

**WHY PEOPLE DO NOT VOTE IN MUNICIPAL
CORPORATION ELECTIONS:
A VOTER-BASED SURVEY IN PUNE MUNICIPAL CORPORATION**

**Rajas K. Parchure
Manasi V. Phadke
Dnyandeo Talule**



**GOKHALE INSTITUTE OF POLITICS AND ECONOMICS
(Deemed to be a University)
Pune (India), 411 001**



STUDY TEAM

- Rajas K. Parchure** : **Project Director**
- Manasi V. Phadke** : **Project Co-ordinator and
Principal Author**
- Dnyandeo Talule** : **Project Advisor and Report
Writing**
- Vishal Gaikwad** : **Field Survey and Analysis**
- Rajesh R. Bhatikar** : **Editorial Desk**
- Anjali Phadke** : **Statistics Assistant**
- Vilas M. Mankar** : **Technical Assistance**
- Manisha Shinde** : **Data Quality Check**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER NO.	CONTENT	PAGE NO.
	Foreword from Hon'ble Commissioner, State Election Commission, Maharashtra	v
	Letter from Hon'ble Municipal Commissioner, Pune Municipal Corporation	vi
	Acknowledgements	vii
I	Introduction	1
II	Voting Behaviour: The Global Experience	3
III	Research Question, Data and Methodology	16
IV	Ward-Level Demographics of the Sample	20
V	Voter Behaviour in PMC	32
VI	Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	45
VII	Voter Base and Media Reach	54
VIII	Why People Do Not Vote	60
IX	Suggestions to the PMC For Encouraging Voting	62
X	Conclusions	64
	References	66
	Appendix A	71

LIST OF TABLES

Tables No.	Content	Page No.
2.1	Population under Governance of Municipal Corporations in Maharashtra	5
3.1	Descriptive Statistics for Low, Medium and High Voter Turnout Clusters	17
3.2	Co-Efficient of Variation in the Low and High VT Cluster	17
4.1	Ward-Wise Voter Turnout in PMC 2012 Elections	22
4.2	Ward-Wise Distribution of Number of Voters Covered in the Sample	22
4.3	Ward-Wise Gender Distribution within the Sample	23
4.4	Ward-Wise Distribution of Religions of Voters in the Sample	24
4.5	Ward-Wise Distribution of Castes of Voters in the Sample	24
4.6	Ward-Wise Distribution of Mother Tongue Languages of Voters in the Sample	25
4.7	Ward-Wise Distribution of Number of Years of Stay of Voters within that Ward As Covered In the Sample	26
4.8	Ward-Wise Distribution of Education Levels of Main Earners of Families of Voters Covered in the Sample	27
4.9	Ward-Wise Distribution of Occupation Profiles	29
4.10	Ward-Wise Distribution of Age of Voters Covered Within the Sample	30
4.11	Ward-Wise SEC of Households from Which Voters Were Selected In the Sample	30
5.1	Number of Respondents in the Sample Who've Participated in Different Political Activities	34
5.2	Ward-Wise Number and Percentage of Voters Who Participated in a Political Activity	35
5.3	Ward wise Political Interest Index in the Pune Municipal Corporation	35
5.4	Political Interest Index of Voters in the Low and High Voter Turnout Wards	36
5.5	Age-wise distribution of Political Interest Index	36
5.6	Gender-wise distribution in the Political Interest Index	37
5.7	How Many Times in the Past 5 Years Did you Visit the PMC?	38

5.8	How Many Times in the Last 5 Years Have You Met With a Corporator for a Service Required at a Personal Level?	38
5.9	How Many Times in the Last 5 Years Have You Met With a Corporator for a Service Required at a Ward Level?	39
5.10	Ward-Wise Scores of PMC-E	39
5.11	Voter Turnout and PMC Engagement	39
5.12	Age-wise Distribution of PMC Engagement	40
5.13	Gender-wise distribution of PMC Engagement	40
5.14	Marital Status and PMC Engagement of Voters	40
5.15	Mother Tongue and PMC Engagement	41
5.16	No. of years of stay in Pune and PMC Engagement	41
5.17	Religious Quotient and PMC Engagement	41
5.18	Ward-wise and service-wise scores of PMC-R	43
5.19	PMC Rating Index by Wards	43
6.1	Initial Classification of rare, intermittent and regular voters by PII values	46
6.2	How Regular are the Pune Voters?	46
6.3	Ward-wise Distribution of Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters in Pune	47
6.4	Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters from the High and Low Voter Turnout Areas	47
6.5	Gender-wise distribution of Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	48
6.6	Socio-Economic Classification and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	48
6.7	Age Distribution and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	49
6.8	Religion and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voting	49
6.9	Mother Tongue and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voting	50
6.10	Caste-wise classification and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	50
6.11	Period of Stay in Pune and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voting	51
6.12	Marital Status and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	51
6.13	Voters with children and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	52
6.14	Educational Status and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters	53
7.1	Voters' Frequency of Using Media Information / Political News	54

7.2	Reading of Newspaper by High and Low Voter Turnout	55
7.3	Frequency of Listening Radio News by High and Low Voter Turnout	55
7.4	Frequency of Watching TV News by High and Low Voter Turnout	55
7.5	Reading of Newspapers by Gender	56
7.6	Listening Radio News by Gender	56
7.7	Watching TV News by Gender	56
7.8	Reach of News Papers, Radio and TV By education	57
7.9	Reading of Newspapers and Age of voters	58
7.10	Listening to Political News on Radio and Age of Voters	58
7.11	Watching Political News on TV and Age of Voters	58
7.12	Reading Newspapers, Listening Radio and Watching TV News by Socio Economic Classification	59

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No.	Content	Page No.
4.1	Geographical Distribution of Wards Selected in the Sample	20
4.2	Distance of Selected Wards from the Centre of the City	21

LIST OF GRAPHS

Figure No.	Content	Page No.
5.1	Ranking given by voters to their own interest in local politics	33

FOREWORD

1. Maharashtra is one of the most urbanized States in the Country with nearly 44% of its population living in 358 Municipal Councils / Nagar Panchayats and 27 Municipal Corporation areas. State Election Commission which was established in 1994, following the 73rd & 74th Amendments to the Indian Constitution, conducts elections to nearly 10,130 seats in these urban bodies every 5 years.
2. State Election Commission is required to conduct above elections in a free, fair and transparent manner in order to provide level playing field to all Political Parties and Candidates.
3. Maharashtra has nearly 9 crore voters who elect more than 2.5 lakh local representatives every 5 years in various local bodies (27,781 Gram Panchayats, 34 Zilla Parishads, 351 Panchayat Samits, 358 Municipal Councils and 27 Municipal Corporations). It is unfortunate that voting percentage in the local bodies declines from 70-80% in Village Panchayat to 60-70% in ZP/PS, 55-60% in Municipal Councils and 50-55% in Municipal Corporation Areas. This trend is common for all the elections held in 2002, 2007 and 2012.
4. Since, low voting percentage is a matter of great concern, the State Election Commission asked the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Pune in 2016 to conduct a survey and find out the reasons for low voting percentage especially in Pune Municipal Corporation area.
5. I am happy that the GIPE has conducted a scientific survey in 4 low and 2 high voter turnout wards covering nearly 3000 respondents from 22nd December, 2016 to 30th December 2016, and come out with some very interesting results, some of which are as follows :-
 - (i) Pune voters not only have a low Political Interest Quotient, but also low engagement levels vis-à-vis PMC. Engagement is higher in “Old Pune” wards as compared to the newer wards such as Balewadi, NIBM and Vimannagar etc. Voter turnout is rather low in these newly developed wards.
 - (ii) High income and educated voters residing in Pune for less than 5 years are “rare” voters. There is also a gender bias (women are less likely to vote than men) and reluctance amongst youth to vote.
6. I congratulate Dr. Rajas Parchure, Smt. Manasi Phadke and Prof. Dnyandeo Talule for coming out with such an interesting research publication. I am sure that this report will serve as a very useful addition to the existing literature on election studies at a local level.
7. I am further pleased to learn that Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics is publishing the survey findings in a book form, elucidating their methodology and analysis. I am sure this will help in improving the quality of the candidates in future and result in more free, fair and transparent elections.

Shri. J. SahariaState Election Commission
Maharashtra

February 4, 2017



Kunal Kumar

I.A.S.

Municipal Commissioner

04 FEB 2017

Pune Municipal Corporation will go to polls in February 2017. The main issue in the past PMC elections has been that of a poor voter turnout. PMC elections have witnessed a voter turnout of about 54% in the past 3 rounds of elections; this implies that the representatives chosen by the people represent the opinions of only half the populace within the city limits. True representation will only come by with a healthy increase in voter turnout percentage, an objective towards which the PMC has been working through extensive voter awareness campaigns in the city.

Whilst designing the voter awareness campaign, a key issue is to take a studied view of why people are reluctant to vote. Once the key reasons are understood, a more impactful campaign can then be designed around the issue. At the initiative of the State Election Commission of Maharashtra, the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics has conducted a thorough research on why people do not vote in the PMC elections. They have been networking with us right from the stage of designing their research tools, so that their study findings can dovetail into the PMC objective of increasing voter turnout. This kind of an association is a win-win for all stakeholders, and we've been happy to be part of this interesting research endeavour of the Institute.

The research findings are extremely interesting; the study suggests that it is the young voters, highly educated people, the rich income groups and the women voters which are the reluctant voters. It also suggests that more intensive voter awareness campaigns be run in the more far-flung newly developing wards in Pune. The findings have helped us immensely in the design of the voter awareness campaign at our end and also in terms of targeting it correctly.

I express my gratitude to Shri Saharia, Hon. Commissioner, State Election Commission for having initiated such a useful research project. I'd also like to thank the entire team of the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics for coming up with such a timely and relevant intervention and for sharing their findings with us so generously. I congratulate all team members and look forward to networking with the Institute in the future too.

(Kunal Kumar)

Pune Municipal Corporation, Shivajinagar, Pune - 411 005

☎ (O) 25501103 (Fax) 25501104
e-mail : aconmnc@gmail.com

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I am very pleased to present the report titled “Why People Do Not Vote in Municipal Corporation Elections: A Voter-based Survey in PMC” to the discerning readers and scholars of decentralization. As you must be aware, the State Election Commission of Maharashtra has been conducting local body elections in Maharashtra from 1994. It has been working tirelessly to increase the voter turnout and conduct elections in a free, fair and transparent manner.

One of the issues in Municipal Corporation elections in Maharashtra is that of low voter turnout. Low voter turnouts imply that true representation of a majority gets denied to the population. The first step towards increasing voter turnout is to basically document, understand and analyze the different factors that lead to a low turnout. Only then can the solutions come across fruitfully.

Let me express my gratitude to Shri Jageshwar Saharia, State Election Commissioner, Maharashtra, for granting this interesting study project of documenting and analyzing reasons for non-voting to the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics. Shri Shekhar Channe, Secretary, State Election Commission, Maharashtra, guided and supported us at every stage of the project.

I am thankful to Shri Kunal Kumar, Commissioner, Pune Municipal Corporation, who was extremely pro-active in networking with our research team so as to dovetail our research outputs into voter awareness strategies by the PMC. I also express my gratitude to Shri Satish Kulkarni, Deputy Commissioner, PMC as well as the creative team at PMC for their inputs.

Mrs. Manasi Phadke has been the chief co-ordinator and principal author of this report and has been driving the processes right from the methodological construction of the problem to writing the report, meticulously. Prof. Dnyandeo Talule has been our partner, lending his time and efforts generously to the completion of the project, for which I thank him. I must also thank Mr. Anand Karandikar, who lent his experience and insights on questionnaire design to our project generously. Mr. Rohit Deshpande, Seed Infotech Pvt. Ltd. gave us the software support for carrying out the survey using android devices. Vishal Gaikwad was our key support for conducting the field survey and analysis. Anjali Phadke handled the statistical analysis part of the project single-handedly and extremely competently. Ms. Manisha Shinde was in charge of data quality check, which she completed in a timely and efficient manner. Prof. Rajesh Bhatikar handled the editing of the report very efficiently. Mr. Vilas Mankar gave the technical and printing assistance to the project.

A very special vote of thanks goes to Dr. Soman, Principal, Symbiosis College of Arts and Commerce, for agreeing to help in the task of the field survey by engaging the help of his students as enumerators. Dr. Soman, together with Dr. Sunayani Parchure, Dr. Sheena Mathews and Prof. Kashmira Behere were instrumental in guiding the students’ team in the course of the field survey. Students from Symbiosis School of Economics too participated in the survey as enumerators. A special thanks to Dr. Jyoti Chandiramani, Director, SSE for facilitating the same. A team of nearly 40 students was involved as enumerators on field for a period of 8 days. I take this opportunity to especially thank all the students involved in this project for their sincerity and effort.

This project helped us to gain deep insights into voter behaviour at a local body level. I am sure that the report will serve as a useful addition to the existing literature on the subject.

Prof. Rajas Parchure
Offg. Director

February 4, 2017

Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

The 72nd and 73rd Amendment to the Constitution, which gave constitutional status to the Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRI), was passed in 1992. The same amendment provided for the creation of the State Election Commission of Maharashtra for conduct of elections in urban and rural local self-governance bodies. All urban and rural local body elections in Maharashtra since 1994 have been conducted by the SECM. While urban bodies include Municipal Corporations, Municipal Councils and Nagar Panchayats, rural bodies encompass Zilla Parishads, Panchayat Samitis and Gram Panchayats.

In Maharashtra State, at the time of establishment of the SECM, some of the local bodies rural as well as urban, were already in existence and were functioning with elected members. It was decided to allow the local bodies to continue with their existence and hold elections in these local bodies as and when a 5-year period of their working came to a close. Thus, in Maharashtra, all local bodies do not go into a state of election at the same time. Different local bodies, urban and rural, go into a state of elections as and when the 5-year period of their existence comes to a close.

Since its establishment, the SECM has conducted 4 rounds of elections in all the local bodies. The first round was from 1994-98, the second round was from 1999-2003, the third round was from 2004-08 and the fourth one was from 2009-13. From 2014 onwards, the fifth round of elections is being conducted by the SECM across all rural and urban local bodies in Maharashtra. Whilst some bodies have already had their fifth round of elections since 2014, in nearly 26 out of 36 districts in Maharashtra, all urban and rural bodies will go into a state of elections from November 2016 to March 2017. Thus, from November 2016 onwards, a major part of Maharashtra state will move into election mode.

The Municipal Corporation elections will be held from February 2017 onwards in different parts of the state. Even as the SECM prepares for conducting the Corporation elections, one of its main concerns is the poor voter turnout at Corporation elections. In the largest Corporations i.e. Brihanmumbai Municipal Corporation (BMC) and Pune Municipal Corporation (PMC), voter turnout percentages have been quite low.

In a recently conducted study titled “Municipal Corporation Elections in Maharashtra: A Data Analysis (1994-2004)”, Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics has calculated voter turnout statistics of all Corporations in Maharashtra. While the average of all Corporations stands at about 55 per cent, the voter turnout percentages for BMC and PMC stand at 45 per cent and 54.5 per cent respectively.

Not only is the voter turnout in the bigger Municipal Corporations low, at a ward level, the voter turnout tends to be lower in the more affluent wards. Thus, we find that voter turnout decreases in the more affluent or well-to-do areas.

What really contributes to this low turnout? Is it purely voter apathy? Or is it that voters do not perceive value in the services rendered by Corporations? Or are there other issues wherein the voter does not actively engage with the local body? Are there certain voter attributes that promote or reduce voter turnout? If yes, then once these are identified, stakeholders could create some campaigns around those voter attributes so as to enhance the voting percentage.

Clearly, the entire process has to start with identifying which attributes may encourage or discourage people to vote. This idea was initiated by Shri J. Saharia, Hon. Commissioner, State Election Commission of Maharashtra in a meeting with various stakeholders. It is in response to this idea that Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Pune, submitted a proposal to conduct a voter survey titled “Why people do not vote in Municipal Corporation Elections: A Voter-based Study in PMC”.

CHAPTER 2

VOTING BEHAVIOUR: THE GLOBAL EXPERIENCE

Predominantly India has so far been a rural democracy and conventional wisdom is that the rural voters in the country outvote urban voters (Kanchan Chandra and Alan Potter, 2016)¹. However, as a result of rural-urban migration, the balance between rural and urban population is now changing and becoming urban-centric. Although according to the Census 2011 about 69 per cent of India's population lived in rural areas while 31 per cent in urban, for the first time since Independence (Census, 2011)² the absolute increase in the number of persons living in urban areas during the decade 2001-11 was greater than the absolute increase in number of persons living in rural areas. Compared to the decade 1991-2001, the decade 2001-11 witnessed an increasing trend in the growth rate of urban population (Census, 2011)⁴. United Nations' Department of Economic and Social Affairs has projected that by 2050 about 50 per cent of Indian population will live in urban areas (United Nations, 2014)⁵ while the same is already true for the states like Maharashtra (Census, 2011)⁶. But in comparative terms, both the share of urban population and its growth in the country are modest. More than half (54 per cent) of the population of China already lives in urban areas while compared to only half of India's by 2050 is estimated to touch the mark of 76 per cent (China's?) (United Nations, 2014)⁷. Three of India's South Asian neighbours viz; Bangladesh, Bhutan and Pakistan already have a higher proportion of urban population respectively 34, 38 and 38 per cent (United Nations, 2014)⁸. The proportion of urban population that is projected by the UNWUP for these countries by 2050 is 56, 55 and 57 per cent respectively (United Nations, 2014)⁹. The urban dwelling of India in 2014 stood at 410 million which is second only to China, also means that even though most of its voters live in rural areas, the country has the largest pool of urban voters in the democratic world (Kanchan Chandra and Alan Potter, 2016)¹⁰. Even this modest rate of urbanization is shifting the balance between rural and urban voters, so that by 2041, it will not remain a predominantly rural democracy but one in which rural and urban voters are equally balanced (Ibid)¹¹.

It is known fact that rural India is more active than urban when it comes to voting (Tewari, 2014a, 2014b)^{12,13} (see also ToI 2011)¹⁴. Respectively in 2009 and 2014 Parliamentary

¹Kanchan Chandra and Alan Potter (2016), Do Urban Voters in India Vote Less?, Economic and Political Weekly, Sep. 24, 2016, Vol. LI, No. XXXIX.

²Census of India, (2011). Ministry Home Affairs, Govt. of India, New Delhi.

⁴ Ibid.

