The Impact of Political Advertising through Social Networking Sites on Egyptians' Political Orientations and Choices

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	This paper examines the influence of political advertising through social networking sites on Egyptians' political orientations and choices. The objective of this paper is to determine how Egyptians' social networking sites users are interested in political promoting campaigns and how they deal with such campaigns. Also the paper measures the impact of these campaigns in influencing the current political events, the individuals' political choices and orientations, and the extent to which they can rely on such campaigns. A structured questionnaire has been developed and posted for two weeks on social networking sites; only 397 questionnaires were valid for statistical analysis. Research findings showed that Egyptians are interested in the political promoting campaigns through social networking sites, Egyptians believe that political promoting campaigns have a significant effect on the political situation, and Egyptians deal positively with the political promoting campaigns. Furthermore the political promoting campaigns through social networking sites have a low effect on Egyptians' political orientations and choices. Finally, Egyptians believe that political promoting campaigns through social networking sites have low level of credibility. These results can provide insights for Egyptian politicians to use social networking sites as an essential promoting channel to achieve the appropriate change in Egyptians' political orientations and beliefs. This paper is of great significance to many parties in Egypt; ranging from sophisticated politicians to any ordinary teenager or individual. The study shows the importance of social networking sites in the Egyptian society and how they can be incorporated to affect the country's political condition.

1- Introduction

The objective of this study is to determine how Egyptian users of social networking sites are interested in political promoting campaigns and how they deal with such campaigns. Moreover, this paper measures the impact of campaigns on influencing, current political events, the individual's political choices and orientations, as well as, the extent to which individuals can rely on such campaigns.

Worldwide, the ways social media are changing communication have received a lot of media attention in the past few years. Social media tools are said to give people the ability to connect and unite in a crisis, raise awareness of an issue worldwide, and usurp authoritarian governments. These tools can be used to quickly get information, such as, to locate a nearby hospital in case of emergencies. The increased awareness brought on by social media can help raise a significant amount of money for a cause. For the first time, everyone can be a journalist.

As countries around the world discover the influence of social media, citizens have begun to use its power to improve their lives; one such country, Egypt, has created a new standard for social reform through social media and networking. Egypt possesses a long and rich history, a cohesive kingdom from around 3200 B.C. Over thousands of years, various nations ruled Egypt; in 1952, it finally gained independence from outside

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rulers, ousting the British-backed monarchy. Since then Egypt has been a republic, and until the revolution of 2011, was ruled by President Hosni Mubarak who had attempted to reform Egypt's slow economy by decentralizing it. However, that didn't work, and Egypt's citizens remain poor, 20 percent living below poverty level. The country ranks 21st in the world for Internet users, with just over 20 million users in 2009 out of a population of 83 million or roughly one quarter (The World Factbook, 2011). This is surprising if one considers the Internet a vital instrument in the Egyptian revolt.

Social media and networking have come to define a new generation of communication and have created a platform that possesses limitless abilities to connect, share, and explore our world. Social media is content created and shared by individuals on the web using available websites which allow members of the site to create and display their photos, thoughts, and videos. Social media allows people to share content with a select group or with everyone. Social media is a way for communicating with one or more people at the same time. These sites allow people to communicate in real-time; thereby effectively developing democracy. This is because, social media sites give people a voice to express their opinions about government, television, political leaders, and any other issues of concern. Sites like Twitter, Facebook, and YouTube allow power to be shifted to people. They create two-way communication between individuals or small groups and the general public.

Social media is not a new idea, however; people have used technology for decades to communicate, mobilize voters for political participation and, "while it has only recently become part of mainstream culture and the business world, people have been using digital media for networking, socializing and information gathering – almost exactly like now – for over 30 years" (Borders, 2009).

Political marketing bears a number of similarities to the marketing of goods and services. Consumers choose among brands just as voters choose among candidates or parties. Consumers display brand preferences (party loyalty and party identification) and are exposed to mass media (campaign advertising) and direct sales ("get-out-the vote" efforts), which may rely on various emotional appeals and social influences. Candidates, like firms, choose product positions (policy positions), determine promotional mix (allocate campaign resources), and conduct market research (polling). These decisions need to account for and anticipate competitors' actions, implying that candidates participate in games of strategic interaction.

