Impact of Civic Responsibility on Decision to Vote among Adults

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ABSTRACT

Globally, the engagement of citizens in civic responsibility and politics is considered critical for the nurturance of democratic culture. In this context, this study was conducted to understand the citizens' attitude toward civic responsibility and the decision to vote along with factors considered influential in determining this attitude. It was a mixed-method study. For a quantitative study, a survey was conducted by collecting data from 300 respondents: 150 from the rural background and 150 from the urban background. Quantitative results revealed that educated respondents belonging to the urban area and falling in the category of high monthly income are more likely to cast vote because according to them their vote can bring change, the vote is their responsibility and vote brings a real representative, whereas uneducated people belonging to the rural falling in the category of the low monthly income group are found more motivated for voting without casting vote. Additionally, the political identity of the candidate tends to influence the voting behavior of adults and it was also seen that age is an important demographic factor in determining the voting trend. Civic responsibility was found positively correlated with a) Reasoning which implies that voting is a responsibility and duty, b) Personal identity of the candidate, and c) Integrity which is the political experience of the candidate. Qualitative analysis of respondents living in urban and rural areas found that vote is a responsibility, people cast votes for the development of the country, and women's empowerment or equal right. However, respondents of both groups, rural and urban found to have a negative perception of politics and barriers to women's voting. These findings can be used as an important source of information for policymakers to design special policies and initiatives to promote civic responsibility and the right of casting votes for the citizens.

Keywords: Civic responsibility, decision to vote, urban background, rural background.

Introduction

Citizens' participation in politics is considered significant to nurturing good governance and state policies (Parvin, 2018). In developed societies, people take part in political and civic participation (Dalton, 2015) otherwise societies, where the link between citizens and government is not strong, may

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face numerous issues related to corruption accountability and inequality (Lijphart, 1997). Therefore, citizens' role in the political process deems critical to promoting good governance, transparency, accountability, equality, and democratic values (Hyder et al., 2019; Parvin, 2018). However, the rates of political participation among citizens in liberal democracies are declining and unequal. As a result, politics have become the arena of a powerful elite (Bartels, 2018; Gilens, 2012; Solt, 2008).

Likewise, studies revealed that the youth of modern times have no interest in politics and in political activities (Carpentier, 2011; Banaji, 2008) according to the youth, political leaders and institutions are not paying attention to their needs and interests. Consequently, they feel marginalized and ignored. Moreover, they distrust politicians and government officials (Bennett, 1997). Therefore, they find other platforms and means, such as social services and activism to show their participation in important matters (Barrett & Pachi, 2019). In this regard, empirical evidence around the world shows that although young generation participation in voting is declining in many democracies, however, the majority of young people are committed to engaging in non-traditional politics and civic matters. Nowadays, instead of mobilizing politically, they highlight issues of concern through consumer activism, demonstrations, on social media, online debates, social movements charitable fund-raising, or voluntary work in the community (Barrett & Zani, 2015; Cattelino, 2012; Dalton, 2015) which changed the notion of citizenship (Carpentier, 2011). Thus, the concept of civic engagement for youth emerged as the mean of their empowerment and mobilization, impacting institutions that are influencing their lives (Checkoway & Schuster, 2006; McBride, 2008; Pritzker & Metzger, 2011). The platform of civic engagement presents youth as a valuable resource and societal contributor (Nicotera, 2008). Moreover, this practice imparts awareness about social and political issues among youth who usually do not realize the worth of democratic values (Diller, 2001).

However, social scientists observe people's disengagement from traditional politics as a disturbing trend by predicting the political behavior of youth critical for the future and development of the country in the future (Geys, 2006). Additionally, if the young generation do not use their right to vote in sufficient numbers, then elected public office holder in the future might undermine their role, value, and interests in policies (Barrett & Pachi, 2019).

Similarly, Collin (2008) emphasized that youth participation in politics is necessary for their training as responsible citizens and having social skills. She found, that although people are in favor of participating in the democratic process, however, they believe they do not possess enough power which influences their attitudes towards politics. Furthermore, young people do not trust having unions, joining political parties and government (Collin, 2008).

This situation seems particularly problematic for countries having large youth populations as their participation in the decision-making could be influential in creating peaceful, responsible, and efficient political structures. However, just electoral politics cannot ensure valuable youth participation unless complemented with a recognized representative of young citizens with a suitable platform where they can play their constructive role or influence the governing process. For instance, a gradual disintegration of political space for active young leaders to appear as politicians or to negotiate their demands with public representatives in Pakistan has been reported in the past (UNDP, 2018).