⁵ United Nations (2014), World Urbanization Prospects: The 2014 Revision, Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

⁶Census of India, (2011), Ministry Home Affairs, Govt. of India, New Delhi.

⁷ United Nations (2014), World Urbanization Prospects: The 2014 Revision, Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

⁸ Ibid

⁹ Ibid

¹⁰Kanchan Chandra and Alan Potter (2016), Do Urban Voters in India Vote Less?, Economic and Political Weekly, Sep. 24, 2016, Vol. LI, No. XXXIX.

¹¹ Ibid

¹²Tewari, Saumya (2014a) Betting on Rural Votes This Time Too, 13th March, www.indiaspend.com/reports.

¹³----- (2014b) Rural India Continues Outvote Urban India, IndiaSpend, 30 May.

elections 65 and 69 per cent of rural voters turned out to cast their votes as against 42.5 and 50 per cent of their urban counterparts. The general participation of urban voters in 2009 was dismal. Studies based on NES data argue that in Parliamentary elections urban turnout in India is lower than rural turnout (Palshikar and Kumar 2004, Kumar 2009, Falcao 2009, National Election Study 2014)^{15/16/17/18}. But at the same time the voter turnout in smaller and medium towns is no different from the turnout in mostly rural constituencies (Yadav 1999)¹⁹ or even higher than turnout in highly rural constituencies and in metropolitan ones (Palshikar and Kumar 2004, Kumar 2009, Falcao 2009, National Election Study 2014)^{20, 21, 22, 23}. Several National Election Study data reveal that in Parliamentary elections urban turnout in India is lower than rural turnout (Jafferlot 2008, Chandra 2013)^{24, 25}. Turnout in metropolitan constituencies of Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Hyderabad and Bengaluru is significantly lower than in other type of constituencies (Auerbach 2015, Yadav 1999, 2000, Palshikar and Kumar 2009, Falcao 2009, National Election Study 2014)^{26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31}.

It is with the grasp and understanding of the facts mentioned above and based on our earlier studies on local self-government election data analysis for the period 1993-2013 which also

¹⁴Times of India (2011) Urban Population Indifferent Towards Voting, Governance, 13th February.

¹⁵PalshikarSuhas and Sanjay Kumar (2009), Participatory Norm: How Broad Based Is It?, Economic and Political Weekly, 18th Dec. PP. 5412-17.

¹⁶ Kumar Sanjay (2009), Patterns of Political Participation: Trends and Perspective, Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XLIV, No. XXXIX, PP. 47-51.

¹⁷Falcao, Vanita Leah (2009), Urban Patterns of Voting and Party Choices, Economic and Political Weekly, 26th Sep. Vol. XLIV, No. XXXIX, pp. 99-101.

¹⁸National Election Study (2014), Statistics_National_Election_Study_2014, Economic and Political Weekly, Special Issue-2014.

¹⁹Yadav, Yogendra (1999), Electoral Politics in Time of Change: India's Third Electoral System 1989-1999, Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XXXIV & xxxv, Aug. PP. 2393-99.

²⁰PalshikarSuhas and Sanjay Kumar (2009), Participatory Norm: How Broad Based Is It?, Economic and Political Weekly, 18th Dec. PP. 5412-17.

²¹ Kumar Sanjay (2009), Patterns of Political Participation: Trends and Perspective, Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XLIV, No. XXXIX, PP. 47-51.

²² Falco, Vanita Leah (2009), Urban Patterns of Voting and Party Choices, Economic and Political Weekly, 26th Sep. Vol. XLIV, No. XXXIX, PP. 99-101.

²³National Election Study (2014), Statistics_National_Election_Study_2014, Economic and Political Weekly, Special Issue-2014.

²⁴Jafferlot Christopher (2008), Why Should We Vote? The Indian Middle Class and the Functioning of the World's Largest Democracy, Patterns of Middle Class Consumption in India and China, Jafferlot Christopher and Peter Van der Veer, Delhi, Sage Publications, PP. 35-54.

²⁵Kanchan Chandra (2013), Patronage, Democracy and Ethnic Politics in India, Clientelism, Social Policy and the Quality of Democracy, Diego Abent and Larry Diamond (eds), John Hopkins Press. Kanchan Chandra and Alan Potter (2016), Dataset on Urbanization in Parliamentary Constituencies in India 1977-2014, Vrsion1.0.

²⁶Auerbach, Adam Michael (2015), India's Urban Constituencies Revisited, Contemporary South Asia, 23:2, 136-50, DOI: 10.1080/09584935.2015.1028026.

²⁷Yadav, Yogendra (1999), Electoral Politics in Time of Change: India's Third Electoral System 1989-1999, Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XXXIV & xxxv, Aug. PP. 2393-99.

²⁸ ----- (2000), Understanding the Second Democratic Upsurge, Transforming India, Francine Frankel, ZoyaHasan, Rajiv Bhargava and BalveerArora (eds), New Delhi: OUP, PP. 120-45.

²⁹PalshikarSuhas and Sanjay Kumar (2009), Participatory Norm: How Broad Based Is It?, Economic and Political Weekly, 18th Dec. PP. 5412-17.

³⁰Falcao, Vanita Leah (2009), Urban Patterns of Voting and Party Choices, Economic and Political Weekly, 26th Sep. Vol. XLIV, No. XXXIX, PP. 99-101.

³¹National Election Study (2014), Statistics_National_Election_Study_2014, Economic and Political Weekly, Special Issue-2014.

comprised various aspects of voter turnout, that the present study on “Why do people not vote in Municipal Corporation Elections: A Voter based Study in PMC” was commissioned to Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Pune.

A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON LOCAL GOVERNANCE

The roots of local governance in ancient India date back to the period of *Rig-Veda* (1700 BC). However, local governance in contemporary India owes its genesis to the establishment of various Municipal Corporations in the country during the British era. A Municipal Council or a Municipal Corporation, in a federal State like India, is an administering local body that oversees city development and makes the provision of public amenities for its citizens. Municipal Corporations are created to look into the governance of bigger cities whereas Municipal Councils look after the governance issues of large towns. In India, the Municipal Corporations have been classified into A+, A, B, C and D categories which is as per the population and Per Capita Income (PCI) of the towns/cities as shown in the table below.

Table No. 2.1: Population under Governance of Municipal Corporations in Maharashtra

Sr. No.	Type of Corporation	Parameter	
		Population Size	PCI* (Rs)
1	Grade - A+	Above 01 Crore	Above 50000
2	Grade - A	25 Lakh To 01 Crore	Above 8000
3	Grade -B	15 To 25 Lakh	Above 5000
4	Grade -C	10 To 15 Lakh	Above 3000
5	Grade - D	03 To 10 Lakh	Not Applicable

Source: GoM Resolution-UDD No. MCO 2014/CR153/UD14/Dtd: 01.09.2014.

Note: * = Per Capita Income.

The norm of population across India is determined by the central government of the country. A Municipal Corporation is established independently or sometimes by elevating the Municipal Council to the level of Corporation.

The establishment of Madras (Chennai) Municipal Corporation on 29 September 1688 marked the beginning of Municipal governance in India. It was established by the British East India Company via a Royal Charter of King James II. The Municipal Corporation of Hyderabad was established in 1869 by the Nizam of Hyderabad who had the governing independence in British India. Subsequently, the Corporations of Calcutta and Bombay were established respectively in 1876 and 1888. The Bombay Municipal Corporation was established by the Bombay Municipal Corporation Act while the Delhi Municipal Council

came into being in 1911 when Delhi was proclaimed to be the new Capital of India. Later, by an Act of Parliament, it was elevated to the level of Municipal Corporation on 7 April 1958.

In different States of India, the Municipal Corporation may be known by different nomenclatures. For instance, in Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and Haryana, it is known as *Nagar Nigam* while it is known as *MahanagarPalika* in Maharashtra, Goa and Karnataka, *PouroNigom* in West Bengal, *PurPorishod* in Tripura.

DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE AND MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS

The purpose of Municipal governance and strategic urban planning in a country is to create effective, responsive, democratic and accountable local governance framework. Both in India and abroad, democracy and decentralization are the focal points of local governance. The idea of local governance continues to quietly sweep the world. From Bolivia to Bulgaria and from West Africa to South Asia, several countries have been strengthening their local governments and working to make them more responsive and effective (USAID 2000)³². Decentralization promotes democracy in myriad ways. Decentralization brings governments closer to citizens and allows people to participate more effectively in local issues concerning development by identifying community priorities (Ibid). This also facilitates the gain of democratic experience of people and elected representatives. Therefore, for the last twenty five years, the concept of ‘participation’ has been widely used in the development discourse. Democratic governance implies participation in the process of formulation, passage and implementation of public policies (Perry Mosley and Day, 1992)³³. It is by no means always a positive experience. Local elections provide citizens with an opportunity to vote in or vote out parties from power, thereby making local bodies vibrant and democracy, stronger.

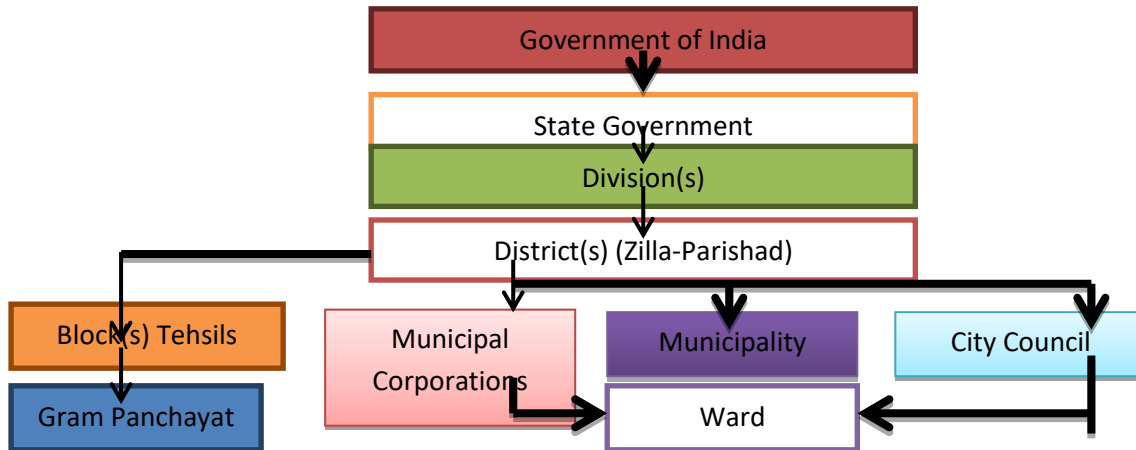
ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE AND DECENTRALIZATION OF POWER AT MUNICIPAL CORPORATION

The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) both of the Municipal Corporation and ZillaParishad, who is an IAS officer, heads the administrative machinery and may also, be the District Magistrate in some States. The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) supervises the divisions of the Parishad and the wards of the Corporation and executes its development schemes. The pattern of administration can better be understood from the following diagram.

³²Centre for Democracy and Governance, Decentralization and Democratic Local Governance Handbook, USAID, 20523-3100, PP. 05-06.

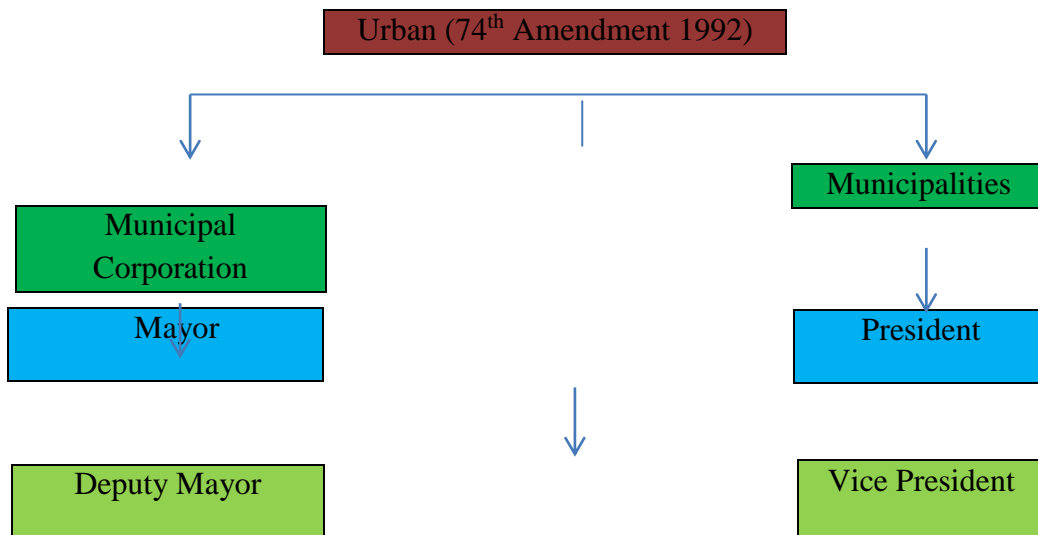
³³Parry, G., Mosley, G. and Day N. (1992), Political Participation and Democracy in Britain. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

**Local Self Government and Decentralization of Power
(73rd and 74th Amendment-1992/Rural +Urban)**



The following diagram elucidates the post 73rd constitutional amendment (1992) structure of decentralization of power through local self-government in India. This is inclusive of both the administrative pattern of Municipal Corporations and the Councils which is indicative of local self-governance and decentralization of power.

**Local Self Government
(Decentralization of Power)**



MUNICIPAL CORPORATION ELECTIONS

In ancient Greece and Rome, and throughout the medieval period, rulers such as the Holy Roman Emperor and the Pope were elected (Encyclopedia Britannica).³⁴ In the Vedic period of India, the *raja* of a *gana* (*tribal group*) was apparently elected by the *gana*. The *gana* members had the final say in his election.

In modern democracy, an election is a formal process by which citizens choose their representative to hold public office. Elections have been the fulcrum of modern democracy since the 17th century. Like the Parliamentary elections in India, elections to local bodies are also held every five years. Very often the ruling party or local alliance elected to power at the local urban level is in alignment with the party or combine ruling at the State level even though in Municipal elections local issues are likely to be more dominant than the party philosophy or policies and programmes that the party may adopt at the broader State level.

Post 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments 1992 the State Election Commission of Maharashtra was set up in 1994. Since then it conducts the elections to the local bodies including ZillaParishads, PanchayatSamitis and village Gram Panchayats for rural democratic setup and the elections to the Municipal Councils and Corporations in urban power structure. Elections to ZillaParishad and PanchayatSamitis are conducted simultaneously while for Corporations and Councils the elections take place at the regular interval of every five years. Since its inception in 1994 the State Election Commission of Maharashtra has been electing approximately 2.5 lakh “people representatives” in nearly 28,000 local bodies which comprise 26 Municipal Corporations, 340 Municipal Councils and Nagar Panchayats, 34 ZillaParishads, 351 PanchayatSamitis and approximately 27, 781 Gram Panchayats respectively (J. Saharia, 2016)³⁵.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE AND THE GLOBAL EXPERIENCE OF VOTER TURNOUT AT THE LOCAL ELECTIONS

Low voter turnout in elections is not the concern of Indian democracy alone. Even American democracy has repeatedly experienced the concern of low voter participation in federal elections (Bannett and Resnick, 1990)³⁶ and (Sidney Verba, Schlozman and Brady 1995)³⁷. Almost half of the eligible voters of America do not exercise their franchise in Presidential elections, which can broadly be termed as an “evidence of crises in country’s democracy” (Ruy A. Teixeira, 1992)³⁸, (Rosenstone and Hansen, 1993)³⁹. In recent decades, a few studies

³⁴Election (Political Science), Encyclopedia Britannica Online, Retrieved Sep. 2016.

³⁵ J. Saharia (2016), Data Based Analysis of Municipal Elections in Maharashtra-1994-2013 (Foreword), R. K. Parchure, ManasiPhadke and DnyandevTalule, GIPE, Pune, A Study for the State Election Commission of Maharashtra.

³⁶Bennett and Resnick (1990), The Implications of Nonvoting for Democracy in the United States, American Journal of Political Science 34:771-802; Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995), Voice and Equity: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Uni. Press

³⁷Sidney Verba, Schlozman and Brady 1995), Voice and Equality, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

³⁸Ruy A. Teixeira (1992), The Disappearing American Voter, Washington DC: Brooking Institutions; Rosenstone S. J. and J. M. Hansen (1993), Mobilization, Participation and Democracy in America, New York: Macmillan.

have attempted to look comprehensively at Municipal level voter turnout in the US. These studies suggest that voter turnout in Municipal elections may average half that of national elections, with turnout in some cities falling below a quarter of the voting age population (Alford and Lee, 1968)⁴⁰, (R. L. Morlan, 1984)⁴¹ and (Ruby Bridges, 1997)⁴². However, the voter turnout at elections to rural local bodies like ZillaParishads in different states of India is often observed to be higher than the turnout at Parliamentary elections. Low voter turnout in Municipal elections raises a number of concerns, the most serious being that the voice of the people in Municipal elections is likely to be severely distorted. Disadvantaged segments of the society, racial and ethnic minorities, the poor, illiterates tend to vote significantly less regularly than others in democratic contests (Rosenstone and Hansen, 1993)⁴³, (Sidney Verba, Schlozman and Brady 1995)⁴⁴. And therefore, with low voter turnout, this bias is likely to become more pronounced (Wattenberg, 1998)⁴⁵.

At the local level then, there is a risk that non-participation in the democratic process and consequent low voter turnout may actually distort people's representation. Therefore, increase in turnout in local urban or rural elections is a challenge for strengthening democracy and designing and implementing people-oriented policies and programmes at the local level. Voting in local elections in fact provides citizens with an opportunity to learn about and engage in a democratic process beginning with the grassroots level. Given the proximity of the local government and its relatively small size, it is in many ways easier for citizens to acquire crucial democratic skills and become familiar with the public realm at the local level (Zoltan Hajnal, P. G. Lewis and Hugh Louch, 2002)⁴⁶. Election timing is also observed as a vital determinant of voter turnout which matters the most. This is because voter turnout is observed to be much lower in off-cycle than in on-cycle elections. Looking at California, for example, it was found that average voter turnout in an off-cycle election is 35 per cent lower than turnout when city elections are held at the same time as Presidential elections (Sarah F. Anzia 2014)⁴⁷.

³⁹Rosenstone S. J. and J. M Hansen (1993), *Mobilization, Participation and Democracy in America*, New York: Macmillan; Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995), *Voice and Equity: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Uni. Press.

