

**Louvain School of Management
and Vytautas Magnus University**

THE USE OF MARKETING METHODS IN POLITICAL CAMPAIGNS FOR THE YOUNG AUDIENCE

Author: Stanislav Kinashchuk

**Master's thesis with the view of getting the
degrees: Marketing and International
Commerce + Master 120 credits in
Management with a specialized focus**

**Supervisor: Assoc. prof. dr. Justinas
Kisieliauskas**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SUMMARY.....	2
INTRODUCTION	3
1. THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF POLITICAL MARKETING.....	7
1.1. Definition of political marketing and its differentiation.....	8
1.2. Strategy and tools for implementing political marketing	11
1.3. Analysis of existing research base on political marketing	16
2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY OF USE OF MARKETING METHODS IN POLITICAL CAMPAIGN.....	24
2.1. Research methodology for analyzing effectiveness of political marketing.....	24
2.1.1. Development of Research questions for analyzing effectiveness of political marketing	28
2.1.2. Development of Research and Hypothetical statements to determine which political marketing tools are most suitable for the youth audience of voters	33
2.2. Analysis of research demographics	36
3. USE OF MARKETING METHODS IN POLITICAL CAMPAIGN FOR YOUNG AUDIENCES RESEARH RESULTS	39
2.3. Results of Descriptive statistics analysis	39
2.4. Results of Pearson Correlation analysis	44
2.5. Results of focus group analysis	46
2.6. Scientific discussion of results, comparisons and recommendations for election headquarters.....	56
CONCLUSION	59
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	62
ANNEXES.....	70

Stanislav Kinashchuk. THE USE OF MARKETING METHODS IN POLITICAL CAMPAIGNS AMONG THE YOUNG AUDIENCE: Final Master Thesis in Marketing and International Commerce / Supervisor: Assoc. prof. dr. Justinas Kisieliuskas / Vytautas Magnus University, Faculty of Economics and Management, Graduate studies. – Kaunas, 2024. – 77 pages.

SUMMARY

The research paper addresses the critical role of political marketing in enhancing election outcomes. Despite the increased utilization of marketing techniques in political campaigns, there is a need for continuous innovation to attract voters effectively. This study tackles the research **problem**: how to use marketing methods in political campaigns for young audience. The **object** of the study is marketing tools used in political campaigns for young audiences.

The study **aims** to determine which methods of political advertising are most effective in engaging young voters and how these methods influence their voting behavior. The investigation involves a literature review and empirical research using interviews to gather data on voter experiences with different types of political advertising. A quantitative method with descriptive and regression analysis was applied to interpret the data. The results show that political marketing, especially through social media, is the most impactful tool for mobilizing young voters. This confirms that innovative marketing strategies significantly enhance the effectiveness of election campaigns.

This paper is research-oriented final master thesis.

Keywords: Election Campaign, Electoral Behavior, Idea Marketing, Internet Advertising, Political Advertising, Political Communication, Political Marketing, Targeted Marketing.

INTRODUCTION

Relevance. Modern political campaigns are nothing more than the promotion of political ideology. Both political marketing and marketing of ideas are part of the concept of “social marketing” proposed by the American economist, and the “father of marketing” Kotler and Zaltman (1971). Subsequently, scientists crystallized a position regarding the possibility of applying the marketing of ideas, namely “...during the late 1950s and early 1960s, marketing scholars examined the possibilities and constraints of applying principles of commercial marketing to other contexts such as the political or social”, thus concepts previously used in commerce and product promotion can be applied to social or political marketing “...they suggested that a social change campaign would have higher chances to succeed if it copied a commercial marketing one...” (MacFadyen & Stead, 1999). One of the key moments of the election process is the election campaign as a multifaceted phenomenon. The tactics of conducting election campaigns are built in accordance with the main goal - to become legitimately elected and win the elections. The instrumental arsenal of election campaigns is constantly enriched over time, which is caused by auxiliary technologies that are interconnected with the following election technologies: election marketing, election engineering, PR, political advertising, imageology.

This situation requires election headquarters to constantly implement innovative methods of attracting voters. As in general marketing, people vote with their money, in politics, people vote for ideas represented by politicians. In this paper, author will explore which of the marketing methods for advancing the necessary political agenda is the most effective, and also – which of the voter mobilization methods will give the best election result for a particular candidate.

According to the researchers of the electoral behavior of voters Marquart et al., (2019) – under the conditions of an intensive election campaign, political parties managed to mobilize people who usually did not attend the elections, thus, these organizations managed to get more votes than their competitors. Thus, using marketing as a stimulus for a passive electorate can cause electoral success (Marquart et al., 2019).

In addition, every year it becomes difficult to overestimate the true role of new technologies, the Internet, social media, and the big data collected thanks to them on the course and outcome of elections. Moreover, in some cases, targeted marketing political campaigns fall within the purview of institutions charged with protecting the democratic process. Such attention on the part of these institutions is due to the use of various, sometimes even manipulative, information campaigns. However, even such campaigns proved their effectiveness in practice (Dvir-Gvirsman et al., 2022)

In addition, we are observing a change in the guidelines that the voter considers when preparing for the elections. For example, the British researcher Malcolm Gray-Hawkins (2018) claims

that more and more people today choose not to trust television and television shows, and increasingly form their political position thanks to social media and information campaigns on the Internet.

Also, in addition to moving away from the already classic ways of obtaining information (television and newspapers), with the development of social media and personal branding, political parties increasingly began to use celebrities, actors, show business stars and other types of influencers with a large Internet audience. Thus, in the last decade, inviting stars is one of the main methods of political marketing (Banerjee et al., 2020). In addition, we will rely on a book written on this topic, namely “Political Marketing in the United States” (2014), which provides us with a general context and understanding of trends in political marketing in the United States. Special mention should be made of Sharma et al. (2021), Jackson (2013), Lees-Marshment et al., (2019), scientific studies and books that provide an opportunity to explore the implementation of political marketing in different countries of the world. The following articles examine how digital media is influencing political marketing campaigns: Chester and Montgomery (2019), Martin (2016), Fernandez (2020), (Kim, 2016).

The relevance of this Research: With the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, social networks have become extremely important elements of political advertising, as well as any other political advertising placed on the Internet in general. To be able to reach a larger audience, they moved all the events that were supposed to be held in the halls and began to hold them in the online format at the stadiums. For example, in 2020, spending on digital advertising in the political segment more than tripled compared to 2016 (Determ, 2024)

Political election campaigns were and remain one of the largest, most complex, and most expensive types of political marketing activities. This explains the ever-increasing interest in a comprehensive study of issues related to political marketing and finding common features and tools used in modern political systems and marketing concepts. Even more relevant is the question of which of the methods of mobilizing the electorate is the most effective and cheapest.

In this context, Social media, which have already become an integral part of people's lives all over the planet, in some cases, the most important part or tool of political marketing. As Abid, et al. (2021) notes, social media enable political parties and politicians to have direct and relatively cheap access to voters, besides, this method of communication also has a high level of feedback. It is difficult to disagree with such judgments, despite the cheapness of this method, I have not been able to find which of the social media available today offers the most effective way of delivering political advertising.

For example, in the last US presidential election in 2020, \$3.5 billion was spent, of which \$1.8 billion was spent on social media advertising. (Abid et al., 2022) This shows that in developed

democracies, investments in political advertising on social media platforms already reach almost half of all political campaign budgets.

This Research raises the problem – how to use marketing methods in political campaigns for young audience.

The object of this Research is – marketing methods in political campaign for young audience.

The main goal of this Research – is theoretically analyze and by empirical study highlight most suited marketing methods in political campaign for young audience.

Objectives of this Research are:

1. To analyze the phenomenon of political marketing highlighting main tools used in it;
2. To reveal the current stage of political marketing research gaining insights for the research;
3. To form methodology and perform research allowing to determine which tools of political marketing are the most suitable for a young audience of voters;
4. Based on the results of the research, provide recommendations for election headquarters regarding the political marketing tools used for young audiences.

The structure of the paper consists of **3 main parts**.

In the **first part**, the author conducts a comprehensive analysis of secondary data such as scientific journal articles, peer-reviewed journals, conference proceedings, company reports, textbooks, and manuscripts.

In the **second part**, based on the literature review, hypotheses are formed, and research questions based on the previous scientific works are developed. The questionnaire and the scale are tested for validity and reliability.

In the **third part**, the author analyzes the data obtained using quantitative analysis methods, initiates scientific discussion, draws conclusions about the hypotheses, and describes limitations and future research directions.

The methods of the research: Quantitative and qualitative research method was chosen. Methods include: empirical research, logical, systematic, descriptive and ultimately comparative analysis, analysis (more details in the Empirical Research Methodology section).

For conducting the empirical study of the problem, the author utilizes primary and secondary data **sources**. Primary data was collected through an online questionnaire. As secondary data sources, the author used articles in scientific journals, peer-reviewed articles, company researches, conference proceedings, textbooks, and manuscripts.

This structure ensures a thorough examination of political marketing methods, focusing on their effectiveness among young voters. The study's methodology incorporates both qualitative and

quantitative research, allowing for a comprehensive understanding of the data and its implications for future political campaigns.

1. THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF POLITICAL MARKETING

Modern political campaigns essentially involve promoting political ideologies. This notion corresponds to the idea of social marketing, introduced in 1971 by American economist Philip Kotler and his colleague Gerald Zaltman (1971). Researchers soon expressed interest in applying commercial marketing ideas to other spheres, with the political element being a logical starting point. According to marketing experts in the late 1950s and early 1960s discussed that “marketing techniques developed in commercial settings can be utilized in any context where voluntary activity or changes in behavior or attitude are required. (MacFadyen & Stead, 1999). Below, we will take a closer look at what marketing ideas are.

As for the beginning, according to the classic view of the authors, the first, possibly unconscious, author and implementer of the idea marketing concept was the founder of the Olympic movement, Baron Pierre de Coubertin, (Lowland, 1995; MacAloon, 2013). It was idea of Pierre de Coubertin to revive and spread the Olympic movement that caused an unprecedented campaign in the press of many countries. He personally corresponded with potential donors and governments, published articles and promoted the idea of a revived Olympic Games. Without realizing it, he used marketing methods to promote the idea, and marketing of ideas was born.

Already in the second quarter of the 20th century, the marketing of ideas began to move from the category of promoting the ideas of public health, Olympism, and feminism to a tool of state propaganda. Countries increasingly resorted to the use of political marketing for the purpose of mobilizing the female population for factories, mobilizing men for military formations, etc. The main goal of marketing ideas was not to increase the number of enlisted men or volunteer workers, but to promote the acceptance by society of the idea that this is a necessary and socially responsible decision (Donovan et al., 2003; Culpin, 2001). So, idea marketing has always been about changing social norms and paradigms, although at some points, idea marketing obviously began to move into the field of political marketing.

Some authors, for example, directly connect the marketing of ideas and political marketing, note that political marketing is one of the parts of the marketing of ideologies, the authors of the thematic article claim that political marketing refers to the strategic promotion of ideas and beliefs pertaining to public problems, political matters, or opposition to a specific candidate (Butler & Collins, 1994). Thus, we can observe a clear connection between political marketing and marketing of ideas, as they are either derived from each other, or are components of each other.

In *Figure 1* below, we can observe the dynamics of interest of users of the Google search engine in the concept of “Political Marketing”.

Figure 1.

The number of requests and mentions of the term “Political Marketing” according to queries in the Google search engine between 2019-2024



Source: Google Trends

Demonstrated graph depicting the popularity of the query “Political marketing” in Google, showing a constant growth trend over time.

The graph showcases a timeline on the x-axis, indicating the passage of time, and the popularity of the query on the y-axis, representing the level of interest or search volume. As we analyze this graph, we observe a consistent upward trend in the popularity of the term “political marketing” over the indicated period.

At the initial point on the timeline, the popularity may have been relatively low, suggesting limited interest in the subject. However, as time progresses, we can see a gradual and steady increase in the popularity of the query. The line on the graph, indicating the popularity, moves upward consistently, implying a rising level of interest among Google users.

This upward trajectory demonstrates that more people are searching for information related to political marketing, indicating a growing curiosity and engagement in this particular field. The graph reveals a sustained pattern of interest, without any significant fluctuations or declines, emphasizing the consistent growth in popularity.

1.1. Definition of political marketing and its differentiation

Modern election companies have long ceased to be based solely on the political preferences of voters. Campaigning and other ways of persuading voters have existed since the first elections. However, political marketing took shape as a science and tool only at the end of the 20th century.

But when we talk about political campaign marketing, we first compare it to product advertising. The difference between political and mainstream advertising is described by Abramowitz and Webster (2018). The main difference is that negative advertising, or, as it is also called, “attack advertising” is practically absent in the product advertising market. Instead, marketers use the positive

differences of the product compared to the competing product and do not focus on the negative. On the other hand, the situation is similar in political campaigns.

Another difference between political marketing and commercial marketing is the high regulation of the latter. Since commercial marketing has been around for much longer and its activities are directly related to high profits, government institutions have largely framed the law surrounding the promotion of a product on the market. On the other hand, political marketing, especially manifestations of political marketing in social networks and the Internet, is almost not limited to regulation by the law. Moreover, as mentioned in their article by Helberger et al. (2021) attempts to somehow limit or regulate the rules for the spread of political marketing face criticism from society and opposition from large technology companies. Both of the mentioned entities protesting against such rules justify their position by protecting freedom of speech and possible oppression of other freedoms (access to information, etc.)

All this brings us to the third difference between political marketing and commercial marketing, namely the frequent dissemination of misinformation. Since the political marketing market is not regulated, election headquarters often resort to manipulation and dissemination of shocking or fake information in order to mobilize their potential electorate. Thus, commercial marketing using microtargeting technology on the Internet, although sometimes it can spread false information, however, due to the high regulation of the market, it has much less space for false facts and a more critical audience. On the other hand, the same audience, when microtargeting is applied to it in the context of political marketing, is much more prone to perceive fakes and misinformation, because often such an informational message has an emotional appeal (Herder & Dirks, 2022).

Thus, according to researchers Vinogradova et al. (2021), today political marketing is a certain set of methods and tools used to achieve political goals, primarily election campaign goals (Vinogradova et al., 2021).

Newman (2010) also offers us such a definition of political marketing, in which marketing is a collection of all marketing principles and tools and their application in political life (in particular, in: election campaigns, creating the image of candidates and parties, promoting legislative initiatives, etc.).

Therefore, it is the last author, who gives the clearest and most suitable description of the concept of political marketing for our study. Since the mentioned author does not give a clear limitation to the tools that can be used for political marketing, it means that it is relevant in our research, which is aimed at determining the effectiveness of social media in political campaigns. The *Table 1* below represents some of the most significant concepts of Political Marketing by various scholars.

Table 1*Definition of Political Marketing*

Scholars	Definition
Henneberg (1996)	<i>“seeking to establish, maintain and enhance long-term voter relationships at a profit for society and political parties, so that the objectives of the individual political actors and organisations involved are met. This is done by mutual exchange and fulfillment of promises”</i>
Philo (1993)	<i>“dismissing what he calls a “shallow science of imagistics”</i>
(Menon, 2008)	<i>“political marketing is the outcome of the marriage between marketing and politics”</i>
Harrop (1990)	<i>“political marketing is not just about political advertising, party political broadcasts and electoral speeches but it covers the whole area of party positioning in the electoral market.”</i>
Kavanagh (1995)	<i>“political marketing is set of strategies and tools to trace and study public opinion before and during an election campaign, to develop campaign communications and to assess their impact.”</i>
Maarek (1995)	<i>“a complex process, the outcome of a more global effort implicating all the factors of the politician’s political communication” and emphasizes that “‘political marketing’ is the general method of “political communication”, one of its means”</i>
Kolovos and Harris (2005)	<i>“the party or candidate’s use of opinion research and environmental analysis to produce and promote a competitive offering which will help realize organizational aims and satisfy groups of electors in exchange for their votes”</i>
Foster (2023)	<i>“Political marketing is the adaptation of the philosophy, principles, concepts, and techniques of commercial marketing to the political world.”</i>

The definitions of “political marketing” provided by different authors (*Table 1*) share some similarities but also exhibit certain differences. The general characteristic of these differentiations is that they highlight various aspects of political marketing, emphasizing different dimensions or components of the concept. The following similarities can be distinguished between them:

Focus on relationships: Many definitions, such as Henneberg's, emphasize the establishment and maintenance of long-term voter relationships. They accept that political marketing implies the creation of linkages and relationships with voters or the public. Integration of marketing and politics: The common factor in these definitions, as in Menon’s, is the combination of- or victory of- marketing

and politics in the term political marketing. Marketing definitions acknowledge that marketing concepts and methods are used in party or individual political campaigns. Communications and messaging:

A further tenet shared by definitions like Kavanagh's and Maarek is the -all quotations are from. Communication Definitions emphasize the role of rhetoric in an efficient political marketing campaign. However, we were also able to isolate several differences: Scope: Harrop's definition of political marketing goes further than just including Beijing. In addition to considering advertising and electoral speeches, he formally defines the broad concept of party position in the electoral market. In other words, he includes the areas of application of political marketing where otherwise only political marketing activities can be talked about.

Using of marketing tools: Kavanagh expands its definition by adding recordings with the use of strategy's, tools and procedures of public opinions and aides the effect of communications of campaigns. In other words, he notes the planning aspect of political marketing. Research is included: The definition of Kolovos and Harris emphasizes the use of opinion research and environmental analysis to guide the production and promotion of a competitive political offering. In other words, the authors underline the importance of research in shaping political marketing strategies. Mention of organizational aims: Kolovo and Harris also explicitly refer to the goal of satisfying "groups of electors in trade for their votes." Thus, this definition highlights the organizational and exchange objectives of political marketing.

Combining the most frequently repeated elements from these definitions, a comprehensive definition of political marketing could be formulated as follow: Political marketing is the process of utilizing (1)marketing principles, (2)strategies, and (3)tools to establish, maintain, and enhance long-term voter relationships. It involves the integration of marketing's and politics, encompassing the development of campaign communications, the analysis of public opinion, the positioning of political parties in the electoral market, and the use of research to produce and promote competitive offerings that satisfy both individual and organizational objectives.

1.2. Strategy and tools for implementing political marketing

It should also be noted what are the main components of political marketing. To be more precise, how these components/factors propose to be considered by researchers Vinogradova et al. (2021).