In recent years, the strengthening of democracy in Pakistan has been joined by an outstanding expansion in the number of young populations who are politically cognizant and progressively vocal about their rights (approximately 64 % of the nation is younger than 30) (Ahmad, 2018) and nearly 46% of Pakistan's overall electorate comprises young generation. While Pakistan is in the transition phase of establishing representative bodies to officially use the energy and enthusiasm of young people, political parties have started attracting younger voters by using traditional (membership) and non-conventional means (social media) (UNDP, 2018). For instance, in the general election of 2013 to 2018, the potential of young voters, their interest and engagement in politics grasped the attention of national and international spectators in terms of wearing shirts for the support of a particular party, contributing

money for campaigning, encouraging and mobilizing others and also representing their political agendas (Saud et al., 2020).

However, previously conducted studies reported that a huge number of young people have negative views about political parties and politicians, they consider them corrupt and don't trust them by having this belief that the government is ignoring the large potential of their population that's why found least interested in joining any political party (Aurangzeb, 2008; Siddiqa, 2010). Nadeem and Shahid (2017) findings revealed the role of various socioeconomic factors such as caste, and academic disciplines in shaping the political attitude of young, educated women. Whereas Iqbal (2012) found that respondents are well aware of the value of their role in the political process, and they cast their vote in the election.

Nowadays, Pakistan is getting through the negative effects of financial corruption reported in public institutions (Khan, 2019) to that extent which has made Pakistani state institutions, unable to provide financial relief to the people. Consequently, various public organizations have lost their credibility and connection between the state and the society (Khan, 2019) which is necessary for a good government (Putnam, 1993; Whiteley, 2000).

Extensive evidence of civic engagement around the world can be found ranging from developing civic skills to delivering civic values among citizens to promote the well-being of society. However, when it comes to developing countries, particularly in Pakistan, the aspect of civic engagement needs the attention of social scientists (Dean, 2007; Etra et al., 2010).

Pakistan is a signatory of SDGs (Sustainable Development Goals) based on the principles to remove the issues of poverty, and inequality and maintaining governance and sustainability. These goals are dependent on the participation of citizens. Moreover, the success of SDGs is also linked with the provision of human rights to all citizens by the state. This agenda reflects the approach that citizen must play their role in shaping the policies and programs of the institutions which are created for them by leaving no one behind. This can make the government accountable and ensure good governance. Research shows that the means of citizens' engagement in social media, text messages, and web portals provide access to limited people (Hernandez, & Roberts, 2018) Limited people share their views and tell them their needs about policy and planning. Whereas others remain excluded, invisible and unheard. Therefore, to ensure the inclusion and participation of every citizen at every level of decision-making, the government should take the necessary steps to tackle the hurdles to increase civic engagement (Maguire, 2019). In these circumstances, the present study is conducted to examine the possible impact of civic responsibility on the voting behavior of individuals.

Literature Review

Civic duty, responsibility, and good citizenship motivate a person's behavior in politics and develop their sense of responsibility in any society (Bolzendahl & Coffe, 2013; Dalton, 2006; Jones & Dawson, 2008; Pammett, 2009). In this regard, voting is a very important tool in democratic societies, as it provides a chance to people to become dynamic citizens rather than inactive subjects (Azeez et al., 2014; Jost, 2006; Lijphart, 1997). Through voting, people decide who will be the ruler of the country and how the resources and capital will be allocated. (Azeez et al., 2014; Cohen, 2003).

In a democratic society, the vote gives a chance to people to select a suitable candidate for the country's development. The act of voting gives benefits to the voter because people who cast votes have better health and happiness as compared to people who do not cast vote (Klar & Kasser, 2009) and they can choose their preferred candidate (Azeez et al., 2014). Similarly, people who have a sense of civic responsibility are more likely to cast votes (Jones & Hudson, 2000). Around the world, in various democratic countries, voting is a legal right of citizens and as per their constitution voting is a civic duty or responsibility (Birch, 2016).

While defining civic engagement, previous literature explains it; as a duty of every citizen to feel responsible and play their role individually or collectively, whenever is necessary (Diller, 2001). Whereas Putnum (1993) highlights the different levels of civic engagement starting from reading newspapers, political participation, social networking, and associational involvement which can be beneficial for democracy and the economy.

Various researchers examined different socioeconomic factors and their potential role these factors can play to influence the attitude of citizens towards politics and civic engagement, for instance, studies found that citizens who are more educated are more likely to vote in elections, and higher turnout is related to the higher education of the people (Beaumont, 2011; Harder & Krosnick, 2008; Pacheco & Plutzer, 2008; Shields & Goidel, 1997; Tenn, 2007; Verba et al., 1995). Likewise, education is an important factor in civic engagement as people consider it their civic responsibility to become part of a political process and social activities in which voting is considered normative. Moreover, education enhances the capabilities of people to know about the process and importance of voting (Harder & Krosnick, 2008; Nagler, 1991). Some others explore that people who interact more with others have greater opportunities to discuss current events, be invited to political activities, and spread the norm of voting (Hopkins & Williamson, 2012; Putnam, 2000). Similarly, income and age are also considered key factors as evidence suggests that financially strong people are more likely to cast their vote (Filer et al.,1993; Harder & Krosnick, 2008; Leighley & Nagler, 1992) Whereas, people are more interested to cast vote when they are in their early adulthood to their middle adulthood period as compare to the people who are 75 or after the age of 75, when they less likely to vote (Harder & Krosnick, 2008; Strate et al.,1989; Turner et al., 2001).

