"In Uttar Pradesh, The Impact of Political Use of Social Media on Political Attitude, Political Participation and Voter's Party Choice"

Thesis
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By

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Declaration by the Scholar

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis entitled "**“In Uttar Pradesh, The Impact of Political Use of Social Media on Political Attitude, Political Participation and Voter’s Party Choice”.** in fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, submitted in the Maharishi School of Humanities & Arts, Maharishi University of Information Technology, Lucknow is an authentic record of my own research work carried out under the supervision of Dr. Anil Kumar Dixit. I also declare that the work embodied in the present thesis-

i) is my original work and has not been copied from any journal/ thesis/ book; and
ii) has not been submitted by me for any other Degree or Diploma of any University/ Institution.

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Supervisor's Certificate

This is to certify that Ms. Pooja Kumari has completed the necessary academic turn and the swirl presented by her is a faithful record is a bonafide original work under my guidance and supervision. She has worked on the topic "“In Uttar Pradesh, The Impact of Political Use of Social Media on Political Attitude, Political Participation and Voter’s Party Choice”. Under the School of Humanities and Arts Maharishi University of Information Technology, Lucknow. No part of this thesis has been submitted by the candidate for the award of any other degree or diploma in this or any other University around the globe.

Supervisor

CHAPTER – 1

INTRODUCTION

The marketing strategies have been explored largely and are growing in different perspectives and implementing marketing theories in political area has been started. (Newman, 1999; O'Shaughnessy, 1990). Many researchers around the globe have made an attempt to study the management concepts in political scenario and found various factors that may influence the voter's behaviour to make voting decision. From marketing perspective, voters are considered as the market which is further divided into different segments on the basis of age, gender, interest, knowledge etc. that assists the political party candidates to understand the needs, attitude and behaviour of voters. However, voter's decision about choosing a political party or leader has resemblance with decision to choose a product (Reeves et al., 2006). The concept of marketing management is used for making strategies to influence voters (Kotler, 1982; O'Cass, 1996; Baines and Egan, 2001) and concept of consumer behaviour is used to study voter's decision about party choice (Rothschild, 1978; Newman and Seth, 1985; Dermody and Scullion, 2000) whereas concept of communication is used to exchange the information, news or facts with one another using different media to target voters in order to seek their support and political participation. Therefore, to influence citizens and to convey messages, ideas, and thoughts etc. political parties and their leaders have used different media from time to time and became successful. For instance, print media in the form of newspaper, posters, magazines, pamphlets were highly used in 19^{th} Century, whereas broadcasting media specifically radio and Television was widely used in 20^{th} century to reach large masses.

In 1932, radio was one of the popular media to convey the political message wherein Franklin D. Rooswelt, an American politician gave a series of 30 evening radio speeches between 1922-1944. Similarly, in 1961, John F. Kennedy became first American President to hold a live televised news for conveying their message to target audience. Prior to United States Presidential Elections 2008, only traditional media such as Television, Newspaper, direct contact with politicians etc. were used but this election transformed the way of communication with the general public by using social media to a great extent. The winning of Barak Obama was the result credited to the use of social media marketing. Later on, political leaders & parties around the globe have started using social media as a tool of empowerment and oppression. For instance, use of WhatsApp campaign by Brazilian President Jair Bolsonaro and use of Facebook by Philippines' President Rodrigo Duterte are known for bringing in the desired change. Thus, the new media became popular in 21st Century wherein utilization of social media and specially through mobile phones have shown tremendous growth.

In India, Radio came into existence in the year 1927 and in 1959 the first Television Centre was set up. The Satellite Television Experiment (SITE) was one of the biggest communication experiment of one-year duration carried out from 1975 to 1976. However, in the year 2011 and 2012, social media was initially used by Anna Hazare in his anti-corruption movement in India. The General Election 2014 was the first election where political parties have adopted social media to have contact with masses online. Initially, Prime Minister Narendra Modi has focused on social media to a large extent and became politician with highest search on social media after Barak Obama. This further created the buzz about social media, hence, more leaders are now taking help of social media in contacting the

masses to convey their strategies. Later on Aam Aadmi Party also realized the importance of social media and laid emphasis on using it to influence citizens. Successful implementation of social media by both the parties has pushed the other parties like Indian National Congress to have its presence on social media and in 2015, Rahul Gandhi, Congress leader made his entry on Twitter. Hence, by and large, all parties have considered social media as powerful marketing tool. However, techno-savvy Bharatiya Janata Party has left Indian National Congress behind by introducing various campaigns on Facebook, creating buzz on twitter, and presenting PM Modi's holographic in remote villages. And from then, social media has become an imperative media and is getting stronger day by day for political campaigning. Modern means of communication, traditional media and inter-personal communication have blended together and complemented each other. Therefore, in order to use new media for online campaigning successfully rigorous marketing strategies are required to influence voters and win elections.

Further, to consider social media as a marketing tool it cannot be understood without defining a term Web 2.0. Web 2.0 provides "a new way in which end users use the World Wide Web, a place where content is continuously altered by all operators in a sharing and collaborative way" (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Accordingly, social media allow the user to create and share their content over internet using some websites and applications.

Following is the brief description of few social media platforms:

- **Facebook: "***An internet-based social media that allows people to connect with others in their circle for the purpose of social exchange*" (Aladwani, 2014).

- **WhatsApp:** A Social Media application owned by Facebook, "*It is a cross- platform mobile messaging Application for exchanging messages without payment for short service message (SMS)*".
- **YouTube**: An application which allows users to upload videos over the Internet and share them with others.
- **Instagram:** A social networking platform allows the sharing of pictures and videos.

Shared content on social media such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube etc. provides an opportunity to seek and exchange political information with others. It also allows the individuals to use that content to have an interpersonal discussion with their friends and family members, which may result into their decision to vote. Similarly, WhatsApp, a mobile messaging service by Facebook is also popular for sharing political content. Thus, social media has the potential to reach larger masses by creating interpersonal relationships. Researcher found that social media is a powerful medium to make the electoral decision where social media efforts are combined with traditional marketing campaigns and media avenues (Rutenberg, 2013).

1.1 RECENT TRENDS IN SOCIAL MEDIA

According to World Stat, India has left behind the United States and is able to secure second position after China in terms of internet users. According to IAMAI (Internet and Mobile Association of India) 2019, India had 451 Million monthly active internet users in the first quarter of the year 2019 where 65 per cent of internet users are between the age of 12 to 29 years and 72 per cent of them use internet on daily basis. Overall 7 per cent growth i.e. from 24 per cent to 31 per cent is projected in terms of access to internet by Indian users from 2018 to 2023. These reports depict internet

penetration in India is growing at fast pace and is expected to grow with much faster rate.

Furthermore, India is among top ten in term of number of users for most used social media platform in the world with 200 Million users on WhatsApp, 7.65 Million users on Twitter, 300 Million users on Facebook, and on YouTube 41 Million users using on monthly basis. According to Reuters, 52 per cent of Indian social media users use Facebook and 18 per cent use Twitter as a source of news. However, Hootsuite's Digital 2019 report, reported unlike other social media platforms usage of Twitter is decreasing at the rate of 2.2 per cent per quarter. As per Socialbakers, official profile of Narendra Modi on Facebook and Twitter are most followed. Moreover, amongst all states of India, Punjab is among top 5 states having highest internet penetration and all political parties in India are trying to leverage this growth in the number of internet users.

Approximately 65 per cent population in India is youth which may be the reason for such popularity of social media. It is observed in previous elections that youth is less interested in politics but social media usage has made youth more interested in getting political knowledge online through social networking sites. According to IAMAI Report 2016, 90 per cent of social media users were following state assembly elections on social media.

Adopting new phenomena of social media has changed the paradigms of politics as it has the ability to shape new messages and contact large masses which were not experienced in customary media. From multiple points of view, individuals moved from keeping up particular site to building up different accounts on different SNS. As individuals are moving to the Internet, resulting into establishment of new culture in politics. There is a saying regarding social media that 'Traditional media's like Television

and Newspaper acts as a watchdog but social media is like a watchdog over watchdogs'.

Table 1.1: Changes in Political Use of Social Media Between 2014 and 2019

Year 2014	Year 2019
Total eligible voters were 814.5 Million people. Only 17 per cent of total population had access to internet.	Approximately 900 Million eligible voters, and an estimated half-a-billion have access to the Internet. The fastest growth in users on any major social-media platform is in India.
Only few politicians and political parties had official pages on social media platforms	Almost all political leaders and parties have their official pages and accounts on social media platforms
Facebook, Twitter, YouTube were most prominently used.	WhatsApp is now considered as a major social media tool along with Facebook, Twitter and YouTube.
155 Million mobile users were reported and use of hashtags on Twitter were more prevalent.	450 Million mobile users were reported wherein Video is considered as most popular source of information and entertainment.

(**Source:** Newspaper Articles)

The Indian General election, 2014 was recognized as world's largest democratic election till now and is also known as #twitter election (Lu et al., 2014), and campaigning was primarily conducted online by major political parties like AAP, BJP and INC etc. for engagement and seeking votes. Hence, the use of social media for elections purpose is quite prevalent in India and is followed by all the parties. According to media strategists, during General Election 2019, BJP has spent more than its 50 per cent of their budget on online campaigning including social media as it is inexpensive as compared to traditional media (Roy and Amin, 2019). This inexpensive platform facilitates the citizens participation directly in

political process of sharing and disseminating information with each other. However, political parties and leaders can also use it as call to action platform to connect and mobilize supporters by using social media strategically.

1.2 POLITICAL ATTITUDE

Attitude is defined as "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor". Authors have studied the association of attitude and political participation and one such researcher Lane (1965) emphasizes the importance of political attitudes in a larger segment of attitudes and beliefs. He connects political attitudes of respondents directly to psychological factors. Positive political attitude leads to high political participation and has more probability to vote.

In some studies, researchers found the strong association between media use and political attitude as well as political behavior (Holbrook, 2001; Thongteerapharb, 2014; Javaid and Elahi, 2014; Saad & Salma, 2013) which is due to the motivation people have to get political information or political knowledge. Carpini and Keeter (1996) describes "political knowledge as the series of actual political information that becomes stored in long-term memory". They guarantee that more proficient and educated voters will probably be interested to legislative issues, joined to vote, and are more committed for political participation. Formal training, news, interaction at office or with friends, social media and so on are the various tools to get political knowledge. It is observed that people having higher political knowledge including party, leader and process have higher tendency of political participation. As social media has been used for seeking and disseminating political information by majority of people, higher probability to enhance political knowledge. Similarly, people who

are more interested in political affairs have the greater tendency to show their political participation. Studies also observed that social media usage has increased the political interest and political knowledge due to media exposure.

Likewise, political efficacy is also found as the great predictor for political behavior and political participation. Political efficacy means the belief of a citizen that his/her actions can make difference in the political process. It comprises of two components-internal and external efficacies. In other words, political self-efficacy depends on citizen's confidence and competence for making government regulations himself or by government authorities in a democratic country.

Internal efficacy: *the convictions about one's capacities to comprehend legislative issues, and to take an interest in political exercises adequately*

External efficacy: *the individual's convictions that administration powers and establishments are responsive receptive to citizen's solicitations.*

Social media usage has been observed as important variable to make beliefs of voters stronger about political parties, leaders and processes.

1.3 POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

The ultimate outcome of every political strategy is to earn more votes, which can be possible only if a political candidate or political party monitors the actions of voter and try to convince him about the company's ideology. This enables the leaders/political parties to make judgment about likeliness to win. Voter's decision to take any action in favor or against the particular political party or political candidate is considered as political participation. Political Participation refers to "those actions of private citizens by which they seek to influence or to support government and politics" (Milbrath and Goel, 1977). Political participation reflects the

active role people play to influence the political outcomes by participating in elections or by performing support activities. Effing et al. (2011) described it as behaviors intended at decisive governmental policy both by influencing the choice of a political leader and by affecting their preference. Traditional political participation includes voting, attending meeting, participation in protest or discussion, donating, joining political group, contacting political officials etc., whereas current online political participation includes following a politician on social media, donating online, participating in online discussion, joining political group online and so on. Researchers have found positive association between media use and political participation in different countries. Specifically, social media has found to have significant influence on political participation in western and Arab countries. Apart from this, political attitudes, peoples' belief in politics or government and politicians leads to political participation (Saad and Salman, 2013).

1.4 POLITICAL PARTY CHOICE

In a highly competitive environment during elections, the primary goal of every party is to win the elections. For winning the election, a party is free to design its products or make strategies to market them in the form of political campaigning. The different products such as political candidate, manifesto, political campaigning and so on offered by a party helps the individual to make decision to vote in its favor or against.

Political marketing strategy can be defined as "the identification of a political entity's purpose and the scheme through which that purpose will be achieved" (Nielsen, 2012). It also need to decide the media for dissemination of product information and accordingly, political parties may be interested to gain knowledge about the media usage pattern that may further influence the voter to select a political candidate or party

of his/her choice. This will help them to draw more accurate & precise political marketing strategy. Apart from media usage, studies have observed that decision to choose a particular party or political candidate may vary from person to person in terms of demographics such as gender, age, education level, marital status, income etc. For instances, females have shown less interest in politics as compared to males, whereas older people prefer more to participate in politics as compared to young generation.

1.5 COMMUNICATION NEEDS

In an electronic democracy, politicians avoid being dependent only on traditional communication channels like TV news media as through the use of the internet, they remain in control over their political messages (Broersma and Graham, 2012). Many authors have studied the relationship between media usage and voter's decisions. It is observed that not only the media have impact on decision to vote but also the information in the form of content shared on such media is essential. User gratification theory explains how people use media for their needs. Studies reveal that the presence of political leader on twitter results in attracting large masses through electronic campaigning. Not only the presence but how they present themselves is also vital. Similarly, Hsu and Park. (2012) conducted a study in South Korea to know the user's attitude towards National Assembly members and found that users have negative attitude toward these members. Moreover, the type of content reveals the emotions of the users towards the political candidate or party. Sometimes, the purpose of sharing information on online platform is to showcase the power or cordial relationship with others. Therefore, in this study an attempt has been made to analyze the information shared on these social media platforms by political parties to communicate has any effect on communication needs according to user gratification theory.

1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

This thesis consists of five chapters. The first chapter which introduces the study has been devoted to present background of the study and prevailing internet and social media trends in electoral context. It also highlights the significance of the study.

Chapter two reviews relevant literature concerning definitions of various constructs. This chapter discusses empirical studies for conceptual clarity and the research model that guides this research. Moreover, this chapter discusses the relationships between constructs and objectives developed for this study.

Chapter three elucidates and discusses methodological issues essential for conducting the study. This chapter covers different topics like research design, the research methods selected, the research instrument and measurement of variables used in the study. The chapter also discusses sampling procedure, sample size and sample size criteria, research instrument, data analysis techniques used, statistical analysis for testing the research model etc.

Chapters four presents the results of the data analysis and the discussion on the results. This chapter covers different topics like descriptive analysis and normality statistics, reliability of scales etc. apart from interpretation of the data analyzed. The chapter also discusses correlation analysis, structural equation modelling, moderation analysis, results of the estimation and modelling process and fit indices and finally testing of research objectives.

Chapter five reviews and summarizes findings obtained from the preceding data analysis chapters to draw broad conclusion for the study. Furthermore, this chapter provides theoretical and empirical implications, and proposes guidelines for future study.

1.7 SUMMARY

Overall, the rise of social media usage for political purpose has attracted the scholars to study its different dimensions. Citizens and political actors have more avenues to reach each other to share information than ever, presenting new opportunities and challenges for democracy promotion and new possibilities for democratic consolidation around world. In Indian General Election held in the year 2014 and 2019, all the parties contested to win elections using both traditional and new media. In this regard, this study made an attempt to study influence of different media used for political purpose on political attitude and political participation. Moreover, the study tried to study the relationship between social media usage, political attitude, political participation. Also, the influence of social media usage was studi ed for political party choice keeping in mind the demographics variables. Lastly, the study also analyzed the content shared by political parties in order to ratify the communication needs.

CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The proliferated popularity of the internet or social media in politics has appealed scholars to explore its various aspects and dimensions. Numerous researchers have investigated the social media, its usage and role in political participation, political knowledge, party choice etc. in different countries. Therefore, in this regard, this chapter will exhibit a review of analogous studies to build a theoretical background using various publications, journals, magazines, books, newspapers, statistical reports, internet etc., which aid in amplifying the knowledge and identifying the research gap. Efforts have been made to prepare a list of relevant material and procure them to have conceptual clarity which is sub-divided into the various section as follows:

2.1 POLITICAL USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA

According to Pew Research Center (2012), since the 2008 presidential election, the use of the internet for attaining election news has burgeoned. In India, social media usage became a battlefield in general elections 2014, wherein Prime Minister Narendra Modi came out as India's Obama. Amid that election, social media has transformed the conventional ways to share ideas, opinions and messages, which was not traced earlier. Therefore, it becomes a necessity for the political to have their presence on social media platform to stay connected with the general public.

Prime Minister Modi is the most followed political leader on social media platform globally and has led by 150 Million posts since May 2014 and 603 Million interactions in terms of likes, shares etc. and has more than 114.4 Million videos (Economic Times, May 27, 2017). Likewise, all other political leaders and parties have made their presence to woo voters. The rocketing attractiveness of online media across political parties, leaders as well as voters of different age groups has led to steady growth in investigating, how such media influence voters? Baran and Davis (2006) describe that the dependency of user on media will yield to higher importance and influence of that media.

2.1.1 SOCIAL MEDIA:

Although many authors have studied the influence of social media (Han, 2008 and Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010), only a limited number of studies are available which explained new media for political environment. New media is referred to the advanced technology usage in the field of digital communication which has some terms and conditions (Peters, 2009). Different features of social media which are largely technology based make it as a part of new media. Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) defined social media, as a Web 2.0 technology, where own created information is altered and shared on the World Wide Web in a collaborative way. Further, Campbell et al. (2011) outlined it as, "*It is much more to do with what people are doing with the technology than the technology itself, for rather than merely retrieving information, users are now creating and consuming it, and hence adding value to the websites that permit them to do so*". In simple terms, social media can be explained as the software tools where users can share their own created content.