However, there are also important differences. First, unlike consumers who can usually purchase their preferred product, the winner-take-all nature of elections ensures that in almost every election, a significant proportion of voters choose a candidate who is not elected. Second, similar to consumer choices, political attitudes and choices are inherently determined in a social context, but the election process (e.g., its winner-take-all nature) provides voters a significant incentive to influence others and thus dramatically magnify social considerations compared to many product and service choices. Third, there is a distinct temporal rhythm to political marketing, with most elections (purchase opportunities) occurring every 2 to 4 years, each with a clear endpoint. Fourth, while firms probably prefer to maximize the sum of discounted profits, a political candidate's objective function is murkier (e.g., a candidate might participate in a race with little expectation of winning in order to build a reputation that could serve her in the future toward non-political goals).

Recently, research opportunities in political marketing have attracted a growing number of scholars across the field. The central role of competition naturally attracts those academics skilled in applying analytical and empirical modeling. The importance of communications and persuasion attracts those who seek to bridge behavioral work in consumer choice to political settings.

Political campaigns are some of the most expensive marketing efforts in existence today (The Economist 2010). Yet, research in marketing and political science is inconclusive on a number of fundamental questions about the marketing of political candidates: How does advertising affect voters (Lau et al. 1999)? How should candidates allocate marketing budgets across campaign activities (Bartels 1988; Gerber and Green 2000)? How should candidates choose policy positions (Adams et al. 2005)? These questions fall at the intersection of marketing and political science. Despite early efforts to draw attention to such questions (Rothschild 1978), marketing scholars have largely ignored them; making this area a fertile ground for research.

This study is inspired by the instability of political conditions in Egypt in the past couples of years. Such conditions provoked the researcher to develop the following research problem; the extent to which political

promoting campaigns through social networking sites can affect the Egyptians' political orientations and choices. Moreover, how credible and reliable such campaign on Egyptians?

2- Literature Review

2.1. Political Marketing

Harrop (1990) perceives political marketing not just about political advertising, party political broadcasts and electoral speeches, but about covering the whole area of party positioning in the electoral market. Kavanagh (1995) sees political marketing as electioneering, i.e. as a set of strategies and tools to trace and study public opinion before and during an election campaign in order to develop campaign communications and to assess their impact. A similar view is expressed by Scammell (1995).

Maarek (1995) conceptualizes political marketing as, "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". He considers the introduction of marketing in politics as an outcome of "the elaboration of a policy of political communication...a global strategy of design, rationalization and conveyance of modern political communication". One terminological inconsistency should be noted though. In the aforementioned figure, Maarek appears to equate a company's consumer products with a political party's political communications. Such a parallel cannot be drawn, as a party's "product" consists not of its political communications but of; a) its ideological platform and its set of policy proposals, b) the party leader, the candidates and party officials and c) party members in general.

In Maarek's view, political marketing has become an integral and vital component of political communication. In his words: "Political communication...encompasses the entire marketing process, from preliminary market study to testing and targeting". It should be noted that Maarek admits that the main areas of application of political marketing are image-making campaigns and election campaigns.

Lock and Harris (1996) point out that "political marketing is concerned with communicating with party members, media and prospective sources of funding as well as the electorate", while Wring (1997) defines political marketing as "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".

O' Cass (1996) argues that the use of marketing "offers political parties the ability to address diverse voter concerns and needs through marketing analyses, planning, implementation and control of political and electoral campaigns". Taking this one step forward he argues that "the central purpose of political marketing is to enable political parties and voters to make the most appropriate and satisfactory decisions". O' Cass (1996) uses an exchange model to define political marketing. According to him, when voters cast their votes, a transaction takes place. In return for their votes, the party/candidate offers better government and policies after election. This way, O' Cass argues that marketing can be applied to political processes as it is specifically interested in how these transactions are created, stimulated and valued. Lock and Harris (1996), commenting on the exchange model, argue that it has "a great deal to offer as a working definition of political marketing". They note though that, as it is, the exchange definition of political marketing is broad enough to include "everything that is conventionally regarded as political science".

Scammell (1999) notes that, due to the rapid expansion and the diversity of this field of science, there is still no consensus on the definition of political marketing. In her view, political marketing shares with history, the desire to explain political leaders' behavior; with political science, the desire to understand the political processes; and with political communication, an interest in the art of persuasion.