Regarding the reporting attitude of citizens, studies revealed that outside the U.S., more than 90% of respondents in two Canadian provinces agree that "every citizen must vote" (Blais & Achen, 2019). The percentage is 80% in Britain (Clarke, et al., 2004; Blais & Achen, 2019). According to the 2005 Japanese Election Study, over 95% of respondents said that voting is a responsibility of citizens, and they should cast a vote (Blais & Achen, 2019). It is also reported that people who discuss politics are more likely to develop a sense of duty (Jones & Dawson, 2008; Millican, 2015).

In Pakistan, citizens especially youth participation appears to be central to the development of civic attitudes (Condon, 2009; Ferguson & Garza, 2011; Millican, 2015). In Pakistan, a citizen who is 18 years of age and has a sound mind can become part of the electoral process and can be registered as an eligible voter (Azeez et al., 2014), and the majority of voters are registered are from Punjab than Sindh, KPK (Khyber Pakhtunkhwa), Baluchistan, FATA, and Federal areas. The number of women voters registered is also high in Punjab rather than in the other provinces of Punjab and the lowest number of women registered voters exist in federal areas of Pakistan.
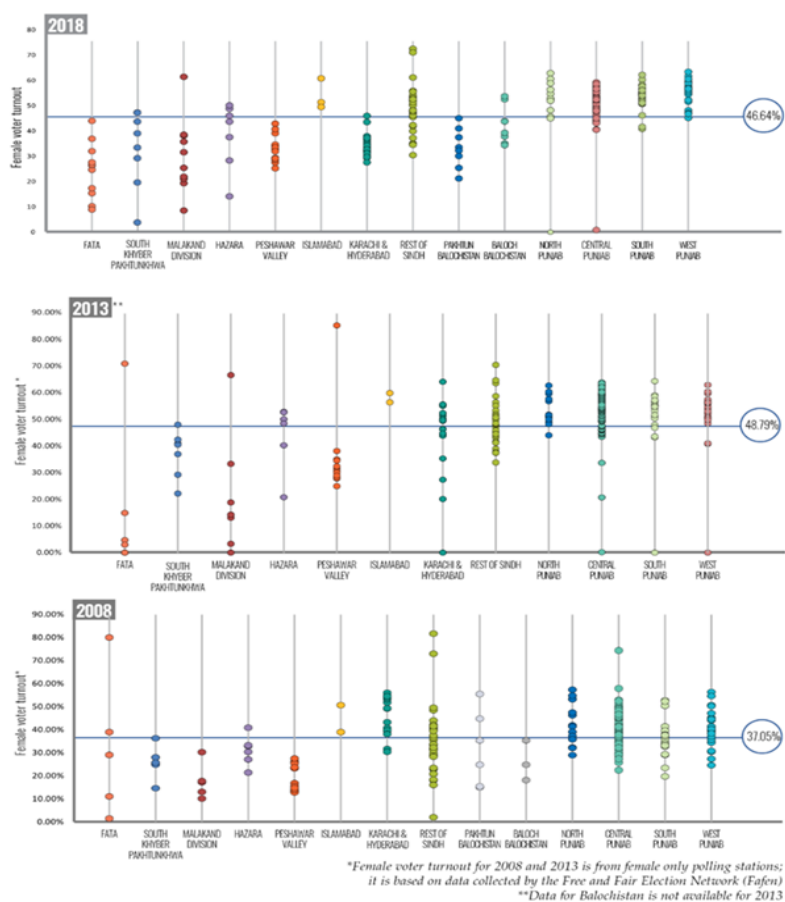
Source: Dawn News: A look into the turnout of women voters for the 2018 elections.

The participation of women in the election of 2018 is decreased than their participation in the elections of 2013. In the 2013 elections, 48.79% of women voters voted in the election, and in the 2018 elections, 46.64% of women voters voted in an election. It should have been increased in the 2018 elections. However, due to several sociocultural barriers, gender discrimination in terms of women's participation in the political process are evident despite several initiatives (awareness campaigns and policies) taken by Government. Therefore, a lot needs to be done to bring change and gender dynamics in the political process.