⁴⁰ Alford R. R. and E. C. Lee (1968), Voting Turnout in American Cities, *American Political Science Review* 62:796-813

⁴¹Morlan R. L. (1984), Municipal Versus National Election Voter Turnout: Europe and the United States, *Political Science Quarterly*, 99:457-70.

⁴²Ruby Bridges A. (1997), *Morning Glories: Municipal Reform in the Southwest*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton Uni. Press

⁴³Rosenstone S. J. and J. M Hansen (1993), *Mobilization, Participation and Democracy in America*, New York: Macmillan; Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995), *Voice and Equity: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Uni. Press

⁴⁴Sidney Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995), *Voice and Equality*, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

⁴⁵ Wattenberg M. P. (1998), *Turnout Decline in the US and Other Advanced Industrial Democracies*. Irvine, CA: Centre for the Study of Democracy.

⁴⁶ZoltaHajnal, Paul George Lewis and Hugh Louch (2002), *Municipal Elections in California: Turnout, Timing and Competition*, Public Policy Institute of California.

⁴⁷ Sarah F. Anzia (2014), *Timing and Turnout: How Off-Cycle Elections Favor Organized Groups*, University of Chicago Press.

“Social capital” is believed to play a dominant role in increasing voter turnout, which in turn improves political representation both at the national and local levels of governance (Mathew D. Atkinson and Anthony Fowler, 2012)⁴⁸. Voting requires time and information and there is little chance that one vote will change the election outcome; hence the turnout poses a classic collective action problem (Mancur Olson, 1965)⁴⁹. It is argued that social capital may provide a solution to the collective action problem of voter turnout which is defined as “Citizen Engagement in Community Affairs” (Robert Putnam, 1995, P.664)⁵⁰. Social capital can increase voter turnout by increasing the flow of political information through a community. Recent field experiences demonstrate that societal pressure could lead to an increase in voter turnout to the extent of 30 to 38 per cent (Gerber et al, 2008)⁵¹. However, a contrary view points out that social connectedness may actually lead to decrease in voter turnout in cases where an individual social network creates a force which does not rely on voting to make its voice heard. (Diana C. Mutz, 2002)⁵². Also an increase in social capital in heterogeneous communities leads to uncertainty about political views and reduces the voter turnout (Ibid)⁵³. In a nutshell, there are good reasons to believe that social capital may have positive or negative effects on voter turnout at every level of democracy, irrespective of rural or urban.

Voter turnout, which refers to the percentage of voters who exercise their franchise at an election, out of the total number of eligible voters, is one significant measure of citizen participation in democratic politics. Worldwide, voter turnout during the period 1945–2001 shows a notable decline, with major decline taking place since the mid-1980s (Rafael Lopez Pintor, 2002)⁵⁴ and (Maria Gratschew and Kate Sullivan, 2002)⁵⁵. Africa witnessed a pronounced increase in democratic participation during the 1980s when several African nations were riding the wave of democratization. Turnout in North and South American countries during the same period was observed to be stable, as was that of Oceania and Western Europe. During the same period, the Middle East recorded varied turnout while Asia witnessed the most pronounced variations in democratic participation (Ibid)⁵⁶. Average turnout from 1990 to 2001 peaked at 79 per cent in Oceania which was just ahead of Western Europe with turnout proportion of 78 per cent. Both Asia and Central and Eastern European region for the same period had an average voter turnout of 72 per cent while the average in Central and South America was 69 per cent, North America and the Caribbean – 65 per cent. Africa’s average turnout was the lowest at 64 per cent which, by all standards, is higher than

⁴⁸Mathew D. Atkinson and Anthony Fowler (2012), *The Effect of Social Capital on Voter Turnout: Evidence from Saint’s Day Fiestas in Mexico*, University of California, Los Angeles and Harvard University.

⁴⁹Mancur Olson (1965), *The Logic of Collective Action*, HUP.

⁵⁰Robert Putnam (1995), *Tuning In, Tuning Out; The Strange Disappearances of Social Capital in America*. *PS: Political Science and Politics* 28(4): 664-683.

⁵¹Gerber, Alan, Donald Green and C. Larimer (2008), *Social Pressure and Voter Turnout: Evidence from a Large-Scale Field Experiment*: *American Political Science Review*, 102(1): 33-48.

⁵²Diana C. Mutz (2002), *The Consequences of Cross-Cutting Networks for Political Participation*, *American Journal of Political Science*, 46(4):838-855.

⁵³Ibid

⁵⁴Rafael Lopez Pintor (2002), *Voter Turnout Since 1945: A Global Report*, Stockholm, Sweden: International Institute of Democracy and Electoral Assistance.

⁵⁵Maria Gratschew and Kate Sullivan (2002), *Compulsory Voting*, ARENA, Association of Electoral Administrators, OxonianRwley Press Ltd. United Kingdom.

⁵⁶Ibid

the voter turnout at most of India's Parliamentary elections (Ibid)⁵⁷. The comparison of voter turnout across nations further elucidates a wide range of variations. For example 93 per cent voter turnout in a country like Liechtenstein in Western Europe against 56 per cent in neighboring Switzerland can be attributed to compulsory voting in Liechtenstein. On the contrary, a country like Bahamas where voting is not compulsory, records a turnout of 92 per cent compared with the Haitian average of 47 per cent (Ibid)⁵⁸. Since the 1970s established democracies of the world have recorded a slow but steady decline in voter turnout; however during the same period, several other nations where participative democratic processes strengthened, recorded vast increase in turnout, peaking at about 80 per cent (Ibid)⁵⁹.

There is no doubt that the capacity to read and write, female literacy ratio (FLR), Per Capita Income (PCI), etc. do not necessarily translate into an ability to make coherent and informed political decisions. In fact, it is observed that while voter turnout does increase initially with increase in literacy, it tends to decline in societies where literacy exceeds 90 per cent (Ibid)⁶⁰. There are 9 major electoral systems within parliamentary elections used around the world. Alternative vote used in Australia, Fiji and Nauru demonstrate an average turnout of 91 per cent while Jordan and Vanuatu with single non-transferable vote system have an average turnout of 43 per cent. The other systems do not have such a large deviation, with single transferable vote at 80 per cent and two round system at 63 per cent. An interesting result is the relatively small difference between the two most widely used systems.

Very often the reason cited for low voter turnout is that for many people today democracy has become synonymous with elections and political parties; other than voting once every five years; ordinary citizens are more likely to remain detached from the issues of governance. It is a fact that voter participation has decreased and the established democracies of the world have experienced what is termed as crises of political parties.

The United Nations General Assembly Convention 1979, which seeks to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women, also emphasizes the importance of equal participation of women in public life. However, the question remains as to whether women participation in the overall voter turnout has actually increased. Various studies on voting pattern in Western Europe and North America establish the fact that gender, along with age, education and social class, was one of the standard demographic and social characteristics used to predict levels of civic engagement, political activism and electoral turnout (Tingsten, 1937)⁶¹, (Almond and Verba, 1963)⁶², (Stein Rokkan, 1970)⁶³ and (Verba Sidney N, and Norman H. Nie, 1972)⁶⁴.

⁵⁷ Ibid

⁵⁸ Ibid

⁵⁹ Ibid

⁶⁰ Ibid

⁶¹Tingsten H.L.G. (1937), Political Behaviour, Studies in Election Statistics: London: P.S. King.

⁶²Almond G. A. and S Verba (1963), The Civic Culture, Political Attitude and Democracy in Five Nations, Princeton, N.J. Princeton University Press.

⁶³Stein Rokkan (1970), Citizens, Elections, Parties: Approaches to the Comparative Study of the Processes of Development Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

The studies also reveal that gender differences were narrowing even in the 1950s in advanced industrialized societies such as the Sweden (Martin Lipset, 1960)⁶⁵. In most societies, when it comes to political activity, men are found to be more active than women (Verba, Sidney N, NieLekajcieSie and Kim Cattreal 1978)⁶⁶. Such gender differences have persisted in spite of significant advances in the levels of education. Usually women are found to be less involved in unconventional forms of democratic participation such as strikes and protest movements, thereby leading to lower participation of women also in conventional democratic processes (Barnes and Kaase, 1979)⁶⁷. However, this finding has been visibly challenged by the female voting pattern in recent times. In the US for example, in the Presidential elections held post 1980, the proportion of eligible female adults who exercised their franchise exceeded the proportion of eligible male adults. The same phenomenon was evident in non-presidential mid-term elections since 1986 (CAWP, 2000)⁶⁸. Overall percentage of female voter turnout in the US outnumbers the male electorate implying that the number of female voters has exceeded the number of male voters in every Presidential election. Similar trends are evident in Britain where the gender gap in turnout reversed in 1979 so that by 1997 elections, an estimated 17.79 million women voted compared with about 15.8 million men (Rafael Lopez Pintor, Maria Gratschew and Kate Sullivan, 2002)⁶⁹. This indicates that the patterns of voter turnout can be influenced by a legal framework that draws citizens towards meaningful political activity (Ibid)⁷⁰. In nations like Barbados and Sweden it is observed that the number of female voters consistently exceeds male voters. Conscious attempts to bring women into political framework can potentially lead to increase in the voter turnout.

Other important factors that may influence voter turnout include the proportion of youth voters to total voters, internet voting, extended polling, and perhaps even compulsory voting. Compulsory voting is not a new idea; countries like Belgium (1892), Argentina (1914) and Australia (1924) were among the first countries to introduce compulsory voting laws (Ibid)⁷¹.

DOES SOCIAL MEDIA AFFECT VOTER TURNOUT?

⁶⁴Verba Sidney N, and Norman H. Nie (1972), *Participation and Social Equality*, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

⁶⁵Martin Lipset (1960), *Political Man: the Social Bases of Politics*, Garden City, New York, Doubleday.

⁶⁶Verba, Sidney N, NieLekajcieSieandKimCattreal (1978), *Participation and Social Equality*, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press and Verba SK and N, Nie (1972), *Politicization in America, Political Democracy and Social Equity*, New York, Harper and Raw.

⁶⁷Barnes S and Kaase M (1979), *Political Action, Mass Participation in Few Western Democracies*, Beverly Hills, Calif: Sage.

⁶⁸CAWP (2000), *Women in State Legislature*, Center for American Women and Politics, Eagleton Institute of Politics, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, 919, Ryders Lane, New Brunswick, NJ 08901 (732) 932-9384: www.cawp.rutgers.edu

⁶⁹Rafael Lopez Pintor, Maria Gratschew and Kate Sullivan (2002), *Compulsory Voting*, ARENA, Association of Electoral Administrators, OxonianRewley Press Ltd. United Kingdom.

⁷⁰ Ibid

⁷¹ Ibid

Social media have become an integral part of public discourse and communication in the contemporary society (AlinaMuntean 2015)⁷². The fast development of social media has caused major changes pertaining the way people find groups of individuals with similar interests, the nature of information, the available news sources, or the possibility to require and share ideas (Stieglitz, Dang-Xuan 2012: 1)⁷³. It has had major effects on fields such as advertising, public relations, communications, and political communication (Husain et al 2014: 224)⁷⁴. More recently, the prominence of social media has been particularly highlighted in politics, given the fact that the use of social networking sites such as Facebook and microblogging services such as Twitter are believed to have the potential to positively influence political participation (Stieglitz, Dang-Xuan 2012: 1)⁷⁵.

Academic research has consistently established that people who consume more news media have a greater probability of being civically and politically engaged. In an era when the public's time and attention is increasingly directed toward platforms such as Facebook and Twitter, scholars are seeking to evaluate the emerging relationship between social media use and public engagement. The Obama presidential campaigns in 2008 and 2012 and the Arab Spring in 2011 catalyzed interest in networked digital connectivity and political action, but the data remain far from conclusive.

The largest and perhaps best-known inquiry into this issue so far is a 2012 study published in the journal *Nature*, "A 61-Million-Person Experiment in Social Influence and Political Mobilization," which suggested that messages on users' Facebook feeds could significantly influence voting patterns. The study data analyzed in collaboration with Facebook data scientists suggested that certain messages promoted by friends "increased turnout directly by about 60,000 voters and indirectly through social contagion by another 280,000 voters, for a total of 340,000 additional votes." Close friends with real-world ties were found to be much more influential than casual online acquaintances (Boulianne, Shelley 2015)⁷⁶.

MUNICIPAL CORPORATION ELECTIONS AND VOTER TURNOUT: THE GLOBAL EXPERIENCE

As observed in the foregoing, low voter turnout in elections is not the concern of Indian democracy alone. Even American democracy has repeatedly experienced the concern of low voter participation in federal elections (Bennett and Resnick, 1990; Verba, Scholzman and

⁷²AlinaMuntean (2015), The Impact of Social Media Use on Political Participation, Master Thesis, MA in Corporate Communication, Aarhus University, Student Number: 20107618.

⁷³Stieglitz, Dang-Xuan (2012), Social Media and Political Communication: A Social Media Analytical Framework, Springer-Verlay-2012.

⁷⁴Hussain K, Abdullah AN, Ishak M, Kamarudin MF, Robani A, Mohin M, Hssan H (2014), A Preliminary Study of Effects of Social Media in Crisis Communication from Public Relations Practitioner's Views, p. 223-27, Procedia Social and Behaviroul Sciences.

⁷⁵Stieglitz, Dang-Xuan (2012), Social Media and Political Communication: A Social Media Analytical Framework, Springer-Verlay-2012.

⁷⁶Boulianne, Shelley (2015), "Social Media Use and Participation: A Meta-analysis of Current Research," Information, Communication and Society, 2015. doi: 10.1080/1369118X.2015.1008542. (www.journalistsresource.org, Retrieved: 12.01.2017)

Brady, 1995).⁷⁷ Almost half of the eligible voters in America do not turn out at polling booth in Presidential elections, which is an “evidence of crisis in country’s democracy” (Teixeira 1992; Rosenstone and Hansen 1993).⁷⁸ In the recent past the voter turnout at Municipal Corporation elections suggests that in city elections it may average half that of national elections, with turnout in some American cities such as California falling below a quarter of the voting age population (Alford and Lee 1968; Morlan 1984; Bridges 1997).⁷⁹

Such a low degree of voter turnout in local Corporation elections raises a number of concerns. Most serious concern is that the voice of the people in Municipal elections is likely to be severely distorted. Disadvantaged segments of the society, racial and ethnic minorities, the poor, illiterates tend to vote significantly less regularly than others in democratic contests (Rosenstone and Hanson 1993)⁸⁰; Verba, Schlozman and Brady 1995)⁸¹. And therefore, when turnout falls, this bias is likely to become more severe (Wattenberg 1998).⁸²

At the Corporation level then, non-participation may play a more critical role in policy making. Therefore, increase in turnout in Corporation elections is a challenge for strengthening democracy and designing and implementing pro-people policies at the urban local level. Participation at the local level brings for citizens a relatively easy opportunity to learn about and become engaged in democracy. Given the proximity of local government and the relatively small size, it is in many ways easier for citizens to acquire crucial democratic skills and become familiar with the public realm at the local level (Hajnal and Lewis 2001).⁸³ Election timing is also observed as a vital determinant of voter turnout which matters the most. This is because turnout is observed to be much lower in off-cycle than in on-cycle elections. Looking at California, for example, it was found that average voter turnout in off-cycle election is 35 per cent lower than turnout when city elections are held at the same time as presidential elections (Sarah F. Anzia 2014).⁸⁴

MUNICIPAL CORPORATION VOTER TURNOUT IN MAHARASHTRA

⁷⁷Bennett and Resnick (1990), The Implications of Nonvoting for Democracy in the United States, *American Journal of Political Science* 34:771-802; Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995), *Voice and Equity: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Uni. Press.

⁷⁸Teixeira R. A. (1992), *The Disappearing American Voter*, Washington DC: Brookings Institutions; Rosenstone S. J. and J. M. Hansen (1993), *Mobilization, Participation and Democracy in America*, New York: Macmillan.

⁷⁹Alford R. R. and E. C. Lee (1968), Voting Turnout in American Cities, *American Political Science Review* 62:796-813; Morlan R. L. (1984), *Municipal Versus National Election Voter Turnout: Europe and the United States*, *Political Science Quarterly* 99:457-70; Bridges A. (1997), *Morning Glories: Municipal Reform in the Southwest*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton Uni. Press.

⁸⁰Verba Sidney, Schlozman and Brady (1995),

⁸¹Rosenstone S. J. and J. M. Hansen (1993), *Mobilization, Participation and Democracy in America*, New York: Macmillan; Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995), *Voice and Equity: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Uni. Press.

⁸² Wattenberg M. P. (1998), *Turnout Decline in the US and Other Advanced Industrial Democracies*. Irvine, CA: Centre for the Study of Democracy.

⁸³Zoltan L Hajnal and Paul G. Lewis (2001), *Municipal Elections and Voter Turnout in Local Elections*, University of California.

⁸⁴Sarah F. Anzia (2014), *Timing and Turnout: How Off-Cycle Elections Favor Organized Groups*, University of Chicago Press.

The State of Maharashtra is not an exception to low voter turnout at Municipal elections. Across the time period, voter turnout at Municipal elections in the State is observed to be on the lower side, which is highly unsatisfactory. Most of the Municipal Councils and Corporations which went to polls in 2012 experienced a low voter turnout. In 2012 the voter turnout at Corporations like Mumbai and Thane could not exceed 45 per cent (ToI)⁸⁵. This is evidence of “low engagement of citizens in community affairs” (Mancur Olson 1965)⁸⁶. There are certain wards of Brihan Mumbai, Pune and PimpriChinchwad Municipal Corporations where the voter turnout in 2012 elections was as low as 29 per cent. This underlines the fact that the voter turnout in metropolis like Pune, Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata, Hyderabad and Delhi are historically lower than the medium size town and rural areas. Voter turnout at Municipal elections in Maharashtra thus poses a classic collective action problem. Only high turnout can serve the common public interest in designing policy.

In order to create a policy to increase the voter turnout, it is important that the voter behaviour be analyzed to understand their mind about voting in the elections and thereby the trends in the turnout. Once the trends are understood, it could be possible to target certain areas more intensively for increasing the turnout level.

It is with this vision that a study based on a voter survey in Pune and Brihan Mumbai Municipal Corporations was commissioned to Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics at the initiative of the State Election Commission of Maharashtra.

⁸⁵ Times of India, 16.02.2012, Retrieved: 26.09.2016.

⁸⁶ Mancur Olson (1965), The Logic of Collective Action, HUP.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH QUESTION, DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Sampling is a crucial part of survey design. The sample has to be sufficiently representative of the population so that the results obtained on the basis of the sample can be generalized to the population. A voter perception survey in Pune Municipal Corporation (PMC) required a process of identification and selection of wards across the city, and the number of respondents per ward. It also required thought on how to identify the respondents within each ward. This chapter outlines the various sampling aspects of the research proposal.