2.2. Political Advertising

Political advertising includes all means and technologies required and necessary to attract public opinion, and therefore the votes of the voters, as well as providing appropriate causes that are chosen according to several personal and objective criteria, thus creating an appealing and ideal image for a political candidate's, while showing and highlighting the negative aspects of the competing candidates in front of public opinion and the electorate (Alsamydai, M. 2000).

The axis of the political advertising must be established according to the following:
1. A political ideology that should be displayed first.
2. A communicative methodology, which must remain simple and represent a solution for the problems felt by the public.

In an earlier work on political advertising in Western democratic systems, the editors defined televised political advertising as "moving image programming that is designed to promote the interests of a given party or individual" (Kaid and Holtz-Bacha, 1995).Thus the definition incorporates "any programming format under the control of the party or candidate and for which time is given or purchased". As media systems, channels, and formats of communication have expanded and evolved, the central elements of this definition have remained useful, but a more modernized and professionalized definition now suggests that political advertising should be viewed as "any controlled message communicated through any channel designed to promote the political interests of individuals, parties, groups, governments, or other organizations." This broader conceptualization not only implies the controlled and promotional aspect of the message but acknowledges the different formats, channels, and sponsors that may characterize such communications in a given environment.

As political advertising developed in various media environments and as social changes led to a weakening influence of once-powerful social characteristics and subsequent political predispositions, election campaigns became more important. Traditional social structures have lost their meaning for the individual and no longer prescribe individual behavior in a binding way. Therefore, social variables that played a central role in the classical models of electoral behavior no longer predict voting decisions with the same probability that they once did. Instead, political behavior has become unstable and fluctuating (Holtz-Bacha, 2002). In fact, findings from several Western democracies have shown that party ties are weakening. Voter volatility, as expressed in increasing numbers of floating voters, and voting abstention has been attributed to the so-called dealignment process (Dalton, 2002). This is a process that seems to be going on in many countries but not at simultaneously or with the same speed everywhere. With voters being more unpredictable and their electoral decisions open to short-term influences, election campaigns have gained new importance. It is therefore not surprising that political leaders would be interested in the use of political communications, such as political advertising that provide for the controlled and unmediated conditions that best serve their campaign interests.

2.3. Political Propaganda and Persuasion
Taithe and Thorton (2000) see propaganda as part of a historical tradition of pleading and convincing and therefore, as a form of political language. However, propaganda is always articulated around a system of truths, and expresses logic of exclusive representation. Since the purpose of propaganda is to convince, to win over and to convert; it has therefore to be convincing, viable and truthful within its own remit. The shaping of the term propaganda is also an indication of the way the political nation judges the manner in which political messages are communicated. Propaganda may shape the communities, as well as defining them.

Qualter (1962) emphasized the necessity of audience adaptation:
"Propaganda, to be effective, must be seen, remembered, understood, and acted upon . . . adapted to particular needs of the situation and the audience to which it is aimed". Influencing attitudes, anticipating audience reaction, adapting to the situation and audience, and being seen, remembered, understood, and acted on are important elements of the communicative process.

Pratkanis and Turner (1996) defined the function of propaganda as "attempts to move a recipient to a predetermined point of view by using simple images and slogans that truncate thought by playing on prejudices and emotions". They separated propaganda from persuasion according to the type of deliberation used to design messages. Persuasion, they said, is based on "debate, discussion, and careful consideration of options", to discover "better solutions for complex problems," whereas "propaganda results in the manipulation of the mob by the elite". Coombs and Nimmo (1993) regarded propaganda as "an indispensable form of communication" and "a major form of public discourse;" however, they presented propaganda as "the mastery of all modern forms of palaver"—that is, "the use of guile and charm". Their approach is similar to Ellul's, for they state, "The volume and sophistication of the new propaganda is so vast, and growing, that we increasingly take it for granted as natural and, thereby, we find it exceedingly difficult to distinguish what is propaganda from what is not". Although their major interest is political propaganda, they also focus on advertising, marketing, and sales pitches. These definitions vary from the

general to the specific, sometimes including value judgments, sometimes folding propaganda into persuasion, but nearly always recognizing propaganda as a form of communication.

