individually developed frames can grow and resonate and become collective action frames (Hara & Huang, 2009). For example by using websites, like the peace movement did by combining snapshots of representations of collective action frames (Hara & Shachaf, 2008). This integration of individual frames and developing them into a coherent story, is called a frame alignment process (Benford & Snow, 2000); this process can be facilitated by the Internet (Hara & Huang, 2009). For example, Park's (2002) case study of the Electronic Frontier Foundation (EFF) showed that frame alignment processes were used by online social movements.

Frame bridging

Websites, blogs, and emails can be used for frame alignment processes, specifically by frame bridging; which means that these technologies can be helpful to reach people who were not active in social causes before (Hara & Estrada, 2005; Hara & Huang, 2009; Kahn & Kellner, 2004). Frame bridging further involves the linkage of similar frames that are structurally unconnected (Benford & Snow, 2000). Using websites and social networks on the Internet, ideologically like-minded people can be connected and thereby create a collective identity (Clark & Themudo, 2006). Internet and online networks can enable people to learn about other people who have similar problems or concerns and thereby developing a collective identity (Myers, 1994). The Internet can be used to collaborate in creating and approving joint statements and developing joint codes of conduct and thereby constructing a collective identity of participants of online social movements (Pickard, 2008; Strange, 2011).

Frame amplification

Frame amplification implies the idealization or clarification of existing beliefs or values (Benford & Snow, 2000). Value amplification can for example be done by defining the issue at hand in

prestigious terms and emphasizing important societal values (Park, 2002). Belief amplification involves the efficacy and justification of action, to motivate people to take part in action (Snow et al., 1986). This can for example be done by showing how important it was that people took part in a certain action of a website, by giving instant feedback (Park, 2002). Hence, websites can be a tool to exchange inspiring words by using verbal encouragement, and thereby using frame amplification to create a feeling of solidarity among activists and participants (Hara & Huang, 2009). Activists frame their cause to elicit an emotional response and to legitimate their frame, also called a *hot cause* (Rao, 2009). These hot causes intensify emotions and trigger new beliefs, these frames are designed to create an emotional resonance and to amplify the frame (Rao, 2009).

Frame extension

Frame extension means that the original frame is extended to include other important issues or concerns of the SMOs audience (Benford & Snow, 2000; Snow et al., 1986). Frames of SMOs are not always embedded in the values of the potential adherents and therefore SMOs may have to extend their primary frame in such a way to include values that are not most important for the SMOs but are important for the adherents (Snow et al., 1986). SMOs need to identify values of potential participants and align these with the movements' own frames in order to be able to target a larger potential participant group (Snow et al., 1986). In the EFF case, this was done by addressing other victims of the new communication law, and thereby extending the original frame to a broader field (Park, 2002). Benford and Snow (2000) warn for possible damaging effects of frame extension: they argue that framing processes are frequently contested, that frames sometimes get out of control of the social movement and that they not always lead to the expected results.

Frame transformation

Last but not least, frame transformation means that old frames are replaced by new ones (Snow et al., 1986). In some cases, the causes or values of SMOs may not resonate or may even contradict the existing values. When this occurs, old values have to be replaced by newly established values, and frames have to be reframed to gain support (Goffman, 1974; Snow et al., 1986). This transformation involves 'a systematic alteration' that completely changes the way of thinking for participants (Goffman, 1974). Two kinds of transformation processes are identified: transformations of domain-specific frames and transformation of global interpretive frames (Snow et al., 1986). The first entails a substantial change in the frame of a particular domain of life, while the second involves a change as a new framework that replaces all other frames. In the case of the EFF frame transformation is done by changing the frame from online activism to offline protest (Park, 2002). According to Benford and Snow (2000), this is a form of frame alignment that is not studied very often.

2.3.5 Mobilizing structures

Change is hard to implement without support, therefore actors that are striving for change have to gather support and mobilize followers (Greenwood et al., 2002), and set-up alliances and cooperation (Fligstein, 2001). New organizations and frames either compete with other frames (Rao, 1998), or suffer from the liability of newness and therefore fail (Freeman, Carroll, & Hannan, 1983). The frame, among other frames, that attracts the biggest political support from the state, professions, or other organizations become may be able to become the dominant frame (Rao, 1998). Gathering support for their frame can be achieved by social movement through combining multiple allies and reducing the contradictions in the bigger movement, while also

exacerbating contradictions at opponents by showing their shortcomings and highlighting the improvement of adopting the new frame (Rao, 1998; Seo & Creed, 2002; Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). Hence, individuals, activists or social movement organizations do not always achieve changes by themselves, but they actively socialize and create communities that are committed to social change (Sine & Lee, 2009). Mobilizing structures are “[...] *collective vehicles, informal as well as formal, through which people mobilize and engage in collective action.*” (McAdam et al., 1996, p. 3). Through these structures, people can become active and collaborate with people with similar opinions, values, or concerns. Social movements are usually, unlike most of their targets, not very wealthy by themselves, but they can bring other players into their coalition to gain resources (Battilana et al., 2009). With their resources social movements can encourage target organizations to change, which is used to persuade an organization and can be seen as a material gain tactic which is earlier described (Andrews, 2001; Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; King & Pearce, 2010). In addition, social movements can make use of their social position to support the implementation of the divergent changes they achieve (Battilana et al., 2009). For instance, social movements can use the endorsement of actors or organizations with a higher status to increase their legitimacy and thereby mobilize others behind their cause (Battilana et al., 2009). Social movements can establish partnerships with other actors, such as firms, individuals, or celebrities to gain credibility and legitimacy (Navis & Glynn, 2010).

2.3.5.1 Online mobilizing structures

Collective action frames are tools for giving meaning and simplifying the world, but in such a way that they are able to mobilize constituents (Snow & Benford, 1988). These frames are supplemented by mobilizing structures in through which people can become active and endorse the frames. This part will analyze how the Internet facilitates the mobilizing structures that play an important part in facilitating collective action as well. Mobilization means that an activist group is transformed from being a group of passive individuals to an active participants collection (Tilly, 1978). Two different processes are distinguished: consensus mobilization and action mobilization (Klandermans, 1984), in which the former is focused on obtaining support while the latter is focused on motivating audiences to participate. Furthermore, two different types of mobilizing structures are identified by social movement scholars according to King (2008b): interpersonal networks and formal organizations.

(Interpersonal) networks

Networks on the Internet can be created to assemble activists with different background (Clark & Themudo, 2006), leading to easier coalition building (Flanagin, Stohl, & Bimber, 2006). For example, activists use websites and hyperlinks to link different groups of activists (Walgrave, Wouters, Van Laer, Verhulst, & Ketelaars, 2012), as is illustrated by the case of EFF contesting the Communication Decency Act in which activists use hypertext links to connect activists to each other (Park, 2002); and by the case of protest against the WTO in which activists use joint statements to create an interpersonal network (Strange, 2011). In addition, without the online mobilization against the Iraq war the protest would not have been as massive and diverse as it was (Bennett, Breunig, & Givens, 2008). According to Van Laer (2010), the Internet was particularly helpful to form and integrate groups of organizations to coordinate these activities. These activities are directed at groups and organizations; concerning the structural integration by connecting groups to each other, and by developing a common frame or master frame to provide cultural integration (Gerhards & Rucht, 1992). Information distribution by, for instance websites or email lists, creates a network that can be used for organization and mobilization

purposes (Vegh, 2003). Once such a website with information distribution is established, it can also be used to provide a forum in which users can discuss the issues the movement is striving for, distribute the information to others and thereby enable communication and coordination among sympathizers (Diani, 2000; Vegh, 2003). In addition, websites can be used to disseminate action alerts and campaign materials (Van Aelst & Walgrave, 2007). Emails, blogs, wikis, and websites enable communication for both one-to-one and mass communication, and collaborative mobilization can already occur with simple email actions and websites (Hara & Huang, 2009). Hence, the Internet offers the opportunity for mass communication by providing social networks that can be used as informal mobilizing structures (Bennett et al., 2008; Bennett & Segerberg, 2012; Clark & Themudo, 2006).

Social networks such as Facebook can be used for involvement and communication with activists through communication of news, dissemination of information and creation of involvement among members (Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009), for example by posting links to other websites and news-items and thereby creating a network which can be used for mobilization. An analysis of Facebook profiles of advocacy groups by Bortree and Seltzer (2009) suggests that dialogic strategies can be deployed using social networks, which can lead to more engagement of stakeholders. This is underlined by the fact that affiliates of a social movement communicate online with friends about the prospective participation (Mercea, 2012). These online media can resemble mobilizing structure when they accommodate further participation between groups of activists (Fraser, 1993). Examples of online tactics that can be used by social movement organizations to improve mobilizing structures for instance are chatrooms and bulletin boards, as they allow for the possibility of dialogues and discussion and therefore enable input and involvement of participants (Downing, 2003; Kahn & Kellner, 2004).

Organizational forms

Mobilizing structures can be both formal and informal (McAdam et al., 1996). Social movements are eager to use the Internet because it provides variable and non-hierarchical structures (Bennett, 2003). Formal organizational and mobilizing structures are less necessary when using Internet activism (Bennett & Segerberg, 2012; Bimber, Flanagin, & Stohl, 2005). Therefore, it can be expected that more informal organizational forms are used by social movements on the Internet. These informal organizations are flexible, allow for consultation or involvement in decision-making by activists, and do not make use of hierarchical structures (Bimber et al., 2005; Carty, 2010; Earl & Kimport, 2009). Specific tactics for involvement of supporters of social movement organizations are for example: the provision of email or physical addresses, introduction of message boards on a website, offer fundraising possibilities, or list volunteering possibilities (Waters et al., 2009). Alternative media, such as platforms on the Internet, can be used to organize collective action to pursue change (Stein, 2009), by coordination of real-world campaigns, by petitions, by the distribution of campaign information, and by engagement in virtual actions (Kahn & Kellner, 2004; Van Aelst & Walgrave, 2007). For example, Stein (2009) found that almost every SMO in her study provided information on campaign news and descriptions and most of them coordinated offline actions as well. Recent research found that shifts in collective action paradigm occur, because more fluid organizational forms develop that are loosely coupled and that use flat hierarchical organization structures (Bennett et al., 2008; Bimber et al., 2005; Flanagin et al., 2006). This is elaborated by Bennett et al. (2008) who state that personal level communication networks are explanatory factors for the scale and speed of mobilization with the use of Internet. Digital media facilitate the organization of multiple issues,

linking fast to fast action networks (Bennett et al., 2008). Empirical research of Van Laer (2010) confirms this finding of Bennett et al. (2008); being a member of more organizations is associated with the use of Internet. These more personalized networks of collective action sustain high engagement and involve a strong network (Bennett & Segerberg, 2011), and they rely more on network mechanisms than formal leadership (see for example: Bennett et al., 2008; Bennett & Segerberg, 2012; Clark & Themudo, 2006). Bennett and Segerberg (2011) argue that although individualization might limit a collective identity, personalized collective action using digital media preserves high levels of mobilization and framing.

2.4 Research model

To conclude, SMOs that try to achieve institutional change make choices about their tactics in different phases: they act upon circumstantial or political opportunities, they use framing strategies to gain support, they set up mobilizing structures through which they want to gain resources, together leading to support for the collective action tactics they have chosen. When SMOs aim for institutional change, this involves a process of change characterized by struggles over logics of action and mobilization of resources (McCarthy & Zald, 1977; Rao et al., 2000). However, little is known about how the mobilization of resources will eventually lead to institutional change (Andrews, 2001; Schneiberg & Lounsbury, 2008). Schneiberg and Lounsbury (2008) argue that institutional field creation evolve through multiple waves of collective mobilization and organization. That social movements and strategies evolve over time is highlighted by Tarrow (1998), who states that there are sequences of social movements and cycles of protests. In these struggles of logics of action and mobilization, SMOs contest the behavior of target institutions, organizations or industries. The fact that targets will not always adopt new practices under influence of social movements (e.g. Briscoe & Safford, 2008), means that SMOs have to change their strategies over time. Therefore, a process-study investigating how social movements try to achieve institutional change is warranted.

In the current study a conceptual model is used as a framework to investigate the process of a single action campaign in which online tactics are used. The research model draws upon the social movement theory of McAdam et al. (1996), describing three key factors that explain the influence of social movements: political opportunities, framing processes, and mobilizing structures. These activities are described as antecedents of collective action; firstly opportunities are recognized and used by the social movement, secondly collective action frames are developed and spread, thirdly mobilizing structures are put in place and exploited, and finally these factors lead up to collective action. These factors are used to explain the role of social movements in the emergence of industries (Arbuthnott et al., 2010; Arjaliès, 2010), and institutional change (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006) and therefore these factors are important for the outcomes of social movement campaigns. Rao (2009) also uses this approach to explain the role of social movement in change processes, he defines a process in which activists first frame their cause to instigate an emotional response and second use informal mobilization to create a strong identity and spread the protest identity. This two-stage process consists of a *hot cause* and *cool mobilization* (Rao, 2009). This study focuses on a single campaign that is planned and therefore a process model is adopted. Based on Rao (2009) and McAdam et al. (1996), the assumption is made that a campaign follows a linear process from political opportunities, to framing processes, to mobilizing structures, to collective action. These processes are assumed to be activities that SMOs can influence to affect the success of campaigns. This links to the

research question because this linear model can be used to identify how online tactics are used in the process of an action campaign to instigate institutional innovation.

Furthermore, the process framework builds on the work of Hargrave and Van de Ven (2006) who propose a combination of social movement theory and technology innovation management theory to explain institutional change. They call attention to four characteristics of institutional change that are present in both theoretical fields: framing, network construction, enactment of institutional arrangements, and collective action processes of institutional innovations. This corresponds to the research question how social movements can establish institutional change by promoting institutional innovation. Moreover, Hargrave and Van de Ven (2006) describe a process of three phases through which institutional change takes place: starting with emergence, followed by development and ending with implementation. Therefore, to explain how social movements influence institutional change, the process steps of Hargrave and Van de Ven (2006) are used, in combination with the activities described by McAdam et al. (1996). For the purpose of investigating an action campaign these two concepts are adapted and combined in a conceptual model to be able to structure and investigate a single action cycle and to examine how online tactics are used. The conceptual model is presented in Figure 2, and consists of phases of the change process and activities that are conducted by social movement organizations in an action campaign.

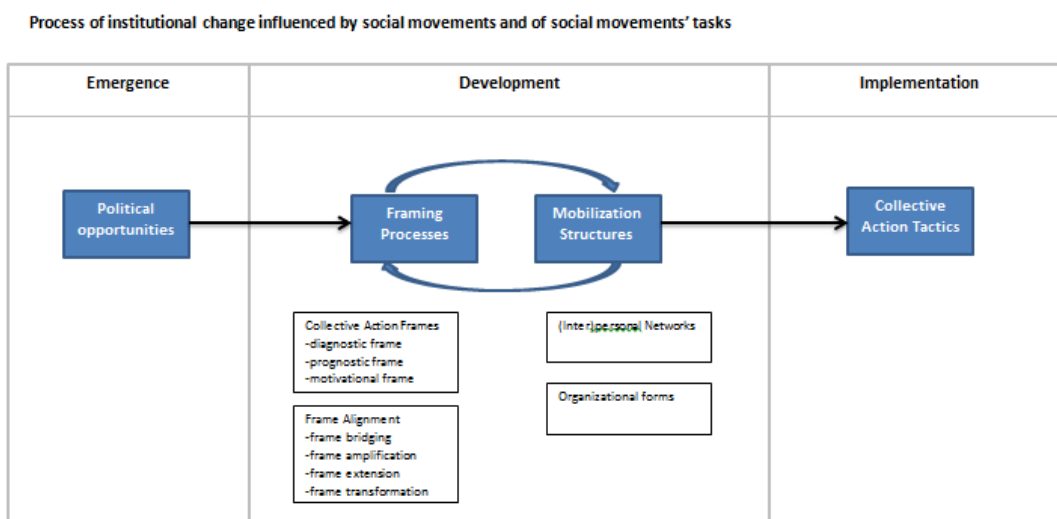


Figure 2: Conceptual research model of an online action campaign: tasks and phases.

3 Methods

3.1 Research Design

In order to provide insights to the research question of *how* a social movement organization uses online tactics to achieve its goals, an action campaign is selected in which online tactics are used. This enables to study how and why the organization uses online tactics and how they are applied in the context of a campaign. To gain a better understanding of how and why an action campaign develops over time and how a social movement uses and changes online tactics, a process methodology is used. Process research is about understanding how things change over time and why they change this way (Van de Ven & Huber, 1990). Accordingly, process data mainly consists of information what happened and who did what and when, about events, activities, and choices over time (Langley, 1999). This approach is suitable for answering the research question because instead of analyzing determinants, success factors, or causal relationships, the current research focuses on how an action campaign *unfolds* and how online tactics are used during that campaign. Research questions regarding how organizations evolve over time require a process theory explanation of the temporal order and sequence in which events occurred (Abbott, 1988; Van de Ven & Huber, 1990). Process research focuses attention on how and why things emerge, develop, grow, or terminate over time, and emphasize how change occurs (Langley, Smallman, Tsoukas, & Van de Ven, 2013), and is therefore adopted to answer the question of *how* and *why* a campaign evolves and *how* online tactics are used in the context of the campaign. This chapter will give answer to the question how the main research question will be addressed and which methods will be used to give answer to the research questions.

As the theoretical chapter indicates, a lot of research has been done in the field of social movements. In addition, an initial field of research emerges around online social movements. However, the latter field of research is still relatively new and unexplored. First attempts have been made to classify different sorts of online protest tactics, however especially the ways and processes of how social movements can use different online advocacy tactics to evoke changes are relatively unidentified. Therefore in this study an explorative and descriptive research design is used to gain more insights how social movements use online tactics to attain their goals. An inductive approach is used here to gather in-depth qualitative data and to build a theory from the ground up (Pettigrew, 1992; Van de Ven, 1992). However, process theorization needs to go further than a simple description of observed events (Van de Ven, 1992). The central challenge lies in moving from shapeless data towards a theoretical understanding of the events and processes (Langley, 1999). To make rich and complex data useful for others and generate theory is called *sensemaking* (Langley, 1999; Weick, 1979). Different methods of sensemaking are available (Langley, 1999), the different sensemaking strategies that are used will be introduced and explained in the *data-analysis* chapter. The analysis of the processes of the social movement campaign starts with in-depth process data and a description of events. Afterwards coding strategies will be used to categorize and order qualitative incidents and events, and thereby reducing the complex data into a set of quantitative data that will be analyzed (Langley, 1999; Van de Ven & Poole, 1990). Hence, process methodology is selected because it is an appropriate method to analyze the chronology of a campaign and identify the most important events, regarding the use of online activism tactics.