For the last couple of decades, Pakistan has been struggling hard fighting against terrorism and corruption in politics. In a country having one of the largest populations with youth consisting of the larger part of the population, nurturing democratic values and politically sensitized citizens can be considered a prerequisite for the development of the country and nation.

Theoretical Framework
The Psychological or Psycho-social Model
The psychological model focuses on "the psychological variables which intervene between the external events of the voter's world and his ultimate behavior" (Antwi, 2018; Campbell et al., 1960). There are three major "objects" of this model: political parties, political issues, and the political candidates. These are the objects to which the voter perceives, evaluates, and reacts (Antwi, 2018). These factors are the main beliefs of this model. The psychological model underscores partisanship or party identification as the most important determinant of voting behavior. (Antwi, 2018; Campbell et al, 1960). The partisan voter is considered loyal to their political party, a strong supporter, and identifies with their political

party (Antwi, 2018; Heywood, 2002). Hence, during elections, vote choice becomes a mere manifestation of a long-standing predisposition towards a particular political party. However, voters' political affinities may shift slightly depending on the issues and candidates involved in a specific election (Antwi, 2018).

According to the psychological model, the three motivational factors of vote choice; party, issue, and candidate are all together into a decision-making mechanism which they call the "funnel of causality." An individual is first influenced by social groups, especially the family, which develops one's sense of partisanship. In turn, partisanship influence how the voter process information, and eventually, how the voter evaluates the issues and candidates. (Campbell et al., 1960; Evans 2004; Erdmann 2007; Antwi, 2018). With its heavy emphasis on party identification, issues, and candidates, the psychological model has become widely accepted as a tool for explaining voter behavior (Antwi, 2018; Thomassen & Rosema, 2009).

The Rational Choice Model

The founder of the rational-choice model is Anthony Downs, in his book, "An Economic Theory of Democracy", published in 1957. The rational-choice approach portrays voters as rational economic actors in the sense that they behave like consumers in a market, who express their choices amongst the available policy options presented to them by parties or candidates. (Antwi, 2018).

Consequently, upon careful evaluation of the costs and benefits, a person will vote for the party or candidate with programs and policies that best serves and reflects one's self-interests (Antwi, 2018; Catt, 1996; Downs, 1957). This model focuses on the individual and his or her freedom of choice. It essentially posits that the voter engages in a rationally purposeful behavior when exercising choice in elections (Antwi, 2018; Oppenheimer, 2008). Voters decide how they will vote based on what they expect to receive in exchange for their political support. It follows that as the expected benefits of voting vary from one election to the next, the voting preferences of rational voters are also likely to change in various elections. The rational-choice model highlights two decisions made during the elections: whether to vote or withdraw and whom to vote for if one decides to vote. The rational assumption is that the individual will vote if the expected reward from voting is higher than the expected reward from not voting (Antwi, 2018; Farber, 2010).

Research Questions

- What are the perceptions of people about casting votes?
- What factors can influence the voters' decision of choosing a candidate?
- What is the perception of people about girls' casting votes?

Hypothesis

1. There is a correlation among the civic responsibility and decision to vote factors
2. There is a correlation between the age, civic responsibility, reasons to vote, the political identity of the candidate, the personal identity of the candidate, voters' motive, and voters' perception.
3. There are significant gender differences in civic responsibility.
4. There is a significant difference between the civic responsibility and the urban/rural living background of the people.
5. The civic responsibility among people tends to differ due to their educational status, working status, and marital status of the people.
6. There is a significant difference between civic responsibility and the income groups of the people.
7. There is a significant gender difference in the reasons for casting votes.

8. The political and personal identity of the candidate tends to influence the voting behavior of the males and females.
9. There is a significant gender difference in the motive of the voters and the perception of voters.
10. There is a significant difference between the reasons for casting votes and the living background of the people.
11. The political and personal identity of the candidate tends to differ due to the living background of the people.
12. There is a significant difference between the motive and the perception of the voters and their living backgrounds.
13. There is a significant difference between the reasons for casting votes and the working status of the people.
14. The political and personal identity of the candidate tends to differ due to the working status of the people.
15. There is a significant difference between the motive and the perception of the voters and their working status.
16. There is a significant difference between the reasons for casting votes and the marital status of the people.
17. The political and personal identity of the candidate tends to differ due to the marital status of the people.
18. There is a significant difference between the motive and the perception of the voters and their marital status.
19. There is a significant difference between the reasons for casting votes and the educational status of the people.
20. The political and personal identity of the candidate tends to differ due to the educational status of the people.
21. There is a significant difference between the motive and the perception of the voters and their educational status.
22. There is a significant difference between the reasons for casting votes and the income groups of the people.
23. The political and personal identity of the candidate tends to differ due to the income groups of the people.
24. There is a significant difference between the motive and the perception of the voters and their income groups.

Method
In this study, the mixed-method research design was used.