Politics, at its core, is about persuasion. Various theories and explanations of persuasion have been suggested throughout the centuries. The roots of the study of persuasion can be traced in Ancient Greece. Greek philosophers were mainly concerned with the issues of ethical means of persuasion. Since Aristotle defined his principles of persuasion in his *Rhetoric,* there have been attempts at defining the principles of successful persuasion but for most of human history, persuasion has been studied as an art.

In the early 1900s, research on (political) persuasion was carried out mostly as propaganda analysis and public opinion research. Studies of propaganda in the early part of the twentieth century can be regarded as the antecedents to the social scientific study of persuasion. "After World War II, researchers stopped referring to their subject of study as propaganda and started investigating various constructs of persuasion" (Jowett and O'Donnell, 1992).

The research on persuasion has focused on the characteristics of the source of communication i.e. the communicator, and tried to figure out the influence of these characteristics on the communicator's persuasive endeavors. The communicator's credibility, expertise, likeability and similarity to the audience are some of the characteristics that have been tested by the researchers.

Perceived credibility consists of the judgments made by a message recipient concerning the believability of a communicator (O'Keefe, 2002). Hovland and Weiss (1951) had hoped to show that high credibility or (good "ethos") increased persuasion; they claimed that the credibility of a source would affect the incentives for changing one's attitude. They contrasted the credibility effect of the American physicist Robert Oppenheimer with that of the Soviet newspaper Pravda by giving the same message (one with reference to Oppenheimer, the other with reference to Pravda) about the nuclear submarines; "U.S. subjects were more persuaded by the [same] message from Oppenheimer in those Cold War days"(Deaux et al., 1999). This is attributed to the fact that for the U.S. subjects Oppenheimer represented high credibility with expertise, whereas Pravda was perceived as a source with low credibility with no expertise.

As O'Keefe underlines both expertise and trustworthiness emerging as basic dimensions of credibility because only when these two aspects exist together can we have reliable communication. "A communicator who knows what is correct (has expertise) but who nevertheless misleads the audience (is untrustworthy, has a reporting bias) produces messages that are unreliable guides to belief and action, just as does the sincere (trustworthy) but uninformed (low-expertise, knowledge-biased) communicator (O'Keefe, 2002).

Other studies on source characteristics have demonstrated that physically attractive sources were more effective than less attractive ones. For example, Chaiken's study of messages about university dining hall menus found that attractive persuaders had a greater persuasive effect than did unattractive persuaders (Chaiken, 1979). Experiments have also shown that people are more easily persuaded if they share some similarities with the source (Goethals & Nelson, 1973).

2.4. Social Media
"Social Media" are "a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, which allows the creation and exchange of user generated content" (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). As of June 2010, 22% of time spent online (or one in every four and a half minutes) is spent using social media and blog sites worldwide ("Social Networks/Blogs Now Account for One in Every Four and a Half Minutes Online," 2010). The global average time spent per person on social media sites is now nearly five and a half hours per month (Grove, J. 2010). Popular social media include Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, YouTube, Flickr, and Tumblr.

Information Communication Technology (ICTs) is defined by Manuel Castells as "the converging set of technologies in microelectronics, computing (machines and software), telecommunications/broadcasting, and optoelectronics." For the purpose of this discussion, social media networks (SMNs), a subset of ICTs, will be defined as "online tools and utilities that allow communication of information online and participation and collaboration" (Newson et al., 2008). Additionally, social media tools are websites that "interact with the users, while giving them information."

To understand how social media can be used for social change, it is important to understand the ways that one can communicate online. This section will discuss the ways that users can communicate and interact with groups of people. A group can be a formally organized number of people or simply people who identify with similar values or who have a common interest or experience. For example, Flickr users who tag their photos with the same event tag could be considered a group.

Users can:

1.   Virtually join a group.
2.   Get updates and messages about a group.
3.   Read, post, or comment on news and information.
4.   Receive / send private messages with group leaders and members.
5.   Read and engage in transparent conversations that can be seen by others "Lurk" in a group—read information without making oneself known as a follower or member of the group.
6.   Interact with others despite social or location boundaries.

