UNIVERZA V LJUBLJANI

FAKULTETA ZA DRUŽBENE VEDE

Shpend Sadiku

Increasing Purchase Intention for Kosovo Local Brands

Zviševanje nakupnega namena za
lokalne blagovne znamke na Kosovu

Magistrsko delo

Ljubljana, 2014

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Zviševanje nakupnega namena za lokalne blagovne znamke na Kosovu

Povzetek

Kosovski lokalni proizvodi le s težavo pridobivajo tržni delež zaradi ostre konkurence uvoženih izdelkov. Posledično sta na Kosovu prisotna velik trgovski primanjkljaj in problem brezposelnosti, kar pa škoduje gospodarstvu. Eden izmed razlogov za tako nizek tržni delež lokalnih kosovskih proizvodov je nizkanakupna namera kosovskih potrošnikov. Ta raziskava je ugotavljala, kateri dejavniki vplivajo na povečanjenakupne namere zalokalne kosovske blagovne znamke, zato je preverjala ali ima izpostavljenost oglasom preko družbenih medijev večji vpliv na nakupno namero kot pa izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizije. Poleg tega je preverjala tudi ali utilitaristična motivacija bolj poveča tonakupno namero kot pa hedonistična.V raziskavi je bil uporabljen interdisciplinarni pristop, saj so bili vključeni naslednji koncepti:blagovna znamka kot osebnost izdelka, družbeni mediji kot komunikacijsko sredstvo, psihološke motivacije in nakupna namera. Raziskava je temeljila na Icek Ajzenovi teoriji planiranega vedenja, kjer stališča do vedenja, subjektivne norme in zaznana kontrola vedenja predstavljajodeterminante namere, vendar sta bili analizirani samo prvi dve determinanti. Da bi bila raziskava bolj uporabna, je bila determinanta stališč do vedenja zamenjana z utilitaristično in hedonistično motivacijo, subjektivne norme pa z izpostavljenostjo oglasom preko družbenih medijev in televizije. Rezultati so pokazali šibko pozitivno korelacijo med izpostavljenostjo oglasom preko družbenih medijev/televizije in nakupno namero, izkazalo pa se je, da imajo družbeni mediji večji vpliv na povečanje nakupne namere zalokalne kosovske blagovne znamke kot pa televizija. Prva hipoteza je torej potrjena, saj so rezultati skoraj statistično značilni.Med utilitaristično/hedonistično motivacijoin nakupno namero za lokalne kosovske blagovne znamke pa je bila ugotovljena le šibka korelacija, s tem, da ima utilitaristična motivacijamočnejšo negativno povezanost z nakupno namerokot pa hedonistična.Druga hipoteza je torej zavrnjena,čeprav rezultati ne morejo podati dokončnega odgovora, saj je model statistično neznačilen.

Ključne besede: Kupna namera, blagovne znamke, družbeni mediji, motivi, Kosovo

Increasing Purchase Intention for Kosovo Local Brands

Abstract

Kosovo local products have difficulty gaining market share in Kosovo due to fierce competition from imported products. This keeps a deep trade deficit for Kosovo and prolongs the problem of unemployment in Kosovo, which, bottom-line, hurts the economy and keeps Kosovo local brands in the shadow of important brands who have already gained economies of scale. This is because the local producers usually do not have enough resources and expertise to compete in an open market. One of the causes of the low market share for Kosovo local brands is the low purchase intention of Kosovar customer. The research aims to test what increases purchase intention for Kosovo local products. This is done through two hypotheses: the first hypothesis tests whether exposure to advertisements in social media (namely, Facebook) increases purchase intention for Kosovo local products more than exposure to advertisements played in TV channels. The second hypothesis tests whether utilitarian motivations increase these intentions more than hedonic motivations. Thus, the dependent variable is the same in both hypotheses. The approach to this research is interdisciplinary, as it includes concepts such as branding as a product personality, social media as a mean of communication, psychological motivations, and purchase intention. Concepts of branding and social media pertain more to the first hypothesis while buying motivations go with the second hypothesis. The ground theory for this research is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) developed by Icek Ajzen in the second part of the 1980s, where attitude towards behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are determinants of intention, but only the first two determinants are tested. To make the research more practical, the determinant of attitude towards behavior is replaced with utilitarian and hedonic motivations, while the subjective norms is substituted with exposure to advertisements on social media and different TV channels. The method of research is probability-based sampling, where surveys are dispersed to 200 respondents of both sexes, different ages and ethnicities in Prishtina, capital of Kosovo. Different (usually three) indicators from the survey questions are combined to build the independent and dependent variables presented in the research. The results from the survey show that there is a positive weak correlation between exposure to advertisement in social media and in TV channels with purchase intention, and indeed, social media is more effective in increasing purchase intention for Kosovo local brands than TV channels when people are exposed to advertisements played on these channels. Thus, the first hypothesis is confirmed as the results are almost significant. However, utilitarian and hedonic motivations have resulted in a weak correlation with purchase intention for Kosovo local brands, and utilitarian motivations having a more negative relationship than hedonic motivation. Therefore, the second hypothesis is rejected albeit the results are inconclusive as the model is insignificant. This research does not only help enrich Kosovo's academic work in this field as not enough research is conducted in this area but it also gives insights to the local producers about the purchase intention of Kosovar customers in relation to Kosovo local brands.

Keywords: Purchase Intention, Brand, Social Media, Motivations, Kosovo

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1 Introduction

Kosovo is the youngest country in Europe with a troubled past. As it is trying to make its way to becoming a fully-functional state with a stable economy, international recognition, and social stability, it is encountering many challenges. One of these challenges is of the economic nature: in a country where the unemployment rate marks 36.9% for the year of 2013, its domestic products struggle to find a proper market share in Kosovo and outside. The reasons for this range from the large and dominating imports from neighboring countries to alleged customer unwillingness to purchase domestic brands. It is on the interest of the domestic companies, the Kosovo labor force, and the whole economy of Kosovo to sell the goods and services produced domestically. Kosovo brands need to gain larger market share; thus, they have to understand the buying behavior of the customers, their purchase intentions, and the channels through which these can be manipulated. Hence, the aim of the research is to find out whether exposure to advertisement on the social media has a stronger impact on increasing purchase intention for Kosovo local brands than exposure to advertisement in TV, and whether utilitarian motivations are stronger drives than hedonic motivations to increase purchase intention for Kosovo brands.

The research begins with explaining the situation of the Kosovo economy with the reference to local production and consumption as well as Kosovo's trade relations with neighboring countries which are the largest exporters in Kosovo, and what these entail. The following section focuses on branding as a concept, the importance of having a strong brand, how the concept of branding has evolved since it has been first presented, especially from the late 1980s until nowadays. Special focus is placed on brand awareness and loyalty because they are some of the most important elements for building a strong brand. The purpose of including branding in the work is due to the fact that estimations claim that companies around the world acquire around 70 percent of their earnings based on the success of their brands, and it is perceived as a strong determinant in purchase intention of the customer, which creates an economic value for the company. The chapter on brand is preceded by the chapter on new media and social media as channels of customer engagement with the brand. In this research, social media takes the place of the channel through which Kosovo local companies brand themselves and their products as they endeavor to reach users and influence their purchase intentions positively. The following section is concerned with the question of what leads to purchase intention, analyzing the *Theory of Planned Behavior*

on which the hypotheses of the research are built, and buying behaviors including motivations for these buying behaviors. This research divides motivations in utilitarian and hedonic. Utilitarian motivation is defined as the rational, goal-oriented, and cognitive motivation which is rather instrumental and directs towards performing a behavior which maximizes the utility of the subject. Utilitarian motivations belong to the information-processing perspective, which views and assesses the behavior or product based on the function that it generates: the benefit that a behavior exerts is motivation from a utilitarian perspective. On the opposite end, hedonic motivation is defined as the search of emotions such as happiness, friendship, enjoyment and fantasy, and esteem experienced while performing a behavior. Thus, hedonic motivation focuses on the experience of performing a behavior or the process itself. The focal point of the research is the concept of purchase intention, which is viewed through the lens of the element of "intention" in the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) which is developed by Icek Ajzen in middle 1980s as an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) developed by the same author. The TPB serves as the ground theory for this research, and it argues that three determinants influence the intention, and ultimately, the behavior: attitudes towards the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. Purchase intention is the consumers' inclination to buy a particular product or service that is influenced by his or her perceptions of the product, attitude towards the product, and satisfaction from the product. Purchase intention is a term used to describe the willingness to purchase, and likelihood to recommend a product or service to others, and the center question of the whole research is what increases purchase intention for Kosovo local products. Efforts to answer this question are important not because of the advancement of academic research in this field in Kosovo but also for practical purposes as it helps local Kosovo producers understand how to attract customers and gain market share.

2 Current Status of Kosovo Products

According to a research conducted in March 2011 by GAP Institute of Advanced Studies, a Kosovar research think tank, in 2006, Kosovo's exports had a value of € 110.774 million, while its imports reached the value of € 1.3billion (Institute for Advanced Studies GAP 2011). In 2010, Kosovo exported products which equaled € 294.031 million, while its imports accounted for € 2.1 billion. According to the *Trade Exchanges of Kosovo 2010* report published by the Ministry of Trade and Industry of Kosovo, 44.7% of the products were exported to EU countries, 24.1% to CEFTA countries, while 31.2% of Kosovo products reached other countries, such as China or Turkey. Regarding the imports, the EU countries take 38.4%, CEFTA equals 37.3%, while other countries have 24.3% of Kosovo's market share (Ministry of Trade and Industry 2011). This trade deficit creates economic problems as domestic production is the backbone of the economy of a country (Institute for Advanced Studies GAP 2011, 6; 13).

Figure 2.1: Export and Import in Kosovo

Source: Statistical Office of Kosovo

Source: Institute for Advanced Studies GAP (2011, 6).

According to the Statistical Office of Kosovo, Kosovo exports mostly raw materials, such as nickel, cast-iron and steel, ores and ash, unprocessed leather of livestock, and the like, while it imports products such as material burning fuels, machinery, transportation vehicles, and other

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high and low technology products. As seen from the data, the capacities of Kosovo to produce finished good are either not advanced enough or have not been utilized yet for such economic purposes. Kosovo sells primary goods which are used for the process or the parts of the finished goods produced in the EU, CEFTA countries, or other places of the world. Agim Shahini, the director of the Kosovar Alliance for Businesses, argues that amongst all the countries in the region, Kosovo has the lowest consumption of domestic products. According to him, this situation requires an increase of customer awareness for local brands. The reasons for customers' hesitations to purchase local products range from price convenience to the quality of the products. Kosovo's international trade agreements have also added to this issue (Konushevci 2009).

2.1   External Obstacles and Internal Challenges

Kosovo is a full member of the Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA), which, currently encompasses all the countries of the Western Balkans and extends to more countries of the South-Eastern Europe which aim to join the European Union. Although the CEFTA membership has brought benefits to Kosovo, such an access to a free regional market, it has had its drawbacks. First, Kosovo faces political problems with Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina as they do not accept Kosovo's products. More related to the topic is the fact that the free-market policy and the laissez faire have also had a negative impact in Kosovo's producers. On average, the prices of Kosovo's local products are not competitive in comparisons with the prices which are offered by various countries in the region, especially Serbia, Macedonia, and Albania to a certain extent. The first reason as to why the imported products prevail in the Kosovo market is because the price of these products is more affordable for the general customer. The price of the product is often determinant in purchase because Kosovo, as most of the Western Balkans, is a price-sensitive market (Institute for Advanced Studies GAP 2011, 10).

Kosovo's openness to a bigger market is prone to create even further disturbances among the local producers. In the period of 2012 – 2013 Kosovo has started the negotiations on the Free Trade Agreement with the European Union. The Trade Department of the Ministry of Trade and

Industry of Kosovo conducted a study on impact assessment of this agreement. The Department found out that this agreement would cause disturbances in the market flow as Kosovo is not ready to compete with the region when it comes to exporting products, let alone the European Union. According to this analysis, due to the lack of capacities to produce and export products in a competitive manner to an open market, the agreement will not bring strong benefits to Kosovo's economy; therefore, in order to boost the exports, high level investments are necessary. Moreover, it will lower Public Revenues because the tariffs and quotas will be reduced.

Local Kosovar producers experienced a boom during the period of the reciprocity measures with Serbia and Bosnia& Herzegovina, a decision taken by the Ministry of Trade and Industry of Kosovo. This decision was a result of the Serbia and Bosnia & Herzegovina continuous blockade of Kosovar products due to political reasons regarding the Kosovo stamps as none of the countries recognize the state status of Kosovo. The reciprocity measures lasted roughly two months during the period of 20 July – 10 September 2011. According to the VETEVENDOSJE (Self-determination) movement, which is a member of the Assembly of Kosovo, during this period, Kosovo businesses have achieved a sales growth of 10%, 20% to even 50%. Further and more detailed data on this growth are not available or published for a more exact and in-depth analysis. However, the Kosovo businesses enjoyed this period as their market share expanded in the absence of the Serbian products which has had a large percentage of the market share in Kosovo although in the recent years, this market share has decreased in percentage (from 22.7% in 2002 to 12% in 2010). During these years, Kosovo has expanded its trade relations with the countries of the European Union, Mostly Germany on the side of imports (2002: 3.9%, 2010: 33.5%) and Italy on the side of exports (2002: 27.3%, 2010: 61%). (Ministry of Trade and Industry 2011*)*

As seen from the CEFTA and FTA cases, the current low production capacities of Kosovo hinder the development of the free market in Kosovo and its aspirations of accessing the big markets of the European Union. Moreover, Kosovo's local producers and businesses are able to achieve success almost exclusively when protective measures, are taken (the case of reciprocity).

3   Brand and Brand Management

3.1   The importance of a strong brand

"Before 1980s companies wished to buy a producer of chocolate or pasta: after 1980, they wanted to buy KitKat or Buitoni" (Kaferer 1997, 18). In 1980s people started to become aware of the concept of the brand, and companies began to understand the importance of product differentiation in the market, for the customers were not simply willing to consume the product, but also the brand. The etymology of the word "brand" comes from Old Norse "brand" which means "to burn" (Bourbab and Boukili 2007, 19). In fact, one of the primitive methods of stating ownership was to stamp the livestock or other property with a burning mark which indicates the owner; thereby, differentiating the ownership of the livestock. In more recent definitions, a brand according to American Marketing Associations defined as "a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them which is intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Kotler 2001, 396). Elements which contribute to product differentiation are colors, shapes, logos, sounds, catch phrases, etc. Technically this means that whenever a marketing manager creates a name, label, or symbol for a new product, he or she creates a brand. In real-world marketing practice, however, a brand refers to a name or symbol that projects awareness, reputation, and prominence in the marketplace: a brand is defined as the personality of a product or company (Takamura and Christensen 2007, 2–3).

At times customers have the tendency to purchase products of a strong brand, even when these products are more expensive than the brands of other competitors. This is due to the fact that the savvy customers nowadays do not only choose the product per se, but also the experience that the product promises and projects." They simply want a good experience, and a brand is a promise that they will have that. This is the reason why a brand is an asset although intangible." (Czinkota and Ronkainen 2010, 308). A brand can be successful if it has three associations; it should be exclusive, it should have strength, and customers should see it as desirable (Kepferer 2008, 51–65). Brands such as Coca-Cola, Ikea, or Sony are unique, strong, and appealing for the market. They have managed to stand out, prevail, and make their brand appeal to people.

The prominence of a brand lies on its power to shape the decisions of consumers; thus, creating positive economic value (revenue and profit) for the company. They are value-creation factors which influence the purchasing decisions of customers. This explains the motivation of the companies to spend a considerable amount of time, money, and effort to building and maintaining strong brands. Estimation claims that companies around the world acquire around 70% of their shareholder value based on the success of their brands (Lindemann 2003). Having a strong brand does not only give a head-start with reference to customers. Partners and suppliers see a strong brand as a more reliable pool for investment and involvement. Therefore, engagement from their side is more frequent when a strong brand is presented. Also, in times of crisis, when a company or industry as a whole is struggling, customers' loyalty and partners' trust in a brand might give the business "another chance" (Mohammad 2012, 42). Therefore, brand plays an imperative role in a company's success. A brand name brings brand equity which is the ability to generate income based on the brand of the product. It also translates to higher profit margins and a better distribution access (Aaker 1991; Keller 2003). To further analyze this, a well-established brand produces customer loyalty (Farhat and Khan 2011, 1–2, 8). This is a relationship which makes the company and the customer willingly co-dependent; the customer does not switch the product brand based on the price or other conveniences because he has established that loyal bond with the company (Robbinette et al., 2001). From this one derives that the stronger the brand, the lower its price-sensitivity. A strong brand is also the recipe for an easier market entry. *Virgin Company* is a personification of a brand which faces no strong difficulties with entering a new market since it already possesses a well-established brand name in the overall market (Kornberger 2010, 33, 36). Once a company has established itself as a powerful brand, it is easier for it to penetrate new market segments. Brand strength does not only pave the way of reaching customers, it also attracts and retains qualified employees to the company because strong brands portray prestige and convey quality (Lemmink et al. 2003, 2). Thus, having a strong brand is not only important in regards to outside exposure (partners, competitors and customers), but it is also significant to the internal factors (employees and managers). David Stimson says: "Think of your brand as a bank account. . . During lean periods, you may need to make withdrawals and rely on the strength of your brand" (Chasser and Wolfe 2010, 17).

3.2   The evolution of branding

The concept of branding emerged in late 1980s, and marketing enthusiasts and practitioners started developing notions and principles of creating and maintaining a strong brand. Thus, brand management appeared as a subfield within the field of marketing and branding, and it is defined as "a balance between preservation, renewal, extension and growth of the prototype on the one hand, and on the other the creation of new products and services to capture new circumstances of use and new customers, and to open new segments" (Kepferer 1997, 205). Time has brought changes to the approach of brand and brand management: two decades ago the brand was perceived solely as a reactive concept which responds to the preferences and needs of the customers (Kotler 2001). Moreover, the aim of building a brand was short-term and immediate financial results were the only desired outcomes of a branding process. Brand managers lacked focus on developing an intricate strategic and visionary process of a brand but they developed tactics which would satisfy short-term requests and preferences of customers. Furthermore, while brand management as a recognizable field was emerging, the brand was merely used as a product identifier; a way of distinguishing one product from another. Rather than having a brand for a corporate as a whole, the brand was segmented only to certain product. The segmented approach of branding persisted until 1995, and 1995 was the year when the brand researchers and managers started to think of the brand in a multidisciplinary approach rather than as a single fixed and segmented approach. Prior to the mid-90s, the focus of branding was much narrower and specific than it is nowadays because the brand researchers and managers were keener to brand the product for its ability to satisfy customers' functional needs, which now is acknowledged as simply a basic feature of differentiating the product (Chernatony 2001, 72–73). Hence, when branding emerged, it was perceived as a short-run and narrowed-down concept which was related to building an image of the product; thereby being only one element of the product itself (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000). This is one reason why the brand-managing position did not rank high in company's hierarchy. The brand managers were not assigned to develop a strategic view of branding a company which would produce long-lasting results and would see beyond the immediate financial success or failure; their sole responsibility was to develop and implement a brand for a certain product (Kotler 2001). During this period branding equaled to investing in and developing an ad and that the view of branding was confined and

fragmented more or less inside one aspect of what branding is now – advertisement (Davis and Dunn 2002, 14–16). These are examples of what the functions of a brand were and how the top-management of companies viewed brand management in a traditional sense.

Eventually brand came to be recognized as a long-term and intricate strategic process involving many aspects and segments of the company as well as its relations with the partners and customers. "Brands are a direct consequence of the strategy of market segmentation and product differentiation" (Kapferer 1997, 31). The keyword in this statement is *strategy;* brand and brand management have transformed from not tactical and reactive notions to strategic and complex concepts which require great effort to plan and implement. Because of the shift from product branding to a more holistic corporate branding, the concept has become more inclusive and multidisciplinary; thus, not only the marketing segment, but also other departments of the company are involved in building and maintaining the brand. Rather than being concentrated only in the characteristics and advantages of a product or service provided by the company, now the company makes an effort to convey the message of its legacy, mission, vision, values and culture (Aker 2004) with the aim of creating a brand at the level of the entire organization (Knox and Bickerton 2003). It is called *corporate branding.* This shift occurred overtime when marketing scholars and officials realized that having a strong corporate brand conveyed the impression of a qualitative brand, which at times of financial risks can help the performance of the company in the market. A recognizable and trustworthy corporate brand can span across different products, which is a comparative advantage in the market as its appeal to customers might win over products deficiencies, especially in difficult times for the company (Balmer in Schroeder and Salzer-Moring 2006, 30–42). In the given figure, the main differences between product branding and corporate branding are enlisted.

Figure 3.1: The main differences between product branding and corporate branding

	Product brands	*Corporate brands*
Management responsibility	Brand manager	Chief executive
Functional responsibility	Marketing	Most/all departments
General responsibility	Marketing personnel	All personnel
Disciplinary roots	Marketing	Multidisciplinary
Brand gestation	Short	Medium to long
Stakeholder focus	Consumers	Multiple stakeholders
Values	Contrived	Real
Communications channels	The marketing communications mix	Total corporate communciations Primary communication: *performance of products and services; organizational policies; behaviour of CEO and senior management; experience of Personnel and discourse by personnel* Secondary communication: *Marketing and other forms of controlled communication* Tertiary communication: *Word of mouth*
Dimensions requiring alignment	Brand values *(covenant)* Product performance	Brand values *(covenant)* Identity *(corporate attributes/subcultures)* Corporate strategy Vision (as held by the CEO and senior management)
	Communication Experience/image and reputation Consumer commitment	Communication Experience/image and reputation Stakeholders' commitment *(internal and external constituencies')*
	Environment *(political, economic, ethical, social, technological')*	Environment *(political, economic, ethical, social, technological)*

Source: Balmer in Schroeder and Salzer-Moring *(2006, 32).*

The *corporate branding toolkit* stated the importance of is of linking and the vision, image, and culture of a brand. It is a virtuous cycle which drives the success of a company. From this, a groundbreaking concept emerged: branding is not a marketing-led concept anymore, but it builds upon a simultaneous involvement of the culture of the organization, its corporate vision, and the very image that it promotes (Hatch and Schultz 2003).

Figure 3.2: The corporate branding toolkit
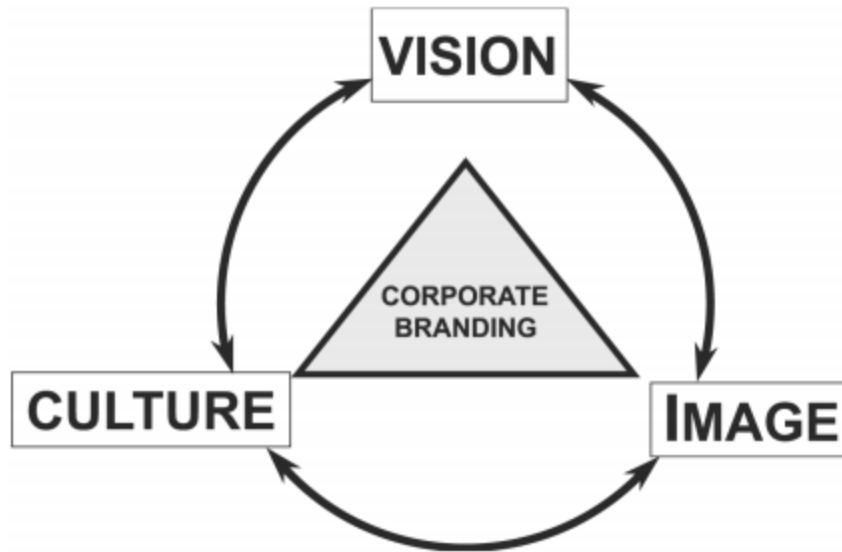
Source: Schultz (2005, 52).

Since the emergence of branding as a distinct field of study, this field has extended and has recognized additional factors which are the building blocks of a brand. Nowadays the consumers themselves are able to play a role in building and retaining a powerful brand, especially with today's developments in the media (which will be discussed further in this thesis). The corporate landscape has become a *brands cape* which "is a material and symbolic environment that consumers build with marketplace products, images, and messages that they invest with local meaning, and whose totemic significance largely shapes the adaptation consumers make to the modern world. Brands caping is one of the ways consumption is actively produced by consumers" (Lynch et al.2009, 61). This reinstates that the scope of branding has broadened and become more holistic as it continues to include more elements in branding; ultimately involving more stakeholders and subjects who are to structure and convey the message of the brand.

A powerful corporate brand is not attained only through the relations that the company has with outside stakeholders, its competitors and customers; it is achieved also through the relations that the company has with its internal players, the employees (Heding et al. 2009, 25–27). Recently it has been assessed that the success of a brand depends also on employee retention

in the company, the extent to which the employees comply with the rules, policies, and standards of a company, and the extra brand-building efforts that the employees commit to and go beyond mere rules and duties that the company has laid out for them (Morhart and Herzog 2010, 1). Employees of the company are recognized and perceived as "brand ambassadors." Customers are not only paying attention to the product they are receiving; the way they are receiving the product is more often than not the factor that distinguishes one company from another and influences customers' purchasing decisions because the customers want to not simply have a good product, but also a good experience in the process. Even though advertising en masse remains a powerful tool in communicating a strong brand, communicating directly with customers is an area which has increased their influence in customers' purchasing (De Chernatony 2001).

Although a relatively new field, branding has evolved over time. The concept started off in primitive times as a sign or mark pointing out ones property. It grew to be a differentiating element for the products when the manufacturing companies wanted to stand out in the market among the competitors depending on the product segment. Fairly recently, branding process has transformed from a marketing-led process for product differentiation to an organization-level effort for corporate market power by integrating the vision, culture, and image of the company and displaying it as a whole in the eyes of consumers, partners, and competitors.

3.3   Brand Management Process

Different models have been built to illustrate effective structures of brand building and brand management. From envisioning to evaluating the brand, it is essential to know what the company wants to present, who it wants to involve in the processes, and other management elements which are analyzed in detail by marketing specialists. To have a rather basic visual view of the process, Boyle has presented a graph which explains the steps of the process of branding and the stakeholders involved. As observed in the graph below, the first stage of brand building is driven or initiated by the company, while the second stage is initiated by the consumer. As noticed, a brand is built upon the involvement of the company and the customers, and since the success of the early stages is almost imperative, companies are careful on how they brand themselves (Boyle 2007, 124).