Therefore, "political marketing is considered as a kind of intellectual and organizational forms of political communication/exchange/interaction" (Vinogradova et al., 2021). From this we can

conclude that the main components forming the concept of political communication, political interaction, and political exchange in the context of marketing.

Starting with the concept of political communication, which the researcher Fill (2005) propose, as a process that is a very important tool for increasing the value of one's own brand (in our case, increasing the popularity of the electoral unit). “Therefore, for a political party or candidate, the communication style, accessibility, and content of their communication can be important cues by which potential voters can assess their closeness, the degree to which they will fulfill key roles in the desired way, and whether the party or candidate deserves in support”. In addition, in his research, Fill K. states that the use of the Internet can potentially positively affect the outcome of political campaigns for those headquarters that will use it intensively in the future (Fill, 2005).

As for the concept of political exchange marketing, it consists in achieving mutual understanding between the subject and the exchange partner (in our case, the consumer is a voter, and the partner offering the exchange is the election headquarters). In addition, one should deeply understand the wants and needs of their consumers in order to project a political campaign into a product/idea that satisfies the voter and also, “speak” in a language understandable to the voter. Thus, in modern realities, the latest information dissemination technologies, such as the Internet and TV advertising, SMS marketing, etc., are an extremely important tool that can potentially change the course of an election campaign (O’Cass, 1996).

So, in conclusion, we can distinguish two styles of marketing communication inherent in political marketing. The first - the concept of political communication consists in the use of marketing to promote a specific political party, figure or public topic in one of the election cycles, and has little interest in long-term relations with voters. This traditional approach to political marketing has been used for the past several decades, which has led to apathy, distrust and disinterest among voters in political parties (Dalton, 2019).

The second concept of political marketing, which began to be used in the second decade of the 21st century, consisted in abandoning the traditional promotion of political brands through advertising, and was marked by the beginning of political parties building relationships with potential voters. Thus, we can witness the birth of political relationship marketing (PRM) (Abid et al., 2019; Abid et al., 2021).

It follows that, in this case, social media is the best tool for building such a relationship between the voter and the political brand. Researchers Abid et al. (2021) also agree with us, who show that new and relatively small political brands, by building trusting relationships with their voters on social networks, have defeated large national parties in local elections in Australia. Thus, researchers note active communication with voters in social media as the main tool for building this trust.

Author agrees with the position of the above-mentioned definitions, however, author believe that the growth of voters' trust in social media is connected not only with the growth of distrust in traditional media, but with the change of generations of voters. Thus, author hypothesize that a young voter is more likely to prefer political advertising in social media over the same advertising in traditional media.

The development of communication channels and media influence of political relations, the formation of new forms of interaction between politicians and the audience, and the development of the relationship between power and society have occurred. Classical and new methods of political marketing have emerged in this process, the formation of which was facilitated by the development of media and technology. Below, we consider the concepts of political marketing tools, referring to the concepts of various authors.

The significance of the printing press in the history of media cannot be underestimated. The medium contributed to the dissemination of ideas during the Reformation. Luther's points and critique were conveyed to other people, his report was given prominence to protest against the Catholic Church (Posada, 2013). The printing press facilitated the distribution of movable type books, which further fueled the growth of the European book industry (Waugh, 2013). This example, although far from modern political marketing, highlights the early stages of information dissemination and the impact it had on political processes.

The development of the telegraph, radio, and television created a new era in mass communication. They also accelerated the development of mass culture and political marketing. These electronic media have become a critical channel in political campaigns and shaping public opinion. Thus, in the British general election in 2010, newspapers, broadcasting, and television were actively used. Finally, journalism, advertising, and public relations integrated in the horizon of mass communication have special importance in political marketing at present. (Temple, 2013).

Along with the growing impact of the Internet and virtual network communities, there has been a revolution in political communication and information exchange. The Internet has opened up opportunities for the radical widening of the public sphere with new forms of interaction (Dahlgren, 2005). Social networks, blogs, distributed video, and other web-based phenomena have established a PR 2.0 model, which implies an exchange of messages, not just a conveyance from one source to another. And with the advent of Web 3.0 based on semantic web technologies, where applications begin to communicate with applications directly, searches for information have become much wider: full of the meaning and concerns of users. This provided an opportunity for integrated communications, that is, such that information channels, to send coherent messages to the target audience. Political marketing began to use the opportunities provided by new technologies. Still, it is

not yet clear how much they will be able to impact and what this means for society as a whole (Webster, 2006).

In conclusion, political marketing has been shaped by both classical and new methods influenced by technological advancements in media and communication. From the early days of the printing press to the Internet era, tools such as mass media, social networks, and integrated communication channels have played crucial roles in political campaigns, the formation of public opinion, and the exchange of information. The ongoing technological revolution continues to redefine the landscape of political marketing, and its future implications for society are yet to be fully understood.

It is for this reason that it is necessary to investigate and compare different ways of using political marketing. One of them its spreading political advertising, in our case - a comparison of political advertising in classic media (television, radio, street advertising) and in modern media (Internet, video hosting, social media). This is one of the most important elements of political marketing, because it is through it that the election headquarters communicates other marketing concepts

Aside from entering into the world of political communication, which we have already discussed there is another essential notion called “electoral mobilization” This notion sits at the intersection of political marketing and sociology, and psychology (Nyhuis et al., 2016), demonstrating the multidisciplinary aspects of understanding voter behavior.

In essence, regardless of the academic area voter mobilization always entails the use of marketings technique. Exposure to various aspects of business is both informative albeit essential in understanding the interrelation of studies. These segments attempt to dissect and understand the aspects that bring about the need to create voter behavior and turnout. Sociology and psychology seem to attempt to discover most of the aspects while marketing attempts to spread the same knowledge and impacts the desired outcome.

This shows the interrelation of the aspects. Taking all of this into account, it is clear that voter mobilization, like the previously discussed concept of “political communication” has considerable potential to be game changer. However, in the previous discussed scenario, our attention is directed towards individuals who are already actively involved in electoral processes and closely following political events, whereas “electoral mobilization” directly refers to marketing strategies aimed at reaching out to the more passive segment of the electorate - those who is “undecided” or generally answers “I will not participate in the elections”.

This shift in focus emphasize the significance of personalizing outreach efforts to involve not only people who are currently politically engaged, but also those who are less active or have

disengaged from the political process entirely. Thus, it underlines the importance of a diversified approaches that addresses a wide range of voter behavior's and levels of political participations.

Furthermore, in order to reach research objectives of this paper, which largely involve analyzing the effectiveness of political marketing tools, we must analyze the efficacy of both models of contact with voters – “political communication” and “electoral mobilization” which we discussed earlier. This require a thorough assessment of how those methods appeal to and also impact to diverse parts of the electorate, ultimately shaping their beliefs and habits, and political participations. A thorough review of these approaches can provide to us useful insights into their respective strengths; shortcomings, and overall impact on political engagement and potential election outcomes.

Such a evaluations will not only contribute to a greater knowledge of the dynamics of political marketing, but also provide practical recommendations for improving its effectiveness in modern political campaigns and communication strategies. That is why, in the following sections of this study, we will develop an overview of the study of these two models by other researchers, and finally, determine their effectiveness in our specific case.

In conclusion to this section, we would like to emphasize those tools (or strategies) of political marketing that we managed to highlight. In this section, we focused on these tools of political marketing, since the platforms (Social media, television, newspapers, etc.) where the mentioned tools will be used, are only channels of communication between the voter and the political project. Thus, it is not important whether the marketing message is distributed through television, e-mail, social media or newspaper, what is important is which of the tools we have identified is used to communicate between the campaign headquarters and the potential voter. Finally, in our research, we will check how certain political marketing messages (Political Communication, Political Exchange, Electoral Mobilization) spread on different platforms, and determine which of these platforms is the most effective in our case.

Table 2

Components and tools of Political marketing

Political marketing tool/strategy	Brief description of strategy application
Political communication	The concept of political communications “Political communications” is one of those rarely used concepts that combine marketing strategies to promote a specific party, a specific candidate, or a particular issue during an election campaign. Such a strategy presupposes that, in its methodology, it pays little attention to establishing honest relations with potential voters for a long time. In other words, a traditional

Political marketing tool/strategy	Brief description of strategy application
	campaign instrument, which can be assessed in use over the last decades, has provoked the apathy of voters, disbelief in political parties, and lack of interest in political personalities (Dalton, 2019). The essence of this tool is to provide simple reports to potential voters on the work and activities of the campaign from one angle. Hence, it is not intended to establish as straightforward as possible feedback.
Political exchange	The second conceptual approach to political marketing, which was formed in the second decade of the 21st century, involved the revision of the principle of promotion of the political brand. In this case, the period of the formation of political parties' relationship marketing became the basis for the emergence of political relationship marketing (PRM). According to Abid et al., (2019), (2021)., social media was found to be the most opted tool for building relationships. Such a refocus of the strategy of building relationships between voters and political figures made communication easier, more flexible, and response-oriented.
Electoral mobilization	Hence, regarding voter mobilization, it is possible to note that this notion can be found at the intersection of political marketing, sociology, and psychology. On the one hand, regardless of the field of science, voter mobilization always presupposes the application of marketing (Nyhuis et al., 2016). On the other hand, the tasks within the competence of sociology and psychology are to discover and most fully describe the factors and elements that determine the specifics of voter mobilization, particularly to describe emotions and motives. At the same time, within the competence of marketing is the choice of the transition of these elements of strength and motivation for voter mobilization in practical terms.

The table (*Table 2*) shows the tools of political marketing that we have identified, or rather, the tactics of implementing marketing strategies in politics.

1.3. Analysis of existing research base on political marketing

In order to find an answer to the question posed in the previous subsection and to find the most effective way of spreading political advertising, we considered several approaches to conducting research on a similar topic. Among them, a rather in-depth study by Lipsitz and Padilla (2021) should be noted. which related to the effectiveness of displayed advertising and its wearability (loss of effectiveness in the process of long-term display). This study uses “Huber and Arceneaux replication: cross-sectional and panel data”, which indicates the coefficient of effectiveness of advertising after every 1000 views by survey participants.

Useful addition to our research can be conducted in the Netherlands Survey in 2017 by Marquart and Brosius, et al. (2019), which, examined the effects of political messaging and emotional tone on individuals' perceptions of the European Union (EU). Using a fictitious political party called

PROGRESS, the researchers manipulated EU position (pro or anti) and emotional tone (neutral or emotional) to analyze their impacts. The study employed an experimental design with five conditions and measured participants' perceptions and attitudes towards the messages. While specific findings are not provided, the researchers aimed to mimic real-world political discourse and explore the influence of message framing. In order to collect data on the emotional attitude to political advertising, survey participants were asked to watch a picture with a political advertisement. Subsequently, they were asked about their emotions after viewing an advertisement that was anti-European and pro-European. The advertisement used emotionally charged words such as: “oppression”, “attack”, “proud”, “inspired”, “happy” (Marquart, Brosius, et al., 2019).

The research holds implications for political marketing strategies, including understanding the impact of emotional tone, tailoring message framing for different positions, balancing emotional appeal and factual information, and considering new political actors. By utilizing these insights, political marketers can enhance their messaging effectiveness and adapt to changing political landscapes.

However, this type of research is not very suitable in our case, since our goal is to investigate the effectiveness of the same political ad shown on different platforms, not the effectiveness of a specific ad, over time and in general.

More relevant for our study is the scientific paper by Tranová and Veneti (2022). This study concerns the promotion of political relationship marketing through podcast projects. In this study, the authors suggest conducting interviews or focus groups to gather opinions and positions regarding each of the podcasts offered for listening. Therefore, this type of qualitative research can be ideal for our research paper, because despite the broader name of the researched platforms, we will benefit from the specific opinions of the respondents regarding one or another way of political marketing distribution.

In addition, since our research concerns a specific field, researchers dealing with similar topics recommend measuring respondents' interest in political life and politics in general, such a survey may reflect the correlation between respondents' answers and their involvement in political life. (Huntington, 2020).

The most valuable research, for our study, is a scientific paper by Kaid (2002), which, despite its creation in 2002, is quite relevant in our case. In the mentioned study, the author conducts a survey for the 7th grade Likert scale, where 1 is not very likely, and 7 is very likely. It is also important that the study compares political advertising on television and on the Internet among student youth. This similarity with our research makes this research paper a good foundation for the survey.

In order to assess the real impact of using political marketing in any type of political advertising, in our case we consider the method used by Kaid (2002) and the study of Tranová and

Veneti (2022) to be the most suitable. In addition, we will use the research of Huntington (2020), which recommends measuring the level of interest in the political life of respondents. This decision is due to the fact that these studies used the necessary methods for comparing political advertising distribution platforms, as well as the necessary data collection methods.

Furthermore, in order to separately examine and analyse the components indicated in the preceding section, namely “political communication” and “electoral mobilization” this research will conduct a study of existing research on these themes. We will concentrate on both (quantitative and qualitative studies) doing a thorough assessments of how these methods have been researched and understood in the existing literature’s.

In addition, as previously described in this section, we will begin to determine the most appropriate method's and procedure's for performing this research. This will entail a thorough examination of research procedures used in similar studies to ensure that methodologies are rigorous and well-suited to answering the research issues at hand. This comprehensive approach will help us expand on existing information and gain a better understanding of the dynamics of “political communication” and “electoral mobilization.”

Quick access and use of the World Wide Web makes it possible to obtain the desired information and initiate a social-communicative dialogue in the electoral process. The main advantage of the tool of political communication in social networks is quick feedback, which provides the opportunity for a dialogue between a political figure and a voter.

Social networks play a significant role in the formation of dialogic communication in the modern election process. National parties and political figures have their own sites and pages in social networks, where active political communication takes place, which is a special stage of the election campaign.

Thus, political technologists and analysts who work in the interests of a certain party or figure receive the necessary information about the needs, opinions and demands of voters, and therefore have the opportunity to quickly react to changes in the situation in the political space, which often means the manipulation of public opinion. In turn, voters can actively influence the political reality, demonstrating certain principled positions that the candidate should satisfy if he expects a positive result of the election campaign. Internet communications are a form of socio-political discourse between party functionaries and ordinary party members. It is important to note that the character of internal party processes, which is often undemocratic, is partly changing under the influence of the latest communicative realities (Mykhalchuk, 2013).

For instance, Lilleker and Koc-Michalska's (2013) paper looks into how MEP's (members of the EU Parliament) rank different communication styles when using online platforms (here we talking about case of “political communication”). Three tactics are examined: participative

communication, impression management, and homestyle. According to their research, impression management and homestyle are common, but participatory communication is on the rise and could be advantageous politically for forward-thinking MEPs who interact with voters online.

Researchers claim that “Participatory communication strategy is one that is emerging, and is pursued mostly by younger MEPs, while MEPs who represent minor parties and who are elected using individual-centered mechanisms are more likely to have a Web site, but do not go beyond (Lilleker & Koc-Michalska, 2013). This is confirmed by the growing trend in the use of political marketing tools, such as political communication, because they have been used for quite a long time.

Since from 2013, a lot has changed, but this look back gives the opportunity to compare the results of EU MEP's who used “political communication” and those who used only traditional methods of communication. So, from the mentioned research it can be summarize that“...by using the size of followings on social networks or Twitter... there is evidence that MEPs who have highly interactive communication strategies are able to gain an audience they can talk to and talk with. This finding might suggest that there could be political capital in having a more participatory online presence, and improve election results.” (Lilleker & Koc-Michalska, 2013).

Online communications are interactive, offering the possibility of feedback. It is the dialogue, not the monologue, that is characteristic of traditional media and is the main feature of the innovativeness of political Internet communications. With the introduction of the latest information and communication technologies, the mechanism of political communication has changed. With the change in means of communication, this model also changes, to which one more extremely important element is added - the so-called feedback, which marked the emergence of a new model of communication between the government and society. Thus, their multimedia nature implies that the transmission of political meanings is carried out through a variety of channels presented on the Internet, which combines visual, sound, print and video aspects of traditional mass media.

Given this information, we are of the opinion that politicians who make use of the methods of political communication that are available in social media will achieve greater results by using this marketing tools. This is due to the fact that these networks provide a two-way exchange of opinions and comments with the people. This characteristic of social media is demonstrated by one of the definitions of this term that is most frequently cited in the area of political marketing. Researchers Kaplan et al., (2010) observe that this definition encompasses the following: “Social Media is a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content” (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010).

The electoral process in the age of information society is gradually changing its form and content. The main element of communication in the modern election process in social networks, which gives reasons to define communication as a dialogue, is the possibility of feedback. Feedback

in communications is implemented instantly, information spreads within a few hours. If previously the so-called feedback was revealed after the election results were announced, today the reaction of a participant in the social dialogue can significantly adjust the course of the election process. The principle of social dialogue creates fundamentally new opportunities for participation in political and information exchange. Today, political and party websites and social networks act as channels for communication interaction within the electoral process. (Lam & Cheung, 2021).

In addition, the positive influence that political communication through social media can have on the outcomes of election campaigns is something that is covered in his research as well “...politicians should pay attention to their political communication through social media; the political communication that they do in social networks does seem to influence the electoral outcomes.” (Gesuele et al., 2021). This demonstrate how can be important political communication, through social media in nowadays political situation. Nowadays social media become a strong tool, that can change public opinion and influence voters. Political leaders must understand how messages are circulated on social media, as this can significantly affect the election results.

Furthermore, political communication in social media can be useful, as it allows politicians to get closer to voters, creating the impression of direct communication and interaction. This increases public confidence and support, which can be important during electoral campaigns. Thus, political communication in social media is used as an effective tool for achieving electoral goals, as well as demonstrating current trends in politics.

Social media platforms such as Facebook and many others have numerous advantages in the realm of political marketing, especially in political communications. They are user-friendly, inclusive, and relatively cost-effective. Furthermore, a notable attribute of this function is its ability to delivering messages to individuals regardless of their location. Facebook has the capacity to bring together individuals in tangible communities, whether they are based on location or shared beliefs. Facebook offers a diverse array of methods for its users to engage in direct communication (namely-wall postings, messages, and instant chats) as well as indirect communication (such as posting notes and updating status). (Gesuele et al., 2021).

In Authors opinion, thus the functionality that a potential politician or electoral staff can get thanks to the use of social media for their functions can be compared only with direct live meetings with voters. However, the effectiveness of political communication through social media, after all, significantly exceed the efficiency of live meetings, because the resource used in both variants is radically different. Thus, audience coverage in social media is a more effective means of political communication, especially in terms of audience reach and monetary value. Based on this, we assume that there is a likelihood that an effective election campaign may be mostly focused on social media and all just remain effective and effective.