Online communication is different from the one-way communication of television, radio, and newspapers because online users can respond to messages in real time, not just receive them. However, much like learning of a news story from television, receivers of that information are not necessarily prone for action. Even those who virtually "join" a group may take no further action. "Instead of attending meetings, workshops and rallies, uncommitted individuals can join a Facebook group or follow a Twitter feed at home, which gives them some measure of anonymity but does not necessarily motivate them to physically hit the streets and provide fuel for a revolution" (Papic and Noonan, 2011).

An important aspect of motivating social change is convincing people that their participation will make a difference, especially if their participation will require them to experience personal discomfort or danger. This is no small task.

In large groups, such as those involved in a collective political protest, the contribution to the action of each ordinary member (i.e., one who is not a leader of the group) has no discernible impact on the group's overall success; therefore, the rational individual will not absorb the cost of participation(such as time, financial resources, or the threat of physical injury), since he or she will enjoy the public good in any case if others provide it (Finkel et al., 1989).

2.4.1.   Social Media in Egypt and the Arab world

Social media allowed Egyptians living under dictatorship to communicate with the world. Egyptians used Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube to send millions of internet links, news, articles, videos, and free campaigns to people all over the world. The internet allowed people living in a state that controlled traditional media to complain about conditions. News quickly spread because Twitter allowed Egyptians to upload information in as it happened and write comments about their government. This helped to gain national attention because Egyptians wanted change for their country. Social media allowed the free speech that wasn't allowed by the government.

The significance of social media tools cannot be appreciated without being placed within the context of media culture in the Arab world. Over the last ten years, the Arab region has experienced the highest rates of technology adoption amongst all developing nations (Howard, 2011). According to Bernard Lewis, "Perhaps the single most important development is the adoption of modern communications. The printing press and the newspaper, the telegraph, the radio, and the television have all transformed the Middle East" (Lewis, 2011). Though Internet penetration has increased dramatically over the last several years, with 40-45 million Internet users identified in 16 Arab countries surveyed in 2009; the technological capabilities of modern life that are taken for granted in highly developed societies have progressed in a relatively short span of time and have not been embraced by the authoritarian governments that dominate the Middle East (Abbassi, 2010). "Print and visual media developed within decades of each other in the Arab world, as opposed to developing through centuries in Western Europe," so it is of little surprise that "ruling elites fear the Internet as a conduit for political and moral subversion, and this fear has dominated the discourse on the use of the technology" (Hammond,2007). Before 1990, media ownership fell mostly in the hands of the government, subject to strict censorship and supervision. This was largely a result of the 1952 revolution which "claimed a monopoly on truth and hence had to have a monopoly over the means of propagating it as well" (Ayalon, 1995). The 1996 launching of Al-Jazeera, the scion of independent media broadcasting in the Middle East represents a pivotal moment in the history of Arab media, a "revolution in Arabic-language television" and establishing itself as "a forum for debate on human rights, fundamentalism, religion and

corruption, offending just about every Arab state in the process." As Internet access has proliferated across the Arab region, a "highly ambivalent and complex relationship between media and governments" has developed, in which Arab autocracies have encouraged Internet penetration in the name of economic development, while simultaneously attempting to maintain control over the spread of information and media sources (Khamis and Vaughn, 2011). This complex relationship between increasing Internet accessibility and a complementary increase in suppression of online freedom has led to a culture of subversion, an "emerging cyber world that knows no physical boundaries," based on online social networking (Salmon, C.T. et al. 2010). With a lack of truly independent and representative media, disenfranchised youths have searched for an alternative method of participation in the public and political spheres.

2.4.2. Social media and politics

The Internet has undoubtedly destabilized many of the features of the analog world that we once took for granted. The ease with which we can now communicate across vast distances to audiences that were formerly inaccessible to any one of us has fundamentally changed how our culture operates. The effective decentralization of the communications architecture that was once uniformly controlled by a few large corporations has made the role of the mass media in our lives vastly different than it was just a few years ago.

One area in which these changes are keenly felt is in the realm of politics. Although modern elections are still fought primarily on the airwaves, many potential voters are spending less time in front of their televisions and more time taking in news content online. With increasing consumer use of online platforms, the strategies employed by politicians seeking office have been forced to change with them as well. Modern election campaigns must now wage war on two fronts; one traditional (television), and the other very new (online). The interplay between these spheres, however, is poorly understood.