3.1: RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The average voter turnout in Municipal Corporation elections in Maharashtra is 55 per cent. Pune Municipal Corporation shows an average voter turnout percentage of 54.5 per cent over past 3 rounds of elections. Hence, the core research question for the present study is very simple: Why is it that people do not vote?

Whilst designing the questionnaire, there were a number of associated questions that too had to be handled. These are:

- What are the main reasons for people not voting in Pune?
- Could the low voter turnout be a reflection of the fact that people do not have a high level of engagement or association with the PMC?
- Could the low voter turnout be due to the fact that people are dissatisfied with PMC services?
- Can we classify voters as those who never vote (rare voters), those who vote sometimes (intermittent voters) and those who always vote (regular voters)? Is it possible to identify unique characteristics of rare, intermittent and regular voters?
- Is the low voter turnout due to electoral process issues such as the booth being too far away from the residence, or the queues in front of the booth being too long?
- Is the low voter turnout in Pune a simple case of urban apathy? If so, is there frustration or indifference or anger associated with apathy?
- What are the main reasons that the regular voters quote for voting?

3.1.1 Tools

Keeping the above mentioned research questions in mind, a close ended questionnaire was specially designed and pre-tested to understand voter attributes that influence voting behaviour. This questionnaire was used for the voter survey in the PMC and is attached in Appendix A.

3.2. SAMPLING METHODOLOGY

Sampling Design in PMC

There are 25,58,578 voters in the PMC area. The two-stage sampling method was used to select the number of voters to study why voters do not vote in the PMC election. The method is described below.

Stage I: To Choose Number of Prabhags

Cluster sampling method was used. Using data on 2012 PMC elections, all wards were clustered into low, medium and high voter turnout (VT henceforth) wards. The average VT for PMC 2012 election is 50.87 per cent with standard deviation 4.38 per cent. The minimum VT is 40.93 per cent and maximum VT is 60.57 per cent.

Table No. 3.1: Descriptive Statistics for Low, Medium and High Voter Turnout Clusters

VT Cluster	Number of wards in the cluster	Mean	Std. Deviation	Coefficient of Variation (CV)
High	25.00	55.74	1.66	0.03
Medium	32.00	50.47	1.62	0.03
Low	19.00	45.17	2.05	0.05
Total	76.00			

Selection of number of prabhags using CV data:

Table No. 3.2: Co-Efficient of Variation in the Low and High VT Cluster

VT Cluster	CV	Sample Prabhag
High	0.03	2
Low	0.05	4
Σ		6

On the basis of cost and time considerations, it was decided to select 6 prabhags out of the 76 prabhags on which the 2012 data was available. Since the research problem focuses on why people do not vote, the sample should technically contain more prabhags from the low VT cluster as compared to the high VT cluster. In order to decide the ratio of prabhags chosen

from low and high VT cluster, we use the Co-efficient of Variation of VTs. It is observed in the above table that the CV for high VT wards is nearly half of that for low VT cluster. Hence, 4 prabhags were chosen from low VT and 2 prabhags were chosen from high VT clusters as a control group.

The 19 prabhags in the low VT cluster were arranged in an ascending order and were classified into 4 intervals. From each interval, a prabhag was randomly chosen. In this manner, 4 prabhags from the low VT cluster were chosen to represent the low VT areas in Pune. The prabhags should technically also show a robust geographical spread. If the chosen prabhags were too close to each other, only then purposive substitutes were given to the chosen prabhag so that a good geographical coverage would be attained.

Similarly, in order to choose 2 prabhags showing high VT, the high VT cluster was arranged in an ascending order and was classified into 2 categories. In each category, a prabhag was chosen randomly.

Following is the final list of low VT prabhags chosen using this methodology.

1. Kothrud
2. Balewadi
3. NIBM
4. Vimannagar
- 5.

Following is the final list of high VT prabhags chosen using this methodology.

1. Hadapsar
2. Alka talkies

Stage II: To Choose Number of Voters in Each Prabhag

In the next stage, it is necessary to understand how many voters will be chosen per prabhag. The number of voters in the ward was used as the basic frame to choose a sample. With 95 per cent confidence level and 3.5 per cent error of margin, a sample size 270 was seen to be sufficient in each prabhag. Thus, it was decided to sample 320 voters per prabhag, with the consideration of 15 per cent non-response (or loss of data).

This implies that total number of voters interviewed in 6 wards of PMC would be 1900 to 2000.

Even if we were to consider total number of voters in PMC as the population frame, the sample size works out to be 1536 at 5 per cent level of significance and 2.5 per cent margin of error.

Thus, the sample size of 2000 as chosen by us seemed to be sufficient.

RIGHT-HAND RULE OF SAMPLING TO IDENTIFY THE HOUSEHOLD

An examination of the voter lists for the different prabhags reveals that the address of the voters is given in a very sketchy fashion, rendering it impossible to contact the voter using a systematic sampling plan. This is especially true of the more far flung areas which have seen development in the past 5 years such as Balewadi or NIBM. Hence, systematic sampling to identify the voter was not possible for this survey.

A simple right-hand rule was created to identify the household in which the survey would be conducted. Within each prabhag, 8 areas were identified. 40 households would be identified through the right hand sampling method in each area and thus, a sample size of 320 would be completed.

In the right hand sampling method, a household is randomly chosen as a start point. If the household is in a building, the enumerator is asked to move 10 buildings to her right to identify the next household. If the household is in a slum area, the enumerator is asked to move 20 houses to the right to identify the next house. In this manner, the right hand sampling rule is employed to identify the household from which the respondent is to be identified.

IDENTIFYING THE RESPONDENT WITHIN THE HOUSEHOLD

Once the enumerator identifies the household, the next step is to identify the respondent within the household. One way of doing this is to use the Kish grid, which gives a good gender and age distribution over the sample. But, in the low VT areas of PMC, which are also typically seen to be the affluent areas of the PMC, nuclear households are more the rule than the exception. In such cases, the Kish grid may not be the best method to identify the respondent. Hence, a simple rule of identifying the respondent was created.

In the first household randomly selected, the enumerator takes the responses from a voter who is ready to answer the questions. If this respondent is “Male” above 40 years of age, the enumerator is asked to interview “Female” above 40 years of age in the next interview. The third interview is to be held vis-a-vis “Male” below 40 years of age and the fourth vis-a-vis “Female” below 40 years of age. If such a respondent is not present at that time in the household, the enumerator typically schedules an appointment and returns for the interview. If a person with the required gender and age profile is not present in that household at all, then and only then is the enumerator allowed to look for a substitute respondent.

3.3: Time Span

The voter survey in PMC was conducted from 22nd December 2016 to 30th December 2016.

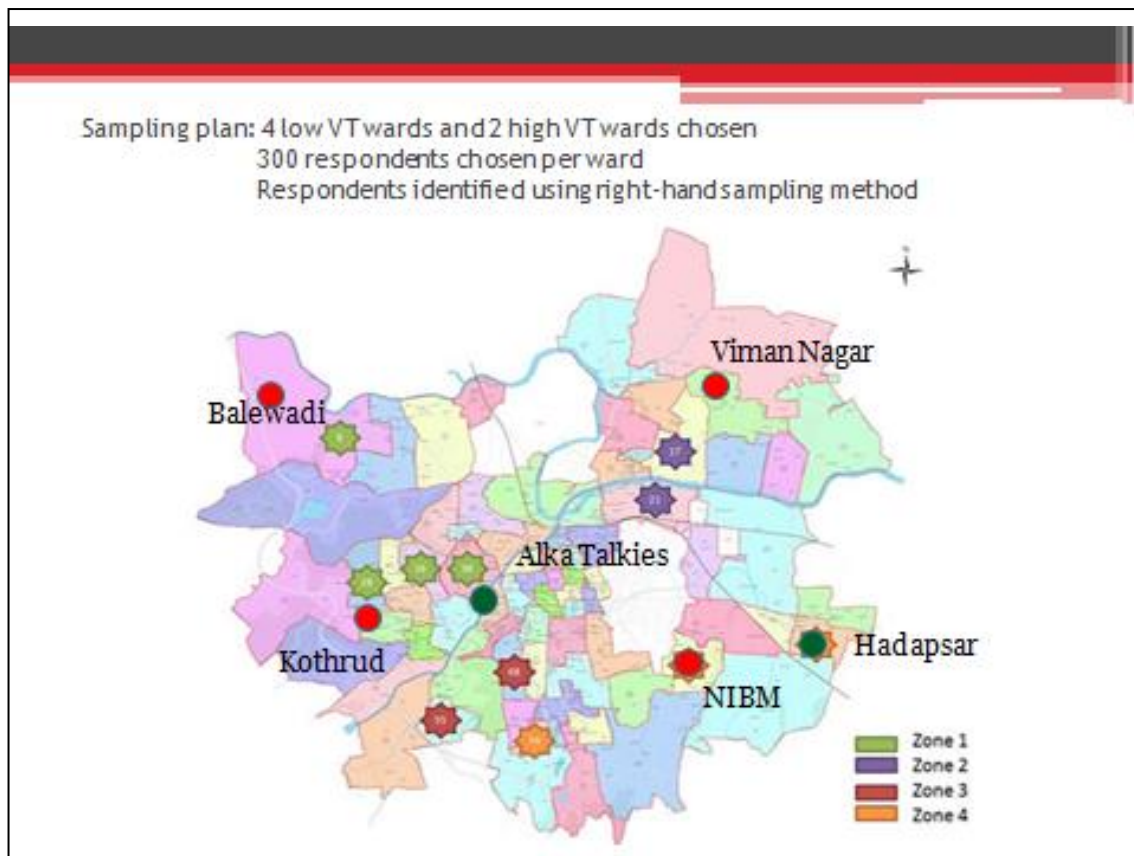
CHAPTER 4

WARD-LEVEL DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE SAMPLE

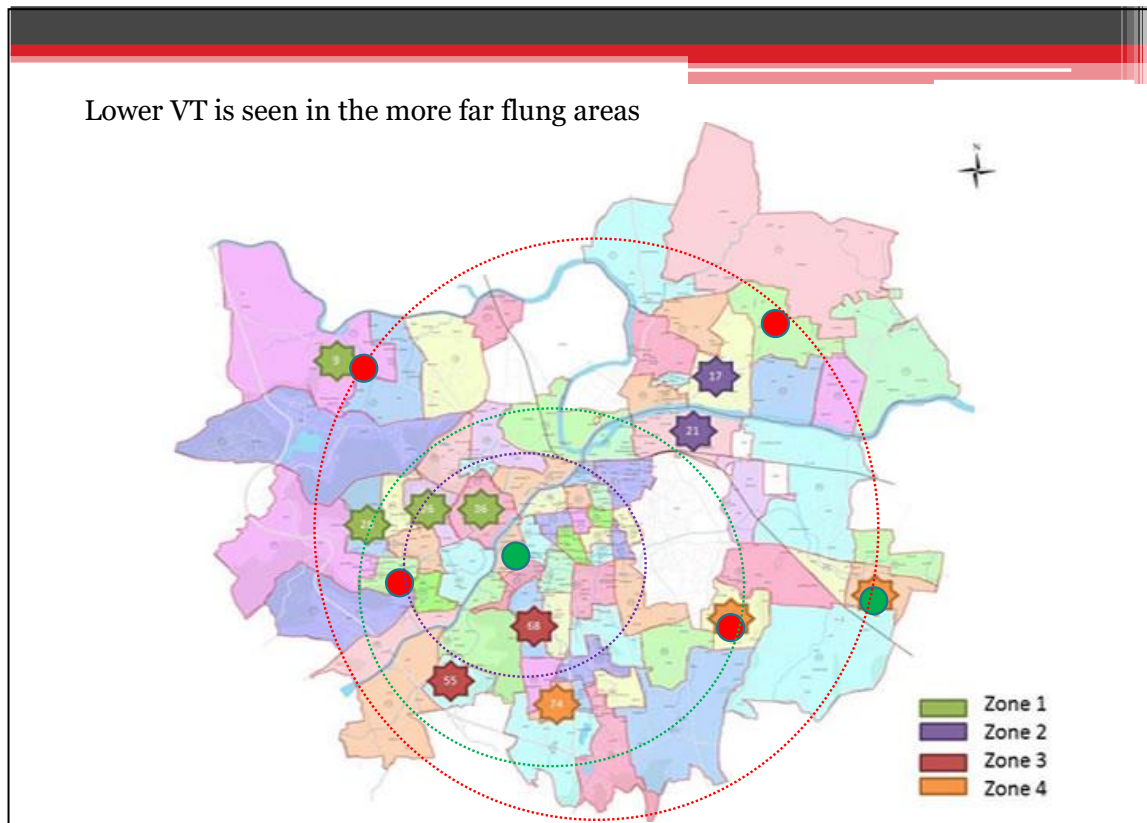
This chapter outlines the ward level voter characteristics as observed during the course of the survey.

As has been mentioned earlier, 4 wards with low voter turnout ratios and 2 wards with high voter turnout ratios were chosen within the sample. The wards with low voter turnout percentages are Vimannagar, Balewadi, Kothrud and NIBM. The wards with high voter turnout ratios are Alka Talkies and Hadapsar. The following map shows the geographical spread of the wards.

Figure No. 4.1: Geographical Distribution of Wards Selected in the Sample



The above map shows that Alka Talkies ward is at the heart of the city. Kothrud is at about 4.7 kms from the core. NIBM is at 10 kms, whereas Balewadi, Vimannagar and Hadapsar are at about 12 kms from the core. The map given below shows the distance of wards from the core; wards on the bigger concentric circles are more far flung from the center.

Figure No. 4.2: Distance of Selected Wards from the Centre of the City

It is interesting to note that the more far flung wards seem to have lower voter turnouts. Thus, NIBM, Vimannagar and Balewadi are the most far flung areas in terms of distance from the core and show lower voter turnout percentages. It is interesting and pertinent to note that these wards have developed rapidly in the past 7-10 years. Further, most of the in-migration witnessed in these rapidly developing wards has been in terms of high-income, highly-mobile people employed in the IT companies in Pune. A lot of the in-migrants are non-Marathi speaking people, and have added the cosmopolitan touch to Pune. Alka Talkies, on the other hand, is a ward which is located at the core of the city and had the highest voter turnout in the PMC 2012 elections. Hadapsar, despite being away from the centre of the city, registered a high voter turnout in the PMC 2012 elections. Why is it that Hadapsar shows a higher voting percentage despite being far from the centre? The answer lies in the fact that Hadapsar is part of the older Pune; the people who've settled in Hadapsar are not a part of the new in-migrants. The ward is characterized by people who've been staying there for a number of years; another fact is that the ward has a fair mixture of lower and upper income groups. This is in sharp contrast to the "new city" wards such as NIBM, Balewadi and Vimannagar, which have developed in the more recent times and mostly host high income groups. This discussion, based on informal and general observations, itself suggests that voter turnout may be inversely related to affluence. The following table indicates the ward wise voter turnout percentage as recorded in the PMC 2012 elections.

Table No. 4.1: Ward-Wise Voter Turnout in PMC 2012 Elections

Wards	Voter turnout percentage in PMC 2012 elections (Per Cent)
NIBM	40.93
Vimannagar	43.15
Kothrud	45.92
Balewadi	47.17
Alka Talkies	57.70
Hadapsar	60.57

Following table indicates the sample number of voters from whom responses were collected in every ward.

Table No.4.2: Ward-Wise Distribution of Number of Voters Covered In the Sample

Name of The Ward	Sample Size	Percentage of Total Sample
Vimannagar	364	19.00
Balewadi	252	13.00
Kothrud	386	20.00
Hadapsar	313	17.00
Alka Talkies	379	20.00
NIBM	198	10.00
TOTAL	1892	100.00

Great emphasis was laid on getting both male and female voters to respond to the questionnaire. Typically, male voters may have different reasons for not voting or may have completely different perceptions about the PMC as compared to the female voters. Hence, it was important that no gender bias crept into the sample. The gender distribution within the sample is shown in the following table.

Table No. 4.3: Ward-Wise Gender Distribution within the Sample

	Gender			Total
	Male	Female	Other	
Vimannagar	182	182	0	364
	50.0 %	50.0 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
Balewadi	141	111	0	252
	56.0 %	44.0 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
Kothrud	207	177	2	386
	53.6 %	45.9 %	.5 %	100.0 %
Hadapsar	148	165	0	313
	47.3 %	52.7 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
Alka	210	169	0	379
Talkies	55.4 %	44.6 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
NIBM	114	84	0	198
	57.6 %	42.4 %	0.0 %	100.0 %

Further, voters from different religions and castes could have different viewpoints on the voting process. Pune has a majority of Marathi-speaking people; however, with the high levels of migration witnessed in the recent decade, the number of people with a different mother-tongue has also increased. This is especially so in the more far flung areas such as Balewadi or NIBM wherein the in-migration has been rapid. Hence, the sample needed to encompass voters with different religions, castes and mother-tongues. The coverage of these within the sample is shown below.