A bright example Three months before the elections, Volodymyr Zelensky, a comedian and actor, announced his participation in the 2019 elections in Ukraine, and already during the first round of elections 30.2% of Ukrainians (who participated at elections) voted for him and he went to the second round of the presidential elections. However, even before his official declaration of participation in the elections Zelensky worked for several years on the image of the president of Ukraine in the series “Servant of the people”.

However, in the Zelensky case, the concept of political communication (communication of professional informed politicians with the community) is replaced by digitalism-populism, which is somehow perceived by the electorate as political communication and to some extent, it is. During the election campaign, Zelensky does not appear in debates, does not hold press conferences and does not organize open meetings with voters on the ground, thus almost not holding live meetings, concentrating only on political communication in social media, thereby saving time and money resources.

Despite what his advisers say about his openness to journalists and citizens, Zelensky communicates with voters on his online platforms, creating the illusion of presence and using any incentive to once again appear in the headlines of the media, i.e. implementing the concept of political communication. Some call Zelensky’s approach “populism 2.0”, comparing his approach to Donald Trump’s, writes Telegraph. (Luhn, 2019). After all, Zelensky is actively working on his media image and promises that “everything will be fine”.

In conclusion to this part, the concept of political communication is absolutely dependent on the increasing influence of social media that we have seen in the last more than 10 years. Social networks have nearly replaced print media and television as the main source of news and the hub of civil society in today's information environment. Regarding the way political campaigns develop, social networks are quite important. Every person bases his election decision on a number of variables, including media coverage, political party and candidate campaigns, the nearby surroundings (friends, family, or job), and, in the past ten years, the emergence of social networks. (Intyaswati, et al., 2021) Social networks, such Facebook, enable feedback mechanisms, reduce the gap between a politician and a voter, and develop into a new horizontal communication environment. Thus, social media has led to the widespread, ubiquitous use of the tool of political communication discussed in this section.

Political advertising is likewise progressively shifting from “blue screens” and external media to the virtual world because of its accessibility and ability to target the right audience (age, location, material constraints, etc.). Recent election campaigns in Europe and the USA show how social networks are extensively used for online campaigning, including voter engagement, campaign

financing, political image building, and political advertisement placement. (Aldrich & Gibson, et al., 2016).

Working with social networks during the election campaign has several benefits, including: quick feedback; ease and speed of information publishing; low advertising costs (compared to placement on external media and mass media); broad coverage of a politically active audience, which, without centralized influence, can carry out campaigning activities through its “opinion leaders”; constant increase in user base; an efficient channel for quickly informing voters about important events, personal meetings, political events, actions and protests; vivid platform for politicians to present themselves and build their political image; and almost lack of censorship (Sobaci & Eryiğit, et al., 2016).

Social networks' horizontal design provides new chances for citizen interaction; information platforms let users to trade and produce freely available political content as well as to look for others who share their views. Social network interaction between citizens and politicians facilitates the feeling of participation in the political decision-making process (Baviera, 2018).

In addition to the function of “political communication”, another useful marketing tool that can be achieved using political advertising on the Internet is “electoral mobilization”. Among the positive aspects of the effect of electoral mobilization in social media, scientists Sobaci, et al. (2016) note mobilizing voters more effectively: “The Internet-based campaigns are less expensive than other media. Although electronic campaigns have certain costs, the new tools provided by the Internet help the costs of campaign activities for political actors and mobilize additional voters” (Sobaci et al., 2016). Thus, social media and political marketing technologies on the Internet give election headquarters a unique combination of campaign cheapness per each mobilized voter.

Social media have the ability to mobilize for political participation regardless of affiliation to traditional communities. The so-called penetrating ties (English - crosscutting ties) are formed, which allow mobilization to take place according to inclusive principles, overcoming narrow ethnic, confessional, racial, ideological boundaries.

Scientists Valera-Ordaz, et al. (2018) gave a separate positive assessment of the mobilization role of Internet marketing campaigns, who touched on another important factor in the use of political communication for mobilization, only this time it is not about the mobilization of voters, and about the mobilization of volunteers who promote the party rating free of charge by carrying out political campaigning. They noted, “volunteers spend considerable time in very demanding unpaid activities, and they need to feel motivated and inspired in order to legitimize their mobilizing and working efforts...the management of social media platforms is aimed at coordinating voluntary work and facilitating collective action is quite efficient and can be a motivation factor” (Valera-Ordaz et al., 2018).

Returning to the already used example of the 2019 election campaign in Ukraine, Zelensky already in the first round mobilized young Ukrainians, who are the least active voters in the elections. According to sociologists, Volodymyr Zelensky was most supported by people aged 18-39 (Ash & Shapovalov, 2022). These are the people who watch less television, consume more content on the Internet, and social networks for them are not only a source of information, but an important part of everyday life. Presumably, this is why Zelensky's team pays so much attention to the candidate's online activity. Elections in Ukraine became one of the main cases when the democratic process became hostage to unregulated digital technologies. Which, by the way, have recently begun to be limited by new and new regulations, including in the European Union.

Social media play an important role in modern political processes, in particular in such a complex political and legal phenomenon as the electoral process. Social media play a decisive role in the formation of dialogic communication in the modern election process. Social media is one of the main ways of using the Internet to communicate with the electorate, bringing a political actor closer to voters. Social media consists of interactive multi-user websites and is widely used for online campaigning: interaction with the electorate, fundraising for the campaign, formation of a political image, placement of political advertising.

In conclusion in this section covered the basic definitions, concepts, and strategies that are used in political marketing. We distinguished political marketing from commercial marketing, discussed the peculiar problems and methods of appealing to, the electorate. We also pointed the path that political marketing has gone through when it materialized as a discipline. Here we offered a detailed understanding of how political marketing strategies are derived and delivered by reviewing major theoretical frameworks and models. The case for tailoring marketing theory to politics was made, explaining how precision-based political campaigns drive citizen response and the consequences for election results. To summarize, we can say that allure marketing to political conditions by commercial marketing tactics are the reason of the success of political campaigns.

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY OF USE OF MARKETING METHODS IN POLITICAL CAMPAIGN

2.1. Research methodology for analyzing effectiveness of political marketing

Relevance of the research. In today's political campaigns, many different methods are used to convey one's political position to the voter. With the spread of new information technologies, new methods of interaction with voters have also spread. The purpose of this empirical study is to compare classic methods of advertising distribution and innovative ones, as well as to find an answer as to whether there is any correlation between the age of the respondent and the source from which he receives political advertising.

Social networks have become an innovative tool of digital politics, providing a platform for the formation of dialogic communication in the modern election process and have changed the way political processes are perceived. This is confirmed by such events as the victory of D. Trump in the presidential elections in the USA in 2016 (Macafee & McLaughlin et al. 2019), the victory of the Spanish political party “Podemos” in the elections to the European Parliament (Kioupkiolis & Pérez, 2019), the US Twitter campaign in Venezuela (Munger & Bonneau, et al. 2019), the coming to power of J. Bolsonaro in Brazil (Mundim & Vasconcellos, et al. . F., 2023), the victory of V. Zelensky in the elections in Ukraine in 2019 (Tkachenko & Yanenko, et al., 2020). With the help of social networks, citizens and politicians have the opportunity to instantly learn about international political events. Also, social networks allow you to communicate with other citizens and comment on political events. The above aroused the interest of scientists and led to the emergence of scientific studies, the subject of which analysis is social networks as a tool for forming dialogic communication in the modern election process, political communications in general and election campaigns in particular.

In the conditions of the transformation of traditional political marketing under the influence of the spread of information and communication technologies, the study of social networks as an important component of political activity, a platform for the formation of dialogic communication in the modern election process, is being updated. The political sphere is gradually adapting to scientific and political progress and using new Internet technologies. This is evidenced by the presence of world political leaders, parties, political figures on the platforms of various social networks (Skogerbø & Krumsvik 2015).

In addition, despite the great interest in the topic of research from the side of other scientists, the topic studied in our paper is not fully explored. For example, the last conducted study, which is

quite close in methodology to our scientific work, was conducted in 2002. In this paper, Kaid (2002) asks college-aged youth to compare the effectiveness of political advertising on the Internet and on television.

Social networks are an important factor in the transformation of political marketing within the electoral process. The electoral process is a component of the political process and its transformation is based on the tendency to the emergence of new aspects of political and electoral communication, including political marketing in social media. The development of social networks opens unprecedented opportunities for the development of the electoral process, gradually changing its formal features and essence. Political Internet communications are becoming an integral part of the electoral process. Determining the fundamental importance of elections as a legitimizing practice and the basis for ensuring a democratic system, we will present conceptual approaches to studying the problem of using social networks in the electoral process.

Also, we include the aspect of social media, because since the time of conducting the research that we mentioned above, the configuration of the means used for the distribution of political advertising has changed significantly. Thus, Abid et al. (2021) notes, social media enable political parties and politicians to have direct and relatively cheap access to voters, besides, this method of communication also has a high level of feedback. According to the emergence of social media, the user gets into a new form of interaction with political advertising. Compared to classic political advertising on the Internet, thanks to social media, a potential voter becomes a participant in the election process, and not just an observer. This situation occurs due to the high level of involvement of Internet users when using social media.

Digital technologies have become an integral part of the political sphere of society. The use of innovative digital technologies in the political sphere is not limited to maintaining personal profiles of political party leaders and politicians in social networks, but covers a much wider range of political processes. Social networks optimize and improve the usual toolkit of political communications, help to quickly respond to the challenges of time and place. Social networks, in particular, contribute to involvement in social-communicative dialogue in the electoral process (Borja-Orozco, 2022)

An analysis of the practice of American sample surveys showed that, despite the difference in party affiliation, views on the development strategy of American society are common to B. Obama and D. Trump (Buccoliero & Bellio, 2020) became a widespread use of Internet communications as part of its election malicious. Undoubtedly, the victory of a candidate in the elections consists of many components: the personal qualities and image of the candidate, the compliance of the pre-election program with the requirements and expectations of citizens, the peculiarities of the socio-economic and non-political situation. However, the Internet provides unparalleled effectiveness in the political struggle as a tool for interacting with voters, conveying one's point of view to voters, and

expanding the base of the election campaign. A new type of election campaign is emerging - an electronic election campaign, the main characteristic of which is the use of Internet communications and information technologies as the main channel of communication with voters and the result of a tool of political struggle. Internet communications have firmly entered the set of technologies of modern selective worlds, which determine further research in this area.

Thus, research in the proposed narrow field on the topic we propose has not been conducted enough, and we see a significant potential for studying this area, and applying research results for their implementation in political campaigns and their effectiveness.

The object use of political marketing to improve results of political campaign.

The purpose of this study is to form methodology and to investigate various methods of marketing in political campaigns.

In this empirical study, Author want to address the following **objectives**:

1. Conduct a survey of voters (consumers of political advertising) regarding their experience of participating in election campaigns;
2. To determine the most effective means of distribution of political advertising;
3. Analyze data and provide conclusions;
4. Provide recommendations regarding the use of one or another method of political marketing.

One of the qualitative **research methods**, namely the interview method (online survey), should be used to achieve the set goals. I will use it because the interview itself is the most suitable for this study, because it shows the attitude of people to one or another type of political advertising (Edegoh et al., 2013).

In addition, it should be noted that the interview method itself will be useful in this case, in particular because it can give us a deeper understanding and understanding of people's experiences, which they will be able to express in a way that is quite flexible for them (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Since, in addition to quantitative research, we will also conduct qualitative research, we turn to the form of data collection - a focus group. Thanks to it, we will be able to get a somewhat deeper description and argumentation of one or another position among the interviewed respondents. In this way, the results of the surveys are not reduced to numerical values, and therefore the answers of the respondents may reveal results, ideas and positions regarding this or that type of advertising that were not foreseen by the author Dube and Roberts, et al. (2015). The focus group method is also widely used in political and marketing research, because in both cases, the focus group has the opportunity to discuss and discuss this or that proposal (product or political program).

For example, in the study of Lunt (2019), it is noted that “...focus groups are used for a wide variety of purposes in academic research, marketing, political campaigning, public deliberation, and policy research. A flexible method, focus groups can be understood as an extension of qualitative interviews in group contexts or as simulations of public discussion and debate.” This serves as a good confirmation of our chosen method for researching the effectiveness of political marketing.

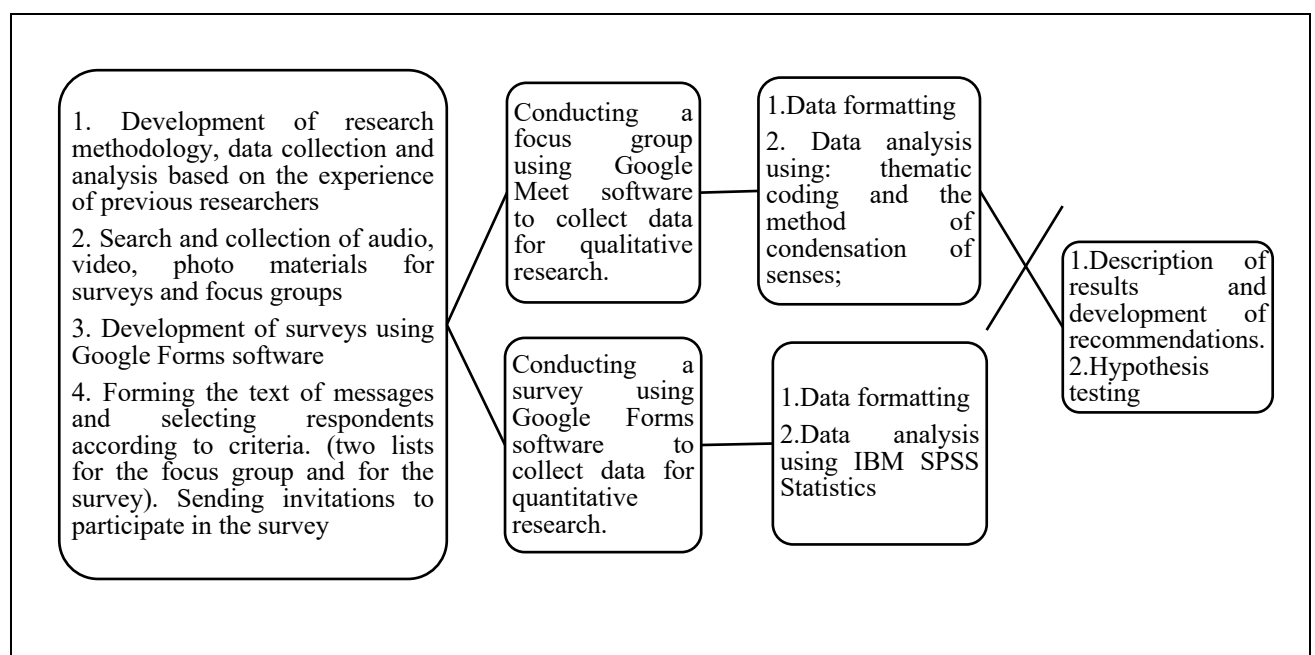
As for the data collection procedure, it took place in two ways:

1. For quantitative research, an online survey was conducted respondents was conducted through the Google Forms service. Thus, including the technology of centralized information collection in the interview process allows us, like any other researcher, to facilitate the storage, processing and classification of data, as well as the ability to conveniently compare it with each other (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002).
2. For the qualitative research method, it was chosen to conduct two focus groups - live and online, using the “Google Meet” platform. This method was used by us due to the physical remoteness of the respondents. Beside this, the study Keemink and Sharp, et al. (2022) indicates the potential positive role of online focus groups, it suggests that the online focus group method is a useful method... and should be considered for future studies... Participants and researchers were predominantly positive about their experience in the online focus group. Microsoft Teams is an effective and safe platform to conduct online focus groups.”

The **logic of our research** is presented below in the form of a diagram (*Figure 2*).

Figure 2

Logic of research



In addition, we reviewed several similar studies comparing the effectiveness of social media advertising versus traditional media advertising. Our review concerned marketing research not only in the field of political marketing, but also research in the marketing of goods and services, social projects, etc.

The first study that we consider useful to continue our work is the study by Gensler and Leeftang, (2017), the results of which demonstrate the superiority of traditional advertising compared to social media advertising. In this way, the authors of the article enter into a discussion with us, and deny the superiority of social media over traditional media. The authors of the study still recognize the effectiveness of F2C communication, but only if it is combined with traditional media. Ultimately, the authors define the defining function of F2C communication, namely, supporting the client at the last stage of the purchase, that is, it is about the final persuasion of the client to make a purchase. In addition, the authors do not differentiate the impact of social media advertising on young people and adults. Thus, in our opinion, social media can be more effective for a brand, product, service or even a policy not only at the stage of the final decision – “buy/not to buy”, but also at the stage of acquaintance, promotion and constant communication of the brand.

The next study that I would identify as interesting for our research paper is a study on the social media tool for business promotion with the help of advertising these days by Saputra and Tannaris, et al., (2023). The work is highlighted by us for the reason that the majority of respondents are young people, of which 75% of respondents were aged 18 to 26, and the remaining 25% were not older than 35 years. So, the study we mentioned, in addition to the demographic data, also demonstrates the high trust and effectiveness of advertising on social media compared to the same advertising on television. Moreover, 92% of participants in the mentioned study consumed information mainly from social media, and only 4% of them mainly saw advertising on television or in print publications. The aforementioned study confirms the effectiveness of advertising distribution among young voters, because it is precisely in the mentioned means of information distribution that they most often encounter advertising. So, this study strengthens our hopes and hypotheses that potential young voters can be interested in advertising on social media and other Internet tools.

2.1.1. Development of Research questions for analyzing effectiveness of political marketing

In today's conditions of oversaturation of the information space with various advertisements, it is becoming more and more difficult to stand out among other marketing business developers. The situation is even more acute in terms of political campaigns, the competition among which has long gone beyond the competition between representatives of different brands. Thus, election headquarters

increasingly need new methods of promoting the rating of one or another candidate in accordance with the interests of the audience.

Since the classic ways of disseminating information are quite often discredited, especially among young people, election headquarters have to explore new platforms and ways of disseminating political pre-election advertising. In today's world, social media and the Internet are an integral part of human life, especially for young people.

As for the description of the research, in order to determine the wide range of opinions and emotions caused by political advertising spread through one or another means of mass information dissemination, we decided to formulate questions for discussion during the focus group research. In developing these questions, we decided to rely on authors who dealt with the topic of marketing, political marketing, political science, sociology, and behavioral science. In addition, in the creation of each question before relied on similar case studies, which used not only focus groups, but also ratings on the Likert scale and others. So, for each of our questions, we referred to previously conducted research that, as we think, can help us in conducting a productive discussion.

