

# Digital Parties Divide

## political parties on the web and the digital divide

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### **Abstract**<sup>1</sup>

*To this day, the Digital Divide has been considered key to understanding the relation between Internet and politics. Today, the Internet is used far more broadly worldwide. When comparing the use of the Internet to practice politics from a transnational analytical perspective, we observe that the Internet also matters for politics in countries with a high level of Digital Divide. With this study I empirically resize the relation of causality between the Digital Divide and the influence of the Internet on politics. I explore how also other contextual factors are determinant in this regard. My focus is on the online presence of political parties worldwide. By combining multiple sources, I have built a dataset in order to map the unequal online presence of political parties in 190 countries, as well as country-contextual factors, including level of Digital Divide, and economic and democratic. This leads me to show how the Digital Divide has a limited significance in explaining the unequal presence of political parties on the WWW. Instead, I highlight that democratic status, among various other country-contextual specificities, is the strongest contextual factor in determining the unequal use of the Internet in politics.*

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1 I thank Professor Philippe Howard and the World Internet Access Project for the data on political parties on the World Wide Web here explored.

## 1) Introduction

This paper explores the unequal presence of political parties on the Internet. Since the advent of the Internet, great attention has been paid on how political parties would benefit from being present on the Internet. Gibson and Ward (2009) identify three main lines of research in the field: first, the intra-party arena, referring to the use of the Internet by political parties to facilitate communication amongst its members; second, the inter-party arena, referring to how political parties use the Internet to compete with each other in campaigning; and third, the systemic-arena, referring to how political parties reorganise themselves so as to seize the new opportunities offered by the Internet.

Here, I address the empirical part of this study by directing my investigation onto two main dimensions: first, I map the distribution of political parties on the World Wide Web. Second, I explore whether their unequal distribution may be explained by the Digital Divide and by other local conditions, such as the democratic and economic status of each country.

## 2) Virtual Political Parties

Scholars have paid attention on how the Internet might facilitate better communication between politicians and citizens. In contrast with this expectation however, research has noted that Internet remains mainly used as a one-way flow of information: from politicians to the public (Johnson 2003; Levin 2003; Ward et al. 2003). In this way, the Internet has been employed just like a traditional media (Castells & Sey 2004). Coleman (1999) has also questioned the quality of the information, arguing that in some cases while it may be good quality it is not easily accessible.

Scholars also argued that the Internet would have a positive impact on mobilizing voters, though we are yet to have empirical evidence on this (Castells & Sey 2004). Ward, Gibson and Lusoli (2003) point out that in the UK only 38 percent of political party web sites offer visitors the opportunity to become members online. In the opinion of other scholars, politicians do not make the most of the Internet to interact with citizens

(Browning 2001; Gibson and Ward 2003; Levine 2003). Ward, Gibson and Lusoli (2003) highlight that less than a third of UK political parties websites allow interactions. Even when politicians try to interact with citizens by opening forums, the experiments are questionable (Gibson et al. 2003).

All this research bring us to conclude that the general enthusiasm on the Internet as a useful tool for politicians, political parties and political campaigns, has not yet been founded with evidence of more inclusive and participatory politics. So far, research concludes that the websites of official political parties have not provided the opportunities expected of the Internet.

At the same time, research on other aspects of the Internet provides interesting counter arguments. The advent of the Web 2.0, for instance, has been lauded as a great opportunity to energize political participation by enabling easy interaction between political parties and voters. This is also confirmed in those cases when web sites provide political opportunities, such as those designed with social network tools. Evidence can be found in the case of the last American Presidential election. With her idea of “cyber party”, Helen Margets (2006) explores how ICTs offer the opportunity to expand political parties at the grass roots level. By using Web 2.0 tools, political parties may encourage the direct involvement of people in their activities, such as in contributing to parties’ campaigns with money, signing petitions, or even participating in consultations on policy issues.