To study these processes of change and the tactics used by social movements, a single case study is conducted. Case study research involves the usage of one case in order to create propositions

or theory from empirical evidence (Eisenhardt, 1989). Case-studies are rich, empirical descriptions of particular instances of a certain phenomenon, based on a variety of data sources (Yin, 1994). A single case-study is used, because it provides in-depth insights of the action campaign, and is therefore an appropriate method to investigate the important events and the ways in which online activism tactics are applied during a campaign, within the scope of this investigation. Process research methodologies often make use of qualitative case studies (for a review, please refer to Langley et al., 2013). As it is difficult to isolate units of analysis in an unambiguous way, one of the main reasons to use a qualitative process methodology is to take the context into account (Pettigrew, 1992; Yin, 1994). Case studies are also very useful in relatively underexplored research areas like the current research, as the chief purpose is to give an in-depth examination with the chief purpose to be descriptive (Babbie, 2007). Since a case study enables to provide a rich empirical description of a campaign and the used online tactics in its context, and because case studies are particularly interesting for underexplored research areas, this approach will be used in this research.

Because the focus of this research is the process of a campaign using online tactics, a process study is designed to study the development and sequence of events during that campaign (Langley, 1999; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). Therefore, methodology and results are focused on how and when a social movement organization use online tactics and how these tactics affect the campaign of the social movement organization and the change it wants to achieve. Concluding, a case study of an action campaign in combination with a process methodology approach is chosen to examine the development and sequence of events and incidents in a campaign, because the aim of the current research is to discover the process and sequence of a social movement campaign rather than testing hypothesis or research models.

3.2 Data collection

3.2.1 Unit of analysis

The research question is about how SMOs use online tactics. SMOs deploy these tactics during their campaigns to achieve their goals. Therefore, to be able to investigate how SMOs use online tactics, in the current research, a focus on an online action campaign is chosen instead of focusing on online tactics separately. Several scholars focused on identifying different kind of online tactics (e.g. Martin & Kracher, 2008; Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010; Vegh, 2003), but little attention has been given to the development of campaigns over time although this can provide important insights into how tactics are deployed at several stages of the institutional change process (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). Therefore, in the current research the focus will be on an action campaign, with intentional and coordinated collective actions, mobilizing structures, and framing activities (Balsiger, 2010), using online tactics.

3.2.2 Sampling

None of the sampling schemes are a perfect fit (Poole, Van de Ven, Dooley, & Holmes, 2000), however in this paragraph the considerations for the sampling method of the current research will be briefly discussed. Poole and his colleagues (2000) argue that researchers should make a consideration about four aspects: sample size, sample diversity, intensity of data gathering, and costs. Costs (in terms of time and money) will increase when one or more of the other three factors increase. Therefore a compromise needs to be made between these three factors. The larger the sample size, the more valid the research and the more generalizable the results, however larger samples also create problems with analysis and interpretation (Poole et al.,

2000). A smaller sample size enables more intense data collection, but might also result in less generalizable results. In light of the existing trade-off between size, diversity and intensity, and because of the deemed importance of intensity in an exploratory research design, the decision has been made to limit the size and diversity of the data collection.

Hence, a case study will be conducted as it is particularly of interest when scientists want to gain rich information of the context of the research and the processes that are used (Morris & Wood, 1991). Another reason for choosing a case study is because it is a method that is often used in explanatory and exploratory research (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007), as the current research is exploratory a case study is a suitable design. Yin (2003) further defines four different types of case studies based on two dimensions: single case vs. multiple cases, and holistic case versus embedded case. The single case study was selected because it provides an opportunity to observe and analyze a certain phenomenon that has not received much scholarly attention before (Saunders et al., 2007). Furthermore, the current research will conduct a single holistic case study, because an action campaign will be analyzed as a whole without comparison of sub-units. Albeit different online tactics will be analyzed, the campaign is the primary research object. Concluding, the single holistic case study is the most appropriate research design for the current research within the time limitations of a master thesis research.

3.2.3 Case selection

In order to answer the questions a campaign will be used as a case study, as explained in the research design. Therefore it will be necessary to study a typical social movement organization that was recently engaged in a campaign using online tactics, and advocating institutional innovation. Hence, a case should be selected by finding an appropriate SMO and corresponding action campaign that corresponds to the research question. The methods used to find potential cases are part of the non-probabilistic sampling methods, since a combination of purposive sampling and snowball sampling is used. The specific method of purposive sampling is called judgment sampling, which means that the sample has to conform to the predetermined criteria mentioned (Blumberg, Cooper, & Schneider, 2008). The Google search-engine was employed to search for organizations and action-campaigns on the Internet that are focused on achieving a more sustainable society with the goal of institutional change. The websites of these campaigns were reviewed in order to find out if the selection criteria were met. A complete overview of selection criteria and the score-evaluation of the seven potential cases can be found in Appendix 9.2. When all of the aforementioned selection criteria were met, based on the information on the website, the organization was selected and approached by email or telephone. Introductory interviews with potential cases were used to confirm the selection criteria.

A total of seven organizations were identified as potential case-study subjects. After the introductory interviews the selection criteria were evaluated and consequently the two most fitting cases were selected and approached for a further meeting to discuss the study. After discussing the possibilities, requirements and potential campaigns that could be used for the current research, the decision was made to select the HIER Klimaat Campagne. The selected campaign is the Klimaatstraatfeest (KSF – Climate Street Festival) campaign, which is an online action campaign, focused on advocating institutional change in sustainability and was therefore suitable as a case study in the current research. A further explanation of the case and campaign will be given in the results section. The decision was made to investigate the KSF campaign of last year (2012/2013), because that is the most recently finished campaign that could be analyzed with most data collection possibilities and with the benefit that it was fresh in the

memory of respondents. Subsequently a research plan was developed and interviews were planned.

3.2.4 Time dimension

Studying change and using process methodology entails collecting longitudinal data (Poole et al., 2000). When collecting process data the researcher wants to document the sequence of events as accurately as possible, but temporal embeddedness often varies (Langley, 1999). Problems occur because background trends are influencing the events, and because the absence of exact moments of passing of events (Langley, 1999). According to Poole et al. (2000) the sequence of change can either be studied in real time or by relying on archival data in retrospective account. For example, most studies of organizational change have used retrospective case studies, conducted when outcomes were known (Poole et al., 2000). Both methods have advantages and disadvantages: retrospective studies have the advantage that the outcomes are known and the structure is clear, this helps to interpret events and the development of the process. With real time research scholars may miss events that were not significant at the time, but may be viewed as critical later on (Poole et al., 2000). However, the biggest disadvantage of retrospective research is that knowledge of outcomes of a change process can lead to hindsight biases, which might lead to leave out certain events or make other events more important (Poole et al., 2000). A combination of the two data collection methods would be the best, but this was not possible within scope of the current research. Because of time restrictions and the availability of suitable cases, the current research could not be conducted during a running campaign, therefore a retrospective research approach is adopted and the KSF of 2012/2013 is used as a case study.

3.2.5 Data sources

Because an in-depth analytical qualitative approach is used, data was gathered that could enhance the understanding of the development of the action campaign, of events happening during the campaign, and more specifically the online tactics that were used. Data collection techniques in case study research are various and used in combination and may entail interviews, observations, documentary analysis, and questionnaires (Saunders et al., 2007). As explained in the previous paragraph, in this study a retrospective approach is adopted because the focal campaign was already finished. For that reason, data was collected about that specific period of time in the past. This type of research is called archival research by Poole et al. (2010), which means the process is studied after it has occurred by analyzing documents, retrospective interviews, bibliometric analysis, and methods to construct historic events. The campaign launched in October '12 and finished in May '13. Thus, data collection was focused on looking back at the campaign and afterwards evaluating the most important events that happened during the campaign. An important element of the analysis was the buildup to the campaign and the important events and decisions made in the time before the official public launch of the campaign. Therefore data was collected from interviews, publications, websites, online discussion forums, news articles, social media, and documents. Specifically, data on online activism tactics for framing and mobilization by social movement organizations is essential for the current research. Data triangulation was important to warrant the quality of the data; meaning that different sources of data were used during the data collection and data analysis. In the case study it was important to triangulate different sources of data, meaning the usage of different data collection techniques in order "[...] to ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you." (Saunders et al., 2007, p. 146).

- **Interviews:** 7 interviews are held with 5 members of HIER and the KSF campaign. This included interviews with all employees responsible for the campaign and the creators of the campaign. Also 7 interviews with partner organization were conducted. Interviews were held with partners of three categories: civil society organizations, municipalities, and housing associations. An overview of interviews can be found in Table 2 below. Interview protocols used during these interviews can be found in Appendices 9.7 - 9.8.

Interviews			
<i>Organization</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Interviewee</i>	<i>Length</i>
HIER Klimaat Campagne	16-9-2013	Project Manager	60 min.
HIER Klimaat Campagne	25-9-2013	Man. & Communication	57 min.
HIER Klimaat Campagne	25-9-2013	Project Manager	58 min.
HIER Klimaat Campagne	2-10-2013	Program Director	60 min.
HIER Klimaat Campagne	2-10-2013	Man. Campaigns & Org.	58 min.
Woonstichting Valburg	24-10-2013	Staff member	39 min.
Municipality of Nijmegen	25-10-2013	Communication	40 min.
Housing corporation Eigen Haard	30-10-2013	Communication	24 min.
Municipality of Helmond	30-10-2013	Policy advisor	27 min.
HIER Klimaat Campagne	5-11-2013	Project employee	36 min.
Housing corporation Ons Huis	6-11-2013	Housing consultant	22 min.
Housing corporation Centrada	20-11-2013	Communication	36 min.
Civil society partner Band-op-Spanning	27-11-2013	Communication	15 min.
HIER Klimaat Campagne	27-11-2013	Man. Campaigns & Org.	54 min.

Table 2: Overview of primary data sources: interviews conducted

- **Documents:** The KSF provided their campaign plans which included the design and plans for the campaign, file of participants and number of participants, three campaign evaluations in which the organization evaluated the campaigns goals, partner contracts that included a description of the agreements about role during the campaign, campaign planning (designated when the activists planned their online activities), awareness research (survey held by the KSF to investigate the awareness of participants of the campaign), reports, newspaper articles.
- **Social media and online platforms:** Facebook status updates, Facebook analytics (including reach of messages, number of likes, number of posts etc.), most important Tweets (Tweets from campaign account, but also Tweets from participants and partners, and Tweets with #Klimaatstraatfeest), website statistics (number of visitors), YouTube movies, competition scoreboard (number of points scored by participants, ranking, number and description of (collective) actions conducted), weekly updates, online newsletters, and neighbor actions.
- **Survey:** To gain some more in-depth insights of the participant perspective, a few surveys were sent to participant with questions about their view on the campaign for background information and validation of the interviews. Participants were asked about their motivation to take part, their activities, use of online tools, communication etc.

Internal data

83 pages of interviews with HIER Klimaat Campagne
 54 pages of interviews with partner organizations
 11 pages of explorative survey with four participants
 21 pages of project descriptions and evaluations
 7 documents of website and social media numbers
 10 documents of participants and conducted actions
 8 documents of partner cooperation forms
 2 documents of campaign planning

External data

10 pages of Facebook messages (126 status-updates)
 286 pages of Tweets (1136 Tweets)
 86 pages of newsmessages website (73 messages)
 23 pages of newsletters (15 newsletters)
 14 pages of newspaper messages
 29 pages of partner communication

Table 3: Overview of the used internal and external data sources**3.3 Data analysis**

As explained in the research design, a process study was conducted and sensemaking strategies were used to analyze the data and construct theoretical insights out of the research findings (Langley, 1999). In step one, all the relevant data was used as raw data in a qualitative data analyzing software program (Atlas.ti) and out of this raw data a set of incidents was drawn (Poole et al., 2000). These incidents can be actions, decisions, interactions, events, and resources. These incidents describe something that happened during the campaign that was important or changed the campaign, for example changes in ideas, people, transactions, context, and outcomes or decisions, activities, actions etc. All the relevant data consisted of the sources described in the former section: interview transcriptions, documents with campaign plans and evaluations, online newsletters, and documents with all Tweets and Facebook-posts. In step two, all important passages (incidents) were written down in temporal order.

Subsequently, events were drawn from the incidents in which an incident is a raw datum and an event is a theoretical concept (Poole et al., 2000). Furthermore, the sequence of events was characterized; different phases during the campaign were identified. This sequence led to a pattern of change, a process of how incidents and events interact and eventually lead to change. To be able to do this, the approach of Langley (1999) was used. In the description of generic strategies for the analysis of process data Langley (1999) concludes with a chapter in which she categorizes the different sensemaking strategies and describes how these categorizes can be understood as a process (Langley, 1999). This sequence of sensemaking strategies was used to analyze the data; the different stages are called grounding, organizing, and replicating strategies (Langley, 1999). This is an approach for data analysis also used in other studies analyzing processes leading to institutional change and using a case-study (e.g. Arjaliès, 2010; Chiles, Meyer, & Hench, 2004). The following strategies are used for the derivation of conceptual insights and understandings from the process data:

3.3.1 Grounding strategies

These strategies refer to techniques that are used to develop concepts, either from field data or from theory (Langley, 1999). When concepts are drawn from field data this is called *grounded theory* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). As the current research is focused on exploration of a relatively new phenomenon and the approach is qualitative, the first approach used is the grounded theory approach. This approach is used because the intention of the research is to gain new insights. Therefore, the three successive levels of coding are used: open and axial coding, selective coding, and theoretical coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In the first level the core concepts of the critical incidents are identified. A short description of the incidents is given and afterwards these incidents are coded with the use concepts that occur more often. During the second level, the concepts that are developed during the first level will be used to code the incidents, and a short description of these incidents is given. During this first and second phase theoretical sampling, constant comparison, and theoretical saturation were applied, meaning additional participants were sampled on the basis of the first insights; the gathered data will be constantly compared with the data that was already gathered, and this will be done until no other concepts or categories are found or refinements be made (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

After different concepts were identified, they were compared with the literature that is described in theoretical framework. The data and events that are coded during the first phases will be conceptualized and integrated into the theories that are described. The process model was the reference point and served as a template with which the outcomes of the grounding strategies were compared and integrated. To be able to compare and identify relevant incidents and events derived from the grounding strategies with the process a systematic coding book was developed (Poole et al., 2000). The coding book gives an overview and a description of the codes that were used during the coding process. Next, the coding book that was developed on the basis of the theories and the process model was used to categorize different incidents in events and thereby integrate the data into the theories. The units of observation are the key events that are identified (Van de Ven & Poole, 2002). Therefore, in the first phase the key events are developed and are grounded in both the data and theory.

3.3.2 Organizing Strategies

These strategies offer a way to describe the process data in a systemic way and ease the data analysis (Langley, 1999). The events that are identified based on the grounded theory strategies were used to make a display of the sequence or chronology of events. Next, this sequence was visualized using graphical maps of the events. Visual mapping is one form of organizing strategy that is used to show the chronology of events and relations between main categories and subcategories. Along with the graphical representation of event sequences, a narrative approach is used to present a textual representation of the chronology. This strategy means that a detailed story was constructed from the incidents and events that were identified using the grounded theory approach. Social media and online data were used to enrich the chronology and illustrate the campaign. Graphical representations of the amount of Facebook *Status-Updates* and *Tweets*, the amount of online subscriptions for the competition, and the amount of website visitors were presented to illustrate how these online media were used as online tactics and how events lead to variance in outcomes (subscriptions, media-attention etc.). Both the visual mapping and narrative strategies are intermediary steps from the raw data towards a more conceptual understanding of the whole process.

3.3.3 Replicating Strategies

In this phase strategies were used to decompose the data in order to replicate them and to develop theoretical propositions (Langley, 1999). The visualizations also support the temporal bracketing by showing how phases develop sequentially. Therefore temporal bracketing and quantification strategies were used to develop theoretical insights from raw data. Temporal bracketing was used to identify comparative units of analysis within the whole process (Langley, 1999), used to construct progressions of events over time (Langley et al., 2013). The categories of influence for contestation (McAdam et al., 1996), described in the theoretical framework and process model were used for this purpose, leading to the division of events in separate phases of the campaign. In addition, quantification strategies were used to code the qualitative incidents into quantitative time-series by using predetermined characteristics which forms the basis of the coding (Langley, 1999). In this research, quantification is used to determine which social movement activities (e.g. framing, mobilization etc.) were used in which phase of the campaign and which role online activities played during the different phases.

4 Research setting

During the past decades more and more attention has been given to environmental problems, and specifically to the problems of climate change. The consequences of climate changes are often poorly understood, but it has influence on many aspects of daily life. To prevent further damaging developments a foremost change is necessary. Governments, companies, non-governmental organizations and citizens have been involved in the recognition of the problem and in finding solutions for said problem. The urgency of the climate change problem is not always on the mind of citizens. Moreover, governments promise changes in policies and regulations but often fall short of what is needed according to scientists and activists. In contrast to that, social movement organizations make significant efforts to put the problems accompanying climate change on the agenda. Social movement organizations aim to facilitate the institutional change by putting the climate change on the agenda and motivate stakeholders to change their policies and ways of doing. However, with the current policies and regarding sustainable development practices, the emissions of greenhouse gasses will continue to grow in the next years (Metz, Davidson, Bosch, Dave, & Meyer, 2007). The data of the current research will be gathered in the setting of this environmental social movement, which advocates sustainable management of the earth and its resources. Within this research setting a case is chosen that represents the main focus of the research question, the advocacy of practices leading to new institutions, and is therefore focused on the so-called reinstitutionalization. Given that the promotion and stimulation of the adoption of alternative and renewable energy production are part of the environmental social movement, this movement is chosen as the focal point of the current research.

The social movement organization that is focal part of the research is called the HIER Klimaat Campagne, which is a Dutch foundation that states: *"We are campaigning to engage the whole Dutch society in finding solutions to the problem of climate change"*, as explained by the campaign manager. The solution to the problem gets closer when the consumers and businesses feel that they are part of the solution. The HIER organization supports steps that are focused on solving the climate problem and initiates initiatives in different campaigns. Their goal is to achieve climate neutrality in the Netherlands and a more effective Dutch contribution to the solution of the international climate problem. The HIER Klimaat Campagne believes in cooperation, therefore they cooperate with consumers, businesses and the society at large.

One of the campaigns organized by the HIER Klimaat Campagne is the Klimaatstraatfeest campaign, which is a campaign in which consumers, businesses and governmental organizations cooperate to develop and execute actions that contribute to the solution to the climate problem. The campaign is concentrated on raising awareness of the climate problem and to take immediate actions that lead to the solution of the problem. The campaign focuses on every nudge in the right direction, from a positive viewpoint and in cooperation with partner organizations. The HIER organization developed an online competition in which consumer participants strive to save as much energy as they can, in cooperation with their neighbors. The online campaign of the KSF is chosen as the case-study subject of the current research, because it is part of the environmental social movement, focuses on positively influencing the Dutch society to abandon institutionalized practices and to adopt sustainable practices, and thereby using the Internet to develop and execute a campaign focused on saving energy and adopting sustainable practices by both consumers and other organizations. The campaign relies heavily on online means such as the campaign website, social media like Twitter and Facebook, emails

and newsletters, and an online platform specifically made for the competition. Online resources are used to engage both consumers and other organizations with the climate problem and to mobilize them to take action.