We chose two groups of people for our survey. As we conduct two types of survey namely focus group and interview. For the first type of survey, we selected 10 respondents who volunteered to participate in the discussion during the focus group. For the second type of research, we need to collect 100 responses from respondents to our survey. In our survey, we decided to focus on young people between the ages of 23 and 39. This age range was chosen by us because our survey is conducted among young Ukrainians who took part in the elections. Since the last presidential elections were held in Ukraine in 2019, the age of respondents must be older than 23 years.

In general, the survey consisted of 12 questions. 3 questions of them, related to the demographic data of the respondents, and 9 questions related to our research (3 of them related to the general competence and level of interest of the respondents in political life, in our case using the example of Ukraine). In next section, we add a list of all the questions (Table 3) that were offered for review to our respondents. In this list, we do not include questions related to demographic characteristics.

Our research will focus on the case of Ukraine, in particular, as I mentioned earlier, respondents over the age of 23 will participate in the survey. This is due to the last presidential elections held in 2019, in which the current president, Volodymyr Zelenskyi, won with a large margin (73%). An interesting fact about this victory is also that the election headquarters concentrated its attention and efforts on political marketing in social media, the Internet, etc., and did not pay any attention to advertising on television. Despite this fact, Zelenskyi and his team managed to win by mobilizing young voters and convincing other voters using only the Internet and a small amount of street advertising (Obozrevatel, 2019).

In our research, we plan to focus only on contactless types of message distribution developed through political marketing. Thus, we will leave out of our attention such methods of political marketing as live campaigning, meetings with voters, public hearings, marches, rallies, etc. On the other hand, we will focus on the “contactless” type of distribution of political marketing, such as: radio, television, YouTube, printed newspapers, social media, webpages of newspapers, outdoor advertising. We specifically leave out of our attention such types of advertising as “Direct Mail” and “Email Marketing”, since both of these tools of political marketing are almost not used in political advertising in Ukraine, where, for example, advertising on the Internet takes up to 36% of the total budgets of some political parties advertising (Patrikeeva, 2021), and some parties spend up to 75% of their total budgets on television advertising (Nikulina, 2019). Accordingly, we developed a questionnaire (*Table 3*)

Table 3

List of questions and justification

Question №	Justification of use of the question in literature	Generated questions
Question 1	In order to determine the awareness of our respondents in political affairs, we cross-examine the method used by researchers of political habits, for implementation in political advertising. in this survey, researchers take into account “topical and temporal dimensions of political knowledge”. the author proposed two questions each from historical events related to politics, questions of an institutional nature (structures of state administration, etc.), as well as questions about state policy reforms, modern politics, and questions related to institutions that require the knowledge of political figures. Since our research is more focused on marketing aspects, it will be enough for our research to check the presence of interest and basic knowledge of politics among the respondents, so we will use only two questions related to historical political events and questions of contemporary politics. (Barabas & Jerit et al.. 2014).	In what year did the “Orange Revolution” take place? (2004)
Question 2		Who is Denys Shmyhal? (Prime Minister of Ukraine)
Question 3	In addition, we asked the respondents to self-determine their level of political awareness, so that the previous questions did not affect the results of the study, we placed the political awareness check at the very end of the survey, but we put the self-determination of their political awareness at the beginning. So the researcher Keeling, (2023). in his study implemented “...experiment, (in which) all respondents were asked to self-declare their level of interest by stating whether they were very interested, fairly interested, or not at all interested in politics.” In this way, we will determine the correlation between people's real awareness of politics or their own opinion about their awareness and giving preference to one or another type of political advertising.	Do you consider yourself politically active?

**Continuation of
Table 3**

Question №	Justification of use of the question in literature	Generated questions
Question 4	In order to evaluate the effectiveness of political advertising on the radio, we selected 6 audio recordings of radio broadcasts with political advertisements of candidates for local elections (in Russian and Ukrainian languages). Such a method of conducting experiments with audio recordings of advertising programs is offered by Josefa and Martín-Santana, et al., (2015). In their experiment “To conduct the study they designed a simulated radio space in which we inserted an advertising block comprised of four radio spots. At the beginning of the experiment, the respondents were told that they were going to listen to a 5-min recording of a radio station; their task was to evaluate the part of radio broadcasting.” In our experiment, we will offer the listeners to choose two random radio recordings with political ads and describe their thoughts about the ads. In addition, we will also survey impressions of this ad during our quantitative research.	Listen to any two record of the radio program below and comment. Did you like it or not, explain your decision to us. What you liked or didn't like?
Question 5	A scientifically recognized way to conduct research on television advertising is to demonstrate a recording of a commercial while it airs on television. This is how the researchers Findley and Johnson, et al. (2020) conducted their research. In their research on the effectiveness of television advertising, they compared products from different manufacturers and their packaging. In the first variant, they were offered to simply look at the packaging of products, in the second variant - a recording of a television advertisement. The result of the study confirmed the effectiveness of television compared to packaging, however, will television prove to be more effective than other methods?	Watch any two recorded translation of the TV program below and comment. Did you like it or not, explain your decision to us. What you liked or didn't like?
Question 5	Advertising on the video hosting YouTube differs from its television counterparts in that it is shorter, as well as in the fact that it is demonstrated in six different channels (three of them are banners of different formats and in different locations on the website of the video hosting, the next three in the format of video ads, which skippable (most common), non-skippable ads, and pop-up ads. In order to measure the effectiveness of these ads, during the survey we gave our participants the opportunity to stop at any point in the ad starting at 15 seconds, since this is the method used in the mentioned study to determine the effectiveness of the most common type of YouTube advertising. (Antoniadis & Saprikis, et al.2019)	Watch any two YouTube video below and comment. Did you like it or not, explain your decision to us. What you liked or didn't like?

**Continuation of
Table 3**

Question №	Justification of use of the question in literature	Generated questions
Question 6	Measuring the effectiveness of advertising in newspapers turned out to be the most difficult task, because as such political advertising is hardly printed in newspapers, however, it is a widespread practice to publish in paper editions an editorial article that in one way or another deals with the promotion of a political party or candidate. In addition, the practice of distributing a short printed edition of political parties on the eve of elections directly from hand to hand from agitators is widespread. For the preparation of this section, we turned to scientists Chandran and Unnikrishnan (2019) and their work devoted to the habits of buyers and the influence of newspaper advertising on it. We chose three variants of two types of political advertising (editorial article - indirect political advertising, and party publication - direct political advertising)	View scanned versions of printed newspapers. Did you like it or not, explain your decision to us. What you liked or didn't like?
Question 7		View any two articles on the linked webpages. Did you like it or not, explain your decision to us. What you liked or didn't like?
Question 8	For the analysis of social media, we managed to find quite a lot of similar studies. In order to preserve the forms of research, we managed to find a study in which social media users were asked to view posts on social media (mainly Facebook) and were asked to share the emotions that these posts evoked, later they were asked the post on a 7-point scale that would evaluate the impression of the post (mostly positive/mostly negative), in addition, survey participants were asked to provide an extended comment Yousef and Dietrich, et al. (2021). Since our qualitative research uses the focus group method, we will give preference to the last method of interviewing the participants of the experiment. This helped us formulate the question as follows.	View any two screenshots from social media. Did you like it or not, explain your decision to us. What you liked or didn't like?
Question 9	To assess the effectiveness of street advertising, the authors out a survey. The questionnaire comprised 15 questions, assessing general opinions about street advertising, factors increasing interest, and the evaluation of various forms of advertising. Data was analyzed with the aid of IBM SPSS to establish the correlation between the answers provided by the respondents and the research questions. (Išoraitė & Gulevičiūtė, 2023)	View any two photo of Outdoor Advertising. Did you like it or not, explain your decision to us. What you liked or didn't like?

Thus, by focusing the attention of the respondents on these points, we receive rather detailed answers that contain specific examples and the personal attitude of the respondents. By narrowing the question block to a minimum, we increase the probability that the respondent will answer the questions more frankly, since if we increased the number of open-ended questions, many people would most likely not be so attentive to them, or would not want to at all b to participate in the survey, because it requires time for reflection and demonstration of certain creative abilities - the ability to describe one's thoughts and emotions.

In summary, the questions we proposed allow us to find information about whether young people are indeed more influenced by political advertising on social networks, according to their attitudes towards different advertising media during the interview. In this way, we will be able to confirm or refute the above hypotheses based on the literature. In addition, we will be able to compare the results of a focus group study in a qualitative study and the results of a quantitative study conducted using a respondent survey.

2.1.2. Development of Research and Hypothetical statements to determine which political marketing tools are most suitable for the youth audience of voters

Social media is a unique source of data that opens up unprecedented opportunities for solving important problems, in particular in the political sphere, as well as creating auxiliary services and applications for social media users that enable political actors to conduct a dialogue with voters. In this regard, there is an increased interest in the collection and analysis of social data by companies and research centers in the electoral process. Specialists from research centers around the world use social media data to model the results of the election process in order to develop mechanisms of influence on these processes, as well as to create innovative analytical and business applications and services.

HS 1: The Internet is more effective in delivering political advertising to younger audiences than traditional media. (Banerjee & Chaudhuri, 2020). Thus, the researchers propose and argue the thesis that traditional types of advertising are not of interest to the young voter, as he has completely abandoned the consumption of information from sources such as television, etc. Therefore, the first statement will be useful for our study because it examines the behavior and attitudes of the target audience of our study towards political advertising.

HS 2: Traditional media (television, billboards, radio, printed newspapers, and magazines) can have a negative impact on the course of a political campaign if the consumer of these ads is young people (Marquart et al., 2019). Through this research, we will try to compare the results of our colleagues with ours and confirm or refute their results. In addition, we propose to use the same list of proposed media that is given in this study (television, billboards, radio, printed newspapers, and magazines and on the other hand – Internet resources).

HS 3: Political advertising in social media inspires more trust in its politically engaged audience than similar advertising on other platforms and advertising areas (Determ, 2024). In this statement, the author puts forward an important aspect of trust and efficiency for us. Since these concepts in this field are interrelated, we will try to check whether trust in one or another way of distribution of political advertising really affects its effectiveness.

Based on our hypotheses, in our opinion, positive results that correspond to the three hypotheses can confirm the effectiveness of the concept of “political communication”, which, I remind you, refers to effective feedback and the quality of communication of political parties, or political communications. In addition, we believe that the concept of “electoral motivation” can be confirmed by the survey results related to the hypotheses **HS 2** and **HS 3**. Thus, we believe that the positive or negative dimension of “trust” is represented in **HS 3** and the high results of “negative impact”, which relate to **HS 2**, can demobilize or mobilize the electorate. Both of these meanings “mobilization” and “demobilization” are factors of electorate mobilization in a positive or negative direction.

Research statements:

Based on previously gathered results obtained by a systematic review, and literature analysis on Political marketing and instruments for distribution of political advertising, several research statements were developed.

Research statement 1: Some types of political advertising are more effective than others (in our case, Social media political advertising);

Research statement 2: Young people are much more influenced by political advertising if it is posted on the Social media;

Research statement 2.1: Political advertising works more effectively in the segment of young voters when it is in the form of Internet advertising (advertisement banners);

Research statement 2.2: Political advertising works more effectively in the segment of young voters when it is in the form of videos on Social media, placement in messengers or in other platforms (except advertising banners).

In order to test the validity of our Research statements and Hypothesis Statements, we will develop a questionnaire consisting of 15 In it, we will evaluate them using several emotional scales, namely: the level of trust and the level of irritation caused by the demonstrated recordings of advertisements from different media. As stated in the study of measuring the level of trust in advertising and other materials in the media by Prochazka and Schweiger (2019), one of the common ways to check the effectiveness of advertising and other information in the media is the use of a rating scale. In their article, different evaluation scales are proposed, 12-point, 6-point, however, the scientists finally come to the conclusion that the 5-point Leckert measurement scale is sufficient for measuring the effectiveness of information dissemination. In addition, they note that it is much easier for respondents to answer questions about trust and irritation using a small scale.

We decided to use the same measuring systems when collecting data during the survey of our respondents. And although the study does not directly concern the distribution of advertising, but

rather concerns the distribution of any type of information through the media, nevertheless, the scale and methods described by scientists in their study may be useful in our case as well.

In addition to the Likert scale, we will also explore indicators of trust and annoyance, which are proposed in the same article (Prochazka & Schweiger 2019). In this way, we will be able to measure the regularities and differences between giving preference to one or another type of political advertising, the only difference between which will be only the distribution format (radio, newspaper, video, television, social media). Below we provide a table (*Table 4*) that explains the logic of forming questions for the survey and relevance of the question to each HS.

Another important detail that must be taken into account is the level of political involvement, as in the previous qualitative study, we will interview respondents in order to determine their political awareness, which will allow us to find a correlation between the political involvement of respondents and their trust in one or another source of information (Barabas & Jerit, et al., 2014).

Table 4

Formulation of questioner for survey

Hypothetical Statements testing	Questions
HS1; HS3	1. Rate the effect of social media as the media through which you receive political advertising; Where 5 - absolutely trust; 1 - absolutely do NOT trust
HS1; HS3	2. Rate the effect of YouTube as media through which you receive political advertising; Where 5 - absolutely trust; 1 - absolutely do NOT trust
HS2; HS3	3. Rate the the effect of printed newspapers and magazines as the media through which you receive political advertising; Where 5 - absolutely trust; 1 - absolutely do NOT trust
HS2; HS3	4. Rate the the effect of radio as the mass media through which you receive political advertising; Where 5 - absolutely trust; 1 - absolutely do NOT trust
HS2; HS3	5. Rate the effect of Television as the media through which you receive political advertising; Where 5 - absolutely trust; 1 - absolutely do NOT trust
HS2; HS3	6. Rate the effect of online versions of newspapers and magazines as media through which you receive political advertising; Where 5 - absolutely trust; 1 - absolutely do NOT trust
HS1; HS2; HS3	7. How do you feel after viewing screenshots of social media which are related with political advertising; Where 5 – Absolutely irritated; Absolutely NOT irritated
HS1; HS2; HS3	8. How do you feel after viewing YouTube video which are related with political advertising; Where 5 – Absolutely irritated; Absolutely NOT irritated

Continuation of Table 4

Hypothetical Statements testing	Questions
HS2; HS3	9. How do you feel after viewing photocopy of printed newspapers and magazines which are related with political advertising; Where 5 – Absolutely irritated; Absolutely NOT irritated
HS2; HS3	10. How do you feel after listening radio record which are related with political advertising; Where 5 – Absolutely irritated; Absolutely NOT irritated
HS2; HS3	11. How do you feel after viewing recorded TV program which are related with political advertising; Where 5 – Absolutely irritated; Absolutely NOT irritated
HS2; HS3	12. How do you feel after viewing photocopy of printed newspapers and magazines which are related with political advertising; Where 5 – Absolutely irritated; Absolutely NOT irritated

So, in order to refute or confirm the proposed hypotheses, we will use the results of surveys based on the above questionnaire. In order to confirm **HS2**, we will analyze the results of questions 3 to 12. Under the conditions of a low score for questions 3 to 6 and high results for questions 7 to 12, **HS2** will be confirmed, otherwise the hypothesis will be rejected.

HS1 will be considered confirmed under the conditions of a positive assessment among respondents for questions 1,2, and a low assessment for questions 7,8. Thus, it will be considered refuted if the result is the opposite, or partially confirmed and partially refuted if the results are equally high or equally negative.

The last **HS3** can be considered confirmed if there is a direct correlation between all the questions from the list above and the questions about the political awareness of the respondents, which are given in the previous section. Thus **HS3** will be considered disproved if there is no correlation between these two blocks of questions.

2.2. Analysis of research demographics

Age Distribution of Respondents (*Table 5*). Despite the fact that respondents were asked to choose their age in 3 categories, the actual age range of respondents was from 18 to 39 years. This is likely because the respondents were students or employees of various universities. Access to university staff and students was made possible through personal contacts with professors from 3 universities in Ukraine (Kyiv National University, Chernivtsi National University and Lviv National University). The country of origin of the respondents is Ukraine. During the survey, participants were on a video conference with the interviewer.

The survey took place in one sessions of 10 people (+1 interviewer). The first survey took place from 19:00 to 20:25 on Friday. The video communication platform Google Meet was used to communicate with the interviewer and respondents.

As for the age distribution, the majority of respondents were in the 25-29 age category, followed by the 18-24 age group. The detailed age distribution is presented in the table below:

Table 5

Age Distribution of Respondents

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
18-24	78	40.63%
25-29	93	48.44%
30-39	21	10.94%

This indicates a predominant participation of respondents aged between 25-29 This is expected, because it was this group that predominantly participated for the first time in the elections that we investigate in this thesis..

Gender Distribution of Respondents (Table 6). The gender distribution among the respondents was slightly in favor of females. The gender distribution is shown in the table below:

Table 6

Gender Distribution of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	102	53.13%
Male	90	46.88%

This near-equal gender distribution ensures a balanced representation of perspectives.

Educational Background of Respondents (Table 7). The educational background of respondents varied, with most holding a Master's degree, followed by Bachelor's degree holders. The detailed educational distribution is shown in the table below:

Table 7*Educational Background of Respondents*

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
Master's	85	44.27%
Bachelor's	67	34.90%
Vocational Education	22	11.46%
PhD	18	9.38%

This distribution shows a high level of education among the respondents, with the majority having completed advanced degrees.

The demographic analysis of the respondents reveals a high level of education, with most participants holding a Master's or Bachelor's degree. This demographic profile is crucial for understanding the preferences and behaviors of different segments in relation to political marketing methods. This distribution can be understood from the fact that the survey was conducted mainly among the staff and students of the university.

In conclusion, in this section, we detailed an overarching research design and research methods to systematically address the effectiveness of marketing methods in political campaigns. We established specific research questions and hypotheses to examine how different strategies shape voter behaviour, especially among the youth, using both qualitative and quantitative methods to facilitate deep analysis.

We used Google Forms to have this online survey and conducted focus group discussions through “Google Meet”. We believe this combination will enable us to quickly collect a large amount of new data while also providing deeper insights into respondent attitudes to political ads. In particular, the focus groups added depth and context to these attitudes which were found in the larger survey trends. So we looked into different marketing tools including social media, TV, Radio, and newspapers to figure out the best ways to reach youth voters.