Data Collection and Analysis
The scales of Civic Responsibility Survey developed by Furco, Muller, and Ammon (1998) and Decision to Vote Scale developed by Muhammad and Hasan (2016), are utilized in this research. The civic responsibility scale consisted of 24 complete items. Each of the statements on the scale was rated on a 1-6 scale (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4= slightly agree, 5= agree, 6= strongly agree). The reliability of the civic responsibility scale is .89.

The decision to vote scale consisted of 23 complete items with five sub-scales. The first sub-scale is Reasons to Vote which has 6 items, second sub-scale is Political Identity of Candidate which has 5 items, the third sub-scale is Personal Identity of Candidate which has 4 items, fourth sub-scale is Voter Motive which has 4 items, fifth sub-scale is Voter Perception which has 4 items. Each of the statements on the scale was rated on a 1 to 4 scale (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= agree, 4=

strongly agree). The reliability of the civic responsibility scale is .79. Qualitative data were analyzed by applying T-test, Anova, Correlation, and Regression.

Three open-ended questions were also filled by participants. Open-ended questions were analyzed through thematic analysis.

Sample

A total sample of 300 rural and urban males and females was used. Out of which samples of 150 from rural and 150 from urban backgrounds with the division of 75 males and 75 females from rural and 75 males and 75 females from the urban background were taken for the study by using convenient sampling. The participants were further divided into four age categories. The respondents were working, non-working, single, married, educated, uneducated, and students with various socioeconomic statuses.

Procedure

Informed consent was taken from the participants. The researcher explained the purpose of the research to the respondents. The respondents were ensured anonymity and confidentiality that the provided information will be used only for research purposes.

Table 1
Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Variables	Frequency	%
Gender		
Men	150	50
Women	150	50
Age		
20-30	76	25.3
31-40	76	25.3
41-50	76	25.3
51-60	72	24.0
Education		
Un-Educated	113	37.7
Educated	187	62.3
Background		
Urban	150	50.0
Rural	150	50.0
Working Status		
Working	207	69.0
Non-Working	93	31.0
Marital Status		
Single	55	18.3
Married	245	81.7
Monthly Income		
Last Monthly Income 25000 and less than 25000	131	43.7
Middle Monthly Income 26000-55000	115	38.3
High Monthly Income Above 56000	28	9.3

Results
Quantitative

Table 2

Pearson correlation: Age, Monthly income, Civic responsibility, Reasons to vote, Political identity of a candidate, Personal identity of a candidate, Voters' motive and Voter's perception.

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Age	1						
2	Civic Responsibility	.040						
3	Reasons to Vote	.055	.344**					
4	Political Identity of Candidate	.147*	.109	.141*				
5	Personal Identity of Candidate	.034	.139*	.109	.567**			
6	Voter Motive	-.029	-.155**	-.294**	.195**	.238**		
7	Voter Perception	.031	.287**	.354**	.404**	.325**	-.099	

*Notes. N = 300. * p < .05, ** p < .01.*

The results revealed that age is found positively correlated with political identity of candidate r (300) = .147, $p<.05$. Civic responsibility was found positive correlated with reasons to vote r (300) = .344, $p<.01$, personal identity of candidate r (300) = .139, $p<05$ and voter's perception r (300) = .287, $p<.01$. Reasons to vote is positively correlated with political identity of the candidate r (300) = .141, $p<.05$ and voter's perception r (300) = .354, $p<.01$. A factor of political identity of candidate is found strongly positively correlated with personal identity of candidate r (300) = .567, $p<.01$, voter's motive r (300) = .195, $p<.01$ and voter's perception r (300) = .404, $p< .01$, whereas personal identity of candidate is positively correlated with voter's motive r (300) = .238, $p< .01$ and voter's perception r (300) = .325, $p< .01$.

Table 3

Predictors of Reasons to vote (N = 300)

Predictor Variables	B	SEB	β	R^2
Gender	-.847	.357	-.136	.019*
Age	.154	.162	.055	.003

*$p< 0.05$

In Table 3 simple linear regression suggested that gender negatively predicts reasons to vote (β = -.136, t = -2.37, $p < 0.05$) and explained 19 % variance in reasons to vote {R^2= .019, F (1, 298) = 5.621, $p <0.05$}, while in this table age revealed non-significant results.

Table 4

Predictors of Political identity of candidate (N = 300)

Predictor Variables	B	SEB	β	R^2
Gender	.608	.351	.100	.010
Age	.403	.157	.147	.022*

*$p< 0.05$

In Table 4 simple linear regression suggested that age predicts political identity of candidate (β = .100, t = -2.56, $p <0.05$) and explained 22% variance in political identity of candidate {R^2 = .022, F (1,298) = 6.58, $p < 0.05$}, while in this table gender revealed non-significant results.