Table No. 4.4: Ward-Wise Distribution of Religions of Voters in the Sample

Ward Name	Count	Religion								Total
		Hindu	Muslim	Sikh	Christian	Buddhist	Parsi	Jain	Other	
Vimannagar	Count	282	35	6	21	12	0	5	3	364
	per cent Within Ward	77.5	9.6	1.6	5.8	3.3	0.0	1.4	.8	100.0
Balewadi	Count	233	2	2	4	2	0	6	3	252
	per cent Within Ward	92.5	.8	.8	1.6	.8	0.0	2.4	1.2	100.0
Kothrud	Count	371	8	0	0	1	1	3	2	386
	per cent Within Ward	96.1	2.1	0.0	0.0	.3	.3	.8	.5	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	291	9	0	5	3	0	4	1	313
	per cent Within Ward	93.0	2.9	0.0	1.6	1.0	0.0	1.3	.3	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	336	20	0	2	21	0	0	0	379
	per cent Within Ward	88.7	5.3	0.0	.5	5.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
NIBM	Count	152	30	5	5	1	0	2	3	198
	per cent Within Ward	76.8	15.2	2.5	2.5	.5	0.0	1.0	1.5	100.0
Total	Count	1665	104	13	37	40	1	20	12	1892
	per cent Within Ward	88.0	5.5	.7	2.0	2.1	.1	1.1	.6	100.0

Table No.4.5: Ward-Wise Distribution of Castes of Voters in the Sample

Ward Name	Count	Caste					Total
		Open	SC	ST	OBC	Other	
Vimannagar	Count	247	38	8	62	9	364
	per cent Within Ward	67.9	10.4	2.2	17.0	2.5	100.0
Balewadi	Count	199	12	3	29	9	252
	per cent Within Ward	79.0	4.8	1.2	11.5	3.6	100.0
Kothrud	Count	283	20	6	61	16	386
	per cent Within Ward	73.3	5.2	1.6	15.8	4.1	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	198	33	3	71	8	313
	per cent Within Ward	63.3	10.5	1.0	22.7	2.6	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	254	51	8	56	10	379
	per cent Within Ward	67.0	13.5	2.1	14.8	2.6	100.0
NIBM	Count	162	14	2	18	2	198
	per cent Within Ward	81.8	7.1	1.0	9.1	1.0	100.0
Total	Count	1343	168	30	297	54	1892
	per cent Within Ward	71.0	8.9	1.6	15.7	2.9	100.0

Table No. 4.6: Ward-Wise Distribution of Mother Tongue Languages of Voters in the Sample

Ward Name	Count	Mother tongue													Total
		Marathi	Hindi	Gujarati	Tamil	Telgu	Kannada	Malayalam	Rajasthani	Punjabi	Bengali	Sindhi	English	Other	
Vimannagar	Count	248	64	3	6	7	1	7	5	7	3	2	0	11	364
	per cent Within Ward	68.1	17.6	.8	1.6	1.9	.3	1.9	1.4	1.9	.8	.5	0.0	3.0	100.0
Balewadi	Count	148	44	10	2	3	7	8	4	7	5	1	0	13	252
	per cent Within Ward	58.7	17.5	4.0	.8	1.2	2.8	3.2	1.6	2.8	2.0	.4	0.0	5.2	100.0
Kothrud	Count	356	15	3	0	1	3	0	5	0	0	0	1	2	386
	per cent Within Ward	92.2	3.9	.8	0.0	.3	.8	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	.3	.5	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	279	15	0	0	3	5	2	2	0	0	0	1	6	313
	per cent Within Ward	89.1	4.8	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.6	.6	.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	.3	1.9	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	352	18	1	3	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	379
	per cent Within Ward	92.9	4.7	.3	.8	0.0	.3	0.0	.3	0.0	0.0	.3	.3	.3	100.0
NIBM	Count	90	55	7	2	2	5	1	5	7	5	4	1	14	198
	per cent Within Ward	45.5	27.8	3.5	1.0	1.0	2.5	.5	2.5	3.5	2.5	2.0	.5	7.1	100.0
Total	Count	1473	211	24	13	16	22	18	22	21	13	8	4	47	1892
	per cent Within Ward	77.9	11.2	1.3	.7	.8	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.1	.7	.4	.2	2.5	100.0

Engagement levels of the populace with the local bodies are likely to affect voter turnout. It is likely that those people who have been residing in Pune for a long period of time enjoy a greater engagement with the PMC, whereas those who have recently moved in are not likely to have such engagement with the PMC. It is also likely that people who have resided in Pune for less than 5 years have not added their names to the PMC voters list. The following table shows a ward-wise distribution of the sampled voters who have resided in Pune for less than 5 years, between 5 to 10 years and for more than 10 years.

Table No. 4.7: Ward-Wise Distribution of Number of Years of Stay of Voters within That Ward As Covered In the Sample

Ward Name	Count	No. Of Years Of Stay In The Survey Area			Total
		Less Than 5	5 - 10	More Than 10	
Vimannagar		34	62	268	364
	per cent Within Ward	9.3	17.0	73.6	100.0
Balewadi	Count	53	70	129	252
	per cent Within Ward	21.0	27.8	51.2	100.0
Kothrud	Count	38	44	304	386
	per cent Within Ward	9.8	11.4	78.8	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	38	33	242	313
	per cent Within Ward	12.1	10.5	77.3	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	19	28	332	379
	per cent Within Ward	5.0	7.4	87.6	100.0
NIBM	Count	21	52	125	198
	per cent Within Ward	10.6	26.3	63.1	100.0
Total	Count	203	289	1400	1892
	per cent Within Ward	10.7	15.3	74.0	100.0

This table indicates that 21 per cent of voter respondents in Balewadi have resided in Balewadi for less than 5 years. Another 27.8 per cent have resided there for a period between 5 to 10 years. Thus, nearly 49 per cent of the sample respondents covered have recently moved in to Balewadi, a fact that has been mentioned earlier in the discussion pertaining to newly developed wards in Pune. This is indicative of the rapid growth that Balewadi has witnessed in the recent last decade. Another observation that strengthens this claim is that Balewadi has some of the lowest proportions of people who use Marathi as their mother tongue. NIBM also has a very high percentage of people who have been residing there for a period of less than 10 years. Again, percentage of people using Marathi as a mother tongue and residing in the NIBM area is very low. These are interesting trends observed within the ward-wise distribution of the sample and are used later to understand whether engagement quotient vis-a-vis the PMC is different in these wards as compared to the “old city” wards such as Alka Talkies and Hadapsar.

Generally, more educated people tend to have higher expectations and lower engagement quotients vis-a-vis local bodies. Hence, it was important that the sample covers voters with different education levels. A ward-wise look into the education levels of respondents is given below.

Table No. 4.8: Ward-Wise Distribution of Education Levels of Main Earners of Families of Voters Covered in the Sample

Ward Name	Count	Education Level of The Main Earner of The Family						Total	
		Illiterate	Up to IV	V To IX	SSC To HSC	College Including Diploma, But Not Graduate	Graduate / Post Graduate, General		Graduate / Post Graduate, Professional
Vimannagar	Count	22	8	54	118	23	109	30	364
	per cent Within Ward	6.0	2.2	14.8	32.4	6.3	29.9	8.2	100.0
Balewadi	Count	5	5	22	49	3	93	75	252
	per cent Within Ward	2.0	2.0	8.7	19.4	1.2	36.9	29.8	100.0
Kothrud	Count	24	13	43	91	16	132	67	386
	per cent Within Ward	6.2	3.4	11.1	23.6	4.1	34.2	17.4	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	11	18	41	132	21	82	8	313
	per cent Within Ward	3.5	5.8	13.1	42.2	6.7	26.2	2.6	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	18	14	76	139	14	87	31	379
	per cent Within Ward	4.7	3.7	20.1	36.7	3.7	23.0	8.2	100.0
NIBM	Count	6	2	23	33	4	94	36	198
	per cent Within Ward	3.0	1.0	11.6	16.7	2.0	47.5	18.2	100.0
Total	Count	86	60	259	562	81	597	247	1892
	per cent Within Ward	4.5	3.2	13.7	29.7	4.3	31.6	13.1	100.0

Again, it is observed that a higher proportion of the sample with post-graduation degrees (general and professional) is in Balewadi and NIBM. These are the areas which have witnessed a rapid influx of technical professionals, who are employed in the IT hubs in Pune. If indeed the IT professionals have settled in Balewadi and NIBM, it should also reflect in the occupational distribution of the wards.

From the table given below, one can see that the proportion of salaried classes in Balewadi and NIBM is quite high, which supports the observation given above. Interestingly, as table 4.10 indicates, the proportion of youth voters as covered in the sample is also maximal within Balewadi and NIBM. Thus, these two wards could be understood to be away from the main city, with a low proportion of people with Marathi as their mother-tongue, a rapid development and in-migration observed in past one decade, a high level of education, affiliation to the IT sector and with a high level of youth population. All these are characteristics that may have differential impacts on voting behaviour and hence it is important to study the patterns that the sample reveals.

The table below shows the ward-wise distribution of occupation profiles. Apart from NIBM and Balewadi, it is also observed that the proportion of salaried classes is quite high in Vimannagar and Kothrud, which are again areas that have seen a rapid influx of IT professionals in the residence areas.

Table No. 4.9: Ward-Wise Distribution of Occupation Profiles

Ward Name	Count	Main occupation of the respondent									Total	
		Student	Housewife	Retired	Unemployed	Daily wage earner / Labour	Salaried job	Business	Trader / Trading agency	Self-employed professional		Other (specify)
Vimannagar	Count	12	85	24	9	21	121	67	4	8	13	364
	per cent within Ward	3.3	23.4	6.6	2.5	5.8	33.2	18.4	1.1	2.2	3.6	100.0
Balewadi	Count	38	28	15	2	6	93	34	2	13	21	252
	per cent within Ward	15.1	11.1	6.0	.8	2.4	36.9	13.5	.8	5.2	8.3	100.0
Kothrud	Count	40	69	25	5	34	113	71	3	15	11	386
	per cent within Ward	10.4	17.9	6.5	1.3	8.8	29.3	18.4	.8	3.9	2.8	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	12	80	30	5	38	81	45	1	3	18	313
	per cent within Ward	3.8	25.6	9.6	1.6	12.1	25.9	14.4	.3	1.0	5.8	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	18	74	42	6	17	68	108	0	14	32	379
	per cent within Ward	4.7	19.5	11.1	1.6	4.5	17.9	28.5	0.0	3.7	8.4	100.0
NIBM	Count	23	42	22	0	10	57	38	3	3	0	198
	per cent within Ward	11.6	21.2	11.1	0.0	5.1	28.8	19.2	1.5	1.5	0.0	100.0
Total	Count	143	378	158	27	126	533	363	13	56	95	1892
	per cent within Ward	7.6	20.0	8.4	1.4	6.7	28.2	19.2	.7	3.0	5.0	100.0

Table No. 4.10: Ward-Wise Distribution of Age of Voters Covered Within the Sample

Ward Name	Count	Age Group				Total
		18 - 35	36 - 50	51 - 60	60+	
Vimannagar		133	143	46	42	364
	per cent Within Ward	36.5	39.3	12.6	11.5	100.0
Balewadi	Count	126	71	25	30	252
	per cent Within Ward	50.0	28.2	9.9	11.9	100.0
Kothrud	Count	160	96	69	61	386
	per cent Within Ward	41.5	24.9	17.9	15.8	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	134	94	35	50	313
	per cent Within Ward	42.8	30.0	11.2	16.0	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	142	115	54	68	379
	per cent Within Ward	37.5	30.3	14.2	17.9	100.0
NIBM	Count	86	55	29	28	198
	per cent Within Ward	43.4	27.8	14.6	14.1	100.0
Total	Count	781	574	258	279	1892
	per cent Within Ward	41.3	30.3	13.6	14.7	100.0

Finally, it is also important to understand the socio-economic classification of the voters covered in the sample. This study uses the “New Socio-Economic Classification (SEC) System” by the Media Research User’s Council (MRUC) to classify Indian households into different socio-economic groups. The new SEC model is heavily based on the Indian Readership Survey (IRS)’s model of using the education level of the main earner of the family together with the number of assets owned by the family to arrive at the socio-economic classification (SEC henceforth) of the respondent. The following table shows the ward-wise distribution of SEC of households from which voter respondents were selected.

Table No. 4.11: Ward-Wise SEC of Households from Which Voters Were Selected In the Sample

Ward Name	Count	Socio-Economic Classification			Total
		C	B	A	
Vimannagar		52	101	211	364
	per cent Within Ward	14.3	27.7	58.0	100.0
Balewadi	Count	15	41	196	252
	per cent Within Ward	6.0	16.3	77.8	100.0
Kothrud	Count	48	75	263	386
	per cent Within Ward	12.4	19.4	68.1	100.0
Hadapsar	Count	63	78	172	313
	per cent Within Ward	20.1	24.9	55.0	100.0
Alka Talkies	Count	53	105	221	379
	per cent Within Ward	14.0	27.7	58.3	100.0
NIBM	Count	13	19	166	198
	per cent Within Ward	6.6	9.6	83.8	100.0
Total	Count	244	419	1229	1892
	per cent Within Ward	12.9	22.1	65.0	100.0

83.8 per cent of households in NIBM and 77.8 per cent of households in Balewadi come under the A category of the SEC scheme. Only 6 per cent of the households covered in the sample in the two areas are classified under the C category of the SEC scheme. Alka Talkies and Hadapsar, which may be also classified as wards belonging to “old Pune”, are the ones wherein SEC classification “C” is seen to be the highest. Thus, it is interesting to note that those wards with lower socio-economic classes or slum areas are the ones where the voter turnout is high and the more affluent wards are the ones where the voter turnout is low.

CHAPTER 5

VOTER BEHAVIOUR IN PMC

As has been mentioned in the introductory part of the report, the focal point of this study is to understand why people do not vote. To this end, it is important to understand voter attributes that either promote or deter voting. In this chapter, some voter attribute indices have been created on the basis of the information shared by the voter respondents during the field survey. For example, voters were asked questions about their participation in various political activities such as signing petitions, attending rallies and candle-light marches etc. Similarly they were quizzed about their interest in local politics. The answers to these questions allow the construction of a “Political Interest Index” of the voters. It logically follows that the more politically active voters may have a higher probability of voting. Thus, this chapter shows the construction of 3 major voter attribute indices, all of which could have a bearing on the eventual voter turnout percentage at the ward level.

5.1 VOTER ATTRIBUTE-INDICES

This section helps to understand the construction of three major Voter-Attribute Indices, all of which help in eventually analyzing voter turnout at a ward level. These three indices are:

1. Political Interest Index
2. PMC Engagement Index
3. PMC Ratings Index

The Political Interest Index (hereafter referred to as PII) helps us to understand how politically active the voter is. The index is constructed for each individual voter and the index numbers for voters within a ward are then averaged to understand the PII at a ward-wise level.

The PMC Engagement Index (hereafter referred to as PMC-E) helps us to understand the engagement quotient of the voters vis-a-vis the Pune Municipal Corporation. The index too is constructed for each individual voter and the index numbers for voters within a ward are then averaged to understand the PMC-E at a ward-wise level.

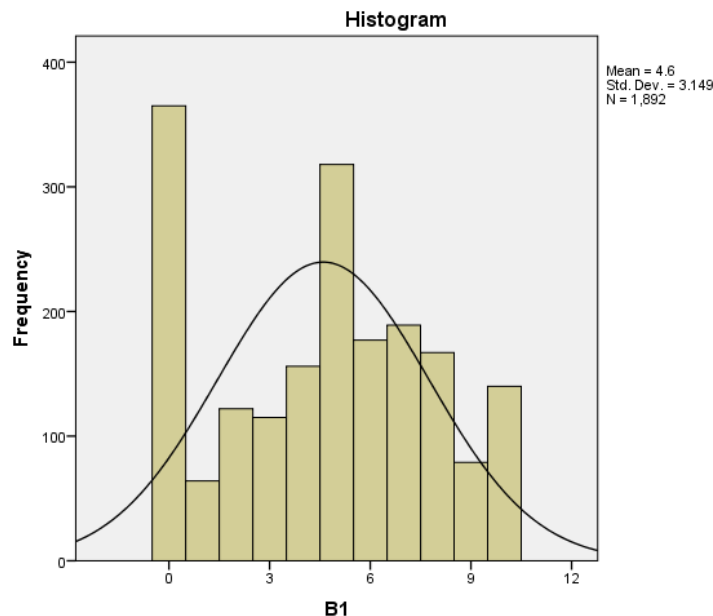
Finally, the PMC Ratings Index (hereafter referred to as PMC-R) helps us to understand how satisfied the voters are with respect to the different services provided by the PMC. This index too is basically constructed at the level of the individual voter and index numbers for voters within a ward are then averaged to understand the PMC-R at the ward-wise level.

The next section explains the detailed construction of the PII.

5.1.1 The Political Interest Index (PII)

In assessing voter turnout, the political interest quotient of the voters at an individual level could be a causal factor. How interested is the voter in local politics? This question was asked to the voter in the questionnaire and the voter was asked to self-assess her interest in local politics by giving a score from 0 to 10, with 0 indicating no interest and 10 indicating maximum possible interest. Following graph indicates that 20 per cent of the voters have simply indicated zero interest in politics. The average interest in local politics for Pune works out to be 4.6. The score given by the voter herself on “interest in local politics” is treated to be Component 1 of the PII. The maximum value of this component is 10 and the minimum is 0.

Graph No. 5.1: Ranking given by voters to their own interest in local politics



Does the voter’s engagement with political processes end with him or her casting a vote? Or does the voter continually influence the political process by taking part in activities such as political rallies and demonstrations, signing of petitions, candle light marches etc.? Participation of the voter in these activities signals the readiness of the voter base to engage more deeply with the local politics and hence gives a signal of the voter being politically active. On the other hand, reluctance to participate in such activities implies that political activism of the voter is quite low.

In order to gauge the political activism quotient of the voter, the questionnaire carried a menu of seven political activities that the voter may have engaged in the past or would be likely to participate in, in the future. Following is the question:

B1) In which of the following social/ political activities have you taken part in the past or are likely to take part in the future?

1. Sign a petition
2. Attend a demonstration
3. Take part in a candle-light protest
4. Attend a political rally
5. Volunteer for a political candidate
6. Write a letter to a newspaper
7. Call into a chat show on politics on TV
8. None of the above

The table 4.1 indicates the overall number of respondents who had participated in or were likely to participate in various political activities. It can be seen that nearly 60 per cent of the respondents have never participated in any of the activities at all and are not likely to do so either. This implies that the basic level of involvement of the PMC voter base with the political processes is fairly weak. 24 per cent of the voters have participated in (or are likely to participate in) a political rally, another 14 per cent have volunteered (or are likely to volunteer) for a political candidate and 13 per cent of the voters have signed (or are likely to sign) a petition pertaining to a social or political cause.

Table 5.1: Number of Respondents in the Sample Who've Participated in Different Political Activities

Respondents Who've Taken Part In The Activity Or Are Likely To Participate In It	Frequency	Per Cent
Sign A Petition	241	0.13
Attend A Demonstration	168	0.09
Take Part In A Candle-Light Protest	144	0.08
Attend A Political Rally	456	0.24
Volunteer For A Political Candidate	260	0.14
Write A Letter To A Newspaper	111	0.06
Call Into A Chat Show On TV	39	0.02
None Of The Above	1133	0.60

The ward-wise distribution of the voters who have participated in political activities shows maximum participation in political activities or events in the Alka Talkies and Kothrud wards. The minimum participation is seen in NIBM and Balewadi, which, interestingly, are also the low voter turnout wards.