4.1 Actors

The HIER Klimaat Campagne organization is a Dutch foundation that has a mission to engage the entire Dutch society with the solution to the climate problem. The organization is a social movement organization that was founded in 2006 as an initiative of the Nederlandse PostcodeLoterij. HIER was founded to improve the collaboration between different environmental organizations, to be a cooperation of several social movement organizations in order to work on solutions to the problem of climate change. However, since several years HIER is an autonomous organization. HIER collaborates with its partners, but also with consumers and companies in order to make them feel part of the solution to the problem of climate change.

In 2008, the HIER organization started the HIER Klimaatstraatfeest, a public campaign that calls for the Dutch consumer to save energy together with its neighbors. With the campaign, they want to make saving energy and climate-friendly behavior to be the new social norm. Through cooperation with multiple partner organizations, participants can be activated to adopt a more energy efficient lifestyle (see Figure 3 for an overview of the most important actors). Together with their civil society partners numerous actions are organized throughout the campaign. Because of small resources, municipalities and corporations are important financiers for the campaign as well as important actors for mobilization of participants. Lastly, companies are prominent sponsors to the campaign because they provide energy efficient products and prizes for the competition. A complete overview of all partners can be found in Appendix C.

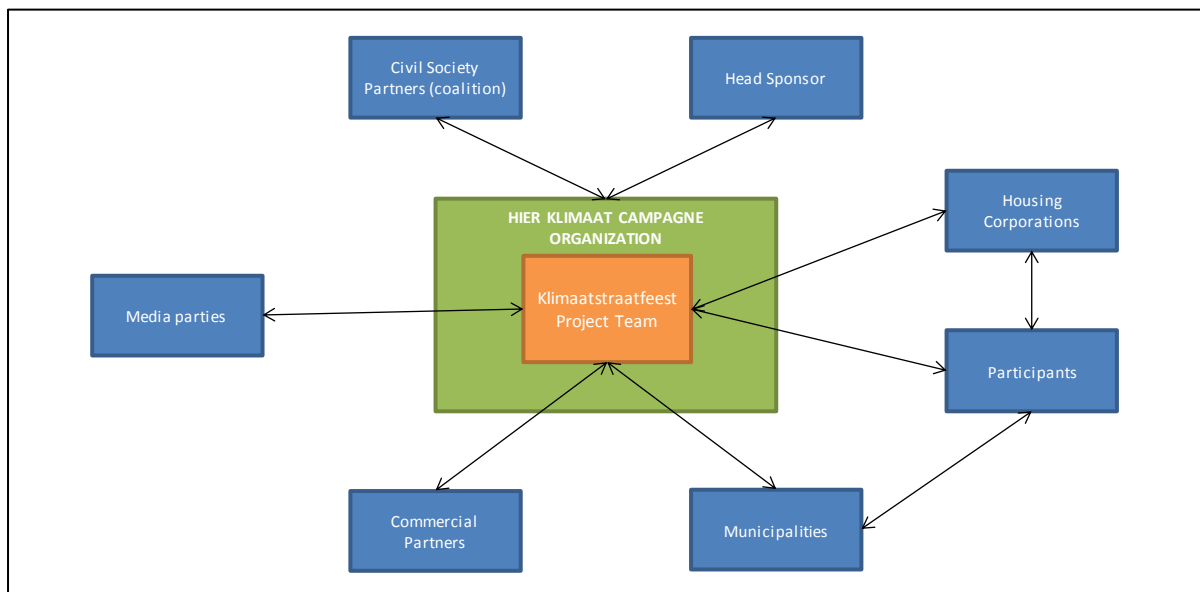


Figure 3: Overview of most important actors in Klimaatstraatfeest campaign

5 Results: Description of campaign process

In this section the main findings of the research are given; the chronological description of the focal campaign will be discussed and the development of the events and online tactics are analyzed. The campaign will be presented in a chronological order, divided by the three phases that were discussed earlier.

5.1.1 Introduction of Social Movement Organization and Klimaatstraatfeest campaign

First a brief history of the campaign and its emergence will be discussed. The Klimaatstraatfeest (KSF) emerged from HIER's ambition to engage the entire Dutch society with the solution to the climate problem. The original idea emerged from a political discussion in the Dutch lower house of parliament, in which an important political figure raised the idea to organize an energy saving competition. The HIER organization arranged brainstorm sessions to discuss the possibilities to develop a campaign around this idea. They came up with the idea to let streets in the Netherlands compete with each other in saving energy. The social component, of saving energy together with neighbors, was very important because HIER was convinced that change could only be possible when at societal level it becomes normal to adapt sustainable behavior. In addition, HIER wanted to find a way to lower the threshold to get started with saving energy, by making it fun and thereby engage people with a low-interest subject. The next step was to advance the campaign idea into a campaign concept: all sorts of actions concerning energy saving were defined at different threshold levels. Eventually the online campaign of the KSF emerged from these discussions; the competition was organized using an online platform where participants could engage with neighbors and conduct collective actions. Together with partner organizations and companies, the KSF proposed and organized several actions that consumers could execute to save energy and thereby lower their energy bills and act responsibly for the environment. With this, HIER tried to raise awareness and induce action in a positive way, leading to the institutional change that was necessary for the solution of the climate problem. The focal campaign of the current research was the 5th KSF of 2012/2013. At the beginning of the 2008-campaign, the idea had yet to be recognized and developed. The focal campaign of this thesis was already organized several times; nevertheless changes were necessary or have been made in every edition. The emergence, development and implementation phase are described in the next section. Figure 4 presents an overview of the KSF campaign with the most important events and phases.

1. Emergence: strategizing the campaign

The first phase of the campaign shows the importance of opportunities, constraints and evaluation of possibilities. The previous campaign was evaluated and discussions were held about the effectiveness of the campaign and the ways in which the concept may need to change. In the course of this period decisions were made about the outline of the campaign. The phase ended with the decision to start the mobilization of resources for the campaign.

1.1. Social Movement Organization activities

During the campaign of the former year, evaluations were made for the next edition of the KSF campaign. Because the campaign already existed for a few years, considerations were made to make changes to the campaign concept. Initial discussions already started in the beginning of 2012. The running campaign was analyzed and recommendations for a possible new campaign were made. Internal discussions were held about the future of the campaign and questions were

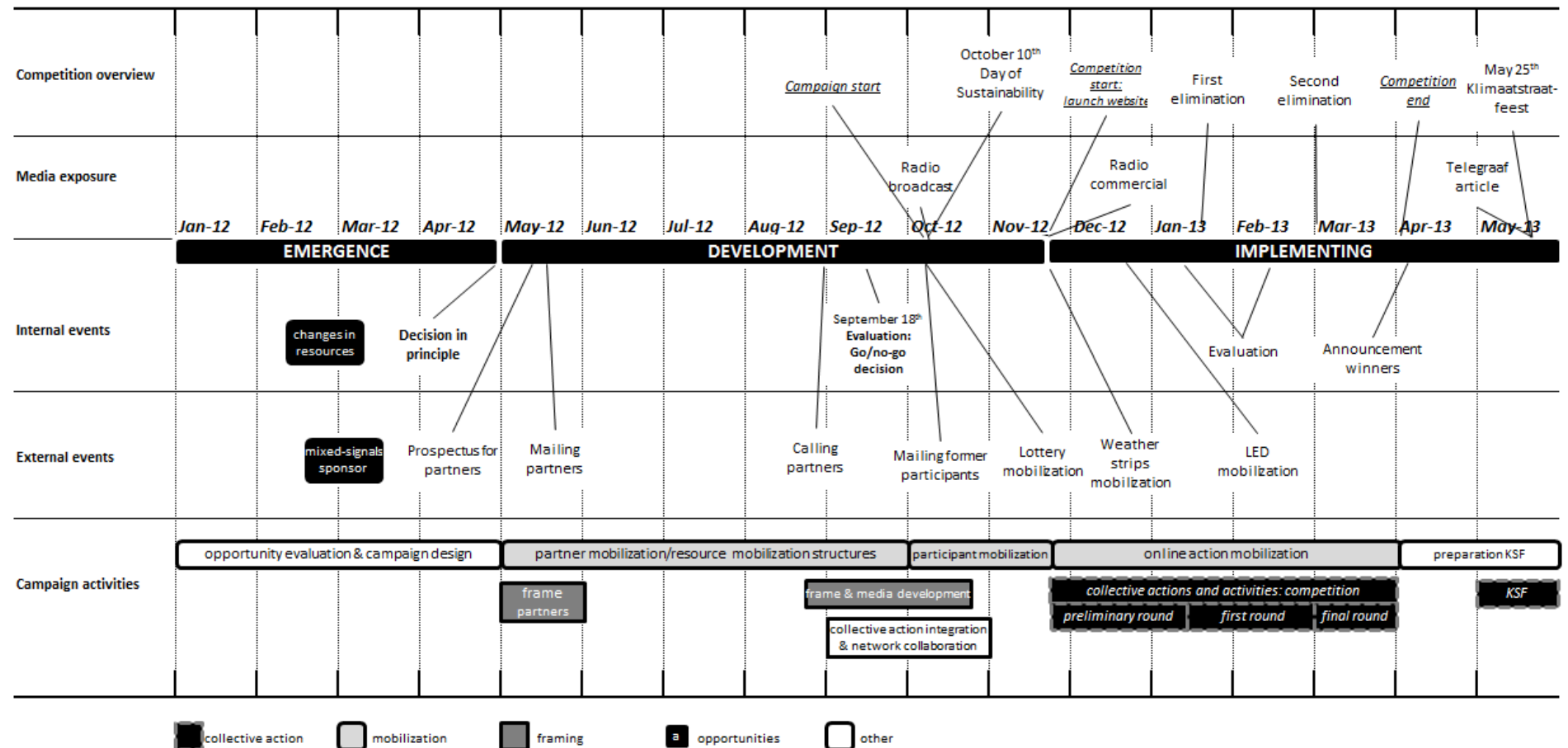


Figure 4: Sequence and development of key events of the HIER Klimaatstraatfeest campaign.

asked about the effectiveness of the campaign. At the start of this phase, the organization was unconfident about the impact of the campaign concept and was less motivated to continue its process. Initially thoughts were present to start a whole new campaign concept, but eventually the decision was made to restart the KSF campaign. As one of the organization's managers explained: *"And you are unsure whether the goals that were initially envisioned are achieved. Do we really succeed in engaging people to save energy and involve them in solving the climate problem?"*¹ Another factor was the mixed signals that the organization perceived from a main partner and sponsor of the whole organization. Based on these signals HIER thought that it would not hurt to come up with a new plan for the campaign. However, eventually the campaign idea was confirmed as valuable for the main sponsor, which led to the decision to discuss the possible alterations in the campaign design.

There were some important changes made, as the project manager recalls: *"No, it has changed. The competition has changed. The main objective remained the same, to involve the average Dutch citizen in the solution to the climate problem."*² In the discussion of changing the campaign one of the main reasons was the financial situation: the campaign had significantly less financial resources available and therefore had to think about how to be able to organize such a campaign in the same way. The most important change was the introduction of elimination rounds during the competition. The organization had two main reasons for this change: firstly it led to a decrease in time and money investment into the campaign; secondly it provided an exciting competition until the end of the campaign. These eliminations meant that there were two moments during the competition after which only the best performing participants continued in the competition. This was introduced as an incentive to subscribe to the competition, to engage with neighbors and conduct collective actions. Next to that, the organization introduced another incentive to strive for points and therefore to mobilize for collective action because they only gave away prizes to the best 10 participating streets. One of the managers remembers: *"In the previous years it didn't matter much if you finished 2nd or 499th, because you got the same prize. We wanted to make it more exciting and put in some pressure until the end to let participants strive for place 1, 2, or 3 or the top 10."*³ Therefore, these changes were introduced as a means to improve the action mobilization.

Another consequence of the budget decrease was the decision to change the way of mobilization of participants to subscribe. The decision was made to focus on mobilization of participants via partner organizations. Housing corporations and municipalities were the primary channel of participant mobilization: they were asked to create publicity in order to mobilize their constituents. In addition, plans were made to provide these partners with a gadget, which could be used to mobilize participants. Another decision was to focus the mobilization actions on mobilizing former participants. One more change was the declining budget for publicity: earlier there were resources available to conduct a media campaign to increase the visibility of the

¹ Translation from Dutch, the original citation is: *"En dat je twijfelt of je de doelen die je ooit voorzag of je die wel haalt met de campagne. Lukt het nu wel echt om mensen te bereiken, lukt het nu wel echt om energie te besparen en mensen te betrekken bij het klimaat."*

² Translation from Dutch, the original citation is: *"Nee, het is veranderd. De competitie is wel veranderd. De basisdoelstelling is wel hetzelfde gebleven, namelijk de gewone Nederlander te betrekken bij de oplossing van het klimaatprobleem."*

³ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *"In de jaren daarvoor maakte het niet zoveel uit of je nou nummer 2 was of 499; je kreeg dezelfde prijs. Dat wilden we wat spannender houden en wat meer druk erop zetten tot het einde toe om voor plek 1, 2 of 3 te gaan of voor de top 10 te gaan."*

campaign. However, during this campaign it was decided to focus on free publicity: social media were chosen as most important means to gain publicity in combination with public radio. The most important event took place at the end of this phase: management made the decision-in-principle to start the campaign. This was also the initiation of the second campaign phase.

2. Development: designing the campaign

In the second phase resource mobilizing structures were developed and the campaign design was further completed and refined. Furthermore, HIER made decisions about the frame to mobilize resources and used its network to make plans for the competition. Where the broad concept of the campaign and the most important changes were made in the first phase, these plans were elaborated and further developed in the second phase.

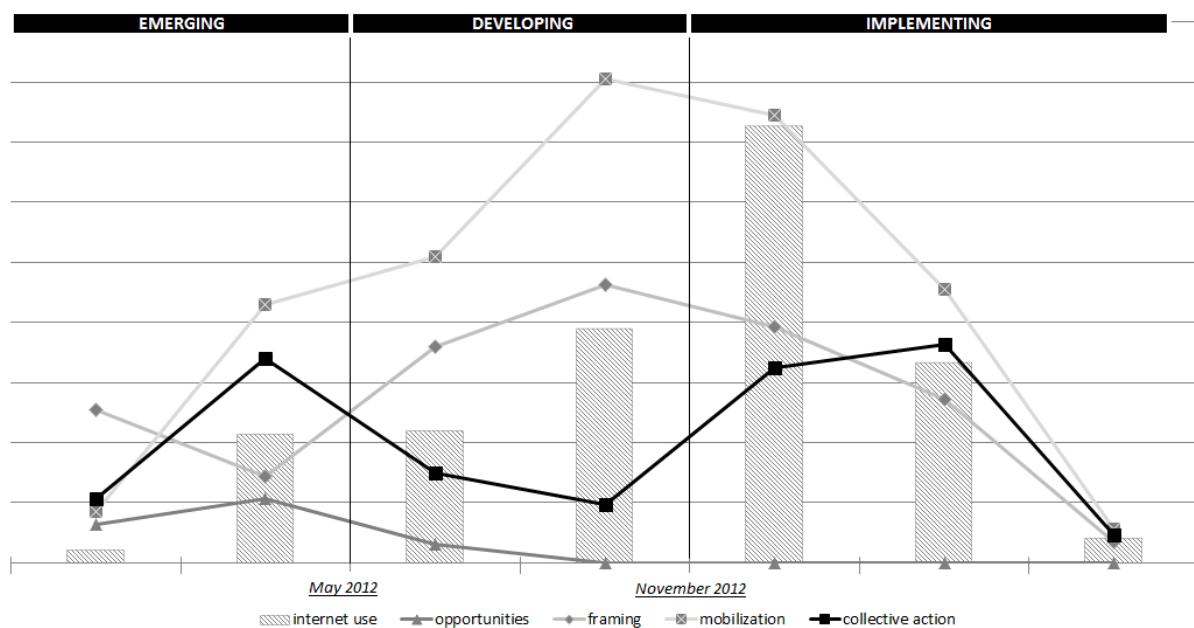


Figure 5: Sequence of campaign events: relative number of events regarding SMOs' tasks and the importance of Internet during the campaign.

2.1. Social Movement Organization activities

Figure 5 illustrates the importance of framing and mobilization activities in the development phase, and the relative important role of the Internet. Previous to the mobilization of partner organizations, the overall concept of the campaign had to be established. However, during the first phase only broad plans were discussed followed by the decision to start the campaign. At the start of the second phase, the prospectus for partner organizations was made: a frame to convince and mobilize partner organizations to take part in the campaign. The main message for mobilization was aimed at the existing climate policies of municipalities and housing corporations, and the social cohesion of the KSF campaign. One other way to convince partners and to increase legitimacy of the campaign was to show the prominence and scope of the campaign. Partners could be convinced by the amount of participants, the publicity activities of the organization, and the nationwide reach of the campaign. The mobilization of partners was important for the campaign in several ways: first it was a mobilizing structure for financial resources because partner organizations provide the majority of money with which the campaign can be organized, second, partner organizations were used as a mobilizing structure

for mobilizing participants and lastly, partner organizations were used to coordinate collective actions.

Municipalities and housing corporations were approached in several ways. First, all corporations and municipalities were approached by an emailing action. In addition, Facebook and the campaign website were used to direct extra attention on corporations, because the campaign had a focus on tenants. Corporations were introduced as a partner organization because they were identified as interesting cooperation partners because of their agreements and policy changes regarding climate. First, all municipalities were approached, and special attention was given to partners that already participated, as the project manager illustrated: *“We approach them proactively and ask them if they want to become partner. Basically, we approached all municipalities in The Netherlands. Then you make follow-up calls and thereby we focus on municipalities that participated before. In addition, we search for municipalities that are already very active in sustainability.”*⁴ In addition, HIER used a network contact at the umbrella organization for corporations to get a message on their website, and posted a message on a discussion board for municipality officials to promote the campaign and mobilize partners. As the project manager indicated, after the summer holidays the organization hired additional employees to give every potential partner a call to convince them of participation. Eventually a total amount of 18 municipalities and 9 housing corporations joined the campaign (see Appendix 9.3 for an overview).