3. USE OF MARKETING METHODS IN POLITICAL CAMPAIGN FOR YOUNG AUDIENCES RESEARH RESULTS

In this section we are going to carry out our analysis having collected data in the process of conducting our research. Our data was collected in Ukrainian (as our respondents are fluent in the language), but for further approved, translated into English. We believed that the usage of native language for collecting data would give accurate and candid responses from respondents which could add to generate depth in our findings. The goal of this research is an attempt to determine whether a range of political marketing instruments are successful for use in the time window of election campaigns. This data is quantitative in nature that will help the author to understand which marketing strategies have more advantages and disadvantages. This information was collected through both qualitative and quantitative data. Quantitative data consisted of the results of surveys taken for young voters, and qualitative data was received by means of focus groups which made it possible to explore respondents' views and opinions more fully.

Also, we will take a closer look at results obtained through surveys and focus groups carried out among the young voter audience. More precisely, we are going to observe the influence of various channels of communication on the perception of political messages and what kind of marketing tools were suitable for young voters. A key aspect of our study is to compare traditional and digital media on how much they contribute in this respect related to reaching electoral success.

The results of this paper will contribute regarding the effective ways for mobilizing voters and streamlining the electioneering process. Furthermore, we intend to analyze how social networks have influenced the political activity of young people and their adherence to the points of views proposed by traditional media such as television and radio, among others. On the basis of such data, we are going to give recommendations to election headquarters on how they can improve their marketing strategy in order to obtain better results during any following election.

Also we explore the question about impact of various media channels over voters' distrust on political messages, as well as exploring how traditional media differ from social networks in this context and which elements affect the ability to build trust during a political campaign.

As a result, this section will comprehensively discuss every concept of our research such that the reader grasps how an election campaign can be presented with different political marketing tools to have a better output.

2.3. Results of Descriptive statistics analysis

The following section sets forth a comprehensive assessment of **Descriptive statistics** in what concerns multiple media impacts and irritation with advertisement. The analysis includes means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values, quartiles, variance, range, skewness, and kurtosis for each variable. These are essential for understanding the respondent's behavior regarding media and advertisement-related irritations. The analysis of our table implies descriptive statistics for 14 variables concerning media impacts and types of advertisements that bring the most irritation to the respondent. With a sample size of 192 respondents, I will further consider essential patterns and conclusions from our table, as well as our findings and their interpretation. All the data relevant to this study can be found in the corresponding appendix (*Annex 2*), which contains detailed information and supporting materials.

To evaluate the first factor, let us consider in more detail the role of social media in political marketing, the Social Media Impact: mean: 2.81; Standard Deviation: 0.97; Range: 4; Skewness: 0.59 positively skewed; Kurtosis: -0.05 slightly platykurtic. The average impact of social media equals 2.81, with a standard deviation of 0.97. Given that skewness is positive, it is possible to assume that the distribution has a longer tail on the right; hence, there were more respondents who gave a higher rating than the mean. Since kurtosis is close to zero, it can be inferred that the distribution is a platykurtic semblance of a normal one.

The assessment of the degree of irritation caused by social media ads allows for understanding their potential level of annoyance; Mean: 3.46; Standard Deviation: 1.09; Range: 4; Skewness: -0.16 slightly negatively skewed; Kurtosis: -1.03 platykurtic. Social media ads as a source of high engagement still need to be managed to avoid excessive annoyance of the audience. The mean is 3.46, with a standard deviation of 1.09. Given that skewness is negative and kurtosis is higher, the distribution is flat.

Our analysis continues to evaluate the second factor, focusing on YouTube Impact: YouTube is another important platform characterized by its high degree of audience engagement, especially among young persons; Mean: 2.43; Standard Deviation: 1.10; Range: 4; Skewness: -0.23 slightly negatively skewed; Kurtosis: -0.88 platykurtic. The mean equals 2.43, with a standard deviation of 1.10. The skewness of -0.23 and kurtosis of -0.88 demonstrate that the distribution has a longer tail on the left. The degree of irritation caused by YouTube ads is 3.84; Mean: 3.55; Standard Deviation: 1.03; Range: 4; Skewness: -0.30 slightly negatively skewed; Kurtosis: -0.72 platykurtic.

Even though printed media is often considered traditional, it still remains relevant in certain demographics and contexts of political marketing. The mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the impact and irritation scores are equal to 2.15, 1.20, 0.71, and 0.27. Therefore, the average impact of the printed media is 2.15, with a standard deviation equal to 1.20. Since the skewness is positive, more respondents rated their impact higher than the mean. The kurtosis is

positive, which indicates that the distribution has heavier tails compared to the normal one. Although having less impact, the printed media further reveals a low irritation score, meaning that people consider it not annoying option.

The printed ads possess lesser irritation than the digital alternatives as follows: 2.08, 0.90, 1.02, and 1.52. The average irritation under the printed ads is 2.08 with a standard deviation of 0.90. The strong positive skewness rate implies that the distribution has a longer right tail, meaning that most of the respondents were ranking the level of irritation higher than the average one. The kurtosis is positive, which implies that more respondents selected both higher and lower irritation rate. Online media is developing more every day, offering various opportunities to reach the audience through numerous digital domains.

The online media channels reveal the following impact and irritation rates: 2.30, 1.10, 0.45, and -0.59. Therefore, the average impact of the online media is 2.30, with a standard deviation of 1.10. The slight positive skewness value denotes that the distribution has a longer right tail, while the negative kurtosis value implies that the distribution is flatter than normal. The online media has a moderate impact and irritation rate, which means that the political campaigners can take advantage of, yet might be repulsive in certain instances. Therefore, the irritation rate at the online media ads needs to be subdued, not to lose the audience.

The radio remains a classic in many households, mostly in rural areas, which secures stable exposure to political messages. The impact and irritation rate of radio are: 2.40, 1.11, 0.50, and -0.31. The mean impact of the radio is 2.40, with a standard deviation of 1.11. Since the skewness is positive but statistically weak, it has a longer right tail in the distribution. The positive kurtosis means that some of the respondents have selected both higher and lower impacts. However, the radio seems to have the highest level of irritation, which makes it unpreferable. The radio ads are the most annoying, despite having a relatively high impact. Radio: 3.65, 0.66, 0.54, and -0.69. The average irritation peak is 3.65, with a standard deviation of 0.66. The positive skewness value indicates that the level of irritation has a long right tail, suggesting that radio is disturbing to many people. Adverts are one of the tools that many people find irritating in persuasive messages.

TV is still crucial, even though it is a classic solution. However, it cannot be an ideal choice. TV: 2.17, 0.97, 0.60, and 0.17. The average is 2.17, and the standard deviation is 0.97. More people are more likely to be changes compared to their numerical value, and the kurtosis is slightly close to normal. Despite having a lower impact for the most part, the TV ads also have a high irritation rate. TV: 3.42, 1.13, 0.13, and -1.00. The mean for the level of irritation is 3.42, with a standard deviation of 1.13. The skewness is slightly positive, which means that a few individuals were more irritated. The kurtosis is negative, implying that few individuals were intervening.

The outdoor advertising is diverse compared to the other forms. The impact and irritation rate are less clear: 2.34, 1.05, 0.76, and 0.05. The average impact is 2.34, with a standard deviation of 1.05. The skewness is positive, but the kurtosis is close to 0. Thus, the outdoor advertising has a moderate impact with a moderate irritation rate. Both the impact and irritation are the moderate. Thus, the distribution displays a level of a normal distribution.

In the analysis below, we will compare the impact and irritation metrics of the different media channels. The analysis will generate insights that can guide political marketers on the most and least effective platforms. We will present the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of each metric to understand the central tendencies, dispersion, and distributional shapes. Our objective is to identify media that tend to be more or less effective to use in political marketing based on their impact and irritation scores.

Social media is another variable we will investigate, as it plays a considerable role in political marketing due to the numerous individuals it can reach and affect. The average of Social Media is 2.81 with a standard deviation of 0.97. The positive skew suggests a longer tail on the right side because most respondents rated social media higher than the mean. The kurtosis value close to 0 indicates a normal-looking distribution with a slightly flattened picture. In addition to a positive impact, social media also has a high rating for irritation. The average irritation from social media ads is 3.46 with a standard deviation of 1.28. The negative skew reveals a longer tail at the lower end because most respondents rated irritation lower than the mean. The kurtosis value is negative, suggesting an even more flat distribution.

The next platform to consider is YouTube, which offers a high level of engagement while also making the audience annoyed easily. The mean impact equals 2.43, and the standard deviation is 1.10. The graph has a negative skew, which indicates a longer left tail; more respondents rated the impact as lower than the mean. The value of kurtosis presents a flatter distribution in comparison to normal. Despite the high level of engagement, YouTube is associated with a high irritation rate. The average irritation generated by YouTube ads is 3.55, and the standard deviation is 1.03. The graph has slight negative skew and the negative value of kurtosis, which also indicates a flatter distribution.

As to its indicators regarding printed media, their values represent another type of interaction. The average value for the impact of printed media is 2.15; the standard deviation is 1.20. The fact that the skewness is positive means that more people rated the impact higher than the average. The kurtosis is also positive, which means that it is a distribution with heavier tails than the normal one. In other words, even though printed media is less impactful, its score is slightly higher, and the irritation is also not that high. The people are more likely to be less annoyed by it. The average irritation for it is 2.08; the standard deviation is 0.90. The high positive skewness means that there is

a longer right tail of the graph: many respondents rated it higher than the average. The kurtosis is again positive, meaning that the distribution has heavier tails.

For online media, the distribution is more diverse. The average value for the impact of online media is 2.30; the standard deviation is 1.10. The skewness is positive, and kurtosis is negative, meaning there is a longer right tail of the impact, and its distribution is flatter compared to the normal one. In other words, it is moderate and somewhat annoying to the audience. The average irritation is 3.21; the standard deviation is 1.13. The skewness is slightly negative, and the kurtosis is negative, meaning that it is also a flatter distribution.

Overall, radio shows the most irritant composition. Even though it is moderate, it has the highest annoyance score, making it the least preferable. The average rating is 2.40; the standard deviation is 1.11. The skewness and kurtosis in this case show the positive sign, and the negative sign, meaning there is the longer right tail and the flatter distribution. The average people rated its irritation at 3.65; its standard deviation is 0.66. The skewness is positive, and the kurtosis is negative.

An examination of TV ads revealed significant irritation levels. The mean impact of TV is 2.17, and the standard deviation is 0.97. The positive skewness implies a more extended right tail, and the slight positive kurtosis suggests a distribution with some heavier tails than normal. Specifically, this indicates that TV is less impactful and has a high irritation charge. It is not very effective but quite annoying. The average irritation through TV ads is 3.42, and the standard deviation is 1.13. The skewness is near zero, implying a near symmetrical distribution, and the kurtosis is negative, indicating a flatter distribution.

Lastly, outdoor advertising balances impact and irritation well. The mean impact is 2.34, with a standard deviation of 1.05. The positive skewness indicates a longer right tail, and the kurtosis value is near zero, suggesting a distribution that is likely to be uniform. The impact of outdoor advertising is moderate, and hence the moderate irritation score; it is a balanced option. The average irritation level is 2.85, and the standard deviation is 1.14. The slight positive skewness indicates a longer right tail, while the negative kurtosis implies a flatter distribution.

Social media has high irritation but also the highest positive impact. It can be very effective if done correctly without high irritation. Printed media and TV have the lowest impact and are less suitable for effective political marketing. Online media and outdoor advertising are balanced in both parameters and are optimal for political marketing. TV is less effective and has high irritation, making it not suitable for politics.

Based on the data obtained, social media is the most suitable media type for political marketing due to its high impact and positive kurtosis. However, a higher level of positive skewness suggests a lower frequency of irritation. Therefore, the mean alone is not a sufficient indicator to conclude that social media has a high impact. YouTube is also suitable for political marketing as it is

very engaging but has a lower irritation level. It has higher impact, positive kurtosis, and a higher average compared to social media. Radio has high irritation and the highest level of negative kurtosis, making it unsuitable for political marketing. Printed media is the least suitable for political marketing as it has the least impact and the least positive kurtosis. Outdoor advertising is the most suitable for political campaigns after social media, as it is a balanced media source with moderate impact and negative kurtosis. The choice of media should consider both the impact and irritation levels to optimize the effectiveness of political marketing strategies.

2.4. Results of Pearson Correlation analysis

In this section, we will review the possible benefits of Social media and YouTube usage in political marketing determined by correlation analysis. This part consists of the analysis of the correlation matrix, which reveals the interactions between the impact of each type of media, irritation from advertisements, and other factors such as political activity and the attitude to the Orange Revolution to measure political awareness. The aim of this analysis is to reveal interesting patterns and explain the correlation metrics. All the data relevant to this study can be found in the corresponding appendix (*Annex 3*), which contains detailed information and supporting materials.

Here, we will review the discoveries related to the strong correlations conducted in the analysis. The strong correlations indicate statistically significant relationships between the media impact and irritation and explain how media exposure affects audience irritation. In the following section, we will discuss online advertising. The correlation between 'IrritationFromOnlineMediaAds' and 'OnlineMediaImpact' is 0.72. This implies that the more people are impacted by online advertising, the more they feel irritated. This means that the intensive usage of online advertising requires a cautious approach related to the content and frequency to avoid adverse consumer reactions.

The next section presents the moderate correlations reviewed in the data. Moderate correlations indicate remarkable relationships which, although weaker than strong correlations, could have a notable impact on the media impact vs. irritation dynamic. The correlation between 'IrritationFromSocialMedia' and 'SocialMediaImpact' is -0.63. The negative correlation implies that people who are more significantly impacted by social media feel less irritation. This might be explained by the fact that those who actively use social media are already accustomed to its advertisements and are less susceptible to this factor.

The last section presents the weak correlations in the analysis. Weak correlations, though almost invisible, display subtle impacts and connections between media impact and irritation, which might be important for some cases or further research. Regarding political activity and media, the

correlation between `PoliticalActivity\_True` and `SocialMediaImpact` is 0.09. Although weak and positive, this indicates that social media can still have an influence on the political activity of those who use it. Next, the Orange Revolution and media impact correlation will be reviewed. The correlation between `OrangeRevolution\_True` and `YouTubeImpact` is -0.12. It is also weak and negatively correlated; it implies that the impacts of YouTube videos can have a slight reverse effect on support for the Orange Revolution.

In the next part of the following section, we present some of the most interesting observations from the analysis. Our goal was to find unique relationships and patterns to identify and explore interactions that can be interesting and insightful. First, the lack of significant correlations between various types of irritation should be mentioned. For instance, the correlation between `IrritationFromTVAds` and `IrritationFromRadioAds` is low, at 0.17, which means that being irritated by one type of advertisement does not imply being aggravated by another form of advertisement. This also means that various types of advertisements cause different consumer reactions, which is consistent with our intuition, because each medium has unique features that influence our perception.

For the section on YouTube videos and ads, the correlation between `IrritationFromYouTubeAds` and `YouTubeImpact` is 0.53. This means that individuals who watch videos more often on YouTube also experience higher irritation due to the advertisements. This is a crucial observation for marketers to understand how often and what type of advertisements people prefer to see on YouTube.

As for printed media, the correlation between `IrritationFromPrinted` and `PrintedImpact` is 0.29. This is a weak positive correlation, indicating that printed advertisements irritate less compared to other types of advertisements.

In conclusion, the overall analysis of the correlation matrix showed several notable relationships between different media's impact and irritation forms. Strong correlations in online advertisement anticipation and irritation, as well as outdoor advertisement and irritation, are crucial to include this consideration in anticipation planning. The lack of significant correlations between different irritation forms showed that each advertisement has unique features that cause different consumer reactions. This can be used in further investigations to create more effective advertising strategies depending on consumers' reactions to different media. Advertisers also want to understand how each unique medium and advertisement affects consumers and adapt their strategy accordingly.

This section aims to discuss the potential utility of incorporating social media and YouTube in political marketing based on the correlation analysis results. Therefore, this utility is based on the relationships between the media's impact, advertisement irritation, and political activity identified during the analysis. The analysis of the correlation matrix results could help us extract some insights

about the potential utility of using social media and YouTube platforms in political marketing data. Interpretation of the correlation analyses helps us investigate the relationships between the media's impact, advertisement irritation, and political activity.

Additionally, the correlation between `SocialMediaImpact` and `PoliticalActivity\_True` is 0.092, which is a weak positive relationship. Therefore, the use of social media may have some impact on the political activity of its users. It is beneficial for political campaigns given that they can use social media to advertise to a vast audience, making them aware of the political situation. At the same time, the correlation between `IrritationFromSocialMedia` and `SocialMediaImpact` was -0.627, a moderate negative relationship. It means that individuals exposed to social media are less likely to find it irritating. It is also good for political campaigns as the exposure people have to social media makes them used to publicity and thus less sensitive to advertisements.

In addition, political campaigns use social media to target specific sets of voters with the same interests, behavior, and demographics; thus, they are more likely to communicate their message effectively on such platforms and increase the chances of bringing in a new voter. Meanwhile, the correlation between the variable `YouTubeImpact` and `PoliticalActivity\_True` is 0.196, considered a weak positive relationship. Therefore, the impact of YouTube on the political activity of people might have some impact. Political campaigns have been persuading individuals to vote by posting ads, debates, interviews, and other content on YouTube.

Meanwhile, the correlation between `IrritationFromYouTubeAds` and `YouTubeImpact` was 0.533, a moderate positive relationship. Hence, the more videos watched on YouTube, the more irritation one is likely to experience. Political campaigns should incorporate this consideration when using ads in their persuasion strategy to avoid irritating people.

Therefore, the correlation matrix analysis reveals significant benefits of social media and YouTube use in political marketing. While social media provides the audience and the most effective ways of running ads, including reduced irritation by ads, YouTube can boost political activity by leveraging video content.

2.5. Results of focus group analysis

The analysis of the respondents' answers to the first question about the radio program reveals a range of perspectives and emotions elicited by the political advertisements. Both Respondent A and Respondent C stress the negative connotation of using the Russian language in the ads. Respondent A states, "I listened to the radio program of O. Moroz and V. Fediv. I did not like the use of the Russian language as the main one for conveying the message. In addition, the message itself is illogical." Similarly, Respondent C mentions, "I immediately rejected the ad because it was in

Russian; it immediately sounded comical to me.” This feeds into a larger problem about what effects language has on the receptiveness and persuasiveness of political messages to various groups of people. This reflects Hypothesis Statement 2 (HS 2), suggesting that traditional media (in this case, radio) might negatively impact the campaign if not in line with the linguistic requirements of the viewers.