To summarize, Chadwick (2006) singles out three key-points of the debate about how the use of the Internet may influence the political party landscape:

Internet increases (1) *party competition*. Marginalized new parties and non-party political movements may benefit from the Internet to raise their visibility. In many cases, minor political groups suffer from being small. With the Internet as a cheap medium, as well as more accessible than other communication technologies, they can compete with richer parties at a similar level of visibility. The Internet allows minor political parties to reach potential supporters similarly to main parties. The effect of this situation is an increase of pluralism, enabling citizens to better identify with specific claims motivating their political engagement. This may have the consequence of increasing voter turnout. Older media, such as the printed press and the television, still have great power in providing information and making advertising campaigns. However their form of communication

is not as rich and fragmented, as is that of the Internet. The Internet allows the spreading of larger amounts of information permitting people to examine political issues according to their own interest and needs. They are better able to form their own opinions, and thus are more likely to take part in political debates. The democratization of the Internet for making and receiving information is more likely to have an impact in a general framework of democracy.

Still according to Chadwick (2006), the Internet may also (2) *diffuse power* among citizens, increasing grassroots control over political leaders and candidates. The network structure of the Internet facilitates continued relations between candidates and their supporters who have then more power in controlling their leaders. This interaction can help politicians refine their political programs responding to the demands and expectations of supporters expressed with the Internet. At the same time, parties are able to coordinate their supporters more easily and quickly to mobilize them for instance in key moments of campaigning and fundraising. This is more likely to motivate people to be politically engaged and support their candidates more actively.

In spite of these new trends, Chadwick (2006) identifies the third key-point, also summarized by Morris (1999) in his normalization thesis, and defined by a few others (Davis 1999; Margolis & Resnick 2000; Resnick 1998), as (3) *institutional adaptations*. This argues that, in shifting the form of doing politics to the Internet, political institutions regulate the Internet's innovative potentials by reproducing the same trends as in off-line politics. While during the 1990s the Internet was the space hosting a proliferation of political websites whose visibility was not linked to the wealth of politics, today conditions are changed. Larger political parties and their candidates are now able to make their Internet communication techniques more effective. More incisive websites and talented staff are likely to work for the wealthiest political parties. They will also have better resources to increase their ability to converge media strategies, integrating television and Internet campaigns into one online and off-line form of communication. Party competition risks being weakened by this, reducing the Internet to merely a new space perpetuating the already existing political inequalities in off-line politics.

Beyond party competition and the electoral landscape, parties also use the Internet for internal purposes. Analysis in this regard focuses mainly on how the Internet facilitates communication and coordination among local branches and headquarters, and in-groups. Scholars interested on the use of the Internet by political parties started their earliest

research focusing on the use of the Internet for internal purposes. Smith and Webster already in 1995 highlighted that the three main UK political parties were using ICTs to develop their internal communication since the early 1980s (Smith & Webster 1995). Gibson and Ward (2003) also confirmed this scenario in a later research on the UK party landscape. However, despite this early interest on the topic, scholars developed a limited scope of research. Empirical findings confirm that political parties use the Internet to develop internal communication with emails and the WWW. But, scholars also argue that this use is limited. Critics point out that the Internet has been used mainly to facilitate coordination among elites, rather than connection with members (Gibson & Ward 2009). According to Gibson and Ward (2009), we may expect that the spreading of Web 2.0 tools may change this scenario, though further research needs to be conducted to test this.

Today, it is still difficult to conclude that politicians and political parties make the most of the Internet. It is also difficult to generalize findings on how political parties use the Internet. The use of the Internet is fragmented and we are still experimenting how to include the Internet in political processes. In some cases the Internet changes faster than our capacity to understand how to use it. However, in the framework of the network society, the question is not only how political parties use the Internet, but rather whether they do at all. Given that using the Internet for making politics is something increasingly common especially in Western liberal democracies, political parties which are not on the WWW risk being excluded from political competition. In other words, the Internet could improve *pluralistic competition* if those parties with less resource could learn to use the Internet as effectively as their more well-off counterparts. The opposite scenario, of not using the Internet, could be fatal to these poorer parties. Hence a *digital political parties divide*, at least in Western liberal democracies, could have a serious impact on democracy.

The question that now remains open here is: do political parties have equal access to the Internet? Does the Digital Divide affect the presence of political parties on the Internet? Or, rather, does the democratic status of a country influence the distribution of its political parties online?