The next important decision took place in September: an evaluation was conducted to analyze if the amount of mobilized partners and financial resources were sufficient to start the actual competition. The management decided that the available resources gave enough certainty to reach the targets and therefore decided to officially start the campaign, as the project manager explained: *“If we would have noticed in September that the mobilization was unsuccessful, we wouldn’t have started the campaign. However, by then it was good enough to feel confident that it would be okay.”*⁵ The mobilization of partner organizations continued, but because the go-decision was made the campaign activities could be started. In the same period campaign goals were set, the overall goal remained the same as one manager explains: *“The main goal is saving energy and engaging people with the solution of the climate problem. That goal already exists since 2008, but for every edition the management team determines specific goals.”*⁶ The external goal was to achieve an impressive amount of participants (a few thousand), to gain awareness of the outside world and to mobilize sufficient financial resources. This is meant for reputation of the whole SMO as well as to increase the legitimacy for partners and participants to take part in the campaign. In addition, internal goals were focused on the activities of participants: goals were formulated regarding the amount of collective actions conducted and the amount of people

⁴ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Wij benaderen ze proactief en vragen of ze partner willen worden. Dat hebben we in principe aan alle gemeenten in Nederland gevraagd. En wij gaan vervolgens daarop nabellen en daarbij kijk je ook, afgelopen jaar hebben we gekeken welke gemeenten zich vorig jaar aangesloten hadden, die hebben we weer benaderd om dat weer te doen. Daarnaast ga je ook kijken welke gemeenten al heel erg actief zijn op het gebied van duurzaamheid en zouden het interessant vinden om mee te doen en die gaan we dan actief benaderen.”*

⁵ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Als we in September merken dat het voor geen ene meter loopt, dan hadden we het niet gedaan. Maar toen liep het al goed genoeg om er vertrouwen in te hebben dat het wel goed zou komen.”*

⁶ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Het grote doel is energiebesparing en gewone mensen betrekken bij de oplossing van het klimaatprobleem. Dus dat doel staat al sinds 2008 vast, maar per ronde hebben we wel, wordt er in het MT denk ik wel vastgesteld wat de komende ronde de doelen moeten zijn.”*

engaging in awareness tools. Moreover, a central theme was formulated: to inform people about energy efficient appliances and solar panels.

During this phase the network of civil society organizations was approached to join the campaign, this alliance of 8 organizations was predominantly used to gain visibility of the campaign and mobilize participants (see Appendix 9.3 for an overview). In addition, partners were used to integrate actions and activities during the campaign. In the weeks before the start of the competition, actions and tools of partners were integrated into the online competition and activities were planned for during the competition. For the civil partners the main priority was to communicate about the campaign, and together with some of them HIER developed a prize question or activity. The commercial partners had to be mobilized as well, the ones that took part in the campaign before were informed of the new campaign and asked to join the HIER organization again. Moreover, the organization searched for new commercial partners; they used their network to find partners and explored the Internet to find companies that might be interested in the KSF campaign: *“And then you search the Internet for information about that company and try to find points of mutual interest which could make these companies interesting for us and what they could find interesting about us. This way, you try to come up with a story that fits their world.”*⁷ according to the project leader. The frame for commercial partners was focused on the interested audience that can be reached: all participants subscribed for a campaign in which saving energy is the central theme, so the message was that they at least should have a latent interest in the products of the partner. As the project manager explained: *“We try to approach them with the message: it is a very attractive target audience to whom you show your products. Perhaps they may be interesting for you in terms of sales, but we don’t push too much on that. We mainly argue that they can see the campaign as a means to boost their sustainable image and to show that to a group interested people.”*⁸

Commercial organizations had a special role for the HIER organization, they were needed to make and produce products for sustainability. The vision of HIER was that change of behavior is often associated with buying something different. To support consumers to make the right choice, KSF cooperated with companies in order to enable sustainable consumption. *“One distinctive feature of us is that we dare to give recommendations. Instead of merely saying that isolation is good, we team up with companies. [...] we don’t mind to cooperate with companies to organize fun promotions.”*⁹ Therefore, in this phase new commercial partners were sought in order to gain financial resources and organize activities during the competition. Actions of partners were integrated into the online platform as ‘Burenactie’, which was a collective action from which participants could choose to gain points. The main sponsor of the whole

⁷ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“En dan ga je op internet zoeken naar informatie over dat bedrijf en aanhakingspunten van waardoor zij interessant kunnen zijn voor ons en wat zouden zij interessant kunnen vinden aan het KSF en probeer je op die manier binnen te komen met een verhaal wat aansluit op hun beleavingswereld.”*

⁸ Translated from Dutch, original citation: *“Dus we proberen ze meestal met die boodschap te benaderen; het is een hele interessante doelgroep bij wie je je laat zien, die wellicht ook qua sales interessant voor je kan zijn, maar daar proberen we niet al teveel op te pushen. We geven meestal aan dat ze het niet moeten zien als saleskanaal maar echt als kanaal om hun duurzame imago mee te boosten en dat ze dat wel kunnen laten zien bij een groep mensen die geïnteresseerd is.”*

⁹ Translated from Dutch, original citation: *“En waarin we ons ook onderscheiden is dat we mogen en durven wel echt aanbevelingen te doen. In plaats van dat je alleen maar zegt bijvoorbeeld isolatie is goed, durven wij ook te zeggen van nou, gewoon in zee gaan met een bedrijf. [...] we vinden het niet erg om samen met een bedrijf leuke acties te doen.”*

organization was a major Dutch energy company. Before the start of the competition discussions took place about its role in the new campaign and how actions could be integrated in the online competition. For example, this partner provided weekly energy saving advice on the campaign website. With other commercial partners talks took place about the actions that they would support and what their contribution would be. For example, with a producer of household appliances was discussed which prizes they would provide for the Bingo Lottery, which was part of the competition's prizes. Furthermore, the SMO was approached by a supplier of solar panels that wanted to provide its products for participants in the competition. Another example of cooperation with commercial partners is the cooperation with a producer of weather strips. In collaboration with this commercial partner the KSF created an action for participant mobilization; the first 500 participants received a weather strip of the partner when they subscribed online to the competition. The search for new commercial partners started during the summer and development of actions and activities took place until the start of the competition. Eventually, a total amount of 6 commercial partners were active in the campaign (see Appendix 9.3). The SMO tried to plan the actions evenly over the competition period for maintaining the competition livelihood. Important returns for partner organizations were logo mentions, friendly URLs and space on the website to publish new items. In addition, the KSF gave advice about communication and provided press releases that could be used.

After the decision was made to officially start the campaign, the online platform was set-up and all the collective actions were reviewed. A new web designer made the integration with social media. As discussed in the first phase, the mobilization of participants was mainly focused on partners and free publicity. Digital media were chosen as focal means of mobilization: the campaign website, social media, emails, and the online competition platform were deployed as main resources to mobilize participants. The campaign website was employed as the central platform for participants that functioned as most important coordination and communication medium and was designed as principal mobilizing structure (Figure 6 shows an important part of the campaign website). All other digital channels were set to function as a means to lead to the competition platform. The organization set up an own Facebook-page and Twitter-account, which were used for increasing publicity and for forwarding participants and non-participants to the campaign website. The integration with social media was a very important aspect of the media strategy, but it failed because the web designer made some crucial mistakes. The integration was only successful halfway through the competition and therefore constrained the social media campaign, which will be discussed in phase 3. Furthermore, the online strategy was supplemented with an offline strategy. Promotion materials were designed, printed, and distributed among partners to gain publicity for the campaign. Partners were expected to distribute these materials among their constituents. This was a consequence of the decision about the mobilizing structure to leave the mobilization mostly to partner organizations. Deals with media partners were made as well: two popular Dutch radio stations (Radio 2 and Radio 5) were integrated with the online media in order to gain publicity and awareness for the campaign and for the whole organization. Moreover, daily newspaper De Telegraaf was chosen as media partner because it aimed at the same target audience as the KSF campaign. These media deals were not only aimed at publicity but also as signal for potential partners to show the magnitude of the campaign.



Figure 6: Header of the campaign website.

In October the attention of the SMO switched to the competition. At the start of October various online channels were used to call for subscription. Among other things Twitter, Facebook and the website were used to urge participants to register for the competition (for an example see Figure 7). Subsequently, the opening of the subscription started at the Sustainability Day, October 10th. Again, a variety of online channels were used to get attention for the campaign. Partner organizations were urged to alert their own people for the campaign. At the same time, the first traditional media campaign was launched to get attention for the opening of the subscription: the director of the campaign paid a visit to a radiobroadcast of Radio 2 to ask for attention of saving energy and the KSF campaign. Although the limited financial resources did not allow for a starting event of the mobilization phase, October 10th is regarded as the opening day of the campaign because the campaign website was launched and the subscription started. At the same day former participants got an email of the KSF with an invitation to subscribe to this year's edition, with the message that the competition was even more exciting because of the introduction of elimination rounds. The frame, that was chosen to gain to most resonance with the target audience, was focused on the registration for the competition because then participants could save energy and thus costs, compete for great prizes, and lastly could do good for the environment. The climate played a very limited role in the frame of the campaign, because, as the project manager will explain, the targeted segment was not so much concerned with saving the environment and solving the climate problem: *"The message is by all means positive and focused on solutions. [...] It is: save money and energy and that is good for the environment. [...] Because we think it suits best to the audience we want to appeal to. The impact on the climate problem is not what appeals to them. [...] It is the money that can be saved with actions and the points that can be earned and thus the likelihood to win a prize. That is actually the most important thing of this campaign."*¹⁰ The frame is positive and emphasizes the sociability and cost saving instead of the climate problem. Besides that, the KSF generated an incentive to subscribe by emphasizing the possibility to win presents and prizes at the end of the competition. The most important incentive was the KSF itself, the street festival that was to be organized for the winning street of the competition.

¹⁰ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *"De boodschap is in ieder geval met een positieve toon en oplossingsgericht. [...] Die is eigenlijk het bespaar geld en energie en dat is goed voor het klimaat. [...] Omdat we denken dat dit het beste aansluit bij de doelgroep die we willen aanspreken. Dat het de impact op het grote klimaatprobleem waarschijnlijk niet het ding is wat hun aanspreekt. [...] Het zal daar toch meer over gaan dat er geld mee bespaard kan worden. En dat ze er punten mee kunnen verdienen en daarmee dus meer kans maken op een prijs. Dat is eigenlijk het belangrijkste van deze campagne."*



Figure 7: Examples of Facebook posts (left) and Tweets (right) aimed at subscription of participants.

Next, the organization also deployed a new mobilization method at this stage. Partners received a special gadget, which they could use to mobilize participants, by awarding subscribers with the gadget. In addition, the KSF gave away 30 presents in a lottery among the first subscribers after the Sustainability Day. Part of the media strategy was to spread the campaign messages among partners as they were expected to publish press releases on their own websites and they were encouraged to spread messages on social media. In addition, during this phase and the next phase partners and participants were encouraged to use local media to gain publicity for the campaign. Several partners used the materials that were distributed by the KSF to gain publicity for the campaign; they used the press releases to publish messages on their social media, websites and local newspapers, and some partners even presented their own prices in addition to the prices of the KSF in order to convince people to take part in the competition.

3. Implementing: launch and course of the competition

In the third phase the focus shifted towards collective actions and action mobilization. During this phase the competition took place in which participants were encouraged to take actions proposed by the KSF organization. The organization was focused on the competitive spirit by motivating participants to carry out actions and by organizing special events and prize questions.

3.1. Social Movement Organization activities

During the first months after the start of the subscription, the focus of the campaign was on mobilizing as much participants as possible. However, during the 3rd phase the focus shifted towards the competition itself, the activation of participants, and increasing the amount of participants per street. The official competition kick-off took place on November 21st. That was another important milestone as the project manager recalls: *“That was a very important day, because the participants’ area on the online platform opened. From that moment on participants could log in on the website and see which neighbors participated as well and they could start gathering points.”*¹¹ The most important mobilization action deployed at the start of this phase was the action to give away weather strips for the first 500 participants. Unfortunately, this mobilization action did not work out very well, as it attracted fewer participants than expected. Furthermore, the organization used mailing to encourage non-subscribers to take part again and

¹¹ Translated from Dutch, original citation: *“Dat was een hele belangrijke dag, omdat dat het moment was dat de deelnemersomgeving open ging. Dus vanaf dat moment konden de deelnemers echt inloggen op de website en zien welke burens er in de straat ook meededen en konden ze echt beginnen met punten verdienen.”*

to encourage subscribers to start gathering points. During this phase, HIER also used the promotion of small gadgets on websites for free products as a mobilizing structure. When people wanted to receive this gadget, they had to subscribe for the competition: *“Because it is an inexpensive way to gain a large amount of participants: we gave away one free gadget that yields one extra participant. With the amount of participants we could impress sponsors and state that we have thousands of streets and thousands of participants,”*¹² as the manager explains. Halfway through December a second mobilization action was set up, this time people who signed up for the competition were given an LED light. These mobilization actions were clearly communicated through the website; in addition, social media were used to call for signing up for the competition in order to win these gadgets.

A nationwide radio commercial was broadcasted after the start of the competition for one week to gain publicity and to encourage people to subscribe. Although the effectiveness of this media campaign is hard to measure, it can be stated that the number of applications around the start of the competition had risen steadily. At that time there were peaks in the number of website-visitors, Facebook reach and Tweets about the campaign (see Figure 8 for amount of Tweets and Figure 14 for Facebook reach). The KSF also used bannerings to boost the online presence of the campaign. Hence, the integration of online and offline media has boosted the participation of the campaign. The motivational frame, the message for participants to subscribe, was perceived as very successful and the mobilization using small presents or gadgets was also effective. Another important mechanism for mobilization of new participants in the competition was to design incentives for existing participants to encourage their own network to participate. First, the amount of points earned by a street is directly proportional to the amount of participants in the street. Second, participants were provided with offline and online material to increase publicity and to be able to make the neighbors familiar with the campaign. Third, because social media were integrated into the competition platform participants could earn points when they used their own social networks to publish about the campaign. Hence, the so-called ‘Kartrekkers’ – initiators of taking part in the competition – were facilitated by HIER to increase the amount of participants per street.

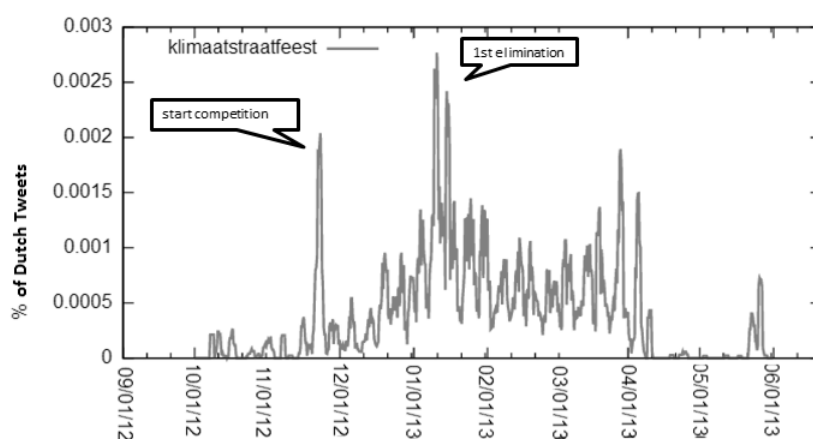


Figure 8: Number of Tweets during the public campaign about the Klimaatstraatfeest

¹² Translated from Dutch, original citation: *“Omdat het een hele goedkope manier is om aan heel veel deelnemers te komen, je geeft gewoon een gratis gadget weg die je op kan sturen met de post en het levert je een deelnemer op. En daarmee konden we tegen sponsors zeggen, kijk ons eens fantastisch zijn: we hebben duizenden straten en duizenden deelnemers.”*

As explained, participants could start to earn points in this phase. Using the online platform they could see what they could do to earn points. All these actions had to do with saving energy and increasing awareness for the climate. The KSF organization had developed an action list with a description of all possible actions in different categories. These actions were individual as well as collective, although the campaign focused on collective action. After November 21st participants could log into a section of the campaign website to see the actions, how many points they could earn, and possibly the supporting evidence that had to be handed in in order to receive the points. For every collective action a short description is given (see Figure 9 for an example of a collective action) and an explanation of the importance and benefits, illustrated by the project manager: *“We try to formulate it as understandable as possible. So we try to keep it simple and, in particular, action-oriented. What can I do? And what are the benefits? And we formulate it in a fun and positive way.”*¹³

The screenshot shows a web interface for a campaign. At the top, there's a header with 'Burenactie' and 'Uitvoering'. Below this, a progress bar shows 'PUNTEN BEHAALD MET DEZE ACTIE' with 'punten' (0) and 'doelen' (0). A status section says 'Deze actie is nog niet uitgevoerd.' and 'Goedgekeurd: Gezamenlijk dubbelglas aanschaffen Aantal 3 Goed gedaan!'. A list of 'RECENTE ACTIVITEITEN' shows 'Actie ingediend: Gezamenlijk dubbelglas aanschaffen Aantal 3 Toelichting hier'. The main section is titled 'Gezamenlijk dubbelglas aanschaffen' and 'PUNTENOPBOUW VAN DEZE ACTIE' with a table showing 'basis punten' (0), 'punten per huis' (1500), and 'maximaal aantal punten' (15000). Below this is a description of the action, its benefits, and a note about possible savings. Red arrows point to various parts of the interface: 'execution' points to the status, 'amount of points' points to the progress bar, 'action description' points to the text block, and 'cost saving' points to the bottom note.

Figure 9: Example of a collective action description on the online campaign platform.

Individual actions were focused on creating awareness in a fun way and rewarding participants who were already very climate aware. Other individual activities that generated points were so-called online tools; web-based interactive questionnaires that made people aware of certain topics that have to do with energy efficiency, climate and sustainability. Some of these tools were developed by partners that contributed to the campaign by integrating them into the online platform as a possible action. Moreover, collective actions were proposed by the organization, these actions had to be conducted together with neighbors. Collective actions were divided into different categories, from actions with a high threshold (many points) to actions with a low threshold (fewer points). Participants were stimulated and facilitated to conduct these actions because they yielded the most points in the competition and because the organization developed a special online discussion board, integrated into the website. It was used by participants to make plans and coordinate the execution of the actions. In order to receive points the participants had to upload evidence of the collective actions. During the first part of the competition only collective action that were described on the competition website could be conducted by participants, after the first elimination round participants could develop own collective actions. Subsequently, these new actions were added to the competition platform to enable other participants to do them as well and they were used to generate extra publicity for the campaign. Furthermore, participants were encouraged to share their actions and try to gain publicity in local press for the campaign and the campaign message.