Conversely, Respondent B liked the ad of Kuklin the most because there was more detail and realism. Respondent B states, “I liked No. 6 'Kuklin' the most because specific facts and achievements are given in the advertisement. It is obvious that these programs should be checked for the contribution of a particular candidate.” It seems that highly detailed and fact-based content can aid credibility and persuasion on traditional media, challenging HS 2.

Both Respondent D and Respondent F do not like the radio adverts in general, thinking they are old-fashioned and unconvincing. Respondent D comments, “These audios give me mixed emotions... the clear diction and voice in both audios really wakes me up to go and vote for a certain candidate.” However, they also mention that the messages are rather superficial and populist. Respondent F states, “They sound like speeches with appeals on the radio in the Soviet Union. When I hear such things in the car or in other places, I filter this information and absolutely do not pay attention to such things.” These replies imply that traditional radio ads may fail to engage or persuade modern audiences effectively, supporting HS 2.

Meanwhile, Respondent E presents a more balanced view, recognizing the potential effectiveness of these ads for their target audience, despite their personal dislike. “I understand for whom it could be effective. I understand that the 1st audio ads and the 2nd audio ads for their target audiences are quite effective.” This highlights the importance of considering the target demographic when examining the efficacy of political advertising, consistent with Hypothesis Statement 1 (HS 1), which posits that the Internet may be more effective for younger audiences, yet traditional media can still hold value for other segments.

In conclusion, the respondents' feedback on the radio programs suggests a mixed but predominantly negative reception of traditional media for political advertising among younger audiences. This supports HS 1 and HS 2, demonstrating that while traditional media might not be the most effective for engaging younger voters, some content strategies (like fact-based messages) can still find some success. Furthermore, the general distrust and superficiality noted in the ads align with HS 3, as these ads did not inspire significant trust among the respondents. The feedback underscores the need for political campaigns to tailor their strategies to the preferences and expectations of different voter demographics, particularly younger constituents who can be reached more effectively through digital and social media platforms.

After the section on radio, we would like to review and analyze the section related to television and its effectiveness. Respondent A and Respondent D both note the dislike of Petro Poroshenko's TV advertisement. Respondent A states, "Poroshenko's address gives the impression of a political advertisement from 2005-2010: the colors, music, and messages make me anxious and want to turn off the video as soon as possible." Similarly, Respondent D comments, "Poroshenko's video is very bad, as if everything is extremely bad and does not even give faith that he will fix everything." With respect to Hypothesis Statement 2 (HS 2), these findings indicate that although traditional media, in this case, television, can be detrimental to the campaign if the content is not appropriately crafted for the preferences of the audience.

However, Respondents B and E both found the content of Volodymyr Zelenskyi to be more interesting and persuasive. Respondent B mentions, "Zelenskyi's video is more like a social advertising video: it evokes sympathy, awakens empathy... it creates the impression that Zelenskyi really is this "new face" the demand for which has existed for so long in Ukrainian society." Similarly, Respondent E notes, "The advertisement of Volodymyr Zelenskyi... is convincing and effective because people are affected by it... it creates the impression that everything is very bad and only this new president can change everything." This suggests that a more contemporary, emotionally engaging strategy can work, even on a traditional medium like TV, observing HS 2 more carefully.

Respondent C remarks, "Well, video is clearly more convincing than audio. I liked some videos more, some less. I probably like it more when a candidate speaks about himself in his own voice." The message is clear: while advertising can be powerful, direct communication with the candidate is now at least its equal. This does not get at Hypothesis Statement 3 (HS 3) head-on as it is social and not direct innovation, but it does validate that trust and engagement are higher when you communicate directly and personally.

Respondent F comments, "Advertisement of TV 1 'Poroshenko' seems to be more sly... but it has an outdated style of work reminiscent of dubious political videos." This reinforces a common stereotype in traditional media that old-fashioned styles are negative, and gives evidence for HS 2.

Responses from Respondent G and Respondent H are mixed when it comes to the videos as well. Respondent G states, "Depends on the video. Some videos with a format very similar to the radio from the previous section... I liked the other videos they are more innovative." Respondent H comments, "The inscription at the bottom immediately caught my attention... add to this people in all white in a white room and we have an advertisement for a new hospital." These responses all suggest that some traditional television formats may still be working, but there is a stronger inclination for some of the more innovative and engaging formats, however, reinforcing in an oblique way, the possibility of modern content being so effective, a position that lines up well with a broader conceptualization of Hypothesis Statement 2 (HS 2).

In the next section, we will analyze the influence of YouTube. Respondent A states, “I liked V. Zelenskyi's video more from the point of view of visuals and music. It creates the image of a youthful new ('modern') leader who is more like an activist than a traditional president.” Additionally, Respondent A mentions, “In Poroshenko's video, I did not like the obvious desire to humiliate the opponent.” This feedback suggests a preference for political advertising with contemporary aesthetics and sound and an aversion to negativity. This implies that old media can be harmful to its campaign if perceived as outdated or too negative, supporting HS 2.

Respondent B comments, “Zelensky's video feels charged for a 'show' with novelty and confidence, while Poroshenko's video demonstrates poise and consistency.” This indicates viewers see YouTube videos as more creative and exciting than traditional political advertising methods. This aligns with HS 2.

Respondent C notes, “The first one with Zelenskyi is very pathetic, not live somehow not real and recorded. Does not inspire confidence. Here Poroshenko seems to sound more trusting but the format seems to have been filmed 20 years ago.” This suggests that YouTube videos come off as phoney, while traditional formats may feel outdated. This supports HS 2 by showing that old formats in traditional media can work against their effectiveness. Respondent E states, “Zelensky made a spectacular teaser video which turned out to be very creative and unusual... Poroshenko acted as a 'classic' politician.” This is consistent with the argument that creativity and originality are recognized as appealing in YouTube videos, aligning with HS 2.

Respondent F expresses, “I don't know I probably like them less than classic videos on TV. They cause some irritation.” This indicates that some audience segments may still prefer traditional media forms. However, the overall feedback supports HS 2, suggesting a desire for fresh, exciting content. Respondent G mentions, “The video of Volodymyr Zelenskyi was dynamic, fast, and clear... I did not watch the video of Petro Poroshenko until the end because it was boring.” This reinforces the preference for dynamic and entertaining content in political advertising, supporting HS 2.

Respondent H states, “Maybe it's because I have some memories of these videos because I've seen them before... the videos seemed much livelier and more interesting to me.” Respondent I comments, “The idea with the unification of the people (chain) is impressive but not the presentation.” These lessons make it clear that if groundbreaking, emotionally charged content is seen, it supports HS 2.

In the next section, we will explore the impact of print newspapers. Respondent A remarks, “In the political advertisement of Self-Help I immediately noticed the thesis about the exchange of a well-known pro-Russian Ukrainian politician for Ukrainian sailors which undoubtedly satisfies the voters. However, having a professional education, I understand that this is manipulation.” This

indicates a critical view of printed political advertising and its manipulative tactics, supporting HS 2, as traditional media can negatively impact the campaign if perceived as manipulative.

Respondent B states, “In general, I like all images, the attitude towards them is neutral. First of all, the visual component and headings are evaluated. Considering this, the works 1. 'Self-help' 2. 'Ze' 3. 'For the Future' 4. 'EU' seem the most convincing. The reputation of parties and individual candidates significantly changes the relationship. In general, printed political advertising for me personally does not play a key role. Therefore, its effect on my decision-making is small.” This suggests that while the visual elements are important, the overall impact of printed media on decision-making is minimal, aligning with HS 2.

Respondent C mentions, “A newspaper that I would buy, well-chosen colors, headlines that are close to the buyer. The topic is presented but not the main content, so I want to know more.” This highlights the role of visual appeal and curiosity in engaging readers, yet does not significantly influence decision-making, supporting HS 2.

Respondent D notes, “These newspapers do not convince me; important headlines catch my eye which do not arouse my interest in reading these newspapers. Regarding emotions, they do not evoke such emotions in me as video advertising; in general, I have no emotions for these newspapers.” This reflects a lack of emotional engagement and interest in printed political advertisements, which aligns with HS 2 as traditional media fails to engage younger audiences.

Respondent E expresses, “In my opinion, quite convincing. Solid. Emotions are more serious, maybe I feel responsible or something.” This indicates that some printed advertisements can evoke a sense of seriousness and responsibility, suggesting that traditional media might still have some impact for certain audiences.

Respondent F states, “In my opinion, the most convincing ones are the 1st and 2nd ones. I myself am from Lviv and Andriy Sadovyi has been the mayor of Lviv for several years and in principle it is quite an effective method there with all its shortcomings but it is equally effective.” This suggests that familiarity with candidates can enhance the perceived effectiveness of printed advertisements, yet it supports HS2 as the overall medium's impact remains limited.

Respondent G comments, “I see such newspapers all over the city as garbage; they are political advertisements on 2 pages. I don't like them very much, but I think it is profitable for pensioners; it is an effective way of distributing political advertisements. In general, I am not interested in this. However, I think that such things have their purpose.” This indicates a perception that printed political advertisements are effective for older voters but not appealing to younger ones, which aligns with HS2.

Respondent H notes, “Too many colors, small text, the name is highlighted more than the name of the newspaper, and the headlines are a bad decision. The format is more suitable for the

yellow press where people buy after seeing the name of a celebrity. This name means nothing to me.” This criticizes the design choices in printed political advertisements, further supporting HS 2 as these formats fail to engage the younger audience effectively.

Respondent I states, “The image of the candidate (Sadovoy) looks expert and inspires trust. In the 'Servants of the People' brochure, the brand photo and name of a politician immediately catches my eye which is effective in the election campaign. However, in my opinion, there is a great lack of concrete proposals here. In general, newspapers as a means of political advertising are quite outdated and work for the older category of voters.” This suggests that while certain visual elements are effective, the medium itself is seen as outdated and more suited to older voters, which supports HS2.

Web versions of print newspapers and magazines will be discussed in the next section. Respondent A remarks, “All options look highly politicized and populist and calling an 'expert' without actually pointing to one is manipulative. I would not read such articles because they are superficial and seek not to provide analytics but to push the desired message in a political pursuit.” This feedback suggests a critical view of online political articles and their tendency towards manipulation and populism, indicating that such content does not engage younger, more analytical audiences. This supports HS 2, as traditional media in an online format can still suffer from negative perceptions.

Respondent B states, “Online media often use clickbait and populism. Sources and objectivity of messages usually need to be checked and subjected to critical thinking. Loud names and lack of links to experts immediately cause negative emotions.” This emphasizes the distrust towards online political articles due to their clickbait nature and lack of credible sources, supporting HS 2 by highlighting the negative impact of such content on young people.

Respondent C comments, “The photo ties in with the title and image of the hero of the article. I like that the text is right next to the photo I find it convenient. The title is small enough to read it just by glancing for a second.” This suggests that while the presentation can be appealing, the overall impact remains limited if the content is perceived as untrustworthy or superficial.

Respondent D simply reacts with, “Hahahahhahahahahhahahhahahhahahhahahhahahhahah,” indicating that the content is not taken seriously, which undermines the effectiveness of online political articles and supports HS 2.

Respondent E states, “News on the Internet causes me to think more positively than negatively. Most often I myself consume information in these resources and often depending on the editorial office I analyze how true this or that information can be.” This shows a more balanced view where the respondent critically analyzes online news but still finds some value in it, suggesting that not all online media is dismissed outright, though skepticism remains.

Respondent F remarks, “They cause laughter. Well this is a frank clickbait it cannot cause anything else.” This highlights the issue of credibility and engagement with online political articles, further supporting HS 2.

Respondent G mentions, “Honestly such pointed articles from online articles are in principle quite difficult for me to perceive because a lot of information passes there every day through a person and for me none of them is very effective because these are some very pointed things and probably not very interesting.” This feedback aligns with HS 2, as the overwhelming and pointed nature of online political content can disengage younger audiences.

Respondent H notes, “Well in general without comments I think this selection is a bit of an exaggeration of course such publications are. But here is a specific selection of very funny headlines and very funny political articles that are made to order.” This indicates a perception that online political articles are not taken seriously and are seen as exaggerated or clickbait, which supports HS2.

Respondent I states, “Not a very good photo. The title font is the least readable of all the proposed ones. All the information is already in the name. I would not continue reading.” This feedback highlights poor presentation and readability issues, further supporting HS 2 as these factors contribute to the ineffectiveness of online political content. Respondent J comments, “It's just ridiculous I definitely wouldn't believe it,” indicating a lack of trust in the content, which aligns with HS 2.

Below, we will analyze the impact of social media on our focus group research participants. Respondent A states, “I like the Servant of the People campaign more because it feels sincere and aimed at political enlightenment and voter support. It is felt that they are interested in real changes and in involving citizens in the political process.” This implies that social media campaigns are considered to be authentic and attention-getting and supports HS 3, in which social media fosters a higher level of political trust among its politically engaged audience.

Respondent B comments, “In comparison, 'Ze' seem more convincing and authoritative. Non-standard approaches for their time are used; there are no clichés, populism, and clickbait. Although Pyotr Oleksiyovych's message is clear and positive, it seems more distant from the voter and somewhat standard, which in the context of the time had a negative effect.” Respondents suggest that more innovative and different approaches on social media are perceived as more effective and engaging, supporting HS 3.

Respondent C remarks, “(Photos 1-3) visually looks nice, not a lot of text but not a little, generally simple and concise. (Photo 4) a set of words in the text, a nice video screen saver and a slogan although the name is highlighted it does not cover anything.” This feedback reinforces the emphasis reflected in HS 3 on the role of visual points of interest and succinct messages in social media campaigns.

Respondent D states, “Campaigning on social media is a bit more convincing to me than in newspapers but I like it better on the internet because you can see more additional information about a candidate's life than in newspapers. Regarding emotions, none, passivity.” By revealing more information, this illustrates an inclination towards social media over conventional media, aligning with HS 1 and HS 2.

Respondent E mentions, “Well, it's not bad. But it still seems a bit like they want to wave. Emotions - mistrust.” This hints at the skepticism that some hold with regards to social media campaigns, which can influence how effective they are, and a potential shortcoming to HS 3.

Respondent F states, “Well in fact the posts are attractive and quite effective only in the 1st photo well I didn't understand what kind of people these are it will attract a lot of attention there you need to go read more but it seems to me that the slogans that are in the 1st version are also quite good in the 2nd effective and visually it is also effective because in Zelenskyi's it is also about what not to invest there you use the appropriate voice and colors in Petro Poroshenko's as well and he is depicted very clearly there are some theses written there and especially there the thesis Ukraine in NATO well that is everything is clearly clear what is necessary those who support it will go there and Proclamation 1 there support that in principle and that and that quite effectively.” Social media non-text media indicates that visually attractive and straightforward messages in social media posts contribute to their engagement, also supporting HS 3.

Respondent G comments, “I want a message here I don't like it but I like the design much more it is short and concise. Here it is used in fashion I like the text is much shorter than in newspapers it can be easily read if you don't like it or read it if you like it.” This is indicative of the preference for more intricate rather than more detailed content on social media, backing HS 3.

Respondent H notes, “Instead Poroshenko's political advertising gives the impression that he has additional sources of funding which makes it less authentic. This ad also creates a slightly authoritarian vibe (due to the use of colors and slogans a single strong leader) and looks a bit out of place which may alienate some voters.” This response implies that the perception of authenticity is important in social media campaigns, which correlates with HS 3.

In the next section, we will discuss the impact and people's opinions on outdoor advertising. Respondent A states, “Poroshenko's political advertising while giving a sense of reliability also evokes a certain sense of fear that he may turn out to be a strong but authoritarian leader. This conditionally increases the distance between the politician and the voter. Political advertising with face-to-face with Putin seems inappropriate since Poroshenko was already the president and could not resolve the conflict in Donbas and return Crimea. Instead, Zelenskyi's political campaign is a little laughable (in a good way) thanks to the use of puns and the color green adds positivity. I like that the campaign is under the slogan 'ZE!' instead of 'Zelensky' which looks more native and authentic.” It

implies that outdoor advertising brings an emotional circulation, increasing the perception of credibility and helpability, supporting HS 2 as traditional media may induce emotional distance.

Respondent B comments, “Abstracting from the context: Yulia Tymoshenko's billboard seems more convincing. Petro Poroshenko's advertisement seems a little funny. 'With' the team looks out of place although the originality of the advertising approach is followed.” This highlights the vital role of image and word in the success of outdoor, providing some confirmation for HS 2 that traditional media can still convince.

Respondent C states, “A hint that everyone can understand beautifully convincingly without unnecessary words catches the eye short enough to read while passing by. Humor is good taking into account the candidate excellent also without extra text everything is readable like the first one.” This feedback is a testament to the power of plain old readability in outdoor ads, which could challenge HS 2 by showing that well-executed billboards can be effective.

Respondent D remarks, “The first is trash ahahhahahahaahahahahaha. The second sounds like a coup for the better but it's also scary because you don't believe in experience to plant everyone in a row and what's next? Well with Tymoshenko it is not at all understood what she is talking about.” This indicates that poorly executed billboards can evoke negative or confused reactions, supporting HS 2.

Respondent E notes, “Billboard ads make me think more positively than newspaper articles. I like the minimalism and intrigue described on these billboards.” This suggests a preference for the elegance and impact of billboards over other traditional media, which could challenge HS 2 by indicating that billboards might be more effective than other traditional media.

Respondent F states, “Yes it's normal I like political banners. Emotions - interest anticipation of something important.” This indicates that outdoor advertising can generate interest and anticipation, which could challenge HS 2 by showing positive engagement.

Respondent G comments, “In fact of these three banners in my opinion the most convincing one is firstly because it contrasts Ukraine and Russia there are the faces of Petro Poroshenko and Putin and these are the issues that they did not like in principle. Teams it is not very clear spring will come we will plant well it is not clear specifically that this is not a clear message until the end. 3rd advertisement Yulia Tymoshenko well it seems that everything is clearly written about that you should not come to someone Yulia Tymoshenko can give something new because how many times has she tried not it turned out and it's hard to believe some new course of Ukraine.” This feedback indicates that clarity and context in messages are crucial for the effectiveness of billboards, supporting HS 2.