In the following part of this study, I provide answers to these questions: first, I map the worldwide distribution of political parties online. Second, I explore the reasons for their unequal presence on the Internet.

### **3) Mapping political parties online**

So far, most of research on the presence of political parties on the WWW has been focused on the national level. Attention has been paid on the use of the WWW from political parties in the USA (Druckman et al. 2009), and, in Europe such as, for instance, in the UK (Gibson et al. 2005), and in Italy (Newell 2001). However, research in this field lacks of a transnational perspective of analysis. As I said earlier, we rely on only a few examples in the literature. In contrast, with this study, I explore the distribution of political parties on the Internet from a worldwide perspective. I compare the presence of political parties online from the same 190 countries that I explore in this study. I then contextualize the use by political parties of the WWW, by relating their presence online with the level of Digital Divide, economic and political factors.

In most cases, analysis at the national level explores whether and how political parties are online, by investigating the instruments that political parties include on their webpages. The exploration that I conduct here includes more than 3000 political parties from 190 countries worldwide. The great size of this comparative data does not allow me to enrich my exploration with data on the quality and the efficiency of websites. As I argue below, I am interested only on the unequal presence of political parties online.

#### **3.1) European Political Parties on the WWW**

One of the first comparative studies on political parties online was run at the European level by Trechsel, Mendez, Schmitter, and Kies (2003). Here, authors compared the presence of parliaments and political parties online across all 25 European member countries. The authors included in their analysis only those political parties which had more than 3 percent of seats at the election of the European Parliament in 1999. The report explored a total of 144 political parties.

Given that political parties included in the analysis gained a relevant amount of seats in the parliament, all political parties explored in the report were relevant in their countries of origin. The report does not focus then on whether political parties are online. Rather, the research question was clustered around how political parties use their websites. In order to address this investigation, the authors created an index aggregating

six evaluating indicators: information provision, bilateral interactivity, multilateral activity, user-friendliness, presence of networking tools, and political parties' mobilisation potential.

Empirical findings highlighted a significant variation of the use of websites from political parties across European countries. However, in most of the European countries, political parties did not use forms or other tools to interact with website visitors. Trechsel, Mendez, Schmitter, and Kies (2003) concluded that political parties used websites mainly to circulate information about their activities and claims, as a mono-directional channel of communication. The authors also explored the causes of the variation in use of the Internet. Empirical findings led authors to reject the hypothesis that the Digital Divide and economic factors are determinant. Neither the nature of the party system and the colour of political parties affect the quality of websites. The report found no relations of causality to explain the variation in the use of the WWW by political parties across European countries. However, the analysis is updated to 2003 and refers to European countries with very similar political systems. I argue that a further dimension of the presence of political parties needs to be investigated here. following a transnational perspective of analysis, the question arises: What is the scenario at the global level?

### **3.2) Worldwide Political Parties on the WWW**

Norris (2001) conducted one of the first analyses on political parties online from a worldwide perspective. By using data updated to June 2000, the author highlighted that North America was the continent with the highest amount of political parties online. These were about 41 parties per country. The United States was the country with most political parties online (67 parties online). In Western European countries, an average of 24 political parties were online. In South America, the Middle East and Africa, less than 5 political parties had a website. By comparing this data with those referring to the unequal distribution of internet users, Norris (2001) highlighted that the distribution of political parties online by countries is similar to the map of the Digital Divide. Political parties were more online in countries with a low level of Digital Divide. However, even if it appeared that the unequal distribution of political parties on the WWW followed the same worldwide inequalities in accessing the Internet, Norris (2001) also noted that there were too many exceptional cases providing a different picture. Further explanations were

then required. By comparing the trend of the distribution of political parties online with other data, she confirmed that the Digital Divide was the strongest predictor to explain the unequal distribution of political parties online, though the economic and democratic status of each country also played a role in this regard. Political parties were 18 times more likely to have a website in richer countries than in poorer ones, and they were six times more likely to be online in countries with established democracies than in autocratic regimes.<sup>2</sup> Norris (2001) concluded that established democracies were more likely to have political parties online. In autocratic countries, where the political landscape is characterized by a one-party regime, party competition is restricted and hence the proliferation of political parties online seriously hampered.