¹³ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Met name alles proberen zo begrijpelijk mogelijk te formuleren. Dus we proberen het met name simpel te houden, actie gericht. Wat kan ik doen? En wat levert het dat me op? En dat ook gewoon op een leuke en positieve manier dat te formuleren.”*

In this phase the organization deployed several tactics for action mobilization: to encourage participants to become active and conduct actions. Weekly digital newsletters and digital updates were sent to participants. The newsletters were focused on activities happening during the competition and getting attention for specific actions. These are incentives to inspire other participants to take action and give practical hints what could be done for points. Figure 10 shows an example of a newsletter in which the KSF draws attention for a collective action. The weekly updates were focused on the competition ranking: they showed the amount of points and the position in the ranking. They were meant to engage and inspire people for actions, and highlight the competitive spirit in order to encourage participants to conduct collective actions. These mailings were always linked to the competition website in order to direct participants to the competition platform. Unfortunately, the weekly updates were not sent during the first weeks of the campaign because the website designer forgot to send it. Consequently, there was less focus on the competitive spirit than previously was anticipated, and this tactic largely failed during the first part of this phase. In their evaluation the organization suspected a relation with the disappointing number of ‘burenacties’: *“All info was sent to the web designer, but they forgot to send it. That could be related to the disappointing number of ‘burenacties’.”*¹⁴ Hence, the online campaign both missed the integration with social media and weekly updates during the first months and it cost a lot of time for the organization to solve these issues. This is an important aspect that failed, because the organization had chosen to focus on online mobilization.



Figure 10: Example of a Newsletter in which the KSF tries to inspire its participants to use weather-strips.

Social media were strategically integrated with the online competition and functioned as important source of visitors of the website. Facebook and Twitter were used to increase interaction with participants and to inspire them to take action. The KSF used them to praise participants for taking action and inspiring them to do more (Figure 11 shows an example). Tweets and status-updates reported about what activities happened during the campaign in order to distribute it among participants: *“To show what happens, with the hope that other people think that it is fun what’s happening and think about taking action themselves as well,”*¹⁵ a campaigner explains. Social media were also used to call for specific action, for example to use a new online tool or to publish energy saving advice. All news items were published on the campaign website, but to increase the scope and reach of these social media were always used, and they were linked to the website. Hence, social media played a crucial role in order to share knowledge and enthusiasm, to show what other participants do, eventually with the purpose to mobilize participants to take action. A downside of this strategy was that the chosen theme of

¹⁴ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Alle info daarvoor was naar –webdesigner – gestuurd, maar zij waren het vergeten te sturen. Dat zou een relatie kunnen hebben met het tegenvallende aantal burenacties.”*

¹⁵ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Te laten zien wat er gebeurt, met natuurlijk wel de hoop dat de mensen denken dat het leuk is wat er allemaal gebeurt en dan denken laat ik ook maar meedoen.”*

the campaign did not receive much attention. Because of the specific news provision focused on the actions undertaken by others, the campaign scarcely communicated about its own theme. Therefore, little attention was given to energy efficient appliances and solar panels, which could be the reason for fewer activities regarding these subjects.



Figure 11: Example of a Tweet in which the KSF campaign praises its participants.

During this phase participants could conduct several ‘burenacties’ with their streets, some of these actions were actions of partners integrated into the competition platform. Next to these activities of the competition, the campaigners also organized small activities or prize contests, some in cooperation with partners to put these partners in the spotlights. As one campaigner illustrates: *“We post these prize contests on Facebook. I think this has a small indirect effect; maybe you will get some new participants. [...] But they are more focused on the fun aspect, to make saving energy fun and attractive.”*¹⁶ They did this for example by organizing price questions for small prizes and organizing special activities. Furthermore, in collaboration with a partner an energy truck that helps to advice what can be improved about homes was given away to the winner of the contest within the competition. And together with the provider of weather strips, a contest was organized to help participants to improve isolation of their homes. Ergo, throughout the competition several actions were organized to make energy saving fun, to engage people in the competition and to put the partners in the spotlights. Social media played a crucial role for these activities, as they were used to gain attention for the actions and to declare the winners.

5.1.1.1 Cooperation with partners

Since partners were selected as main mobilizing structure, the cooperation with these partners was important during the implementation phase. At important moments in the campaign press releases were sent to partners, which could be adapted for their own communication channels. Besides, monthly updates were sent to partners to keep them informed about the status of the competition. After the start of the competition the partners received contact information of participants in their constituency so that they could keep in touch and encourage them as well. Consequence of the decision to use partners as mobilizing structure was also the review of the promotion activities of partners. In December all municipalities and corporations received an update about what happened in the competition. In this review the SMO also checked if the participants of the partners were likely to go through to the next round. For each partners a specific advice was made to increase the number of participants and to encourage participants to become active. The KSF checked if the partners made use of the promotion materials and if they communicated about the campaign. The campaigners felt that the mobilization by partners was largely unsuccessful, because many partners did not optimally use the promotion materials and they did not do much to promote the campaign. In some cases even the provided gadgets were still at the office. Another online tactic was establishing a LinkedIn page where partners could cooperate and exchange tips to mobilize people to participate. A campaigner posted a

¹⁶ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Maar wijzelf posten zeg maar wel op Facebook gewoon bijvoorbeeld prijsacties. Ik denk dat een beetje een indirect effect heeft. Misschien dat je hier en daar nog een extra deelnemers erbij krijgt. [...] Meer op het leuke facet zeg maar, energiebesparing kan een beetje een suffe associatie hebben. Nu maak je het leuk en aantrekkelijk.”*

weekly update, but partners did not contribute much. She describes: *“That is how it goes; they stimulate a project at financial level but not practically because they don’t have the capacities for it.”*¹⁷ In December the campaigners tried to steer the partners in the right direction by sending them an email with practical advice the improvements they could make. However, not many partners took this advice to heart. Moreover, people were not much involved in the campaign in December because of the holidays. The first elimination was already on January 16th so there was not a lot of time to repair the backlogs. The project manager concludes: *“For some partners this yielded some extra participants, but for most of them it was already too late.”*¹⁸

5.1.1.2 First elimination round

The first elimination was on January the 16th: only the 150 streets with the most points went through to the next stage of the competition. Consequence was that several partners did not have participants in the competition anymore and the campaign virtually ended there for them. This led to some negative reactions of both partners and participants. The organization seized the elimination moment as a possibility to increase the publicity and increase the sense of competition by publishing about the elimination round and encouraging participants to strive for extra points in order to stay in competition. Around the elimination days, digital media were employed to get attention for the competition. Publicity was created by messages on the website, social media and mailings to encourage participants to take extra actions. As can be seen in the online campaign figures below, the elimination rounds led to a small peak in new participants and to a larger peak in website visits and Facebook reach. Especially the amount of *likes* increased a lot around the first elimination round, which could have something to do with the integration of social media with the campaign website.

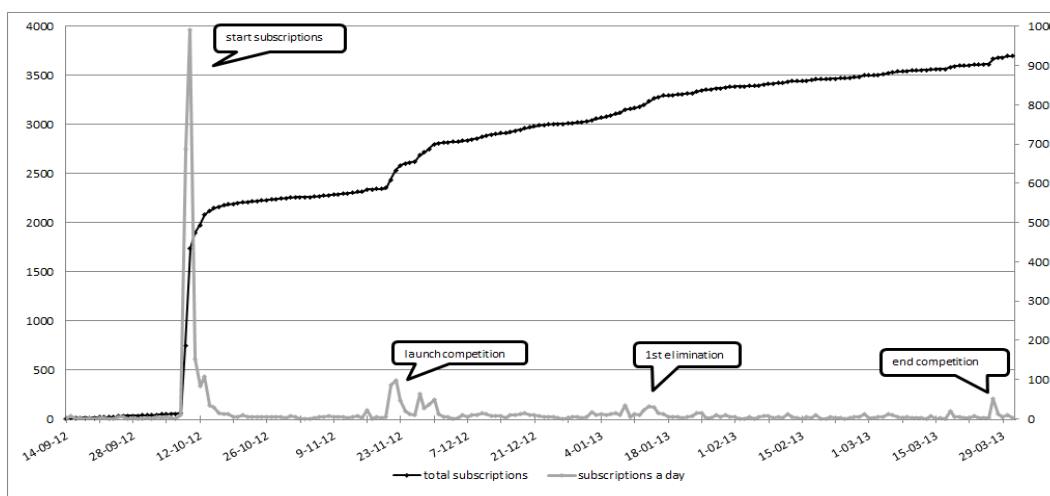


Figure 12: Event sequence diagram of participation: amount of total (left) and new (right) subscriptions.

From this moment on participants were encouraged to be creative and come up with their own collective action to save energy or promote sustainable behavior. Participants had to upload the action on the online platform with evidence after which the jury reviewed the action and rated it with the criteria of how many energy would be saved and the creativity of the action.

¹⁷ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Dat is gewoon een beetje hoe het gaat, ik bedoel ze stimuleren wat dat betreft een project op een financieel niveau, maar niet concrete omdat ze denk ik daar de capaciteiten niet voor hebben.”*

¹⁸ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Voor sommige partners heeft dit nog extra deelnemers opgeleverd, maar eigenlijk was het al te laat.”*

Furthermore, the integration of the campaign website with social media was finished. The campaigners perceived an increase in Tweets and Facebook-posts, as is supported by the graphics in Figures 8, 14, and 15.

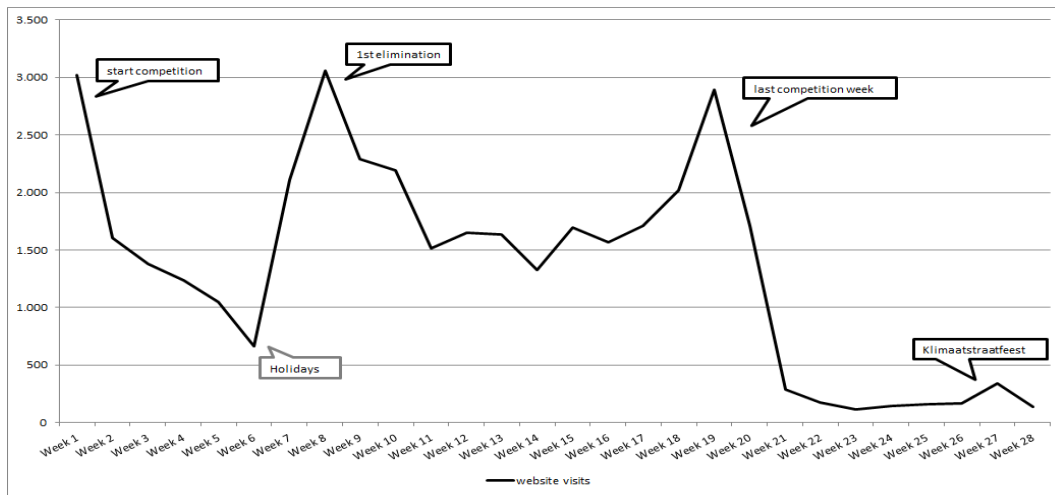


Figure 13: Event sequence diagram of participation: visitors of the campaign website

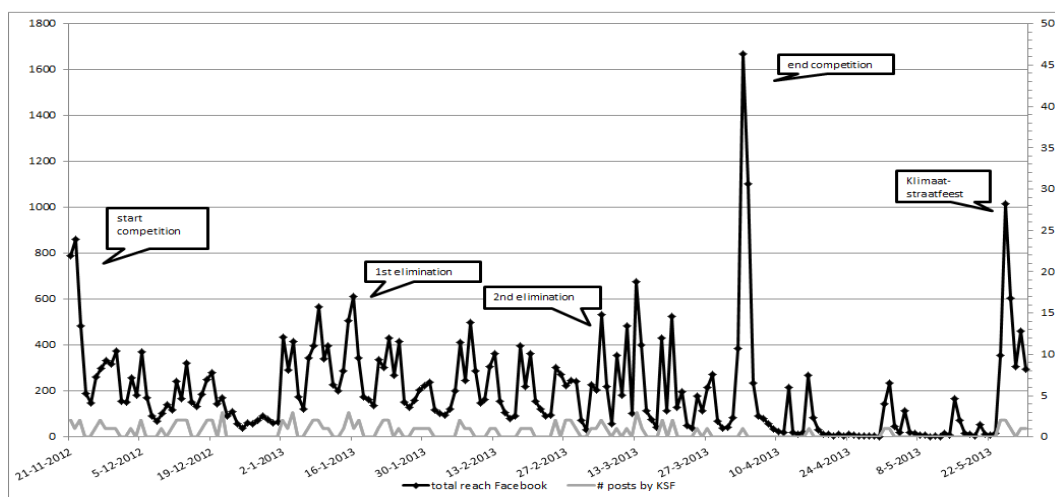


Figure 14: Event sequence of social media campaign: number and reach of Facebook posts

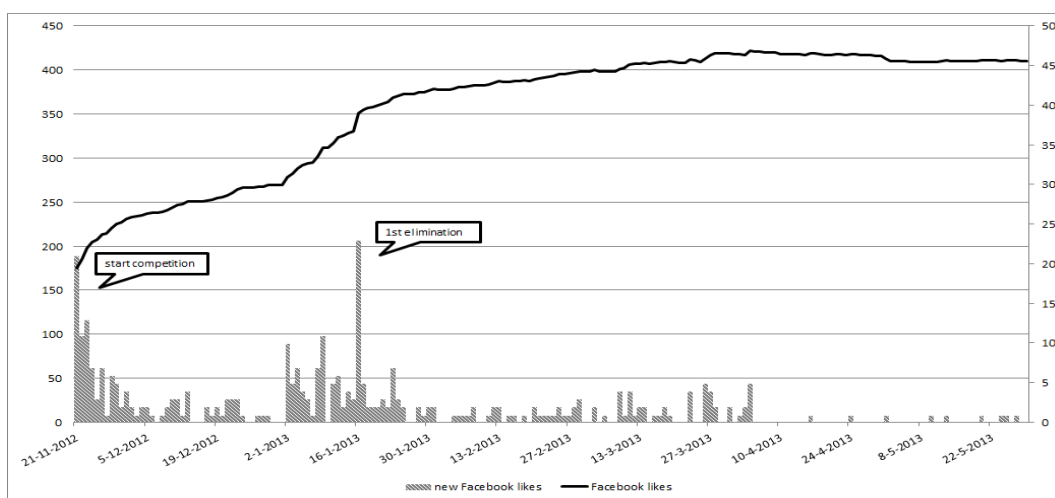


Figure 15: Event sequence diagram of public participation: number of new and total Facebook likes.

In January and February the SMO made an evaluation to see how the competition was progressing and to analyze the advancements towards the campaigns goals. The evaluation in February brought to light that the chosen theme of energy efficient appliances and solar panels did not receive much attention. The organization decided to change its communication in order to get more attention for those topics. Activities of participants concerning solar panels or energy efficient appliances have been given more attention since then and more communication around these topics was done. However, eventually the organization felt that the main theme failed. Furthermore, an analysis of the amount of collective actions was made. The amount of actions was less than expected and fell short of the targets. A positive sign at that moment was that the amount of actions was on the rise: *“The amount of actions has risen since the beginning of January, which may have to do with the elimination round or the fact that weekly updates were sent by then whereby participants were encouraged more to conduct these actions.”*¹⁹ In February the amount of actions has more than doubled since the beginning of January. Also in February, there was an important change in resources, because one of the campaigners left the organization. Participants had to wait longer until actions were approved and communication targets were not achieved. The campaigners had the feeling that this influenced the competition and the competitive spirit because participants had to wait longer for reactions on their questions regarding their actions whereas the interactivity was an important aspect of the competition in order to give rewards to participants. In this last phase of the competition particularly the most active streets carried out a lot of actions and therefore they clearly felt the difference in activity from the KSF.

5.1.1.3 Second elimination round

The second elimination round took place at the March 1st 2013: only 50 streets remained in the competition. Again, participants were stimulated to become active and conduct collective actions in order to make it to the final phase of the competition. Newsletters, website messages and social media were used to inspire participants to conduct actions. The 50 remaining streets compete for the KSF, the lottery, and the performance of a famous Dutch artist. The focus shifted even more to collective actions, as they yielded three times as many points. The elimination rounds were an extra impetus for doing additional actions, mainly for the participants that were engaged already. The campaigners saw that participants were really active in the last weeks of the competition to get some extra points. Participants that were dangling at the bottom of the ranking were also emailed by the campaign in order to convince them to try to get some extra points. Hence, the competitive element in the campaign was widely used by HIER as well as the partner organizations to spur participants to conduct actions that support the environment and instigate change.

The competition ended at the March 31st, participants could not upload actions anymore and the organization was very active to review all last actions and errors in the rating. Eventually, the campaign attracted 1671 participating streets with a total amount of 3604 participating homes. The campaign website reached a total visitor amount of 37.738 and a total of 216.386 views. In total 983 *Burenacties* were conducted, distributed over 91 different participating streets. After the whole ranking was cleared and checked, the winner was announced. This is the finale of the competition and therefore a lot of publicity was given to the announcement of the winning

¹⁹ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Dat aantal is sinds begin januari iets gestegen, wat te maken kan hebben met de afvalronde of het feit dat vanaf toen de weekupdate werd verstuurd en deelnemers dus meer gestimuleerd werden om deze acties uit te voeren.”*

streets. Partner organizations were also very active to declare winners among their own participants and gave a lot of publicity in local newspapers and online media. After the announcement of the winners, the organization shifted its focus to the organization of the street parties. Budgets were arranged, party locations planned in cooperation with municipalities and participants and prizes have to be gathered. The Klimaatstraatfeest is the result of months of competition and the endpoint of the whole campaign. Between the end of the competition and the party itself were a couple of weeks in which almost no publicity was generated, as can be seen in the campaign figures. HIER wanted to organize the campaign during the winter months because of the amount of energy used in that phase, but the street party had to take place in spring because of the weather, as the manager explains: *“Eventually nobody wants to have a street party in March when it’s still cold. The reasoning is that the KSF campaign is most logically done in the heating months, so shifting the campaign to March, April, and May makes no sense. Therefore we choose to do the campaign in the winter and to organize the party when the weather is better, as close to the start of May as possible.”*²⁰ The quiet month is therefore a result of this choice. However, around the Klimaatstraatfeest a lot of publicity was generated as can be seen in the peaks of all diagrams. Partners were stimulated to publish about the campaign in the local press, and some national newspapers also picked up the campaign. The media-partner De Telegraaf published an article about the campaign and all digital media channels were used to gain publicity for the campaign as well as for the whole organization. The end of the competition was a clear opportunity to ask attention for the possibility for regular citizens to contribute to the solution of the problem.

Concluding, the important moments in the campaign were used to gain publicity for the campaign, the HIER organization, and moreover to communicate the message of the campaign to a wider audience. The campaign figures show the importance of the competition with its elimination rounds for the publicity of the campaign. Additionally, Figure 5 shows the importance of the Internet for the events during the campaign. The role of the Internet is most crucial at the implementation phase, when HIER uses online tactics to organize the online competition, and when collective actions are conducted. Besides facilitating the chosen collective action tactic, the Internet contributed to the framing processes and mobilization tactics of the KSF, as important framing and mobilization tasks were executed using online tactics.