Boyd and Ellison, (2007) defines *"social network sites as web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public*

profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system". On other hand, for a website there are some fundamental elements essential to meet the prerequisites as social networking site: the site comprises client profiles, content, and a strategy to allow each other for interaction and post comments, join online groups of common interest, such as, politics (Steinfield, Ellison and Lampe, 2008; Lenhart et al., 2007; Boyd and Ellison, 2007). SNS has an ability to let users generate profiles, share the connections amongst others and explore these associations over internet (Boyd and Ellison, 2007).

The discussion of political issues and ideas on an online medium that comes under the definition of social media is regarded as a political use of social media. Researchers have analyzed the ways to get engaged with politicians or political parties with news (Bakshy, Messing, and Adamic, 2015; Barthel et al., 2015), sharing the views, ideas or having political discussion using online or offline media (Gil de Zuniga, 2012; Valenzuela, 2013; Gil de Zuniga et al., 2011, and Barnidge, 2015). Citizens have direct contact with political officials on social media that could affect their political attitude, political interest, political knowledge, political behaviour etc. (Wang, 2007; Ediraras et al., 2013; Holt et al., 2013; Wang, 2012). Further, the political use of different social media platforms which are considered for study are explained below:

2.1.2 POLITICAL USE OF FACEBOOK:

In 2004, Facebook was launched by Mark Zuckerberg, which allows the users to express, share user-generated content, to connect with friends and family, and to retrieve and share information about the latest happenings in the world. Facebook provides numerous features to increase interaction and

online communication. Users can share information in the form of text, images, videos or links, stay interconnected by sending a friend request, like or follow public pages. Once they are connected, users can like, share, comment, a social event they attend, their present location, track all the information shared by a connected friend, which will appear on the section called News Feed. All such activities performed by users on Facebook to get and share political information is referred to as political use of Facebook. People tend to share political information on an online platform like Facebook among their peer group (Stroud, 2008, 2010; Iyengar and Hahn, 2009; Heatherly et al., 2017). Even if users do not deliberately engage himself in getting political information from these SNS, they may incidentally get exposure through the content shared by their online friends and family (Kim, 2011; Semaan et al., 2014). Therefore, the political use of Facebook is receiving or sharing political discussion either in favour of against the political candidate or party on Facebook (Wojcieszak and Mutz, 2009 and Brundidge, 2010).

2.1.3 Political Use of Twitter:

Twitter is a popular microblogging platform, launched in 2006 by Jack Dorsey that assists the account holders to publish short messages, called as Tweets, having maximum 280 characters. In India, more than 7.9 Million users are present on Twitter. According to Reuters, 52 per cent of Indian social media users use Facebook, and 18 per cent use Twitter as a source of news. However, Hootsuite's Digital 2019 report, reported unlike other social media platforms decreasing the usage of Twitter at the rate of 2.2 per cent per quarter. As per Socialbakers, the official profile of Narendra Modi on Facebook and Twitter are most followed profiles of a political leader. Twitter enables the users to create a profile for sharing user-generated content in the form of text, picture, link,

the video, either public or private (Hargittai and Litt, 2011). Also, Twitter allows live streaming of messages for promotion of activities, messages and ideas (Naaman, Booase, and Lai, 2010). Geere (2010) studies the use of twitter by political candidates to promote themselves or their ideology on online platforms.

Twitter has the power to stimulate electoral participation either online or offline (Zhang, Seltzer, and Bichard, 2013; Franz 2016; Kreiss, 2016; Towner, 2013) along with voter's decision to vote (Towner, 2015). Moreover, tweets posted by a political candidate or party can motivate the general public to retweet, share or retrieve information and attend political campaign (Parmelee and Bichard, 2012). Such activities on Twitter may shape political attitude of voters and as a result, may influence their decision to vote.

2.1.4 POLITICAL USE OF WHATSAPP

In 2009, "personal real-time messaging service" known as WhatsApp was launched by Brian Acton and Jan Koum which was later acquired by Facebook in 2014 and become most popular messaging application in 2015. It offers features like sending or receiving text and voice messages, images, documents, links videos and other media with other users. If voters do such activities for political purpose on WhatsApp, it is considered as political use of WhatsApp.

Although political parties in India have invested huge money in creating WhatsApp groups to disseminate their messages and ideas (Hitchen, Fisher, Hassan, and Cheeseman, 2019), influence of WhatsApp is less researched as compared to Twitter and Facebook. Though WhatsApp, among the most used social media platforms (Statistica, 2018) is worth to study for political attitude and political participation wherein WhatsApp acts as interaction platform that bridge interstice between political actors and voters

(Sumartias, 2017). Valenzuela, Bachmann, and Bargsted (2019) examined the information sharing practices of WhatsApp users and found a significant influence on gaining knowledge about political processes, protests, and issues prevailing in politics. Gil de Zuniga et al. (2019) found positive impact on electoral discussion via WhatsApp on political participation which varies among generation X, Millennials and Boomers. Further, researchers also identified the sharing of text message higher in a political groups than in other social groups (Caetano et al., 2018).

2.1.5 POLITICAL USE OF YOUTUBE:

In 2005, a video-sharing site called YouTube was launched by Chad Hurley, Steve Chen and Jawed Karimin and managed by Google. This website facilitates the users to upload, view and share the content in the form of video (Smith, Fischer, and Yongjian, 2012). Further, it allows the users to show engagement in the form of likes, dislikes, comments (Möller, Kühne, Baumgartner, and Peter, 2019). In the US, YouTube use for political communication started in the year 2006 (Gueorguieva, 2008). In western countries, several researchers have investigated the impact of YouTube usage in political context (Robertson, Vatrapu and Median, 2010 and Vergeera and Hermans, 2013).

YouTube found to be an influential platform for online political campaigning when used in interactive way (Ricke, 2010; Towner and Dulio, 2011 and Kruikemeier, 2014). Likewise, seeking information from YouTube boosts voters to show their offline and online political participation (Zhang et al., 2013 and Zhang et al., 2010). Also, Gibson and McAllister (2006) concluded positive impact of online campaigning in gaining voters supports by political leaders and parties. Further, they revealed online campaigning using such websites has positive

influence on voter's decision to vote in favour or against a particular party or leader (Gibson and McAllister, 2011).

2.2 POLITICAL ATTITUDE

The term attitude is outlined as a tendency of a person in favour or against of particular entity, individual, organisation or event. In words of Eagly and Chaiken (1993), "*a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour*". The values or beliefs of citizens towards a political system, political candidates or any other political affairs is referred to as political attitude. Skill and knowledge about the political process may result in the determination of a pattern of political participation.

In several political behaviour studies, researchers have studied the association of political participation with social and environmental factors. Milbrath and Goyal (2007) have suggested the three main categories of variables that may determine the pattern of political participation which include psychological variable, social variable and political variable. Lane (2009) highlights the political attitude's prominence in opinions and attitudes wherein he associates the voter's political attitudes with psychological aspects. Saad and Salman (2013) found that political attitudes, faith in politics or government and politicians by citizen lead to political participation. Several authors measure political attitude in different aspects (Holbrook, 2001; Thongteerapharb, 2014; Javaid and Elahi, 2014; Saad & Salma, 2013; Faraon, Stenberg, Kaipainen; Sika, 2012; Klofstad, Sokhey, Mcclurg, 2013), however the current study identified three variable namely, political interest, knowledge and efficacy which are elaborated below.

2.2.1 POLITICAL INTEREST:

Political interest is referred to an individual's disposition for seeking political information more as compared to other kind of information (Lupia and Philpot, 2005). In the words of Van Deth (2000), political interest is how politics generate curiosity among citizens, whereas Shani (2009) describes it as the internal encouragement to get engaged in political sphere. Political interest is relatively higher than gaining ordinary political news and information (Boulianne, 2011). Stromback and Shehata (2019) examined the correlation between political involvement and interest. Thomassen et al., (2000) reported positive influence of awareness about the political process on voting behaviour by the public, however, usage of different media leads to enhanced news consumption and subsequently more interest (Ksiazek et al., 2010 and Yuan, 2011). Therefore, if voters are interested in getting political information or have awareness about the political process, they may have positive or negative political attitude towards political process, party or leader and hence, a higher probability of political participation.

2.2.2 POLITICAL EFFICACY:

According to Campbell, Gurin, and Miller (2000), political efficacy is ''*the feeling that political and social change is possible, and that the individual citizen can play a part in bringing about this change*''. Several researchers (Verba and Almond, 1963; Morrell, 2003; Beaumont, 2011) observed significance of voter's belief for his competency as vital for building political behaviour. Austin et al., (2008) found positive association with political efficacy and participation. Zhang et al. (2010) concluded that higher the efficacy, more likeliness to participate in political happenings. Further, many researchers divided political efficacy as internal and external efficacy (Kenski and Stroud, 2006; Tedesco, 2007). Understanding of own competency for participation in political activities is inner

political efficacy, whereas, beliefs toward government's response is outer political efficacy. Nonetheless, the current study has followed Verba and Nie (2001) definition of Political Efficacy which is without distinction between internal and external efficacy. It is found that a person with a higher political efficacy seems psychologically involved in civic affairs and that may result in higher political participation.

2.2.3 POLITICAL KNOWLEDGE:

Understanding of political affairs by the citizens is essential for the smooth working of every democratic economy (Lee et al., 2014) and a well-educated and informed citizen is seeming to be a benchmark of a country to evaluate its political status. Otherwise, the dearth of necessary political information, residents ought to experience issues in understanding political affairs and in civic engagement (Popkin and Dimock, 2009). For measuring political knowledge, researchers have asked respondents related to party name and affiliation, party events, laws and regulations, international political leaders, (Kunovich, 2013; Barabas et al., 2014; Strabac and Aalberg, 2011), and women participation in political sphere etc. Also, media usage may influence political knowledge as people perceive different news and information from various media.

2.3 POLITICAL PARTICIPATION:

Political Participation means deliberate actions taken to choose a political party directly or indirectly by society's individuals. Political participation is an extremely complex issue since it is a result of different elements (Ahmed, 2001). It incorporates voting, looking for information, going to gatherings, discussions, donating money, and direct contact with the delegates, become a party member, soliciting and enrolling voters and working for a political party in the campaigns. Broadly the term political participation is related to political activities or actions taken by citizens

rather than attitude and behaviour of professionally involved citizens (Akinchan, 2005).

Weiner (2006) describes it as "*The concept of political participation refers to any voluntary action, successful or unsuccessful, organized or unorganized, episodic or continuous, employing legitimate or illegitimate methods intended in influencing the choice of public policies, the administration of public affairs or the choice of political leaders*". Adding to it, Verba et al. (2008), defines it as "*those legal activities by private citizens that are more or less directly aimed at influencing the selection of government personnel and/or the actions they take*". In the words of Milbrath and Goel (2007), political participation consists of activities by individuals that may influence the government undertakings. Effing et al. (2011) describe it as behaviours intended at decisive governmental policy both by influencing the choice of a political leader and by affecting their preference. These definitions of political participation reflect the active role of people to influence the political outcomes by participating in elections or by performing supporting activities.

In words of McClosky (2008), the political participation is "*voluntary activities by which members of a society share in the selection of rulers, and directly or indirectly, in the formation of public policy*". Some researchers like Rush and Althoff (1971), further added activities like voting, becoming an electoral member, joining politics related group or movement, holding a political office, joining a political gathering or having discussions on political issues.

Several researchers attempted to define political participation differently. Milbrath (2007) classified political participation in three categories named Gladiatorial, Transitional and Spectator activities that are mentioned in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Political Participation

Gladiatorial Activities
Being a candidate for office
Soliciting political funds
Holding public and party office
Attending a caucus or a strategy meeting
Becoming an active member in a political party
Contributing time in a political campaign.
Transitional Activities
Attending a political meeting or rally
Making a monetary contribution to a party candidate
Contacting with public officers or leaders.
Spectator Activities
Voting
Wearing a button or putting a sticker on the car
Making and joining a political discussion,
Influencing others to vote in a particular way.

To conclude on is a complex cons however, Verba, Schlozman, and Brady (2005) summarizes the construct into four activities via electing, get in touch with officials, participation in campaign, and cooperative action.

2.4 POLITICAL PARTY CHOICE:

In a democratic country like India, voters have the right to vote towards a particular party or candidate wherein party or candidate name acts as a brand and choosing a specific party is an important decision. In political marketing, voter choice signifies deciding different political parties and candidates (Nwanganga et al., 2017). In other words, it can be described as past, present or future actions during elections by voters towards electoral party, candidate or authority's working (Okparal, Anuforo and Achor, 2016). According to Sturgis et al. (2009) party, branding follows two approaches:

- *The product-oriented approach* refers to approach by party towards voters using their brand.
- *The consumer-oriented approach* signifies the way and reason behind brand usage by consumers (voters).

For party brands, the consumer-oriented approach discloses the essential elements and reasons which influence electorates decision to vote towards specific party name (Sturgis et al., 2009). However, every political party tries to attract attention by disseminating brand information in the form of promises or manifestos using different media (Achen and Bartels, 2008).

The consistency in news exposure leads to higher knowledge among citizens towards a specific political party (Banducci and Semetko, 2003; Banducci et al., 2017) the active engagement by the party as well as citizens on online media will lead the voters more towards the party (Chong and Druckman, 2007) and the engagement on online media stimulates voting preference (Lefebvre, 2014; Fisher et al., 2016). Moreover, social and economic structures (Shively, 2002), ideology and policies of political parties (Narteh, Mensah and Nyanzu, 2017), interaction and political knowledge (Andersen, Tilley, and Heath, 2005), are found to be significant predictor for voter's choice.

2.5 USE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA, POLITICAL ATTITUDE AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

During the past half century, studies demonstrated the influential role of media in politics. But before that, the question arises, what sort of media do political parties or candidates use to influence general public? What kind of media is being used by general public to get political information? Is there any relation between media usage and political participation? Attempting to answer these questions, many studies shows that media preference for political news and political information is

emphatically related with categories of political participation like interpersonal discussion, voting, protest, political interest etc. (Bakker and de Vreese, 2011; Larkin and Were, 2013). Getting political information from conventional sources like Newspaper and Television is positively related to attending political rallies (Dimitrova et al., 2014). Literature favored to seek political information from television news (McLeod, Scheufele, Moy, 1999; Stromback and Shehata, 2018), newspaper stories (Schulhofer-Wohl and Garrido, 2013), discussion with others on political issues (Brundidge, 2010) to raise political interest in voters. Scholars analysed different media in different studies and revealed that news disclosure through television (De Vreese and Boomgaarden, 2006; Mujani and Liddle, 2010), newspaper (Kentmen, 2010; Snyder and Stromberg, 2008), radio (Kentmen, 2010) and online platforms (Shaker, 2009; Anduiza et al., 2012) are positively associated with political knowledge. Similarly, Wang (2009), Halpern et al., (2017) and Velasquez and Quenette, (2018) reported internet especially social media have positive influence on political efficacy. Conversely, Hoffmann and Lutz (2019) studied mediating effect of self-efficacy with internet use as well as political participation. The study also observed affirmative connection among internet usage, efficacy and political participation. Moreover, researcher deliberated that the freedom to use different avenues is positively related to political participation which includes signing petition, voter turnout etc. (McLeod, Scheufele, and Moy, 1999). Researchers also observed positive correlation of newspaper reading with political participation in cross-sectional studies as well as in longitudinal studies (Shah et al., 2001) including all generation. The study conducted in Australia suggested that conventional media usage along with social media being an

effective communication tool can change the voter decision (Sauter and Bruns, 2013).

Modern elections have changed their form after the successful winning of Ex- president Barak Obama in 2008 presidential elections where the use of internet was to a great extent. Similarly, political participation has been transformed due to proliferation of internet usage (Gil de Zuniga et al., 2010) by performing activities online such as maintaining contact with political associations, joining political groups, or applying a plea (Gil de Zuniga et al., 2009; Bakker and de Vreese, 2011). Vitak et al. (2011) has suggested that there is a strong association of political participation with intensity to use social media amongst college scholars. Social media usage is among the predictor of political participation, where researcher concluded that Facebook as well as Twitter have great influence on political participation than any another kind of online platform (Strandberg, 2013). Boulianne (2015) has conducted the study using 135 different research papers regarding online networking use and political participation and found that 80 per cent of the coefficients have positive association both in community and political life. Therefore, people are showing their political participation by performing activities using traditional media as well as social media. According to IAMAI 2017 Report approximately 90 per cent social media users got political information from social media, whereas, Television and print media are found to be the most trusted media other than social media and digital news to get political information in West Bengal elections.

The studies mentioned above demonstrate that media has played an important role to get electoral news but looking at the void this study proposes following objective to check the relative influence of different media.

Objective 1: To study the relative influence of different media used for political purpose on political attitude and political participation.

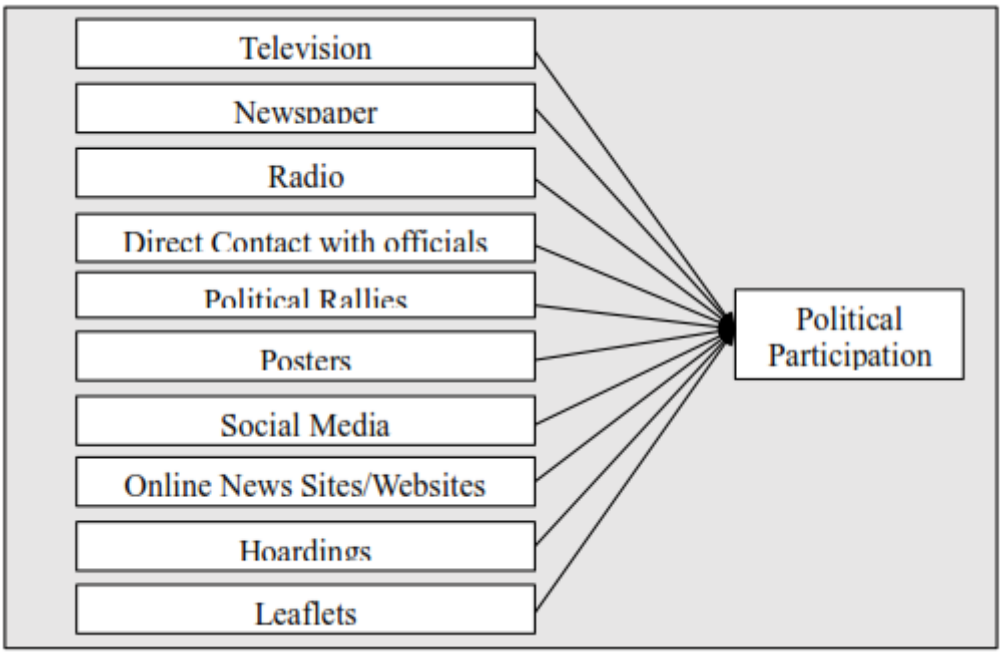


Fig. 2.2: Different Media and Political Attitude

2.6 SOCIAL MEDIA, POLITICAL ATTITUDE AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION:

In several studies, researchers postulated that strong correlation among media use, political attitude and political behaviour is due to the motivation people have to get political information or political knowledge (Wellman et al., 2001; Moy et al., 2005). The use of news media and interpersonal discussion boosts electoral knowledge (Kenski and Stroud, 2006) and observed positive correlation between interpersonal debate and political participation (McLeod et al., 1999). The increased social media usage has to lead to provide various opportunities to get and share political knowledge on social networking sites (Dimitrova et al., 2014). Wang (2009) assessed influence of SNS on attitude and participation keeping in mind the socio-economic status and interpersonal discussion related to

electoral process. He demonstrated that political reviews on social networking sites have a positive association with civic participation and political attitude. On the other hand, some scholars (Jung et al., 2011 and Yamamoto et al., 2013) have given the opposite opinion showing inverse relation of political knowledge with political participation.