Norris's analysis (2001) refers to a scenario quite different to today. Ten years ago, the Internet was a new tool in most of the countries worldwide. The Digital Divide was at its first stages of normalization, and its size was determinant for the use of the Internet in all fields, including its use in the political domain. Conclusions provided by Norris (2001) about the impact of the Digital Divide on the distribution of political parties online matched with the arguments largely debated in this field at the time. These argue that the Digital Divide is the most determinant obstacle to influence politics via the Internet. However, here I criticize this conclusion, arguing that given the new scenario in which the Internet is more accessible, we have to look at other explanations. According to updated data (Internet World Stats 2010), today the size of the Digital Divide has changed. By following a normalization trend, the Digital Divide in terms of distribution of internet users is narrowed compared to ten years ago. Despite the continued serious concentration of owners of Internet domain names in a few countries, it has become easier to open a website today, thanks to the rapid spread of know-how. I then expect that the Digital Divide plays a minor role in explaining the unequal distribution of political parties online pictured below. Rather, I argue that the unequal distribution of parties online is determined by other local factors. In the domain of politics, I argue that political factors play a more relevant explanatory role. I expect that the distribution of political parties online is more determined by the democratic status of countries, rather than the Digital divide and economic factors.

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<sup>2</sup> Norris defines democratic and autocratic regimes according to the level of democratization measured by the Freedom House Rate (1999);

In order to test this expectation, I first map the worldwide distribution of political parties online today. I then explore how this data is understood in relation to the Digital Divide, and to the political and economic status of each country.

## 4) The study

### 4.1) Methodological framework

#### *Digital Political Parties*

The World Internet Access Report (WIA Report)<sup>3</sup> provides data on the unequal distribution of political parties on the WWW. Philip H. Howard at George Washington University leads the WIA project, producing an annual report. In my research I use data from 2008. The WIA Report's research team use the CIA World Fact Book to collect the list of political parties from each country. The WIA Report then cross-check the list with information available on Wikipedia. In order to discover how many of these political parties are online, the WIA Report uses the search engine Google. By combining these sources, the WIA report's research team check the presence of each political party on the WWW.

WIA Report's research team includes in its dataset political parties that propose candidates for elections. It also defines "joke parties" as political parties that do not take part in elections. However, in the case of countries where political parties are illegal, the WIA Report also includes political parties without a proper party institution in the data set, referred to as "joke parties".<sup>4</sup> In countries with autocratic regimes, "joke parties" are then included in the dataset. The WIA Report's research team points out that in countries with weak democracy, party competition is also weak. "Joke parties" may then play an important role of expressing dissidence, thereby participating in the political debate of the country.

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<sup>3</sup> [www.wiareport.org](http://www.wiareport.org);

<sup>4</sup> [www.wiareport.org/index.php/57/political-parties-online-in-the-muslim-world](http://www.wiareport.org/index.php/57/political-parties-online-in-the-muslim-world) ;

Data are also categorized according to the “development status” of the country. In the WIA report, each country is labelled as “developed” or “developing” according to the categorization made by the CIA World Fact Book. In my study this category is indicative of Western and Non-western countries.

### *Explaining the causes*

Once explored the unequal distribution of political parties on the WWW worldwide, I investigate the causes of this unequal distribution by running a multivariate regression. The ratio between online and offline political parties is the dependent variable here. I use as independent variables: the Digital Divide indicator (Internet Users), the economic status (PPP GDP xCapita), and the democratic indicator (Polity IV). By running a multivariate regression of Political Parties on the WWW on Internet Users, Democracy, and Economy, I then explore how these contextual specificities determine the presence of political parties online.

*Digital Divide.* Before measuring the Digital Divide in reference to the distribution of internet users, we must first clarify what an internet user is. There is no agreement on this point. Various agencies have their own definitions. The International Telecommunications Union (ITU),<sup>5</sup> for instance, defines as internet user someone above two years of age who accesses the Internet at least once every 30 days. The US Department of Commerce<sup>6</sup>, meanwhile, defines an internet user anyone above three years of age “currently using” the Internet. In contrast, the China Internet Network Information Center (CNNIC)<sup>7</sup> has a more narrow definition of an internet user: a Chinese citizen, above six years of age, who accesses the Internet for at least one hour a week. Other agencies, and market researches, use their own definition.