Figure 3.3: A brand management process

Brand
Loyalty

Post-Consumption
Associations

Pre-Consumption
Associations

Brand
Awareness

Product
Attributes

Repurchase/
Commitment/Love

Purchase
and
Consume

Consumer
Interpretation

Marketing
Communication

New product
Development

Externally
Sourced
Information

Externally
Sourced
Information

Externally
Sourced
Information

Company Driven

Consumer Driven

Source: Boyle (2007, 124).

Research indicates that 75–85 percent of the new launched brands fail the world of market (Kohli 1997). This is one of the reasons why companies work with an immense effort to succeed in the first stage of brand-building: *brand vision*. To have a successful product/brand launch, the company has to provide special benefits and extra value for the customers (Cooper 1994). To gather information on the benefits and values are for the customers, the company communicates with the customers as frequently and openly as possible. A considerable number of researchers agree that when a company desires to start a new brand, it should involve the (potential) customers as extensively and as actively as possible in the initial process of brand developing (Vargo and Lusch 2008, 284–285; Baron 2003). Active immersion is that type where the consumers have the opportunity to manipulate to their advantage the actions that are undertaken to manipulate them (Caru and Cova 2007). Thus, this immersion experience is a two-way process in which the consumer is not merely a receiver, but also a contributor to the brand development. In other words, to start developing a successful brand, a profound comprehension of the needs of the customers is imperative (Chesbrough and Spohrer 2006, 36–39).

There is a difference between the external and internal flags of a brand. The external flag represents the customers and what is presented to them, while the internal flag includes the employees and the staff. The external flag takes into account the outside display of the brand to external factors, while the internal flag accounts for what the brand genuinely is at its core and serves as the foundation of the brand, which is established on the attitudes and relationships that the employees of the company have toward the brand they represent (Chernatony 2001, 9–11). The given figure below explains it more clearly in a visual manner. The bottom components encompass a range of characteristics for the internal processes of a company: values, intellect, and culture, while the top components are rather superficial and technical. Both these flags contribute in great amounts to the envisioning of a brand.

Figure 3.4: Internal and external flags of a brand
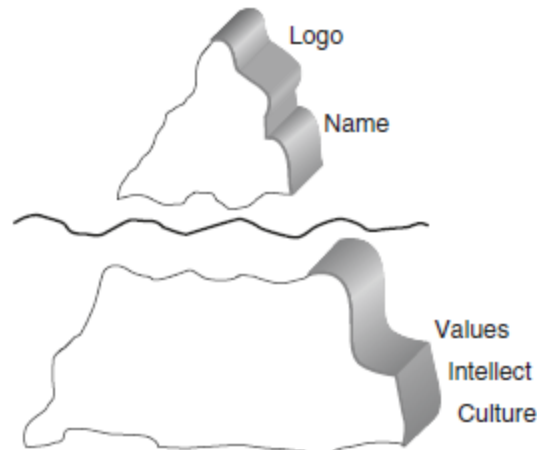
Source: Chernatony (2001, 11).

Moreover, the output of a *brand vision* should be a statement which can be understood by all the stakeholders, internal and external. In addition to customers, the senior management should ensure that the staff engages in the brand-envisioning and brand-building process (Kotter 1996, 90–95). Some of the benefits of involving the staff in this process include:

• wider and notion range

• greater awareness of the staff for the opportunities and threats

• better understanding of the results of the vision

• stronger commitment among the staff as their ideas are taken seriously into account

• stronger cultural bond (Chernatony 2001, 104).

The latter refers to the values that the staff and senior management share. These common values, must be conveyed by the senior management not only by words but, more importantly, by deeds and actions as the senior staff is ideally be the embodiment of these values in the workplace (Kotter and Heskett, 1992).

However, prior to taking into account customers' needs and staff's opinions in the process of brand development, the *Marion Brand Building Process* (2010) presents the *business plan* of a company as a crucial strategic element in the first step of the brand development process, meaning that the top management must decide and understand clearly how it plans to position itself in the market ultimately. Keller in his *Brand Value Chain* claims that one of the first steps in brand building is developing a *Marketing Program Investment.* This value chain is a model of financial returns assessment and the evaluation is done step by step (Keller 2006, 3).

Figure 3.5: The Marion Brand Building Process (the process is adjusted to eliminate the excess information due to the objectives of thesis)

Source: Marion Integrated Marketing (2010, 1).

There are three models for developing and building branding plans:

− *Brand Positioning*: How integrated marketing can maximize the existing competitive advantages.

− *Brand Resonance*: How to make intense and active loyal relationships with customers.

− *Brand Value Chain*: How to understand the financial influence of the marketing/branding expenditures while tracing the process of value creation (Keller 2006, 2).

Brand positioning is the form a product distinguishes itself from other products in the market, known as the "competitive framework." Below is the Nike mental map depicting the product sectors that Nike Company covers. Through the given mental map, it is clear for Nike in what product categories it operates and what character or personality tries to convey to the

customers. This map facilitates the creation of a "competitive framework" as it breaks down the sectors of the Nike Company. Because of this, the company can decide how to differentiate itself in each sector.

Figure 3.6: Nike Mental Map

NIKE MENTAL MAP

Source: Keller (2006, 1).

Brand resonance adds more to the relationship between the customer and the brand as it this notion is not merely focused to making a differentiated appearance, but it nurtures this differentiation by extending its focus to the relationship between the brand and the customers themselves. Creating strong brand resonance translates to a strong customer loyalty towards the company and a weaker association with competitors' products. Keller (2001) has set a pyramid of building strong brand resonance, which is the same pyramid depicted earlier in the thesis, but now with the aim of explaining the concept of brand resonance.

Figure 3.7: Customer-Based Brand Equity Pyramid
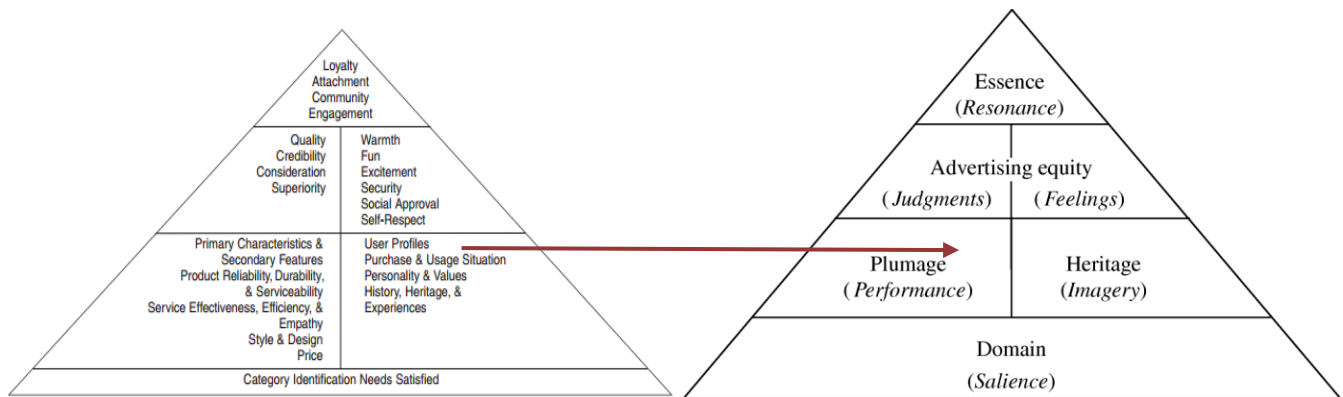
Source: Keller (2001, 7).

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The pyramid blocks illustrate the steps to reaching brand resonance which, according to this model is the peak of a strong impact that a brand has to its customers. The first step is brand salience which symbolizes brand awareness; thus, the first step towards building resonance. The second row of two blocks is performance and imagery, illustrating the meeting of customers' functional (performance) and psychological (imagery) needs. The third row illustrates the opinions and the feelings that the customers have towards the brand. It clarifies if the brand has won the hearts and minds of the people. This is important because nowadays customers are not only seeking gaining functional benefits (performance), but also intangible benefits, such as esteem, lifestyle, and personality. The highest row signifies the level of identification that the customer has with a product (Aziz and Yasin 2010, 8). This is where the company desires to be; if it can make customers identify themselves with the brand and feel a sense of community, it indicates that the brand has achieved the *word-of-mouth* stage, a term coined by Weber (2009, 56). The higher levels cannot be attained if the lower levels are not fulfilled. Simply speaking, if there is no brand salience or awareness, the branding process cannot move up to the brand resonance. Henceforth, careful attention should be paid throughout the whole process and to specific building blocks also.

Brand value chain model focuses on a financial element. Specifically, it focuses on assessing the financial return of brand development. The figure below indicates that this model is more inclusive than the two prior models: It includes as well the relations the company has with other stakeholders, like competitors and shareholders, asides the customers. This is a step-by-step assessment and it is performed at the same time as the process of brand building takes place. The first step illustrates the basic investments that a company undertakes to establish a brand. The second step envelops the whole *brand resonance* pyramid. The element of awareness in the value chain is the equivalent of brand salience in the pyramid. The element of association equals to the second stage: *performance and imagery*. The attitude (intention; acceptability) parallels with the *judgment* of the pyramid's third row, while attachment (loyalty; addiction) is basically the same as the element of *feeling* in the third row of the pyramid. The last element is *activity,* which according to Lehman parallels the Weber's *word-of-moth* stage and the *resonance* stage of the brand resonance pyramid. The third step emphasizes the relationship of the company with the competitors, while the last step focuses on the financial returns for shareholders (Lehmann 2006, 29).

Figure 3.8: Brand Value Chain

Brand Value Chain

VALUE STAGES	Marketing Program Investment	Customer Mindset	Market Performance	Shareholder Value
	- Product - Communications - Trade - Employee - Other	- Awareness - Associations - Attitudes - Attachment - Activity	- Price premiums - Price elasticities - Market share - Expansion success - Cost savings - Profitability	- Stock price - P/E ratio - Market capitalization
MULTIPLIERS	Program Quality	Marketplace Conditions	Investor Sentiment	
	- Relevance - Distinctiveness - Consistency - Cohesiveness	- Competitive reactions - Channel support - Customer size and profile	- Market dynamics - Growth potential - Risk profile - Brand contribution	

Source: Keller (2006, 3).

A successful brand management is attained by exploring and understanding customer purchasing behavior. How do customers buy? A classic approach of customer's behavior is the rational approach which argues that the customers purchase items based on reason only; no other factor is considered (Scott in Browning et al. 2000, 126). Another behavior is the corporate image established by a strong corporate identity (Vella and Melewar 2008, 3–5). The corporate identity usually includes sensible cues (audio, visual, etc.), but it can also involve intuitive aspects, such as the dominating and trustworthy stand that a company has in the market. For instance, customers are influenced by the overwhelming success of the Apple Company; thus they purchase its upgraded and new products. Heding (2009), et al. extend the identity approach further by introducing the *personality approach,* which includes the aspects of the identity approach but adds unique elements to which the customers can relate to. This can be a certain lifestyle the brand portrays or a specific cause the brand promotes (branding with/for a cause is one of the most important elements of this thesis to be discussed later). As an example, customers purchase GAP products because a certain percentage of certain products are allocated to the foundations which aim to help AIDS victims in Africa. Another element which sometimes gets lost in the branding equation is the fact that the customers are able to influence each other's purchasing behaviors, especially now when networking has extended to the virtual world and

space barriers are no longer an issue in most cases. This *subcultures or brand-communities approach* allows for the people to feel as if they belong to a group by identifying themselves with that particular brand (Algesheimer, et al, 2005). Social influence is the key factor to this approach and this relates to the third layer of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, the love and belonging layer depicted below along with other layers of the hierarchy.

Figure 3.9: Maslow: Hierarchy of needs
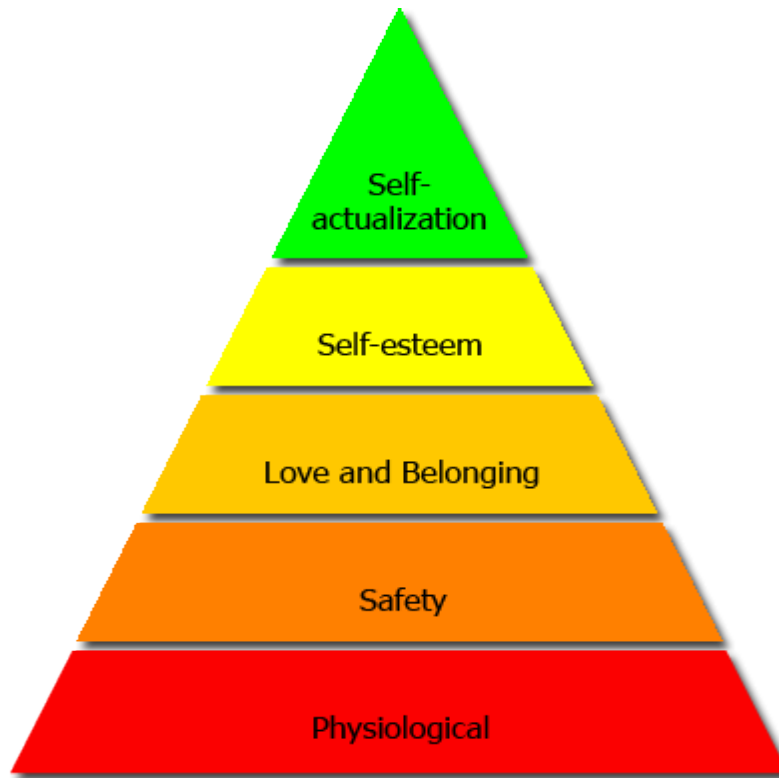
The final approach is the *cultural approach:* a rather anthropological approach where the studies and research are undertaken at a macro-level. The collective mind is where the focus is directed, not the individual. The individual is an echo of the culture and the collective set, and this approach borrows research from many other disciplines to understand the customer behavior in terms of culture. The idea is for a brand to become a cultural icon. This approach is an unconventional model which claims that for a brand to survive throughout time and be a successful icon, it needs to adjust the "myth" of its identity to historical contexts. He mentions the mind-share, emotional, and viral branding as the conventional models which generate characteristics of a brand which has been embedded strongly in customers' "conscience." However, according to this author, they are only a consequence of the persistent "myth" of

branding which pursues the customers to think and believe in the benefits that the company claims to provide. The table shows a number of the characteristics of cultural branding (Holt 2004, 6–9).

Figure 3.10: Cultural approach table

Key Words	Cultural icons, iconic brands	Most Appropriate Applications	Identity categories
Brand Definition	Performer of, and container for, an identity myth	Company's Role	Author
Branding Definition	Performing myths		
		Source of Customer Value	Buttressing identity
Required for a Successful Brand	Performing a myth that addresses an acute contradiction in society	Consumers' Role	• Personalizing the brand's myth to fit individual biography • Ritual action to experience the myth when using product

Source: Holt (2004, 6).

Brand management is a challenging concept which, as mentioned earlier in the thesis does not involve the marketing department of the company only; rather, it is now nurtured at the organizational level. A successful brand management requires the company to know itself and to decide what position it wants to take in the market, and that the staff makes the great effort of achieving and maintaining that position. Moreover, it includes knowing the customers and their behavior in purchasing product so it knows how to manipulate their decisions. As the view on branding has evolved and altered in general terms, the brand management has followed this path: it does not perceive branding only as an element which will produce immediate return on investments, but it understands that it can be a long-run process which takes time to be built in strong foundations and blocks.

3.4   Towards a strong brand

Although a recent field, branding brings discourses where scholars argue and debate over how they interpret branding; therefore there are various interpretations on branding. Also, branding interpretations as well as its definitions and approaches are evolving and altering at a fast pace. DeChernatony writes on his book about the difference between brand interpretations between the "input perspective" and the "output perspective" (2001, 27). It describes on how the employees and internal staff perceive and interpret the brand as opposed to how the consumers view it. As De Chernatony argues the input perspective views branding as a legal instrument, personality, risk reducer, positioning, value adder and identifier. On the other hand, the "output perspective" or the consumers' perspective relates to how the brand appears before their eyes and how is its relationship with them. It means that their perception is related to the experience and involvement they have with the brand rather than the vision that they have for the brand. A brand's image might be different from a brand's personality. Brand image is what the consumers see and how they interpret the brand, and because of this careful attention is paid on how to convey the message of branding to the public meaning that the sender (the company) and the receiver (the consumer) must be sure to eliminate the "noise" be that physical or psychological when the message is transmitted so that no misunderstandings appear during the decoding process of communication.

What makes a brand strong and powerful? Some scholars who argue that it is precisely the unique brand positioning image in the market what makes the brand successful (Broniarczyk and Alba 1995, 226–228). However, other scholars believe that a successful brand does far more for the customers than differentiating its product so that they can spot it easier. A successful brand creates meaning for the customer, whether it is a story they can relate to, a problem that it can fix, or an experience they can go through. A strong brand provides for the company the trust and the legitimacy among the customers; both elements crucial for survival and success (Kornberger 2010). Other traits of strong brands include their value function (adding value to the selling product), quality of the products, and inspiring brand vision, and the energy through which the company upholds that vision (Aaker 1996). Various characteristics build a strong brand which influences customers' purchasing decisions although this influence might not be immediate.

Brand managers make great effort to understand how to start and promote a powerful brand because it is imperative if the company wants to survive and succeed in the free-market economy. The next two subsections will discuss two fundamental features of branding: brand awareness and brand loyalty.

3.5   Brand awareness

Brand awareness is one of the factors with a strong impact on the purchase intention of the customers, as agreed by many marketing scholars (Dodds, et al. 1991, 307–319). The higher the brand awareness, the more are the customers inclined to purchase the product of that particular brand. It is what establishes a strong association in customers' memory about a particular brand. Brand awareness is the very prerequisite for Customer-Based Equity Model (CBB), which is a brand-building model with the aim of creating strong brands (Heding et al 2009, 84–95). CBBE is a model which goes by the view that customers' vision, feelings, views, and approaches toward a brand over time are the core of a brand's power (Keller2001, 17). Because the keyword in this definition is "over time," it is very important for a brand following this model to make a strong brand awareness so that it can have a jump start in influencing customer choice. Thus, brand awareness is essential in making a firm first step towards building a strong brand; in other words, brand awareness is the foundation of the further branding process.

Research shows that when brand awareness was high among the consumers, they chose to purchase the products according to the high brand awareness rather than the quality or price even in repeated product purchases. Moreover, according to these researchers, consumers have a perception of high quality for the products that they know (Hoyer and Brown 1990, 147). Based on this premise, one can infer that brand awareness is necessary and beneficial even more when life is very dynamic and consumers do not have the time and do not want to make an effort in going through a long and intricate process of choosing a product. In Hoyer and Brown's words, brand awareness serves as a strong "heuristic" for choosing a particular product. Dodds and Grewal (1991) also argue that brand awareness infers a high quality product which may or may not be try, and therefore it broadens the market share of a brand with a high awareness. According to these scholars, brand awareness has a considerable impact in the ultimate aim of

the companies, which is increasing their market share and establishing dominance in the market. Since the free market and the open competition economy allows not of any favoritism and monopolies, a brand with high awareness among consumers provides an advantage for a company in the market. Viewing this from a psychological perspective, the consumers have a closer affinity with the known and the familiar (Aaker 1996, 11). Also from an economics perspective, when consumers encounter the brand frequently, they perceive it as successful because the companies do not invest in a product which is not worthy of investing.

According to Aaker brand awareness is a broad field and it has several stages. The continuum of brand awareness brand awareness consists of 4 stages.
- *recognition stage*
- *recall stage*
- *top-of-mind stage,*
- *dominant stage* (Aaker 1996, 10).

Brand *recognition* refers to the ability of the consumer to recognize/differentiate the product of one brand from other products; this is a week awareness stage because the customer merely is informed about a product and does not associate it with anything else. An illustration of the recognition stage would be the scenario of people going to the shopping stores without shopping lists, and they recognize the need for the particular points only when they see it presented in front of their eyes. In the *recall* stage, the process is the other way around. While the *recall* refers to the association that the consumers have for a brand when a certain product category is mentioned; for example, when cars are mentioned, the consumer knows that BMW of Volkswagen are car brands. The latter indicates a stronger and higher awareness than the former as, in this component, the consumers prioritize the brands belonging to the same product category. In other words, the recognition stage occurs at the point of purchase (the customer *recognizes* the brand), while the recall stage occurs prior to the point of purchase. The *top-of-mind* stage is even stronger than the two prior stages as the customer thinks of a certain brand first when a product line or category is mentioned. For example, if a brand has reached a *top-of-mind* stage, the customers of cosmetic products think about the brand of Nivea when a product of this category is mentioned. Here, the customers prioritize the brand consciously or unconsciously. In the *dominant* stage, the customers will think only about a certain brand when a product category is mentioned. As an example, the napkin customers think only of the brand of

Paloma when they refer this product category. Moreover, there is a higher level of brand awareness, the *word-of mouth,* which is amplified by social web, and it symbolizes the stage where the brand has such a high awareness to customers that they start recommending it to others (Weber 2009, 31–32). The last level displays a rather high degree of loyalty to the brand.

Urde in his Brand Hexagon (1999), positions brand awareness on the right side of the hexagon, claiming that brand awareness has a rational function, as opposed to brand loyalty, which has an emotional function (Guzman, n.d). Thus, contrary to Weber's belief that a brand can reach such an attachment as to pursue the consumers to talk about the brand (word-of-mouth), brand awareness does not necessarily translate to emotional attachment with a certain brand; rather, it just lets the customer know that the brand is present in the market and it makes an effort to be presented to the customer as much as possible.

Figure 3.11: Brand Hexagon
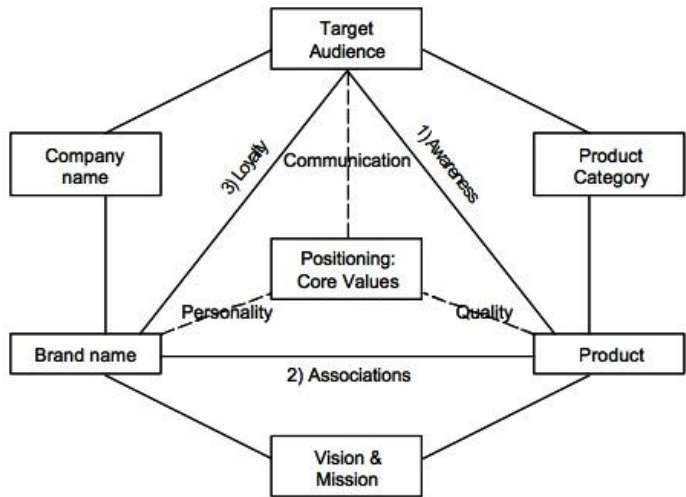
Source: Urde (1999, 130).

Even though brand awareness has this great impact, there is little research in this field until now (Huang and Sarigollu 2012). This means that this field is still being explored and the literature for it is still in the first steps of its development. However, generally brand managers have recognized the importance of the brand awareness and the efforts of making the customers aware of their brands are ubiquitous in the everyday lives of the customers because of its strong effect on purchase intention of the customers.

3.6   Brand loyalty

Although brand awareness has a strong influence in consumer choice, brand loyalty is the one component which perpetrates that influence. In order to feel always comfortable with purchasing a certain product, the consumer must trust the brand; he or she must relate to and identify with it. Brand loyalty is the very essence of the brand's value (Moisescu and Vu 2011, 67). Travis states that brand loyalty is the essence of a brand's equity, meaning that it ties in very closely with the desired outcome of a branding process (Travis 2000, 11). Brand equity depends on how loyal the consumers are to the brand. Moreover, Keller (2008) views brand loyalty as the overall strength of the brand precisely because of this dependency that the brand equity has on it. Brand equity is the value added to or subtracted from a product by a name or logo which symbolizes a brand (Aaker 1991, 4). If a brand conveys high brand loyalty, the brand equity will also be positioned at a high level; therefore, adding value to the product or service. Having loyal customers is important partially because, as it is commonly known, retaining existing customers costs six times lesser than acquiring new ones (Ahmad and Buttle2001, 553). Moreover, some research shows that there is a negative correlation between brand loyalty and evaluation of the products (add: including price-awareness) (Murthi and Srinivasan 1996, 237). Consumers who are loyal to specific brands do not necessarily pay attention to the price every time they make a purchase (Erdem and Swait 2007, 696). Thus, the companies are able to charge premium prices for the products because they have established loyalty among the customers.

Defining and assessing brand loyalty is a particular challenge and provides grounds for debate amongst marketing scholars and practitioners. Definitions range from rather simple to more complex. Aaker simplifies customer's loyalty by measuring their resistance to switch to other brands if the original brand makes an inconvenient change in price or other elements of the brand (Aaker 1991, 13). However, a more encompassing and clear view is given by Baldinger and Rubinson (1996) where they describe the link between the "attitude and behavior" of customers which show brand loyalty. To explain, if a group of consumers have a positive attitude towards one brand, they have the intent of purchasing products of that brand, while when they behave positively towards that brand, they act upon the intent of purchasing the products. It can be noticed that Aaker's (1991) view is simply behavioral while the latter view adds the attitudinal element to the former. To note, brand loyalty is not merely the repeated purchasing

behavior; for a purchasing behavior to be considered as a result of brand loyalty, it must fulfill six conditions: "(1) the biased, (2) behavioral response, (3) expressed over time, (4) by a decision-making unit (5) for one or more alternatives of brands, (6) is a function of a psychological process (Jacoby and Kyner 1973, 2). In other words, when customers are loyal, they will purchase a product because they choose to do it out of the affinity for and trust in the particular brand, and not because of chance or other factors, such as price, simple convenience, or even randomness.

Customer loyalty is the outcome of relationship marketing (Smith 2003). According to Berry as cited by Sheth and Parvatyiar (2002, 61) "relationship marketing is attracting, maintaining and-in multi-service organizations-enhancing customer relationships". Thus, the branding officials have to go through this whole chain of activities to produce one of many outcomes: customer loyalty. Moisescu and Vu (2011, 69) also remind that brand loyalty is depended on prior experiences of the customers with the brand. More than the relationships that customers have with the brand, Labrecque *et al.* believe that customers remain loyal to the brand because of social motivations with the broader community: conformity and/or escapism (Labrecque et al. 2011, 467–469). This reinforces the aforementioned shape of a brand's relationship which is "triadic," involving the relationship among the customers and the relationship between the customer and the brand. It also reinstates the importance of looking at the Maslow's hierarchy of needs, especially the third layer (love and belonging) when discussing brand loyalty.