Another critical factor that may help to build a positive political attitude and political behaviour is political interest. People with a higher electoral interest have the greater likelihood to participate in electoral activities (Zhang et al., 2010; Holt et al., 2013). Boulianne (2011) conducted a study using penal data and found the positive correlation of digital news use with electoral interest. The study concluded that consumption of online media arouses interest in already politically interested people by engaging them, which results in more civic participation. Holt et al. (2013) suggested that youth shows higher interest in electoral activities on social media. Also, researchers conclude that social media bridges the gap among different generations regarding interest and participation. Hoffmann and Lutz (2019) studied mediating effect of self-efficacy in the relationship of internet use with political participation wherein they observed positive relationship among variables. Consequently, not much work has been done on whether the political social media usage influences political attitudes or not.

Previous studies concluded significant social media's influence on political knowledge and participation (Wojcieszak and Mutz, 2009; Ahmad, Alvi, and Ittefaq, 2019; Brundidge, 2010; Jung et al., 2011), political attitude (De Marco, Robles, and Antino, 2017), political interest (Boulianne, 2011; Holt et al., 2013), political efficacy (Ahmad, Alvi, and Ittefaq, 2019). Furthermore, Abdu, Mohamad, and Muda (2017) postulated a positive correlation of Facebook use with political interest, political participation

(Chan and Guo, 2013; Schmiemann, 2015), political attitude (Papagiannidis and Manika, 2016; De Marco, Robles, and Antino, 2017). The extensive review of the literature mentioned above theorized the different dimensions of social media consumption, political attitude and participation separately. Thus, current study tries to study the influence of political use of social media on political attitude and political participation using following objective.

Objective 2: To study the influence of political use of social media on political attitude and political participation.

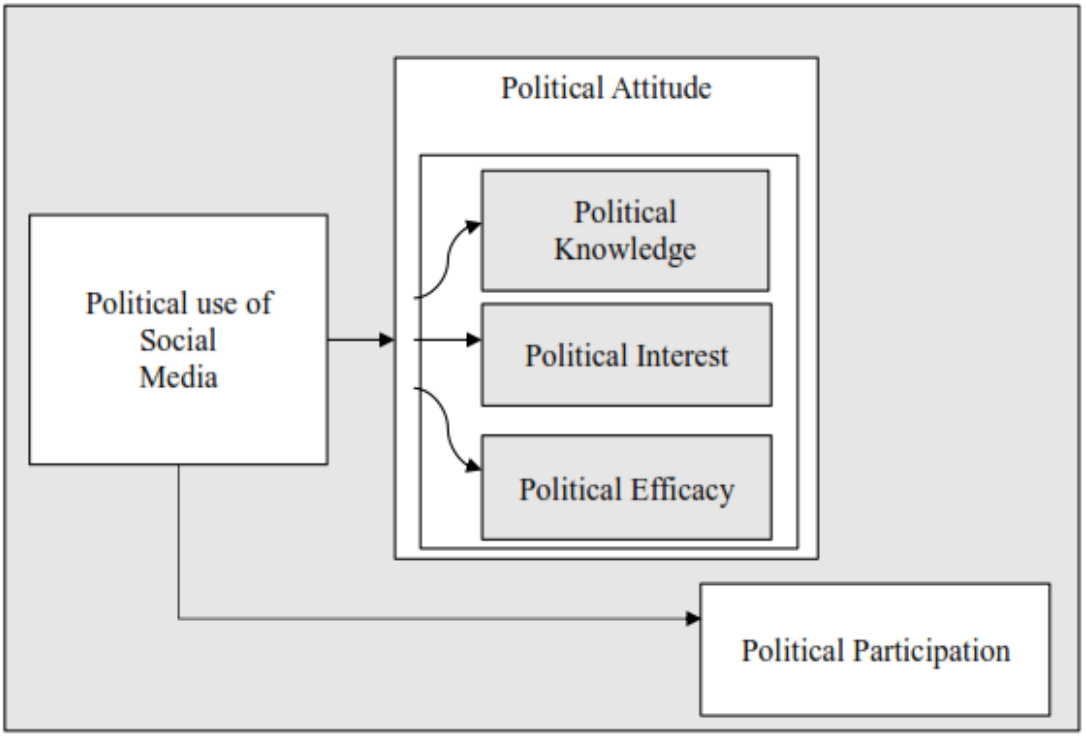


Fig. 2.3: Social Media Use, Political Attitude and Political Participation

2.7 SOCIAL MEDIA USE, VOTER DEMOGRAPHICS AND PARTY CHOICE

In a democratic country like India, citizens decide on the ruling party at different levels through elections which offer the needed association between voter's choice and governments action's (Asher, 1992).

Analysing a voter's choice is very important to understand the voter behaviour from political marketing strategy perspective. To draw an effective political marketing strategy more accurately, political parties need to understand what factors determine the decision of choosing a particular political party. The consistency in news exposure leads to higher knowledge among citizens towards a specific political party (Banducci and Semetko, 2003; Banducci et al., 2017) the active engagement by the party as well as citizens on online media will lead the voters more towards the party (Chong and Druckman, 2007) and the engagement on online media stimulates voting preference (Lefebvre, 2014; Fisher et al., 2016). Therefore, there is a need to highlight the relationship between social media activities on voting preferences (Hillygus and Jackman, 2003). Apart from media usage, several other factors may also affect the decision to choose a particular party or political candidate.

Review of past studies stated that demographics like gender, education, age, income, and profession are the strong predictor for voting behavior (Bone and Ranney, 2000; Campbell et al., 2001; Asher, 2002; Trevor, 2009; Burgess et al., 2000). It is also opined that younger generation is less likely to participate in political affairs than older generation (Dalton, 2006; Holt et al., 2013) due to dearth of political interest (Wattenberg 2007; Wass, 2007). Therefore, age has the positive relation with voting (Lau and Redlawsk, 2008). However, Baines et al. (2005) stated that socio- economic factors, like age and gender, are weak predictors for voting intention as people change their mind quickly. Likewise, family and friends or people on whom they trust are more likely to influence the voter's decision (Cwalina, Falkowski, and Newman, 2012) which may differ according to the marital status of an individual. Also, people get mature with the level of education as their level of understanding increases (Campbell et al., 1960).

Moreover, party offering monitory incentive may attract the lower income people than high income group. Researchers encapsulate positive relationship of income with voter's intention to vote (Kasara and Pavithra, 2015; Lind, 2006). Thus, researchers around the globe have also studied the impact of occupation (Weakliem, 1991), education (Henry, 2005), marital status (Newman, 2012), income (Kasara and Pavithra, 2015) on political party choice.

Literature deliberates that decision to choose a political party or candidate may vary due to Gender, Education, Income, Marital Status and Occupation. Researchers have tried to study the direct relationship of demographics or social media usage with party choice. However, present study proposes the moderating role of voter demographics in the relationship of social media usage and party choice using following objective:

Objective 3: To study the influence of social media use on political party choice with moderating effect of voter demographics.

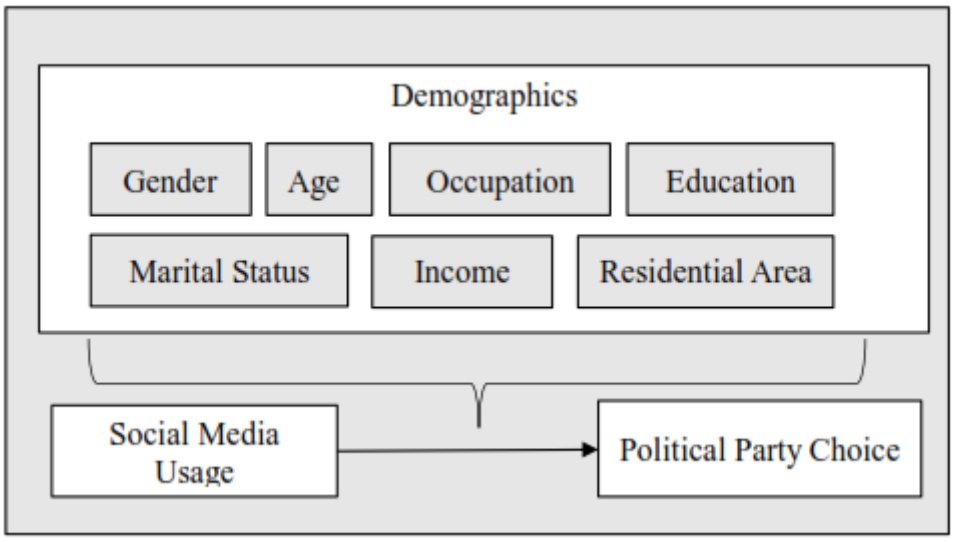


Fig. 2.4: Social Media Use, Voter Demographics and Political Party Choice

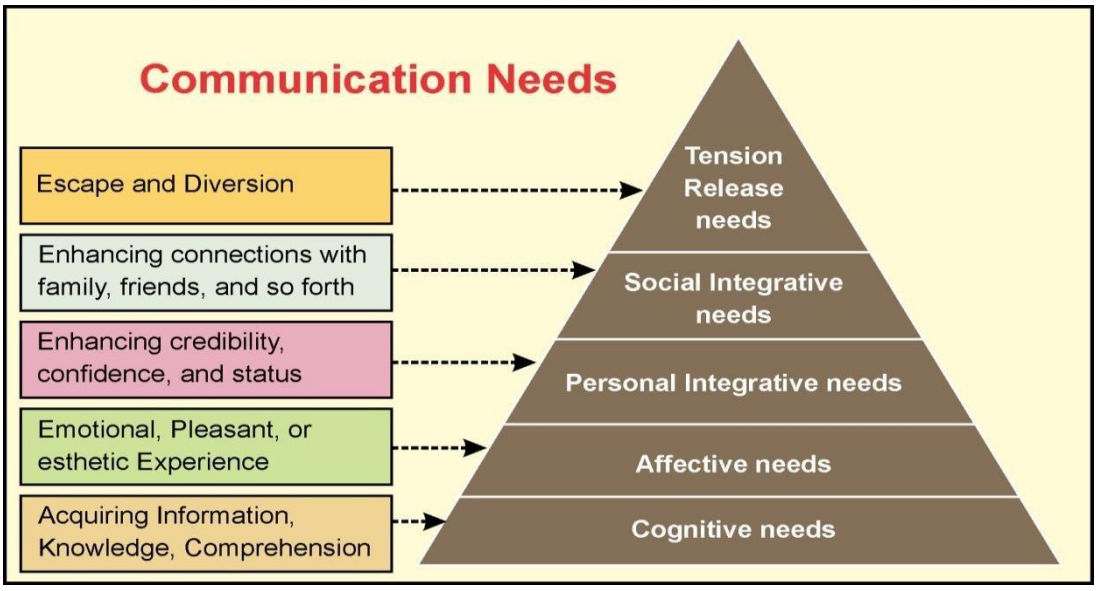
2.8 CONTENT SHARED ON SOCIAL MEDIA & COMMUNICATION NEEDS:

The sudden proliferation of social media usage was seen amid US presidential election 2008; at that time, researchers started evaluating the role of new media in the election campaign. Extensive literature review reveals that social media plays a significant role, but very little literature is available in Indian context as it got boon in General Election 2014. But in marketing context, along with media type, content shared on particular media is also essential, which may influence political participation to a great extent (McLeod, 1999).

Vageer et al. (2011), in his study, reveals that the presence of a political leader on twitter results in attracting large masses through electronic campaigning. Not only the appearance but how they present themselves is also vital. Woolleya et al. (2010) conducted a study, to explore how a politician portrayed himself on Facebook using content analysis of Facebook, deliberates that Barak Obama was portrayed more positively. Similarly, Hsu and Park (2012) conducted a study in South Korea to know the usage pattern of National Assembly members and posited that users have a negative attitude toward these members. Therefore, the type of content reveals the emotions of the users towards the political candidate or party. The social media platforms help to build specific patterns that are used by the analyst for making strategies.

Katz (1959) proposed the Uses and Gratifications approach which is extensively exercised to examine media influence. The proposed theory suggests as media users are aware and obtain knowledge or content according to their desires and interests (Katz et al., 1974; Li et al., 2015). Also, to satisfy the needs and interest, they assimilate the content (Lowery and DeFleur, 1983).

Uses Gratification theory elucidates the ways and patterns of media usage for communication needs. Accordingly, it also explains how people compete each other on media platforms to seek attention by sharing consistent content that matches their needs (Tan, 1985). The needs include sharing information consistently with users (Raacke and Bonds-Raacke, 2008), entertainment, develop personal identities and tension release (Ruggiero, 2000), and integrating with peer members and groups (Raacke and Bonds-Raacke, 2008). This approach extends to individual's activities on new media to remain in touch and engaged with large masses to develop personal identification (Swanson, 1979). Further, Katz et al., (1973) and Tan (1985) subcategorized needs as Cognitive Needs, Affective Needs, Personal Integrative Needs, Social Integrative Needs, and Tension Release Needs.



(**Source :** Katz, Gurevitz & Hass (1973))

Fig. 2.5: Communication Needs

The UG theory has been expanded from various traditional media like television (Mcilwraith, 1998), newspapers (O'Keefe and Sulanowski, 1995) to internet (Stafford, Stafford, and Schkade, 2004) and social media

(Raacke & Bonds-Raacke 2008; Coursaris, Jieun, Van, and Younghwa, 2013; Yoo et al.2014 ; Alhabash, Chiang, and Huang, 2014; Han, Min, and Lee, 2015). Along the same lines, researchers have used different platforms especially Twitter (Chen, 2011; Ballard, 2011; Phua et al., 2017), Facebook (Tanta, Mihovilovic, and Sablic, 2014; Nash, 2015; Phua et al., 2017), Instagram (Oloo, 2013; Phua et al., 2017), YouTube (Hanson and Haridakis, 2008; Wang, 2014; Moller, Baumgartner, Kuhne, and Peter, 2019) to identify motives and needs in different perspectives using uses gratification theory. However, researchers attempted to use different social media platforms separately, hardly few studies available for social media platforms in political context. Therefore, this work attempted to study social media usage by major Indian political parties in satisfying the communication needs of voters through the objective mentioned below.

Objective 4: To study the use of social media by political parties in satisfying the communication needs of voters.

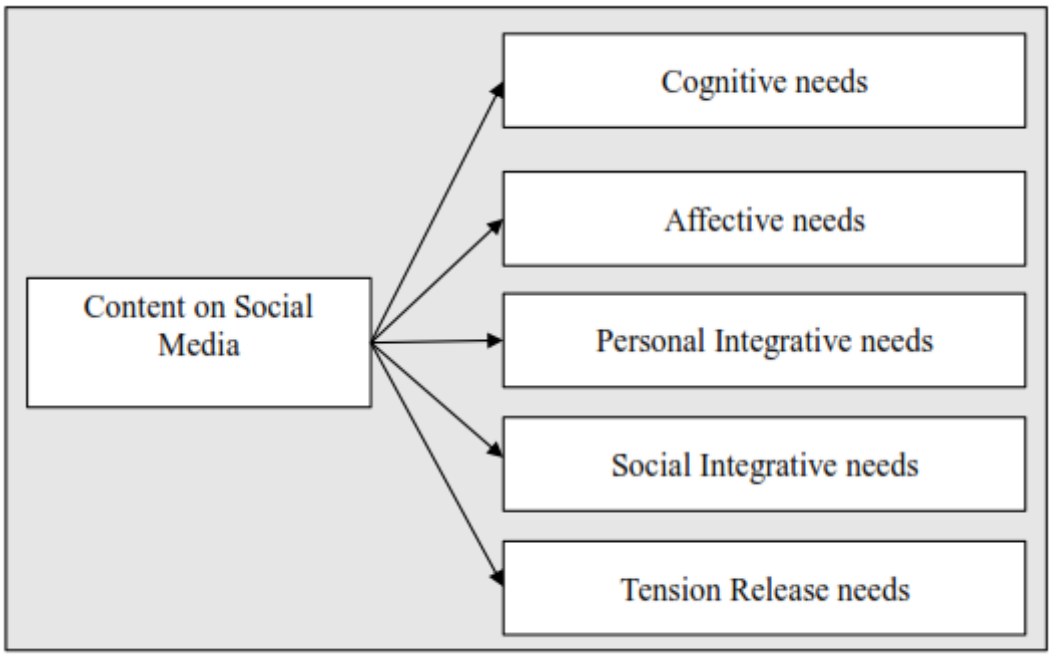


Fig. 2.6: Communication Needs of Voters

2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on entire reviews related to the study. Definitions of various concepts espoused by several authors have been mentioned empirical studies using different media. The review also took in consideration social media especially Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube for political purpose. The conceptual framework which guides the study was critically looked at. Explanations and definitions were professed to the various constructs and their elements in the framework. Based on the thorough review, linkage between various construct has been established and gaps were identified which formed the bases of framing the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER – 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION:

This chapter elucidates and examines methodological considerations crucial for steering the study. Firstly, the chapter presents the research gap identified from the comprehensive evaluation of material accompanied by the objectives of the study created to fill the gap revealed. Next part justifies the research design employed in the study along with sampling processes, sample and sample size. Further, questionnaire development and revision is also covered, and the last section covers the methodologies utilised for data gathering followed by statistical analysis for evaluating the study model.