For my study, I look to the Internet World Stats<sup>8</sup> for both my definition of internet user and as a main source of data. Internet World Stats considers an internet user “anyone currently in capacity to use the Internet” (Internet World Stats 2010). With this definition Internet World Stats includes in their statistics a person who has both privately or publicly available access to an Internet connection point, and who at the same time

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<sup>5</sup> [www.itu.int](http://www.itu.int) ;

<sup>6</sup> [www.commerce.gov](http://www.commerce.gov) ;

<sup>7</sup> [www.cnnic.net.cn/en/index](http://www.cnnic.net.cn/en/index) ;

<sup>8</sup> [www.internetworldstats.org](http://www.internetworldstats.org) ;

has a basic knowledge of the use of the Internet. Referring to this definition, in countries where there is a broad use of public Internet points, such as public libraries or Internet café, data includes internet users who share the same internet connection. This implies that, in these cases, the number of internet users is bigger than internet access subscribers and telephone lines available in each country.

Internet World Stats gathers data by combining two main sources: the International Telecommunications Union (ITU) and Nielsen/NetRatings,<sup>9</sup> another private company. The first is an international organization focusing on telecommunications, established in 1865. Today it is part of the United Nations (UN). Nielsen/NetRatings is described by the Internet World Stats as providing: “a global standard for Internet audience measurement and analysis and is the industry's premier source for online advertising intelligence. It covers 70 percent of the world's Internet usage, the Nielsen/NetRatings services offer syndicated Internet and digital media research reports and custom-tailored data to help companies gain valuable insight into their business” (Internet World Stats 2010). Data are updated monthly and today it is also largely used by governmental institutions such as the Organization for the Economic and Commerce Development (OECD).

*Economic.* Thus far, I have argued how the Global Divide is related to existing economic inequalities. In order to test this expectation I explore whether any relationship exists between the distribution of the Internet population worldwide and the economic factors facing each country. I use the Purchasing Power Parity Gross Domestic Product per capita (PPP GDP xCapita) to represent economic factors. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)<sup>10</sup> publishes these data annually in the Human Development Report (HDR)<sup>11</sup>. I use data published in 2007. I place this data in relation to the population of online Internet users. This regression demonstrates whether access to information technologies is still related to economic factors.

*Political.* Given my focus on the relation of Internet and politics, I explore whether political factors also affect the distribution of the population accessing the Internet

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<sup>9</sup> [www.nielsen-netratings.com](http://www.nielsen-netratings.com) ;

<sup>10</sup> [www.undp.org](http://www.undp.org) ;

<sup>11</sup> [hdr.undp.org](http://hdr.undp.org) ;

worldwide. The Polity IV Project<sup>12</sup> provides data on the political status of each country. In the political science framework, this is currently considered the most accurate data set for measuring political aspects worldwide (Treier & Jackman 2008). I use the indicator POLITY as my reference for the democratic condition of the countries compared in this paper. This measures the democratic status within a range from -10, as the most autocratic state, to 10, as the most democratic state. This index is calculated from the combination of several indicators: (a) competitiveness of the selection process of the countries' chief executive, (b) the openness of this selection process, (c) to what extent the system of rules enables control by the chief executive's decision-making authority, (d) how competitive political participation is, and (e) to what extent rules govern political participation.