Respondent H mentions, “This is also quite a good version of advertising. I sometimes like to watch billboards on the streets and I especially like to watch political billboards because each

candidate tries to somehow compete with each other and present better advertisements and slogans are usually short. In general it works for me as if it were entertainment and not advertising.” This suggests that billboards can be engaging and entertaining, challenging HS 2 by showing that outdoor ads can be positively perceived.

Respondent I states, “Red on white strongly distracts from the rest of the text small inscriptions are difficult to read because of this there is no completeness of the picture the worst of the three proposed.” This indicates that poor design choices can significantly reduce the effectiveness of billboards, supporting HS 2.

Respondent J comments, “Yulia Tymoshenko's campaign looks very feminist against the background of the previous two the face of the candidate appears as a strong and confident politician who understands the chosen course. At the same time there is very little context and it is not clear what the new course is about and what the opportunities are. Rather the fact that Tymoshenko is almost the only woman in the political life of Ukraine with such recognition and purposefulness that can inspire voters wins here.” This suggests that representation and clarity in messaging are important in outdoor advertising, supporting HS 2.

The analysis of respondents' answers to various media types reveals several interesting patterns and observations that help confirm or refute the hypotheses. For radio, most respondents expressed negative attitudes toward political ads. The use of the Russian language elicited rejection from respondents A and C, highlighting the importance of cultural and linguistic nuances for the effectiveness of ads. Interestingly, respondent B, who appreciated Kuklin's ad for its detail, suggests that substantive and fact-based content can enhance trust and persuasiveness, even in traditional media. This partially challenges HS 2 by showing that not all traditional media are entirely ineffective. However, the overall negative reaction to radio ads supports HS 2, indicating that this channel does not align with the preferences of the younger audience.

Regarding television ads, respondents had mixed feelings. Negative reactions to Poroshenko's ads support HS 2, showing that old-fashioned styles and negative messages cause rejection. However, Zelenskyi's ads received more positive feedback for their emotional engagement and modernity, indicating that traditional media formats can still be effective if the content is contemporary. This partially supports HS 1, indicating that younger audiences can still respond to traditional media if the content meets their expectations.

Responses about YouTube ads show a preference for contemporary aesthetics and sounds, with a strong aversion to negativity. Respondent A preferred Zelenskyi's videos for their visuals and music, which create the image of a young, modern leader. This supports HS 2, as it shows that outdated formats in traditional media can hinder effectiveness. The general preference for YouTube's dynamic and engaging content aligns with HS 1 and HS 2, indicating that younger voters favor new

media and modern content formats. Some respondents, like respondent C, felt distrust towards overly emotional content, highlighting the need to balance emotionality and authenticity, supporting HS 3.

For print media, respondents showed a general distrust towards this channel. Although some recognized the effectiveness of specific ads, most stated that print media did not significantly influence their decision-making. This supports HS 2, demonstrating that traditional media like newspapers are less effective for the younger audience.

Responses regarding online newspaper ads highlight critical thinking and skepticism towards populist headlines. Respondents noted that they distrust content that appears manipulative or superficial, supporting HS 2 by showing that even digital formats of traditional media can elicit negative perceptions.

Social media received the most positive feedback from respondents. Many noted that these platforms allow for more authentic and engaging content. This supports HS 3, showing that social media fosters higher trust among politically engaged audiences. However, a few respondents expressed skepticism towards overly emotional content, emphasizing the need for a careful approach in creating such ads.

Responses about outdoor advertising were mixed. Some respondents noted that well-designed billboards could be effective, while others found them outdated and ineffective. This suggests that design and messaging are crucial for the effectiveness of outdoor ads, supporting HS 2.

Overall, the analysis confirms hypotheses HS 1, HS 2, and HS 3, demonstrating the advantages of modern media for younger audiences and the importance of content that meets their expectations. Traditional media, while having some potential, mostly evoke negative emotions among young voters, especially if the content seems outdated or manipulative. Social media and contemporary content approaches show the best results in engaging and persuading this audience.

In this section, the findings described above will be synthesized, cross-examined with previous research the thesis has introduced before, and practical advice will be deduced from the patterns seen and the empirical evidence at play.

2.6. Scientific discussion of results, comparisons and recommendations for election headquarters

The radio and TV ads got some of the most negative feedback from surveys, especially among younger respondents. This is consistent with the results of Marquart et al. (2019), for example, considered that traditional media tended to be less powerful for activating sluggish electorates. The study by Edegoh et al. (2013) also suggested that television as a medium can sometimes be perceived as old-school and less attractive for younger voters. Certainly, the findings were more nuanced than

a simple refutation of the idea that traditional media coverage boosts detailed, fact-based messages. This seems to fly somewhat in the face of writing off traditional media altogether, with the research indicating that the quality and relevance of content are still of paramount importance.

The high level of acceptance of social media platforms by respondents, especially in terms of features such as promoting trust and engagement, is consistent with results published by Abid, et al. (2021), who promoted the role of social media in political relationship marketing (PRM). This is supported by additional research cited in Dvir-Gvirsman, et al. (2022), who argued that social media was one of the most important due to the fact that it was direct and interactive. The results of the current study are also in line with what Skogerbø and Krumsvik (2015) have found concerning the crucial role social media like Facebook and others have in the process of intermedial agenda-setting in election campaigns. This means that the influence of social media is not primarily through changing the minds of voters, but rather it changes what media discourses are having a broader impact.

Print media was generally distrusted by respondents, viewed as manipulative, or just plain old. This claim was supported by Dalton (2019), who argued that the reputation of the printed press was decreasing. Even online newspapers were not immune to skepticism, indicating that it is the nature of the content, not its medium that inspires a sense of trust. The disappointing reaction to outdoor advertising, where design and clarity of response are keys to success, echo the themes of Fill's (2005) thoughts on the role of aesthetics and copy-simplicity on outdoor fillers. This means that despite the traditional aesthetic, outdoor advertising can still work if done right.

Future studies also need to involve longitudinal studies examining how voters change their perceptions or behaviors in different election cycles. This will be useful for determining trends over time and how the effectiveness of different media strategies changes. Widening the demographic spectrum to a richer diversity in age groups and socio-economic levels enables a less one-dimensional assessment of media performance. Deeper content analysis of political ads in all forms of media might help to further determine which components are most likely to drive greater engagement and trust.

That being said, integrated media strategies that leverage the best practices of each platform are critical for political campaigns. For example, using social media to target direct user engagement and amplification, and traditional media for wider reach. The ability to customize content will be even more important as voters are specific in their preferences and have distinct expectations. Authenticity here can be translated into recognizing basic facts and details that are consistent and therefore true—which is what campaigns should actually be prioritizing. While it may be old school, outdoor advertising can still be an effective form of advertising when it integrates contemporary design and straightforward messaging.

The study also confirms that modern media, which are much more efficient for engaging younger audiences, even though traditional media may be attractive to older viewers, the ideal thing

is to maintain a strategy always adapting the content other than means are almost all fast changing. The results of this analysis underline the value of quality content and the integration of platforms in political marketing efforts. Scholars should continue to investigate these relationships in their forthcoming research to gain more clarity regarding optimal political communication approaches.

In conclusion, this chapter our empirical research, on use of marketing methods in political campaigns descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation analysis, and focus group analysis results were presented in detail. We chatted about voter behaviour and how different marketing tactics and strategies affect the way young voters vote. The study also suggested that social media and digital marketing are significantly effective in mobilizing this segment of the population compared to traditional marketing methods. We ended this section by discussing our results in relation to current literature and pointing out the implications of our findings for the election headquarters with suggestions to aid in the improvement of marketing strategies. We also discussed what our results might mean for future political campaigns and we identified areas for future exploratory research.

CONCLUSION

The research was intended to examine the potential for the utilization of idea marketing as a practical means to enhance the outcomes of election campaigns with young audiences. Objectives described in the introduction were pursued systematically by theoretical analysis and empirical study. In this section, we compile how we achieved these objectives, data to confirm/refute the hypotheses, the novelties, generalize our results, and suggest further research. This study was able to accomplish the following objectives:

1. “Analyze the phenomenon of political marketing as idea marketing and its tools”: This work led to a comprehensive analysis of political marketing as a kind of idea marketing. This article analyzed different political marketing tools with a focus on social media campaigns, traditional media advertisements, and direct voter engagement strategies. The theoretical framework developed the study of political marketing from its commercial marketing origins, citing the works of key scholars like Kotler and Zaltman. The political marketing tools discussed in this section have been designed to directly manipulate the behavior of voters and impact election results through deliberate communication.
2. “Describe the current stage of political marketing research in the world and its definition”: This research provided a detailed overview of the current state of political marketing research globally. Through a synthesis of literature from multiple sources, the study identified the central definitions and conceptual bases for political marketing. The research also highlighted trends in the new era of political marketing, including the move toward leveraging big data and analytics to make deeper connections with voter segments through political messaging.
3. “Perform research and determine which tool of political marketing is the most effective for a young audience of voters”: Methodology involved researching and discovering which tool of political marketing works best for young voters using quantitative and qualitative methods. Surveys and focus groups were conducted to discover what young voters liked in political ads and which types of media spots were most persuasive. The findings showed social media was the most efficient platform to reach out to young voters, as it is conducive to two-way and personalized communication.
4. “Based on the results of the research, provide recommendations for election headquarters regarding the correct campaign marketing strategy”: Based on the empirical findings, the study provided several recommendations for election campaign managers. These included making social media the main channel for political advertising directed at younger constituents and utilizing data analytics to deliver targeted ad placements and content. The

recommendations emphasized the importance of creating engaging and authentic content that resonates with young voters' values and concerns.

The study tested and confirmed or refuted several hypotheses related to political marketing effectiveness:

HS1: “The Internet is more effective in delivering political advertising to younger audiences than traditional media.” This hypothesis was confirmed through the empirical study, revealing that political advertising on social media engages younger voters more than political advertisements on traditional media channels like television and print. The ability of social media to be an interactive medium that generates constant feedback is a significant market advantage for political campaigns trying to reach out to young voters.

HS2: “Traditional media can have a negative impact on the course of a political campaign if the consumer of these ads is young people.” This hypothesis was partially confirmed. Although young voters were difficult to reach through traditional media, the presence of traditional media did not have a negative effect on social media use. Rather than competing, traditional media were identified to act as supporting material, while the desired content reaches the viewers on social media.

HS3: “Political advertising in social media inspires more trust in its politically engaged audience than similar advertising on other platforms.” This HS was confirmed. The surveys showed that young voters are more likely to trust political advertising on social media than advertising of the same kind on other platforms. The trust is derived from the perceived transparency and authenticity of social media content, and the ability to interact directly with campaign messages and converse with friends and family.

The study provides a new perspective on the evaluation of different political marketing instruments, especially concerning the use of social media during political campaigns targeting young voters. It compares traditional media to modern media in the context of voter engagement and behavior, introducing new aspects made possible by the different channels. Results indicate that by focusing on social media, political campaign managers can efficiently increase youth engagement and participation at the polls. This data can be invaluable in informing campaign strategies to ensure this valuable audience feels spoken to. Nonetheless, rooted in the interest of media consumers over thousands of miles away from each other, it might be restricted in its transferability to the media use behaviors in other cultural and regional environments. Additional research in other populations will be required to support these conclusions.

Future research could extend the market demographic to older generations to test the effectiveness of political marketing across generations. Longitudinal research could track the longer-term effects of various political marketing tools over time, particularly with such rapid changes in

digital media. The potential role of video, memes, and live streams on social media in driving voter behavior and political engagement might be a fruitful area to extend our line of research.

In conclusion, the thesis accomplished its purpose and objectives of adding value to knowledge about the use of political marketing in electioneering in modern times. This research empirically confirmed hypotheses on internet-based political advertising for young voters and contributed to new areas of work in the field, providing practical implications and future research directions.

LIST OF REFERENCES

1. 22 U.S. Code § 611 - Definitions. (n.d.). LII / Legal Information Institute. <https://www.law.cornell.edu/uscode/text/22/611#o>
2. A research on the impact of newspaper advertisements on consumer awareness. (2019). *International Journal of Recent Technology and Engineering*, 8(2S11), 500–503. <https://doi.org/10.35940/ijrte.b1077.0982s1119>
3. Abid, A., Harrigan, P., & Roy, S. (2020). A relationship marketing orientation in politics: Young voters' perceptions of political brands' use of social media. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 29(4), 359–374. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0965254x.2020.1777457>
4. Abid, A., Harrigan, P., & Roy, S. K. (2019). Online relationship marketing through content creation and curation. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 38(6), 699–712. <https://doi.org/10.1108/mip-04-2019-0219>
5. Abid, A., Harrigan, P., Wang, S., Roy, S. K., & Harper, T. (2022). Social media in politics: how to drive engagement and strengthen relationships. *MM. Journal Of Marketing Management/Journal Of Marketing Management*, 39(3–4), 298–337. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257x.2022.2117235>
6. Aldrich, J. H., Gibson, R. K., Cantijoch, M., & Konitzer, T. (2015). Getting out the vote in the social media era. *Party Politics*, 22(2), 165–178. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354068815605304>
7. Antoniadis, I. I., Saprikis, V. S., & Karteraki, E. E. (2019). Consumers' attitudes towards advertisement in YouTube. In *Springer proceedings in business and economics* (pp. 253–261). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-12453-3_29
8. Ash, K., & Shapovalov, M. (2022). Populism for the ambivalent: anti-polarization and support for Ukraine's Sluha Narodu party. *Post-Soviet Affairs*, 38(6), 460–478. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1060586x.2022.2082823>
9. ATTACK AD Collocation | Meaning and Examples of use. (2024). In Cambridge University Press. Retrieved June 3, 2024, from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/example/english/attack-ad>
10. Baghestan, A. G., & Kalantari, A. (2020). Conceptual Transformation in the area of “Social Media”: a Scientometrics Meta-Analysis. *A Scientometrics Meta-Analysis*, 6(21), 85–112. <https://doi.org/10.22054/nms.2020.43619.777>
11. Banerjee, S., & Chaudhuri, B. R. (2020). Factors shaping attitude of voters about celebrity politicians: Direct and indirect effects. *Journal of Business Research*, 109, 210–220. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.12.009>

12. Barabas, J., Jerit, J., Pollock, W., & Rainey, C. (2014). The Question(s) of Political Knowledge. *the American Political Science Review*, 108(4), 840–855. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0003055414000392>
13. Baviera, T. (2018). Influence in the political Twitter sphere: Authority and retransmission in the 2015 and 2016 Spanish General Elections. *European Journal of Communication*, 33(3), 321–337. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0267323118763910>
14. Buccoliero, L., Bellio, E., Crestini, G., & Arkoudas, A. (2018). Twitter and politics: Evidence from the US presidential elections 2016. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 26(1), 88–114. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13527266.2018.1504228>
15. Butler, P., & Collins, N. (1994). Political Marketing: structure and process. *European Journal of Marketing*, 28(1), 19–34. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090569410049154>
16. Chandler, D., & Munday, R. (2011). A Dictionary of Media and Communication. In Oxford University Press eBooks. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acref/9780199568758.001.0001>
17. Chen, J., Kou, G., Peng, Y., Chao, X., Xiao, F., & Alsaadi, F. E. (2020). Effect of marketing messages and consumer engagement on economic performance: evidence from Weibo. *Internet Research*, 30(5), 1565–1581. <https://doi.org/10.1108/intr-07-2019-0296>
18. Chester, J., & Montgomery, K. C. (2019). The digital commercialisation of US politics — 2020 and beyond. *Internet Policy Review*, 8(4). <https://doi.org/10.14763/2019.4.1443>
19. Ciftci, D. (2021). Political marketing and new media election campaigning. In *Advances in multimedia and interactive technologies book series* (pp. 355–379). <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-7998-3201-0.ch021>
20. Culpin, C. (1997). *Making history: World History from 1914 to the Present*. Collins.
21. Dahlgren, P. (2005). The internet, public spheres, and political communication: dispersion and deliberation. *Political Communication*, 22(2), 147–162. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10584600590933160>
22. Dalton, R. J. (2019). *Citizen Politics: Public Opinion and Political Parties in Advanced Industrial Democracies*. CQ Press.
23. De Vries, L., Gensler, S., & Leeflang, P. S. (2017). Effects of traditional advertising and social messages on Brand-Building metrics and customer acquisition. *Journal of Marketing*, 81(5), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.15.0178>
24. Determ. (2024, May 31). The importance of Political Social Media Strategy - Determ. <https://www.mediatoolkit.com/blog/the-importance-of-political-social-media-strategy/>
25. Donovan, R. J., & Henley, N. (2003). *Social marketing: Principles and Practice*.