3.2 NEED AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY:

Modern elections have changed their form of campaigning or information disseminating after the successful winning of Ex-president Barak Obama in 2008 presidential elections where the use of internet was to a great extent. The Indian General election, 2014 was recognized as world's largest

democratic election till now and is also known as #twitter election (Lu et al., 2014), and campaigning was primarily conducted online by major political parties like AAP, BJP and INC etc. for engagement and seeking votes. The use of social media for elections purpose is quite prevalent in India now and is followed by all the political parties. But in comparison the review of literature indicates the dearth of studies undertaken in this field which studies the relationships as specified in the objectives of this study.

Moreover, India is among top ten in term of number of users for most used social media platform in the world with 200 Million users on WhatsApp, 7.65 Million users on Twitter, 300 Million users on Facebook, and on YouTube 41 Million users using on monthly basis. According to Reuters, 52 per cent of Indian social media users use Facebook and 18 per cent use Twitter as a source of news. According to IAMAI Report 2016, 90 per cent of social media users were following state assembly elections on social media and Punjab had total voters 19043122 as on FNL 2016. Therefore, the scope of the present study is limited to voters of Punjab state of India so that the influence of social media on political participation can be studies with a clear focus keeping in mind the state politics which keep on changing from one state to another.

3.3 RESEARCH GAP

The United State presidential election 2008 is the most prominent example for the use of web 2.0 technology in the election, from where the study of social media for the political purpose has attracted the attention of scholars. Researchers state that Obama's victory was the result of successfully crafted online campaigns. Later, General Election 2014 in India is considered as Twitter election because of the successful use of this platform in election campaigning. The relevant review of literature undertaken highlights few dimension which are as follows:

- Evolution of political campaigning in India (Pathak and Patra, 2015; Ahlawat, 2013), Political Branding and Politics as a business (Upadhyaya and Mohindra, 2012; Sarangi, 2016) has been studied.
- Social media and Politics in India has been studied using different dimensions (Parida and Das, 2014; Wani and Alone, 2014; Rajput, 2014; Ravi and Vasundara, 2015; Rekha, 2015).
- Use of different media for political participation has been studied individually in different countries especially in western countries (McLeod, Scheufele, & Moy, 1999; Shah et al., 2001, Sauter and Bruns, 2013; Gil de Zuniga et al., 2010; Strandberg, 2013).
- Numerous scholars have examined the relationships networking use, political attitudes, and political involvement individually (Saad and Salman, 2013; Dimitrova et al., 2014; Gil De Zuniga et al., 2012; Holt et al., 2013; Kesnki and Stroud, 2006).
- In India, the impact of voter demographics and the news media on political party choice has been researched (Kasara and Suryanarayan, 2015; Holt et al., 2013; Newman, 2012).
- Content shared on Facebook and Twitter was analysed to explore how a politician portrayed himself (Wooleya, 2010; Hsu et al., 2012).

The summary of the review of the literature mentioned above suggests that researchers have studied different dimensions of social media in context to political marketing. In past studies, the influence of individual media has been studied, but the present study combines all the media to see their relative influence on voters. Previous studies have studied the influence of social media on political participation, but most of the studies have been carried out in developed countries and not in India. Role of voter demographics in voter's party choice has been studied while exploring the

influence of traditional media but there is a dearth of studies exploring the role of demographics while studying new media specifically social media which this study intend to cover. Literature suggests that studies have been carried out on the usage of social media like Facebook, YouTube and Twitter for political purpose, but very few studies have included WhatsApp and this study tries to fill this void.

There are hardly any studies available that focus on the communication need of voters. Most of the studies have carried out a content analysis to assess the communication of leaders and not on the requirements of the voters. This study intended to make a relationship between the two and present a comprehensive view on the communication needs of voters and how parties or leaders are fulfilling it.

The results of the study will add to the academic knowledge regarding the points to be considered to formulate the online political marketing strategy. Also, the study will be able to help the political parties as well as political candidates to develop strategies to attract the masses and influence their voting decision. Further, the content analysis of social media will help the political parties to know what image a particular party possesses in the eyes of the target population.

3.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

Review of the past study demonstrate different dimensions of media use, political attitude and political participation, but the review also highlights the gaps mentions above, which this study intended to fulfill. Based on the gaps identified, the study aims to explore the relationship between political use of social media, political attitude, and political participation. Figure 3.1 demonstrates the theoretical model used for the study, and the proposed research objectives are as follows:

1) To study the relative influence of different media used for political purpose on political attitude and political participation.

2) To investigate the effect of governmental use of social media on political attitudes and engagement in politics.

3) To examine the effect of social media usage on voters' political party selection, taking into account the mediating effects of voter demographics.

4) To examine how political parties use social media to meet the information needs of voters.

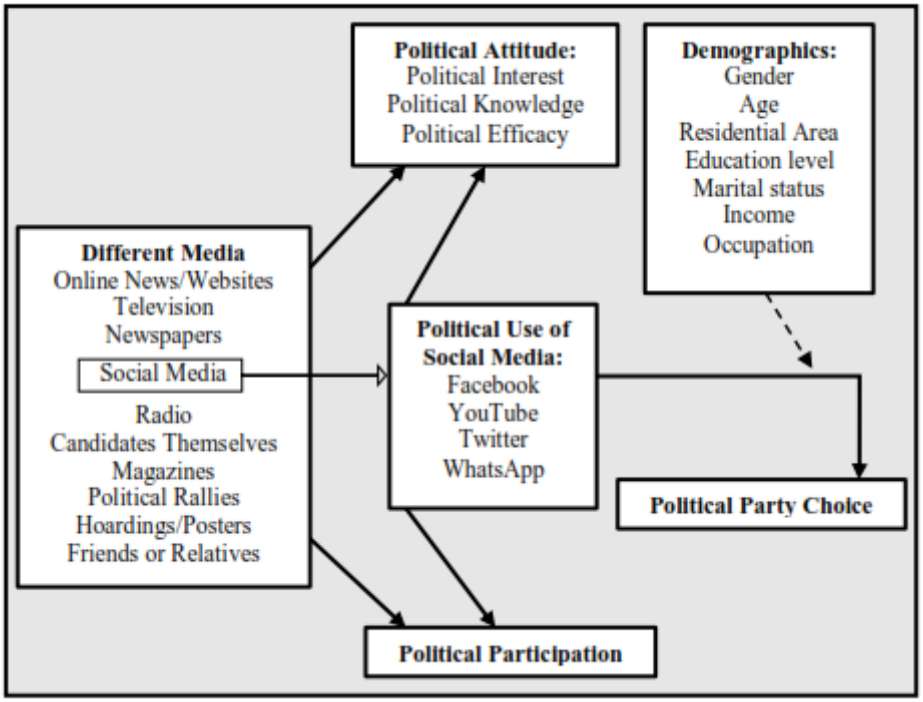


Figure 3.1: Theoretical Model

3.5 HYPOTHESES:

Keeping in mind the objectives framed for the study, following hypotheses are proposed for testing.

(i) H_0 (1): There is no discernible variation in the influence of various media outlets on political attitudes.

(ii) H_0 (1a): There is no discernible difference in the influence of various media outlets on political interest.

(iii) H_0 (1b): There is no discernible variation in the influence of various media outlets on political knowledge.

(iv) H_0 (1c): There is no discernible variation in the influence of various media outlets on political efficacy.

(v) H_0 (2): There are no discernible differences in the influence of various media outlets on political engagement.

(vi) H_0 (3): Social media use has no discernible effect on political attitudes.

(vii) H_0 (3a): Social media use has no discernible effect on political interest.

(viii) H_0 (3b): Social media use has no discernible effect on political understanding.

(ix) H_0 (3c): Social media use has no discernible effect on political efficacy.

(x) H_0 (4): Social media use has no discernible effect on political engagement.

(xi) H_0 (5): Social media use has no discernible effect on political party preference.

(xii) H_0 (6): Gender has no discernible effect on the association between social media use and political party preference.

(xiii) H_0 (7): Age has no discernible effect on the association between social media use and political party preference.

(xiv) H_0 (8): Education has no discernible effect on the association between social media use and political party preference.

(xv) H_0 (9): Income has no discernible effect on the association among social media use and political group preference.

(xvi) H_0 (10): There is no evidence that residential area has a substantial effect on the association between social media use and political party preference.

(xvii) H_0 (11): Marital status has no discernible effect on the connection between social media use and political party preference.

(xviii) H_0 (12): There is little evidence that occupation has a substantial effect on the connection between social media use and political group choice.

3.6 DESIGN OF RESEARCH

The methodological approach that guides and organises the investigation. A research design is a road map for conducting research that comprises data collection using an instrument, how the instrument will be used to measure, and the intended analysis of the results. A cross-sectional study was done for this topic, utilising both an explorative research approach.

The current study employed the qualitative research methods, resulting in a mixed-methods approach. Secondary materials such as journals, books, papers, and articles were used to develop a theoretical foundation. Additionally, the study investigated official pages of political parties on various web platforms using content analysis, a technique used in qualitative research. The current study, which is a quantitative study, gathered primary data through the use of a structured questionnaire.

3.7 SAMPLE SIZE AND METHODOLOGY:

The current study is focused on studying the influence of political use of social media on political attitude, political participation and voters' political party choice in Punjab. The target population for this are the voters of Punjab. A sample of 500 voters was targeted. The sample size of 500 voters is calculated based on total voter number, confidence level, the

margin of error and then using an online sample size calculator (www.raosoft.com/samplesize.html). The sample size of 500 was found to be appropriate for total voters 19043122 as on FNL 2016 available on the website of Chief Electoral Officer, Punjab, at a confidence level of 95% and the margin of error 5%. Three questionnaires were found to be incomplete thus were not used for final analysis so in total 497 voters consisted the final sample.

To remove the bias in choosing a sample, multistage quota sampling was used. Punjab is divided into three regions namely Malwa, Majha and Doaba and to make the sample representative 25% of districts were picked up from each region making a total of 5 districts as illustrated in figure 3.2. In second stage based on the population of the district, the districts of Uttar Pradesh were arranged from highest population to lowest population. The top districts from each region were taken and the five districts Kasgang, Etha, Aligarh, Badaun, Bareilly were finally selected. Even without considering the three region of Uttar Pradesh, the same five districts emerged to be the top five districts based upon population of the district. A sample of 100 respondents was selected from each district to make a total sample of 500 from Uttar Pradesh state. Further care was taken to ensure there are representative of four major political parties in Uttar Pradesh viz. “Indian National Congress”, “Bharatiya Janata Party”, “Samaj waadi Party ” and “Bahujan Samaaz Party”. For qualitative research, official handles of Twitter, Instagram and YouTube of “Indian National Congress”,BJP, Samajbaadi Party and Bahujan Samaaz Party is used.

3.8 DATA COLLECTION TOOL AND METHOD

To meet the study's aims, a questionnaire method is employed. The questionnaire is divided into sections that each reflect a separate variable. These are the:

(A) ***Use of Media:*** The first segment contains questions about the various media outlets via which individuals obtain political information. On a five-point scale ranging from 'Never' to 'Frequently,' participants were asked to indicate their frequency of use of various media.

(B) ***Political Participation:*** This portion of the questionnaire contains statements that assess political activity on a five-point scale ranging from 'Never' to 'Always'. It includes how frequently they vote in elections, contact politicians or public officials, donate money to political parties, sign political petitions, join political groups or campaigns, attend protests or political rallies, send emails to politicians, visit campaign or candidate websites, participate in an online question and answer session with a politician or public official, and so on. The scale contains items that are comparable to those used in previous studies by Gil de Zuniga et al. (2012) and Dimitrova et al. (2014).

(C) ***Political Attitude:*** Political attitude is a psychological tendency that responds favorably and unfavorably towards political affairs, political candidate, and political party. Political attitude is measured using the three variables political efficacy, political knowledge and political interest.

The researchers used a scale of political efficacy based on items from the American National Election Studies (Kenski and Stroud, 2006; Lee, 2006), which include statements such as "I consider myself to be well qualified in politics, I am more informed, I have a fairly good grasp of politics, and I have a say in what the government does" on a five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Additionally, the researcher (Jung, Kim, and Gil de Zuniga, 2011) included statements such as "people like me can influence government decisions," "people like me truly do not understand what is going on in politics," and "when people band together to demand change, government leaders listen." These statements act as a

mediator in information seeking and political participation. After confirming the scale's reliability and validity, the current study combined these scales to assess political efficacy.

Political knowledge is measured using modified scales developed by researchers in previous studies (Kenski and Stroud, 2006 and Dimitrova et al., 2011). The present study modified the items in the Indian context, for example, “Who is the current President of India? Who conducts the Parliament and State Legislatures Elections in India?” The correct answer of the statement is taken as sufficient knowledge and incorrect answer or don’t know response was considered as insufficient knowledge. Respondents were asked how interested they are in local-level politics, national-level politics and international politics on a five point scale to measure political interest (Rojas and Puig-I- Abril, 2009).

(D) *Political Party Choice:* Major four political parties of India were considered for the present study, which includes two national and two state parties. Respondents were asked to give their preference for each party on a five-point scale.

3.9 APPROPRIATENESS AND RELIABILITY:

Sekaran (2003) contend, it’s important to assure that the scales developed and used measure variables accurately and correctly. Therefore, the questionnaire was undergone for expert review and pilot testing. Firstly, the questionnaire was given to panel of 5 experts familiar with the construct to check face validity and ensure that language and content is readable and understandable by the targeted audience. It also ensured that the scale appears to measure what it is intended to measure. Further, a subset of 50 responses was collected to measure reliability. Table 3.1 depicts that Cronbach alpha values for each scale is above the prescribed standard values of 0.7, means the questionnaire is fit for final data collection.

Table 3.1: Reliability Statistics

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Social Media Usage	0.937	5
Facebook	0.741	14
Twitter	0.877	11
YouTube	0.703	6
WhatsApp	0.733	4
Political Attitude	0.733	15
Political Participation	0.711	12

3.10 TOOLS FOR STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Appropriate statistical tools were used to accomplish the study's objectives in accordance with the study's requirements. Both constructs were measured on a five-point scale for the first objective, which was to determine the relative influence of various media on political engagement. The second purpose is to investigate the impact of political use of social media on political attitudes and engagement, and regression analysis was employed to accomplish this. Thirdly, the researcher attempted to determine the effect of social media usage on voter demographics on their political party choice. To achieve the intended results, Partial Least Square Structured Equation Modeling was applied. Additionally, descriptive, correlation, and other approaches were employed to obtain the required results. To meet the fourth objective, the content was analysed using R Software.

CHAPTER – 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, analysis has been carried out on the basis of data collected, which has been presented in five sections. To begin with descriptive statistics is presented followed by influence of different media on political attitude and political participation, influence of social media political activities on political attitude and political participation, influence of social media usage on political party choice. Last but not the least, communication needs of voters have been analyzed. The different analysis techniques such as descriptive statistics, Correlation, Regression Analysis, Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling, Content Analysis, Sentiment Analysis etc. has been deployed to achieve the desired results. Descriptive statistics are presented before the discussion on data analysis conducted to fulfill the objectives.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS:

Before proceeding with final analysis, it is essential to discuss the respondents profile using frequency distribution for better understanding of analysis and results.

4.2.1 Demographic Profile

The final sample consisted of 497 respondents out of which 51.9 per cent were males and 48.1 per cent were females as depicted in Table 4.1. In addition, 29.8 per cent of respondents were in the age category of 18 to 25 years, whereas 16.6 per cent were between 26 to 35 years of age, 23.5 per cent were between 36 to 45 years of age and 20.1 per cent were more than 40 years of age. Further in terms of level of education, 23.3 per cent has education below or till matric, 20.3 has passed senior secondary, 28.2 per

cent has graduation degree, 24.7 per cent has passed post- graduation while 3.4 per cent were in category which included degrees like diploma etc. With regard to employment status of the respondents, the highest number of respondents are students at 30.2 per cent, second highest is at 18.5 per cent who are self-employed and the third highest is private sector employees at 17.3 per cent, and the fourth are government employees at 16.1 per cent, fifth category is unemployed at 12.3 per cent, and lastly 5.6 per cent consist of retired persons. With respect to the monthly income of respondents, 40.2 per cent respondents have an income level below 10000 rupees per month, while 14.3 per cent between 10001 to 20000 rupees per month. Similarly, 16.1 per cent respondents earn monthly income between 20001 to 30000 rupees per month. Those who stated to have income between 30001 to 40000 rupees per month were 14.9 per cent of total respondents and, 14.5 per cent respondents have reported an income above 40000 rupees per month.

Observing the marital status of the respondents, 50.1 per cent of them are unmarried whereas 49.9 per cent of respondents that falls under the married category. As far as residential area is concerned, 48.5 per cent of respondents live in urban area and 51.5 per cent belong to rural area.

Table 4.1: Demographic Profile

Demographics	Indicators	Frequency	Per cent
Gender	Male	258	51.9
	Female	239	48.1
Age	18-25	148	29.8
	26-35	132	26.6
	36-45	117	23.5
	Above 45	100	20.1

Education	Matric	116	23.3
	Senior Secondary	101	20.3
	Graduation	140	28.2
	Post-Graduation	123	24.7
	Others	17	3.4
Occupation	Student	150	30.2
	Self Employed	92	18.5
	Private Employee	86	17.3
	Govt. Employee	80	16.1
	Retired	28	5.6
	Unemployed	61	12.3
Demographics	**Indicators**	**Frequency**	**Per cent**
Monthly Income	0-10000	200	40.2
	10001-20000	71	14.3
	20001-30000	80	16.1
	30001-40000	74	14.9
	Above 40000	72	14.5
Marital Status	Unmarried	249	50.1
	Married	248	49.9
Area	Urban	241	48.5
	Rural	256	51.5

(**Source:** Survey Based)

4.2.2 Most Used Social Media Platform

Further, the analysis of social media usage pattern was done. Respondents were asked to select the social media platform which they have used the most in past one year. Data in Table 4.2 reveals that WhatsApp is found being the most used social media by almost half of the respondents. Similarly, YouTube is found to be second most used by 24.5 per cent people whereas, Facebook was selected by only 9.6 per cent people followed by Instagram (9.2 per cent). However, Twitter is the least

used media with only 0.4 per cent respondents using it. Moreover, YouTube, Facebook and Blogs are more used by males than females opted Instagram and WhatsApp as most used social media platforms as compared to males. Looking at the age groups, WhatsApp, YouTube, and Instagram are most used by people below 35 years, on the other hand people above 35 years of age prefer WhatsApp, YouTube, and Facebook. Thus, WhatsApp and YouTube are most used social media platform irrespective of age.