## 4.2) Digital Political Parties Divide

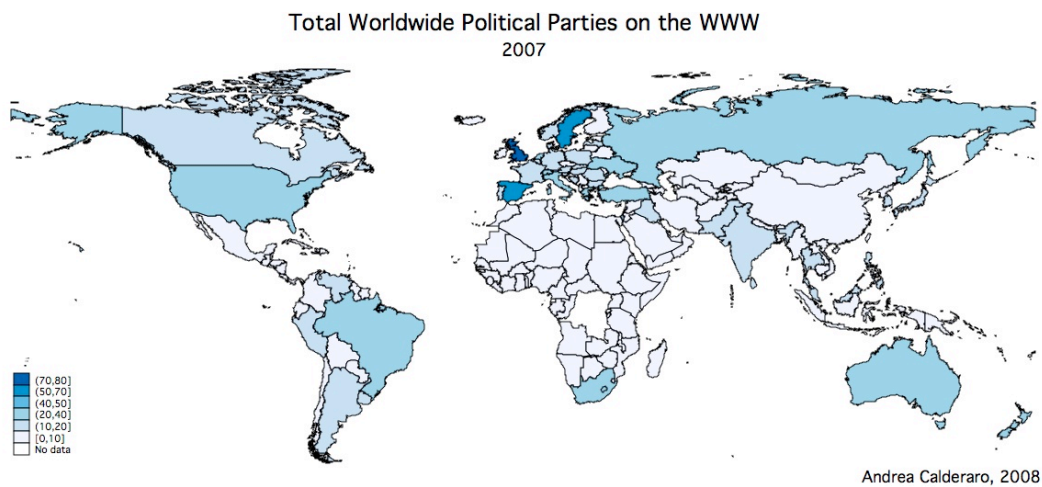


Figure 1 - Worldwide Political Parties on the WWW  
(Source: WIA Report, University of Washington, January 2008)

The map above (figure 1) shows that most of the political parties which have a website are based in Western countries. The United Kingdom is the country with the highest number of political parties online (79). Spain (68), Sweden (52) and Italy (37)

<sup>12</sup> [www.cidcm.umd.edu/polity](http://www.cidcm.umd.edu/polity) ;

follow. This data reflects the use of the Internet by political parties. However, this picture depends also on the number of political parties within each country.

### 4.3) Web Party Penetration

Furthermore, it is important to explore the relationship between the total number of political parties for each country, and the total amount of parties with a website. The Web Party Penetration (WPP) is the indicator here. I calculated this by normalizing the number of political parties online with the total amount of political parties in each country. The map below shows the WPP for each country.



Figure 2 – Worldwide Political parties on the WWW. Ratio of *online/total*, %  
(Source: WLA Report, University of Washington, January 2008)

The picture above (figure 2) is very similar to the figure mapping the worldwide Internet Penetration Rate. In 20<sup>13</sup> countries all political parties (100%) have a website.

<sup>13</sup> These are: Switzerland, United States, Canada, Japan, Denmark, Norway, Slovenja, Hungary, Belgium, Cyprus, Finland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Maldives, Malta, Saudi Arabia, Barbados, Ecuador, Colombia.

Italy follows, where 97 percent of political parties are on the WWW, and Greece with 95 percent. In contrast, in 22<sup>14</sup> countries no political party is present online.

#### 4.4) Political Parties on the WWW: over the Time

I already mentioned that scholars commonly highlight that the Internet plays an important role in increasing competition between parties. Yet the Internet has also evolved, potentially increasing its impact. If all of these considerations are true, I expect that, today, compared with data a decade old, the number of political parties on the WWW should have increased as dramatically as the use and development of the Internet. The table below (table 1) compares data from 2000 and 2007. It provides a snapshot of the trend on the presence of political parties on the WWW over seven years.

**Table 1 - Worldwide Political Parties on the WWW**

	<i>Total Political Parties</i>	<i>Parties with a Website</i>	<i>Ratio</i>
<b>2000</b>			
Developed	262	224	85
Developing	995	259	26
Total	1257	483	38
<b>2007</b>			
Developed	733	570	78
Developing	2351	898	38
Total	3084	1468	48

(Source: WLA Report 2008, University of Washington, January 2008)

Table 1 provides aggregate data of political parties worldwide. It splits off the data into two categories. Each of them is divided into further two statuses. First, the *developing*

<sup>14</sup> These are: Azerbaijan, Brunei Darussalam, Burkina Faso, Central Africa, Comoros, Congo, Ghana, Indonesia, Iran, Kazakhstan, Kiribati, Korea North, Laos, Niger, Oman, Papua New Guinea, Qatar, Samoa, Solomon Island, Swaziland, Turkmenistan, United Arab Emirates.

category distinguishes countries according to their status of development calculated by measuring specific criteria. The source here is the CIA Factbook, which includes market-oriented economies of states members of the OECD. Just like for the United Nations Statistical Office, the designations “developed” and “developing” are intended here purely for “statistical convenience”<sup>15</sup> and do not express a “judgement about the stage reached by a particular country or area in the development process”.<sup>16</sup> This category distinguishes between “developed” and “developing countries”. Below, I analyze political parties worldwide on the WWW along a time frame of seven years. Below, I compare countries in relation to *economic* status.