Vitak, J. et al., (2011) indicate that SNSs social network sites continue to grow in popularity as sites for users to share information about their thoughts and activities, and that Facebook has had the biggest growth in recent years with more than 400 million active users. The site's affordances suggest it might be well suited for increasing political participation, in part through the ability to acquire greater political knowledge, increase political interest, and improve political self-efficacy, all of which have been linked to greater political participation in prior research. For example, users can join political groups, download candidate applications, and share their political opinions through the many communication tools on the site. Users can view their friends' activities by scrolling through the News Feed on their home page, and they can comment on friends' posts, thus engaging in active conversation about political issues. From a resource perspective, these affordances also offer affordable (i.e., free) opportunities to develop civic engagement skills with little to no additional time costs for users of Facebook, while simultaneously having access to a potentially large enough ''public'' to develop civic skills.

3- Developed Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been developed for this paper:
H1: There is an interest in the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites.
H2: The political promoting campaigns on social networking sites affect the political situation.
H3: The users deal positively with the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites.
H4: The political promoting campaigns on social networking sites are highly credible.
H5: The political promoting campaigns on social networking sites affect individuals' political orientations.
H6: The political promoting campaigns on social networking sites affect individuals' political choices.

4-Research Methodology

The present study is confined to Egyptians' social networking sites users. The structured questionnaire has been developed, and to improve its structure and content the questionnaire was shown to academicians in marketing departments in different universities in Egypt and to experts in politics. Suggestions and inputs were given and considered and with that, the questionnaire had been posted on social networking sites i.e. Facebook, Twitter and Instagram for a period of two weeks. A total of 397 completed questionnaires were

valid for statistical analysis. The questionnaire is divided into two sections. Section A is designed to obtain demographic information about users, and the questions focused on age, gender, educational level, etc. Section B has 14 statements relating to six main dimensions namely, users interest on political promoting campaigns, effect on the political situation, how they deal with political promoting campaigns, political promoting campaigns credibility, effect on political orientations and, effect on political choices.

4.1. Measurement

The questionnaire included perceptual measures that were rated on a five-point Likert scale. Each scale item was anchored at the numeral 1; 1 = "strongly disagree"; 5 = "strongly agree". Several statistical techniques were used including frequency analysis, descriptive analysis, Cronbach's alpha, and t-test. The t-test was used to accept/reject the hypotheses through testing the average mean of single sample, based on the value of scale midpoint, the higher value the more favorable the attitude, and the vice versa. A midpoint equal to 3 was chosen by adding the lower coded value of the Likert scale (1) and the upper coded value (5) of the Likert scale and dividing it by 2.

4.2. Demographic Profile of the Respondents

As shown in table 1, the total sample for the quantitative study is 397 respondents after the editing and validation process. It can be depicted from table 1 that the majority of the respondents are males (78.1%) as compared to females (21.9%) see table 1 and graph 1. This indicates that males are more interested in political promoting campaigns through social media networking sites compared to females. With regards to age, around 80% of the respondents belong to a young age group. This suggests that younger individuals are more interested in political promoting campaigns through social networking sites compared to older individuals. As shown in table 1, 76.1% of the respondents who are interested in political promoting campaigns through social media networking sites are bachelor degree holders or below compared with those holding masters or doctoral degree.

Table 1 *Socio-economic Profile of Respondents*

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	310	78.1
Female	87	21.9
Age		
Below 20 years	127	32.0
Between 20 and 30 years	190	47.9
Between 30 and 40 years	55	13.9
Over 40 years	25	6.3
Educational Qualifications		
Below bachelor degree	113	28.5
Bachelor degree	189	47.6
Masters degree	63	15.9
Doctoral degree	32	8.1

5-Results

5.1. Reliability and Validity of the Measures

Table 2 shows that, obtained Cronbach's alpha value for all items in this study is 0.88. This shows a high degree of reliability, as a reliability coefficient of Cronbacj's Alpha 70% or higher is considered acceptable in most social science research situations.