²⁰ Translation from Dutch, original citation: *“Maar uiteindelijk wil niemand in maart als het nog koud is een straatfeest doen. De redenering van het Klimaatstraatfeest is dat het het meest logische is om het in het stookseizoen te doen. Dus het straatfeest opschuiven naar maart-april-mei is ook weer niet heel logisch. Vandaar dat we ervoor kiezen dat we de campagne in het stookseizoen doen en het feestje wanneer het beter weer is, zo dicht mogelijk bij het begin van mei.”*

6 Analysis

In the former chapter the findings were presented, in this chapter these findings will be analyzed and discussed using the literature. The process model that was presented in the literature will form the basis for the discussion. Therefore, tasks of social movements and phases of the campaigns will be discussed regarding the tactics that were used and these findings will be compared with the literature.

6.1 Comparison with literature: Social Movement Activities

In the literature chapter the conceptual model of an action campaign was presented. This model will be used to analyze the tactics used by the social movement organization and answer the research questions. One aspect of the conceptual model was the tasks of the social movement organization, discussed as antecedents of the success of collective actions. The tactics used during the campaign were presented in the results chapter, now a brief comparison with the literature will be given. The model proposed four main tasks of social movement organizations during a campaign. However, the KSF campaign used online tactics for three of these four main tasks. These three categories of tasks are the organization of the collective actions, the organization of mobilizing structures, and the organization of the framing processes. The study illustrates that the SMO used different tactics for these different tasks. In addition, for political opportunities the SMO did not have specific online tactics during the campaign. In this section the different categories of social movement tasks will be discussed and the online tactics used for these tasks will be analyzed.

6.1.1 Political Opportunities

In the literature political opportunities were described as an antecedent for the success of collective actions (McAdam et al., 1996), meaning that social movements search for and make use of possibilities and constraints in their socio-political environment. However, in this campaign these political opportunities played a relatively unimportant role. During the focal campaign of this research, there were resource constraints in the environment that influenced the size of the campaign. The campaign had to act upon the decreased availability of financial resources. Next, they made use of the situation with their main sponsor, which was a decisive factor in the decision to start the campaign.

6.1.2 Framing

Benford and Snow (2000) describe framing tasks as a process that implies agency and contention in order to construct reality. Framing tasks of the SMO included the construction of reality: communicating the message to gain legitimacy for the campaign and the pursued change and to create a collective identity among participants for collective action. The KSF campaign shows that the SMO predominantly used arguments of pragmatic legitimacy, by emphasizing that participating in their campaign is in the own interest of the participant. Therefore the SMO used strategic framing processes and framing tactics to legitimate collective actions and encourage both participants and partner organizations to take part in the campaign and conduct actions. The communication was focused on convincing people to take part in the campaign in order to win prizes and reduce costs. Thereby the campaign focused on the self-interest of potential participants and not on the problem of climate change, which was the cause of the SMO. The SMO framed their messages in such a way to increase the resonance with their target audience and to engage people with a low interest in the problem of climate change.

In their communication with partner organizations the SMO was focused on the self-interests of these organizations as well. The SMO tried to convince partner organizations that they could use the KSF campaign for their own goals instead of focusing on the cause of the SMO. They focused on communicating that the participation in the KSF campaign was in the best interest for the organizations because it could increase their reputation and it might lead to additional customers. Moreover, the SMO did not target a single firm but cooperated with multiple other organizations. The SMO did not use arguments of moral legitimacy in order to question the legitimacy of firms or participants. However, the SMO used arguments of moral legitimacy to affirm actors or practices that are considered appropriate by the SMO. For example, the SMO used arguments of moral legitimacy to affirm collective actions conducted by participants. When participants took part in collective actions, the SMO supported this and granted moral legitimacy. The same is true for partner organizations, as the SMO positively communicated about actions or products of partners and thereby showing support for what these partners did or offered. Hereby the SMO confirmed the activities of the partner organizations as useful and effective, and therefore these organizations received legitimacy.

6.1.2.1 Framing processes

The KSF campaign did not focus much attention on the problem of climate change, the diagnostic frame (Benford & Snow, 2000), because the activists thought that this would not resonate with their target audience. Instead, they focused attention on one of the causes of the problem: the high energy consumption of households. However, in their framing activities the KSF campaign did not put blame on the society, participants, or businesses. Instead, the activists encouraged people to change their mindset and behavior, and to be part of the solution. The activists thought that most people knew something about the problem of climate change, but that it is hard for them to get into action. Therefore, they predominantly used motivational frames to encourage participants to engage in the solution of the problem. This way, the activist focused on getting support for the alternative institution instead of breaking down the existing institution. The campaigners developed a very clear motivational frame, focused on taking action because of saving energy costs, winning prizes and saving the environment. Therefore, the campaign used a motivational frame to inspire and legitimize the actions of the participants (Benford & Snow, 2000). Next to that, after actions and activities were conducted the SMO used arguments of moral legitimacy to show their support and stimulate other participants to do the same.

Another core framing task is prognostic framing (Benford & Snow, 2000), which is about what needs to change about the current reality (Benford, 1993). Although the SMO certainly knew what needed to change, they did not communicate about this very often during the campaign. The alternative advocated by the SMO should resonate with the interests of the audience of the movement (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). This is clearly a task that was executed by the campaign. Although the SMO did not put a lot of focus on the problem of climate change itself, it emphasized the solutions to the problem and the benefits for its audience. Instead, the SMO communicated about the alternative institution and thought about how their message should resonate with the interests of the target audience. The case study shows that the SMO mainly communicated about what participants could do to help to solve the climate problem. Thus, the findings illustrate that not every core framing task described by Snow and Benford (2000) is executed during an online campaign.

6.1.2.2 Frame alignment processes

Frame alignment means that individual frames are integrated and developed into a coherent story (Benford & Snow, 2000), and linked with the interests of their prospective audience (Snow et al., 1986). Benford and Snow (2000) discussed four frame alignment processes. The findings indicate that the SMO used frame bridging on their website in two ways. Firstly they linked all sorts of different civil society organizations with each other that had the same ideology of improving the environment. Secondly, they linked participants with the same ideology with each other that otherwise would have been unconnected, and they linked these participants with these environmental organizations with the same mindset. The online competition platform and discussion board were used to facilitate interactions between participants and thereby create a sense of community and collective identity.

Furthermore, the findings show that the SMO did not use value amplification, because the designation of the problem was not one of their main concerns. However, they did use belief amplification, by giving instant feedback to participants about their actions and showed how important it was. According to Snow et al., (1986) belief amplification is used to increase the efficacy and justification to motivate people to take action. More specifically, the KSF used digital media like their competition platform and social media for belief amplification. The SMO did this for example by giving publicity and encouragement to actions in newsletters and on social media; they displayed numbers of participants to show the magnitude of the campaign, and they used the points and ranking as an indicator for the importance of actions. Also, the SMO wrote messages on their digital media in which actions of participants were highly appreciated in order to motivate other participants to conduct these actions as well. Hence, the SMO used digital media as a tool to exchange inspiring words and encouragements, and focused these communications on the competitive spirit. They used these messages not specifically to create a feeling of solidarity, but to create a feeling of competition in order to urge participants to take action. The SMO decided to focus their campaign frame on the prizes and the costs, in addition to the original frame of the organization that concerned the environment and climate change, and therefore used frame extension (Benford & Snow, 2000; Snow et al., 1986). However, during the campaign the frame remained unchanged. Therefore, frame transformation was not used by the KSF to align their frame with the audience. Altogether, these findings confirm the usage of some specific framing processes by online means for reinstitutionalization.

6.1.2.3 Collective identity

For a social movement the collective identity is an important concept related to framing, because to successfully frame a cause some sort of collective identity is necessary (McAdam et al., 1996). However, the findings show that the campaign the organization did not focus on collective identity. This may explain one of the difficulties of the campaign: as participants had to collaborate with their neighbors, they had to have some kind of friendly ties with them. One of the main constraints of the campaign was that many participants could not find neighbors who wanted to join them in the campaign. The problems may have to do with the online character of the campaign; this may explain the problems with the obtainment of more participants per street. Collective identity is an important part of social movements, but this case illustrates that it is also a problematic point for online social movements. The SMO had problems to encourage people to get into action for their cause, because for a part of their target audience the climate problem did not have a high priority. In order to solve the climate problem the SMO aimed at activation of the whole society and therefore used mass participation, and therefore also people

who were not interested in climate change were addressed by the campaign. Consequently, a part of the participants was not driven by ideological considerations but by their own interest. However, also support from people with an ideological mindset was attracted, thereby not creating a collective identity. The case study indicates that the last group was not particularly happy with the collaboration with some business partners, because these partners were not perceived as proactive in sustainability. Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) indicate that reformative SMOs aiming for reinstitutionalization cooperate with proactive firms. This research demonstrates that a conflict may arise when SMOs cooperate with non-proactive firms. It highlights the necessity to further research the complexity of collaboration with firms by reformative SMOs; it is proposed that problems with mobilization of participants can arise when the frames are not aligned with the cause of SMOs.

6.1.3 Mobilizing Structures

Mobilizing structures are formal and informal means through which people are mobilized and engaged in collective action (McAdam et al., 1996). The task of the SMO is to design mobilizing structures to activate people and engage them in activities. The literature distinguishes between two different ways how online tactics contribute to the mobilizing structures: interpersonal networks and organizational forms.

6.1.3.1 Partner mobilization, participant mobilization, and action mobilization

The case identifies various tactics for different mobilization purposes. The KSF illustrates that different online tactics are used to mobilize partners and participants. Next to that, one interesting finding is that a difference is found between mobilizing of participants and encouraging them to get into action. This dissimilarity may originate from the extended campaign period. At first, the organization was engaged in motivating as much people as possible to subscribe to the online competition, and thereby was focused on achieving an impressive amount of participants. Next, they encouraged these participants to gather their neighbors and conduct actions, this is what is called action mobilization here. For partner mobilization the KSF used emailing and online discussion boards such as LinkedIn and organizational online platforms. For participant mobilization the organization used many different structures, but they predominantly relied on emailing, social media, and their own and their partners websites. Designed for action mobilization the SMO used the online competition platform and the integration with different online channels, such as competition platform, the newsletters, weekly updates, social media, discussion board, action agenda, and emailing. It can be concluded there is a difference between participant mobilization and action mobilization, which can be seen in line with the consensus and action mobilization described by Klandermans (1984). First, the organization needed to find support for their campaign, in this case by subscription. Second, the organization wanted to motivate participants to take action. Because of this difference, distinct online structures were used for each mobilization task of SMOs. Used for both participant mobilization and action mobilization the SMO used incentives such as prizes and presents. As explained, these were meant to reinforce the pragmatic arguments and convince participants that it was in their own interest to participate. An overview of online tactics used can be found in Appendix 9.6.2.

6.1.3.2 (Interpersonal) networks

The campaign made use of the informal networks of the participants, by encouraging them to go to their neighbors to activate them for the campaign. The campaign communicated through social media, websites and emails with the broad audience and participants. Additionally, they

had direct contact with participants with the so-called 'Kartrekkers' status, who were the instigators of participating streets and coordinated many activities in those streets. These *Kartrekkers* were important contact persons for the organization, because the campaign could interact with them in order to reach their informal networks and coordinate activities during the campaign.

Networks of partner organizations are also used as a mobilization vehicle, the KSF used its website and hyperlinks to link different organizations with each other to show its coalition and to gain support from a wider audience. This supports the statements of Flanagan et al. (2006) and Walgrave et al. (2012) that Internet eases coalition building partly through the use of hyperlinks. The KSF presented its coalition partners on its website and used its partners to gain publicity and to mobilize participants and resources for the campaign. Therefore, their network of partner organizations is used as a mobilizing structure. The literature describes that online social networks like Facebook and Twitter can also be used for involvement and communication with activists (Waters et al., 2009). The case displays that social networks are indeed used for involvement and communication and to create a network for online mobilization. Therefore it can be concluded that social networks are used as an online tactic to organize mobilizing structures. Next to that, the literature gave examples of usage of the Internet for mobilizing purposes by providing online spaces where participants can communicate with each other and the organization (Downing, 2003; Kahn & Kellner, 2004). The findings highlight the usage of online spaces for mobilization and involvement, as the KSF provided for example an online discussion board to communicate and coordinate collective actions for participants, and provided a LinkedIn group for partner organizations to communicate and discuss about possible activities. As Hara and Huang (2009) already concluded, the case also leads to the conclusion that simple email lists and the website have an important impact on collaborative mobilization.

6.1.3.3 Organizational forms

The literature describes that mobilizing structures may be both formal and informal (McAdam et al., 1996). The Internet provides the opportunity for new organizational forms, because it enables less formal structures and organizational forms (Bennett & Segerberg, 2012; Bimber et al., 2005). The literature suggests that it can be suggested that online social movements are more flexible and use fewer hierarchical structures (Bimber et al., 2005; Carty, 2010; Earl & Kimport, 2009). However, the findings of this research show that the organization of the campaign is formal and hierarchical and the influence of participants is modest. The case shows that the SMO developed the campaign and participants were only taking part. However, the KSF tried to involve participants with the campaign by letting them decide on their activities themselves and create new sorts of actions during the campaign. The Internet enabled the self-organization of participants and interaction between organization and participants to develop and execute actions. The SMO played a facilitating function, together with their partners, to empower participants to conduct action that were useful for both the environment and their own energy bill. Online tactics provided the possibility of personalized collective action (Bennett & Segerberg, 2011), and thereby enabled a high level of activity despite the relatively low collective identity.

6.1.4 Collective Action tasks

The goal of institutional innovation in the case-study of this research is to solve the problem of climate change and stimulate the adoption of a new sustainable norm. The institutional change that is necessary for solving the problem is the change of mindset for sustainability by focusing

on saving energy. The campaign organized collective actions aimed at behavioral change of consumers and market parties towards sustainable choices. By changing the mindset of consumers and proposing them to buy products that save energy, HIER also tried to influence organizations to focus more on sustainable products.

In the literature Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) distinguish between tactics of damage and tactics of gain, which is in line with the tactics of persuasion and disruption described by King and Pearce (2010). The current research shows that the SMO just used collective action tactics that can be categorized as gain or persuasion tactics (see Appendix 9.6.3). The online competition platform was used to persuade participants to change their mindset and behavior, for example by emphasizing the material or symbolic gain that could be achieved by participants. In addition, the SMO indirectly tried to influence organizations to change their policies and products by creating opportunities to adopt sustainable practices and markets for products. The online tactic of organizing a competition corresponds with the strategies focused on reinstitutionalization discussed by Den Hond and De Bakker (2007), focused on the promotion of an alternative norm. The online competition was not described as a tactic in the literature; therefore this tactic can be added to the tactical repertoire as a way in which SMOs can engage people in collective actions for reinstitutionalization. Using the online competition as a platform, multiple underlying tactics were implemented. The competition platform was the main idea of the campaign and therefore the most important and overlapping collective action tactic. The platform was used to organize both collective and individual actions, Internet-based and Internet-supported actions, and actions with low-threshold and actions with high-threshold.

Furthermore, the tactics used by the SMO can be further categorized using the dimension of the logic of the numbers described by Den Hond and De Bakker (2007). Firstly, the SMO used tactics for which only a small number of participants were necessary; only the campaigners were involved in these actions. Secondly, the SMO used tactics focused at mass participation. A typology of collective actions conducted by the organization is given in Appendix 9.6.3 based on the overview given in the literature. The case illustrates that the SMO used tactics that are described by Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) as tactics for mass participation and elite participation.

6.1.4.1 Mass participation

There were a couple of online collective action tactics focused on mass participation used in the campaign, namely *buycott* (consumer behavior), emailing, and awareness activities tactics. The KSF campaign proposed several different actions on their platform: one category focused on creating awareness and another focused on consumer behavior. Awareness tactics were further divided by Internet-based tactics such as online tools for participants, and Internet-supported tactics such as the organization of an offline event. Both tactics aimed for creating awareness among participants for the problem of climate change. Consumer behavior tactics, also called a *buycott* (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007), were all Internet-supported tactics as they were conducted offline. Moreover, they were divided by high-threshold actions and low-threshold actions. Consumer behavior also included the *buycott* tactic, meaning that the organization encouraged participants to buy certain goods of certain suppliers.

Online competition

The campaign wanted to achieve attention for sustainable practices to instigate the institutional change. HIER organized an online competition in which they proposed several actions and

activities that people could do to earn climate points. Participants were inclined to undertake actions and activities proposed by the campaign to earn enough points to win prizes. A part of the actions and activities proposed by the campaign was focused on the purchase of sustainable products, especially provided by partners of the campaign. Therefore, the competition as an online tactic was a platform where companies could sell their products that are focused on more sustainability. The competition was perceived by the campaigners as a successful tactic to engage and activate people who were not active in the field of sustainability before.

Consumer behavior

The KSF used a tactic of consumer behavior on their online platform to achieve the institutional innovation. As discussed above, they gathered support for the sustainable practices and did this by making themselves relevant for other organizations. The KSF campaign used its website and online platform to increase the reputation of frontrunner firms. The KSF campaign proposed actions on the online competition platform include the purchase of sustainable products, contributing to the institutional change. They indirectly wanted to persuade companies to produce and provide sustainable practices by creating a market for them. The KSF campaign developed a web-based competition that allowed participants to buy products with a more sustainable character. Therefore, this online activism tactic could be seen as a collective action tactic of boycott or consumer behavior. These are tactics focused on pointing out the right products to buy, hereby contributing to the goal of institutional change because the mass adoption of these products will lead to a systematic change in society.

Email campaign

The email campaigns were designed to mobilize resources, and in this respect was a collective action tactic because the SMO tried to convince people to email the target they chose. When a great amount of people send an email to the same target, that target might be willing to act according to the demands of those people. In the case of the KSF the targets of the email campaign were the municipalities and housing associations. They were addressed by the participants of the campaign to support the campaign and join the campaign as a partner. The more people participated in the campaign, the higher amount of pressure they could build on organizations and the more impact the campaign could generate in their attempt to instigate a change in mindset in the whole society. The email campaigns contributed to the affirmation of moral and pragmatic legitimacy by engaging partner organizations in collective action to improve sustainability and thereby adopting or improving the energy saving practices.