Additionally, the frequencies of average number of visits on most preferred social media platform is analyzed and found that 26.8 per cent of respondents visited more than 15 times on an average on weekday, while 25.4 per cent of respondents visited 5 to 9 times, 20.7 per cent of respondents visited 10 to 15 times, 19.9 per cent of respondents visited 3 to 4 times and only 7.2 per cent of respondents visited once or twice. The frequency of visiting on most preferred social media platforms was higher for females as compared to males. While in the context of age, the frequency of visiting a particular social media platform is higher for people below 35 years of age than older people.

Table 4.2: Social Media User Pattern

	Indicators	Frequency	Per cent
Social Media Platforms	Facebook	48	9.7
	Twitter	2	0.4
	YouTube	122	24.5
	Blogs	7	1.4
	WhatsApp	249	50.1
	Others	23	4.6
	Instagram	46	9.3

Frequency of Visit	0-2 times	36	7.2
	3-4 times	99	19.9
	5-9 times	126	25.4
	10-15 times	103	20.7
	More than 15 times	133	26.8
Average Time Spent	Less than 30 Minutes	98	19.7
	30 minutes -1 hour	153	30.8
	1-2 hours	106	21.3
	2-5 hours	87	17.5
	More than 5 hours	53	10.7

(**Source:** Survey Based)

Furthermore, data was analyzed to identify the average time spent by people on their most used social media platform. Results in Table 4.2 reveal that on an average 30.8 per cent respondents have spent half to one hour in a visit to most used social media platform. While, 21.3 per cent have spent one to two hours on each visit, 19.7 per cent have spent less than half an hour, 17.5 per cent have spent between two to five hours, however it was observed that 10.7 per cent respondents have spent more than 5 hours. Moreover, no much difference is found on time spent per visit between males and females. In terms of age, although the frequency of visiting on a particular social media platform is higher by people below 35 years of age, average time is less than 30 minutes by majority of them.

4.2.3 Different Media Used for Political Purpose

Further, data was analyzed to identify the most used media to get political information. Figure 4.1 shows that most used media for political information are Social Media (x =3.36), Television (x =3.06), and Friends or Relatives (x =3.00) However, least used media are Political Rallies (x =1.87), Radio (x =1.94), and Candidates Themselves (x =2.06). In other

words, social media (23.8 per cent) is found to be the most frequently and often used media followed by Television (15.26 per cent). Likewise, people prefer to discuss with friends and relatives (12.6 per cent) to gather political information. On contrary, people do not prefer to go political rallies or candidates (0.03 per cent) for seeking information. Radio was found to be least used media (0.03 percent).

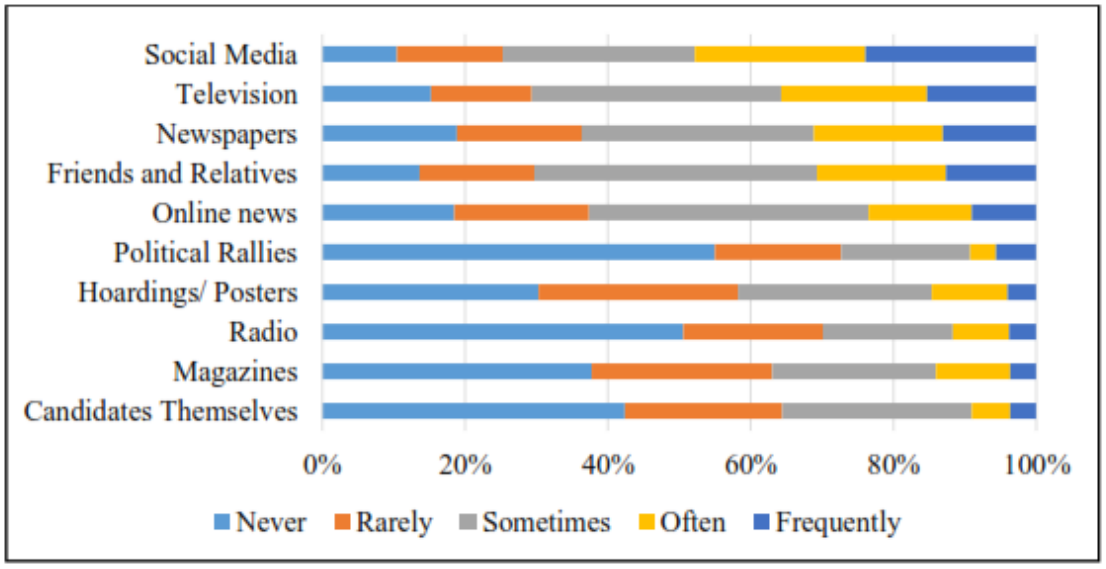


Fig. 4.1: Different Media Used for Political Information

Political use of Facebook was measured using actions taken by general public either to seek or share information for political purpose on this platform. The study foundess activities by respondents as mean of each item varies between 1.58 to 2.09. As evident from the responses presented in Figure 4.2, the activities on Facebook undertaken in preferred sequence are posting or sharing a photo or link or video (x =2.09), updating status (x =1.98), writing or sharing a note (x =1.97), watching live streaming on Facebook (x =1.88), posting wall comment (x =1.88), clicking "Like" on a political party or politician's fan page (x =1.83), clicking option of participation in event ('Going', 'Not Going' or 'May be') (x =1.83), befriended a politician on Facebook (x =1.73), left a political group (x =1.65), receiving direct message

from a political party/politician (x =1.63), joined a political group (x =1.61), live on Facebook (x =1.60), sending direct message to a political party/politician (x =1.60), group chat about politics (x =1.58). Overall, amongst all it can be stated that people always like to share (5.2 per cent), status update (6.4 percent), watch live streaming (4.8 per cent) related to politics posted by themselves or others on Facebook.

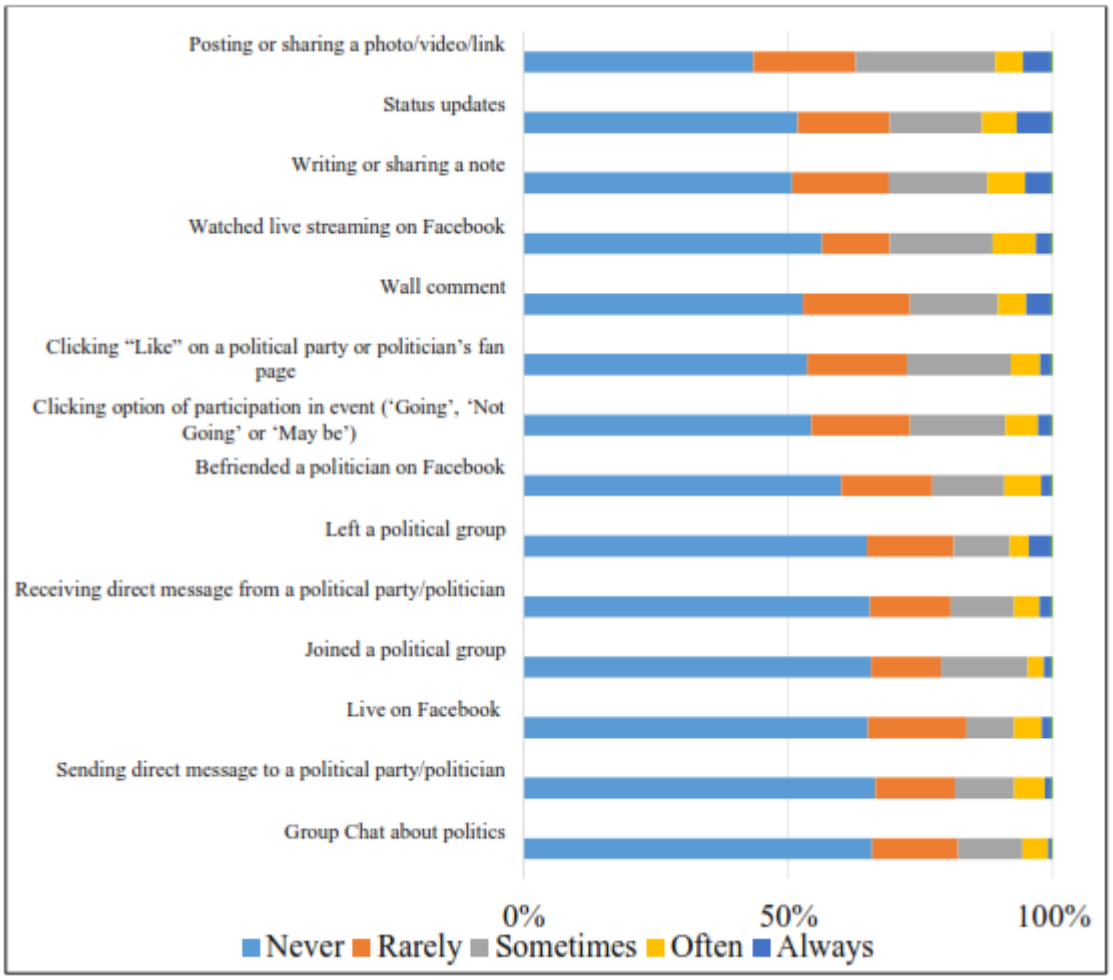


Fig. 4.2: Facebook Usage for Political Purpose

4.2.5 Political use of Twitter

Another significant platform for politics is Twitter wherein different activities are performed by general public as well as political actors. Although, Twitter was observed as significant platform, very less activities have been carried out by the respondents than on all other social media platforms. Moreover, all activities such as following a politician or a political party (x =1.43), joining a political debate (x =1.42), joining a political discussion (x =1.42), replying a tweet about politics (x =1.41), sending direct message to a political party/politician (x =1.40), mentioning a politician or a political party (x =1.39), receiving direct message from a political party/politician (x =1.38), re-tweeting or quoting a tweet (x =1.38), posting a tweet (x =1.37) respectively are found to be rarely used. On and average 78 per cent respondents had never used Twitter for political purpose.

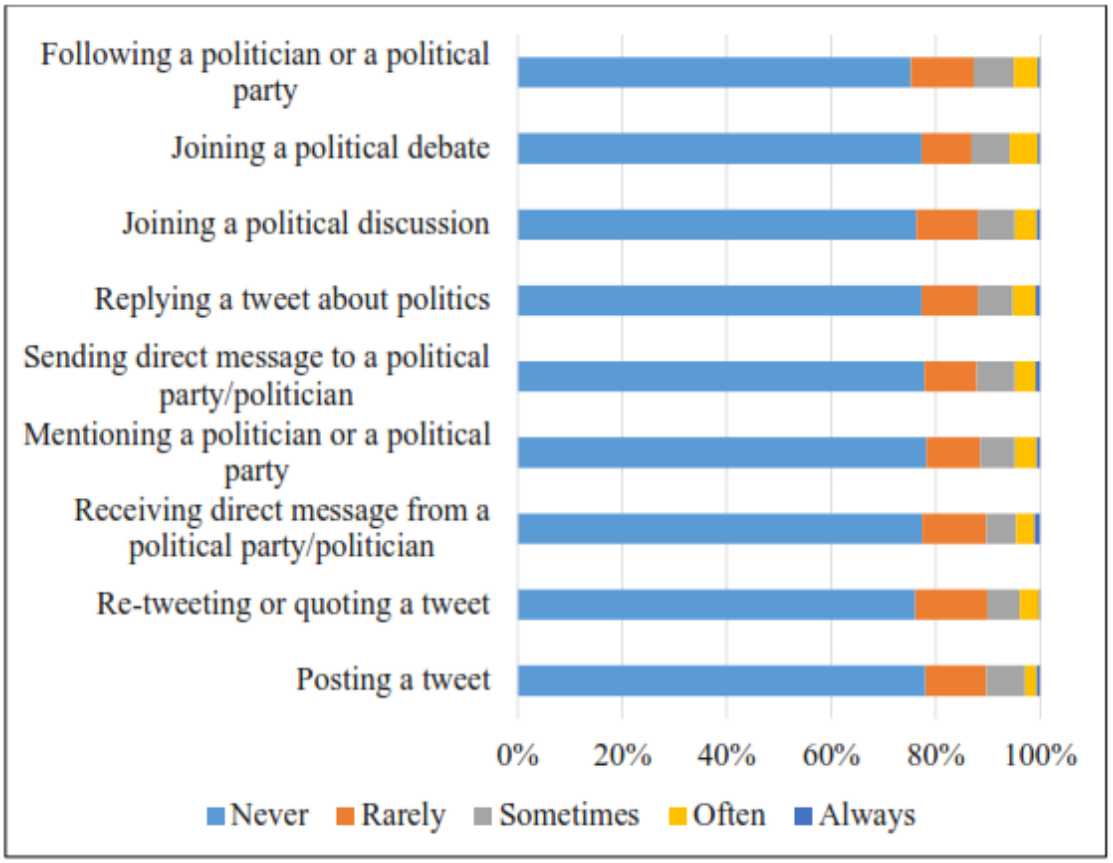


Fig. 4.3: Twitter Usage for Political Purpose

4.2.6 Political use of YouTube:

YouTube is a video sharing service that allows users to watch videos posted by other users and upload videos of their own. For current study, YouTube was found to be second most used media. Among different activities on YouTube, the mean value for subscribing a political channel is 2.09, for sharing a political video is 2.08, for watched live steaming about politics is 2.03, for posting a comment on video posted by political party/leader is 1.99, for being live on YouTube is 1.80, for uploading a video regarding politics is 1.78. Although, majority of people did not upload, posted a comment or went live, but it was found that more than fifty per cent of respondents subscribed to YouTube channel, share video and watched live streaming which means people do not create their own content but receive or share user generated content by others.

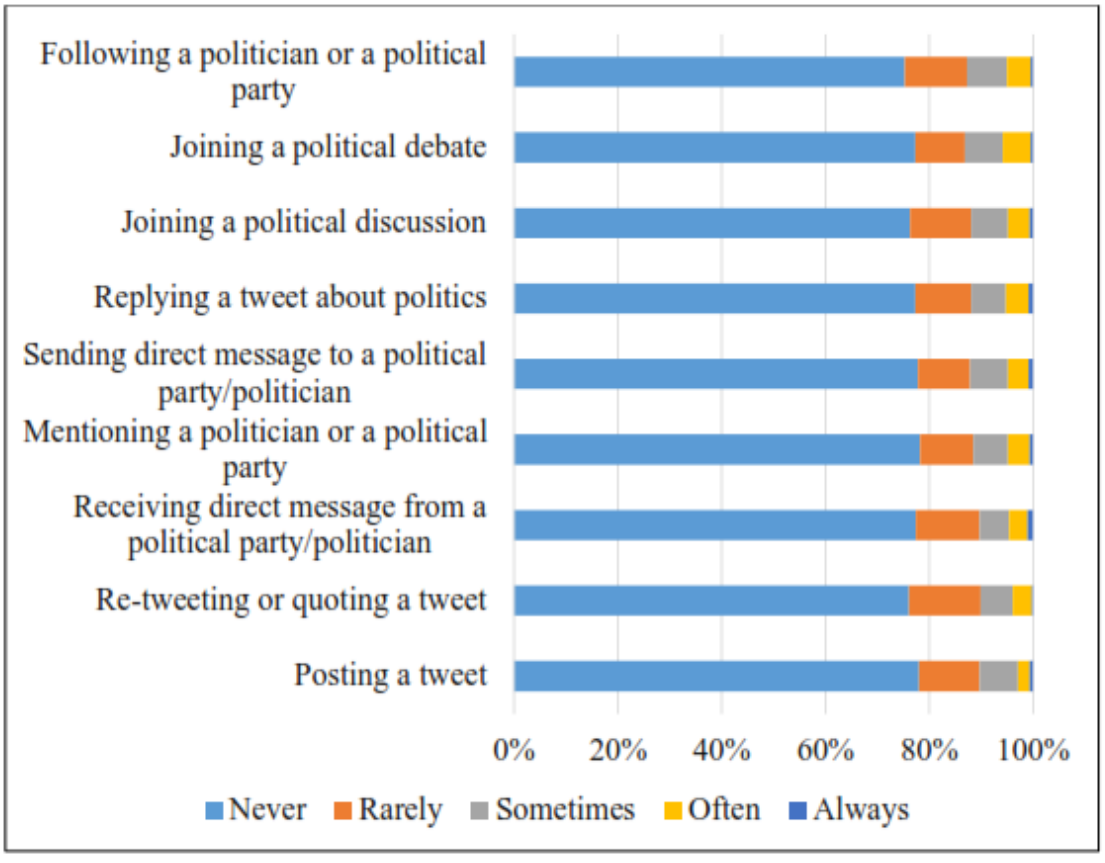


Fig. 4.4: YouTube Usage for Political Purpose

4.2.7 Political use of WhatsApp

WhatsApp allows users to send text messages, voice messages and share images, documents, and other media. WhatsApp is observed to be most used social media platform by respondents wherein sharing a message/photo with friend (x =2.73), sharing a political message/photo in a group (x =2.48), updating status in support or against politics (x =2.32), joining group of political party/leader (x =1.96) are major activities carried out by them. Citizens are found to be often sharing a political message or photo either personally (29.71 per cent) or in a group (27.5 per cent).