4   New Media

The intersection of traditional media with digital media, placing a firm accent on the media which serves as a social communication device and interaction makes up the *convergence culture;* a place where the old and new media merge(Jenkins 2006, 22–23). The term "new media" has been used since the 1960s and encompasses an expanding and diversifying set of notions. The definition of the new media has been a debatable and evolving affair among the media scholars. Initially the definition of the new media was in fact the distinction between the analog and digital media with the computer being a key element of differentiation used as a production and distribution tool (Gane and Beerstated 2008, 6; Manowich 2001, 43). However, the definition of the new media does not only cover strictly technical elements. The term "new media" incorporates in itself cultural and social concepts as opposed to the term "digital media" which is defined in technological terms (Dewndey and Ride 2006, 20–22). Technical progress and social structural shifts are both core elements in explaining the evolution of the media and its current state (Van Dijk 2006, 3–6). New media has made a shift by enabling the user to access the information in this media whenever and wherever without time and space constraints, granted the necessary preconditions. It has also granted to the user the distribution of the information in a global level instantaneously.

McLuhan's (1964) renowned quote "The medium is the message" indicates that the content of the medium does not simply transmit the message; rather, the medium itself conveys certain message. A key characteristic of the new media is the interactivity that it allows for the end users; hence, he information flows faster, and the receivers of the information provide feedback which allows for a faster evaluation of the information and its overall impact. Computer-mediated communication (CMC) allows for interactivity, which in turn fosters engagement of the all the parties involved in the communication process (Rafaeli and Sudweeks 1997, para.7). The graph below depicts the flow and the sources of three different forms of communication: one-way, two-way, and interactive communication; the latter is a form of communication which creates a "net" where people engage in different conversations in a web form. The ongoing "communications revolution" is viewed by different media scholars as a revolt against mass communication. The new media structure is egalitarian as it can be generated

and manipulated by more than one party, for the content can be produced and distributed by every user (Enzensberger 1970).

Figure 4.1: Rafaeli's one way, two way, and interactivity communication
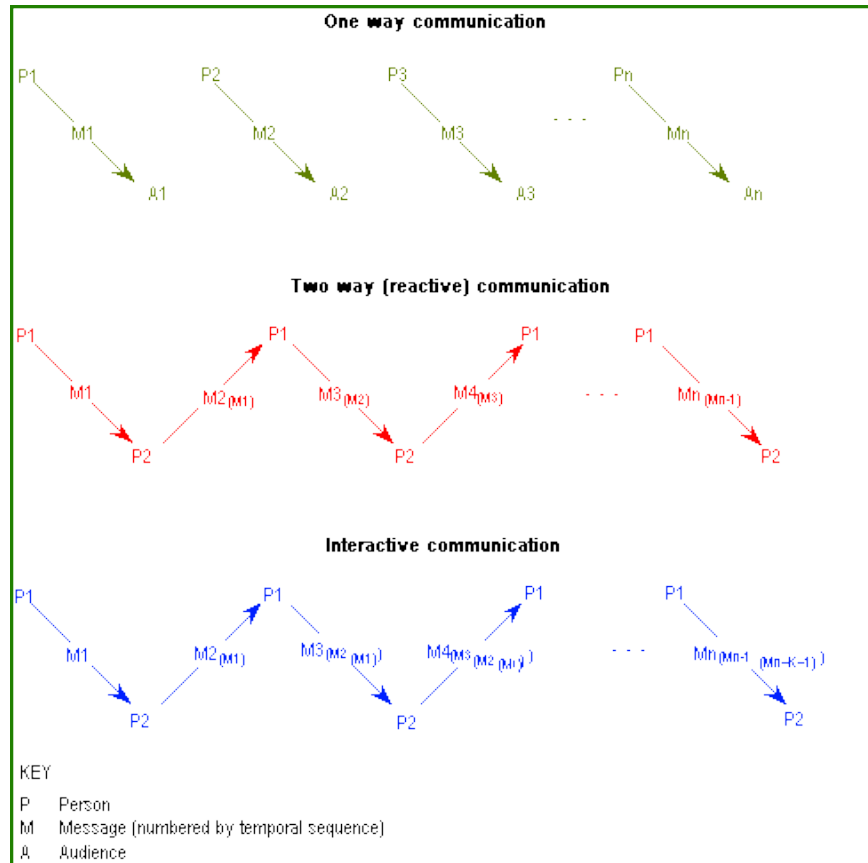
New media has given life to a new "knowledge space," where knowledge flows with no or minimal restraints, and it is amplified by the participation of many users in the World Wide Web (www) (Levy 1985, 22). The new media has become an environment rather than an instrument. Virtual participants do not utilize the cyberspace only as an end-reaching mean, such as sending/receiving information (Poster in Holmes 1997, 212–228). It is precisely the cyberspace which plays a significant role in shaping the identity and culture of the participants."What's new about the internet may be the combination of the interactivity with those features which were innovative for mass communication – the unlimited range of content, the scope of audience, reach, the global nature of communication" (Livingstone 1999, 6). Denis

McQuail out the general differences between the new and traditional media by explaining the main roles of groups which partake in the media space, both old and new. The studied group comparisons consist of the authors, publishers, and audiences.

- For the *authors,* there are increased opportunities, if posting on the Internet, desktop publishing, "blogging" and similar autonomous acts count as publication. There is no need for permission from or link to the mass media if an individual wishes to write on the internet. Being an author through the new media is easier and more feasible in comparison with the mass media. However, mass media is more often than not necessary to give legitimacy and renown to the authors in the cyberspace.

- For *publishers,* the role continues but has become more ambiguous for the same reasons that apply to authors. In the new media world the author has the possibility to have the role of the publisher also. Until the new media, a publisher was typically a business firm or a non-profit public institution, but the new media have introduced alternative forms of publication and present opportunities and challenges for the traditional publishing.

- As to the *audience* role, there are large possibility for change, especially in the direction of greater autonomy and equality in relation to source and suppliers *vis-à-vis* the source. The audience member is no longer really part of a mass, but is either a member of a self-chosen network or special public or an individual. In addition, the balance of audience activity shifts from reception to searching, consulting and interacting more personally (McQuail 2005, 140–152).

In a nutshell, new media has shifted the system through which people view, produce, and distribute, information. Media nowadays is perceived not as a tool helping ends meet, but as an environment or virtual space where people participate. The receivers have also become the senders, and the role of the author, publisher, and audience is juxtaposed in one individual. The novelties that the new media has brought through the Internet have opened the doors for a new era of media communication. A particular form of the new media, which has advanced this system of communication, is social media, which will follow this chapter.

5 What is Social Media?

The proliferation of social media is a result of the advancement of informational technology called Web 2.0, which is generally defined as "the business revolution in the computer industry caused by the move to the internet as a platform and an attempt to understand the rules for success on that new platform" (O'Rielly 2006, para 1). Based on this, a rather generalized definition about social media would be one given by Brian Solis, "social media is many things to many people and represents much more than technology. It represents a societal renaissance that spawned a unique and vibrant ecosystem supported by flourishing cultures and lifestyles" (Solis 2010, 36).

In a more detailed list compiled by the same author, social media is:

- A platform for the socialization of media.

- The online tools that facilitate conversations.

- Connections between friends, peers, and influencers.

- Collaborations.

- The redistribution of influence.

- A call for humanizing personas and audiences, and the stories that link them together.

- Compassionate.

- Words, pictures, video, chatter, audio, and also experiences, observations, opinions, news, and insights.

- An opportunity and a privilege.

- Social media is one chapter in the evolution of new media. Let's consider its affect on terminology.

Because of the ubiquity of the internet, the use of social media has evolved considerably and gained great importance. In the business world, utilizing social media helps promote brands and establish a close relationship between customers and companies (Harris and Rae, 2010). Moreover, using social media as a communications tool is an efficient and effective method of promotion as it is cost-effective, provides feedback, and allows a wide reach of potential and actual consumers.

People began interacting with each other in the public virtual world in 1979 when two Duke University students, Tim Truscott and Jim Ellis developed a discussion system named *Usenet*. This system enabled internet users to post messages which could be seen in public (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010). This public virtual interaction experienced a rapid evolution due to the Web 2.0 platform which has enabled internet users to actively participate in the shaping and molding of the content (Goodchild 2007). This active participation came to be known as *Social Media.* Aside from social networks such as Facebook or Twitter, social media constitutes of a wide range of categories, such as forums, blogs, podcasts, videos (Youtube), wikis, enterprise sites, and the like. Social media is a virtual discussion space enables individuals to share, search, and generate content through Internet while communicating with each other (Avram 2006; Kim et al., 2010). Users engage in social media for two reasons: "extrinsically enjoyable" experience where the users find necessary and useful information and "intrinsically enjoyable" experience which can help them escape from their everyday routine (Calder et al, 2009).

Social media differs from traditional media in two main aspects. The first distinguishing factor is the ability of social media to provide to the users the opportunity to customize the news and have ownership of what, when, and where they want to view the message (Chung 2008). The other factor is the social media granted opportunity to interact and participate actively in the virtual space by making the users more than passive consumers of the content (Szabo and Huberman 2010).

Social media is also called a "collaborative project," indicating that better outcomes of certain objectives are attained when there is a collective effort (Kaplan and Heinlein 2010, 61). Castell stakes McLuhan's statement "the medium is the message" to another level by arguing that "the network is the message" (Castells 2001, 1–8). Social networks allow people of common interests to gather, express themselves, and share their views; thereby, belonging to a certain network which makes a statement). These social networks are defined by the interactions and relationships that people nurture with each other. Similar to non-virtual circumstances, research shows that the high connectivity in social networking is reached through "high degree nodes" or users who are linked to many other users (Mislove, et al. 2007, 1–14). In 1960, Stanley Milgram conducted an experiment analyzing the U.S. mail where he got the notion that everybody is separated by a maximum of six degrees. It is just common-sense to think that the use of social

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media through the Interned has lowered the degrees of separation among people. To follow Castells' claim, the message depends on the social profile and interactions of a person with other participants of the social networking sphere (Evans and McKee 2010).

Social networking is classified in five distinct categories:

- *community-based,* which is used mostly by those who share strong identity bonds such as religion or ethnic group,
- *egocentric*, which serves more for the pursues of the individual self,
- *passion-centric,* used by individuals sharing same passions, interests, and beliefs,
- *opportunistic,* provided for those seeking professional opportunities and career advancements, and
- *media-sharing,* utilized for content-sharing purposes of the individual (Fraser and Dutta 2008, 4).

Therefore, the character of the social networking sites molds and defines the proper attitude and behavior of the users, and different sites are used for different purposes (compare Linkedin to Facebook) (O'Murchu et al., 2004). The categorizations do not change the fact that the rise of social media has given more communication and information power to the common individuals who share and post on social media without being public relations of marketing officials. Story-sharing has been an experience of around 37% Internet users (Purcell 2010, 4). In other words, internet consumers can be simultaneously producers due to the rise of social media (Brusse and Hekman 2012). However, as Weber argues, the easy access to information does not guarantee any benefit unless it is used for such purposes. "Harnessing collective intelligence," as discussed by Ayanso et al., (2011), is one of social media goals (exemplified by Wikis and blogs). In this context, it can be utilized as a knowledge-sharing device from which can benefit people of common interests and/or professions. Social media networks have enabled different organizations to enhance cooperation, find experts, and endorse organizational learning.

5.1   Social Media and Public Relations

Online media has become a new space and a powerful channel of advertising, and spending for advertising online has grown at a very fast pace (Shankar and Hollinger 2007). Social media has provided for businesses a more interactive area of communication with their customers. The importance of communication lays in conversing with the customers, which automatically means listening, rather than talking, to them. This happens because such meaningful conversations can induce relationships, which are crucial to the businesses as they strive for customer loyalty. By conversing with the customers, businesses aim at keeping them posted at all times and engaging them in their activities and. The notion of engagement has grown in prominence in the last decade. An indicator of this is the increased use of the "engagement" term itself in the discourse of the business practitioners and marketing academics (Appelbaum2001). Consumer Engagement refers to "the intensity of the consumer's participation and connection with the organization's offerings and/ or its organized activities" and it is a subfield of relationship marketing which offers to customers not only the instrumental value, but also the experiential value (Hollbeek 2011, 791). Thus, customer engagement attempts to customize the individual experience by making it more meaningful as opposed to one-size-fits-all mass targeting of customers.

Social provides a large number of benefits for companies. First, it builds trust among the customers. Some of the benefits include "enhanced consumer loyalty, satisfaction, empowerment, connection, emotional bonding, trust and commitment." (Brodie et al. 2011, 1). Second, it can learn from customers' feedback about their products in the market. Customers who are addressed and engaged in social networking can provide the company with ideas for a new product/service or improvement of an existing product/service, signs for possible opportunities and/or threats, their overall experience from a certain transaction when customers talk to one another in social media platforms, and company's strengths and weaknesses in the eyes of customers (Evans and McKee 2010). "The Internet and public relations were made for each other. They are both about making connections and establishing one-to-one relationships." (Gowerand Cho 2001). Thus, novelties and benefits of the use of social media in public relations have allowed the practitioners to have more successful, effective, and lasting relationships with customers.

5.2   Social Media and Branding

Social media has shifted the way companies view customers' impact on the success of a company or a particular brand represented by a company. The empowerment of customers has been enhanced through social media, and thus the companies are more careful and alert regarding customers' responses to the products they sell and the experience they provide for the customers: "Today, when you lose a customer, you don't lose just that customer, you risk losing that customers' friends. And thanks to the internet and blogs and consumer rate and review services, your customers have lots and lots of friends all around the world (Jarvis 2009, 21)." The remark is thus multiplied be that on the positive or the negative note. Social media has grown to be a part of people's everyday lives although it started as a media platform more prominent among the adolescents and young adults (Kim 2008). This indicates the significance of a smart and creative use of social media by the companies if they desire to promote and engage with the customers by being a part of their everyday lives. The social media provides an unlimited amount of space for communities' engagement in the virtual world where they discuss the products of the companies and their competitors in a transparent and accessible virtual space. Through this engagement and discussion, companies can measure the success of their brands, and then act upon the information gathered.

Another factor that has changed the attitude of the marketing practitioners towards branding in the social media is the speed the latter has taken off and reached out to the mainstream. Comparison statistics show that, while the radio took 38 years to reach the number of 50 million users, Facebook scored 100 million users in only 9 months. Moreover, switching from a monologue to a dialogue and a virtual group conversation has made companies insecure and maybe vulnerable as they have not been accustomed to the two-way of communicating which does not involve only speaking but also listening; however, companies have started to perceive this switch as an opportunity rather than as a threat as they are able to track their performance in the eyes of customers (Ahlberg 2010). As the founder of Reddit, Alexis Ohanian, said, "By giving more control and authority to your users they will surprise and impress you." (Falls and Deckers2012, 75).

Social media has presented a vast number of advantages for branding. Weber states that creating a genuine dialogue with the customers creates the strongest and the most effective brand

awareness (Weber 2009, 51). A strong dialogue makes a strong brand. Also, companies can serve their customers better when they listen to their stories and experiences posted in social media. It is called being engaged in customers' "storytelling." Prior to the emergence of social networks, getting customers' feedback took great effort and time for the top managers to receive it and to act upon it. Transnational companies like Levy Strauss and Harley Davidson have stated that engagement in social media have brought them an improvement in customer care and their operations, triggered innovative ideas from customers, made competitive strategies more effective (Gory and Westbrook2011, 575–584). Moreover, social media has allowed the companies to extend their market visibility and promotion in vast amounts while lowering the marketing costs. This is due to the links ("high degree nodes" mentioned above) that people have among them inside the social networks. The customers promote the brand in social media; thus they are called "part-employees" who do not get paid (Chapman 2008, 5). To extend the argument about this advantage, social media has been known to facilitate the word-of-mouth communication. Online customer reviews can be positive for those companies producing high-quality products or services which the customers perceive as beneficial to them (Chen, 2011). Relationship-building comes as a result of customer and company engagement in such social media platforms. This is very important as brand relationship is one of the steps of brand-building and the level of customer identification with such brand (Keller 2008). In turn, marketing through social media can influence purchase decision and customer equity, which results in more profits for the company (Kim and Ko 2011). Additional benefits of social media perceived by the companies can be noted in the graph below.

Figure 5.1: Benefits of social media perceived by the companies
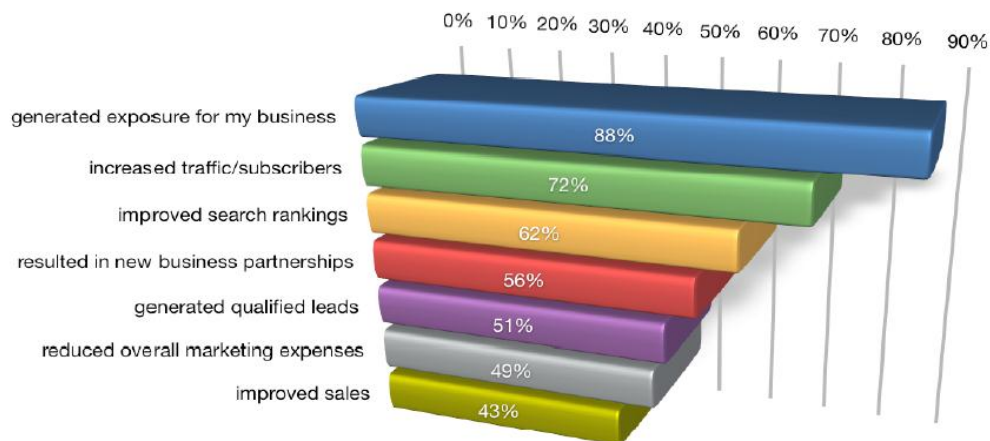
Source: Stelzner *(2011, 16).*

6 What leads to purchase intention?

6.1 Theory of Planned Behavior

Personality traits and general attitudes of the individual only indirectly and poorly predict specific human behaviors in specific situations, as more immediate factors play a stronger role influencing these behaviors (Wicker 1969, 42). Generally, researchers support this viewpoint arguing that additional factors to predispositions need to be considered in order to predict a behavior under certain circumstances (Weissberg 1965, 424). As an example, one's attitude on global warming in general may be different from the action of turning off the air condition with the aim of saving energy to decelerate global warming. To address the inability of general predispositions and personality traits to predict such behavior, Icek Ajzen has developed the Theory of Planned Behavior in mid-1980s which aims to explain the behavior of the subjects not only in general terms, but especially in specific situations (in the case of this research: the purchasing behavior of the customers). A database containing 185 studies conducted until 1997 indicates that Theory of Planned Behavior accounts for 39% of variance in behavior and 27% of variance in intention given specific situations. The application of this theory encompasses a range of research fields concerning human behavior, from the study of psychology to social sciences. Moreover, it has received a strong support from various empirical studies in social psychology field of literature and consumer behavior (Sheppard et al., 1988).

The Theory of Planned Behavior is an extension to the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) developed by the same author. The latter theory argues that the performance or non-performance of a behavior is affected by intentions, which in turn are influenced by the attitude a subject has towards the behavior and the subjective norms that the s/he perceives as pertaining to the commitment of a certain behavior (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1985). Because this theory presented limitations in situations where people do not have complete volitional control, Ajzen eventually added the *perceived behavioral control* component to the model of this theory; thereby originating the Theory of Planned Behavior. Unlike the Theory of Reasoned Action which counts only the attitude towards the behavior and the subjective norm as determinant of a behavior, Theory of Planned Behavior claims that whether a behavior is performed or not depends on the intention of the subject and the perceived behavioral control arguing that

intentions can influence behaviors to the extent that the behavioral control is present (the latter having a direct effect on the behavior as well as an indirect effect by impacting the intention as represented in the visual form below). The Theory of Planned Behavior added the voluntary control component to the model, which is defined as the extent of which the subject is able to perform the behavior given the will to perform it (Blackwell et al., 2006). The impact level of these components relative to one another is varies across performed behaviors: it depends on the subject who performs the behavior, the type of behavior itself, and the specific situation the behavior is performed (Ajzen 1991, 188).

The graphic model of this theory is represented in the form below:

Figure 6.1: Theory of Planned Behavior
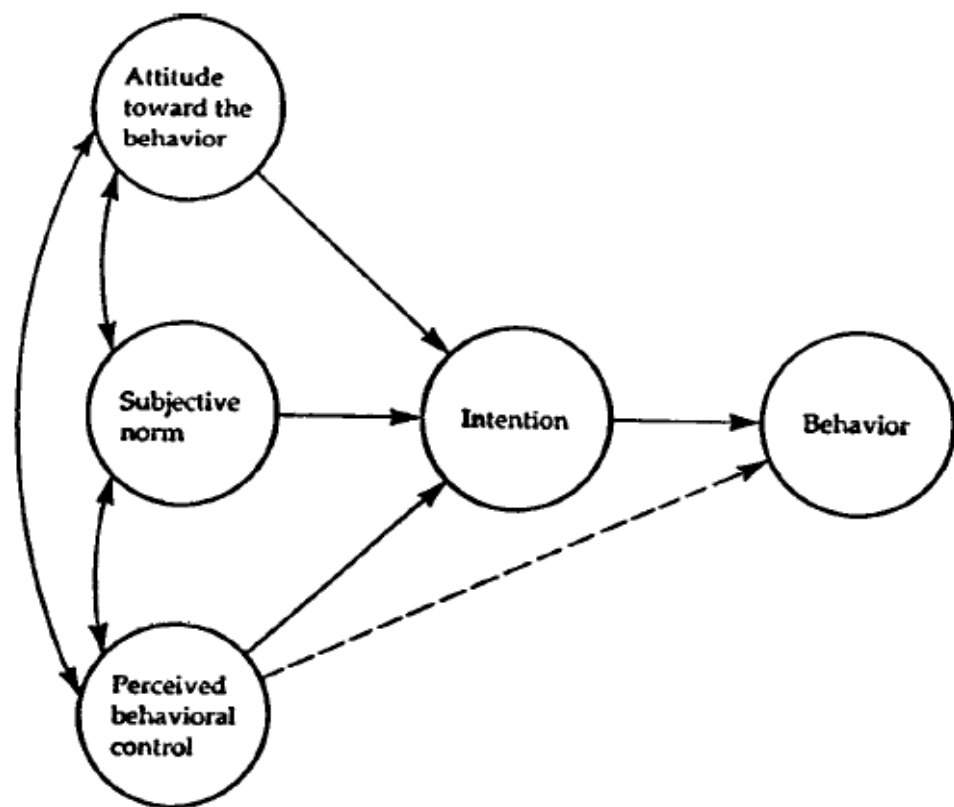
Source: Ajzen (1991, 182).

Attitude towards the behavior: the subject's evaluation of the behavior itself, which is influenced by the subject's beliefs and the perception of the consequences of the behavior. Concretely, it is the power of each behavioral belief (b) multiplied by the perceived outcome of behavior performance (e), expressed in an aggregate fashion are in direct proportion with the attitude toward the behavior (Ajzen 1991, 191). The definition takes the following form of equation:

$$A \propto \sum b_1 \cdot e_1$$

As a heuristic, the more positive the attitude is towards the performance of the behavior, the more likely the subject is to perform the behavior. Analyzing this rule of thumb in a broken down form, the stronger the behavioral beliefs are and the higher the probability the performance of the behavior produces a certain outcomes, the stronger the intention and the more likely the subject will perform a behavior. Hence, a favorable attitude towards purchasing Kosovo local products influences positively the intention to purchase such products. Presumably, the Kosovar customer possesses a strong behavioral belief that local Kosovar businesses should gain a larger market share than they have at present and that Kosovo's local economy should progress in a faster pace compared to its current state; in addition, this customer evaluates that the outcome is largely achieved through purchasing products produced by Kosovo's local businesses. Due to the high degree of strength of these beliefs, the probability that this customer performs the behavior of purchasing locally produced products is high as the intention to purchase is high as well. This, bearing in mind that attitude towards the behavior is but one of the contributors to behavior performance, and that its effect on the behavior intention and performance is assessed when combined with two other contributors: subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977).

Subjective norms: this is defined as the perceived social pressure by the subject; the subject's perception of evaluation of others concerning performing or not performing a certain behavior. Two elements determine subjective norms: normative beliefs of a person and a person's motivation to comply with these beliefs, where normative beliefs are defined as "beliefs about the extent to which other people who are important to them think they should or should not perform particular behaviors" (Trafimow 2000, 2). The intention of a person to perform a behavior depends on whether to community or whomever the person values as important to

her/him approves or disapproves the behavior, in the perception of the person. Moreover, the behavior intention is influenced by the degree to which the person is willing to comply with the perceived stands of others toward the behavior. Thus, the more positive the normative belief (n) and the higher the degree of compliance motivation (m) in an aggregate form is in direct proportion with the subjective norms concerning a specific behavior in a specific situation. The equation form of this definition appears as such:

$$\textbf{SN} \propto \sum \textbf{n}_\textbf{i} \cdot \textbf{m}_\textbf{i}$$

If the consumer perceives that the overall community or certain members of the community will approve on his purchasing the local brands of Kosovo, then this will have a positive influence on the purchase intention. This factor, taking into account especially the collectivistic-nature of the Kosovar society (Weiss and Berger, 2010) is very important regarding people's intention in buying these products because it creates social pressure. If the society things that such action is beneficial, then the individual's intention to purchase will be positive.

Subjective norms possess only a limited ability to predict the performance of a behavior, as indicated by a number of meta-analyses conducted on the Theory of Planned Behavior; In fact, research suggests that the influence of attitude on intention is two times as strong as the influence of the subjective norms on intention (Armitage and Conner 2001, 475). In any event, subjective norms are more significant and affective when an individual's identification with a group is strong and salient (Terry and Hogg, 2000), and when the collective self is prominent in one's personality (White et al. 2009, 142). The collective self (an aspect of human personality) is a term coined by Triandis, and it postulates the self-assessment of the collective self depends on the perceived standards and norms developed from a reference group such as family, friends, or ethnic group (Triandis 1989, 507).