6.1.4.2 Elite participation

In connection with the tactic of an online competition, the campaign used tactics called elite participation by Den Hond and De Bakker (2007), such as cooperation with businesses and other partners as a tactic to achieve institutional change. The case study shows that the SMO cooperated with partner organizations and used positive publicity for their partner companies. The HIER campaign generated media and consumer attention for the companies and products that adopted sustainable practices or sustainable products, in a similar vein as other SMOs used media attention to damage firm reputations (Friedman, 1999; King, 2008a). In addition, they used their online platform to influence the consumer behavior of the participants by advising them what to buy. Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) write that such a material gain strategy might be effective because consumers decide to buy products at one company rather than another in order to reward it for its policies or practices, this is called a *boycott* (Friedman, 1999; Vogel, 2004). The KSF did not confront companies and organizations, but indirectly tried to

pressurize them to change their policies and practices. This corresponds to the persuasive tactic described by King and Pearce (2010).

The used email campaigns contributed to the visibility of the campaign and tried to increase pragmatic legitimacy, which is an important factor in the theorization phase of institutional change according to Greenwood et al. (2002). These two factors, affirming moral and pragmatic legitimacy, are important parts of the reinstitutionalization process (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). The email campaigns contributed to the affirmation of moral and pragmatic legitimacy by engaging partner organizations in collective action to improve sustainability and thereby adopting or improving the energy saving practices in households. Next, social media and the campaign website were also used for encouragement of both partner organizations and participants by affirming moral legitimacy: emphasizing that the actions they conducted were a good thing to do. Concluding, the mass participation of participants in the online competition was used as a leverage to cooperate with companies in the KSF campaign, but also to create a market for sustainable products and thereby trying to persuade more market parties to adopt the new sustainability norm.

6.2 Comparison with literature and conceptual process model: phases of the campaign.

In the literature review the conceptual model of an action campaign included the phases of the campaign. It was proposed that the phases represent the institutional innovation model of Hargrave and Van de Ven (2006). According to these authors, institutional innovation evolves through sequential phases of emergence, development and implementation. The conceptual framework is used as a lens to analyze a single campaign. Now the findings of the case study will be briefly compared to the literature, and refinements, extensions, and interpretations of the model will be given. The process model that was presented in chapter 2.4 was only partly represented by the findings of the case study. The campaign followed a sequential process cycle starting with the emergence, followed by development and ended with implementation. However, Figure 16 shows that not every task of the SMO is conducted solely in one of the phases as proposed by the model. First of all, opportunities were evaluated and the campaign design was made: the collective action tactic of an online competition was selected by the SMO. They chose and evaluated this online collective action tactic in the first phase and implemented it into the campaign design. Next, they discussed the ways how they could maximize the public resonance and set the frame of the campaign. They used different frames for different actors by using separate messages for partner organizations and participants. Thereafter, HIER organized the mobilizing structures; the means and networks through which resources and participants were planned to be mobilized to take part in the collective action. As explained in the former chapter, the organization adopted many different mobilizing structures for different purposes: partner mobilization, participant mobilization, and action mobilization. First of all partners were mobilized to get the necessary finances for the campaign. Secondly, participants were mobilized to subscribe to the online competition in various ways. Thirdly, these participants were activated by the organization during the course of the campaign. The last activity happened in the final phase, where the SMO also applied collective action tactics and used its mobilization structures to encourage the participants to get into action, using motivational frames.

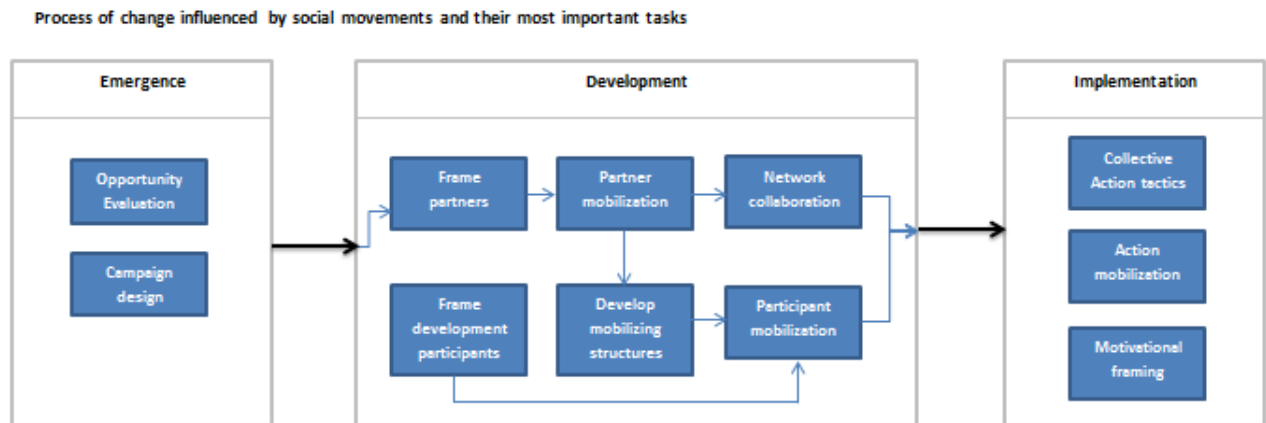


Figure 16: Refined conceptual research model: development of SMO activities along the process of a campaign

6.2.1 Emergence

During the emergence phase of the campaign the political opportunities are the most important task of the SMO according to the process model, during this phase online tactics were not important. There was one crucial political opportunity that had influence on the process of the campaign, which was the relationship with the main sponsor. During this phase campaign ideas were evaluated and discussed, the findings show that the organization was alert to the signals of their partner organization and acted according to these signals. After they acknowledged that they should organize the KSF campaign again, the SMO discussed the campaign design. As McAdam et al. (1996) argued that political opportunities is an important antecedent for the success of the social movement, this research empirically confirms that the environment and opportunities arising from the environment might be important for the development of the campaign during the first phase. Following these considerations, the campaign concept was established. The most important decision was to introduce elimination rounds in the competition. Next to that, the decision was made to implement social media as an important mobilizing structure. These findings suggest that during the emergence phase mobilizing structures already played an important role in the strategic considerations. Only after the overall design was evaluated and established, the decision was made to start the development of the campaign. With the decision-in-principle the next phase was reached.

6.2.2 Development

The process model proposes that during the development phase the framing processes and mobilizing structures are most important SMO tasks. The findings show that the frames are developed to create support for the cause of the campaign. The organization developed their messages in such a way that they resonated with the interests and values of their audience, like Suddaby and Greenwood (2005) wrote about the framing task. After the decision-in-principle was made, the SMO developed the frame for partner organizations. Thereafter, the first task was to mobilize enough resources by mobilization of partner organizations like municipalities and housing corporations. As illustrated in Figures 4 and 16, only after the evaluation of the financial resources that were gathered as a result of the partner mobilizations, a decision was made on the public campaign. It appeared that sufficient resources were mobilized to start the preparations for the public campaign. This implies that before the public campaign could progress into the implementation phase, sufficient resources should be available. Next, with these gathered resources the most important mobilizing structure, the online platform, could be

developed and the public campaign was set-up. As a consequence of the decision to use partners for mobilization purposes, the collaboration with partners was the next important activity. Actions and activities were coordinated and planned for during the campaign together with these partners. Consequently, only after enough partners were involved in the campaign, the mobilization of participants to subscribe was started. A variety of mobilizing structures was implemented to maximize the success of the mobilization, most of them online tactics. The next crucial moment of the campaign was the opening of the competition platform, which also was the starting point for the participant campaign. To conclude, the development phase roughly followed the following sequence: first partner framing, then partner mobilization, followed by online campaign design and participant framing, finished by participant mobilization. This implies that the development phase is in line with the process proposition of Rao (2009), that activists first frame their cause to instigate a response and then use informal mobilization to gather response. The case demonstrates that the SMO first mobilized partner organizations and only later on mobilized participants. This is in line with Den Hond & De Bakker (2007), who argue that reformative activists usually first use non-participatory tactics, followed by tactics for mass participation. However there is also a difference: in this study organizations are not directly addressed to change, but they are approached to join the campaign as a partner. The findings underscore the proposition of Den Hond & De Bakker (2007) that SMOs subsequently use strategies of gaining enough support from a broad network of actors to support their claims. Through contacts with other SMOs and civil society organizations the activists gain support and legitimacy for their claim. Next, the SMO uses online means such as emailing, social media and the campaign website to mobilize large numbers of supporters. The SMO exploits the network of SMOs and the amount of participants to increase their legitimacy and convince other organizations to join the campaign.

6.2.3 Implementation

Consequently, in the next phase collective action tactics are used to strengthen the claim of the SMO and convince the supporters to get into action. The general audience is engaged with the cause and a largest possible amount of participants are mobilized and put to action. Den Hond & De Bakker (2007) state that these numbers are used as leverage over firms in order to directly change their practices. This study hints that SMOs can also indirectly use the number of supporters to achieve change, for example by changing their consumer behavior. As Den Hond & De Bakker (2007) describe that SMOs use tactics of symbolic and material gain to convince firms to change, the SMO in this case study also uses these tactics but in a way to gain partners for their campaign. The activists give their partners positive publicity and lend their reputation to increase the reputation of the partner organizations. This way, they support firms that are active in their cause and show to other firms in the field that it can be beneficial to support their cause and thereby trying to persuade these other organizations.

Following the process model, the frame and mobilizing structures that were developed in the former phase were important antecedents of the collective actions. One important difference from the process model is that during the implementation the framing processes and mobilizing structures also played an important role as task of the SMO. New mobilizing structures were put in place and framing activities were used. The collective action tactic that was used by the SMO encompassed the online competition. The implementation functioned as the phase in which the campaign was publicly launched and actions and activities were conducted. The emergence phase and development phase were the build up to the implementation phase in which the

public campaign took place and mass participation was achieved. After starting the public campaign, the SMO opened its online competition platform and facilitated the connection between participants with the online discussion board. Motivational frames were also frequently applied in the third phase, in order to motivate participants to take action together with their neighbors. This illustrates that although the process model suggests that only collective action tactics were important activities of the SMO in the last phase, the case findings illustrate that framing processes and especially mobilizing structures were used by the SMO to organize the campaign.

7 Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter the findings will be summarized. In addition, the research questions will be addressed, the contribution to the literature and management, limitations of the research, and possibilities and openings for further research will be given. The central question of the current research was how social movement organizations use online tactics to advocate alternative practices aimed at institutional innovation. The literature gave first insights into how SMOs use online tactics. These insights combined with institutional theory resulted in a process model for an action campaign aimed at institutional change. It was argued that a campaign consists of phases and tasks for the SMO. A case study of the KSF campaign is used to explore and describe the usage of online tactics during the campaign. The findings show that the defined SMO tasks were partly fulfilled and illustrate the tactics that were used to perform these tasks. Furthermore, these online tactics were described and categorized, and their effect on the goal of institutional change was discussed, to further develop the categorization of online tactics described by previous researchers (Martin & Kracher, 2008; Van Laer & Van Aelst, 2010). Hereby the current research extends the previous research on online activism by showing how the different tactics are applied during a campaign and giving initial insights into the usage of online tactics aimed at reinstitutionalization. Specifically these tactics for reinstitutionalization were explored into more detail, providing further insights into how a reformative activist group used tactics to achieve its goals. Thereby this research extends previous research of Den Hond and De Bakker (2007) and Hargrave and Van de Ven (2006).

The findings of the case study show that online tactics played an important role during the KSF campaign. The online campaign enables the mass participation of both consumers and businesses that is necessary for successfully achieving change using the chosen strategy of persuasion. Results illustrate how different types of online tactics were used during the campaign. The collective action tactics used by the SMO to advocate institutional change are focused on persuasion: to motivate both consumers and businesses to change their mindset and behavior towards a sustainable lifestyle. The findings show how online tactics are used to implement material and symbolic gain tactics, and demonstrate that online tactics can be successfully used to organize collective actions aimed at reinstitutionalization. The empirical results demonstrate that the SMO predominantly used arguments of pragmatic legitimacy and thereby was not focused on moral or ideological arguments. In addition, the findings highlight the importance of online tactics for the most important antecedents of these collective actions: framing and mobilizing structures. Online framing tactics were focused on motivational frames, and online mobilizing structures were deployed that were focused on mobilizing a broad target audience. Furthermore, it highlights a new tactic of a SMO to engage people with the organization and campaign and to encourage them to conduct actions: the online competition. The other online tactics used during the campaign were aligned with the competition, for which the online platform functioned as the focal mobilizing structure. Hereby the case study shows how online framing and mobilizing tactics can be strategically integrated in the considerations of planning collective actions for reinstitutionalization. The online competition was meant as an incentive to mobilize people with a low interest to undertake activities and to create awareness of the climate problem.

The literature review and case study of an online action campaign resulted in a conceptual model of an action campaign, existing of social movement activities and phases of change. The analysis of the case study advances understanding of online tactics used in an action campaign,

by integrating social movement and institutional theories. Furthermore, the empirical results refined the process model. A benefit of the model is that it highlights the tactical considerations of SMOs in the buildup to organize collective actions and can therefore be used to analyze action campaigns and increase understanding of the underlying change processes. To conclude, this research illustrates how a SMO used online tactics to organize an online competition to engage people with a low interest in their cause by emphasizing the pragmatic arguments of self-interest for participants. The case study provides insights into how a SMO used online tactics to reinstitutionalize alternative practices, as all tactics were focused on engaging people with a low interest subject as climate change and attempting to change the ways in which businesses and consumers use energy consumption. The results demonstrate the different tactics used during the campaign and gave a further exploration of the tactical repertoire of SMOs. Lastly, the research gave first insights into how these tactics lead to institutional change, a description of the mechanisms of institutional change using the tactical repertoire. Hereby the findings give answer to the important research questions in the following ways. (1) By demonstrating the different tactics used during the campaign and gave a further exploration of the tactical repertoire of SMOs. Different categories of tactics were identified as the findings show different types of tactics for different tasks. Furthermore, (2) the case study provides the description and characteristics of the tactics that were used, and (3) illustrates how these tactics were applied during an action campaign. Lastly, the research gave first insights into how these tactics lead to institutional innovation, and how the campaign is focused on reinstitutionalization of energy efficient practices (4).

7.1 Theoretical contribution

Research at the intersection of social movements, institutional change, and online activism is theoretically relevant and contributes to different research gaps. Knowledge about how social movements ensure reinstitutionalization of institutional innovation with use of online activism is limited. In this paper, we use social movement and institutional change theories to investigate how online tactics are applied for the process of reinstitutionalization. The results fill the voids in the social movement literature about the online tactics that are used to promote alternative practices and provides new insights into the stimulation of institutional innovations by SMOs. In this section the research implications of the current thesis are discussed.

First, the findings illustrate that online tactics can be important in the process of reinstitutionalization as these tactics play an essential part in the focal campaign. Hereby the research shows that the Internet is not merely used for protest (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; Martin & Kracher, 2008), but that there are potential ways in which online advocacy tactics can also be used for promotion of alternative practices and achieve institutional innovation. Another interesting finding is that the SMO collaborated with firms that were not necessarily very proactive in the field of sustainability, although Den Hond & De Bakker (2007) suggest that reformative SMOs aiming for reinstitutionalization collaborate with proactive firms. This research indicates that this approach might be too static as the SMO adopted a very pragmatic attitude and collaborated with partners that could offer value, instead of looking their proactiveness. In addition, this work contributes to organizational literature by providing evidence that SMOs will not always use tactics of contention against organizations, but that cooperation is another avenue for change. The findings illustrate that in order to achieve change, SMOs might collaborate with firms and change practices or institutions by persuading them by emphasizing the benefits of change. Second, in spite of the vast amount of research in the field of

social movements, little is known about how and when SMOs apply online advocacy tactics to stimulate the adoption alternative practices. Especially the topic of protest is covered by researchers who study online activism, while the topic of advocacy is underexposed, despite the potential of being very helpful in creating new markets (e.g. Sine & Lee, 2009). The current paper contributes to the online activism literature by illustrating that online tactics were predominantly important during the development and implementation phase of a public action campaign. As research in the fields of online advocacy has shown, different online strategies intended to accomplish changes are identified (Clark & Themudo, 2006; Martin & Kracher, 2008), however an in-depth insight into how these theories work in practice is missing. This paper contributes to this literature and tries to flesh out collective actions and its antecedents to gain understanding how online tactics are used in practice by social movements. Third, the work of McAdam et al. (1996) is extended by showing how online activities are linked to the framing processes, mobilizing structures and collective action tactics. We are also able to make specific notations to the literature of framing. The work of Benford and Snow (2000) is extended by providing insights into how framing processes are applied by using online means. The campaign shows that the SMO used framing techniques in order to highlight the possible results of actions instead of the problems of the current situation. This contradicts the work of Benford and Snow (2000), as they describe diagnostic framing as a core framing task. Next to that, the work on online mobilizing structures of Bennett and Segerberg (2011) is underlined, as this case study provides evidence that online tactics can be used to overcome the problems of limited collective identity, which is described as an important part for framing and mobilization (McAdam et al., 1996). Fourth, one of the most interesting findings of this empirical research is the fact that the SMO used a competition format as an incentive to mobilize participants, especially constructed to engage people with a low-interest topic. The SMO used online tactics in order to get publicity and support for their cause. The competition and the elimination rounds formed an effective way to gain public attention, as the results illustrate. This form of online activism is a strategy not discussed in the literature and therefore deserves more attention in the future. Hence, the exploration of this tactic contributes to the social movement theory by extending the action repertoire and describing how this tactic might contribute to institutional change.

Concluding, the current research contributes to theoretical knowledge by (1) exploring what online tactics that are used for reinstitutionalization, (2) investigating how and when these online tactics are used for social movement activities and how they are applied in an action campaign, and (3) examining how these online tactics are related to institutional innovation.

7.2 Management and policy contribution

As described in the literature, social movements are more and more market-focused. Therefore companies will be addressed more directly by SMOs. This study contributes to the management knowledge by showing how a social movement organization operates and what the role is of companies in an action campaign. Businesses should adopt a strategy in case they are targeted by such an organization. Moreover, this study shows the possibility for companies to cooperate with social movement organizations in order to improve their reputation and gain access to potential customers for products that are aimed at social responsibility. In addition, managers of companies should be aware of social movements because they are an important contextual factor to their own environment. Social movements can change customer preferences and create markets themselves in the role of social entrepreneurs. Firms can increase their knowledge about social movement organization's tactics and the tactics with which they might be

addressed, and will be able to react more appropriately and effectively when they are encountered by these movements. The current study contributes to practice by the provision of in-depth insights into an online campaign and gives insights in how to deal with social movements. Social movement organizations make use of online tactics to instigate institutional change, but because these movements are not always directly visible they can catch businesses by surprise. Digital media enable the use of online tactics that mobilize large amounts of people with little investment.

These findings are also of interest to the management of social movement organizations or social entrepreneurs that are considering using online tactics in their action campaigns as it shows that SMOs can use online tactics for framing purposes, for mobilizing structures, and collective actions. A SMO should carefully design online mobilization tactics in order to increase the amount of participants of collective actions and thereby possibly the effectiveness of actions. As the case illustrates, mobilizing structures have to be aligned with the goals and target group of the organization in order to increase its effectiveness. Managers of SMOs or social enterprises can use the knowledge of this research to gain a better overview of the online tactics available to instigate change and possibilities to engage the audience.