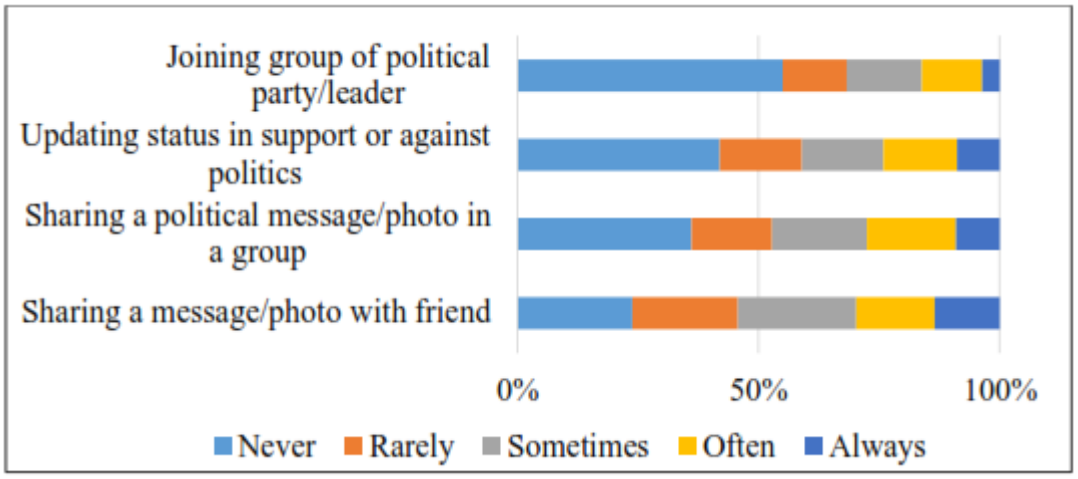


Fig. 4.5: WhatsApp Usage for Political Purpose

4.3 RELATIVE INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA USED FOR POLITICAL PURPOSE ON POLITICAL ATTITUDE AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

In this section, an attempt had been made to study the relative influence of different media used for political purpose on political attitude and political participation. In which ten different media namely Online News/Websites, Television, Newspapers, Social Media, Radio, Candidates themselves, Magazines, Political Rallies, Hoardings/Posters and Friends or Relatives are taken into consideration as an independent variable, whereas, political

attitude and political participation are considered as dependent variable. Regression analysis was used to achieve this objective of measuring the influence.

4.3.1 Model Fit - Regression Analysis

To begin with the significance of model to study the influence on political attitude, political participation by different media, the F value for the Model 1 and Model 5 is 12.048 and 22.393 respectively with P-value less than 0.05 which represents that the models are appropriate for regression analysis. In other words, these media whether broadcasting, print, outdoor, or new media can significantly influence political attitude and political participation. Further to dig down, components of political attitude i.e. political interest, political knowledge and political efficacy are taken as dependent variables in Model 2, 3 and 4 respectively for analyzing the influence of different media. The F value for Model 2 is 7.831, Model 3 is 7.105 and Model 4 is 9.345 at 95 per cent confidence level which means these models were also found to be fit for running a regression analysis.

As the models were found fit for regression analysis, the mean of residuals for all the models is 0.00, which depicts the normality of residuals (Flury and Riedwyl, 1988). Besides, for further analysis another assumption is that the data set should be free from outliers. An outlier is having extreme values or abnormal combination of scores that may disturb the data and regression analysis is highly sensitive to outliers which can be detected using Mahalanobi's Distance value (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). To meet the assumption of outliers, Mahalanobi's Distance value was checked and found to be under critical value i.e. 29.59 for degree of freedom 10 at p-value less than 0.001. The values in Table 4.3 indicate that no outlier exists in the data set as Mahalanobi's Distance values are under the threshold value for 10 degree of freedom, which is also tested using boxplot. The normality curve of dependent variables in

each model shows that the data is close to normal as depicted in Q-Q plot and scatter plot.

Table 4.3: Residual Statistics

Model		Max	Std. Deviation
1	Mahal. Distance	28.514	5.448
	Cook's Distance	0.058	0.004
2	Mahal. Distance	28.514	5.448
	Cook's Distance	0.027	0.003
3	Mahal. Distance	28.112	5.451
	Cook's Distance	0.031	0.003
4	Mahal. Distance	28.514	5.448
	Cook's Distance	0.06	0.004
5	Mahal. Distance	28.514	5.448
	Cook's Distance	0.025	0.003

Furthermore, no multicollinearity should exist in dataset for regression analysis Multicollinearity can be tested by VIF and tolerance value. If VIF value exceeds 4.0, or tolerance less than 0.2 then there is a problem with multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010). Perhaps most commonly, a value of 0.10 is recommended as the minimum level of tolerance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). However, a recommended minimum value as high as 0.20 has also been suggested and a value of 0.25 can be seen used in the literature (Huber and Stephens, 1993). VIF and Tolerance value in Table 4.4 for Online News/Websites, Television, Newspapers, Social Media, Radio, Candidates Themselves, Magazines, Political Rallies, Hoardings/Posters and Friends or Relatives are under the prescribed standard values, which ensured that no multicollinearity existed in the respective models.

Table 4.4: Multicollinearity Test

	Tolerance	VIF
Online news/Websites/ News Portals	0.685	1.459
Television	0.675	1.481
Newspapers	0.677	1.478
Social Media	0.717	1.395
Radio	0.525	1.905
Candidates Themselves	0.497	2.011
Magazines Political	0.527	1.898
Rallies Hoardings/	0.428	2.336
Posters Friends and	0.574	1.741
Relatives	0.789	1.267

Moreover, Pearson correlation value between variables should be less than 0.08 (Allison, 1999; Cooper and Schindler, 2003) for no multicollinearity. For Model 1, Table 4.5 shows correlation of political attitude with Online News/Websites (r =0.291, P-value<0.05), Television (r =0.228, P-value<0.05), Newspapers (r =0.285, P-value<0.05), Social Media (r =0.302, P-value<0.05), Radio (r =0.228, P- value<0.05), Candidates Themselves (r =0.302, P-value<0.05), Magazines (r =0.24, P-value<0.05), Political Rallies (r =0.268, P-value<0.05), Hoardings/Posters (r =0.225, P-value<0.05) and Friends or Relative (r =0.214, P-value <0.05) which indicates significantly moderate linear relationship between them. Also, correlation between all independent variables (see Table 4.5) are below the standard value (r =0.8). Thus, no problem of multicollinearity was detected in proposed Model 1.

Similarly for Model 2, Table 4.5 shows the correlation between political interest and Online News/Websites (r =0.282, P-value<0.05), Television (r

=0.176, P- value<0.05), Newspapers (r =0.218, P-value<0.05), Social Media (r =0.248, P- value<0.05), Radio (r =0.182, P-value<0.05), Candidates Themselves (r =0.239, P- value<0.05), Magazines (r =0.205, P-value<0.05), Political Rallies (r =0.194, P- value<0.05), Hoardings/Posters (r =0.191, P-value<0.05) and Friends or Relatives (r =0.19, P-value<0.05) which indicates significantly low to moderate linear relationship between them. Also, correlation between all independent variables are below the standard value (r =0.8). Thus, no problem of multicollinearity found in Model 2 as well.

For Model 3, Table 4.5 shows correlation of political efficacy with Online News/Websites (r =0.189, P-value<0.05), Television (r =0.164, P-value<0.05), Newspapers (r =0.22, P-value<0.05), Social Media (r =0.255, P-value<0.05), Radio (r =0.192, P-value<0.05), Candidates Themselves (r =0.244, P-value<0.05), Magazines (r =0.216, P-value<0.05), Political Rallies (r =0.219, P-value<0.05), Hoardings/Posters (r =0.201, P-value<0.05) and Friends or Relatives (r =0.177, P-value<0.05) which indicates significantly low to moderate linear relationship between them. Also, correlation between all independent variables are below the standard value (r =0.8). Thus, no problem of multicollinearity found in Model 3.

For Model 4, Table 4.5 shows correlation of political knowledge with Online News/Websites (r =0.226, P-value<0.05), Television (r =0.237, P-value<0.05), Newspapers (r =0.275, P-value<0.05), Social Media (r =0.224, P-value<0.05), Radio (r =0.212, P-value<0.05), Candidates Themselves (r =0.259, P-value<0.05), Magazines (r =0.21, P-value<0.05), Political Rallies (r =0.263, P-value<0.05), Hoardings/Posters (r =0.139, P-value<0.05) and Friends or Relatives (r =0.137, P- value<0.05) which indicates significantly low to moderate linear relationship between them. Also, correlation between all independent variables are below the

standard value (r =0.8). Thus, no problem of multicollinearity found in Model 4.

Table 4.5: Correlation Matrix: Different Media, Political Interest, Political Knowledge, Political Efficacy, Political Attitude, Political Participation

	PP	PI	PE	PK	PA	ON	TV	NP	SM	RD	CT	MZ	PR	HP	FR
ON	0.32*	0.282*	0.189*	0.226*	0.291*	1									
TV	0.266*	0.176*	0.164*	0.237*	0.228*	0.295*	1								
NP	0.308*	0.218*	0.22*	0.275*	0.285*	0.369*	0.497*	1							
SM	0.319*	0.248*	0.255*	0.224*	0.302*	0.471*	0.292*	0.303*	1						
RD	0.315*	0.167*	0.192*	0.212*	0.228*	0.248*	0.35*	0.309*	0.151*	1					
CT	0.391*	0.239*	0.244*	0.259*	0.302*	0.182*	0.241*	0.217*	0.192*	0.515*	1				
MZ	0.311*	0.169*	0.216*	0.21*	0.24*	0.205*	0.275*	0.204*	0.144*	0.535*	0.574*	1			
PR	0.43*	0.194*	0.219*	0.263*	0.268*	0.227*	0.185*	0.199*	0.131*	0.596*	0.619*	0.609*	1		
HP	0.255*	0.191*	0.201*	0.139*	0.225*	0.287*	0.263*	0.248*	0.19*	0.511*	0.5*	0.486*	0.576*	1	
FR	0.283*	0.19*	0.177*	0.137*	0.214*	0.128*	0.164*	0.195*	0.238*	0.28*	0.404*	0.287*	0.306*	0.315*	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), PP =Political Participation, PI =Political Interest, PE =Political Efficacy, PK =Political Knowledge, PA =Political Attitude, ON =Online News/Websites/News Portal, TV =Television, NP =Newspaper, SM =Social Media, RD =Radio, CT =Candidates Themselves, MZ =Magazines, PR =Political Rallies, HP =Hoardings/Posters, FR =Friends and Relatives*

Lastly for Model 5, Table 4.5 shows correlation of political participation with Online News/Websites (r =0.32, P-value<0.05), Television (r =0.266, P- value<0.05), Newspapers (r =0.308, P-value<0.05), Social Media (r =0.319, P- value<0.05), Radio (r =0.315, P-value<0.05), Candidates Themselves (r =0.391, P- value<0.05), Magazines (r =0.311, P-value<0.05), Political Rallies (r =0.43, P- value<0.05), Hoardings/Posters (r =0.255, P-value<0.05) and Friends or Relatives (r =0.283, P-value<0.05) which indicates significantly low to moderate linear relationship between them. Also, correlation between all independent variables are below the standard value (r =0.8). Thus, no problem of multicollinearity found in Model 5. All the models suggested to achieve the objective meets all the assumptions of running the regression analysis.

4.3.2 INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA ON POLITICAL ATTITUDE

On running regression analysis, Model 1 in Table 4.6 reveals that 18.2 per cent variance is explained by Online News/Websites, Television, Newspapers, Social Media, Radio, Candidates Themselves, Magazines, Political Rallies, Hoardings / Posters and Friends or Relatives. Wherein, Social Media (ß =1.126, t =3.135, P- value <0.05) followed by Newspaper (ß =0.967, t =2.561, P-value <0.05), direct contact with candidates (ß =1.258, t =2.486, P-value<0.05), Online News/ Websites/ News Portals (ß =0.933, t =2.357, P-value <0.05) are observed as the positive significant predictor of political attitude. In other words, positive attitude towards political actors either process or candidates or parties can be built with the increased usage of social media, newspaper, online news and contacting political candidates. Likewise, political rallies (ß =0.808,

t =1.552, P-value >0.05), discussion with friends and relatives (ß =0.427, t =1.129, P-value >0.05), television (ß =0.253, t =0.658, P-value >0.05), and magazines (ß =0.22, t =0.468, P-value >0.05) have found positive influence on political attitude but insignificantly. Insignificant negative influence is also found for Hoardings/ Posters (ß =-0.184, t =-0.395, P- value >0.05) and Radio (ß =-0.191, t =-0.396, P-value >0.05) on political attitude. The results of hypothesis testing highlight that there is a significant difference in influence of media on political attitude (H_0 (1)).

Table 4.6: Regression Analysis (Model 1)

Model 1: Political Attitude	ß	t
Online news/Websites/ News Portals	0.933*	2.357*
Television	0.253	0.658
Newspapers	0.967*	2.561*
Social Media	1.126*	3.135*
Radio	-0.191	-0.396
Candidates Themselves	1.258*	2.486*
Magazines	0.22	0.462
Political Rallies	0.808	1.552
Hoardings/ Posters	-0.184	-0.395
Friends and Relatives	0.427	1.129
Adjusted R^2	0.182	
F Value	12.048*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Different media has found to be having low to moderate relationship with political interest. Thus, it can be stated that media usage has significant influence on political attitude. Further it can be said that new media such as social media and online news/websites/news portal as political sources for information have a significant impact on framing a positive attitude of voters towards political actors. These results are supported by the findings of past studies by Chang, 2006; Wang, 2006; and Wang, 2007, which

also highlighted positive effects of new media on political attitude as it has become an imperative source for political information and communication. Moreover, the presence of netizens is also increasing to seek political information and they express opinion about politics using various platforms especially social media. Moreover, findings indicate that people rarely prefer to have direct contact with political candidates (x 2.01) but analysis revealed it as a significant contributor for building positive political attitude. It means direct contact with targeted audience may help the politicians to reap positive results. Likewise, in traditional media, Newspaper is found to be a significant predictor for political attitude because people consider Newspaper as a vital source of political information (Kaur and Verma, 2018). Kononova, Alhabash, and Cropp (2011) also examined that newspapers hold the highest position in credibility, followed by online news and television. Although Television was identified as the primary source of political information by most people (Stetka and Mazak, 2014), current findings reveal that Television's impact in shaping positive attitude is insignificant. Besides, more than half of the respondents have never attended political rallies, still retrieving information by attending political rallies have a positive impact on shaping attitude. Apart from this discussion with friends and families about politics may also lead to an increased positive attitude.

In nutshell, media use has a significant influence on political attitude. Nevertheless, each media has varied influence, some have significant or insignificant positive influence and others have a negative influence on political attitude. Ergo, social media has been found having significant influence on political attitude but traditional media also cannot be ignored. Therefore, a combination of traditional along with new media can yields better results.

Further to deep down, the influence of different media on components of political attitude was accessed. Three models were suggested wherein, different media are independent variables and political interest, political efficacy, and political knowledge respectively are dependent variables. The following section present analysis undertaken to study the influence of different media on political interest, political efficacy, and political knowledge in respective models.

4.3.3 INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA ON POLITICAL INTEREST

Model 2 was proposed to study varied influence on political interest of different media. In Table 4.7, Adjusted R square for Model 2 is 0.121 which means 12.1 per cent variation is explained by different media for political interest. Individually influence created by Online News/Websites/News Portals (ß =0.704, t =3.272, P- value<0.05) and Social Media (ß =0.381, t =1.954, P-value<0.05) in establishing optimistic political interest are found to be significant and superior among all other media. Besides these, Candidates (ß =0.606, t =2.203, P-value >0.05), Friends and Relatives (ß =0.306, t =1.488, P-value >0.05), Newspaper (ß =0.3, t =1.462, P-value >0.05), Political Rallies (ß =0.175, t =0.62, P-value >0.05), Television (ß =0.088, t =0.421, P-value >0.05), Hoardings/ Posters (ß =0.045, t =0.18, P-value >0.05) have been found having insignificant positive influence on political interest. However, political interest has been found to be insignificantly negatively influenced by Radio (ß =-0.145, t =-0.554, P-value >0.05) and Magazines (ß =-0.035, t =-0.134, P-value >0.05). The results of hypothesis testing has highlighted that different media has varied influence on political interest (H_0 (1a)).

Table 4.7: Regression Analysis

(Model 2)

Model 2: Political Interest	ß	t
Online news/Websites/ News Portals	0.704*	3.272*
Television	0.088	0.421
Newspapers	0.3	1.462
Social Media	0.381*	1.954*
Radio	-0.145	-0.554
Candidates Themselves	0.606	2.203
Magazines Political	-0.035	-0.134
Rallies Hoardings/	0.175	0.62
Posters Friends and	0.045	0.18
Relatives	0.306	1.488
Adjusted R^2	0.121	
F Value	7.831*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

These results of the study are supported by the findings of Dostie -Goulet (2009) and Banerjee and Chaudhuri (2018) where they concluded a significant influence of media in development of political interest among voters. In order to arouse people's interest in politics, new media has been found to be having a greater significant influence either through social media or online news portals. Studies by Daekyung and Johnson (2006) and Holt et al. (2013) also showed the similar results where new media was found as positive influencer for political interest as compared to traditional media. Also, Boulianne (2011) study using penal data,

reported positive correlation between online news use and political interest. Additionally, print media, broadcasting media, outdoor media, contact with candidates directly or attending political rallies and having social contact in form of discussion with friends and relatives have positive influence in generating political interest among voters except information retrieved from Radio and Magazines which affects negatively in arousing interest towards politics. Multi-platform news use have varied influence on political interest. Undoubtedly, Television, Newspaper, and social contact have been found to be positive contributors but not so strong and significant, however, literature favoured to seek political information from television news (McLeod, Scheufele, Moy, 1999, Stromback and Shehata, 2018), Newspaper stories (Schulhofer-Wohl and Garrido, 2013), discussion with others on political issues (Brundidge, 2010) to raise political interest in voters.

Undoubtedly, voter's interest in politics has been influenced by media use but new media is prominent for generating positive interest. Therefore, political actors may consider new media to disseminate information more interestingly. However, different media have varied influences in terms of relationship and significance where, selection and effect of media can be based upon the capability to arouse voter's interest in politics.