Table 5
Independent Sample t-Test comparing decision to vote by background

Background			N	M	SD	t(df)	p	Cohen's d
Reasons to vote								
Rural			150	19.87	3.03	-3.21 (298)	.001	0.371
Urban			150	21.01	3.10			
Political	identity	of						
candidate			150	15.29	2.79	4.931 (298)	.000	0.569
Rural			150	13.62	3.07			
Urban								
Personal	identity	of	150	11.18	2.66	3.00 (298)	.003	0.347
candidate			150	10.22	2.85			
Rural								
Urban			150	8.82	2.34	5.92 (298)	.000	0.684
Voter's motive			150	7.16	2.50			
Rural								
Urban			150	12.42	2.41	-2.93(298)	.004	0.338
Voter's perception			150	13.18	2.05			
Rural								
Urban								

* *p* < .05

The results revealed the significant differences in reasons to vote by background. The scores of urbans are found higher (*M*=21.01, *SD*=3.10) than rural (*M*=19.87, *SD*=3.03) in reasons to vote, *t* (298) =-3.21, *p*=.001. The results also revealed the significant differences in the political and personal identity of candidates by background. The scores of rural are found higher (*M*=15.29, S*D*=2.79) than urban (*M*=13.62, *SD*=3.07) in the political identity of candidates, *t* (298) =-4.931, *p*=.000. The magnitude of the effect is found medium (*d*=0.569). The scores of rural are found higher (*M*=11.18, *SD*=2.66) than urban (*M*=10.22, *SD*=2.85) in the personal identity of a candidate, *t* (298) =-3.00, *p*=.003. The magnitude of the differences indicates a small size effect (*d*=0.347). The scores of rural are found higher (*M*=8.82, *SD*=2.34) than urban (*M*=7.16, *SD*=2.50) in voter's motive, *t* (298) =-5.92, *p*=.000. The magnitude of the effect is medium (*d*=0.684). The scores of urbans are found higher (*M*=13.18, *SD*=2.05) than rural (*M*=12.42, *SD*=2.41) in voter's perception, *t* (298) =-2.93, *p*=.004. The magnitude of differences was found small (*d*=0.338).

Table 6
Independent Sample t-Test comparing decision to vote by marital status

Working Status	N	M	SD	t(df)	p	Cohen's d
Political identity of candidate						
Single	55	13.22	3.34	-3.10 (298)	.001	0.482
Married	245	14.73	2.91			
Personal identity of candidate						
Single	55	9.93	3.00	-2.29(298)	.023	0.331
Married	245	10.88	2.72			

The result also shows the significant differences in the political and personal identity of the candidate by marital status. The scores of married are found higher (*M*=14.73, *SD*=2.91) than single (*M*=13.22, *SD*=3.34) *t* (298) =-3.10, *p*=.001. The magnitude of effect size was found small (*d*=0.482). The scores of married are found higher (*M*=10.88, *SD*=2.72) than single (*M*=9.93, *SD*=3.00) in the personal identity of a candidate, *t* (298) =-2.29, *p*=.023. The magnitude of effect size was found small (*d*=0.331).

Table 7
Independent Sample t-Test measuring differences in decision to vote by education

Education	N	M	SD	t(df)	p	Cohen's d
Reasons to Vote						
Uneducated	113	19.76	3.10	-2.974(298)	.003	0.357
Educated	187	20.86	3.05			
Political Identity of candidate						
Uneducated	113	15.28	2.89	3.73 (298)	.000	0.445
Educated	187	13.96	3.04			
Voter's Motive						
Uneducated	113	8.92	2.16	5.094(298)	.000	0.621
Educated	187	7.43	2.61			
Voter's Perception						
Uneducated	113	12.30	2.43	-2.998(298)	.003	0.351
Educated	187	13.10	2.11			

* *p* < .05

The result revealed the significant differences in reasons to vote by education. The scores of the educated are found higher (*M*=20.86, *SD*=3.05) than uneducated (*M*=19.76, *SD*=3.10), *t* (298) =-2.974, *p*=.003. The magnitude of the differences was found small (*d*=0.357). The scores for uneducated are found higher (*M*=15.28, *SD*=2.89) than for educated (*M*=13.96, *SD*=3.04), *t* (298) =3.73, *p*=.000 in the political identity of candidate results. The magnitude of the differences was found small (*d*=0.445). The scores of voters notice also show significant results, uneducated are found higher (*M*=8.92, *SD*=2.16) than educated (*M*=7.43, *SD*=2.61) in voters' motive, *t* (298) =5.094, *p*=.000. The magnitude of the differences found medium (*d*=0.621). The scores of voter's perceptions also show significant results, educated are found higher (*M*=13.10, *SD*=2.11) than uneducated (*M*=12.30, *SD*=2.43) in voters' perception, *t* (298) =-2.998, *p*=.003. The magnitude of the differences was found small (*d*=0.351).