A number of factors influence the formation and shaping of social norms in a community. Exposure to media, especially advertising across different media channels, is one of the influencing factors, as the people and the media interact daily and continuously; thus, the latter molds the intentions and behaviors of the former in a seemingly unconscious fashion (McQuail 2010, 14). The research is especially concerned with the influence of the media in the purchase intention for Kosovo's local products.

Perceived behavior control: the extent to which the subject thinks that he or she is able to perform the behavior based on the availability and perceived customer effectiveness. Perceived behavioral control has its roots in Atkinson's theory of achievement motivation which emphasizes on the expectancy of success i.e. on perceived probability of succeeding in a given scenario (Atkinson and Feather 1966, 16–19). Perceived behavioral control portrays both inner and outer control factors such as self-efficacy and availability, respectively (Sparks et al. 1997, 420–422). This determinant distinguishes the Theory of Planned Behavior from the Theory of Reasoned Action as the latter did not consider it as a determinant in the behavior prediction or intention to perform a behavior, and it is prominent where the volitional control is at a low level. PBC is considered to have a direct and indirect effect on a behavior. This indicates a powerful role of this component as no matter how strong and positive the attitudes and the subjective norms toward a behavior are present, they are constrained by the personal barriers such as the issue of self-efficacy, and external barriers, for instance, availability. These barriers are perceived rather than actual, and the perception of determinants enable or hinder the performance of a behavior is referred to as control beliefs (Conner and Armitage 1998, 1432). The element of self-efficacy is defined as "judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura 1982, 122). Self-efficacy and availability are some elements which make up the control belief (c) which is then weighted by the perceived power of the belief (p). All these in aggregate form are directly proportional with the perceived behavior of control, represented in such form of equation:

$$\textbf{PBC} \propto \sum c_i \cdot p_i$$

Perceived behavior control differs from what is known as the locus of control because the former pertains to a certain behavior taking place in a certain situation, while the latter refers to a general personality characteristic (Ajzen 1991, 183).

To mirror the concept with the research, intention to purchase and behavior performance depends on the perceived availability of Kosovo local products in the stores: whether the person thinks that the products are available in the stores, or whether they are distributed in the store so that they are easy to discern. The perceived consumer efficacy refers to whether the person can purchase these local products, accounting for the price, type, and other factors.

6.2   Buying Motivations

Motivation is the reason why people act and think the way they do. Understanding how motivations function is significant for the research as motivations are the factors which instigate intentions to perform a behavior (Ajzen 1991, 181). In the academic and scientific world, the study of motivation began in 1930s, and it focused at first on the mechanistic factors of a person's motivation but eventually the study evolved by incorporating the cognitive aspects A thirty-year period since the beginning of these studies viewed motivation as an element stemming from mechanical, biological and chemical processes of a person's everyday life, such as need, drive, and arousal (Graham and Weiner 1996, 65). Deriving from the Latin root word "*motive*" which means "to move," the researchers and scientist of the time were concerned about what literally makes an organism move from a passive to an active state, literally. The most renowned theory of this period is the Drive Theory developed by Hull and Spence which argues that people are born with certain psychological needs and tension is caused when these needs are not met; thereby causing disruptions in human's homeostasis. This disruption then drives the person to perform an act which brings back the state of homeostasis. The theory is presented in this equation form:

$$\textbf{Behavior = Drive x Habit}$$

Cognitive approaches to the study of motivation emerged in the 1960s and 1970s when the focus of the research shifted towards more psychological and social instigations of motivation, such as achievement ambitions, need for belonging or self-esteem, and competitive environments, rather than biological and chemical factors. A prevalent theory of this period is Atkinson's Theory of Achievement Motivation which is based on the principle that the tendency to achieve a goal (T_s) equals to the motive of success (M_s), the probability level of achieving success (P_s), and the incentive value of success (I_s), represented as:

$$\textbf{T}_\textbf{s} = \textbf{M}_\textbf{s} \textbf{ x P}_\textbf{s} \textbf{ x I}_\textbf{s}$$

This theory defines motivation not only as a drive which is fired to meet a need but it adds cognition elements which are goal-related (success, incentives), and thus places motivation as a subject of interest in other study fields such as education, philanthropy, and marketing.

Marketing practitioners and scholars strive to understand what motivates the consumers towards purchasing a product. Taping into consumers' motivations is an arduous but also necessary task for a successful performance in the market. Marketing pioneering work focused more on cognitive aspects of motivations behind the customer behaviors, while leaving the emotional segment unexplored. This is reflected in the beginning of the work in behavioral decision theory (Kahneman 1991, 142–145). Such work has explored the motivations which drive towards maximization of utility and are rather rational; thus, have functional goals which aim to be achieved. Another later-explored segment of motivations is the one which offers explanations on experiential preferences and those who trigger emotional responses to consumers rather than cognitive; in other words, the motivations which direct consumers towards sheer pleasure rather than attaining a certain functional goal (O'Curry and Strahilevitz, 2001). Both types of motivations are strong determinants for a purchasing behavior and more often than not, a customer has to decide on a choice between them, and thus make a trade off. These different types of motivations are known as utilitarian and hedonic, respectively and they will be explored further in this research.

Generally, shopping motivations are divided in two broad categories: *utilitarian* and *hedonic* motivations. Many psychologists as well as market researchers and practitioners have elaborated both motivations in order to understand the whole spectrum of customer behavior and the effects of these motivations in the incitement of purchase intentions. Both categories have been used to elaborate and explain consumer behavior in general and purchase intention (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Babin et al., 1994). Differences between the utilitarian and hedonic motivations are defined as proceeds:

- **Utilitarian motivation** is defined as the rational, goal-oriented, and cognitive motivation which is rather instrumental and directs towards performing a behavior which maximizes the utility of the subject (Kang and Park 2010, 312–328). This motivation is functional and the subject is more concerned about what will be the outcome of the performed behavior. Utilitarian motivations associate with extrinsic purposes that refer to completing a task which has an instrumental value (Ryan and Deci 2000, 60). Utilitarian motivations belong to the information-processing perspective, which views and assesses the behavior or product based on the function that it generates: the benefit that a behavior exerts is motivation from

a utilitarian perspective (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982, 138). In customer behavior terms, utilitarian motivation drives the subject to calculate the price, the quality, and the function that the product performs at the end. The utilitarian perspective is result-oriented, and from a strictly utilitarian viewpoint, the consumer will not purchase the product if it does not result in beneficial outcome. A consumer's intention to purchase, and given behavioral control – his/her behavior towards purchasing, Kosovo's product will depend, but not limited to, these aforementioned utilitarian determinants.

- **Hedonic motivation** on the other hand, is defined as the search of emotions such as happiness, friendship, enjoyment and fantasy, and esteem experienced while performing a behavior (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982, 92–101; Batra and Ahtola 1991, 159–166). The study on hedonic motivations in shopping did not commence prior to 1980s as the researchers did not consider the experiential and emotional dimension of shopping in relation to purchase intention and customer behavior. By incorporating the emotional dimension to the cognitive dimension to buying behavior, researchers and practitioners began to look at this behavior in a multi-dimensional form. Six dimensions compose hedonic motivations to buying behavior: (1) Adventure (shopping viewed as a stimulation); (2) Social (spending time with family, friends, significant other); (3) Gratification (rewarding oneself, relieving stress); (4) Idea (keep up with trends); (5) Role (purchasing things for others) and (6) Value (searching for sale/bargain) (Arnold and Reynolds 2003) The consumer's purchase intention and buying behavior regarding Kosovo's local brands is determined by the level of enjoyment, esteem, belonging, or any other form of good experience shopping for these brands provides.

Apart from the difference in the motivations between utilitarian and hedonic, there are also differences between the utilitarian and hedonic goods, the former being rather defined as necessary goods, such as wheat, soap, shoes, while the latter covering categories such as designer clothes, restaurants, and rich chocolates. On another note, those categories can be divided in necessary and luxurious goods, meaning that while the existence of the first category does not add as much to the satisfaction that the consumer experiences after purchasing, the absence of such category would cause distress to the consumer; the opposite is true for the second category.

Purchase intentions are the consumers' inclination to buy a particular product or service that is influenced by his or her perceptions of the product, attitude towards the product, and satisfaction from the product (Morrison 1979, 66–72; Taylor and Baker 1994, 164–166). Purchase intention is a term used to describe the willingness to buy and likelihood of recommending a product or service to others (Dodds et al. 1991, 307–309; Prendergast et al., 2010). Whitlark, et al (1993, 18–21) found that 75% of those who stated a purchase intention, purchased the product. As previously explained, according to the Theory of Planned Behavior, the purchase intention depends on the attitude of the individual towards the performing the behavior, and the subjective norms that the individual perceives are attributed to that behavior in addition to whether the individual thinks s/he can perform the behavior or not (here, purchase the products). Purchase intention is the number of patrons which motivates people to buy a certain product in the future and repeat that purchase again. This indicates why products with a higher market share are those products which have higher brand awareness among the customers (Halim and Hamid 2010). The stronger the intention towards performing the behavior, the more likely is the behavior to be performed (Ajzen 1991). Buying behavior is explained in a holistic fashion through two broad perspectives of motivation: the information processing perspective represented by utilitarian motivation and the experiential perspective associated with hedonic motivation.

7 Hypotheses and Arguments

RQ: What increases the purchase intention of Kosovar consumers for local brands?

In this research, hedonic and utilitarian motivations are used as substitutions for the determinant of the *attitude towards the behavior,* and exposure to advertising in Facebook and TV serves as substitutions the determinant of the *subjective norms* in Theory of Planned Behavior; moreover, the component of *intention* is substituted with purchase intention for the theory itself to be more applicable in practice. This because the used substitutions are straightforward indicators, and making sense of them is easier in the marketing world. Answering this question is of high practical significance as, aforementioned, the market share of Kosovar local brands is far from the aspired share; thus, having a negative impact in the national economy. I plan to answer this question by testing two hypotheses, which take into account the influence of the media on the consumers, as well as the motivation that drives the consumers regarding purchase intention for Kosovo local brands.

H1: Exposure to advertising in Social Media increases purchase intention about Kosovo's local brands more than exposure to advertising in TV channels.

Exposure to advertising in TV channels: According to American Marketing Association, advertising is "any paid form of promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor" (Kotler and Armstrong 2013, 410). Moreover, Richards and Curren (2002, 74) write that "advertising on television is a paid and mediated form of communication from an identifiable source, designed to persuade the receiver to take some action now or in the future."Exposure, in principle, is a straightforward concept. As cited by Slater (2004), McGuire's (1989) information processing model, for example, distinguishes exposure as the prerequisite for subsequent attention, comprehension, and retention.' Accordingly, we may define exposure as the extent to which audience members have encountered specific messages or classes of messages/media content. Here are included different forms of TV advertisement (paid commercial, product placements, and shows dedicated to advertising local products) in national and local television channels of Kosovo.

Exposure to advertising in Social Media: Advertising in Social Media is a form of online advertising that focuses on social media sites. Major benefits of advertising on asocial media site (Facebook, Twitter, Google+) is that advertisers can take advantage of the users demographic information and target their advertisements appropriately. Direct advertising based on the network of friends is the most effective format; it is when the users of a social network decide to take an action according to his or her network of friends (here, purchase the same product). Indirect advertising is an innovative marketing technique in which a company will create a 'page' or 'group' those users can choose to join. The best use out of social networks is not to make money 'directly' off them, but to harness their marketing potential and to use them to market your own business (Shamugavel et al., 2011).

Purchase intention: Purchase intentions are the consumers' inclination to buy a particular product or service that is influenced by his or her perceptions of the product, attitude towards the product, and satisfaction from the product (Morrison 1979; Spreng et al., 1996; Taylor and Baker 1994). Purchase intention is a term used to describe the willingness to buy and likelihood of recommending a product or service to others (Dodds et al., 1991; Prendergast et al., 2010). Whitlark et al., (1993) found that 75% of those who stated a purchase intention did purchase. Therefore, purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands means that customers, after evaluating the brands in the market, choose to purchase the brands that are produced in Kosovo. The basis of evaluation (price, quality, added value, etc.) will be developed throughout the study.

Arguments: It has been pointed out that the Internet is a unique medium in order to provide consumers with customized advertisements (Han and Han 2001, 25). Through profiling performed by social media websites, customized advertisements appear to users based on his or hers specific interests and likings. Such personalized advertising has been found to enhance user's intention to both, the intention to search for products and purchase them (Zhu et. al., 2004). In the case of purchase intention for Kosovo's local brands, purchase intention is affected more by advertising in social media than in television due to various reasons. The first is linked to the interaction between persuasion and two-way intensified communication. Social media allows for a greater communication between the consumer and the company; therefore, attitude and motivation which affects the purchase intention is more extensive in advertising in the social media than in television. The second is linked to a sense of community: the communication does

not involve only the consumer-company, but also consumer-consumer direction, which can trigger a community sense revolving around a type or set of brands. The closer communication leading to persuasion because of added value and a sense of community translates to advertising through social media having a stronger influence on purchase intention of Kosovo's local products than advertising through television.

H2: Utilitarian motivations increase purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands more than hedonic motivations.

Atkinson (cited in Arnold 2000, 13) defined motivation as 'a cluster of factors that 'energize' the behavior and give it 'direction''. Thus, in Atkinson's point of view, motivation is a term used to describe what energizes a person and what directs his activity, energy and direction. Furthermore shopping motivation can be defined as "the driver of behavior that bring costumer to the marketplace to satisfy their needs" (Jin and Kim 2003, 399). Generally, shopping motivations have been categorized in two aspects: utilitarian motivations and hedonic motivations.

Utilitarian motivation is defined as rational and goal oriented and cognitive with the intentions or desire to purchase a product efficiently and rationally highlighted (Kang and Park2010).

Hedonic motivation on the other hand is defined as the search of emotions such as happiness, enjoyment and fantasy, experienced during the shopping procedure (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Batra and Ahtola 1991).

Arguments: Utilitarian motivations lead a consumer to cost-feature optimization, thorough planning and consideration of purchase options and less emotional decision-making (Batra and Ahtola 1990; Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000). However, as time is an important factor in utilitarian consumers' behavior (Cotte et al., 2006) and they are purposeful in their actions, any activity has a reason behind them. Hedonic motivations on the other hand direct one's focus to content that evokes excitement, fantasy or self-fulfillment (Childers et al. 2001, 513–514) that arguably comes on average at a higher price. Further, information related to that kind of content makes a hedonic purchase more probable - one starts, for example, dreaming of an exotic getaway instead of a nearby holiday destination. Therefore, consumers with a hedonic motivation seek the enjoyment of the process rather than the utility of the purchased product. Regarding purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands, consumers are more driven by the utilitarian motivations, mainly for the reason of helping local production in Kosovo; therefore helping the growth of the economy of Kosovo. However, there are also other elements involved, such as

generally the low prices of these products, given the fact that the purchasing power of the average Kosovar is relatively low.

7.1   Graphic Model

Exposure of ad to FB

Exposure of ad to TV

Utilitarian motivation

Hedonic motivation

Purchase intention
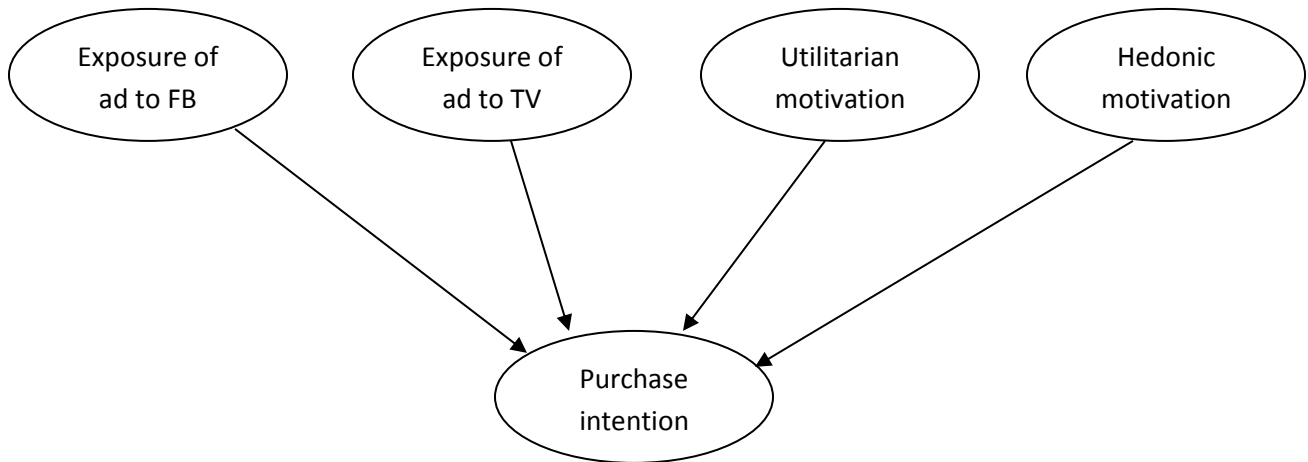
8 Methodology

This research aims to determine through sampling whether the manipulated independent variables affect the dependent variable. **Probability-based sampling** is the choice for the sampling method. This form of sampling picks the units randomly so that everyone, at least theoretically, has the opportunity of being sampled; in other words, there is no criterion for selection. The frame of probability-based sampling for this research is systematic. Systematic sampling is conducted in a simple form as such that when a starting number is chosen, the distance between the first and the second number is an interval that keeps repeating constantly between each number of the sample (i.e. every tenth person gets surveyed) (Castillo 2009). The choice of systematic sampling was based on the fact that it was simple and inclusive, which is very suitable for the hypotheses. The first hypothesis tests whether exposure to social media (Facebook) channels is more effective than the exposure to TV channels regarding their impact on customer purchase intention for Kosovo local products. The goal of the second hypothesis is to test whether utilitarian motivations are stronger than hedonic motivations in increasing purchase intentions for Kosovo local products among customers.

The present study will use statistical analysis such as **Pearson r correlation** in order to see if there is a positive or negative correlation between different variables derived from both hypotheses, and which correlation is stronger. The investigator usually investigates the causal link between the variables and how much quantitatively the independent variable affects the dependent variable. The **Pearson r correlation** also indicates the degree of confidence, which states the percentage level of how much the investigator thinks the sample represents the population. It measures the linear association of two variables (*independent* and *dependent*) in the range of -1 to +1, the former indicating that the variables have negative correlation with each other, while the latter shows that the correlation is positive. The closer to 1 the value is, the stronger is the correlation between two variables, positive or negative.

Statistical regression model is also used for the analysis of the data gathered from the questionnaire answered by 200 respondents. The regression model is multivariate as it considers two predictors simultaneously for each hypothesis. This model provides the information on how much can the regression line explain the variability in the dependent variable. In our case, how

much can the independent values (H1: *Exposure to advertisement in social media (Facebook)* and *exposure to advertisement in TV channels;* H2: *Utilitarian motivations* and *hedonic motivations)* account for the variances in the dependent variable *(Purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands).* Moreover, this model also provides the ANOVA table, which shows whether the model as a whole is significant; in other words, does the relation between the independent and dependent variables actually mean anything. Lastly, the model provides the coefficients table, which indicates the extent to which the value of the independent variables impacts the variance in the dependent variable, and which variable makes the highest impact. Aside from this, the table also shows the significance value of each independent variable separately, and this is an important information because it gives a clear idea as to whether the individual variables are significant and to what extent are they so.

8.1   Data Collection Design

Taking into account technical difficulties, the present study will not be able to apply a full nation-wide survey. In order to raise the level of reliability of the results, the data will be gathered only in Prishtina, the capital of Kosovo. According to Gorard (2001), sampling saves time and money, and produces effective results, which is a decent representative of the population as a whole. The research method for this study will be **surveys.** The purpose for using this method is collecting as many data as possible as this is a quantitative study. Having a large sample of respondents is important because it makes the findings and the whole study more reliable. Quantitative research is appropriate as it allows the study to generalize due to the large sample size, as it can be used as an example for further studies. Also, if the data required does not already exist, questionnaires are the most appropriate choice as they serve as primary research in a field which has not been researched yet in the given conditions. Because studies in purchase intentions have not been conducted in Kosovo, especially regarding the country's domestic products, this form of research would benefit not only the academic but also the business world. Moreover, using surveys is more appropriate in this case since the study has a broad scope as its goal is to include as much individuals as possible in order to gain a substantial

representative view on this issue. Because of these factors, surveys seem as the most appropriate research approach for this study.

The data gathered from the research will be based on surveying every tenth customer while getting out of the supermarket. Five supermarkets in Prishtina were the location points for conducting this survey. Two hundred respondents of various demographic groups will be surveyed (detailed information on demographic groups in the appendices). The form of questions will be multiple-choice and close-ended as well as some filter questions.

The method of delivery will be face-to-face questioning and answering, and the questions will be close-ended as it is a quantitative research.

8.2 Description of the sample

Gender

Our sample consists of 200 respondents. Slightly more than half of respondents (53 %) are females, and 46.5% are males. One respondent did not answer this question.

Figure 8.1: Pie chart – distribution of respondents by Gender (N=200)
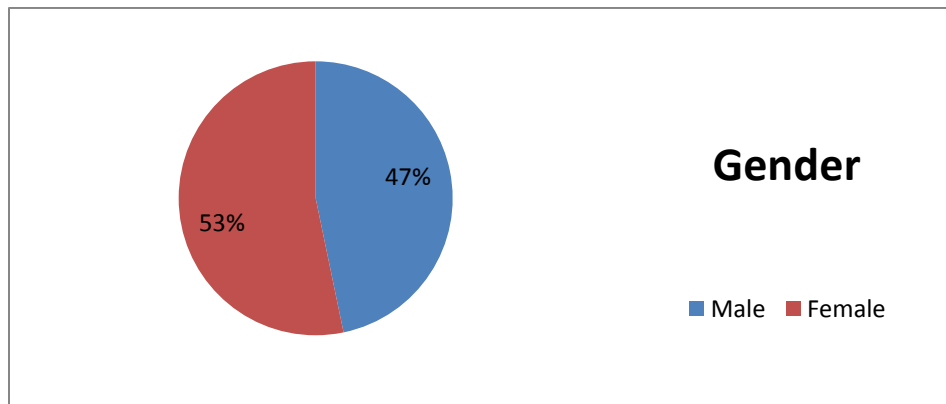
Age

The age breakdown of the respondents is as follows: The majority of the respondents (54%) fall between the 18 – 24 interval. The age group between 25 – 34 make up approximately 1/3 of the respondents, while a little more than the tenth of respondents are older than 34 years; 6.6 percent of the respondents are between 35 – 44 years of age, 4 percent are between 45 – 54 years of age, and 1 percent is 55 – 64 years old. Two persons did not answer.

Figure 8.1: Histogram - distribution of respondents by Age (N=200)

Age

Mean =1,63
Std. Dev. =0,855
N =198
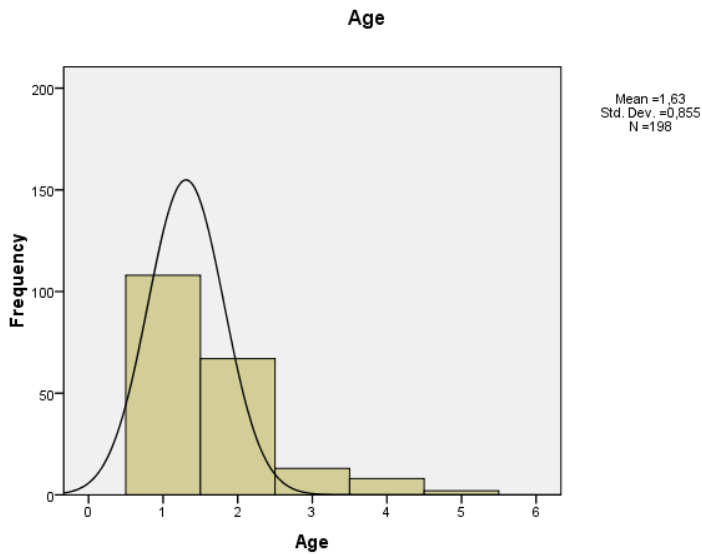
Education

As per education, the majority of the respondents by and large have at least finished their undergraduate studies (67%). The second group in rank is persons who have completed some college (22.5 %), and around one tenth of the respondents have completed high school.

Figure 8.2:Pie chart – distribution of respondents by level of Education (N=200)
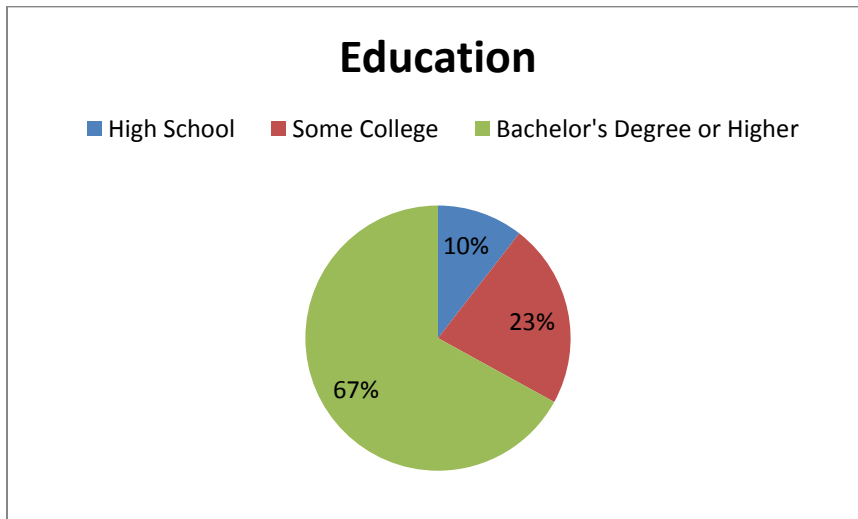
9   Results and Discussion

9.1   Univariate analysis

9.1.1   Descriptive statistics

The table shown in Annex E indicates the main descriptive statistics for the whole questionnaire (number of respondent, mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, minimum, maximum). All the interval indicators discussed are approximately of normal distribution, because the coefficient values of skewness and kurtosis range mostly from -1 to +1. Because of approximately normally distributed data we can use parametric tests to test our hypothesis.