4.3.4 INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA ON POLITICAL EFFICACY

In Model 3, different media are considered as independent variables and political efficacy as dependent variable. Adjusted R square for respective model is 0.11 (See Table 4.8) which means 11 per cent variation is explained by different media for political efficacy. Further to analyse the contribution made by different media, beta values were considered wherein social media (ß =0.547, t =3.349, P-value<0.05), Newspaper (ß =0.366, t =2.135, P-value<0.05) and direct contact with candidates (ß

=0.359, t =1.559, P-value<0.05) have found to be significant and greater for political efficacy among all other media. Besides, Magazines (ß =0.228, t =1.05, P –value >0.05), attending Political Rallies (ß =0.21, t =0.888, P-value >0.05), interaction with Friends and Relatives (ß =0.133, t =0.776, P-value >0.05), Hoardings/Posters (ß =0.071, t =0.334, P-value >0.05) and Online News/Websites/News Portals (ß =0.069, t =0.381, P-value >0.05). On contrary, insignificant negative influence is found by Radio (ß =-0.024, t =-0.108, P-value >0.05) and Television (ß =-0.015, t =- 0.086, P-value >0.05) on political efficacy. The results of hypothesis testing highlighted that different media has varied influence on political efficacy (H_0 (1b)).

Table 4.8: Regression Analysis

(Model 3)

Model 3: Political Efficacy	**ß**	**t**
Online news/Websites/ News Portals	0.069	0.381
Television	-0.015	-0.086
Newspapers	0.366*	2.135*
Social Media	0.547*	3.349*
Radio	-0.024	-0.108
Candidates Themselves	0.359*	1.559*
Magazines	0.228	1.05
Political Rallies	0.21	0.888
Hoardings/ Posters	0.071	0.334
Friends and Relatives	0.133	0.776
Adjusted R^2	0.11	
F Value	7.105*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Political efficacy is a person's own belief about himself or political actors that whether he is competent enough to take part in politics or not. Media has low to moderate positive correlation with political efficacy, on the other hand media consumption for political purpose may enhance the citizens' belief towards themselves or political purpose. Similar results have been found by Jung, Kim and Zuniga (2011) where they reported significant relationship and influence of media on political efficacy. Individually, social media is found to have greater influence among other media and even, Wang (2009), Halpern et al., (2017) and Velasquez and Quenette, (2018) reported internet especially social media have positive influence on political efficacy. Hoffmann and Lutz (2019) studied mediating effect of self-efficacy between internet use and political participation and observed positive relationship between internet use, efficacy and political participation.

Moreover, reading newspaper and having direct contact with political candidates also have significant influence on political efficacy after social media but Moeller et al. (2014) reported higher positive influence of Newspaper for political efficacy. According to current outcomes, voters who use social media, read newspaper or maintain direct contact with candidates have a stronger belief about their own and candidates' competency to participate in elections or politics. Additionally, findings also revealed that political efficacy is insignificantly influenced by consuming online news whereas television is having negative insignificant influence but Moeller et al. (2014) reported positive and low significant influence with online news and no significant influence by Television. Furthermore, other media like magazines, hoardings, discussion with friends and families may have positive influence but results were insignificant.

In conclusion, majority of media have a positive contribution towards political efficacy except for radio and television but the strength of influence varies wherein, social media followed by the newspaper have higher influence among other media used for political information. This means although social media has shifted the paradigm in political sphere, traditional media still have importance especially newspaper has strong influence.

4.3.5 INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA ON POLITICAL KNOWLEDGE

Further the analysis was carried out to study the influence of different media on political knowledge. In Model 4, different media are considered as independent variables and political knowledge as dependent variable. Adjusted R square for respective model is 0.144 (See Table 4.9) which means 14.4 per cent variation is explained by different media for political knowledge. Among various media, contribution made by Political Rallies (ß =0.423, t =2.927, P-value<0.05), Newspaper (ß =0.301, t =2.872, P-value<0.05), Social Media (ß =0.198, t =1.989, P-value<0.05) in generating positive political knowledge are found to be significant and greater. Besides, direct contact with candidates (ß =0.294, t =2.094, P-value >0.05), Television (ß =0.18, t =1.678, P-value >0.05), Online News/Websites/News Portals (ß =0.161, t =1.266, P-value >0.05) and Magazines (ß =0.027, t =0.202, P- value >0.05) have found positive influence on political knowledge but insignificantly. However, significant negative influence on political knowledge is found by Hoardings/Posters (ß =-0.3, t =-2.326, P-value<0.05), whereas insignificant negative influence is found by Radio (ß =-0.022, t =-0.165, P-value >0.05) and discussion with friends and relatives (ß =-0.012, t =-0.115, P-value >0.05) on political knowledge.

The results of hypothesis testing highlighted that different media has varied influence on political knowledge (H_0 (1c)).

Table 4.9: Regression Analysis

(Model 4)

Model 4: Political Knowledge	ß	t
Online news/Websites/ News Portals	0.161	1.466
Television	0.18	1.687
Newspapers	0.301*	2.872*
Social Media	0.198*	1.989*
Radio	-0.022	-0.165
Candidates Themselves	0.294	2.094
Magazines Political	0.027	0.207
Rallies Hoardings/	0.423*	2.927*
Posters Friends and	-0.3*	-2.326*
Relatives	-0.012	-0.115
Adjusted R^2	0.144	
F Value	9.345*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Findings of Model 4 depicts that media has significant influence on political knowledge which is partially in line with previous studies where researchers have observed significant relationship between media and political knowledge, especially the audience were active through traditional information sources to update political knowledge (Jung, Kim and Zuniga, 2011) but findings of this study observed significant impact of social media along with traditional media including newspaper, political

rallies and hoarding or posters. However, scholars analysed different media in different studies and revealed that broadcasting news exposure through television (De Vreese and Boomgaarden, 2006; Mujani and Liddle, 2010), newspaper reading (Kentmen, 2010; Snyder and Stromberg, 2008), consuming political information online (Shaker, 2009; Anduiza et al., 2012), and radio (Kentmen, 2010) were found to be positively predicting the political knowledge of the audience. Researchers also revealed that people active in the political discussion have higher political knowledge (Jung, Kim and Gil de Zuniga, 2011). However, this study contradicts the findings of Chan (2017) where they reported higher social media consumption leads to lower political knowledge and Kentmen (2010) reported vice versa for radio.

Therefore, it can be said that the media has a significant impact on political knowledge. Nevertheless, each media has varied influence, some have significantly or insignificantly positive influence and others have a negative influence on political knowledge.

4.3.6 INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA ON POLITICAL PARTICIPATION:

Furthermore, Model 5 was proposed to study varied influence on political participation by different media. In Table 4.10, Adjusted R square for Model 5 is 0.302 which means 30.2 per cent variation is explained by different media for political participation. Therefore, it can be said that media plays noteworthy role in predicting participation of voters in political sphere. For Model 5 shown in Table 4.10 Political Rallies (ß =2.565, t =5.55, P-value<0.05), Social Media (ß =1.041, t =3.267, P-value<0.05), Newspaper (ß =0.819, t =2.445, P-value<0.05), direct contact with candidates (ß =1.185, t =2.641, P-value <0.05) are

significantly influencing voters to participate in political sphere. In other words, people who are active in attending political rallies, reading newspapers, using social media or having direct contact with candidates has greater chances to show political participation. Besides, Television (ß =0.476, t =1.395, P-value >0.05), Online News/Websites/News Portals (ß =0.95, t =2.706, P-value >0.05) have found insignificant positive influence on political participation. It means, retrieving news through television or online portals or websites, encourage people to participate in the politics but insignificantly. However, significant negative influence on political participation is found by Hoardings/Posters (ß =-1.029, t =-2.492, P-value<0.05), whereas insignificant negative influence is found by Radio (ß =-0.114, t =-0.267, P- value >0.05) and Magazines (ß =-0.78, t =-0.184, P-value >0.05). Surprisingly, people who come across hoardings or posters to retrieve information have inverse relation with political participation. The results of hypothesis testing highlighted that different media has varied influence on political participation (H_0 (2)).

Table 4.10: Regression Analysis (Model 5)

Model 5: Political Participation	ß	t
Online news/Websites/ News Portals	0.95	2.706
Television	0.476	1.395
Newspapers	0.819*	2.445*
Social Media	1.041*	3.267*
Radio	-0.114	-0.267
Candidates Themselves	1.185*	2.641*
Magazines	-0.078	-0.184
Political Rallies	2.565*	5.55*
Hoardings/ Posters	-1.029*	-2.492*
Friends and Relatives	0.73*	2.179*
Adjusted R^2	*0.302*	
F Value	*22.393**	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Further the data was analysed using Smart PLS wherein all the assumptions of implementing regression analysis were reasonably met. Figure 4.6 shows the relative influence of different media on political attitude and political participation. Results shows that online news, social media, newspaper and candidates themselves as media for political purpose has significant influence on political attitude where social media has relatively higher influence than candidates, newspaper, online news respectively. Results show that R square value for political attitude to be 0.251, indicates 25.1 per cent variation is due to these selected media use. Specifically, online news, social media, newspaper and candidates themselves as media for political information has found a significant influence on political attitude where social media has a

relatively more considerable influence than candidates, newspaper, online news respectively.

Similarly, for political participation, R square value is 0.346, depicts 34.6 per cent variation is explained by this media usage. Individually, attending political rallies have a relatively higher significant influence on political participation, followed by direct contact with candidates, social media, newspaper, television, discussion with friends and family. However, information retrieved from hoardings and posters has a negative influence on political participation.

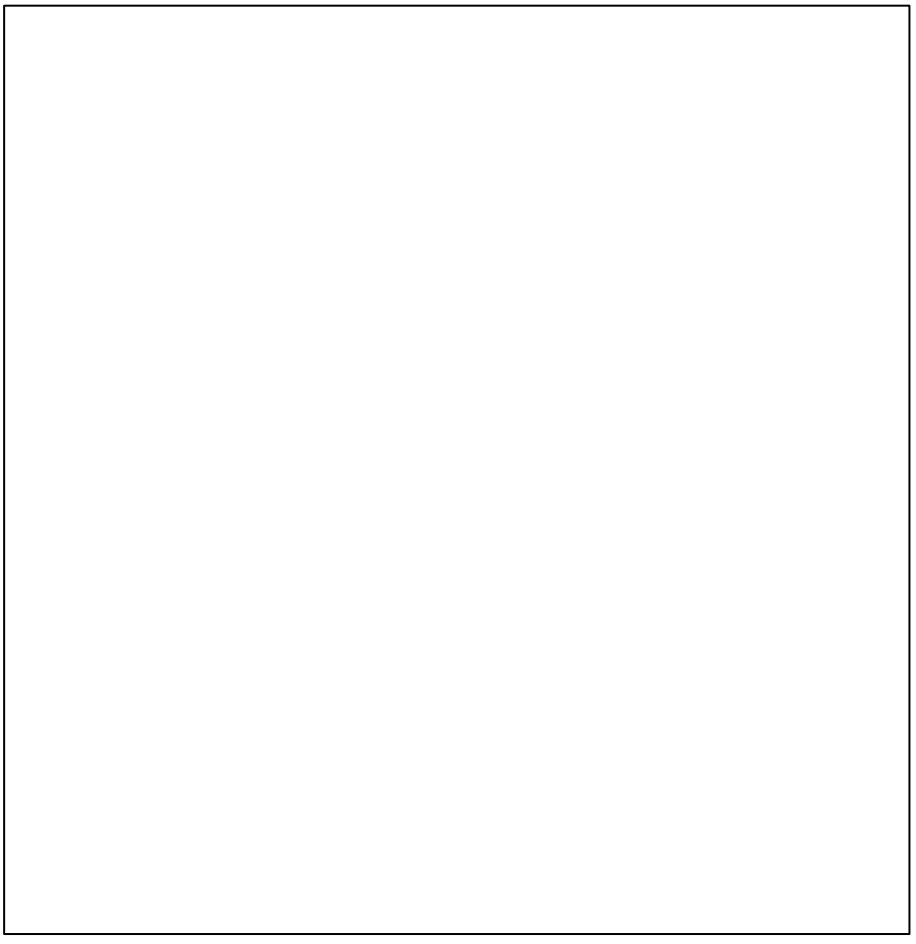


Fig. 4.6: Relative Influence of Different Media on Political Attitude and Political Participation

4.3.7 DISCUSSION:

Different media were found to be having low to a moderate relationship with political interest. Moreover, media usage has been observed as significant influencer in case of political attitude in which, new media such as social media and online news/websites/news portal as political sources for information have a significant influence on framing a positive attitude about political actors. These results are supported by the outcomes of Chang (2006), Wang (2006), and Wang (2007), which were in favour of positive effects of new media on political attitude as it has become an essential source for political information and communication. Moreover, the presence of netizens is also increasing and is seek political information and expressing opinion about politics using various platforms, especially social media. Although people rarely prefer to have contact with political candidates (x =2.01), the analysis revealed it as a significant contributor for building positive political attitude. It means direct contact with the targeted audience may help the politicians to reap positive results. Likewise, among traditional media, Newspaper is found to be a significant predictor for political attitude as people considered Newspaper as a vital source of political information (Kaur and Verma, 2018). Also, researchers examined that newspapers followed by online news and Television respectively have more trustworthiness (Kononova, Alhabash, and Cropp, 2011). Television was identified as the primary source of political information by most people (Stetka and Mazak, 2014); current findings reveal that Television only impacts insignificantly in shaping positive attitude. Besides, more than half of the respondents have neve r attended political rallies, still gathering information by attending political rallies have a positive impact on shaping attitude towards the political sphere. In other words, although the frequency of

attending political rallies is low, those who are attending may have a positive attitude towards political actors. Relatedly, discussion with friends and families about politics may lead to an increased positive attitude.

Also, findings reveal significant influence by media use to boost political interest among citizens, which is also supported by studies like Dostie-Goulet (2009) and Banerjee & Chaudhuri (2018). In other words, voters' interest in politics may vary with the usage of different media. In order to arouse interest in politics, new media has been found to be more significant influencer. Daekyung and Johnson (2006) and Holt et al. (2013) showed similar results where new media was found to be a positive influencer for political interest as compared to traditional media. Boulianne (2015) conducted a study using penal data, and reported a positive correlation between online news use and political interest.

Print media, broadcasting media, outdoor media, contact with candidates directly or attending political rallies and having social contact in the form of discussion with friends and relatives have a positive influence in generating political interest among voters except information retrieved from radio and magazines which affects negatively in arousing interest towards politics. Therefore, multi-platform news use has a varied influence on political interest. Undoubtedly, Television, Newspaper, and social contact have found to be positive contributors but not substantial and significant; however, literature favoured to seek political information from television news (McLeod, Scheufele, Moy, 1999; Stromback and Shehata, 2018), newspaper stories (Schulhofer-Wohl and Garrido, 2013), and discussion with others on political issues (Brundidge, 2010) to raise political interest in voters.

Furthermore, political efficacy is a person's own belief about himself whether he is competent enough to take part in politics or beliefs about

others competency to have political participation. However, findings reveal that media has low to a moderate positive correlation with political efficacy. In other words, media consumption for political purpose results in building citizens' strong belief towards themselves or political actors. Similar results have been found by Jung, Kim and Zuniga (2011) where they reported significant relationship and influence of media with political efficacy. Individually, social media found to have more significant influence among other media. Also, Wang (2009), Halpern et al., (2017) and Velasquez & Quenette, (2018) reported identical findings focusing on internet usage.

Hoffmann, & Lutz (2019) studied mediating effect of self-efficacy between internet use and political participation and observed positive relationship between internet use, efficacy and political participation. It means the relationship between new media and efficacy is two-way. Apart from these, reading Newspaper and having direct contact with political candidates also have significant influence on political efficacy after social media but Moeller, Vreese, Esser, and Kunz (2014) concluded higher positive influence by Newspaper for political efficacy. According to current outcomes, voters who use social media, read Newspaper or maintain direct contact with candidates have a stronger belief about their own and candidates' competency to participate in elections or politics. Additionally, findings reveal that political efficacy is insignificantly influenced by consuming online news whereas Television has an insignificant negative influence, but Moeller, Vreese, Esser, and Kunz (2014) reported positively profound significant influence with online news and no significant influence by Television. Furthermore, other media like magazines, hoardings, discussion with friends and families may have a positive influence on building someone's belief about politics but insignificantly.

Apart from these, findings of Model 4 depict significant influence by the usage of multiple media for purpose on political knowledge. More specifically, social media, along with traditional media such as reading newspaper, attending political rallies and using hoarding or posters respectively as the sources of political information, have significant influence to enhance knowledge about politics. These findings contribute to the literature where researchers have observed a significant positive relationship between traditional media and political knowledge, which means traditional information sources results into increased political knowledge (Jung, Kim & Zuniga, 2011). Also, current findings have somewhat similar results with Alami, Adnan, & Kotamjani (2019) in terms of a positive association of social media with political knowledge. However, different results from Shafi, & Vultee, (2016) and Chen and Chan (2017), where they reported higher social media consumption leads to lower political knowledge. Likewise, attending political rallies and reading newspaper have positive associated with political knowledge, verified the findings of Stromberg (2013) and Kentmen (2010). Also, scholars analysed other kinds of media in different studies and revealed that disseminating news through Television (De Vreese & Boomgaarden, 2006; Mujani & Liddle, 2010), retrieving political information through online platforms (Shaker, 2009; Anduiza, et al., 2012), as well as Radio (Kentmen, 2010) were observed as significant predictor for enhancing voters' political knowledge. Nevertheless, Radio is examined to be negatively associated but insignificantly. Also, Gil de Zuniga et al. (2011) revealed that people active in the political discussion have high political knowledge.

Lastly, media selection for political news and political information has a relationship with political participation which is supported by results of the studies by Bakker & de Vreese, 2011; Gil de Zuniga et al., 2012; Larkin

and Were, 2013; Dimitrova et al., 2014. However, previous studies examined (Shah et al., 2007; Bennett, 2008; Kim & Ball-Rokeach, 2009) varied information media for fluctuated participation in politics. Sauter and Bruns (2013) appreciated both traditional media and social media as active media for boosting political participation. Kaplan (2002), Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Sinkinson (2011), viewed influence of Newspaper, a prominent source of information for having positive effect on participation in politics whereas Vitak et al. (2011), Strandberg (2013), Meesuwan (2016), Chen and Chan (2017) concluded use of social media as one of the predictors for political participation. The social media usage assists the citizen in maintain direct contact with political officials that could affect their political attitude, political interest, political knowledge, political behaviour etc. (Wang, 2007; Ediraras et al., 2013; Holt et al., 2013; Ahmed, 2017; Wang, 2012). This study confirms these outcomes as social media, newspaper, political rallies, direct contact with candidates, discussion with friends and relatives are prominent factors which significantly influences political participation.