Table No. 5.2: Ward-Wise Number and Percentage of Voters Who Participated In a Political Activity

Ward	Sign a Petition	Attend a Demonstration	Take Part In a Candle-Light Protest	Attend a Political Rally	Volunteer For a Political Candidate	Write a Letter to a Newspaper	Call Into a Chat Show on TV	None of The Above	Total
Alka Talkies	40	68	60	139	90	25	21	180	443
Kothrud	74	38	38	105	75	35	4	192	369
Vimannagar	40	19	9	71	22	12	3	244	176
Hadapsar	29	9	11	74	26	3	2	226	154
Balewadi	39	23	15	33	22	15	4	168	151
NIBM	19	11	11	34	25	21	5	123	126
Total	241	168	144	456	260	111	39	1133	

While constructing the PII, participation of the respondent in the political activities forms Component 2. The respondent is given one point for saying that she participates in any one of the given activities. Thus, participation in each of the activities (as given in Q. B1) is given score 1. Thus, if the respondent says that she is likely to participate in 3 of the events given above, she gets a score of 3 in Component 2. Higher the engagement of the voter into the polity, higher is the score she gets. The maximum value of Component 2 is 7.

Thus, the minimum value of Component 1 is 0 and maximum is 10. The minimum value of Component 2 is 0 and maximum is 7. The values in both the components are added to get the total score for each individual voter. This total score is then divided by 17 to get the PII.

Table No. 5.3 : Ward wise Political Interest Index in the Pune Municipal Corporation

Wards	Political Interest Index
Balewadi	26.68
Vimannagar	30.48
NIBM	30.72
Kothrud	31.10
Hadapsar	33.41
Alka Talkies	34.70
Average	31.45

Source: Field Survey

The Political Interest Index (PII) of Balewadi(26.68 per cent) and Vimannagar(30.48per cent) is one of the lowest while the PII for Hadapsar(33.41 per cent) and Alka Talkies (34.70 per cent) is highest among the wards; the intermittent wards in this respect are NIBM (30.72 per cent) and Kothrud (31.10 per cent). On the basis of this data, it could be inferred that the Political Interest Index of more affluent wards is lower than the wards with slum and low income population.

Table No. 5.4: Political Interest Index of Voters in the Low and High Voter Turnout Wards

Ward characteristics	Political Interest Index
Low VT	29.92
High VT	34.12

Source: Field Survey

Interestingly the Political Interest Index of Low Voter turnout wards is (29.92 per cent) lower than the wards with high voter turnout (34.12 per cent). Geographically, the Northern wards (Balewadi and Vimannagar) show lower political interest index than rest of the four wards.

Table No. 5.5: Age-wise distribution of Political Interest Index

Age	Political Interest Index
18-35	32.34
36-50	30.91
51 +	30.8

Source: Field Survey

Overall, the PII across all age groups in Pune is observed to be on the lower side. Political interest index of senior citizens (above 51) is the lowest (30.80 per cent)in all categories while the young age voters between the age group of 18 to 35 years have shown marginally higher political interest levels. Is the voting percentage amongst voters between the age group of 18 to 35 years higher? The next chapter addresses this issue by correlating the trends in the PII to the voter behavior seen in those demographic groups.

Table No. 5.6: Gender-wise distribution in the Political Interest Index

Gender	Political Interest Index
Male	33.93
Female	28.72

Source: Field Survey

The Political Interest Index for male and female voters is 33.93 per cent and 28.72 per cent respectively. The overall interest in local politics or the tendency to participate in various political activities seems to be lower in women as compared to men.

5.1.2 The PMC Engagement Index (PMC-E)

Voter turnout could be also be impacted by the level of engagement that voters have with the PMC. Higher the engagement quotient, more likely it is that people would come out to cast a vote for the local body. How can one assess the engagement quotient of the voters with the local body?

The questionnaire carried three questions which were pertinent in terms of assessing this issue. These are:

B3) How many times in the last 5 years have you visited the Pune Municipal Corporation?

1. Never 2. 1-5 times 3. 6- 20 times 4. More than 20 times

B4) How many times in the last 5 years have you met with a Corporator (or any other official?) for a service required at a personal level?

1. Never 2. 1-5 times 3. 6- 20 times 4. More than 20 times

B5) How many times in the last 5 years have you met with a Corporator (or any other official?) for a service required at a ward level?

1. Never 2. 1-5 times 3. 6- 20 times 4. More than 20 times

These questions were designed to gauge how deeply the PMC features in the regular life of voters. If voters have never visited the PMC in the past 5 years, it implies that their engagement with the local body is at a minimum. Many voters tend to approach the local corporators for a service required at a personal level. For example, voters may seek the assistance of the local Corporator obtain bed facilities in a hospital, or to resolve ward-level issues such as an overflowing garbage bin. Such contacts with the Corporators for services

required at a personal or at a ward-level demonstrate some interface between the voter and the PMC.

The answers to the above three questions (B3, B4, B5) are used to assess the PMC Engagement Quotient of the voter. The answer “never” is given a score of 0, the answer “1-5 times” is given a score of 1, “6-20 times” is given score 2 and “more than 20 times” shows a high level of engagement and is given score 3.

Thus, the maximum score on each of the questions is 3 and the minimum is 0. Putting the three engagement activities together, the maximum score that a voter may additively get is 9 and the minimum is 0.

The score for each individual voter is worked out by simply adding the individual engagement scores. The voter score is divided by 9 (the maximum value) to derive the PMC Engagement Index (PMC-E).

Tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 indicate that the engagement of the voters with the PMC has tended to be quite low on all three counts. 55 per cent of the voters have never visited the PMC in the past 5 years; 65 per cent voters never interacted with a Corporator for a personal issue; 70 per cent have never interacted with a Corporator for a ward level issue.

Table No. 5.7: How Many Times In The Past 5 Years Did You Visit The PMC?

	Frequency	Per Cent
Never	1040	55.0
1-5 times	649	34.3
5-20 times	122	6.4
more than 20 times	81	4.3
Total	1892	100.0

Table No. 5.8: How Many Times In The Last 5 Years Have You Met With A Corporator For A Service Required At A Personal Level?

	Frequency	Per Cent
Never	1227	64.9
1-5 times	544	28.8
5-20 times	85	4.5
more than 20 times	36	1.9
Total	1892	100.0

Table No. 5.9: How Many Times In The Last 5 Years Have You Met With A Corporator For A Service Required At A Ward Level?

	Frequency	Per Cent
Never	1312	69.3
1-5 times	460	24.3
5-20 times	78	4.1
more than 20 times	42	2.2
Total	1892	100.0

Based on the answers to all the questions, the overall PMC-E was worked out for each individual voter. The average score of all voters within a ward was used to indicate PMC-E at the ward-wise level. The following table indicates the ward-wise PMC-E values.

Table No. 5.10: Ward-Wise Scores of PMC-E

Ward	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Alka Talkies	379	55.99	20.30
Hadapsar	313	49.94	20.19
Kothrud	386	48.21	18.12
NIBM	198	47.19	19.62
Balewadi	252	46.25	17.60
Vimannagar	364	45.60	15.60
Total	1892	49.18	18.92

The above table indicates that the PMC engagement is highest in the Alka Talkies and Hadapsar wards; interestingly, both of these are high voter turnout wards.

This analysis implies that there could exist a high correlation between PMC-Engagement Index and the Voter Turnout percentage at the ward level. The following table further consolidates the PMC-E for low voter turnout and high voter turnout wards.

Table No. 5.11: Voter Turnout and PMC Engagement

Wards	PMC- Engagement Index
High VT	53.25
Low VT	46.84
Total	49.18

Source: Field Survey

For the high voter turnout wards, the PMC engagement value stands at 53.25 while for the low voter turnout wards, it stands at 46.84, indicating the inverse relationship between voter turnout and PMC engagement.

Table No. 5.12: Age-wise Distribution of PMC Engagement

Age	PMC Engagement
18-35	47.25
36-50	51.22
51 +	49.12

Source: Field Survey

It is the middle age group voters that exhibit maximum engagement with the PMC (PMC-E Index is 51.22); the younger voters seem to have the least connect with the PMC (PMC-E Index is 47.25).

Table No. 5.13: Gender-wise distribution of PMC Engagement

Gender	PMC – EngagementIndex
Male	52.33
Female	45.65

Source: Field Survey

The above table indicates that male voters enjoy a much higher engagement with the PMC as compared to female voters.

Table No. 5.14: Marital Status and PMC Engagement of Voters

Marital Status	PMC- Engagement
Married	49.92
Unmarried	46.37
Others	43.7

Source: Field Survey

Married voters have a higher PMC engagement than other groups. The PMC engagement value for married voters stands at 49.92, whereas that for unmarried voters stands at 46.37.

Table No. 5.15: Mother Tongue and PMC Engagement

Mother Tongue	PMC- Engagement
Marathi	50.04
Gujarati	49.07
Others	47.02
Hindi	46.23
Overall	49.19

Source: Field Survey

Apart from its identity as the seat of education, the city of Pune has also emerged as the immigration destination for employment in general and software sector in particular. The cosmopolitan culture of the city is evident in that the PMC Engagement does not really show major variation in voter groups speaking different languages.

Table No. 5.16: No. of years of stay in Pune and PMC Engagement

No. of years of stay in Pune	PMC- Engagement(Per Cent)
Less than 5	42.25
5 - 10 years	45.98
More than 10 years	50.85
Overall	49.18

Source: Field Survey

Number of years of stay emerges as a major factor in affecting PMC Engagement levels. PMC engagement of the voters those who've been residing in the city for more than 10 years is on the higher side (50.85 per cent) as compared to the voters who have been residents of Pune for lesser time.

Table No. 5.17: Religious Quotient and PMC Engagement

Frequency of offering Prayers/ Worship/ Namaz	PMC- Engagement
Never	50.41
Sometimes	47.42
Regular	47.00

Source: Field Survey

There is interesting global literature on how religious beliefs may affect voter turnout. There are some observations in the US and Europe which indicate that Churchgoers are more likely to vote, especially if they identify themselves as a group with certain expectations from the elected representative. On the contrary, some surveys in Africa indicate that voters with higher religious quotients are less likely to engage with democratic processes and are less likely to vote. Observations in Pune follow the latter vein. In Pune, those with a religious bent of mind are seen to have a lower level of engagement with the PMC. The PMC Engagement Index of the voters who never performed any worship is 50.41 while for occasional worshipers the same is 47.42; for the more religious voters, the PMC engagement index is 47.00 which is lowest amongst all categories.

5.1.3 The PMC Ratings Index (PMC-R)

Yet another factor that could influence voter turnout percentage could be the voter perception regarding services provided by the PMC. The PMC provides a plethora of services ranging from road maintenance, transport, schools, hospitals and fire brigades to parks and entertainment facilities.

The questionnaire asks the voter how frequently she uses each of 14 services provided by the PMC and asks her to rate the same on a scale of 0 to 10. Responses of non-users, sometimes users and regular users are given different weightages, with the responses of non-users getting the lowest weight and those of the regular users getting maximum weight. The maximum score possible for each of the services is 10; the maximum overall score is 140. The overall score of the voter is given a weight depending on whether the voter is a non-user, sometime user or regular user, thus enabling the creation of the PMC-R Index at the individual level.

The following table shows that the overall satisfaction of voters in the sample in terms of PMC services stands at about 61 per cent. The table also gives a ward-wise break-up of the PMC-R.

It is extremely interesting to note that the voters in Alka Talkies and Hadapsar give a higher rating to the PMC services as compared to the other wards. These are the high voter turnout wards. It is in Vimannagar, Balewadi and NIBM that the PMC services rating is extremely low. Thus, it seems to be the case that the ratings given by users to the services may be directly correlated with the voter turnout; higher the ratings, higher is the voter turnout percentage and vice-versa.

Table No. 5.18: Ward-wise and service-wise scores of PMC-R

Ward	Satisfaction Index of PMC Services Users						
	Vimannagar	Balewadi	Kothrud	Hadapsar	Alka Talkies	NIBM	Total
Water	78.84	72.04	78.92	85.37	79.11	74.29	78.65
Road	64.56	63.08	62.42	64.98	58.25	59.67	62.24
Drainage or Sewage	62.59	69.36	70.14	68.84	70.8	67.86	68.37
Garbage Collection and Management	62.62	67.43	68.91	77.01	66.66	66.34	68.23
Transport	64.21	54.52	57.84	68.79	57	61.16	60.94
	56.94	58.90	62.27	64.57	64.54	59.33	61.70

Within the services, street-lighting, water management, drainage and sewage management and the garbage collection and management services get the top ratings from the voters.

Table No. 5.19: PMC Rating Index by Wards

Ward	PMC Rating Index	Voter Turnout
Vimannagar	56.94	43.15
Balewadi	58.90	40.93
NIBM	59.33	47.17
Kothrud	62.27	45.92
Alka Talkies	64.54	57.70
Hadapsar	64.57	60.57
Total	61.70	

Source: Field Survey

Overall rating of the PMC services by voters stands at 61.70 per cent. In the wards like Vimannagar, Balewadi and NIBM the overall rating stands at 56.94, 58.90 and 59.33 per cent respectively whereas the same for Kothrud, Hadapsar and Alka Talkies is 62.27, 64.57 and 64.54 per cent respectively. Thus, the PMC Rating seems to be higher in high voter turnout wards; in fact satisfaction with PMC services may itself be a factor that influences voter turnout. Perusal of the data in the above table 5.18 represents the Ward wise rating of PMC services such as the Water, Road, Drainage and Sewage, Garbage Collection and Management and Transport. Within services, maximum satisfaction has been recorded on water, drainage and garbage, in that order. Lowest level of satisfaction is recorded on transport. Ward wise order of rating of Water supply is highest for Hadapsar (85.37 per cent)

and the lowest for Balewadi (72.04 per cent). The rating of water supply services by the voters of other wards is as; Kothrud 78.92, Vimannagar 78.84, Alka Talkies 79.11 and NIBM 74.29 per cent. Across the wards rating for Roads is observed to be at lower side. The voters of Alka Talkies have rated the quality of roads at 58.25 per cent while for other wards the rating goes as; Vimannagar 64.56, Balewadi 63.08, Kothrud 62.42, Hadapsar 64.98 and NIBM 59.67 per cent. Ward wise rating for Drainage and Sewage is as; Vimannagar 62.59, Balewadi 69.36, Kothrud 70.14, Hadapsar 68.84 and Alka Talkies 67.86 per cent. Collection, segregation and disposal management of garbage is one of the predominant factor of local public services. In Hadapsar the voters have rated this service provided by the PMC at 77.01 per cent which is highest among other ward ratings while in Vimannagar the voters have rated this service at 62.62 per cent which is the lowest. The wards having intermittent rating for this service are NIBM (66.34 per cent), Alka Talkies (66.66 per cent), Balewadi (67.43 per cent) and Kothrud (68.91 per cent). The overall rating of Garbage collection and management by all these ward voters is 68.23 per cent. Overall rating of transport service (PMT) by all ward voters together is 60.94 per cent. The highest rating for transport is given by Hadapsar which is 68.79 per cent while the lowest rating is by Alka Talkies (57 per cent). Other intermittent rating wards are Vimannagar (64.21 per cent), Balewadi (54.52 per cent), Kothrud (57.84 per cent) and NIBM (61.16 per cent).

Thus, the PII, PMC-E and PMC-R indices reflect the interest of the voter in local politics, the engagement or association of the voter with the PMC and the satisfaction of the voter with the services provided by the PMC respectively.

The study finds that the PII in the low voter turnout wards is lower, whereas people seem to have higher levels of political interest and seem to also have a higher level of participation in the local polity in the high voter turnout wards. Thus, one may infer that it is the level of political interest and activism that is linked to voting percentages.

Further, political engagement with the PMC is higher in high voter turnout wards and lower in low voter turnout wards.

Finally, satisfaction index with PMC services is higher in high voter turnout wards and vice-versa. Thus, more satisfied customers of the PMC well may be more regular voters for the PMC.

Thus, politically interested people, who give a good rating to PMC services might be the regular voters for Pune. However, political interest quotient and ratings given by an individual to PMC services are invisibles; it is simply impossible to know these attributes of a person. Voter awareness programs have to be targeted towards those people who are not regular in their voting behavior and hence, the next question is how do we decide who the regular, intermittent and rare voters are likely to be? And can we separate a few visible attributes so as to identify and target the intermittent voters through awareness programs? The next chapter elucidates.

CHAPTER 6

RARE, INTERMITTENT AND REGULAR VOTERS

One of the decided objectives of the study was to identify those voters in Pune who are rare, intermittent and regular. Once the voters were identified by their voting behaviour, it would be easy to understand those attributes that promote or demote voting. This chapter outlines the methodology that was used so as to classify voters into rare, intermittent and regular.

CLASSIFYING VOTERS AS RARE, INTERMITTENT AND REGULAR

In order to classify voters into rare, intermittent and regular, the questionnaire carried the following questions:

Did you vote in the PMC 2012 elections? Y/N

Did you vote in the PMC 2007 elections? Y/N

Those voters who responded as having voted for both elections were classified as regular, those who responded that they'd voted in one of the elections were classified as intermittent and those who responded that they had not voted in both were classified to be rare.

However, these questions created responses with a heavy bias. When probed about the past two elections, nearly 70 per cent of the voters responded by answering that they had voted in both the elections. Given that the voter turnout in the 2012 elections was just 50.87 per cent, and given that the sample was being chosen in 7 low voter turnout wards and only 3 high voter turnout wards, it was obvious that there was a heavy response bias towards replying in the affirmative to the question on whether they had voted in the past two elections amongst the voters. A methodology was created to identify those voters who may indeed have voted in both the past elections in PMC.

Firstly, those who'd replied that they hadn't voted in both the earlier elections were classified to be rare. Also, those who'd replied that they had voted only in one of the past 2 elections were classified to be intermittent. The assumption was that there was no bias being observed in these replies.

Next, the attributes of the rare and the intermittent voters were examined. A very interesting trend came to light. It was found that the median Political Interest Index value for the rare and intermittent voters was less than 29.1. This was indicative of the fact that those people who voted rarely or intermittently would exhibit lower political interest.

Table No. 6.1: Initial Classification of rare, intermittent and regular voters by PII values

PMC Voter Classification	PII Value	No. of respondents in initial classification
Rare	26.90	510
Intermittent	31.18	196
Regular	33.88	1045
Mean PII	31.45	

Interestingly, some of the voters who'd claimed that they had voted in both the past elections too showed a PII value of less than 29.1. These were then re-classified as intermittent voters. Those voters who'd replied that they had voted in both the earlier elections and had a PII value of more than 29.1 were retained within the dataset as "regular" voters.