Table 2 *Reliability Coefficient*

Number of cases	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
397	0.88	14

5.2. Hypotheses Testing

Table 3 shows that users are interested in the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites. The analysis illustrates that the overall mean score of respondents, which measures the users interest in political promoting campaigns on social networking sites is (3.87), which is above the scale midpoint with

standard deviation that shows a small dispersion around this mean. This result was further validated by one sample t-test, which revealed that the overall mean difference for the individuals interest in the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites was statistically significant (sig. 0.000) with high t-value (t= 25.26). As a result, hypothesis H1 is accepted, which is; there is an interest in the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites.

Table 3: *One sample statistic and t-value of attitude statement regarding interest in political promoting campaigns*

Dimension 1: Interest in political promoting campaigns	Test value=3			
Statements	Mean score	Std dev.	t-value	Sig
1- Political promoting campaigns through social networking sites are important to me.	3.9219	.86541	21.226	**0.000**
2- I am interested in the political promotional messages that posted on social networking sites.	3.8186	.95998	16.991	**0.000**
Interest in political promoting campaigns	3.8703	.68639	25.263	**0.000**

Table 4 shows that political promoting campaigns on social networking sites affect the political situation. The analysis illustrates that the overall mean score of respondents, which measures the effect of political promoting campaigns on social networking sites in the political situation is (3.80), which is above the scale midpoint with standard deviation that shows a small dispersion around this mean. This result was further validated by one sample t-test, which revealed that the overall mean difference for the effect on political situation was statistically significant (sig. 0.000) with high t-value (t= 26.57). As a result, hypothesis H2 is accepted, which is; the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites affect the political situation.

Table 4: *One sample statistic and t-value of attitude statement regarding the effect on political situation*

Dimension 2: effect on political situation	Test value=3			
Statements	Mean score	Std dev.	t-value	Sig
3- I believe that the political promotional campaigns have an impact in society.	3.8489	.90862	18.615	**0.000**
4- I believe that the various political promotion campaigns have an effect in the current political events.	3.9496	.85427	22.149	**0.000**
5- I believe that the political promotional campaigns changed the political reality.	3.6146	1.03235	11.862	**0.000**
Effect on the political situation	3.8044	.60308	26.575	**0.000**

Table 5 shows that users deal positively with the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites. The analysis illustrates that the overall mean score of respondents, which measures how users deal with the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites is (3.74), which is above the scale midpoint with standard deviation that shows a small dispersion around this mean. This result was further validated by one sample t-test, which revealed that the overall mean difference for how individuals deal political promoting campaigns on social networking sites was statistically significant (sig. 0.000) with high t-value (t= 26.45). As a result, hypothesis H3 is accepted, which is; the users deal positively with the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites.

Table 5: *One sample statistic and t-value of attitude statement regarding dealing with political promoting campaigns*

Dimension 3: dealing with political promoting campaigns	Test value=3			
Statements	Mean score	Std dev.	t-value	Sig
6- I receive promoting campaigns from political parties on social networking sites.	3.7053	.86240	16.295	**0.000**
7- I receive promoting campaigns from political candidates for elections via social networking sites.	3.6071	.99329	12.177	**0.000**
8- I forward the political promotion campaigns to friends via social networking sites.	3.8489	.95205	17.765	**0.000**
9- I discuss the content of the political promotion campaigns with others through social networking sites.	3.8086	.88399	18.225	**0.000**
Dealing with political promotion campaigns	3.7424	.55925	26.452	**0.000**

Table 6 shows that the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites have low credibility. The analysis illustrates that the overall mean score of respondents, which measures the credibility of political promoting campaigns on social networking sites is (2.60), which is below the scale midpoint. This result was further validated by one sample t-test, which revealed that the overall mean difference for the credibility of the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites was statistically significant (sig. 0.000) with low t-value (t= -7.36). As a result, hypothesis H4 is rejected, which is; the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites are highly credible.

Table 6: *One sample statistic and t-value of attitude statement regarding the credibility of the political promoting campaigns*

Dimension 4: credibility of the political promoting campaigns	Test value=3			
Statement	Mean score	Std dev.	t-value	Sig
10- I believe that the political promotion campaigns on social networking sites are credible.	2.6020	1.07675	-7.365	**0.000**
Credibility of the political promoting campaigns	2.6020	1.07675	-7.365	**0.000**

Table 7 shows that the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites have low effect on individuals' political orientation. The analysis illustrates that the overall mean score of respondents, which measures the effect of political promoting campaigns on social networking sites on individuals' political orientation is (2.70), which is below the scale midpoint. This result was further validated by one sample t-test, which revealed that the overall mean difference for the effect of the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites on individuals' political orientation was statistically significant (sig. 0.000) with low t-value (t= -4.07). As a result, hypothesis H5 is rejected, which is; the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites affect individuals' political orientation.