9.1.2   Univariate frequency analysis of the indicators/questionnaire

9.1.2.1   *On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV?*

When asked about how many hours per day the respondents watch TV during the typical day, most of the people watch said that they watch 4 hours or less. Specifically, approximately 1/3 of the people watch TV less than an hour per day; the same applies for those who watch TV 1 – 2 hours per day; the third ranks the group who watches TV for 3 – 4 hours per day with 20.5%. The people who watch TV for 3 hours or more amount to less than 20%: 9.5% watch 3 – 4 hours, 6% watch TV for 5 hours or more, while the group equaling to the smallest percentage (3%) is the one who spends its time watching TV for 4 – 5 hours.

9.1.2.2   *Do you use Facebook?*

To the question "Do you use Facebook?" almost everyone (98.5 percent) responded positively, while only 1.5 percent answered the opposite. One respondent didn't answer the question.

9.1.2.3   *On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook?*

This question received more or less evened-out answers. The percentage breakdown ranges between 10% and 24%. The highest percentage (24%) of people use Facebook 1 – 2 hours per day, followed by 2 – 3 hours per day those who use it 20.5%. The third group in the row comes the one that uses Facebook for 5 hours or more per day (17.5%), followed by those who use it for

3 – 4 hours (15.55). The last two groups of respondents are those who use Facebook 4 – 5 hours per day (11%), and those who use it for less than 1 hour per day ($1/10^{th}$). Three persons did not answer the question.

9.1.2.4 Mark which of these product advertisements have you seen in TV and Facebook

Because the first hypothesis measures how much the exposure of the viewers and users to advertising in two media channels (TV and social media "Facebook") impacts the purchase intention of the consumers, I have chosen four advertisements by representing them through screenshots to see which of the advertisements the consumers have seen in TV as well as in Facebook. The first hypothesis argues, "**Exposure to advertising in Social Media increases purchase intention about Kosovo's local brands more than exposure to advertising in TV channels."**

The screenshots show advertisements of BirraPeja, Vita Milk, Prince Café, and ASK Food. The brand recognized mostly by the respondents is Princ Café (44%), followed by BirraPeja with almost $1/3^{rd}$ of the respondents recognizing it. Vita Milk ranks the third as 19% of the persons asked said they recognize it, while the last one remains ASK Foods with a very low percentage of recognition from the respondents as only 2.5% of them recognize this brand. 13 persons did not answer the question.

9.1.2.5 Name the brand that was shown to that advertisement?

This question measures how many brands did the people recognize in that advertisement. A large majority of the people (70.5%) was able to recognize only one brand. Those who recognized three brands made up 8% of the respondents followed by those who recognized two brands (5.5%) only one of the respondents was able to recognize all the four brands; thus making up only 0.5% of the respondents. 31 people out of 200 did not answer the question.

9.1.2.6 How often have you seen this advertisement on TV?

This question refers to the frequency of the TV viewing of the advertisement shown previously. Almost half of the respondents said that they saw the advertisement several times a week on TV (49%). Almost one quarter of our respondents has seen the advertisement once a week (24%), 13.5% of them has seen It every day, while less than 10% has seen it several times a day (7%). The same applies to those who have never seen it (4%). The system detected five respondents who have not answered the question.

9.3.2.7 How often have you seen this advertisement on Facebook?

When it comes to the frequency of seeing the advertisement on Facebook, the respondents say that they have seen it more rarely than they did on TV. Only a mere of 1% and 0.5% percent has seen the advertisement every day and several times per day, respectively. The remaining percentage (25.5%) has seen it only several times a week or less. The breakdown goes as such: almost 60% has seen the advertisement on Facebook once a week, one quarter of the respondents have seen it several times a week, while 12% say that they have never seen that advertisement on Facebook.

9.1.2.8 When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click to watch them?

Based on the answers to this question, not much engagement linking to product advertisement on Facebook is shown. 85% of the respondents state that they click on the local product advertisement with the intention of viewing only sometimes, rarely, and even never: 28.5%, 29.5%, and 25.5% of the time, respectively. The remaining respondents answered as such: 9% said they click to watch them very often, while only 6% said that they always click on them. 3 people did not answer the question.

9.1.2.9 When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click 'Like' button?

The frequency of "Liking" a product advertisement on Facebook resembles closely to the frequency of clicking on the advertisement to watch it. A quarter of the respondents (25.5%) say that they never click "Like" on the local product advertisement when they see it for the first time. 32% say they do so rarely, while 27.5% clicked on "sometimes." Only 7.5% of the respondents say that they very often click the "like" button when watching a local advertisement on Facebook for the first time, and 4.5% of them say that they do so always. 6 of the respondents did not answer the question.

9.1.2.10 When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you give a comment on it?

Engagement through comments in the Facebook with regards to advertisement of local products seems to be through "liking" or "clicking." More than half percent of the respondents (57%) answered that they never comment on such advertisements. 28% of them said that they do so

rarely, while 1/10th stated that they do it sometimes. 1% stated that they do it very often, while 1.5% comment on the advertisement always. 4 respondents did not answer the question.

9.1.2.11 Of the advertisement you see on TV, how much do you like advertisement about local products?

When it comes to respondents evaluating the local product advertisements in terms of their liking, the majority of the respondents feel neutral, such attitude indicated by "It is Okay" which was chosen by 57.5% of the respondents. 17% of the respondents like the advertisements, while 11% of them do not like it. The negative extreme made up 5% of the respondents, who answered "I don't like it at all," and the other extreme equaled 6.5% of the respondents who chose the "I like it very much" statement. 6 people did not answer this question.

9.1.2.12 Do you buy milk?

An overwhelming majority of the respondents (93%) said that they buy milk, while 5.5% of them said they do not, while 3 people did not answer the question.

9.1.2.13 You are in supermarket to buy milk, which of these brands will you buy?

When it comes to choosing the milk brand, an overwhelming percentage (92%) focused on two brands: Vita, a local brand, was chosen by the majority of the respondents (54%), followed by Alpsko, an imported product, with 38.5%. The brands chosen by a low percentage of the respondents are Dukat and Bitolsko, with 4.5% and 1.5% respectively. Both are imported products. 3 people did not respond.

9.1.2.14 Do you buy coffee?

85.9 percent of the respondents stated that they buy coffee while the remaining 14.1 answered the question negatively.

9.1.2.15 You are in supermarket to buy coffee, which of these brands will you buy?

Also in regards to the coffee brand, the respondents strongly prefer the local brand, Prince Café (69%). Prince Café is followed by Lavazza (imported product) with 13%. The three remaining brands equal to a one-digit percentage of the respondents: Illy Café, Don Café, and Royal Café with 5%, 1.5%, and 0.5% respectively. The number of people who did not answer the question is 22.

9.1.2.16 Do you drink beer?

"Do you drink beer?" received these answers: 62.3 percent stated that they drink beer, while 37.7 stated that they do not.

9.1.2.17 You are in bar to drink a beer, which of these brands will you buy?

Beer is the product where the local brand, BirraPeja, does not take the lead. Only 12% of the respondents say that they would choose this brand, making it only the third on the list. The brands who rank higher are Heineken with 34% and Tuborg with 16%. Lasko ranks the forth as approximately $1/10^{th}$ of the respondents listed it as the most preferred beer, while only 3.5% of the respondents said their favorite beer is Skopsko. The number of those who did not answer the question is 46.

9.1.2.18 I plan before I go shopping

Almost half of the people agree that they plan before they go shopping. The percentage of the respondents who chose the "agree" option is 49.5%. 28% of them are neutral as they "neither agree nor disagree" while 9% disagree. The same percentage applies to the "strongly agree" option, while the option who chosen the lowest percentage of the respondents (4%) was "strongly disagree." 1 person did not fill in the question.

9.1.2.19 I plan before I go shopping

Almost half of the respondents to this questionnaire (46%) stated that they agree that they compare the price of the products, while a quarter of them (24.5%) neither agree nor disagree. 13% disagree to this statement while only 3.5% strongly disagree. On the other hand, 12% strongly agree that they compare the price. 2 persons did not answer.

9.1.2.20 On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for

On the importance of finding the items they are looking for in a shopping trip agree approximately half of the respondents (51%), while 27% strongly agree to this. Those who are neutral to such prospect make up 13.5% of the respondents, while only a few of them disagree to it (3.5%), and even less strongly disagree (3%). Four people did not respond.

9.1.2.21 I go shopping for fun.

The segment "disagree, neither agree nor disagree, and agree" make up the largest percentage of our respondents, with 28%, 29%, and23.5% applying to them respectfully. 12% strongly disagree that they do shopping for fun, while a small 7% strongly agree to this. 1 person did not answer the question.

9.1.2.22 I go shopping because I enjoy it

This statement receives similar answers to the previous statement, with the "disagree, neither agree nor disagree, and agree" taking the largest chunk of the respondent percentage: 26%, 25.5%, and 29%, respectively. $1/10^{th}$ of the respondents strongly disagree to this question, while 8.5% of them strongly agree. 1 person did not respond.

9.1.2.23 I go shopping because I enjoy it

When it comes to going shopping to keep up with trends, the answers made up more scattered data: 39.5% disagreed that they go shopping to keep up with trends, while $1/4^{th}$ of the respondents said that they do (25% agree). 18% chose to be neutral to this statement, and 14.5% strongly disagree. Those who strongly agree to the statement make up a mere of 1.5% of the respondents. 3 people did not answer the question.

9.2 Bivariate Correlation and Multivariate Regression analysis for testing hypothesis

9.2.1 H1: Exposure to advertising in Social Media increases purchase intention about Kosovo's local brands more than exposure to advertising in TV channels.

9.2.1.1 Computing variables for H1

Dependent variable: Purchase Intention

To compute the *purchase intention* for Kosovo's local brands variable we used sytanx sentence compute average value of indicators:

13. You are in supermarket to buy milk, which of these brands you will buy?

15. You are in a supermarket to buy café, which of these brands you will buy?

17. You are in a bar to drink a beer, which of these brands you will buy?

In order to compute the new variable we computed the mean, which is a result of the sum of all the values of these questions which is then divided with the number of the indicators, which in our case, is 3. Before doing so we had to standardise the data to make the same scale for all the indicators. In our case, the synthetic dependent variables on Likert 5-level scale, with 1 being the highest tendency to purchase local products and 5 being the lowest.

Independent variable: Exposure of advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)

For *exposure to advertisement in social media (Faceboook)* variable, we used sytanx sentence to compute the indicators:

3. On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook?

7. How often have you seen this advertisement on Facebook?

8. When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click to watch them?

9. When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click 'Like' button?

10. When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you give a comment on it?

In order to compute the new variable we computed the mean, which is a result of the sum of all the values of these questions which is then divided with the number of the indicators, which is 5 in our case. Before doing so we had to standardise the data to make the same scale for all the indicators. In our case, most of the indicators are on Likert 5-level scale (1 being the lowest level of exposure and 5 being the highest level of exposure). Only indicator 3 (*On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook?*) has a 6-level scale.

Independent variable: Exposure of advertising in TV

For *exposure to advertisement TV* channels variable, we used sytanx sentence to compute the indicators:

1. On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV?

6. How often have you seen this advertisement on TV?

11. Of the advertisement you see on TV, how much do you like advertisement about local products?

In order to compute the new variable we computed the mean, which is a result of the sum of all the values of these questions which is then divided with the number of the indicators, which is 3 in our case. Before doing so we had to standardise the data to make the same scale for all the indicators. In our case, most of the indicators are on Likert 5-level scale (1 being the lowest level of exposure and 5 being the highest level of exposure). Only indicator 1 (*On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV?*) has a 6-level scale.

9.2.1.2 Univariate analysis for H1 variables

We computed descriptive statistics and frequencies analysis for each of variables in H1. It is shown in the table and graphs below.

Table 9.1: Descriptive statistics for variables

		Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)	Exposure to advertisement in TV channel	purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands
N	Valid	199	200	200
	Missing	1	0	0
Mean		2,2934	2,7210	1,3500
Std. Deviation		,61464	,61793	,76841
Skewness		,478	,169	-,156
Std. Error of Skewness		,172	,172	,172
Kurtosis		,203	,239	-,548
Std. Error of Kurtosis		,343	,342	,342
Minimum		1,20	1,00	,00
Maximum		4,40	4,33	3,00

The mean of these five indicators is around 2.3, and as this mean has derived from a 5-level scale, it indicates a relatively low exposure of our respondents to the advertisement of local products in social media (Facebook).

The standard deviation of the data from the mean is 0.61464, and this does not indicate a high dispersion of the data

The coefficient values of skewness and kurtosis indicate a normal distribution of the variable as those values range from -1 to 1.

The mean of these five indicators is around 2.7, and as this mean has derived from a 5-level scale, it indicates an average level of exposure of our respondents to advertisement of local products on TV.

The standard deviation of the data from the mean is 0.61793, and this does not indicate a high variance of the mean; thus, not a high dispersion of the data

The coefficient values of skewness and kurtosis indicate a normal distribution of the variable as those values range from -1 to 1.

The mean of these three indicators is 1.3500, and as this mean which has derived from a 5-level scale, indicates that there is a tendency among the respondents to purchase local rather than imported products, as the local products are the first options to choose from among the five in all three questions.

The standard deviation of the data from the mean is 0.76841, and this does not indicate high variance from the mean of this standardized variable.

The coefficient values of skewness (-0.156) and kurtosis (-548) indicate a normal distribution of the variable as those values range from -1 to 1.

Figure 9.1:Distribution of Independent variable - Exposure to advertisement in social media (Facebook)
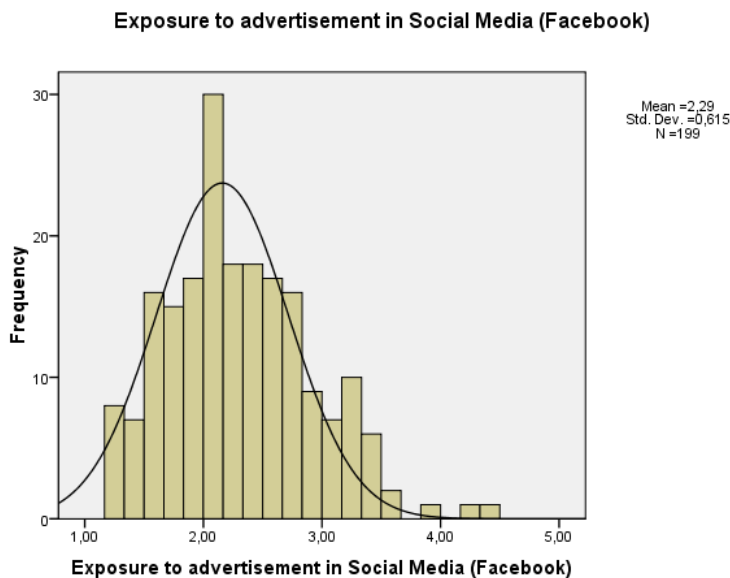
The bell-shaped form of the distribution for the exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook) variable indicates a normal distribution of the respondents.

Figure 9.2: Distribution of independent variable - Exposure to advertisement in TV

Exposure to advertisement in TV channel

Mean =2,72
Std. Dev. =0,618
N =200
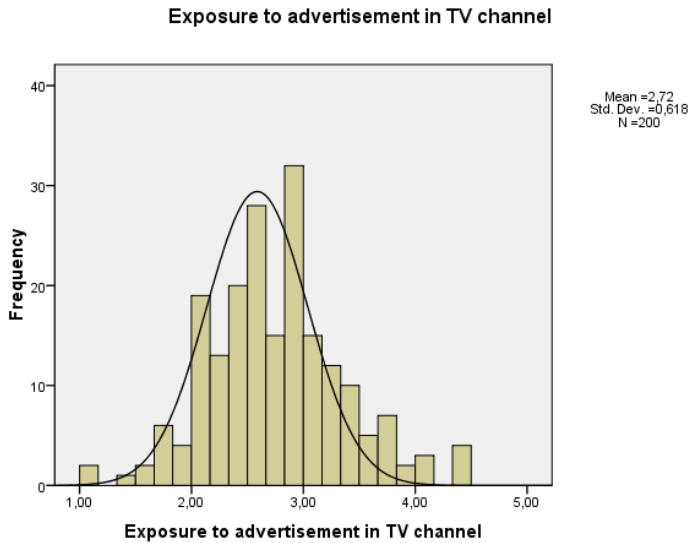
The bell-shaped form of the distribution for the exposure to advertisement in TV variable indicates a normal distribution of the respondents.

Figure 9.3:Distribution of dependent variable – Purchase intention for Kosovo's local brands

purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands

Mean =1,35
Std. Dev. =0,768
N =200
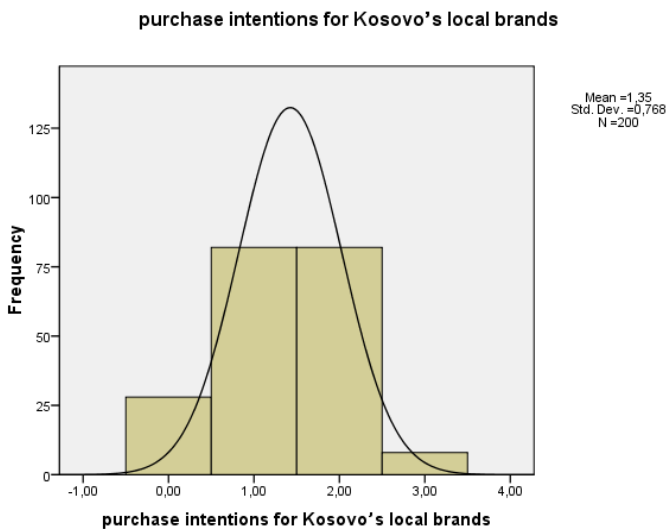
The bell-shaped form of the distribution for the purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands variable indicates a normal distribution of the respondents.

9.2.1.3 Correlation analysis

Table 9.2: Correlation

		Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)	Exposure to advertisement in TV channel	purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands
Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)	Pearson Correlation	1	,228**	,136
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,001	,056
	N	199	199	199
Exposure to advertisement in TV channel	Pearson Correlation	,228**	1	,087
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001		,218
	N	199	200	200
purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands	Pearson Correlation	,136	,087	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,056	,218	
	N	199	200	200

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook), which is one independent variable and *purchase intentions for Kosovo's local products,* being the dependent variable, have a positive correlation as Pearson r is .136. The positive correlation between these two variables is also weak, as the value (Pearson's r=0.136) is farther from 1. This correlation has almost reached statistical significance as p-value=0.056 is not much higher than 0.05, which would indicate significance.

Also, the independent variable *exposure to advertisement in TV channels* shows positive correlation with the dependent variable *purchase intentions for Kosovo's local products* with a Pearson's r correlation value of 0.087. This value shows a weak correlation, weaker than the correlation of the abovementioned variables. Moreover, this correlation is not statistically significant since its p-value=0.218, which is truly higher than 0.05.

The analysis show a stronger positive correlation between the exposure to advertisement in Social Media and purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands than the exposure to advertisement in TV channel and the dependent variable. It is impossible to say that whether exposure to advertisements on these media channels (serving here as components of the social norms determinant) is at all effective in increasing the respondents' intention to purchase Kosovo local brands, as indicated by the regression analysis.

9.2.1.4 Regression analysis

Table 9.3: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,148[a]	,022	,012	,76537

a. Predictors: (Constant), Exposure to advertisement in TV channel, Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)

The value of the adjusted r square in this model summary (adj. R^2=0.012) means that the variance in the dependent variable, which is *purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands,* is 12% explained by the model. In other words, 12% of the total variance in purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands is explained by the respondents' exposure to advertisement in social media (Facebook) and their exposure to advertisement on TV Channels.

Table 9.4: Anova

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2,561	2	1,281	2,186	,115[a]
	Residual	114,816	196	,586		
	Total	117,377	198			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Exposure to advertisement in TV channel, Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)

b. Dependent Variable: purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands

The significance value (F=2.186; p-value=0.115) indicates that the model is not significant; in other words, it has no explanatory power, as this value is higher than sig.=0.05. This means that the independent variables do not really help predict the dependent variable.

For this hypothesis which tests whether exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook) increases the purchase intention for Kosovo's local products more than exposure to advertisements on TV channels (exposure here serving as a component of the social norms determinant in the *Theory of Planned Behaviour* of Isac Ajzen), the results show as follows: According to the results of the linear regression analysis, the exposure in both media channels predicts 12% of the total variance in purchase intentions of the respondents for Kosovo's local products. However, the whole model is not significant, as showed by the p-value=0.115, and it means that the results of this model are actually inconclusive albeit it shows that the exposure to

advertisement in Social Media has a stronger positive effect in the purchase intention than the exposure to advertisement in TV channels, judging from the regression coefficients.

Table 9.5: Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95,0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 (Constant)	,798	,289		2,766	,006	,229	1,367
Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)	,153	,091	,122	1,682	,094	-,026	,332
Exposure to advertisement in TV channel	,075	,090	,060	,828	,409	-,103	,252

a. Dependent Variable: purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands

This table tells about the relationship between the explanatory variables and the dependent variable regarding the coefficients. The coefficients for both variables are positive, although the coefficient for the exposure to advertisement in social media (.153) is higher than the exposure to advertisement in TV channels (.075), and this indicates that the higher the exposure to both types of media, the lower the domestic brand purchase intention.

The T statistics for the first independent variable, *exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)* (t=1.682; p-value=0.094) shows that this variable does not help to predict the dependent variable, as its value is higher than pvalue=0.05. This means that the exposure time to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook) does not tell us much about the purchase intentions of our respondents regarding the local products.

The T statistics for the second independent variable, *exposure to advertisement in TV channel* (t=828; p-value=0.409) shows that this variable does not help to predict the dependent variable, as its value is higher than p-value=0.05. This says that the exposure to advertisement in TV channels does not explain much about the purchase intentions of our respondents regarding the local products.

Since the model is not significant; said differently, the independent variables help predict the dependent variable, there is no need to analyze the variable coefficients

According to the hypothesis test results, consumers are not strongly persuaded by the advertisements shown in social networks (Facebook in this case) or TV channels to purchase Kosovo local brands even though correlation analysis show that the social network advertisements are slightly more effective than the TV channel advertisement (Pearson r=.136 for the social network variable as opposed to Pearson r=.087 for the TV channels variable). Various times different authors, such as Weber, have stressed that utilizing social media is a benefit for the companies as it builds the space for a transparent conversation and a strong relationship between the company and its customers. In turn, this exposure of the customers to this conversation space, therefore, creates a strong bond which leads to customers being more loyal to the brand and pursues them to purchase its products. In the context of this research which focuses on the relationship between the Kosovo local companies and the customers with the intention of influencing positively the customer's intention to purchase, the exposure of customers to the information, advertisement, and/or any other persuasion technique that the company uses to motivate people to purchase its products, are not very successful given the weak, although positive, correlation between the exposure to the advertisements on social network (Facebook) and purchase intention. This could be for a number of reasons, starting from the inability of the companies to appeal sufficiently to the customers to the fact that the customers do not use Facebook to receive and exchange information on Kosovo local products. With this said, as aforementioned, exposure to advertisements on social network correlates more strongly with purchase intention than exposure to advertisement on TV does.

9.2.2 H2: Utilitarian motivations increase purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands more than hedonic motivations.

9.2.2.1 Computing variables for H2

Independent variable: Utilitarian motivation

To compute the variable indicating *utilitarian motivations* of our respondents we used sytanx sentence compute average value of indicator:

18. I plan before I go shopping.

19. I compare the price.

20. On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for.

In order to compute the new variable we computed the mean, which is a result of the sum of all the values of these questions which is then divided with the number of the indicators, which in our case, is 3. Before doing so we had to standardise the data to make the same scale for all the indicators. In our case, all of the indicators are on a Likert 5-level scale ranging from "strongly disagree" being the first one to "strongly agree" – the fifth.

Independent variable: Hedonic motivation

To compute the variable of the *hedonic motivations* among our respondents we used sytanx sentence compute average value of indicators:

21. I go shopping for fun.

22. I go shopping because I enjoy it.

23. I go shopping to keep up with trends.

In order to compute the new variable we computed the mean, which is a result of the sum of all the values of these questions which is then divided with the number of the indicators, which in our case, is 3. Before doing so we had to standardise the data to make the same scale for all the indicators. In our case, all of the indicators are on a Likert 5-level scale ranging from "strongly disagree" being the first one to "strongly agree" – the fifth.

9.2.2.2 Univariate analysis for H2 variables

We computed descriptive statistics and frequencies analysis for each of variables in H1. It is shown in the table and graphs below.

Table 9.6: Descriptive statistics for variables

	purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands	Utilitarian motivations	hedonic motivations
N Valid	200	199	199
Missing	0	1	1
Mean	1,3500	3,6600	2,8141
Std. Deviation	,76841	,72064	,95143
Skewness	-,156	-,816	,133
Std. Error of Skewness	,172	,172	,172
Kurtosis	-,548	,580	-,618
Std. Error of Kurtosis	,342	,343	,343
Minimum	,00	1,00	1,00
Maximum	3,00	5,00	5,00

The mean of these three indicators is 3.660, and as this mean which has derived from a Likert 5-level scale, indicates that in general, our respondents tend, on a not very high scale, to be driven by *utilitarian motivations* regarding their purchase intentions. This value takes place between the "neither agree nor disagree" and "agree" values.

The standard deviation of the data from the mean is 0.72064, and this does not indicate high variance from the mean of this standardized variable.

The coefficient values of skewness (-0.816) and kurtosis (580) indicate a normal distribution of the variable as those values range from -1 to 1.

The mean of these three indicators is 2.8141, and as this mean which has derived from a Likert 5-level scale, indicates that in general, our respondents are more likely to not agree and be rather neutral to *hedonic motivations* when it comes to their purchase intentions.

The standard deviation of the data from the mean is 0.95143, and this indicates the variance of the data from the computed mean

The coefficient values of skewness (0.133) and kurtosis (-618) indicate a normal distribution of the variable because those values range from -1 to 1.