The following table indicates the final percentage of rare, intermittent and regular voters within the sample.

Table No. 6.2: How Regular are the Pune Voters?

PMC Voter Classification	Frequency	Per Cent
Rare	510	29.0
Intermittent	567	32.0
Regular	674	38.0
Total		100.0

Source: Field Survey

About 38per cent of Pune-kars vote regularly, and another 29per cent vote rarely. 32per cent of the voters in Pune are intermittent voters. It is these 32 per cent that have to be reached through the voter awareness efforts and through innovative campaigns so as to convert them into the regular voting category.

Table No. 6.3: Ward-wise Distribution of Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters in Pune

Ward	PMC Voter's Classification		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Alka Talkies	15.00	36.10	44.30
Hadapsar	26.80	25.90	42.80
Vimannagar	29.10	31.90	34.90
Kothrud	27.20	30.30	32.90
NIBM	34.80	22.70	30.80
Balewadi	35.30	28.20	22.60
Total	27.00	30.00	35.60

Source: Field Survey

The highest percentage of regular voters is seen in Alka Talkies and Hadapsar wards. On the other hand, percentage of rare voters is maximum in NIBM and Balewadi, the most affluent wards in Pune. The data on intermittent voters shows mixed, but interesting results. The percentage of intermittent voters is indeed quite high in Vimannagar and Kothrud, but it is highest in a high voter turnout ward like Alka Talkies. This has an implication from the point of view of launching voter awareness programs. If it is the intermittent voters that have to be targeted for converting them into regular voters, this trend would then imply that voter awareness programs will have to be run all over the city and not only in low voter turnout wards.

It is hence pertinent to look at voter classification at a more aggregated level. The table below indicates that the percentage of intermittent voters in low voter turnout wards is indeed quite higher as compared to the same in high voter turnout wards. Thus, the data supports the idea that voter awareness programs should be focused more in the low voter turnout areas as compared to high voter turnout wards.

Table No. 6.4: Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters from the High and Low Voter Turnout Areas

Ward features	PMC Voter's Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
High VT	4.5	20.4	31.5
Low VT	9.2	30.8	29.1
Total	7.5	27.0	30.0

Source: Field Survey

Since voter awareness programs have to be targeted towards rare or intermittent voters, it is important to understand which categories of Pune-kars are the ones with highest percentages of rare and intermittent voters. The following parts of this chapter show those categories of the Pune demographics in which a high incidence of rare and intermittent voters might be found.

Table No. 6.5: Gender-wise distribution of Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters

Gender	PMC Voter's Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Male	24.1	28.8	38.8
Female	30.3	31.2	32.1
Total	27.0	30.0	35.6

Source: Field Survey

Females are mostly rare (30.30 per cent) or intermittent (31.20 per cent) voters; hence the awareness campaign needs to focus more intensively on getting the women voters to vote. Only 32.10 per cent of the female voters from across all wards were found to be the regular voters as compared to 38.80 per cent males.

Table No. 6.6: Socio-Economic Classification and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters

Socio-Economic Classification	PMC Voter's Classification			
	Not Eligible by Age	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
C	3.3	31.1	32.4	33.2
B	5.7	25.1	31.0	38.2
A	8.9	26.8	29.1	35.2
Total	7.5	27.0	30.0	35.6

Source: Field Survey

Since the proportion of regular voters is the highest in the middle income groups (38.20 per cent) and that of rare voters is very low (25.1 per cent), one may well claim that it is this group which forms the most solid voter base in Pune Municipal Corporation limits. The proportion of rare voters in both the affluent (26.80 per cent) and low income group category (31.10 per cent) is found to be substantially higher.

Table No. 6.7: Age Distribution and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters

Age Group	PMC Voter's Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
18-35	38.3	20.6	23.0
36-50	20.7	35.1	44.2
51 +	17.2	37.2	44.1

Source: Field Survey

It is the middle aged population of Pune which forms the most solid voter base, with 44.2 per cent of the middle aged voters getting classified as regular voters. Similar numbers are also observed for the elderly citizens above 51 years of age. The truly worrisome voting percentages are seen in the youngsters of Pune, with only 23 per cent voting regularly and 38.3 per cent getting classified as rare voters. Voter awareness programs will have to be specially designed to get the youngsters to vote in the PMC elections.

Table No. 6.8: Religion and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voting

Religion	PMC Voter's Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Hindu	26.0	30.4	36.3
Muslim	36.5	25.0	28.8
Other	46.0	26.9	28.0

Source: Field Survey

In Pune the proportion of both the regular (36.30 per cent) and intermittent (30.40 per cent) voters among the Hindu community is on the higher side as compared to the voting percentage for Muslims.

Table No. 6.9: Mother Tongue and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voting

Mother tongue	PMC Voter's Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Marathi	23.2	31.9	38.8
Hindi	42.2	21.8	23.2
Gujarati	41.7	20.8	25.0
Other	39.0	26.4	26.4

Source: Field Survey

The proportion of regular voting amongst Marathi speaking people is much higher (38.80 per cent) as compared to regular voters of any other language, but the fence-sitters (intermittent) in this category are also sizable (31.90 per cent). It is these that need to be encouraged to vote. The percentage of Gujarati-speaking regular voters is 25.00 per cent but 40.70 per cent of them are also rare voters. 42.20 per cent of the Hindi speaking voters are rare voters while 21.80 per cent of them are intermittent and only 23.20 per cent vote regularly.

Table No. 6.10: Caste-wise classification and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters

Caste	PMC Voter's Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Open	27.9	29.6	34.5
SC	22.6	28.6	44.0
ST	23.3	43.3	23.3
OBC	26.3	30.6	37.0
Other	22.2	33.3	35.2

Source: Field Survey

SC voters seem more regular in casting their vote. 44.00 per cent of the SC voters can be seen as regular voters. The second largest proportion of regular voters is OBCs (37.00 per cent) which is followed by 34.50 per cent of the open category voters. But across all categories the proportion of intermittent voters is substantially high.

Table No. 6.11: Period of Stay in Pune and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voting

No. of Years of Stay in The Survey Area	PMC Voter Classification (Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Less than 5 years	61.6	11.3	11.8
5 - 10 years	47.4	21.1	20.1
More than 10 years	17.7	34.5	42.3

Source: Field Survey

Period of immigration and the number of years of stay in Pune matters sharply in terms of impacting voting percentage. Those who have been staying in the city for more than 10 years develop the sense of belongingness and hence become regular voters; the proportion of such voters is 42.30 per cent while the share of intermittent voters in this category is 34.50 per cent which can be moved to the regular voting.

As the number of years of stay in the city increases the proportion of regular voting also goes up (from 11.80 to 42.30 per cent) and the rare voting declines (from 61.60 to 17.70 per cent). This perhaps explains why voter turnout is low in both higher and lower socio economic classifications. It has been observed that most migration has happened in the low and high income groups. The low income groups witness in-migration of day-labourers, construction workers, carpenters, odd-jobs men and women, who obviously come to the city in search of jobs. The high income groups have witnessed a high level of in-migration of IT engineers, who've flocked to the city which has rapidly developed as an IT hub. Since it is in the high and low income categories that one has witnessed maximum migration, it is in these categories that the proportion of people who may have spent a year or two in Pune could be high. Since the number of years of stay matters, one finds higher percentage of voting in the middle income groups and lower voting percentages in the high and low income groups.

Table No. 6.12: Marital Status and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters

Marital Status	PMC Voter's Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Married	25.0	33.3	41.1
Unmarried	34.5	15.7	11.9

Source: Field Survey

41.10 per cent of those who are married and settled in the city are regular voters while 33.30 per cent of them belong to the category of intermittent voters; this is in line with voter studies elsewhere which suggest that married people tend to vote more regularly as compared to the unmarried people. 34.5 per cent of the unmarried people are rare voters and only 11.9 per cent are regular; unmarried people are also likely to be young and hence this trend again suggests that it is the youth population of the city which forms the reluctant voter base and has to be targeted through voter awareness programs.

Table No. 6.13: Voters with children and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters

Do You Have Children?	PMC Voter Classification (Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Yes	24.4	33.8	41.4
No	42.7	21.3	30.7

Source: Field Survey

Voters with children are likely to have a higher engagement with the future of the city and hence are likely to vote more regularly. This thought is corroborated by data trends. People with children are seen to be regular voters and 41.40 per cent of them cast their vote regularly. However, about 34 per cent of people with children are also intermittent voters and 24.40 per cent rare ones. The voters without children are likely to be young voters; thus once again it is the young voter group that is seen to be the rogue group in terms of voter turnout.

Table No. 6.14: Educational Status and Rare, Intermittent and Regular Voters

	PMC Voter Classification(Per Cent)		
	Rare	Intermittent	Regular
Illiterate	32.8	26.6	40.6
Schooling upto Std. IV	18.8	40.6	37.5
Std. V to Std. IX	19.3	34.7	42.7
SSC to HSC	24.7	33.4	30.1
College Including Diploma, But Not Graduate	9.3	11.6	18.6
Graduate / Post Graduate, General	38.3	25.5	26.8
Graduate / Post Graduate, Professional	48.2	17.6	25.9
Total	29.1	27.9	30.5

Source: Field Survey

As the level of education increases, the voting percentage decreases. The percentage of rare voters amongst illiterates is 32.8 per cent, but the corresponding percentage of rare voters amongst Graduate or Post-Graduate Professionals is as high as 48.2 per cent. In the study, Post Graduate and Post Graduate General education has been defined to be education up to Ph. D. Level; Post Graduate Professional education includes CA, CS, Medical, Legal professionals, Pharmacy, etc.

Thus, there are 4 key characteristics of rare and intermittent voters:

1. Female voters are seen to be rare or intermittent voters
2. The age group 18-35, despite a high Political Interest Index, has a large percentage of rare or intermittent voters
3. It is the high income groups within which the percentage of rare or intermittent voters is high
4. The highly educated people are rare or intermittent voters.

It is hence, amongst these 4 voter categories that voter awareness programs are truly needed. However, in order to reach to these categories of voters, it is also important to understand which media has a bigger reach vis-a-vis women, young people, high income groups and highly educated voters. The next chapter sheds light on the media penetration for these categories of voters.

CHAPTER 7

VOTER BASE AND MEDIA REACH

For designing voter awareness strategies, it is important to understand how to reach the intermittent voters, so as to persuade them to vote. One of the questions in the questionnaire was aimed at understanding how voters access political news; do they read newspapers, or do they listen to news on radio or do they watch it on TV? The following table elucidates.

Table No. 7.1: Voters' Frequency of Using Media Information / Political News

Frequency With Which Voters Catch News	Voters Reading Newspapers for news on politics	Voters Listening in to Political News on Radio	Voters Watching Political News on TV
Per Cent			
Never	13.64	65.80	6.66
Once a Week	6.18	5.18	3.54
Twice a Week	6.92	5.60	5.60
Thrice a Week	4.76	2.59	6.34
More Than Thrice a Week	3.38	1.27	3.86
Daily	65.12	19.56	74.00

Source: Field Survey

65.12 per cent of the voters read newspapers for understanding news on politics regularly while the proportion of watching political news on TV is 74.00 per cent. However, hardly 20 per cent of the respondents listen to political news on radio; thus, it is TV and newspapers that come across as major media sources to reach out to the voters.

The same thing is observed if the data is sliced as per low and high voter turnout wards, as is shown below. Voter awareness programs have to be undertaken much more aggressively in low voter turnout wards; in these wards, TV and newspapers have the maximum reach, as is shown in the three tables given below.

Table No. 7.2: Reading of Newspaper by High and Low Voter Turnout

Ward Characteristics	Reading Newspaper (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
High VT	12.6	12.9	74.6
Low VT	14.3	13.	72.5
Total	13.6	13.1	73.3

Source: Field Survey

Table No. 7.3: Frequency of Listening Radio News by High and Low Voter Turnout

Ward Characteristics	Listening Radio News (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
High VT	57.7	10.8	31.5
Low VT	70.5	10.8	18.8
Total	65.8	10.8	23.4

Source: Field Survey

Table No. 7.4: Frequency of Watching TV News by High and Low Voter Turnout

Ward Characteristics	Watching TV News (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
High VT	4.2	3.2	92.6
Low VT	8.1	12.6	79.3
Total	6.7	9.1	84.2

Source: Field Survey

Another category of rare and intermittent voters is the women. Again, it is observed that TV is the best way of reaching the female voters; 82 per cent of women voters watch TV for political news regularly. Newspapers come a distant second with only 66.4 per cent of women using newspapers as a source for political news. Radio is again not an effective way to reach women for giving political news. The following three tables elucidate.

Table No. 7.5: Reading of Newspapers by Gender

Gender	Reading Newspaper (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
Male	9.5	11.3	79.2
Female	18.4	15.2	66.4

Source: Field Survey

Table No. 7.6: Listening Radio News by Gender

Gender	Listening Radio News (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
Male	64.0	11.3	24.8
Female	67.9	10.2	21.8

Source: Field Survey

Table No. 7.7: Watching TV News by Gender

Gender	Watching TV News (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
Male	5.8	8.5	85.7
Female	7.5	9.9	82.5

Source: Field Survey

The study also indicates that it is the highly educated people amongst which the proportion of rare and intermittent voters is high. The following table shows the reach of media sources amongst education categories of Pune-kars.

Table No. 7.8: Reach of News Papers, Radio and TV By education

Education	Reading Newspaper			Listening Radio News			Watching TV News		
	Per Cent								
	N	S	R	N	S	R	N	S	R
Illiterate	78.1	6.3	15.6	73.4	6.3	20.3	18.8	9.4	71.9
Schooling upto Std. IV	40.6	12.5	46.9	56.3	15.6	28.1		15.6	84.4
Std. V to Std. IX	20.0	15.3	64.7	67.3	6.0	26.7	6.7	10.7	82.7
SSC to HSC	12.4	16.7	70.9	73.2	6.4	20.4	8.4	8.0	83.6
College including diploma, but not graduate	14.0	18.6	67.4	81.4	7.0	11.6	10.5	17.4	72.1
Graduate / Post Graduate, general	6.2	10.9	82.9	68.5	12.5	19.0	6.2	10.6	83.2
Graduate / Post Graduate, professional	4.7	14.1	81.2	64.7	14.1	21.2	3.5	14.1	82.4
Total	16.0	13.9	70.1	70.4	9.2	20.4	7.6	10.8	81.6

Source: Field Survey

Note: N=Never, S=Sometime and R=Regular

As the level of education goes on increasing the readership of newspapers also increases. 82.90 per cent of the post graduate and 81.20 per cent of professional degree holder voters from the city read newspapers regularly whereas the proportions of these two categories of voters watching TV news are 83.20 and 82.40 per cent. Thus, TV and newspapers are again the preferred sources of political news for the highly educated people in Pune.

The study also finds that it is the young voters which are mostly rare and intermittent voters. The following three tables show a very interesting trend; the percentage of young voters who tend to follow political news regularly is lowest amongst all the age groups. Thus, young voters are not “regular” in terms of following news; however, amongst those who do follow it regularly, TV again emerges as the most powerful medium of reaching them.

Table No. 7.9: Reading of Newspapers and Age of voters

Age Group	Reading Newspaper (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
18-35	15.7	17.8	66.5
36-50	12.0	12.7	75.3
51-60	11.3	8.5	80.2
60+	13.2	4.5	82.3

Table No. 7.10: Listening to Political News on Radio and Age of Voters

Age Group	Listening Radio News (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
18-35	71.4	9.0	19.6
36-50	66.9	10.5	22.5
51-60	57.1	17.0	25.9
60+	54.7	10.9	34.3

Table No. 7.11: Watching Political News on TV and Age of Voters

Age Group	Watching TV News (Per Cent)		
	Never	Sometime	Regular
18-35	7.6	12.8	79.6
36-50	5.5	6.8	87.6
51-60	6.5	7.7	85.8
60+	6.8	4.9	88.3

Finally, the study indicates that rare and intermittent voters are mostly seen to be in the high income groups. It is again seen that TV and newspapers are the best way to reach this category of voters too.

Table No. 7.12: Reading Newspapers, Listening Radio and Watching TV News by Socio Economic Classification

Socio-Economic Classification	Reading Newspaper			Listening Radio News			Watching TV News		
	Per Cent								
	N	S	R	N	S	R	N	S	R
C	35.7	17.6	46.7	65.2	10.7	24.2	16.0	10.7	73.4
B	19.8	15.8	64.4	67.3	7.6	25.1	6.7	10.5	82.8
A	7.2	11.3	81.5	65.4	11.9	22.7	4.8	8.4	86.8
Total	13.6	13.1	73.3	65.8	10.8	23.4	6.7	9.1	84.2

Note: N=Never, S=Sometime and R=Regular

Thus, it is through TV and newspapers that voter awareness campaigns can go to the relevant intermittent voter groups in the most efficient manner.

CHAPTER 8

WHY PEOPLE DO NOT VOTE

As has been mentioned earlier, a low voter turnout has been the Achilles Heel of Municipal Corporation elections within the PMC. In the last 3 rounds of elections, the average voter turnout was seen to be only around 55 per cent. In a way, this implies that the Corporators who are elected to run the city are representatives of only half of the populace; this by itself undermines the process of true representation and democracy. But the matter is actually even more serious than this. If we assume that there are 5 candidates contesting elections and that each candidate gets exactly the same number of votes, then the 55 per cent voter turnout really implies that each candidate gets exactly 11 per cent of the votes. Now if one of the candidates is to get even 12 per cent of the votes, that candidate wins the elections with only 12 per cent of the voter base supporting him. Thus, with low voter turnout and more number of candidates in the fray, the winning Corporator eventually represents a very small proportion of the population, again raising issues of whether the democratic process creates true representation.

Thus, increasing voter turnout has become a key issue for the State Election Commission in the upcoming elections. In order to increase the turnout, it is firstly important to understand and analyze why people do not vote in the first place.

WHY DO PEOPLE NOT VOTE IN THE PMC?

The questionnaire used for the study contained a key question to understand the main research question: Why people do not vote in PMC elections. A menu of nearly 26 possible options was given to the respondents; and respondents were free to choose multiple options for answering why they do not vote. For those people who said that they've voted regularly or intermittently in the past, the question asked was why, in their opinion, do other voters not exercise their right to vote.