26. Dube, B., Roberts-Lombard, M., & Van Tonder, E. (2014). Management Guidelines for universal quality Challenges across the focus group research process. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 31(1), 239. <https://doi.org/10.19030/jabr.v31i1.9004>
27. Dvir-Gvirsman, S., Tsuriel, K., Sheaffer, T., Shenhav, S., Zoizner, A., Lavi, L., Shamir, M., & Waismel-Manor, I. (2022). Mediated Representation in the Age of Social Media: How Connection with Politicians Contributes to Citizens' Feelings of Representation. Evidence from a Longitudinal Study. *Political Communication*, 39(6), 779–800. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10584609.2022.2124335>
28. Edegoh, L. O. N., Ezebuonyi, E. E., & Asemah, E. S. (2013). Television as a medium of political advertising during elections in Anambra State, Nigeria. *ASIAN JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES*, 2(3), 375–385. <http://ci.nii.ac.jp/naid/40019790427>
29. Election campaign. (2024). In Cambridge University Press. Retrieved June 3, 2024, from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/election-campaign>
30. Fallis, T. W. (2014). Political advertising. In Oxford University Press eBooks. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199793471.013.004>
31. Fill, C. (2005). *Marketing Communications: Engagements, Strategies and Practice*. Pearson Education.
32. Findley, F., Johnson, K., Crang, D., & Stewart, D. W. (2020). Effectiveness and Efficiency of TV's Brand-Building Power: A Historical review. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 60(4), 361–369. <https://doi.org/10.2501/jar-2020-011>
33. Foster, É. (2023). Democratic Malaise: A proposed theoretical conceptualization for marketing malaise. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15377857.2023.2294200>
34. Gesuele, B., Metallo, C., Guillamón, M., & Ríos, A. (2021). The use of social media for electoral purposes. the case of the Italian election in 2018. In *Lecture notes in information systems and organisation* (pp. 249–263). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-87842-9_17
35. Harrop, M. (1990). *POLITICAL MARKETING*. Parliamentary Affairs. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.pa.a052253>
36. Helberger, N., Dobber, T., & Claes, D. V. (2021, August 4). Towards Unfair Political Practices Law: Learning lessons from the regulation of unfair commercial practices for online political advertising. <https://www.jipitec.eu/archive/issues/jipitec-12-3-2021/5338>
37. Henneberg, S. C. (1996). Conference report: Second conference on political marketing: Judge institute of management studies, university of Cambridge 27–29 March 1996. *MM. Journal Of Marketing Management/Journal Of Marketing Management*, 12(8), 777–783. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257x.1996.9964452>

38. Herder, E., & Dirks, S. (2022). User attitudes towards commercial versus political microtargeting. UMAP '22 Adjunct: Adjunct Proceedings of the 30th ACM Conference on User Modeling. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3511047.3538027>
39. How Zelensky was advertised on Facebook. appeals to various groups and maximum mobilization on election day. (2019, April 24). https://texty.org.ua/articles/93353/Jak_Zelenskyj_reklamuvavsa_u_Fejsbuci_Zvernenna_do-93353/
40. Huntington, H. E. (2019). Partisan cues and internet memes: early evidence for motivated skepticism in audience message processing of spreadable political media. *Atlantic Journal of Communication*, 28(3), 194–208. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15456870.2019.1614589>
41. Intyaswati, D., Maryani, E., Sugiana, D., & Venus, A. (2021). Using Media for Voting Decision among First-time Voter College Students in West Java, Indonesia. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 10(1), 327. <https://doi.org/10.36941/ajis-2021-0028>
42. Jackson, N. (2013). General election marketing—selling a can of beans, building a favours bank or managing an event? *Journal of Public Affairs*, 13(3), 251–259. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.1464>
43. Kaid, L. L. (2002). Political advertising and information seeking: comparing exposure via traditional and internet channels. *Journal of Advertising*, 31(1), 27–35. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2002.10673658>
44. Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business Horizons*, 53(1), 59–68. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2009.09.003>
45. Kavanagh, D. (1995). *Election campaigning: The New Marketing of Politics*. Wiley-Blackwell.
46. Keeling, S. (2023). A matter of content: overcoming the gender gap in political knowledge, expression of knowledge, and interest. *Italian Political Science Review/Rivista Italiana Di Scienza Politica*, 53(3), 384–398. <https://doi.org/10.1017/ipo.2023.15>
47. Keemink, J. R., Sharp, R. J., Dargan, A. K., & Forder, J. E. (2022). Reflections on the use of synchronous online focus groups in social care research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 21, 160940692210953. <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069221095314>
48. Kim, Y. M. (2016). Algorithmic opportunity: digital advertising and inequality in political involvement. *the Forum*, 14(4). <https://doi.org/10.1515/for-2016-0034>
49. Kioupkiolis, A., & Pérez, F. S. (2018). Reflexive technopopulism: Podemos and the search for a new left-wing hegemony. *European Political Science*, 18(1), 24–36. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41304-017-0140-9>

50. Kolovos, I. and Harris, P. (2005) Political Marketing and Political Communication The Relationship Revisited. University of Otago, Dunedin. - References - Scientific Research Publishing. (n.d.). <https://www.scirp.org/reference/referencespapers?referenceid=1742508>
51. Kotler, P., & Zaltman, G. (1971). Social Marketing: an approach to planned social change. *Journal of Marketing*, 35(3), 3. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1249783>
52. Lam, S. Y. B., Cheung, M. F. M., & Lo, W. H. (2021). What matters most in the responses to political campaign posts on social media: The candidate, message frame, or message format? *Computers in Human Behavior*, 121, 106800. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2021.106800>
53. Lees-Marshment, J., Conley, B., Elder, E., Pettitt, R., Raynauld, V., & Turcotte, A. (2019). *Political marketing: Principles and Applications*.
54. Lilleker, D. G., & Koc-Michalska, K. (2013). Online political communication strategies: MEPs, E-Representation, and Self-Representation. *Journal of Information Technology & Politics*, 10(2), 190–207. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19331681.2012.758071>
55. Lindlof, T. R., & Taylor, B. C. (2011). *Qualitative communication research methods*. SAGE.
56. Lipsitz, K., & Padilla, J. (2021). The nonlinear effects of political advertising. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15377857.2021.1997877>
57. Loland, S. (1995). Coubertin's ideology of Olympism from the perspective of the history of Ideas. *Olympica*. <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Coubertin%E2%80%99s-Ideology-of-Olympism-from-the-of-the-of-Loland/5d3f01c190ecd66fe2661da167952ca8097a48ef>
58. Luhn, A. (2019, March 30). Fictional president poised to become the real thing as TV comedian brings “populism 2.0” to Ukraine. *The Telegraph*. <https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2019/03/31/fictional-president-poised-become-real-thing-tv-comedian-brings/>
59. Lunt, P. (2019). Talking to People IV: focus groups. In *Springer eBooks* (pp. 199–214). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-16065-4_11
60. Maarek, P. J. (1995). *Political Marketing and communication*. John Libbey Publishing.
61. Macafee, T., McLaughlin, B., & Rodriguez, N. S. (2019). Winning on social media: Candidate Social-Mediated Communication and Voting during the 2016 US presidential election. *Social Media + Society*, 5(1), 205630511982613. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2056305119826130>
62. MacAloon, J. J. (2013). This great symbol. In *Routledge eBooks*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203819852>
63. Marquart, F., Brosius, A., & De Vreese, C. (2019). United Feelings: The mediating role of emotions in social media campaigns for EU attitudes and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 21(1), 85–111. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15377857.2019.1618429>

64. Marquart, F., Goldberg, A. C., Van Elsas, E. J., Brosius, A., & De Vreese, C. H. (2018). Knowing is not loving: media effects on knowledge about and attitudes toward the EU. *Revue D'intégration Européenne/Journal of European Integration*, 41(5), 641–655. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07036337.2018.1546302>
65. Martín-Santana, J. D., Muela-Molina, C., Reinares-Lara, E., & Rodríguez-Guerra, M. (2015). Effectiveness of radio spokesperson's gender, vocal pitch and accent and the use of music in radio advertising. *Business Research Quarterly*, 18(3), 143–160. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brq.2014.06.001>
66. Martin, J. A. (2016). Digital platforms and differential gains. *Electronic News*, 10(4), 243–259. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1931243116672258>
67. Menon, S. V. (2008). Political Marketing: A Conceptual Framework Munich Personal REPEC Archive. Munich Personal RePEc Archive. <https://mpira.ub.uni-muenchen.de/12547/>
68. Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*. SAGE.
69. Munger, K., Bonneau, R., Nagler, J., & Tucker, J. A. (2018). Elites tweet to get feet off the streets: Measuring regime social media strategies during protest. *Political Science Research and Methods*, 7(04), 815–834. <https://doi.org/10.1017/psrm.2018.3>
70. Mykhalchuk, S. O. (2019). The impact of internet-communications on electoral processes in Ukraine (on the example of parliamentary elections of 2012). *Grani*. <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/268616576.pdf>
71. Newman, B. I. (2010). Obama The Brand: A paradigm shift in marketing and polling. *PRAXIS*, 46–53.
72. Nikulina, O. (2019, August 28). Political advertising on television during the parliamentary campaign. CHESNO. <https://www.chesno.org/post/3540/>
73. Nyhuis, M., Gosselt, J. F., & Rosema, M. (2016). The psychology of electoral mobilization: a subtle priming experiment. *Journal of Elections, Public Opinion and Parties*, 26(3), 293–311. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17457289.2016.1160909>
74. O'Cass, A. (1996). Political marketing and the marketing concept. *European Journal of Marketing*, 30(10/11), 37–53. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090569610149782>
75. Obozrevatel. (2019, April 1). Portnikov called the main phenomenon of the 2019 presidential elections in Ukraine. OBOZREVATEL. <https://www.obozrevatel.com/ukr/president-2019/portnikov-nazvav-golovnij-fenomen-viboriv-prezidenta-2019-v-ukraini.htm>
76. Philo, G. (1993). Political advertising, popular belief and the 1992 British general election. *Media, Culture & Society*, 15(3), 407–418. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016344393015003005>

77. POLITICAL LANDSCAPE Collocation | Meaning and Examples of use. (2024). In Cambridge University Press. Retrieved June 3, 2024, from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/example/english/political-landscape>
78. Political marketing in the United States. (2014a). In Routledge eBooks. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203095218>
79. Political marketing in the United States. (2014b). In Routledge eBooks. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203095218>
80. Posada, N. (2013, September 13). How did the printing press affect the Protestant Reformation [Slide show]. Prezi. <https://prezi.com/bhuprxjt3q4-/how-did-the-printing-press-affect-the-protestant-reformation/>
81. Prochazka, F., & Schweiger, W. (2018). How to measure generalized trust in news Media? An adaptation and test of scales. *Communication Methods and Measures*, 13(1), 26–42. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19312458.2018.1506021>
82. Ptrikeyeva, N. (2021, September 11). Politicians' spending on social media advertising increased by a third in 2021. CHESNO. <https://www.chesno.org/post/4853/>
83. Saputra, A., Tannaris, I., Hubert, K., Gaol, F. L., & Matsuo, T. (2023). Social Media as the Most Effective Means of Business Promotion Today with Using Social Media Advertising Technology. In *Lecture notes in networks and systems* (pp. 639–652). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-1624-5_47
84. Sharma, P., & Grover, A. (2021). Does political marketing strategy affect performance of national political parties in Lok Sabha elections? *Indian Journal of Marketing*, 51(4), 27. <https://doi.org/10.17010/ijom/2021/v51/i4/158469>
85. Skogerbø, E., & Krumsvik, A. H. (2014). Newspapers, Facebook and Twitter. *Journalism Practice*, 9(3), 350–366. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17512786.2014.950471>
86. Sobaci, M. Z., Eryiğit, K. Y., & Hatipoğlu, İ. (2016). The net effect of social media on election results: the case of Twitter in 2014 Turkish local elections. In *Public administration and information technology* (pp. 265–279). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-17722-9_14
87. Temple, M. (2013). The media and the message. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 12(2–3), 147–165. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15377857.2013.781479>
88. The importance of the printing press for the Protestant Reformation, Part one. (n.d.). Reformation 21. <https://www.reformation21.org/articles/the-importance-of-the-printing.php#sthash.rFCuyuOi.dpuf>
89. The social media is discussing the advertising of Poroshenko's Facebook page. (2018, July 4). Слово І Діло. <https://www.slovoidilo.ua/2018/07/04/ogljad/polityka/merezhi-obhovoryuyut-reklamu-storinky-poroshenka-facebook>

90. Tkachenko, O., Yanenko, Y., Sydorenko, O., Sypchenko, I., Dudchenko, L., & Rudenko, N. (2020). Marketing communications in election campaigns. https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3656990
91. Tranová, K. L., & Veneti, A. (2022). The use of podcasting in political marketing: the case of the Czech Republic. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15377857.2021.2024479>
92. Valera-Ordaz, L., Calvo, D., & López-García, G. (2018). Conversaciones políticas en Facebook. Explorando el papel de la homofilia en la argumentación y la interacción comunicativa. *Revista Latina De Comunicación Social*, 73, 55–73. <https://doi.org/10.4185/rlcs-2018-1245>
93. Vinogradova, S., Melnik, G., & Shaldenkova, T. (2021). Political Technologies: the interaction of old and new. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 20(1), 60–71. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15377857.2020.1869858>
94. Webster, P. F., & Webster, F. (1995). Theories of the Information Society. In Routledge eBooks. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203991367>
95. Wolfsfeld, G. (2005). INFOCORE definitions: “Political actors”. Herzliya, Interdisciplinary Center. <http://www.infocore.eu/results/definitions/>
96. Wring, D. (1997). Reconciling marketing with political science: Theories of political marketing. *MM. Journal Of Marketing Management/Journal Of Marketing Management*, 13(7), 651–663. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257x.1997.9964502>
97. Yousef, M., Dietrich, T., & Rundle-Thiele, S. (2021). Social advertising Effectiveness in Driving Action: A study of positive, negative and coactive appeals on social media. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health/International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(11), 5954. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18115954>

ANNEXES

Glossary

Term	Definition
Attack advertising	It refers to a form of communication, like a poster or a brief video broadcasted on television or other platforms, wherein a political party expresses disapproval or resorts to derogatory remarks against an adversary (Attack Ad Collocation Meaning and Examples of Use, 2023).
Political activity	Any action undertaken by an individual with the belief or intention of influencing on government, public opinion or political parties, both domestically and internationally (22 U.S. Code § 611 - Definitions, n.d.).
Political actors	People with political power and authority in a society who influence decisions, policies, media coverage, and outcomes in a conflict. In democracies, this includes elected leaders, candidates, policymakers, government ministers, and opposition legislators (Wolfsfeld, 2015).
Political campaigns	The timeframe preceding an election, during which politicians make efforts to convince people to vote for them (Political Campaign, 2023).
Political communication	The creation and influence of persuasive political messages, campaigns, and advertising, mainly through mass media channels (Chandler & Munday, 2011).
Political landscapes	The overall context or environment in which a political activity occurs (Political Landscape Collocation Meaning and Examples of Use, 2023).
Political marketing	Political marketing refers to the promotional activities in political communication, through which political candidates share their ideas and promote themselves to voters. It involves strategic and skillful communication techniques aimed at garnering public support (Çiftçi, 2021).
Political relationship marketing (PRM)	It is a response to the decline of voter participation in political life and is a concept opposed to conventional political marketing. It consists in taking care of long-term initiatives and sustainable development, constant work with voters, not just on the eve of the elections. PRM is also more compatible with modern political marketing tools, for example – social media, etc (Abid et al., 2021).

Term	Definition
Political advertising	Political advertising is defined as a form of communication used by political candidates or parties to influence voters' opinions and behaviors through various media channels. It typically includes advertisements that promote a candidate's image, policies, and positions, while also potentially discrediting opponents. Political advertising aims to inform, persuade, and mobilize voters by highlighting key issues and differentiating candidates (Fowler & Ridout, 2013; Wang et al., 2020)
Marketing message	A marketing message is a stimulus aimed at providing users with relevant product information. It should be informative, attention-grabbing, and elicit a response from users. Effective marketing messages are simple, sufficient, and timely, helping consumers decide if the product meets their needs in terms of functionality, price, and post-purchase service. (Wang et al., 2020)
Social Media Platform	An online platform that aims to build communities online and engages them to share content and exchange opinions via messages and posts (Baghestan & Kalantari, 2020).

Matrix of Descriptive statistics

	count	mean	std	min	25%	50%	75%	max	variance	range	skewness	kurtosis
SocialMediaImpact	192	2,8125	0,968753	1	2	3	3	5	0,938482	4	0,594121	-0,05101
YouTubeImpact	192	3,427083	1,104439	1	3	4	4	5	1,219786	4	-0,22567	-0,88063
PrintedImpact	192	2,151042	1,019752	1	1	2	3	5	1,039894	4	0,710156	0,278285
OnlineMediaImpact	192	2,296875	1,102302	1	1	2	3	5	1,215069	4	0,45538	-0,58901
RadiolImpact	192	2,395833	1,106659	1	1	2	3	5	1,224695	4	0,500903	-0,13645
TVImpact	192	2,171875	0,974352	1	1	2	3	5	0,949362	4	0,609298	0,17402
IrritationFromSocialM	192	3,463542	1,087157	1	3	4	4	5	1,18191	4	-0,16491	-1,0313
IrritationFromYouTubeAds	192	3,552083	1,027066	1	3	4	4	5	1,054865	4	-0,30281	-0,72377
IrritationFromPrinted	192	2,057292	0,89901	1	1	2	2	5	0,808219	4	1,022553	1,515968
IrritationFromOnlineMedia Ads	192	3,213542	1,130826	1	2	3	4	5	1,278769	4	-0,10002	-0,88984
IrritationFromRadioAds	192	3,645833	0,662838	3	3	4	4	5	0,439354	2	0,539407	-0,69988
IrritationFromTVAds	192	3,421875	1,132176	1	3	3	4	5	1,281823	4	0,031801	-1,00656
OutdoorAdsImpact	192	2,338542	1,05104	1	2	2	3	5	1,104685	4	0,762159	0,046444
IrritationFromOutdoorAds	192	2,859375	1,137654	1	2	3	4	5	1,294257	4	0,322753	-0,93153

Pearson Correlation Matrix

	SocialMediaImpact	YouTubeImpact	PrintedImpact	OnlineMediaImpact	RadioImpact	TVImpact	IrritationFromSocialM	IrritationFromYouTubeads	IrritationFromPrinted	IrritationFromOnlineMediaads	IrritationFromRadioads	IrritationFromTVAds	OutdoorAdsImpact	IrritationFromOutdoorads
SocialMediaImpact	1													
YouTubeImpact	0.26118592	1												
PrintedImpact	0.267308463	0.26118592	1											
OnlineMediaImpact	0.052399777	0.043629853	0.267308463	1										
RadioImpact	0.360165292	0.001478315	0.030252499	0.08771626	1									
TVImpact	0.084241118	0.019005045	0.115843128	0.2037484	0.07313645	1								
IrritationFromSocialM	0.627925152	0.021756893	0.33739433	0.1984445	0.360195162	0.075606871	1							
IrritationFromYouTubeads								1						
IrritationFromPrinted	0.284808702	0.192604352	0.085033219	0.0530376	0.460824183	0.351676035	0.533905898		1					
IrritationFromOnlineMediaads	0.041705397	0.188236209	0.258925681	0.36842463	0.13342512	0.603027431	0.042324742	0.334132495	0.151146772	1				
IrritationFromRadioads	0.060636457	0.220040147	0.5002982	0.7189566	0.112000162	0.028287838	0.144774095	0.317195043	0.151146772		1			
IrritationFromTVAds	0.038729324	0.064068501	0.195742076	0.26647457	0.213529807	0.399760908	0.054642805	0.173339178	0.218736569	0.136060983		1		
OutdoorAdsImpact	0.220477472	0.228588159	0.13498114	0.0459505	0.209195	0.3136133	0.5252362	0.498511806	0.245056168	0.06254623	0.044039931		1	
IrritationFromOutdoorads	0.15329675	0.028142403	0.201170077	0.39181565	0.01676593	0.588813806	0.237667483	0.427362933	0.660900669	0.27258581	0.180521149	0.573830884		1
	0.013954726	0.214465826	0.239539607	0.37163975	0.31734972	0.191955612	0.069913198	0.318558627	0.043752131	0.5784853	0.101107844	0.104097751	0.136352931	