Figure 0.4: Distribution of independent variable – Utilitarian motivation

Utilitarian motivations

Mean =3,66
Std. Dev. =0,721
N =199
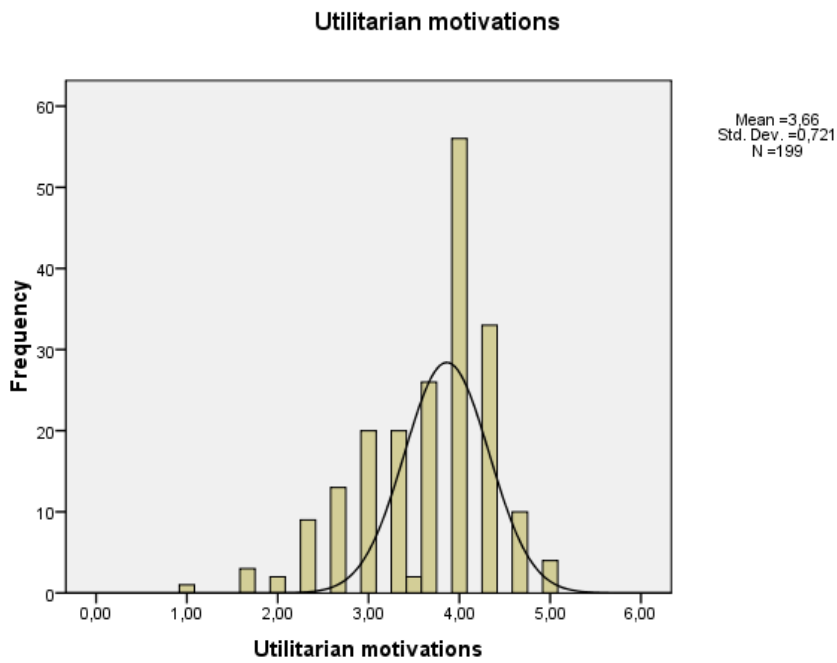
This histogram shows the normal distribution of the data for the first independent variable, it being utilitarian motivations.

Figure 0.5:Distribution of independent variable – Hedonic motivation

hedonic motivations

Mean =2,81
Std. Dev. =0,951
N =199
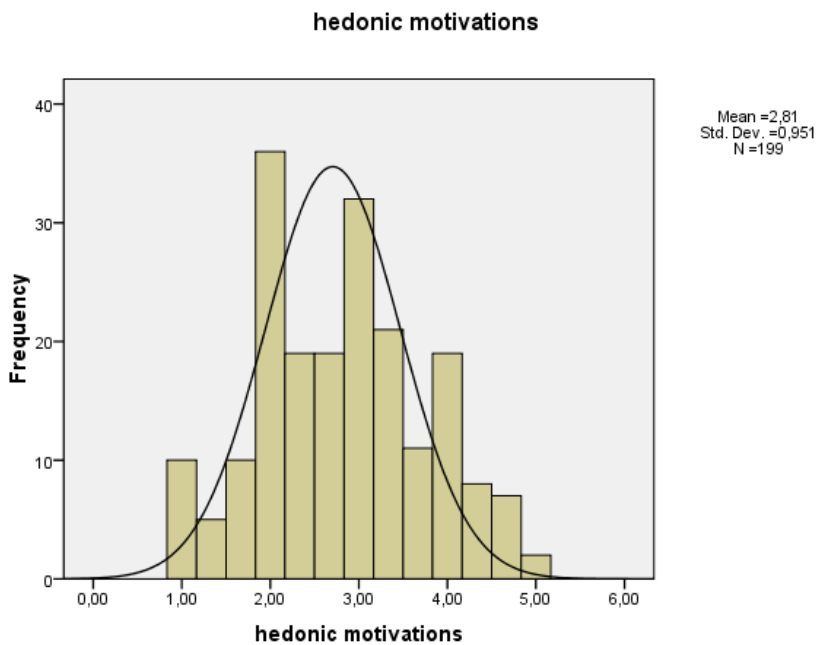
9.2.2.3 Correlation analysis

Table 9.7: Correlations

		purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands	Utilitarian motivations	hedonic motivations
purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands	Pearson Correlation	1	-,043	-,030
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,549	,676
	N	200	199	199
Utilitarian motivations	Pearson Correlation	-,043	1	,047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,549		,507
	N	199	199	199
hedonic motivations	Pearson Correlation	-,030	,047	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,676	,507	
	N	199	199	199

The Pearson's r correlation value (Pearson's r=-0.045) between the *utilitarian motivations,* which is the independent variable and the *purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands,* the dependent variable, shows a relatively weak negative correlation between these two variables. This means that the more the respondents are driven by utilitarian motivations (explained by the abovementioned indicators), the less likely they are to intend to purchase local products. This correlation, however, lacks explanatory power, since the p-value here is much higher than 0.05 (p-value=0.549).

An inverse correlation also occurs between the independent variable, *hedonic motivations,* and the dependent variable *purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands,* shown by the correlation value in the Pearson's r, which is -0.030. This value is also weak; in fact, it is weaker than the value for the correlation between the dependent variable and the first independent variable. The more hedonically motivated our respondents are, the less likely they are to purchase local products, the model says, although the influence is not very strong. The model also is not significant, as the p-value=0.676, which is higher than 0.05.

9.2.2.4 Regression analysis

Table 9.8: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,051[a]	,003	,008	,77285

a. Predictors: (Constant), hedonic motivations, Utilitarian motivations

The Adjusted R Square in this model summary (Adj R^2=0.008) tells that 8% of the variance in the dependent value is explained by the independent values of our model. Simply speaking, the variation in the purchase intentions for the local products among our respondents is explained 8% by their utilitarian and hedonic motivations.

Table 9.9: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	,305	2	,153	,255	,775[a]
	Residual	117,072	196	,597		
	Total	117,377	198			

a. Predictors: (Constant), hedonic motivations, Utilitarian motivations
b. Dependent Variable: purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands

As seen from the F statistics=0.255 and the p-value=0.775, in this ANOVA table, the model does not explain the dependent variable, as the p-value here is larger than 0.05. Otherwise saying, the utilitarian motivations and the hedonic motivations, serving here as independent valuables, do not predict the purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands, which here is the dependent variable

To our surprise, the correlation analyses indicate an inverse relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable regarding the second hypothesis. This indicates the higher the in hedonic and utilitarian motivations, the lower the intention to purchase Kosovo local brands. Customers do not purchase these brands out of utilitarian motivations, being that the affordable price, the necessary items, or the like. Neither are they persuaded from hedonic motivations such as the experience they receive from purchasing these brands. Pursuing these aims actually brings customers to a negative decision regarding purchasing local products. In

addition, according to the results shown in the linear regression analysis, both utilitarian motivations and hedonic motivations only explain 8% of the variance in the purchase intentions for Kosovo local brands. Thus, this research cannot say that the indicators for the *attitude towards the behavior* of the Theory of Planned Behavior, the utilitarian and hedonic motivations, play a role at all in explaining the variance in the purchase intention for Kosovo's local product due to its statistical insignificance. Moreover, the model is far from significant as the p-value=0.775; significantly higher than 0.05.

Table 9.10: Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	1,577	,321		4,911	,000	,944	2,211
	Utilitarian motivations	-,044	,076	-,041	-,580	,562	-,195	,106
	hedonic motivations	-,023	,058	-,028	-,389	,697	-,136	,091

a. Dependent Variable: purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands

The Coefficients table explains for each independent variable its relationship significance to the dependent variable.

Looking at the significance value of the first independent variable, *utilitarian motivations,* (t=-0.580; p-value=0.562), we can say that it does not explain the dependent variable, as this value is higher than 0.05. Utilitarian motivations do not explain the respondent's purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands.

The significance level of the second independent variable, *hedonic motivations,* is also low (t=-0.389; p-value=697). In fact the model is not significant, and it does not explain the dependent variable. In other words, it does not predict the respondent's purchase intention.

Since the model is not significant; said differently, the independent variables help predict the dependent variable, there is no need to analyze the variable coefficients.

The coefficients for the motivations explanatory variables are negative and insignificant although the coefficient for the utilitarian motivations (-0,044) is higher in absolute sense than the one for

hedonic motivations (-0.023). This indicates that higher utilitarian and hedonic motivations increase the purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands.

Regarding shopping in general, Kosovar customers tend to be driven more by utilitarian rather than hedonic motivations judging from the computed mean. In other words, the purchase behavior is more goal-oriented which includes comparing the price, the quality, and other segments of the product to maximize their utility. This possible relates to the level of purchasing power of the Kosovar customer taking into account the general economic situation in Kosovo. Rather than being driven by the six components of hedonic motivation, which are getting a sense of adventure from shopping, a desire to spend time with family and friends while shopping, the need to reward oneself with shopping, or the idea of keeping up with latest trends. Had this study differentiated between the so-called utilitarian goods (groceries and appliances) from hedonic goods (clothes and automobiles) we assume the results would be different because usually different criteria are set for the two categories. Regarding the utilitarian and hedonic motivations in correlation with the purchase intention for Kosovo local products, the results show an interesting behavior. There is a relatively weak inverse relationship between both motivations and intention to purchase. Neither hedonic (Pearson r= -0.30) nor utilitarian (Pearson r= -0.43) motivations drive Kosovar consumers to buy their local products. Better saying, they have a negative impact in doing so: the higher the utilitarian or hedonic motivation, the lower the purchase intention for Kosovo local products

Therefore, the research question posed by the thesis remains unanswered as the results of the tested hypotheses are inconclusive. According to the results, we do not know whether motivations, be that hedonic or utilitarian, affect the purchase intention for Kosovo local brands. The same can be said about the exposure to advertisement on TV and social media. Hedonic and utilitarian motivations substituted the *attitude towards the behavior* determinant in TPB for this research, and it is inconclusive whether this determinant influences intention in this context. The same interpretation goes for the first hypothesis, where exposure to advertisement in TV and social media substitutes the determinant of *subjective norms* in TBP. Since the results are insignificant, it cannot be assumed whether this determinant does or does not influence intention in this context. The exposure to TV and social media advertisement explain the variance in purchase intention for Kosovo local brands slightly more than the hedonic and utilitarian motivation given the fact that the first explains 12% of the variance while the last explains only

8%. Although none of these percentages are high, a common consensus is that in social sciences these percentages are expected to be generally low.

As regards to the validity of the results, adapting the hypotheses to the theory was somewhat complex due to the fact that the variables used in the hypotheses served as substitutions for the determinants on the *Theory of Planned Behavior,* as explained in the first chapters of the thesis .The determinants were not tested per se in a particular context but they were substituted in both hypotheses: regarding the independent variables, *exposure to advertisement on social media (Facebook)* and *exposure to advertisement on TV channels* substitute the *subject*ive *norm* determinant of TPB while *hedonic* and *utilitarian motivations* replace the *attitude towards behaviour* determinant. Also when it comes to the dependent variable, the *purchase intention* is used instead of the determinant of *intention.* This in order to make the research more practical and specific. However, although the research results respond to the hypotheses statements, they do not correspond with the ground theory of choice. This is due to the fact that the theory only states that these determinants impact the *intention*, while the research splits each determinant (after substitution) and test which independent variable within the determinant has a stronger impact on the dependent variable. To this end, the research goes beyond what the theory states. Moreover, the TPB contains another determinant, which is *perceived behavioral control,* which this research has not taken into account, and this indicates an incomplete use of the theory as it does not test one of its determinants. In this light, a more suitable theory for this research could be the *theory of Reasoned Action* developed by Ajzen prior to him adding the determinant of *perceived behavioral control* and extend the TRA to TPB. Taking all these arguments into account, one can conclude that the research lacks construct validity; in other words, the ground theory is not the best explanation for the results. With this said, the research possesses internal validity as the independent variables are responsible for the observed changes in the dependent variables albeit in small amounts, as indicated by the percentage obtained from the regression analysis. When it comes to external validity, as the research relates specifically to Kosovo and purchase intention for Kosovo brands, it is hard to say whether the same results apply to other contexts, or more specifically, other countries. This is because the specific variable of *purchase intention* is not affected solely by the independent variables used in this research but also by other determinant which might not apply to other contexts, inter alia, the quality of the local products, the economic situation in Kosovo, etc. In

terms of external validity and comparison with other literature on the matter for the first hypothesis, generally exposure to advertisement in social media together with the exposure to advertisement in TV channel explain a rather higher percentage of variability in purchase intention as opposed to 12%, with one being higher than the other depending on the research specifics. When the results of the second hypothesis are compared to the general literature which supports the claim that hedonic and utilitarian motivations impact positively purchase intention, there is a discrepancy the results show the opposite. This might be of an indication that the research results do not posses high external validity; however, this is inconclusive as the research tests solely the behavior in the context of Kosovo.

10   Conclusion

Understanding what motivates Kosovar customers to purchase local products is very significant not only for the success of the local companies but also for Kosovo's efforts to decrease unemployment and strengthen its economy because with no understanding of the psychology of this purchase behavior, it is very hard to tackle the needs and desires of the customers, and a grand portion of the endeavors to boost the sale of local brands will go down the drain. Moreover, knowing the channel through which the customers are persuaded is also of great help in this continuous effort as it refines the communication strategy of the local companies and makes them more efficient in conveying their information and persuading the customers to purchase their product. This research shows that the Kosovar customers are affected more positively by the exposure to local brands advertisements on social media (Facebook) than on TV when it comes to purchase intention although not very strongly. The results, thus, confirm the hypothesis posed by the research although they are inconclusive as the model is insignificant. Moreover, their intention to purchase decreases as their hedonic and utilitarian motivation increases – which means it is an inverse correlation. The more hedonically or utilitarian motivated the person is to shop, the less likely they will purchase Kosovo local brands. This is also a weak correlation, with utilitarian motivations and intention to purchase have a stronger inverse correlation than hedonic motivation. These results also are inconclusive due to the insignificance of the model. This rejects our second hypothesis which states that the utilitarian motivation increase the purchase intention for Kosovar local brands more than hedonic motivation. The overall research question of what increases purchase intention for Kosovo local brands remains largely unanswered from the results of the hypotheses testing as they both are inconclusive. What they have shown, however, is that exposure advertisements of local products in social media is more effective than exposure in such adverts in TV channels, and that, strangely enough, the higher the hedonic or utilitarian motivations to shop, the lower are the chances to shop for Kosovo local brands in particular, according to the responses received from the questionnaire.

Due to the statistical insignificance of the models, the research could use some recommendations for future reference. This insignificance might be due the lack of inclusiveness and variety in terms of the age group, as the majority of the sample size was 18-24 old, and they do not usually do the regular food shopping. Therefore, targeting a higher age demographic would probably product more significant results. It can also be a result of a relatively small sample size as the process of shopping involves a large number of the population. With specific reference to the first hypothesis, the insignificance could be due to lack of interest among the users of social networking channels or viewers of TV on the activities of companies regarding brand promotion, and that media channels are indeed not relevant when it comes to increasing the intention to purchase. Other factors which should be further investigated might also play a role. Keeping in mind such recommendations and refining the study, it could be used for marketing and brand academics and practitioners, especially those working in the field of promoting Kosovo's local products so that they understand the psychology behind increasing customers' purchase intentions.

11 Zviševanje nakupnega namena za lokalne blagovne znamke na Kosovu

Kosovo je najmlajša evropska država z nemirno preteklostjo, ki poskuša postati mednarodno priznana, socialno stabilna in v celoti delujoča država s stabilnim gospodarstvom, ob tem pase srečuje z mnogimi izzivi. Eden izmed njih je gospodarske narave: v državi, kjer je leta 2013 stopnja brezposelnosti dosegla 36,9%, nacionalni proizvodi težko pridobijo primeren tržni delež tako znotraj, kot tudi izven meja. Razlogi segajo od velikega in prevladujočega uvoza iz sosednjih držav do domnevne nepripravljenosti potrošnikov za nakup domačih blagovnih znamk. Prodaja doma proizvedenega blaga in storitev je v interesu domačih podjetij, delovne sile in celotnega kosovskega gospodarstva. Kosovske blagovne znamke morajo pridobiti večji tržni delež,zatoje potrebno razumeti nakupovalne navade potrošnikov, njihovo nakupnonamero in poti, preko katerih nate namere lahko vplivamo. Cilj te raziskave je torej razumeti vlogo utilitarističnih in hedonističnih motivov, kot tudi vpliv televizije in družbenih medijev na povečanje nakupne namere zalokalne blagovne znamke.

Raziskava zajema številne koncepte, kot so trženje blagovnih znamk, družbeni mediji, motivacija in nakupna namera. V raziskavi je blagovna znamka opredeljena kot osebnost proizvoda ali podjetja (Takamura in Christensen 2007, 2–3); to naredi proizvode raznolike. Trženje blagovnih znamk je v to delo vključeno, saj naj bi po nekaterih ocenah podjetja po svetu pridobila okoli 70 odstotkov prihodkovglede nauspešnost njihovih blagovnih znamk (Lindemann, 2003). Trženje torej predstavlja pomemben dejavnik, ki vpliva na nakupno nameropotrošnikov, kar pa ustvarja ekonomsko vrednost podjetja. Poleg tegaso družbeni mediji opredeljeni kot sredstvo, ki ». . . predstavlja družbeno renesanso, ki je ustvarila edinstven in dinamičen ekosistem, ki ga podpirajo uspešne kulture in življenjski slogi« (Solis 2010, 36). So revolucionarno sredstvo, ki je spremenilo način komunikacije, in okrepilokoncept realnega časa in virtualnega prostora. Preoblikovalo je način nastanka, razporeditve in uporabe informacij: komunikacija ni več enosmeren ali dvosmeren proces, saj je sodelovanje v družbenih medijih podobno sodelovanju v javni sferi, kjer je precej večja transparentnost kot pri tradicionalnih medijih. V tej raziskavi družbeni mediji predstavljajo kanal, kikosovskim lokalnim podjetjem omogoča trženje svojih izdelkov v prizadevanju, da bi dosegliuporabnike in pozitivno vplivali na njihove nakupne

namere. Koncept motivacije je razdeljen na dve vrsti, ki sta najbolj razširjeni pri nakupovalnih navadah: *utilitaristična* in *hedonistična* motivacija. Utilitaristična motivacija je opredeljena kot razumska, kognitivno vodena in orientirana k cilju, ki ima instrumentalno vrednost, saj vodi kupca k iskanju uporabnih in praktičnih izdelkov (Kang in Park 2010, 312–328). Utilitaristična motivacija pripada vidiku procesiranja informacij, saj zaradi njeobravnavamo in ocenjujemonek proizvod glede na njegovo funkcionalnost: utilitaristična motivacija izhaja iz posameznikove želje, da bi z določenim vedenjem nekaj pridobil (Holbrook in Hirschmann 1982, 138). Na drugi strani pa je hedonistična motivacija opredeljena kot iskanje čustev: sreča, prijateljstvo, zadovoljstvoin fantazija ter spoštovanje, ki ga doživljamo pri izvajanjudoločenega vedenja (Hirschman in Holbrook 1982, 92–101; Batra in Ahtola 1991, 159-166). Hedonistična motivacija se torej osredotoča na izkustvo ob izvajanju določenega vedenja.

Osrednja točka te raziskave je koncept nakupne namere, na katero gledamo z vidika *namere*po teoriji planiranega vedenja (TPV), ki jo že od sredine 1980-ih razvija IcekAjzenin je nastala kot dopolnitev njegove prejšnje teorije razumne akcije (TRA). TPV služi kot temeljna teorija te raziskavein trdi, da trije dejavniki vplivajo na potrošnikovo namero ter posledično tudi na njegovo vedenje: stališča do vedenja, subjektivna norma in zaznana kontrola vedenja. Nakupna namera je potrošnikovo nagibanje k nakupu določenega izdelka ali storitve, na kar vpliva njegovo zaznavanje izdelka, odnos do izdelka in zadovoljstvo z izdelkom (Morrison 1979, 66–72; Taylor in Baker 1994, 164–166).Nakupna namera je pojem, ki opisuje pripravljenost ljudi za nakup in verjetnost, da bodo ta izdelek ali storitev priporočili tudi drugim (Dodds idr. 1991, 307–309; Prendergast idr. 2010).

Kosovska podjetja oglašujejo svoje blagovne znamke preko različnih medijskih kanalov, še posebej prekooglasov in kampanj na televizijiter v družbenih medijih, kot je Facebook. To dvoje se na Kosovu najpogosteje uporablja, zato so potrošniki najpogosteje izpostavljeni oglaševanju ravno preko teh dveh kanalov;najbolj smiselno je torej preveritiizpostavljenost kateremu izmed teh dveh medijskih kanalovnajbolj vpliva na nakupno namero.Izpostavljenost oglaševanju v tej raziskavi igra vlogo *socialnih norm*poTPV, ki to opredeljuje kot posameznikovo zaznavanje socialnega pritiska. To pomeni, da posameznik zaznava ocenjevanje in družbeni pritiskglede sodelovanja oziroma nesodelovanja v določenem vedenju. Subjektivne norme imajo večji pomen, ko je posameznikovo poistovetenje s skupino močno (Terry in Hogg, 2000) in ko je

kolektivni jaz izstopajoč v posameznikovi osebnosti (White idr. 2009, 142). Glede na dejstvo, da vsebina večine oglasov lokalnih kosovskih blagovnih znamk na televiziji in Facebooku običajno predstavlja nek razlog za nakup (kupovanje lokalnih blagovnih znamk povečuje kosovsko gospodarstvo) in kolektivni jaz (ljudje naj ne kupujejo teh izdelkov samo iz lastnih motivov, ampak zaradi celega naroda), izpostavljanje tem oglasom pomeni bolj izpostavljanje subjektivnim normam, ki so skupne celotni družbi.

Med spremljanjem oglasov kosovskih lokalnih podjetij sem opazil, da jih veliko apelira napotrošnikovo utilitaristično in hedonistično motivacijo, na primer z naštevanjem prednosti in opisovanjem izkušenj, ki jihdoločen izdelek ponuja. Glede na to dejstvo nameravam preveriti, ali je izkoriščanjeteh motivacij sploh učinkovito, in če je, katera motivacijabolj vpliva na potrošnikovo nakupno namero za lokalne kosovske blagovne znamke.Utilitaristična in hedonistična motivacijav tem primeru zamenjata*odnos do vedenja* po TPV, kar je opredeljeno kot posameznikova ocenitev vedenja in njegovo prepričanje o posledicah določenega vedenja. Drugače povedano, ali posameznik meni, da bo z nakupom lokalne blagovne znamke doživel prijetno izkušnjo ali pa ledosegel nek cilj.

Glavni cilj te raziskave je torej odgovoriti na naslednje Vprašanje Raziskave:

VR: Kaj pri kosovskih kupcih poveča nakupno namero zalokalne blagovne znamke?

V tej raziskavi hedonistična in utilitaristična motivacija za menjujeta determinanto *stališč do vedenja*, izpostavljenostoglasom na Facebooku in televiziji pa za menjuje determinant o*subjektivnih norm* po TPV. Poleg tega je *namera*zamenjana z nakupno namero, saj na ta način teorija postane bolj uporabna. To pa zato, ker so zamenjave neposredni pokazateljiin je razumevanje le teh v marketinškem svetu lažje. Odgovor na to vprašanje predstavljav praksi velik pomen, saj je bilo že prej omenjeno,da je tržni delež kosovskih lokalnih blagovnih znamk daleč od želenega; torej negativno vpliva na nacionalno gospodarstvo. Na vprašanje nameravam odgovoriti s preverjanjem dveh hipotez, ki zajemata vpliv medijev na potrošnikein pa motivacijo, ki žene potrošnikek nakupu kosovskih lokalnih znamk ne glede na njihovo nakupno namero.

H1: Izpostavljenost oglasom prekodružbenih medijev (Facebook) bolj povečanakupno namero zalokalne kosovske blagovne znamke kot pa izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizije.

Izpostavljenost oglasom preko kanalov družbenih medijev bolj vpliva na posameznikove nakupne namere kot pa preko televizije zaradi več razlogov. Prvi razlog je sodelovanje med prepričevanjem in okrepljenim sistemomdvosmerne komunikacije, sajdružbeni mediji omogočajo bolj intenzivno komunikacijo med potrošnikom in podjetjem. Drugi razlog pa je povezan z občutkom skupnosti, ker komunikacija ne vključuje samo dialoga, ampak poleg tega tudi celotno mrežo sodelujočih, kar lahko povzroči, da se skupnost osredotoča na določenevrste blagovnih znamk.

H2: Utilitaristični motivi bolj povečajo nakupno namero zalokalne kosovske blagovne znamke kot pa hedonistični motivi.

Potrošnike bolj ženejo utilitaristični motivi, saj največkratželijo pomagatilokalni kosovski proizvodnji in s tem prispevatik rasti kosovskega gospodarstva. Kljub vsemu pa so vpleteni tudi drugi dejavniki, kot so na primer običajno nizke cene teh izdelkov, saj je kupna moč povprečnega prebivalca Kosova relativno nizka.

Da bi poenostavili in naredili raziskavo bolj uporabno, je pristop do testiranja teh dveh hipotez dokaj praktičen; navezuje se zgolj na TPV s tem, da so nekatere komponente te teorije zamenjane: stališča do vedenja s hedonistično in utilitaristično motivacijo; subjektivne norme z izpostavitvijo oglasom preko Facebooka in televizije ter namera z nakupno namero.

Za testiranje teh dveh hipotez smo uporabili kvantitativno obliko raziskave. Pri izboru anketirancev je bilo uporabljeno verjetnostno vzorčenje. Pri tej obliki vzorčenja so enote izbrane naključno, tako, da imajo vse enotevzorčenja vsaj teoretično enake možnost, da so izbrane v vzorec; drugače povedano, za izbor ni posebnega kriterija. Iz vzorčnega okvirja potem izbiramo elemente in dobimo sistematični vzorec. Pri sistematičnemu vzorčenjunaključno izberemo začetno število, razmak med prvim in drugim številom pa predstavlja interval, ki se ponavlja med vsemi naslednjimi števili v vzorcu (tj. vsak deseti posameznik je anketiran) (Castillo 2009). Razlog za izbor sistematičnega vzorčenja je ta, da je ta metoda preprosta in vključuje raznolika mnenja, kar je zelo primerno za preverjanje teh dveh hipotez. Prva hipoteza domneva, da je

izpostavljenostdružbenim medijem (Facebook) bolj uspešna pri povečanju potrošnikove nakupne namere zalokalne kosovske proizvode kot pa izpostavljenost televizijskim kanalom.Druga hipoteza pa se glasi, dautilitaristična motivacijabolj vplivana potrošnikovonakupno namero zalokalne kosovske proizvode kot pa hedonistična.