It is extremely important to note a sampling issue here. As has been mentioned in the chapter on sampling, a systematic sampling plan, wherein the enumerators of the study only interview selected voters from the voters list, was attempted but was seen to be infeasible in Pune, owing to the very sketchy addresses given in the list. Had the systematic sampling plan been adhered to, then the responses of only registered voters would have been recorded, since the selection of voters would have taken place from the voters' list. However, since this was infeasible, a right hand sampling plan was chosen wherein the enumerators had to choose respondents in a given locality by leaving out 20 houses between two respondents. *Now, in such a sampling plan, there is no way to guarantee that the voter so chosen is necessarily a registered voter.* And hence, the question about non-voting had to contain an additional option as the answer: My name was not in the voting list.

Selection of this option by respondents is also an interesting and worrisome fact by itself; the proportion of people selecting this option in the sample indicates the number of people who are not even registered as voters with the electoral authorities even if they are eligible to vote. However, it is of course possible to understand reasons for a low voter turnout; one only needs to classify the sample respondents into those who are registered voters and those who aren't, and then look at the reasons for non-voting amongst only the registered voters within the sample to get the top reasons for a low voter turnout.

Following are the top 3 reasons for people not voting in PMC elections:

1. My name was not in the voters' list (31%)
2. Casting my vote hasn't changed anything so far (25%)
3. I was out of town (24%)

All the 3 reasons are associated with different aspects; the main reason is a electoral process-related issue, the second is an apathy issue, and the third is a personal issue.

The study shows that it is 4 categories that the voting is rare or intermittent. These are:

- a. Age group 18-35
- b. Females
- c. High income groups
- d. Highly educated people

The reasons for not voting given by youngsters, female voters, high income groups and highly educated people exactly echo the top 3 reasons given above. Thus, the reasons given above seem to be the most important reasons for not voting recorded in the PMC.

If one is to segregate the voters by those whose name is in the voters' list, the top three reasons for low voter turnout in PMC elections emerge:

1. Casting my vote hasn't changed anything so far
2. I was out of town
3. I didn't think my vote would matter

Now, amongst the top 3 reasons for voter turnout, two of the reasons are connected to urban apathy. There is frustration, that one's vote has not managed to bring about any change in the past, and there's despondence, that one's vote does not really matter. Thus, amongst the registered voters, it is mostly apathy that dominates the reasons for not voting.

CHAPTER 9

SUGGESTIONS TO THE PMC FOR ENCOURAGING VOTING

Given that the reasons for non-voting have been documented, voter awareness programs have to be now designed and targeted scientifically to convert non-voters into voters. The PMC was given the responsibility of creating an awareness program for getting voters added to the voters list. Similarly, it has been given the responsibility of creating an awareness regarding exercising the right to vote. Following are some of the suggestions which could help the PMC in these responsibilities:

- In the sample, 31 per cent of the respondents were not registered voters, even if they were eligible voters. A higher percentage of non-registered voters was seen in the new city wards of NIBM, Vimannagar and Balewadi. Most respondents in these areas shared informally that the process of getting themselves registered as a voter was extremely tiresome and time-consuming. If the PMC could host a permanent election-kiosk online dedicated to sharing information with people pertaining to where they could get themselves registered and further setting up appointments so that it saves time and efforts for the people, it may encourage people to register themselves. The election-kiosk should function permanently, not just in the annual run-up to the election. Some mini-kiosks could also be hosted in colleges and voter registration of the youth could be tied up to the admissions process through these mini-kiosks. Of course, this will help the cause of voter registration in the medium or long run and should not be seen as a measure of increasing voter turnout in the immediate, upcoming elections.
- For the upcoming elections, it is pertinent to note that it is the younger age-group between 18-35, in which the voting percentage is low. Voter awareness programs need to be run more intensively in colleges; street plays, posters, hoardings need to be put up in colleges and technical institutes.
- The children (if any) of voters belonging to the 18-35 age group are likely to be quite small; they would be studying in pre-primary or primary schools. In pre-primary and primary sections, the children fill out a daily diary every day, which the children have to get duly signed from their parents. If the PMC could issue guidelines to schools to dictate a simple line such as “Vote for securing the future of your child” to children in the week prior to elections in this daily diary, the message will reach the targeted age group strongly.
- Hoardings or any visual art work created for voter awareness should have special emphasis on the youthful voters and there should be dedicated artwork for encouraging women voters to exercise their right to vote

- Shopping malls, retail grocery centres such as Big Bazaar, ladies changing rooms in shopping malls could be used for displaying the posters urging women voters to exercise their right.
- Brand ambassadors for voter awareness campaigns could be women.
- The study findings indicate that people with a more religious bend of mind may not be very regular voters. Street plays could be hosted or posters could be displayed in areas around prominent places of worship (temples, mosques etc.) in Pune.
- It is the highly educated people who are rare or intermittent voters. Highly educated people are likely to be employed in high salary jobs within the industries in Pune. The PMC could request corporate bodies to host voter awareness programs on employee email networks. HR departments could be requested to host small reward programs for all employees showing the indelible ink mark on their finger the next day.
- It is also the high income groups which do not vote. PMC could request banks to send emails to HNI-depositors to sensitize them to the cause of voting. Similarly, PMC could use car showrooms as well as lounges in 5-star hotels for display of voting awareness posters to target the high income groups.
- The best way to reach any of those demographics which lead to rare or intermittent voting is through use of newspapers and TV as media.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSIONS

This report summarizes and analyzes the primary data on voter attributes obtained through the pre-election voter survey of Pune Municipal Corporation. The main research question around which this study is created is why people do not vote in the Municipal Corporation elections. The data collection exercise was conducted during December 2016. The study not only helps in understanding the voter behavior in different wards and their attributes better, but also has immense value in terms of planning relevant policies for improving the voter turnout in the upcoming Municipal Corporation elections. Following are the chief conclusions of the study:

1. Looking at the ward wise voter turnout we find that the more far flung wards of Pune Municipal Corporation seem to have lower voter turnouts. Thus, Alka Talkies, which is at the core of the city, had the highest voter turnout in the PMC 2012 elections. NIBM, Vimannagar and Balewadi are the most far flung areas in terms of distance from the core and show lower voter turnout percentages.
2. Lower voter turnout wards are characterized by low Political Interest Index, low PMC engagement and low ratings for PMC services.
3. The study finds that 29 per cent of people in Pune are “rare” voters, 32 per cent are “intermittent” and 38 per cent of the people are “regular” voters.
4. The 4 categories of the population which are rare or intermittent voters are people in the age group 18-35, women, high income groups and highly educated people.
5. People in the age group 18-35 have very high political interest quotient, but are largely rare or intermittent voters. Given that their interest in local politics is high, it should be easier to target this group through innovative voter awareness campaigns.
6. Women are rare or intermittent voters and should be convinced to vote. The study has come up with a number of suggestions for creating an engagement vis-à-vis female voters.
7. High income and highly educated people also tend to be rare or intermittent voters. The PMC can use innovative campaigns and partnerships with corporate bodies, banks etc. in order to reach this target audience effectively.
8. TV and newspaper campaigns would both be equally effective in reaching out to the target group of voters.

Thus, this study provides numerous insights pertaining to voter turnout, voter attributes, political interest of voters from different wards, PMC engagement of voters and their perception regarding quality of Municipal services. It also creates insights into attributes such as education, age, gender and caste-wise dynamics to explain the reasons for non-voting in PMC limits.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire on “Why people do not vote in Municipal Corporation elections”

- A1-1) Enumerator Name
- A1-2) Survey Start Time
- A1-3) Survey End Time
- A1-4) Date
- A1-5) Latitude
- A1-6) Longitude
- A1-7) Altitude

B1-Note) Questions pertaining to Voting

B1) How interested are you in local politics?(Give marks out of 10. 0 is minimum and 10 is maximum)

B2) In which of the following social/ political activities have you taken part in the past or are likely to take part in the future?

1. Sign a petition
2. Attend a demonstration
3. Take part in a candle-light protest
4. Attend a political rally
5. Volunteer for a political candidate
6. Write a letter to a newspaper
7. Call into a chat show on TV
8. None of the above

B3) How many times in the last 5 years have you visited the Pune Municipal Corporation?

1. Never
2. 1-5 times
3. 6- 20 times
4. More than 20 times

B4) How many times in the last 5 years have you met with a Corporator (or any other official?) for a service required at a personal level?

1. Never
2. 1-5 times
3. 6- 20 times
4. More than 20 times

B5) How many times in the last 5 years have you met with a Corporator (or any other official?) for a service required at a ward level?

1. Never
2. 1-5 times
3. 6- 20 times
4. More than 20 times

B6) How would you rate the service provision done by the Pune Municipal Corporation in the past 5 years? (Give marks out of 10 for the following services)**Education**

B6-1-1) How frequently have you used Education facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-1-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Transport

B6-2-1) How frequently have you used Transport facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-2-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Roads

B6-3-1) How frequently have you used Road facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-3-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Water

B6-4-1) How frequently have you used Water facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-4-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Drainage / Sewage

B6-5-1) How frequently have you used Drainage / Sewage facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-5-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Electricity

B6-6-1) How frequently have you used Electricity facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-6-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Garbage collection and management

B6-7-1) How frequently have you used Garbage collection and management facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-7-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Sports

B6-8-1) How frequently have you used Sports facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-8-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Entertainment

B6-9-1) How frequently have you used Entertainment facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-9-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Telephone

B6-10-1) How frequently have you used Telephone facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-10-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Fire Brigade

B6-11-1) How frequently have you used Fire Brigade facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-11-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Parks

B6-12-1) How frequently have you used Parks facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-12-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

Health

B6-13-1) How frequently have you used Health facility provided by PMC?

1. Regular 2. Sometimes 3. Never

B6-13-2) Give marks for the facility out of 10.

In each of the following elections, did you cast your vote?

B7-1) Did you cast your vote in Loksabha2014 ?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I was not eligible by age

B7-2) Did you cast your vote in Loksabha2009 ?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I was not eligible by age

B7-3) Did you cast your vote in VidhanSabha2014 ?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I was not eligible by age

B7-4) Did you cast your vote in VidhanSabha2009 ?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I was not eligible by age

B7-5) Did you cast your vote in Pune Municipal Corporation 2012 ?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I was not eligible by age

B7-6) Did you cast your vote in Pune Municipal Corporation 2007 ?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I was not eligible by age

B7-7) In which booth did you cast your vote in PMC 2012 Elections?

B8-1) Did you feel proud about casting a vote in the 2012 PMC elections?

1. Yes 2. No

B8-2) Did you feel guilty about not casting a vote in the 2012 PMC elections?

1. Yes 2. No

B9) How was your voting experience in the 2012 PMC elections?

Enumerators to shuffle laminated cards and ask the respondent to choose and return the ones that are applicable. Enumerator will examine the numbers on the back of the returned cards and enter those numbers into the tabs.

B10) What were the main reasons for you not voting in the PMC elections? (Respondents may choose multiple options)

- a. I did not know where to vote
- b. My name was not in the voter's list
- c. My name was missing in the voters' list despite having received the voter slip
- d. Someone had already cast a vote on my name
- e. My name was in the voter list of a ward which was far too away from my current residence
- f. The long queue at the booth dissuaded me from voting
- g. There was a function/ ceremony in my family
- h. I/ family member was ill
- i. I was out of town
- j. I was too busy at work
- k. I did not get the day off from my job
- l. Taking the day off would have meant loss in income
- m. I had been intimidated or scared into not casting my vote
- n. I didn't know enough about any of the candidates to make an informed decision
- o. No candidate belonging to the party I support was contesting the elections
- p. No candidate belonging to my religion was contesting the elections
- q. No candidate belonging to my caste category was contesting the elections
- r. I didn't like any of the candidates or political parties
- s. I didn't think my vote would matter
- t. I wasn't concerned with the issues of the campaign
- u. I just wasn't interested in the PMC election
- v. I am handicapped and hence never vote
- w. None of the candidates was known to me?
- x. Casting my vote has not changed anything so far
- y. All candidates are more or less of same quality
- z. Any other (specify)

B11-1) What were the main reasons for you voting in the PMC elections? (Respondents may choose multiple options)

- a. I felt it was my duty as a citizen to participate in the local elections
- b. My colleagues and friends would have looked down on me, if I had not voted
- c. I knew that a particular candidate was very good and I wanted to bring him to power

- d. I wanted to cast my vote for the candidate belonging to my religion
- e. I wanted to cast my vote for the candidate belonging to my caste category
- f. Candidates or political parties visited my home to persuade me to vote
- g. All members in our social group (Ganesh Mandal, political group, school, Bachat Gat) decided to vote
- h. I didn't want anyone else to cast a vote on my name
- i. It is very convenient to vote as the booth is very close to my home
- j. My employer gave the day-off specifically so that the employees could
- k. Any other (specify)

B11-2) In your opinion, what are the reasons for people not voting in the PMC election?

- a. I did not know where to vote
- b. My name was not in the voter's list
- c. My name was missing in the voters' list despite having received the voter slip
- d. Someone had already cast a vote on my name
- e. My name was in the voter list of a ward which was far too away from my current residence
- f. The long queue at the booth dissuaded me from voting
- g. There was a function/ ceremony in my family
- h. I/ family member was ill
- i. I was out of town
- j. I was too busy at work
- k. I did not get the day off from my job
- l. Taking the day off would have meant loss in income
- m. I had been intimidated or scared into not casting my vote
- n. I didn't know enough about any of the candidates to make an informed decision
- o. No candidate belonging to the party I support was contesting the elections
- p. No candidate belonging to my religion was contesting the elections
- q. No candidate belonging to my caste category was contesting the elections
- r. I didn't like any of the candidates or political parties
- s. I didn't think my vote would matter
- t. I wasn't concerned with the issues of the campaign
- u. I just wasn't interested in the PMC election
- v. I am handicapped and hence never vote
- w. None of the candidates was known to me?
- x. Casting my vote has not changed anything so far
- y. All candidates are more or less of same quality
- z. Any other (specify)

12. What, in your opinion, could be done by the following stake holders to increase voter turnout in the upcoming PMC elections?

B12-a) Candidates

B12-b) Political Parties

B12-c) Media

B12-d) State Election Commission

B13) How likely are you to cast your vote in the upcoming 2017 PMC elections? Respondent to indicate percentage.

B14) Assume that the quality of candidates contesting in the 2017 PMC elections is extremely good. Now how likely are you to cast your vote in the upcoming 2017 PMC elections? Respondent to indicate a number on the scale 0 to 10. (10 indicates 100% chance and 0 indicates no probability)

B15-1) Which of the following attributes would you like to see in the candidate representing you? Choose only three attributes.

- a. Should be accessible
- b. Should be able to drive ward-level developmental projects
- c. Should be non-corrupt
- d. Should not have criminal history
- e. Should be a degree holder candidate
- f. Should have good leadership skills
- g. Should be less than 40 years of age
- h. Should meet people in the ward regularly to understand ward-level issues

B16) Would the chances of you casting a vote increase if :

1. You received a reminder the earlier evening.
2. You received a reminder on the morning of the voting day.
3. The timings of the poll were extended upto 9:00 p.m.
4. You were consulted about ward level issues by the candidates prior to the voting
5. You were allowed to cast your vote on the internet.
6. The election were to be held on a holiday / non-working day.

Basic Information

A1) Respondent Name

A2) Ward Number

A3) Address

A4-1) Mobile / Landline Phone

1. Yes
2. No

A4-2) If yes, then Number

A4-3) If no then name of person who know you

A4-4) If no then number of person who know you

A5-1) Identification Number

1. Aadhar Card
2. PAN Card
3. Driving License
4. Election Card
5. Any Other

A5-2) Card Number

A6) Age

A7) Gender

1. Male
2. Female
3. Other

A8) Which religion do you follow?

1. Hindu
2. Muslim
3. Sikh
4. Christian
5. Buddhist
6. Parsi
7. Jain
8. Other (Specify)

A9-1) Category

1. Open
2. SC
3. ST
4. OBC
5. Other (Specify)

A9-2) Mother tongue

1. Marathi
2. Hindi
3. Gujarati
4. Tamil
5. Telugu
6. Kannada
7. Malayalam
8. Rajasthani
9. Punjabi
10. Bengali
11. Sindhi
12. English
13. Other

A10) What is your marital status?

1. Married
2. Unmarried
3. Living with someone, but unmarried
4. Divorced / Separated
5. Widowed

A11) Do you have children?.

1. Yes
2. No

A12) No. of years of stay in the survey area

1. Less than 5 years
2. 5 - 10 years
3. More than 10 years

A16) Who is the main earner of the family?

1. Myself
2. Father
3. Mother
4. Grandfather
5. Grandmother
6. Uncle
7. Aunt
8. Brother
9. Sister
10. Cousin
11. Other (specify)

A17) Upto what level has the main earner of the family studied?

1. Illiterate
2. Schooling upto Std. IV
3. Std. V to Std. IX
4. SSC to HSC
5. College including diploma, but not graduate
6. Graduate / Post Graduate, general
7. Graduate / Post Graduate, professional

A13) Education of the respondent

1. Illiterate
2. Schooling upto Std. IV
3. Std. V to Std. IX
4. SSC to HSC

5. College including diploma, but not graduate
6. Graduate / Post Graduate, general
7. Graduate / Post Graduate, professional

A18) What is your main occupation?

1. Student
2. Housewife
3. Retired
4. Unemployed
5. Daily wage earner / Labour
6. Salaried job
7. Business
8. Trader / Trading agency
9. Self-employed professional
10. Other (pl specify)

A19) In which year did you attempt the Std X exam?.

A20) How regularly do you read the newspapers?

- | | | |
|------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Never | 2. Once a week | 3. Twice a week |
| 4. Thrice a week | 5. More than thrice a week | 6. Daily |

A21) How regularly do you listen to news on radio?

- | | | |
|------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Never | 2. Once a week | 3. Twice a week |
| 4. Thrice a week | 5. More than thrice a week | 6. Daily |

A22) How regularly do you watch news on TV?

- | | | |
|------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Never | 2. Once a week | 3. Twice a week |
| 4. Thrice a week | 5. More than thrice a week | 6. Daily |

A23) How often do you offer prayers/ Pooja/ Namaz?

- | | | |
|------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Never | 2. Once a week | 3. Twice a week |
| 4. Thrice a week | 5. More than thrice a week | 6. Daily |

A24) Items owned/ have access to at home

1. Electricity connection
2. Ceiling fan
3. LPG stove
4. Two wheeler
5. Colour TV
6. Refrigerator
7. Washing Machine
8. Personal Computer/ Laptop
9. Car/ Jeep/ Van
10. Air Conditioner
11. Agricultural land owned