Table 8
Analysis of Variance of reasons to vote to pursue monthly income

Variables	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between group	79.399	2	39.700	4.371	.014
Within group	2461.170	271	9.082		
Total	2540.569	273			

**F value significant at p<.05*

The Anova results also showed significant results. The score of reasons to vote differed significantly across the monthly income F=4.371, p<.05. The results indicate that the high monthly income group (M=21.57, SD=2.72) scored significantly higher than the group of low monthly income (M=20.05, SD= 3.04).

Table 9
Analysis of Variance of the political identity of candidate to pursue monthly income

Variables	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between group	100.976	2	50.488	5.539	.004
Within group	2470.174	271	9.082		
Total	2571.150	273			

**F value significant at p<.05*

The results of the political identity of the candidate indicate that the low monthly income group (*M*=15.08, *SD*=2.92) scored significantly higher in the political identity of the candidate than the group of middle monthly income (*M*= 13.90, *SD*= 3.15).

Table 10

Analysis of Variance of personal identity of candidate to pursue monthly income

Variables	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between group	49.266	2	24.633	3.090	.047
Within group	2160.368	271	7.972		
Total	2209.634	273			

**F value significant at p<.05*

The results of the personal identity of the candidate indicate that the low monthly income group (*M*=11.07, *SD*=2.93) scored significantly higher in the personal identity of the candidate than the group of high monthly income (*M*= 9.75, *SD*= 3.02).

Table 11

Analysis of Variance of voter motive to pursue monthly income

Variables	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between group	147.088	2	73.544	11.725	.000
Within group	1699.821	271	6.272		
Total	1846.909	273			

**F value significant at p<.05*

The results of voter motive indicate that the low monthly income group (*M*=8.66, *SD*=2.41) scored significantly higher in voters' motive than the group of middle monthly income (*M*= 7.60, *SD*= 2.70) and the group of high monthly income (*M*=6.39, *SD*= 2.02).

Discussion

The present findings are supported by Weinschenk (2014) who found that the sense of civic duty or responsibility employs a strong influence on voting behavior. The results are also supported by Agomor and Adams (2014) who found that the five most important factors of the vote choice according to the people are the campaign message of the party, human relations towards the presidential candidate, educational policy of the party, candidates' personality and the performance of the ruling government. Previous findings by Barberá (2010) show that people decided very carefully which candidates are best and on which basis they should cast a vote for a candidate and when people decide to vote they also prioritize the qualities of the candidates, their skills, their character, and their party.

Results prove that there is a positive relationship between age and the political identity of the candidate. Hess and Auman (2001), found that older adults are more likely to give value to morality-based traits like honesty than younger adults, whereas younger adults are more likely to value competence-based traits, like intelligence, when assessing others. A previous study revealed that more people are likely to cast votes and give importance to voting. 84.9% of people said that they will cast vote because it is important and necessary for the country and its democracy. (Kurtbaş, 2015). Pildat (2013) analyzed party manifestoes. Manifestoes are an important part of the electoral process because it attracts people and helped people with the decision to cast vote. Another study found that the electoral campaign and the designing or planning of the campaign are very important because they can increase the chances of selection of the candidate (Usman et al., 2013).

The results revealed that people who belong to the urban background are found higher, which means that people who belong to the urban background have more reasons to cast vote as compared to people who belong to the rural background. The present findings are supported by Azhar, Zain, and Asif (2010) who found that people with urban backgrounds availed their right to vote to elect the candidate because a survey revealed that 28.7% of voters which 15.3% people were from an urban

background, 3.5% from the semi-urban background and 9.9% people from rural background. The findings are supported by Usman et al. (2020) that in rural constituencies of Punjab province candidate's influence may be a decisive factor for an effective election campaign.

In the motive of the voters,' the scores of the people who belong to the rural background are found higher with more motivation but on the other side, the scores of the people who belong to the urban background are found higher in voters' perception and have more perceptions about the vote. The present findings are supported by Suri (2006) that people with urban backgrounds, males, educated people, professionals, people who speak English very well, high-income groups, upper castes, and other backward classes voted according to their own choice.

The scores of married, divorced, and widows are found higher than single. It means that married, divorced, and widows are more likely to influence the political and personal identity of a candidate to cast vote as compared to single. These findings are unique because the researcher did not find any previous studies about the differences between the political, and personal identity of the candidate and their marital status. Maybe because single people are not interested in the political and personal identity of the candidate they just voted as their right and responsibility as compared to married people.