Pri raziskavi se uporablja statistična analizaz uporaboPearsonovega koeficienta korelacije (r) z namenom ugotovitve, če obstaja pozitivna ali negativna korelacija med različnimi spremenljivkami, izpeljanimi iz obeh hipotez in katera korelacija je močnejša. Raziskovalec običajno ugotavlja vzročno zvezo med dvema spremenljivkama in kako neodvisna spremenljivka vpliva na odvisno. Pearsonov koeficient korelacije (r) pokaže tudi stopnjo zaupanja, ki določa s kolikšno gotovostjo lahko raziskovalec trdi, da izbran vzorec predstavlja populacijo. Meri tudi linearno povezanost dveh spremenljivk (neodvisne in odvisne),kjer koeficient lahko zavzame vrednosti v intervalu od -1 do +1. Prva vrednost kaže na to, da imata spremenljivki negativno, druga pa da imata pozitivno korelacijo. Torej bolj kot se koeficient približa vrednosti 1, močnejša je korelacija med dvema spremenljivkama, pozitivna ali negativna.

V tej raziskavi je bila uporabljena metoda anketiranja z razdelitvijo vprašalnikov v Prištini, glavnem mestu Kosova. V tem primeru je uporaba vprašalnikov najbolj ustrezna, saj raziskava obsega široko območje, cilj pa je vključiti čim večje število posameznikov z namenom pridobitvečim več stališč. Podatki, zbrani v tej raziskavi, temeljijo na anketiranju vsakega desetega kupca, ki je odhajal iz trgovine. Raziskava se je namreč izvajala pred petimi trgovinami v Prištini. Anketiranih je bilo 200 posameznikov različnih demografskih skupin. Anketiranje je bilo izvedeno z neposredno interakcijo, uporabljena pa so bila vprašanja z več možnimi odgovori, vprašanja zaprtega tipa, ter tudi nekaj filtrirnih vprašanj.

Prva hipoteza se glasi, da izpostavljenost oglasom prekodružbenih medijev (Facebook) bolj poveča nakupno namero zalokalne kosovske izdelke kot pa izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizijskih kanalov (izpostavljenost tukaj deluje kot komponenta socialnih norm poIsacAjzenovi*teoriji planiranega vedenja*). Rezultatilinearne regresijske analize so pokazali, da z izpostavljenostjo obema medijskima kanaloma lahko pojasnimo12 % celotne varianceodvisne spremenljivke nakupna namera.Vseeno pa je celoten model statistično neznačilen, saj je p-vrednost=0,115, kljub temu, daizpostavljenost oglasom prekodružbenih medijev bolj pozitivno vpliva na nakupno namero, kot pa izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizijskih kanalov, glede na

regresijske koeficiente. Analiza korelacijje pokazala tudimočnejšo pozitivno korelacijo med spremenljivkamaizpostavljenost oglasom prekodružbenih medijev in nakupna namera kot pa med izpostavljenostjooglasom preko televizijskih kanalov in odvisno spremenljivko. Nemogoče je torej določiti ali imaizpostavljenost oglasom preko teh medijskih kanalov (namesto socialnih norm po TPV) sploh vpliv nanakupno namero, kar kaže tudi regresijska analiza. Vseeno pa lahko prvo hipotezo potrdimo glede na analizo korelacij in rečemo, da izpostavljenost oglasom prekodružbenih medijev (Facebook) bolj poveča nakupno namero zalokalne kosovske izdelke kot pa izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizijskih kanalov.

Pri preverjanju druge hipoteze jeanaliza korelacij na naše presenečenje pokazala obratno sorazmerje med neodvisnima spremenljivkama in odvisno spremenljivko. To pomeni, da močnejša kot je utilitaristična ali hedonistična motivacija, manjša je nakupna namera. Potrošniki ne kupujejo lokalnih blagovnih znamkzaradiutilitaristične motivacije, kot je na primer dostopna cena ali paizdelki, ki jih potrebujemo in podobno. Prav tako jih ne prepričahedonistična motivacija, kot jena primer izkušnja, ki jo pridobimo z nakupom teh izdelkov. Prizadevanje za dosego teh ciljev kupce pravzaprav odvrne od nakupa lokalnih izdelkov. Poleg tega pa glede na rezultate analize linearne regresije tako z utilitaristično kot tudi z hedonističnomotivacijolahko pojasnimo samo 8% variancespremenljivke nakupna namera. Koeficienti med različnimi spremenljivkami so negativni, nizki in statistično neznačilni, čeprav je koeficient utilitaristične motivacije bližje vrednosti -1 (-0,044) kot pa koeficient hedonistične motivacije (-0,023). To pomeni, da namesto, da bi ti dve vrsti motivacije povečevali nakupno namero,jov bistvu zmanjšujeta. Glede na analizo korelacij pa moramo to hipotezo celo zavrniti, saj je vrednost korelacije med spremenljivkama utilitaristična motivacija in nakupna namera, -0,043, vrednostkorelacije med spremenljivkama hedonistična motivacija in nakupna namera pa -0,030. Raziskava torej ne more dokazati, da imata omenjeni motivaciji kakršno koli vlogo pri pojasnjevanju variance spremenljivke nakupna namera, saj so vrednosti statistično neznačilne. Poleg tega je celoten model daleč od statistično značilnega, saj je p-vrednost=0,775, kar je precej višje od 0,05. Statistični rezultati torej zavračajo drugo hipotezo.

Vprašanje raziskave torej ostaja neodgovorjeno, saj na podlagi pridobljenih rezultatov ne moremo priti do nekegazaključka.Ne vemo ali motivacija, bodisi hedonistična ali utilitaristična, sploh vpliva na nakupno namero. Enako lahko trdimo za izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizije

ali družbenih medijev. Hedonistična in utilitaristična motivacija sta v tej raziskavi zamenjali*stališča do vedenja* po TPV, torej ni mogoče določiti, v kakšni meri, če sploh, ti dejavniki vplivajo na nakupnonamero. Podobno lahko interpretiramo rezultate testiranja prve hipoteze, kjer je izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizije in družbenih medijev zamenjala*subjektivne norme* po TPV. Ker so rezultati statističnoneznačilni ne moremo vedeti, alita dejavnik vpliva na nakupno namero v tem kontekstu. Izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizije in družbenih medijev malce bolj pojasni varianco spremenljivkenakupna namera zalokalne kosovske blagovne znamke kot pa hedonistična in utilitaristična motivacija, glede na to, da s prvo lahkopojasnimo 18% variance med tem ko z drugo samo 8%. Čeprav ti odstotni deleži niso visoki pa velja splošno prepričanje, da so nizki odstotni deleži v družboslovju pričakovani.

Glede na rezultate, ki smo jih dobili pri preverjanju hipotez,oglaševanje takona televiziji kot tudi v družbenih medijih (v tem primeru Facebook) kupce ne prepriča v nakup kosovskih lokalnih blagovnih znamk, kljub temu, da analiza korelacij kaže na to, da je oglaševanje v družbenihmedijih rahlo bolj uspešno pri tem (Pearsonov koeficient korelacije r=,136 za spremenljivko socialne mreže v primerjavi z vrednostjo Pearsonov koeficient korelacije r=,087 za spremenljivko televizijski kanali). Več avtorjev, med njimi tudi Weber, je izpostavilo, da uporaba družbenih medijev predstavlja prednost za podjetja, saj s tem omogočimo pregledno komunikacijo in spodbujamo tesne odnose med podjetjem in potrošniki. Izpostavljenost potrošnikov temu komunikacijskemu prostoru ustvarja močno vez, kar naredi kupce bolj zveste neki blagovni znamki in jih prepričuje v nakup njenih izdelkov. V okviru te raziskave, ki se osredotoča na odnos med kosovskimi lokalnimi podjetji in potrošniki, in ugotavlja, kako ta odnos pozitivno vpliva na potrošnikove nakupne namere, se je izkazalo, da izpostavljenost kupcev informacijam, oglasom ali drugim tehnikam, ki jih podjetja uporabljajo za prepričevanje strank v nakup njihovih izdelkov, ni ravno uspešna glede na šibko, pa čeprav pozitivno korelacijo med izpostavljenostjooglasom prekodružbenih medijev (Facebook) in nakupno namero.Razlogov za to je lahko več, od nezmožnosti podjetij, da bi se zadostno približali kupcem, pa vse do dejstva, da kupci ne uporabljajo Facebooka z namenom pridobivanja in izmenjavanja informacij o lokalnih kosovskih izdelkih. Kot je bilo že omenjeno, ima izpostavljenost oglasom prekodružbenihmedijevmočnejšo korelacijo z nakupno namero kot pa izpostavljenost oglasom preko televizije.

Kar se tiče nakupovanja na splošno, kosovske kupce bolj ženejo utilitaristični motivi kot pa hedonistični glede na izračunano povprečje. Z drugimi besedami, nakupovalno vedenje je bolj ciljno orientirano kar vključuje primerjavo cen, kvalitete in drugih segmentov izdelkov, kar izdelke naredi najbolj ustrezne za nakup. To se verjetno nanaša tudi na kupno moč kosovskih potrošnikov glede na splošno gospodarsko stanje v državi.Potrošnike torej ne ženejo komponente hedonistične motivacije, kot je občutek doživetja med nakupovanjem, želja po preživljanju časa z družino in prijatelji med nakupovanjem, potreba, da se nagradijo z nakupovanjem ali pa sledenje zadnjim trendom. Če bi ta raziskava razlikovala med tako imenovanimi utilitarističnimi dobrinami (živila in aparati) in hedonističnimi dobrinami (oblačila in avtomobili) lahko predvidevamo, da bi bili rezultati drugačni, saj imajo potrošniki za ti dve kategoriji običajno drugačne kriterije. Glede na utilitaristične in hedonistične motivacije v korelaciji z nakupno namero zalokalne kosovske izdelke rezultati kažejo zanimivo vedenje. Med obema motivacijama in nakupno namero je relativno šibko obratno razmerje. Ne hedonistična (Pearsonov koeficient korelacije r= -0,30), niti utilitaristična (Pearsonov koeficient korelacijer= -0,43) motivacija ne ženeta kosovskih potrošnikov k nakupu lokalnih izdelkov. Bolje povedano, imajo celo negativen vpliv na to; višjakot je utilitaristična ali hedonistična motivacija, nižja je nakupna namera zalokalne kosovske blagovne znamke. Razlogov je zopet lahko več. Če se osredotočimo na utilitaristično motivacijo, kot je cena, so Kosovski izdelki ponavadi dražji, čeprav so pridelani lokalno in imajo določene prednosti v smislu transporta, carine, delovne sile in drugih stroškov. Razlogi za kljub temu višje cene so na primer sosednje države, kot sta Srbija in Nekdanja jugoslovanska republika Makedonija, ki imata že dolgo uveljavljeno gospodarstvo, sektorje, ki že dosegajo ekonomijo obsega in pa državne subvencije, ki jih proizvajalci teh držav pridobivajo. Poleg tega pa glede na Srednjeevropski dogovor o svobodni trgovini (CEFTA), podjetjem iz prej omenjenih dveh držav ni potrebno plačevati carinskih dajatev. Na kosovske potrošnike hedonistična motivacija tudi negativno vplivamednakupovanjemlokalnih blagovnih znamk, vendar vseeno malce manj, kot pa utilitaristična. To je morda posledica tega, da kosovska podjetja na splošno še vedno niso ustvarila blagovnih znamk, ki bi poudarjale izkustvo pri nakupu in lastništvu določenega izdelka. Kosovski proizvajalci se poleg tega trenutno bolj osredotočajo na utilitaristične dobrine, kot pa na hedonistične, kar je verjetno tudi vplivalona odgovore anketirancev. Kupce morda motivira tudi kaj drugega, na primer moralna obveza za nakup lokalnih blagovnih znamk z namenom dvigniti gospodarstvo in stopnjo zaposlitve, vendar

bi to domnevo morali obravnavati v bolj obširni raziskavi in verjetno drugi hipotezi. Hedonistična in utilitaristična motivacijapojasnita tudi samo 8 % variancenakupne namere, preostalih 92 % pa pojasnjujejo drugi dejavniki. To pomeni, da te determinante ne predstavljajo pomembne razlagalne moči odvisne spremenljivke, posledično pa rezultati testirane hipoteze ne morejo dati dokončnega odgovora.

Ker sta modela statistično neznačilna, bi raziskava za prihodnjo uporabo potrebovala drugačen pristop. Razlog za statistično neznačilnost morda tiči v premalo vključenih posameznikih in nezadostnih razlikah med njimi, saj je bila večina anketirancev stara med 18 in 24 let, ti pa niso redni kupci.Verjetno bi dobili uporabnejše rezultate, če bi ciljali na demografsko gledano starejše prebivalce. Možno je tudi, da je eden izmed razlogov tudi majhnost vzorca, saj proces nakupovanja sicer vključuje veliko število populacije. Če se posebej osredotočimo na prvo hipotezo, je statistična neznačilnost rezultatov lahko posledica nezanimanja uporabnikov družbenih omrežij in gledalcev televizijskih kanalov za načine promoviranja izdelkov, torej medijski kanali vendarle niso pomembni za krepitev nakupne namere. Pomembno vlogo verjetno igrajo še drugi dejavniki, ki tukaj niso bili analizirani, a bi morali biti. Ob upoštevanju navedenega in z nadgradnjo te raziskave, bi bile te ugotovitve lahko uporabne za akademike in praktike s področja marketinga, še posebej za tiste, ki se ukvarjajo s promoviranjem kosovskih lokalnih izdelkov,saj bi na ta način razumeli kako povečati potrošnikove nakupne namere: kako lahko kosovske lokalne blagovne znamke zadovoljijo potrebe, ki so posledicautilitaristične alipa hedonistične motivacije.Zainteresirani bi takolahko vedeli, katere medije je vredno (če sploh) uporabljati za prepričevanje potrošnikov v nakup lokalnih blagovnih znamk.

12 Literature

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Annexes

Annex A: Questionnaire

1. On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV?

a) Less than 1 hour
b) 1-2 hours
c) 2-3 hours
d) 3-4 hours
e) 4-5hours
f) 5hours or more

2. Do you use Facebook?

Yes   No   (If answer is Yes, continue further)

3. On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook?

a) Less than 1 hour
b) 1-2 hours
c) 2-3 hours
d) 3-4 hours
e) 4-5 hours
f) 5 hours or more

4. Mark which of these product advertisements have you seen in TV and Facebook?

a)

b)

c)

d)

5. Name the brand that was shown to that advertisement?

_____

6. How often have you seen this advertisement on TV?

a) Never

b) Once a week

c) Several times a week

d) Every day

e) Several times a day

7. How often have you seen this advertisement on Facebook?

a) Never

b) Once a week

c) Several times a week

d) Every day

e) Several times a day

8.When you encountered a local product advertisement for the first time on Facebook, did you click to watch it?

a) Never

b) Rarely

c) Sometimes

d) Very Often

e) Always

9. When you encountered a local product advertisement for the first time on Facebook, did you click 'Like' button?

a) Never

b) Rarely

c) Sometimes

d) Very Often

e) Always

10. When you encountered a local product advertisement for the first time on Facebook, did you write a comment?

a) Never

b) Rarely

c) Sometimes

d) Very Often

e) Always

11. Of the advertisement you see on TV, how much do you like advertisement about local products?

a) I don't like it all

b) I don't like it

c) It is Okay

d) I like it

e) I like it very much

12. Do you buy milk?

a) Yes

b) No

13. You are in supermarket to buy milk, which of these brands you will buy?

a) Vita

b) Alpsko

c) Dukat

d) Bitolsko

e) Parmalat

14. Do you buy cafe?

a) Yes

b) No

15. You are in a supermarket to buy café, which of these brands you will buy?
a) Prince Café

b) Lavazza

c) Illy café

d)Don Café

e) Royal Café

16. Do you drink beer?

a) Yes

b) No

17. You are in a bar to drink a beer, which of these brands you will buy?

a) BirraPeja

b) Heineken

c) Tuborg

d) Lasko

e) Skopsko

18. I plan before I go shopping.

a) Strongly disagree

b) Disagree

c) Neither agree or disagree

d) Agree

e) Strongly agree

19. I compare the price.

a) Strongly disagree

b) Disagree

c) Neither agree or disagree

d) Agree

e) Strongly agree

20. On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for.

a) Strongly disagree

b) Disagree

c) Neither agree or disagree

d) Agree

e) Strongly agree

21. I go shopping for fun.

a) Strongly disagree

b) Disagree

c) Neither agree or disagree

d) Agree

e) Strongly agree

22. I go shopping because I enjoy it.

a) Strongly disagree

b) Disagree

c) Neither agree or disagree

d) Agree

e) Strongly agree

23. I go shopping to keep up with trends,

a) Strongly disagree

b) Disagree

c) Neither agree or disagree

d) Agree

e) Strongly agree

Gender:

        a) Male
        b) Female

Age:

        a) 18 – 24
        b) 25 – 34
        c) 35 – 44
        d) 45 – 54
        e) 55 – 64
        f) 65 – 74
        g) 75+

Education:

        a) Less than High School
        b) High School
        c) Some College
        d) Bachelor's Degree or Higher

Annex B: Computing Variables

Independent variables: Exposure of advertising in Social Media (Facebook); Exposure of Advertising in TV

RECODE v1 (1=1) (2=1.8) (3=2.6) (4=3.4) (5=4.2) (6=5) INTO v1_rescal.

VARIABLE LABELS v1_rescal 'v1_rescal'.

EXECUTE.

RECODE v3 (1=1) (2=1.8) (3=2.6) (4=3.4) (5=4.2) (6=5) INTO v3_rescal.

VARIABLE LABELS v3_rescal 'v3_rescal'.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE EXP_FB=MEAN(v3_rescal,v7,v8,v9,v10).

VARIABLE LABELS EXP_FB 'Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)'.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE EXP_TV=MEAN(v1_rescal,v6,v11).

VARIABLE LABELS EXP_TV 'Exposure to advertisement in TV channel'.

EXECUTE.

Independent variables: Utilitarian Motivation; Hedonic Motivation

COMPUTE UM=MEAN(v20,v21,v22).

VARIABLE LABELS UM 'Utilitarian motivations'.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE HM=MEAN(v23,v24,v25).

VARIABLE LABELS HM 'hedonic motivations'.

EXECUTE.

Dependent Variable: Purchase Intention

RECODE v15 v17 v19 (1=1) (ELSE=0) INTO v15_01 v17_01 v19_01.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE PI_domestic=SUM(v15_01,v17_01,v19_01).

VARIABLE LABELS PI_domestic 'purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands'.

EXECUTE.

Annex C: Testing Hypothesis

H1: Exposure to advertising in Social Media increases purchase intention about Kosovo's local brands more than exposure to advertising in TV channels.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=EXP_FB EXP_TV PI_domestic

  /STATISTICS=STDDEV MINIMUM MAXIMUM MEAN SKEWNESS SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT

  /HISTOGRAM NORMAL

  /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

CORRELATIONS

  /VARIABLES=EXP_FB EXP_TV PI_domestic

  /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

  /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

REGRESSION

  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N

  /MISSING LISTWISE

  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) R ANOVA

  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

  /NOORIGIN

  /DEPENDENT PI_domestic

  /METHOD=ENTER EXP_FB EXP_TV.

H2: Utilitarian motivations increase purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands more than hedonic motivations.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=PI_domestic UM HM

  /STATISTICS=STDDEV MINIMUM MAXIMUM MEAN SKEWNESS SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT

  /HISTOGRAM NORMAL

  /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

CORRELATIONS

  /VARIABLES=PI_domestic UM HM

  /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

  /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

REGRESSION

```
/DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
/MISSING LISTWISE
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) R ANOVA
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
/NOORIGIN
/DEPENDENT PI_domestic
/METHOD=ENTER UM HM.
```

Annex D: Description of the sample

Table 8.1: Frequency distribution of respondents by gender (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	93	46,5	46,7	46,7
	female	106	53,0	53,3	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 8.2: Frequency distribution of respondents by Age (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-24	108	54,0	54,5	54,5
	25-34	67	33,5	33,8	88,4
	35-44	13	6,5	6,6	94,9
	45-54	8	4,0	4,0	99,0
	55-64	2	1,0	1,0	100,0
	Total	198	99,0	100,0	
Missing	System	2	1,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 8.3: Frequency distribution of respondents by Education (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High School	21	10,5	10,5	10,5
	Some College	45	22,5	22,5	33,0
	Bachelor's Degree or Higher	134	67,0	67,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

Annex E: Table 9.1: Descriptive statistics for the whole questionnaire

	N		Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. Error of Kurtosis	Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing								
Gender	199	1	1,53	0,500	-0,132	0,172	-2,003	0,343	1	2
Age	198	2	1,63	0,855	1,576	0,173	2,563	0,344	1	5
Education	200	0	3,57	0,677	-1,270	0,172	0,295	0,342	2	4
On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV?	199	1	2,42	1,404	1,028	0,172	0,463	0,343	1	6
Do you use Facebook?	199	1	1,02	0,122	8,020	0,172	62,949	0,343	1	2
On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook?	197	3	3,47	1,627	0,235	0,173	-1,149	0,345	1	6
Mark which of these product advertisements have you seen in TV and Facebook?	187	13	2,22	0,912	-0,246	0,178	-1,380	0,354	1	4
Name the brand that was shown to that advertisement?	169	31	1,27	0,652	2,262	0,187	3,823	0,371	1	4

How often have you seen this advertisement on TV?	195	5	2,95	0,915	0,336	0,174	0,239	0,346	1	5
How often have you seen this advertisement on Facebook?	197	3	2,17	0,663	0,432	0,173	1,192	0,345	1	5
When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click to watch them?	197	3	2,40	1,145	0,536	0,173	-0,376	0,345	1	5
When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click 'Like' button?	194	6	2,31	1,086	0,596	0,175	-0,154	0,347	1	5
When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you give a comment on it?	196	4	1,59	0,834	1,653	0,174	3,194	0,346	1	5
Of the advertisement you see on TV, how much do you like advertisement about local products?	194	6	3,09	0,871	-0,039	0,175	0,842	0,347	1	5
Do you buy milk?	197	3	1,06	0,230	3,899	0,173	13,335	0,345	1	2
You are in supermarket to buy milk, which of these brands you will buy?	197	3	1,53	0,659	1,194	0,173	1,601	0,345	1	4
Do you buy cafe?	198	2	1,14	0,349	2,074	0,173	2,325	0,344	1	2
You are in a supermarket to buy café, which of these brands you will buy?	178	22	1,33	0,711	2,475	0,182	6,507	0,362	1	5
Do you drink beer?	199	1	1,38	0,486	0,512	0,172	-1,756	0,343	1	2

You are in a bar to drink a beer, which of these brands you will buy?	154	46	2,49	1,068	0,589	0,195	-0,326	0,389	1	5
I plan before I go shopping.	199	1	3,51	0,926	-0,794	0,172	0,553	0,343	1	5
I compare the price.	198	2	3,51	0,986	-0,608	0,173	-0,069	0,344	1	5
On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for.	196	4	3,97	0,914	-1,212	0,174	1,958	0,346	1	5
I go shopping for fun.	199	1	2,85	1,125	0,076	0,172	-0,802	0,343	1	5
I go shopping because I enjoy it.	199	1	2,99	1,150	-0,061	0,172	-0,914	0,343	1	5
I go shopping to keep up with trends,	197	3	2,59	1,068	0,222	0,173	-1,047	0,345	1	5

Annex F: Univariate frequency analysis of the indicators/questionnaire

Figure 9.1: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV? (N=200)

On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV?

Mean =2,42
Std. Dev. =1,404
N =199
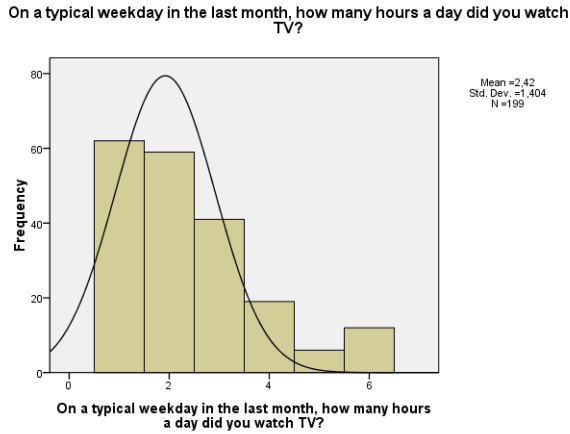
Table 9.2: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you watch TV? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 hour	62	31,0	31,2	31,2
	1-2 hours	59	29,5	29,6	60,8
	"2-3 hours"	41	20,5	20,6	81,4
	"3-4 hours"	19	9,5	9,5	91,0
	"4-5 hours"	6	3,0	3,0	94,0
	"5 hours or more"	12	6,0	6,0	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 9.3: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: Do you use Facebook? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"yes"	196	98,0	98,5	98,5
	"no"	3	1,5	1,5	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.2: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day did you use Facebook? (N=200)

On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook?