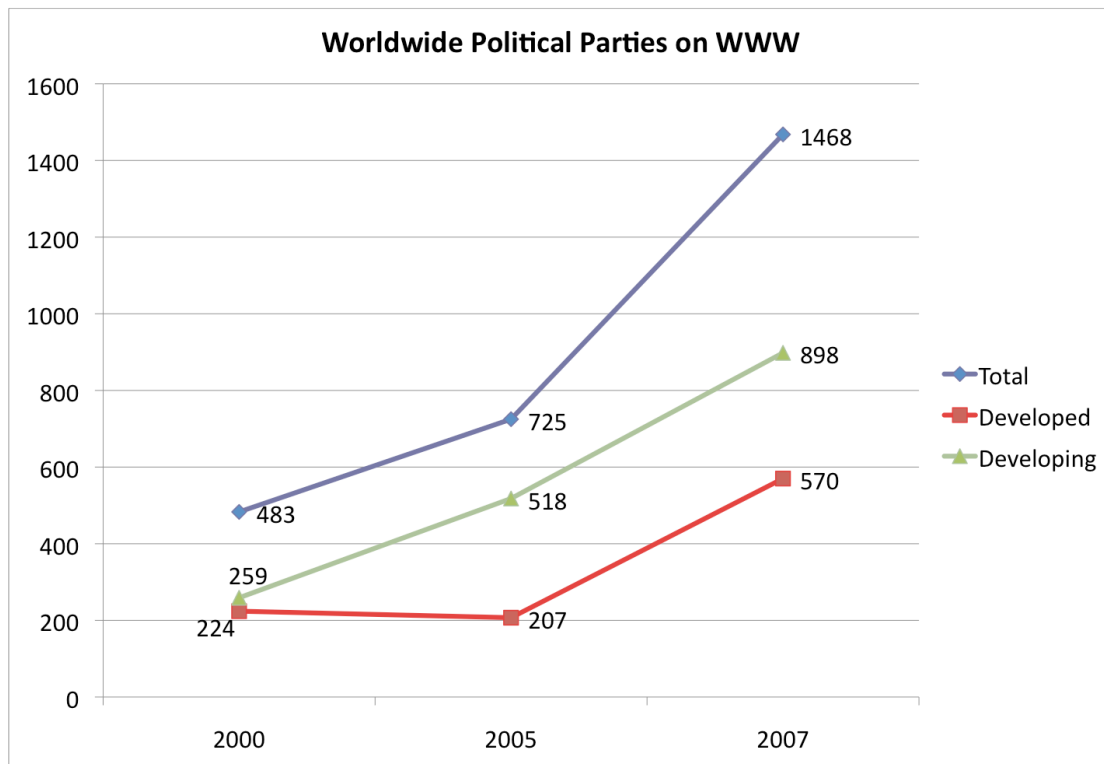


Figure 3 – Presence of Worldwide Political parties on the WWW  
(Source: WLA Report 2008, University of Washington, January 2008)

The graph above (figure 3) charts the same trend described in table 1 by comparing aggregate values of political parties online. It shows that, from 2000 to 2007, there has been a significant increase of political parties on the WWW. Looking at the *economic*

<sup>15</sup> [unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/m49/m49.htm](http://unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/m49/m49.htm) ;

<sup>16</sup> *ibidem* ;

category, we see a serious difference between “developed” and “developing” countries. The graph shows that political parties in “developing” countries are more likely to be online. However, the WIA Report (2008) points out that this is likely to be improved over time. It is important to highlight that many improvements have been introduced in collecting these data since 2005. In the past, “joke political parties” were included in the data set. In 2007, the WIA Report research team decided to include into its analysis only political parties that propose candidates for elections. “Joke parties” are then excluded by this last analysis. However, this decision did not affect countries where political parties are illegal. In these cases, the WIA Report research team decided to keep including joke parties in the data set.