Table 7: *One sample statistic and t-value of attitude statement regarding the effect on political orientation*

Dimension 5:the effect on political orientation	Test value=3			
Statement	Mean score	Std dev.	t-value	Sig
11- I believe that the political promotion campaigns on social networking sites led to change my political orientations.	2.7003	.99154	-4.071	**0.000**
Effect on political orientation	2.7003	.99154	-4.071	**0.000**

Table 8 shows that the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites have low effect on individuals' political choices of political organizations and political candidates for election. The analysis illustrates that the overall mean score of respondents, which measures the effect of political promoting campaigns on social networking sites on individuals' political choices is (2.60), which is below the scale midpoint. This result was further validated by one sample t-test, which revealed that the overall mean difference for the effect of political promoting campaigns on social networking sites on individuals' political choices was statistically significant (sig. 0.000) with low t-value (t= -4.25). As a result, hypothesis H6 is rejected, which is; the political promoting campaigns on social networking sites affect individuals' political choices.

Table 8: *One sample statistic and t-value of attitude statement regarding the effect on political choices*

Dimension 6: effect on political choices	Test value=3			
Statements	Mean score	Std dev.	t-value	Sig
12- I believe that the political promotion campaigns on social networking sites influence my choice of the political parties.	2.6977	.89855	-0.472	**0.000**
13- I believe that the political promotion campaigns on social networking sites influence my choice of the political individuals.	2.6650	1.00308	-3.209	**0.000**
14- I believe that the political promotion campaigns on social networking sites influence my choice of the political candidates for elections.	2.6171	.97934	-2.556	**0.000**
Effect on political choices	2.6599	.54222	-4.251	**0.000**

6- Discussion and Conclusion

The new revolution in social media has exploded into an effective communication tool, not only for social connections, but also for political reforms and social actions. Perhaps social media was not absolutely critical to the political change in Egypt; however, it helped to develop a way for political change, which would have been impossible without it. Looking at the impact of social media on Egypt, it has been observed that people ask for a Facebook profile rather than a telephone number; chat online rather than talk on the phone; emailing has even started to decline in comparison to the increase in use of social media and blogs, and around the world, social media has opened new possibilities for communication and social change.

The objective of this study is to determine how Egyptian users of social networking sites are interested in political promoting campaigns and how they deal with such campaigns. Moreover, this paper measures the impact of campaigns on influencing, current political events, the individual's political choices and orientations, as well as, the extent to which individuals can rely on such campaigns.

This study contains six dimensions. Each dimension has its own corresponding hypothesis; three hypotheses were accepted and three were rejected. Research findings indicate that Egyptians are basically interested in political promoting campaigns on social networking sites. Additionally, Egyptians confirm the great impact of such campaigns on the community at large through affecting political reality and political events. This study also reveals that political promoting campaigns posted on social networking sites are positively received and dealt with by Egyptians. This finding can be used by politicians such as, (organizations, individuals, and candidate for elections) in effectively achieving their political goals. On the other hand, Egyptians believe that these campaigns have low level of credibility and reliability. Hence, this study concludes that political promoting campaigns on social networking sites have a low impact on the individual's political orientations and choices such as, (political organizations, political individuals, and candidate for elections).

To sum up, politicians should depend more on social networking sites in disseminating their political promoting campaigns; they should also develop the style and content of the promoting message in a way which enhances its ability to affect and achieve the appropriate change in individual's orientations and belief. Also, they ought to adopt the reliability concept as an essential feature in their posted campaigns and fulfill their given promises, as, reliability is the base of confidence building and is essential in achieving the required change in individual's orientations for the benefit of those politicians.

Finally, in order to create the right impact, a political party needs to make its presence felt on at least one of the social networking sites, such as, Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Flickr....etc. because they are the fastest growing and furthest reaching of social networking sites and they present striking ways of publicizing to and connecting with individuals.

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