Mean =3,47
Std. Dev. =1,627
N =197

On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook?
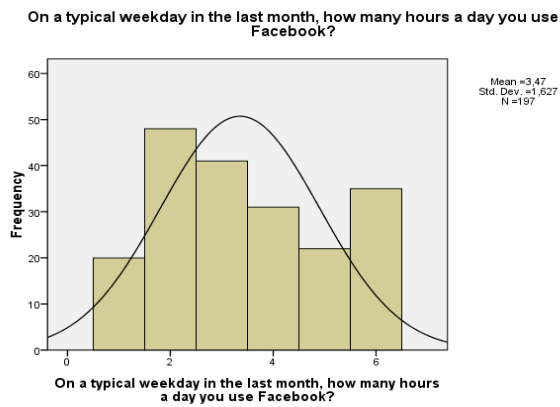
Table 9.4: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: On a typical weekday in the last month, how many hours a day you use Facebook? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 hour	20	10,0	10,2	10,2
	1-2 hours	48	24,0	24,4	34,5
	"2-3 hours"	41	20,5	20,8	55,3
	"3-4 hours"	31	15,5	15,7	71,1
	"4-5 hours"	22	11,0	11,2	82,2
	"5 hours or more"	35	17,5	17,8	100,0
	Total	197	98,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.3: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: Mark which of these product advertisements have you seen in TV and Facebook (N=200)

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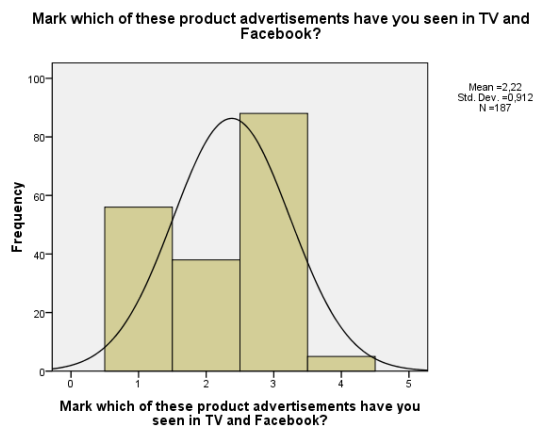
Table 9.5: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: Mark which of these product advertisements have you seen in TV and Facebook?(N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"BirraPeja"	56	28,0	29,9	29,9
	"Vita Milk"	38	19,0	20,3	50,3
	"Prince Café"	88	44,0	47,1	97,3
	"ASK Food"	5	2,5	2,7	100,0
	Total	187	93,5	100,0	
Missing	System	13	6,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.4: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: Name the brand that was shown to that advertisement? (N=200)

Name the brand that was shown to that advertisement?

Mean =1,27
Std. Dev. =0,652
N =169
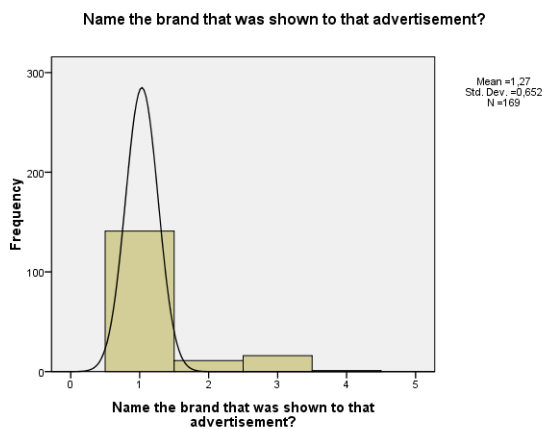
Table 9.6: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: Name the brand that was shown to that advertisement?(N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"1 brand"	141	70,5	83,4	83,4
	"2 brands"	11	5,5	6,5	89,9
	"3 brands"	16	8,0	9,5	99,4
	"4 brands"	1	,5	,6	100,0
	Total	169	84,5	100,0	
Missing	System	31	15,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.5: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: How often have you seen this advertisement on TV? (N=200)

How often have you seen this advertisement on TV?

Mean =2,95
Std. Dev. =0,915
N =195
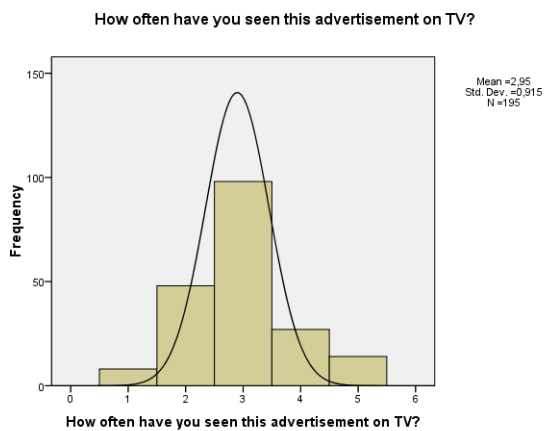
Table 9.7: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: How often have you seen this advertisement on TV? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Never"	8	4,0	4,1	4,1
	"Once a week"	48	24,0	24,6	28,7
	"Several times a week"	98	49,0	50,3	79,0
	"Every day"	27	13,5	13,8	92,8
	"Several times a day"	14	7,0	7,2	100,0
	Total	195	97,5	100,0	
Missing	System	5	2,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.6: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: How often have you seen this advertisement on Facebook? (N=200)
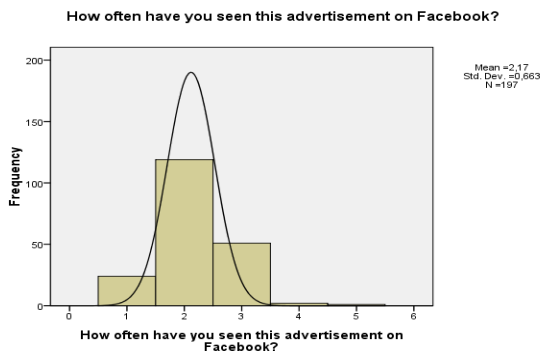
Table 9.8: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: How often have you seen this advertisement on Facebook? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Never"	24	12,0	12,2	12,2
	"Once a week"	119	59,5	60,4	72,6
	"Several times a week"	51	25,5	25,9	98,5
	"Every day"	2	1,0	1,0	99,5
	"Several times a day"	1	,5	,5	100,0
	Total	197	98,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.7: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click to watch them? (N=200)

When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click to watch them?

Mean =2,4
Std. Dev. =1,145
N =197
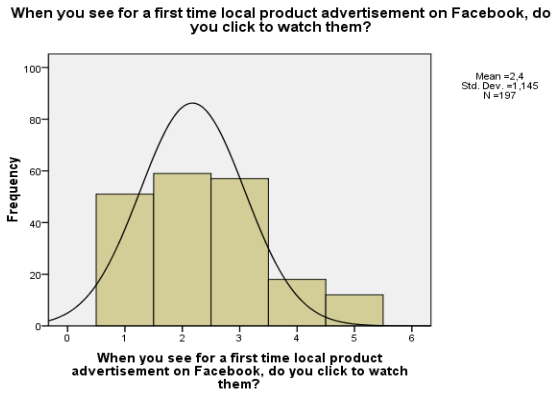
Table 9.9: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click to watch them? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Never"	51	25,5	25,9	25,9
	"Rarely"	59	29,5	29,9	55,8
	"Sometimes"	57	28,5	28,9	84,8
	"Very often"	18	9,0	9,1	93,9
	"Always"	12	6,0	6,1	100,0
	Total	197	98,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.8: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click 'Like' button? (N=200)

When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click 'Like' button?

Mean =2,31
Std. Dev. =1,086
N =194
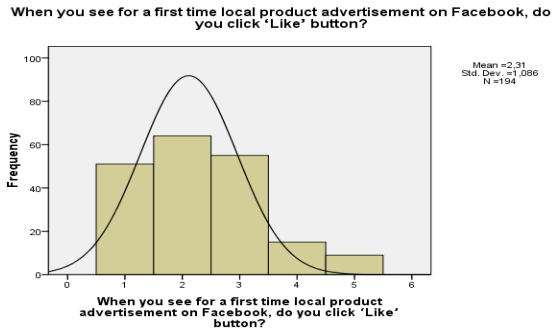
Table 9.10: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you click 'Like' button? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Never"	51	25,5	26,3	26,3
	"Rarely"	64	32,0	33,0	59,3
	"Sometimes"	55	27,5	28,4	87,6
	"Very often"	15	7,5	7,7	95,4
	"Always"	9	4,5	4,6	100,0
	Total	194	97,0	100,0	
Missing	System	6	3,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.9: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator:When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you give a comment on it? (N=200)

When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you give a comment on it?

Mean =1,59
Std. Dev. =0,834
N =196

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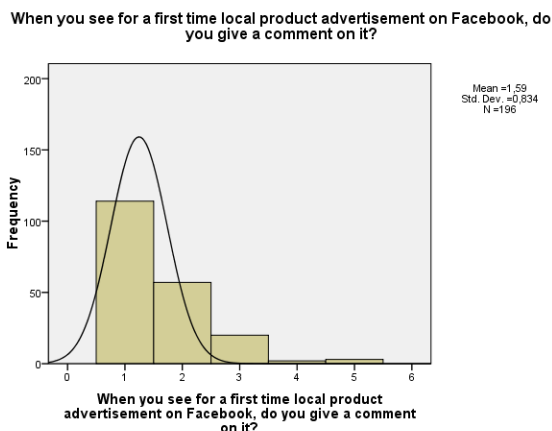
Table 9.11: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: When you see for a first time local product advertisement on Facebook, do you give a comment on it? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Never"	114	57,0	58,2	58,2
	"Rarely"	57	28,5	29,1	87,2
	"Sometimes"	20	10,0	10,2	97,4
	"Very often"	2	1,0	1,0	98,5
	"Always"	3	1,5	1,5	100,0
	Total	196	98,0	100,0	
Missing	System	4	2,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.10: Histogram –distribution of respondents on indicator: Of the advertisement you see on TV, how much do you like advertisement about local products? (N=200)
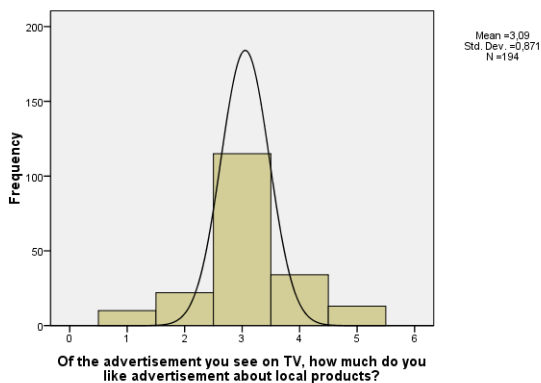
Table 9.12: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: Of the advertisement you see on TV, how much do you like advertisement about local products? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"I don't like it all"	10	5,0	5,2	5,2
	"I don't like it"	22	11,0	11,3	16,5
	"It is Okay"	115	57,5	59,3	75,8
	"I like it"	34	17,0	17,5	93,3
	"I like it very much"	13	6,5	6,7	100,0
	Total	194	97,0	100,0	
Missing	System	6	3,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 9.13: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: Do you buy milk? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"yes"	186	93,0	94,4	94,4
	"no"	11	5,5	5,6	100,0
	Total	197	98,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.11:Pie chart - distribution of respondents on indicator: You are in supermarket to buy milk, which of these brands will you buy?(N=200)

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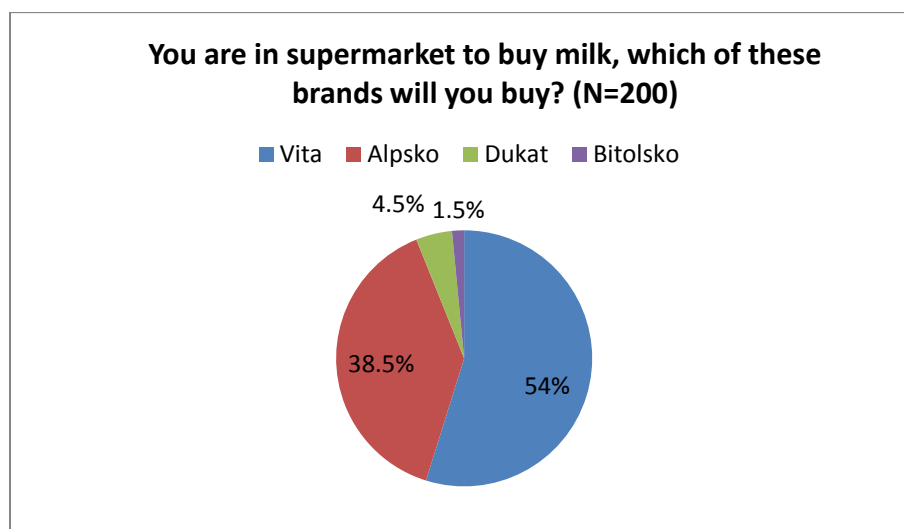
Table 9.14: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: You are in supermarket to buy milk, which of these brands will you buy? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Vita"	108	54,0	54,8	54,8
	"Alpsko"	77	38,5	39,1	93,9
	"Dukat"	9	4,5	4,6	98,5
	"Bitolsko"	3	1,5	1,5	100,0
	Total	197	98,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 9.15: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: Do you buy coffee? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"yes"	170	85,0	85,9	85,9
	"no"	28	14,0	14,1	100,0
	Total	198	99,0	100,0	
Missing	System	2	1,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.12:Pie Chart - distribution of respondents on indicator: You are in supermarket to buy coffee, which of these brands will you buy? (N=200)
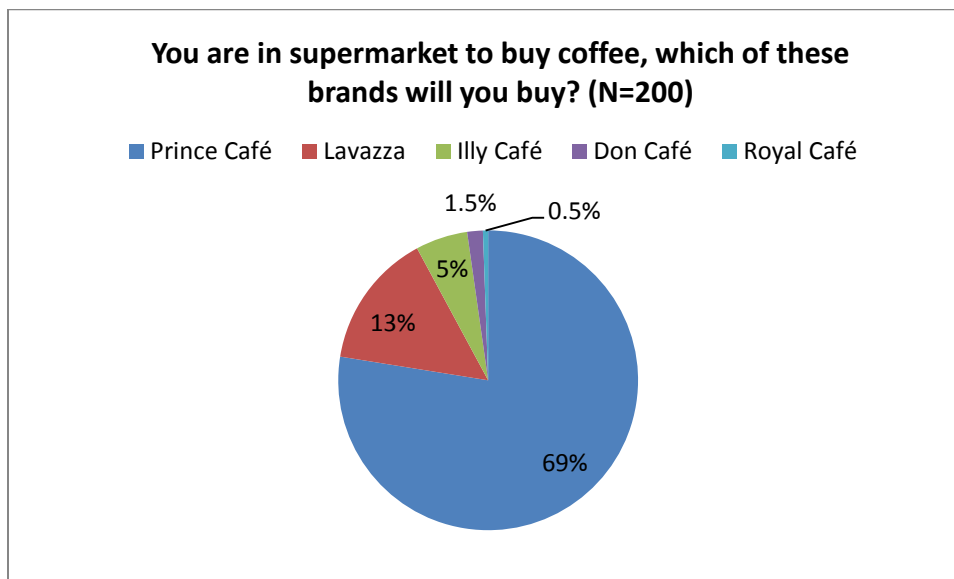
Table 9.16: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: You are in supermarket to buy coffee, which of these brands will you buy? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Prince café"	138	69,0	77,5	77,5
	"Lavazza"	26	13,0	14,6	92,1
	"Illy café"	10	5,0	5,6	97,8
	"Don café"	3	1,5	1,7	99,4
	"Royal café"	1	,5	,6	100,0
	Total	178	89,0	100,0	
Missing	System	22	11,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 9.17: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: Do you drink beer? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"yes"	124	62,0	62,3	62,3
	"no"	75	37,5	37,7	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.13:Pie Chart - distribution of respondents on indicator: You are in a bar to drink beer, which of these brands will you buy? (N=200)
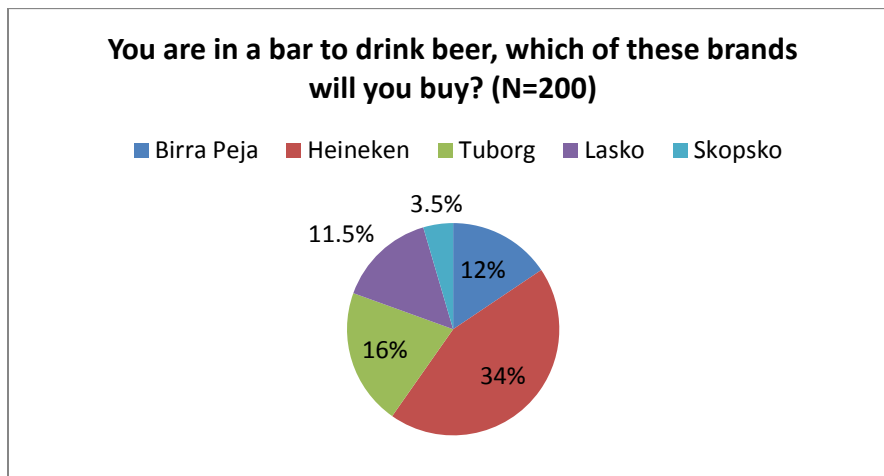
Table 9.18: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: You are in a bar to drink beer, which of these brands will you buy? (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"BirraPeja"	24	12,0	15,6	15,6
	"Heineken"	68	34,0	44,2	59,7
	"Tuborg"	32	16,0	20,8	80,5
	"Lasko"	23	11,5	14,9	95,5
	"Skopsko"	7	3,5	4,5	100,0
	Total	154	77,0	100,0	
Missing	System	46	23,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.14:Histogram - distribution of respondents on indicator: I plan before I go shopping (N=200)

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Table 9.19: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: I plan before I go shopping (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Strongly disagree"	8	4,0	4,0	4,0
	"Disagree"	18	9,0	9,0	13,1
	"Neither agree or disagree"	56	28,0	28,1	41,2
	"Agree"	99	49,5	49,7	91,0
	"Strongly agree"	18	9,0	9,0	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.15:Histogram - distribution of respondents on indicator: I compare the price (N=200)

Table 9.20: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: I compare the price(N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Strongly disagree"	7	3,5	3,5	3,5
	"Disagree"	26	13,0	13,1	16,7
	"Neither agree or disagree"	49	24,5	24,7	41,4
	"Agree"	92	46,0	46,5	87,9
	"Strongly agree"	24	12,0	12,1	100,0
	Total	198	99,0	100,0	
Missing	System	2	1,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.1:Histogram - distribution of respondents on indicator: On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for.(N=200)
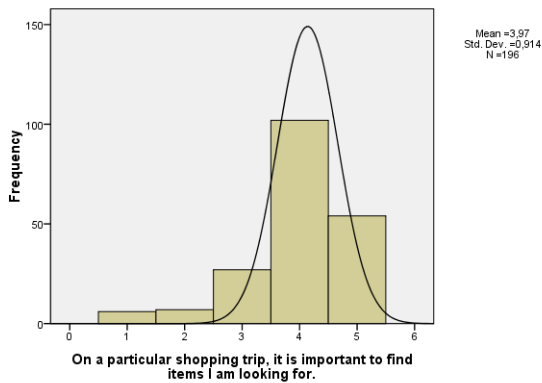
Table 9.21: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for.(N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Strongly disagree"	6	3,0	3,1	3,1
	"Disagree"	7	3,5	3,6	6,6
	"Neither agree or disagree"	27	13,5	13,8	20,4
	"Agree"	102	51,0	52,0	72,4
	"Strongly agree"	54	27,0	27,6	100,0
	Total	196	98,0	100,0	
Missing	System	4	2,0		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.17:Histogram - distribution of respondents on indicator: I go shopping for fun.(N=200)

Table 9.22: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: I go shopping for fun(N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Strongly disagree"	24	12,0	12,1	12,1
	"Disagree"	56	28,0	28,1	40,2
	"Neither agree or disagree"	58	29,0	29,1	69,3
	"Agree"	47	23,5	23,6	93,0
	"Strongly agree"	14	7,0	7,0	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.18:Histogram - distribution of respondents on indicator: I go shopping because I enjoy it.(N=200)
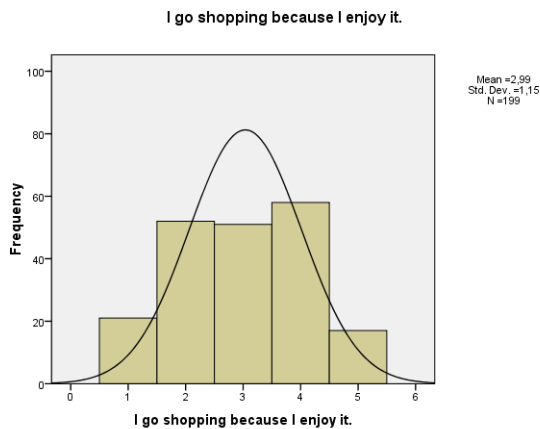
Table 9.23: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: I go shopping because I enjoy it. (N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Strongly disagree"	21	10,5	10,6	10,6
	"Disagree"	52	26,0	26,1	36,7
	"Neither agree nor disagree"	51	25,5	25,6	62,3
	"Agree"	58	29,0	29,1	91,5
	"Strongly agree"	17	8,5	8,5	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Figure 9.19: Histogram - distribution of respondents on indicator:I go shopping to keep up with trends.(N=200)

Table 9.24: Frequency distribution of respondents on indicator: I go shopping to keep up with trends(N=200)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	"Strongly disagree"	29	14,5	14,7	14,7
	"Disagree"	79	39,5	40,1	54,8
	"Neither agree or disagree"	36	18,0	18,3	73,1
	"Agree"	50	25,0	25,4	98,5
	"Strongly agree"	3	1,5	1,5	100,0
	Total	197	98,5	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Annex G: Frequency table

Table 25: Exposure to advertisement in Social Media (Facebook)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1,20	8	4,0	4,0	4,0
	1,36	7	3,5	3,5	7,5
	1,52	2	1,0	1,0	8,5
	1,56	10	5,0	5,0	13,6
	1,60	4	2,0	2,0	15,6
	1,68	1	,5	,5	16,1
	1,72	4	2,0	2,0	18,1
	1,75	2	1,0	1,0	19,1
	1,76	6	3,0	3,0	22,1
	1,80	2	1,0	1,0	23,1
	1,84	2	1,0	1,0	24,1
	1,88	4	2,0	2,0	26,1
	1,92	6	3,0	3,0	29,1
	1,96	5	2,5	2,5	31,7
	2,00	7	3,5	3,5	35,2
	2,04	7	3,5	3,5	38,7
	2,08	3	1,5	1,5	40,2
	2,12	8	4,0	4,0	44,2
	2,16	5	2,5	2,5	46,7
	2,20	5	2,5	2,5	49,2
	2,24	1	,5	,5	49,7
	2,25	1	,5	,5	50,3
	2,28	6	3,0	3,0	53,3
	2,32	5	2,5	2,5	55,8
	2,36	7	3,5	3,5	59,3
	2,40	7	3,5	3,5	62,8
	2,44	1	,5	,5	63,3

	2,48	3	1,5	1,5	64,8
	2,52	6	3,0	3,0	67,8
	2,56	2	1,0	1,0	68,8
	2,60	5	2,5	2,5	71,4
	2,64	4	2,0	2,0	73,4
	2,68	5	2,5	2,5	75,9
	2,72	6	3,0	3,0	78,9
	2,76	1	,5	,5	79,4
	2,80	4	2,0	2,0	81,4
	2,84	1	,5	,5	81,9
	2,88	4	2,0	2,0	83,9
	2,92	2	1,0	1,0	84,9
	2,96	2	1,0	1,0	85,9
	3,00	4	2,0	2,0	87,9
	3,08	2	1,0	1,0	88,9
	3,12	1	,5	,5	89,4
	3,20	7	3,5	3,5	93,0
	3,24	3	1,5	1,5	94,5
	3,36	1	,5	,5	95,0
	3,40	1	,5	,5	95,5
	3,44	1	,5	,5	96,0
	3,48	3	1,5	1,5	97,5
	3,56	1	,5	,5	98,0
	3,60	1	,5	,5	98,5
	3,84	1	,5	,5	99,0
	4,20	1	,5	,5	99,5
	4,40	1	,5	,5	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 26: Exposure to advertisement in TV channel

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1,00	2	1,0	1,0	1,0
	1,40	1	,5	,5	1,5
	1,50	1	,5	,5	2,0
	1,60	1	,5	,5	2,5
	1,67	6	3,0	3,0	5,5
	1,87	2	1,0	1,0	6,5
	1,93	2	1,0	1,0	7,5
	2,00	19	9,5	9,5	17,0
	2,20	3	1,5	1,5	18,5
	2,27	10	5,0	5,0	23,5
	2,33	20	10,0	10,0	33,5
	2,50	1	,5	,5	34,0
	2,53	6	3,0	3,0	37,0
	2,60	21	10,5	10,5	47,5
	2,67	8	4,0	4,0	51,5
	2,80	3	1,5	1,5	53,0
	2,80	4	2,0	2,0	55,0
	2,87	15	7,5	7,5	62,5
	2,93	17	8,5	8,5	71,0
	3,00	7	3,5	3,5	74,5
	3,07	2	1,0	1,0	75,5
	3,13	6	3,0	3,0	78,5
	3,20	5	2,5	2,5	81,0
	3,27	7	3,5	3,5	84,5
	3,33	1	,5	,5	85,0
	3,40	2	1,0	1,0	86,0
	3,47	7	3,5	3,5	89,5
	3,53	5	2,5	2,5	92,0

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	3,67	4	2,0	2,0	94,0
	3,73	1	,5	,5	94,5
	3,80	2	1,0	1,0	95,5
	3,87	1	,5	,5	96,0
	3,93	1	,5	,5	96,5
	4,00	2	1,0	1,0	97,5
	4,07	1	,5	,5	98,0
	4,33	4	2,0	2,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

Table 27: Purchase intentions for Kosovo's local brands

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	,00	28	14,0	14,0	14,0
	1,00	82	41,0	41,0	55,0
	2,00	82	41,0	41,0	96,0
	3,00	8	4,0	4,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

Table 28: Utilitarian motivations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1,00	1	,5	,5	,5
	1,67	3	1,5	1,5	2,0
	2,00	2	1,0	1,0	3,0
	2,33	9	4,5	4,5	7,5
	2,67	13	6,5	6,5	14,1
	3,00	20	10,0	10,1	24,1
	3,33	20	10,0	10,1	34,2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	3,50	2	1,0	1,0	35,2
	3,67	26	13,0	13,1	48,2
	4,00	56	28,0	28,1	76,4
	4,33	33	16,5	16,6	93,0
	4,67	10	5,0	5,0	98,0
	5,00	4	2,0	2,0	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		

Table 29: Hedonic motivations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1,00	10	5,0	5,0	5,0
	1,33	5	2,5	2,5	7,5
	1,67	10	5,0	5,0	12,6
	2,00	36	18,0	18,1	30,7
	2,33	19	9,5	9,5	40,2
	2,67	19	9,5	9,5	49,7
	3,00	32	16,0	16,1	65,8
	3,33	21	10,5	10,6	76,4
	3,67	11	5,5	5,5	81,9
	4,00	19	9,5	9,5	91,5
	4,33	8	4,0	4,0	95,5
	4,67	7	3,5	3,5	99,0
	5,00	2	1,0	1,0	100,0
	Total	199	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		200	100,0		