7.3 Limitations

Every research design has limitations, therefore in this paragraph a brief overview of the limitations are discussed. Firstly, one of the limitations of a case study is the interpretative process of the researcher of the gathered data. It is difficult to provide validity and generality of conclusions or to engage in a discussion about the quality of the results. In line with this, is the specificity of the research context: the data is gathered at one organization in a specific social movement. The focal campaign was a very specific campaign that was also tailored for the environmental social movement; moreover the focal campaign was already organized several times which could have influenced the sequence of events and tasks. The findings of the research may therefore not be generalizable to other research settings. However, the research design was focused on exploration of online tactics and not focused on testing or confirming general theories. Further research should be done at other social movement organizations to validate these results.

Secondly, a limitation is the relatively underdeveloped process methodology approach. There are a couple of downsides to this approach: (1) the chance of missing important data, (2) the chance of misinterpretation of the data, (3) the retrospective nature of the data. It is difficult to trace all important information about the campaign, therefore important events may be missing from the data or moments of passing may be absent (Langley, 1999). However, because a great amount of data is gathered, there is also a possibility that the data is misinterpreted by the researcher. Next to that, the findings are based on a retrospective case study. There are several disadvantages to this approach: the respondents may have forgotten about important events or make other events more important, which will lead to hindsight biases (Poole et al., 2000).

A way of limiting the downsides of a process case study is to use a multiple methods approach. Not only the gathering of data from different sources (data-triangulation), but also using mixed methods, by supplementing the qualitative methods with quantitative methods of analysis (Miller & Friesen, 1982). To overcome the problem of misinterpretation of data the list of incidents can be reviewed by key informants and ask them to assess the incidents as correctly described and if there are incidents missing (Poole et al., 2000). In the current research the

process of the campaign was reviewed by one of the key informants and question marks were clarified.

7.4 Future research

Based on the findings of this study multiple future research questions arise. First, further research should investigate if the findings of the current research settings are generalizable to other research settings, for example by examining more and different SMOs in different social movements. An interesting research direction would be to investigate if online tactics for reinstitutionalization also work in industries where consumers have fewer possibilities to influence behavior themselves. Future research should also further develop and validate the process model introduced in this thesis and examine if and how it applies in different institutional contexts. Next to that, it would be interesting to explore if the process model also applies for campaigns that are being investigated from the very beginning with the possibility of doing real-time research with observations. Furthermore, it would be very interesting if the incentive structures used during the KSF campaign can also be applied in different settings. What are the motives of participants to compete in such a campaign and which online tactics can be used to increase the motivation?

Second, it would be interesting to examine the impact of several online tactics on company policies and the institutional change process. Like King and Soule (2007) investigated the influence of protest tactics on organizational processes, future research could investigate the influence of online advocacy tactics on organizations. Moreover, it would be interesting to further explore what the impact of such a campaign is on the energy consumption and on the revenues of products used and partner organizations during the campaign. This requires a more quantitative approach, using more than one SMO. A quantitative approach might give insight into the correlations between tactics and outcomes. Another interesting avenue for further research is to examine a more informal and bottom-up campaign design using online tactics. It would be interesting to see how the framing processes and mobilizing structures are developed in an online action campaign that has a more bottom-up approach.

Third, as institutional change can be a long process with multiple ways of collective actions (Schneiberg & Lounsbury, 2008), it would be valuable to examine multiple campaigns over a longer time to investigate the contention between the old institution and a new institution promoted by a social movement (Den Hond & de Bakker, 2007). As this case study illustrates that promotion of the alternative practices can be a fruitful way for social movements to achieve change, further research should be done to investigate the exact process by which these alternatives are adopted. In addition, these processes of reinstitutionalization can be compared with tactics for reinstitutionalization. Differences may enhance the understanding and efficacy of these different approaches and may provide knowledge of the process by which new institutions arise under pressure of social movements. Moreover, the case highlights some problems of these processes, for example the tension between collaboration with businesses and the mobilization of participants. Is collaboration with companies a fruitful way to introduce new policy norms? Future research could investigate how collaboration with businesses influences the willingness to participate in these campaigns, especially when businesses are not perceived as proactive in the social cause, and how the ideological mindset of influences the success of tactics.

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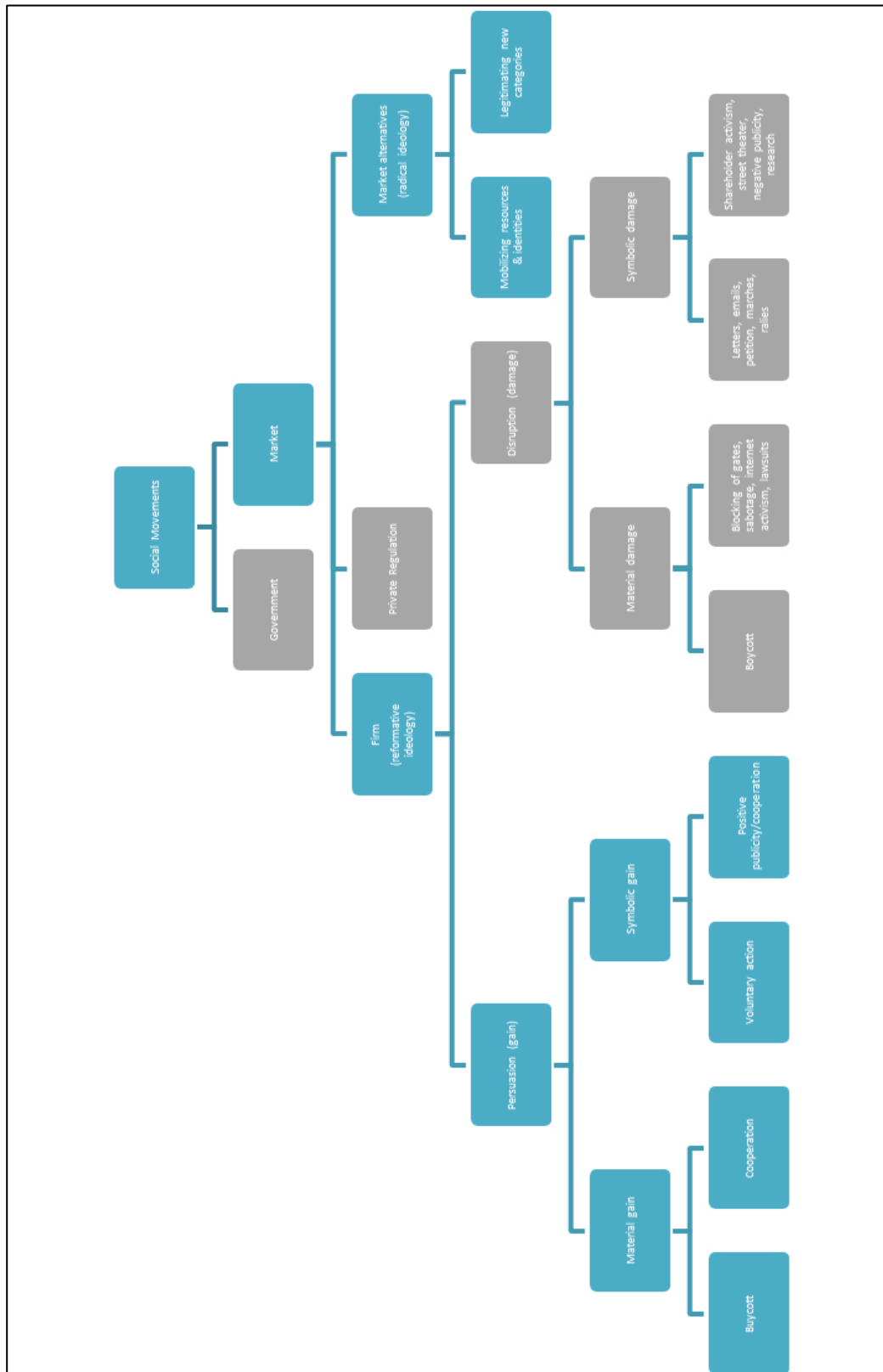
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9 Appendices

9.1 Social movements' market strategies



* Figure adapted from Den Hond & De Bakker (2007) and King & Pearce (2010)

9.2 Case selection criteria

For the current research one case is selected that provided a rich data set (Poole et al., 2000). The selection criteria for the case entailed: the period in which the case happened; the accessibility; the representation of a wider field (typical case); the organization should use online advocacy tactics and use an online platform; the goal of institutional change (or radical social change - reinstitutionalization); contention of an organization, institution or field; and the usage of specific campaigns.

9.3 Overview of partner organizations

Commercial partners	Civil Society partners	Municipalities	Housing corporations
Essent (head sponsor)	Agentschap NL	Aa en Hunze	Acantus Groep
Ellen (partner)	aedes	Alkmaar	Centrada
Bosch (prize partners)	Band op Spanning	Almere	Eigen Haard
Energie Bespaarshop (prize partners)	duurzameburen.nl	Barneveld	Pré Wonen
Zonline (prize partners)	Fietsersbond	Bladel	R.K. Woningstichting Ons Huis
Bestsellers.eu (prize partners)	Klimaatverbond Nederland	Gennep	Stek Wonen
	MilieuCentraal	Helmond	Stichting Goed Wonen Zederik
	Bespaar Energie Woonbond	Lelystad	Woningstichting Samenwerking Vlaardingen
		Nijmegen	Woonstichting Valburg
		Overbetuwe	
		Putten	
		Rotterdam	
		Sliedrecht	
		Tiel	
		Utrecht	
		Vlaardingen	
		Winsum	
		Zeist	

9.4 Typology of activism tactics

	Internet-supported	Internet-based
High threshold	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Violent action / destruction of property • Sit-in occupation • Illegal demonstration • Transnational demonstration / meeting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hacktivism • Cultural jamming • Blogs • Protest website / alternative media
Low threshold	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legal demonstration • Consumer behavior • Donate money • Petition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Virtual sit-in • Emailing campaign • Online petition

9.5 Overview of online tactics used by the KSF campaign

Framing tactics	Mobilization structures tactics	Collective action tactics
discussion boards social media emailing newsletters weekly updates competition platform	partner networks discussion boards prizes and presents LinkedIn social media emailing newsletters weekly updates action agenda competition platform	email campaign boycott informational website competition tools price questions positive publicity cooperation

9.6 Overview of use online tactics in KSF campaign

9.6.1 Overview of use of online activism tactics

	Internet-supported	Internet-based
High threshold	Consumer behavior Boycott	Blogs Newsletters (Protest) website/alternative media
Low threshold	Consumer behavior Boycott Awareness activities	Emailing campaign Awareness tools Positive publicity

9.6.2 Overview of online mobilization tactics

Partner Mobilization	Participant Mobilization	Action Mobilization
Emailing LinkedIn Partner networks	Emailing Informal networks Social Media Prizes and presents	Weekly updates Newsletters Discussion Board Action Agenda Competition Platform Social Media Emailing Prizes and presents

9.6.3 Overview of use of online collective action tactics

	Individual/elite participation	Collective/mass participation
Persuasive/Gain	Cooperation Informational website Email campaigns Positive publicity Blogs Newsletters	Buycott Email campaigns Awareness actions Consumer behavior

9.7 Instruction for semi-structures interviews for the SMO in Dutch.

Introductie en doelstellingen

- Wat is het sociale probleem dat uw organisatie probeert op te lossen?
- Wat is de rol van het bedrijfsleven bij dit probleem? En wat is de rol van de samenleving?
- Wat is de oplossing van het probleem en waarom zet u zich hiervoor in?
- Wat is naar uw idee het doel van de campagne? Welke methodes of procedures waren het plan te worden gebruikt om dit doel te bereiken?
- Welke stakeholders zijn er bij de campagne betrokken?

Voorafgaand aan de campagne

- Wat zijn de belangrijkste gebeurtenissen geweest voorafgaand aan de campagne?
- Welke van deze gebeurtenissen hadden een positieve en/of negatieve invloed op de campagne en waarom?
- Hoe wordt geprobeerd partners te betrekken bij de campagne?
- Welke middelen bent u van plan te gebruiken bij deze campagne?

Boodschap van de campagne

- Voor welke boodschap en argumenten is er bij de campagne gekozen, en waarom?
- Hoe heeft u deze boodschap uitgedragen en welke middelen heeft u hierbij gebruikt?
- Hoe kunnen het andere partijen zich identificeren met deze boodschap?

Het internet

- Hoe wordt het internet ingezet tijdens de campagne en waarom wordt het zo ingezet?
- Welke internet tactieken of acties worden gebruikt tijdens de campagne?
- Hoe wordt het internet gebruikt om een beeld neer te zetten of boodschap uit te dragen?
- Hoe wordt het internet gebruikt om deelnemers te werven?

Het proces gedurende de campagne

- Wat waren de belangrijkste gebeurtenissen tijdens de campagne, zowel offline als online?
- Kunt u beschrijven hoe de campagne verliep? Wat waren acties of beslissingen die belangrijk waren? Welke rol speelden evenementen die op het internet gebeurden tijdens de campagne?
- Zijn er tijdens de campagne gebeurtenissen voorgevallen die de campagne hebben veranderd?

Evaluatie van acties/reacties tijdens campagne

- Wat zijn de belangrijkste acties/responses van partners die betrokken waren bij de campagne – of bij de organisatie?
- Zijn er andere organisaties aangesproken of benaderd bij gebeurtenissen tijdens de campagne?

- Wat was volgens u het effect van de campagne en wellicht van specifieke acties op het duurzame gedrag van de partners?
- Wat was tijdens de campagne de aandacht van (online) media voor de campagne?

Evaluatie van doel en effect

- Is het campagne-doel gehaald? Interne/externe doelen?
- Wat heeft de campagne voor een effect gehad op het oplossen van het klimaatprobleem?
- Wat is het effect geweest van de campagne op bedrijven?
- Welke middelen hebben een positief dan wel negatief effect gehad op de uitkomsten?
 - Strategische middelen, culturele middelen, economische middelen, sociale middelen
- In hoeverre heeft de boodschap van de campagne een positief/negatief effect gehad op de uitkomst van de campagne?
- Is de boodschap gedurende de campagne veranderd, of in vergelijking met vorige edities?

Evaluatie van het internet

- Wat is volgens u de bijdrage geweest van het internet aan deze campagne?
 - Bij het vergaren van middelen, bij het opzetten/bedenken van de campagne, bij het ontwikkelen/verspreiden van de boodschap
- Maken jullie gebruik van sociale media? Zo ja, welke sociale media?
 - Wat voor een soort berichten werden er gestuurd via het internet?
- Identificeren van problemen
- Mogelijkheden tot het oplossen van de problemen
- Motiveren van personen of organisaties om mee te doen de problemen op te lossen.
- Welke activiteiten of events zijn erg afhankelijk van het internet en welke activiteiten en events zijn alleen door het internet ondersteund? Kunt u activiteiten noemen die niet mogelijk waren zonder gebruik te maken van het internet?
- Welke activiteiten en events hebben een hoge barrière om mee te doen en welke een lage barrière?

9.8 Instruction for semi-structures interviews for partners in Dutch

Introductie organisatie en campagne

- Kunt u uw organisatie introduceren?
- Wat is uw functie binnen de organisatie?
- Wat is naar uw mening het idee van de Klimaatstraatfeest campagne?
 - Wat is het doel?
- Waarom doet uw organisatie mee aan de campagne? Gebruikt uw organisatie de campagne voor eigen doeleinden?
- Wat is uw rol als partnerorganisatie in deze campagne?
- Heb u doelen opgesteld? Zo ja, welke doelen en zijn deze doelen gehaald?

Mobilisatie partner

- Hoe bent u bekend geworden met de campagne? Hoe bent u in contact gekomen met de organisatie?
- Wanneer kwam u in contact met de organisatie? Gedurende welke periode?
- Hoeveel contact heeft u gehad voor de afgelopen editie met medewerkers van de campagne?

Boodschap

- Wat was de boodschap van de organisatie om mee te doen aan de campagne als partnerorganisatie? Welk effect had deze boodschap?
- Wat was de boodschap van de campagne richting de deelnemers om mee te doen?
- Hoe was de organisatie in staat om deze boodschap over te brengen?
 - Welk effect had deze boodschap?

- Om mensen te laten inschrijven?
 - Om vervolgens deze mensen in actie te zetten?
- Hoe werd u door de HIER organisatie aangespoord om actie te ondernemen?

Mobilisatie deelnemers

- Heeft u geprobeerd deelnemers te werven?
 - Op welke manier probeerde u dat? Gebruikte u daarvoor het internet?
- Heeft u tijdens de campagne gecommuniceerd richting deelnemers?
 - Wat voor een soort communicatie?
- Wat heeft u gedaan om mensen te betrekken bij de campagne? (werving?)
 - Heeft u het internet gebruikt om de campagne onder de aandacht te brengen?
 - Wat heeft u gedaan om mensen vervolgens ook in actie te krijgen?
 - Hoe werd dit vanuit de campagne gefaciliteerd?

Tijdens campagne

- Welke momenten in de campagne waren voor u het belangrijkste? Welke gebeurtenissen/activiteiten/acties/beslissingen?
- In welke fase vond het meeste overleg plaats met de campagne? Waar ging dat overleg over?
- In welke fase van de campagne was uw rol als partnerorganisatie het grootste?
- Wat zijn de belangrijkste positieve en negatieve punten van de campagne?
- Zijn er veranderingen geweest tijdens de campagne?
 - Zijn er opvallende activiteiten/gebeurtenissen gebeurd tijdens de campagne?
- Hoe vond tijdens de campagne communicatie plaats met de organisatie?
- Heeft u acties georganiseerd tijdens deze campagne?
 - Zo ja, welke acties? Collectieve acties/individuele acties, lage/hoge barrière.

Internet

- Welke rol speelde het internet tijdens de campagne? Welk gedeelte van de campagne vindt plaats online?
- Op welke manier heeft u het internet gebruikt tijdens de campagne?
- Heeft u sociale media gebruikt? Zo ja, op welke manier?

Effecten

- Wat is volgens u het effect geweest van de campagne?
 - Op uw eigen organisatie?
 - Op de deelnemers?
 - Wat heeft u geleerd van deze campagne?
- Wat is uw idee over het effect van de campagne op de duurzaamheid van uw eigen organisatie?
 - Heeft u het idee dat door deze campagne en de organisatie meer aandacht besteed wordt aan duurzame producten?
- Wat is uw idee over het effect van de campagne op de bewustwording voor duurzame producten en energiebesparing?
- Wat is uw idee over het effect van de campagne in het verbeteren van de duurzaamheid van de deelnemers? En van de samenleving in de brede zin?