Results revealed the significant difference between reasons to vote and education. The scores of people who are educated are found higher than the scores of uneducated people. It means the educated people have more reasons to cast vote. The present findings are supported by Hakhverdian et al. (2012) who found that people with higher education are more likely to vote and be civically engaged. Other findings are also supported by Orman (2010) who found that education level and voting have a positive significant effect.

Results also revealed the significant differences between the political identity of a candidate and the educational status of the people. The scores of the uneducated people are found higher than the scores of the people who are educated. It means that uneducated people are more likely to see the political identity of the candidate. On the other side, there are non-significant differences between the personal identity of the candidate and the educational status of the people. But the previous study by Kurtbaş (2015) found that when the level of education increases, the number of people who cared for the former activities of the candidate increases.

Results revealed a significant difference between the voters' motive, voters' perception, and their educational status. Uneducated people have more motive to cast vote. On the other side, in voters' perception, the scores of the people who are educated are found higher than the scores of the uneducated people. It means that educated people have more perceptions about voting. Findings are supported by Snyder (2011) who found that people who are more educated and have knowledge about politics are more likely to vote in an election.

Results revealed a significant difference between the reasons for casting vote and the monthly income. High monthly income groups have more reasons to cast vote. But the findings of a previous study showed that the number of voters (13.6%) including (6% rural, 6.4% urban, and 1.2% semi-urban), who went to cast their votes on polling day just focused on that it was their right to vote, were those people whom monthly income level ranging between Rs.6000-Rs.15000 and 6.5% voters were those people whose monthly income level was not more than Rs.6000 mainly from rural (3.5%) and urban (2.5%) areas. The voters earning more than Rs. 15000 per month ranged only 12.8% mainly from the urban locality (8.4%) walked to polling stations for availing their right to vote. (Azhar et al., 2010). This finding is opposite to this study's findings may be because the high-income group has more opportunities and resources, and they have no fear of losing anything as compared to the middle and low monthly income group.

Low monthly income groups are more influential to the political and the personal identity of the candidate for voting. The researcher did not find any previous study which supports these findings

on the monthly income group with different factors. This finding is unique maybe because the low-income group is more likely to see the qualities, character, and other aspects in a candidate as compared to the other income groups. The low monthly income group has more motive for voting. On the other side, results revealed that there is no difference between voters' perceptions and the monthly income groups. The present findings are supported by Ahmed (2012) who found that in rural areas financially weak voters cast their vote for a strong candidate or a party in hope that a good candidate will solve their financial and court problems.

Open-ended questions were analyzed through thematic analysis. The three open-ended questions were collected to gather in-depth information about voting behavior among males and females. Different themes emerged but the main or significant themes from people with urban backgrounds were women's empowerment, responsibility as a citizen, for a better future for the country, equality, the importance of the vote negative perception of politics, and restrictions. The themes which emerged from people with rural backgrounds were family preferences, sincerity, a sense of responsibility, equal rights, support of women, no interest in politics, and corruption.

According to some other respondents, they never cast votes because of fake results as per their opinion public promote corrupt people and they cast vote just for fun. The findings are supported by Iqbal (2012) and Harder and Krosnick (2008) who found that people do not cast vote because they think it will not change the situation of the country and they do not trust the political system, consequently, they lose their interest in politics. Moreover, low levels of trust might also sometimes inspire higher turnout if lack of trust motivates people to take action to minimize the damage, they might fear others might inflict.

However, various studies reported factors such as social constraints, lack of women's interest in politics or having negative views about politics, household responsibilities, and disappointment with the political system as a barrier to their participation in politics (Khan, 2012; Lawless & Fox, 2012)

Conclusion

This study concluded that now the majority of citizens are well aware of their rights, the importance of voting, and their responsibility as a citizen. They also endorse girls' participation in voting. Moreover, their perception of a good candidate is the one who can resolve their issues and eradicate the class differences. On the other hand, in this era where media plays an important role still some people believe that their vote can't change anything. While some people cast their vote with the hope that political candidate would resolve their issues and make efforts for the betterment of the country.

The political candidate's personality is also an important factor because it influences the voter's choice.

The present study revealed that people who are educated and from higher income groups have more civic responsibility and a tendency to cast vote. The interesting findings of the present study are that people from a rural background, married, uneducated, and people with low monthly income groups are more likely to look at the political and personal identity of the candidate.

Recommendations

Here are some recommendations for further research:

- Government should focus on the policies and programs that improve the political role and civic sense of people, as suggested by Lijphart (1997), voter-friendly registration process, and mandatory voting awareness campaigns and programs should be implemented to inculcate democratic values and culture.
- In policy making a quota for females should be reserved so that they can also influence and participate in politics.

- Voting is a very important part of democracy. So, media should promote programs such as importance of voting, civic responsibility and on civic engagement.
- A compulsory subject on civic responsibility and importance of voting should be introduced at school level.

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