Finally, we are able to test the expectations proposed at the beginning of this study: does the Digital Divide affect the unequal presence of political parties online? Or are other contextual factors such as the political and economic status of a country more important?

### **4.3) Causes**

I ran a multivariate regression in order to address this question. The presence of political parties worldwide on the WWW (*Web Parties on the Web*) is the dependent variable here. I use the Digital Divide indicator for 2007 (amount of *Internet Users*), democratic indicator (*Polity IV*), and economic status (*PPP GDPxCapita*). I do not use the normalized values of internet users (*Internet Penetration Rate - IPR*) because this is already correlated to the value of the democratic status of the country. By including this variable in the regression, we would violate the exogeneity assumption typical of standard regression analysis.

**Table 2 - Regression (OLS) *Political Parties on the WWW*  
on *Internet Users, Democracy, and Economy***

	<i>Political Parties Online (Ratio)</i>
<i>Internet Users</i> ( <i>x million</i> )	.156* (.093)
<i>Level of Democracy</i> ( <i>Polity IV</i> )	.965** (.355)
<i>Economy</i> ( <i>PPP GDP xCapita</i> )	.001*** (.000)
Constant	27.67 (3.049)
Observations (N)	190
R-squared	.365

\*\*\* p<0.01; \*\* p<0.05; \* p<0.1 – Standard errors in parentheses

The resulting regression (table 2) provides interesting evidence with resulting estimates that are highly significant. The amount of the Internet population, political, and economic factors combined explain 36% of the variation in the worldwide presence on the Internet of political parties. A *F test* of joint significance indicates that the model has strong explanatory power compared to an intercept-only model. The model also shows that the level of the Digital Divide, measured with the amount of internet users per country, is less significant than other indicators.<sup>17</sup>

The coefficient estimates (B) imply that the variation of 1 unit in *Polity IV*, measuring the *Level of Democracy*, implies a change of almost 1 percentage point (0.96) in *Political Parties on the WWW*. Increasing the number of *Internet Users* by 1 million raises the percentage of *Parties on the WWW* by 0.156. Increasing *PPP GDP xCapita* by 1000 dollars, which is roughly the difference in *PPP GDP xCapita* of a country leads to a change of

<sup>17</sup> I tested for multilinearity correlation among the independent variables. None of them is correlated beyond the 0.5 ;

0.001 percentage points in *Political Parties on the WWW*.

In conclusion, the direct effect of economic and political factors on the presence of political parties on the WWW is stronger than the direct effect of the dimension of the Digital Divide measured by the number of internet users. However, the Digital Divide is in turn strongly affected by democratic and political variables. The evidence clearly shows that democratic and economic conditions are the most important determinants of the use of the Internet for political purposes by political parties.

## 5) Conclusion

This study explored the unequal use of the Internet by political parties. This is an example of a top-down use of the Internet to promote “conventional” forms of political participation. I have, first, explored how politics may benefit from the use of the Internet in the framework of party competition. I have also highlighted that research in this field still lacks empirical evidence about whether, and how political parties make the most of the Internet to promote themselves. I also argue, that given the increased centrality of the Internet in the framework of politics, the unequal presence of political parties on the WWW risks weakening the plurality of the political landscape.

This is why, in the second part of this study, I explored the unequal distribution of political parties on the WWW worldwide. I have then investigated which country contextual factors are more significant for explaining how political parties use the Internet unequally. By exploring local conditions such as the level of the Digital Divide, the economic and the democratic status, I addressed this question. Empirical findings led me to conclude that the Digital Divide is not the most determining factor explaining the unequal presence of political parties online. Rather, economic and democratic conditions are more determinant in explaining the unequal use of the Internet by political parties. To conclude, political parties shape the use of the Internet according to the political and economic framework in which they are performing.

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