	Political Attitude	Political Interest	Political Efficacy	Political Knowledge	Political Participation
Online News/ Websites/News Portals	+*	+*	+	+	+
Television	+	+	+	+	+
Newspapers	+*	+	+*	+*	+*
Social Media	+*	+*	+*	+*	+*
Radio	-	-	-	-	-
Candidates Themselves	+*	+	+*	+	+*
Magazines	+	+	+	+	-
Political Rallies	+	+	+	+*	+*
Hoardings/ Posters	-	+	+	-*	-*
Friends and Relatives	+*	+	+	+-	+*

3rd Most Significant Positive Predictor	2nd Most Significant Positive Predictor	Most Significant Positive Predictor	Significant Negative Predictor

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Table 4.11: Summary of Objective

In a nutshell, on comparing different model (see Table 4.11), it is observed that media use has a greater influence on political participation followed by political attitude, political knowledge, interest and efficacy. Moreover, among all other media, social media has a significant positive influence on dependent variables of all the models. The newspaper has a significant impact in framing political attitude, efficacy, increasing knowledge and participation except for arousing interest among citizens. But online news, websites, news portals as a source of political information are found to have a strong influence on creating interest in politics. Moreover, political rallies are better predictor for enhancing knowledge and participation, however, information seeking through outdoor media including hoardings and posters adversely impact knowledge and participation.

4.4 INFLUENCE OF POLITICAL USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON POLITICAL ATTITUDE AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

The second objective of the study was to measure the influence of social media i.e. Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and WhatsApp for political purpose on political attitude and participation. Regression analysis was employed to achieve the desired results.

4.4.1 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

In order to achieve the objective, regression analysis was used, wherein five models were created. For each regression model, political participation, political attitude, political knowledge, political efficacy and political interest respectively were kept as dependent variable whereas use selected social media i.e. Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube for political purpose were regarded as independent variables. Before implementing regression analysis, various tests were conducte d to meet the key assumptions of running regression analysis such as normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, the independence of errors, and the absence of multicollinearity.

Firstly, to check the model fit, the F value for the Model 6, Model 7, Model 8, Model 9, and Model 10 is 35.165, 22.518, 25.341, 19.387 and 78.359 respectively with P-value less than 0.05 depicts that the models are appropriate for regression analysis. Secondly, the mean of residuals for all the models is 0.00 which depicts the normality of residuals (Flury and Riedwyl, 1988). Another assumption for analysis is that data set should be free from outliers. An outlier is having extreme values or abnormal combination of scores that may disturb the data and regression analysis is highly sensitive to outliers which can be detected using Mahalanobi's Distance value (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). To meet this assumption, Mahalanobi's Distance value was checked and found to be under standard

values, which indicated there is no outlier exists in the data set, which is also tested using boxplot. The normality curve of dependent variables in each model shows that the data is close to normal in the Q-Q plot and scatter plot.

Moreover, no multicollinearity should exist in dataset for regression analysis, for which Pearson correlation value should be less than 0.08 (Allison, 1999; Cooper and Schindler, 2003). Table 4.12 shows correlation of political interest with different social media that is Facebook (r =0.252, P-value<0.05), Twitter (r =0.178, P- value<0.05), WhatsApp (r =0.373, P-value<0.05) and YouTube (r =0.332, P- value<0.05). Likewise, correlation of political knowledge with Facebook (r =0.291, P-value<0.05), Twitter (r =0.228, P-value<0.05), WhatsApp (r =0.285, P- value<0.05), YouTube (r =0.302, P-value<0.05) and Social Media (r =0.228, P- value<0.05). Correlation of political efficacy with Facebook (r =0.291, P- value<0.05), Twitter (r =0.228, P-value<0.05), WhatsApp (r =0.285, P-value<0.05), YouTube (r =0.302, P-value<0.05) and Social Media (r =0.228, P-value<0.05). Correlation of political attitude with Facebook (r =0.291, P-value<0.05), Twitter (r =0.228, P-value<0.05), WhatsApp (r =0.285, P-value<0.05), YouTube (r =0.302, P- value<0.05) and Social Media (r =0.228, P-value<0.05). Correlation of political participation with Facebook (r =0.291, P-value<0.05), Twitter (r =0.228, P- value<0.05), WhatsApp (r =0.285, P-value<0.05), YouTube (r =0.302, P- value<0.05) and Social Media (r =0.228, P-value<0.05) which indicates significantly moderate linear relationship between them. Also, correlation between all independent variables are below the standard value (r =0.8). Therefore, all assumptions of regression analysis were reasonably met.

Table 4.12: Correlation between Social Media, Political Interest, Political Knowledge, Political Efficacy, Political Attitude, Political Participation

	Facebook	Twitter	YouTube	WhatsApp
Facebook	1			
Twitter	0.685*	1		
YouTube	0.643*	0.629*	1	
WhatsApp	0.523*	0.430*	0.678*	1
Political Interest	0.252*	0.178*	0.332*	0.373*
Political Knowledge	0.354*	0.305*	0.367*	0.342*
Political Efficacy	0.284*	0.202*	0.326*	0.330*
Political Attitude	0.351*	0.264*	0.415*	0.432*
Political Participation	0.512*	0.441*	0.561*	0.536*

**Pvalue≤0.01*

Also, on detailed examination it was observed that correlation of selected social media namely Facebook, YouTube, Twitter and WhatsApp with political participation is greater than correlation with political attitude, interest, efficacy and knowledge. Furthermore, on comparing different social media, correlation of YouTube with political participation is found to be higher in WhatsApp, followed by Facebook and Twitter. Similar pattern has been observed for different social media with political attitude and political efficacy. However, slight variation in pattern are found for political knowledge wherein YouTube has higher correlation than Facebook followed by WhatsApp and Twitter. Moreover, for political interest, completely different pattern has been observed for correlation

with different social media where association with WhatsApp is found to higher than YouTube followed by Facebook and Twitter. Thus, YouTube has more association with political participation, attitude, efficacy and knowledge and Twitter has least positive correlation with these variables.

4.4.2 POLITICAL USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA AND POLITICAL ATTITUDE:

After examining the association, the study indented to study the influence of selected social media on political attitude. Therefore, the presented regression Model 6 in Table 4.13 accounted for Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, WhatsApp as independent variables in first block and social media in second block to measure their respective influence on political attitude. Values presented in Table 4.13 indicated total variance of 21.6 per cent and 18.1 per cent is explained by predictors for political attitude. Among the multiple variables in respective model, three social media namely, WhatsApp (β 0.58, t 4.677, P value< 0.05), YouTube (β 0.314, t =2.974, p< 0.05) and Facebook (β 0.117, t 2.261, p< 0.05) are found to have positive influence; whereas, statistically insignificant negative effect by Twitter (β =-0.136, t =-1.028, p > 0.05) is found for political attitude. However, WhatsApp has been observed as superior positive influencer than YouTube and Facebook. Further, overall impact of social media is also found as statistically significant positive (β =0.190, t =10.539, p< 0.05) for political attitude. Therefore, null hypothesis rejected (H_0 (3)).

Table 4.13: Regression Analysis

(Model 6)

Model 6: Political Attitude	β	t
Facebook	0.117*	2.261*
Twitter	-0.136	-1.028
YouTube	0.314*	2.974*
WhatsApp	0.580*	4.677*
Adjusted R^2	0.216	
F Value	35.165*	
Social Media	0.190*	10.539*
Adjusted R^2	0.181	
F Value	111.075*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

4.4.3 Political Use of Social Media, Political Interest, Political Knowledge, Political Efficacy

In this section, analysis aimed to study influence of social media on political attitude using its components namely political interest, knowledge and efficacy. Therefore, three models were presented Model 7, Model 8 and Model 9 for political interest, knowledge and efficacy respectively (see Table 4.14, Model 7). The presented regression Model 7 observed total variance of 14.8 per cent and 10.4 per cent for political interest by Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and WhatsApp and overall social media correspondingly.

For developing positive political interest, WhatsApp (β 0.314, t 4.635, P value<0.05), YouTube (β 0.139, t 2.403, p< 0.05) are found to have significant influence, nevertheless, Facebook (β 0.031, t 1.086, p >0.05) have influence but insignificantly. On contrary, statistically insignificant negative effect has been found by Twitter (β =-0.103, t =-1.413, p > 0.05) on political interest. However, WhatsApp is observed as superior positive influencer than YouTube. Moreover, impact of social media is found as statistically significant positive (β 0.075, t 7.679, p< 0.05) for political interest. Therefore, null hypothesis rejected (H_0 (3a)).

Table 4.14: Regression Analysis (Model 7)

Model 7: Political Interest	β	t
Facebook	0.031	1.086
Twitter	-0.103	-1.413
YouTube	0.139*	2.403*
WhatsApp	0.314*	4.635*
Adjusted R^2	0.148	
F Value	22.518*	
Social Media	0.075*	7.679*
Adjusted R^2	0.104	
F Value	58.975*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Political knowledge is considered as important variable of political attitude. Therefore, study proposed significant influence of social media on political knowledge. The regression Model 8 as mentioned in Table 4.15 showed 16.4 per cent variance for political knowledge by social media. Specifically, three social media namely WhatsApp (β 0.09, t 2.606, P value< 0.05), YouTube (β 0.06, t 2.04, p< 0.05) and Facebook (β 0.036, t 2.51, p< 0.05) are found to have positive influence; whereas,

statistically insignificant positive effect of Twitter (β =0.031, t =0.843, p >0.05) is found for political knowledge. However, WhatsApp has been observed as superior positive influencer than Facebook and YouTube. Overall, the impact of social media is found as statistically significant positive (β =0.049, t =9.911, p< 0.05). Therefore, null hypothesis rejected (H_0 (3b)).

Table 4.15: Regression Analysis

(Model 8)

Model 8: Political Knowledge	β	t
Facebook	0.036*	2.51*
Twitter	0.031	0.843
YouTube	0.06*	2.04*
WhatsApp	0.09*	2.606*
Adjusted R^2	0.164	
F Value	25.341*	
Social Media	0.049*	9.911*
Adjusted R^2	0.164	
F Value	98.233*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Moreover, political efficacy was considered as dependent variable to study the influence by social media. The presented regression Model 9 in Table 4.16 observed total variance of 12.9 per cent and 11.2 per cent for political efficacy by Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and WhatsApp and overall social media respectively. For building efficacy, three social media namely WhatsApp (β 1.78, t 3.132, P value< 0.05), YouTube (β

0.114, t 2.351, p< 0.05) and Facebook (β 0.05, t 2.116, p< 0.05) are found to have positive influence; whereas, statistically insignificant negative effect by Twitter (β -0.067, t =-1.102, p > 0.05) is found for political efficacy. However, WhatsApp has been observed as superior positive influencer than YouTube and Facebook. Overall, the impact of social media is found as statistically significant positive (β 0.065, t 7.979, p< 0.05) which signifies social media as positive contributor for political efficacy. Therefore, null hypothesis rejected (H_0 (3c)).

Table 4.16: Regression Analysis (Model 9)

Model 9: Political Efficacy	β	t
Facebook	0.05*	2.116*
Twitter	-0.067	-1.102
YouTube	0.114*	2.351*
WhatsApp	0.178*	3.132*
Adjusted R^2	0.129	
F Value	19.387*	
Social Media	0.065*	7.979*
Adjusted R^2	0.112	
F Value	63.660*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

4.4.4 Political Use of Social Media and Political Participation

Further the study aimed to investigate the influence of political use of social media on political participation. The regression model accounted for a total variance of 38.4 per cent for political participation (see Table 4.17, Model 10). Among the variables controlled in the model, three social media namely WhatsApp (β 0.555, t 5.264, P value< 0.05), YouTube (β 0.361, t 4.014, p< 0.05) and Facebook (β =0.161, t =3.656, p< 0.05) are found to have positive influence; whereas,

statistically insignificant positive effect of Twitter (β 0.118, t 1.048, p > 0.05) is found for political participation. However, WhatsApp has been observed as superior positive influencer than YouTube and Facebook. Examining the overall effect of social media, study found 36.4 per cent variation in political participation. However, impact of social media is found as statistically significant positive (β 0.257, t =16.881, p<0.05) which signifies social media as positive contributor for political participation. Therefore, null hypothesis rejected (H_0 (4)).

Table 4.17: Regression Analysis (Model 10)

Model 10: Political Participation	β	t
Facebook	0.161*	3.656*
Twitter	0.118	1.048
YouTube	0.361*	4.014*
WhatsApp	0.555*	5.264*
Adjusted R^2	0.384	
F Value	78.359*	
Social Media	0.257*	16.881*
Adjusted R^2	0.364	
F Value	284.961*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

4.4.5 DISCUSSION:

The study sheds light on how social media usage for the political information may influence political interest, efficacy, knowledge, attitude and participation. Firstly, this study examined the relationship of social media use, namely Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, WhatsApp with political interest, efficacy, knowledge, attitude and participation. Results support that use of social media has a positive correlation with political interest,

efficacy, knowledge, attitude and participation. Moreover, results indicate that activities on WhatsApp are more prominent regarding politics than any other social media platform. More notably, results signify that the influence of social media use as a whole is found to be more for all dependent variable specifically for political participation followed by political attitude. Similarly, WhatsApp, YouTube, Facebook respectively have shown positive influence. However, Twitter is found to have an insignificant impact on political interest, efficacy, knowledge, attitude and participation.

Overall, the current study has consistent results with previous studies wherein significant influence of social media usage on political knowledge, and political participation (Kenski & Stroud, 2006; Gil de Zuniga, 2012; Valenzuela, 2013; Barnidge, 2015; Ahmad, Alvi, & Ittefaq, 2019), political attitude (De Marco, Robles, and Antino, 2017), political interest (Boulianne,2011; Holt et al., 2013), political efficacy (Ahmad, Alvi, & Ittefaq, 2019) has been concluded. Nevertheless, the current study found more impact of social media usage for political purpose on political participation followed by political attitude, political knowledge, efficacy and interest. Furthermore, Abdu, Mohamad, & Muda (2017) found a positive correlation of Facebook use with political interest, political participation (Chan and Guo, 2013; Schmiemann, 2015), political attitude (Papagiannidis and Manika, 2016; De Marco, Robles, and Antino, 2017). Likewise, a significant positive impact has been found by Facebook for all political variables. However, these results contradict the results by Njegomir (2016), who reported the adverse effect of Facebook used for political purpose on political participation in both developing nations. In addition to Facebook, Njegomir (2016) studied Twitter, and YouTube's influence on individual's political behaviour. Nonetheless, the current study found partially contradictory results wherein stronger influence is

found by WhatsApp use followed by YouTube and insignificant impact of Twitter on all political variables.

Table 4.18: Summary of Objective 2

	Political Attitude	Political Interest	Political Efficacy	Political Knowledge	Political Participation
Facebook	+*	+	+*	+*	+*
Twitter	-	-	-	+	+
YouTube	+*	+*	+ *	+ *	+ *
WhatsApp	+*	+ *	+ *	+ *	+ *

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

4.5 INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON POLITICAL PARTY CHOICE WITH MODERATING EFFECT OF VOTER DEMOGRAPHICS

The third objective of the study was to measure the influence of social media i.e. Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and WhatsApp for political purpose on political party choice with moderating effect of demographics. In order to achieve objectives, PLS- SEM using Smart PLS (v. 3.2.6) (Ringle, Wende, and Becker, 2017) was deployed to assess the measurement and structural models following a two-step approach: (1) validation of the outer (measurement) models, and (2) examination of the inner model (structural relations among the latent factors) (Chin, 2010). Hair et al., (2019) suggested use of PLS-SEM when constructs are formative in nature. If the indicators cause the latent variable and are not interchangeable among themselves, they are formative. In general, these

formative indicators can have positive, negative, or even no correlations among each other (Haenlein and Kaplan, 2004).

4.5.1 ASSESSMENT OF THE OUTER (MEASUREMENT) MODELS

In assessing the measurement model, both validity and reliability analysis were conducted. Validity is an analysis that "is associated with the term accuracy. A construct measures what it is supposed to measure" (Hair et al., 2007). On the other hand, reliability is an assessment to foresee whether the questionnaire reflects the variable that it is measuring (Field, 2013). For measurement of formative models, convergent validity, indicator or collinearity, statistically significance, and relevance of indicator weight need to be evaluated (Hair et al., 2017).

4.5.2 CONVERGENT VALIDITY:

Convergent validity refers to the model's ability to explain the indicator's variance. The purpose of conducting convergent validity analysis is to assess the correlation among measurements of the same construct or factor (Hair et al., 2014). The AVE (Average Variance Explained) can provide evidence for convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Hair et al. (2019) suggested an AVE threshold level of 0.5 as evidence of convergent validity. The AVE for all latent constructs Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp, YouTube, SP, BJP, INC and BSP is 1.00 which is well above the required minimum level of 0.50 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2019). Therefore, the measures of the all constructs can be said to have high level of convergent validity.

4.5.3 Collinearity Statistics:

The presence of collinearity is the major issue while measuring formative constructs which can be evaluated using variance inflation factor (VIF) (Hair et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2019). VIF values of 5 or above indicate critical collinearity issues among the indicators of formatively measured

constructs (Hair et al., 2019). The absence of collinearity among the constructs' indicators namely Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp, YouTube was established, as variance inflation factor (VIF) value for each constructs' indicator is lower than 5 (Table 4.19 and Table 4.20).

4.5.4 STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANCE OF WEIGHTS:

Further, the next step is to check the significance of outer weights for formative constructs. For a good measurement model, indicator weight need to be significant (Hair et al., 2017), however if an indicator weight is found insignificant, outer loadings should be considered (Cenfetelli and Bassellier, 2009). According to Hair et al. (2017), in order to retain indicator, outer loading needs to be above 0.50 and significant for insignificant outer weight, however, indicators with a non-significant weight should definitely be eliminated if the loading is also not significant. In Table 4.19 and Table 4.20 although, some outer weights were significant and some were not, nevertheless, their outer loadings were above 0.50 and significant. Therefore, the construct indicators were considered valid (Hair et al., 2017).

In conclusion, the findings suggested that the assumptions of convergent validity, indicator or collinearity and relevance of indicator weight are reasonable met for further analysis. Therefore, the subsequent part depicts the assessment of structural model.

Table 4.19: Results of Formative Construct Assessment (a)

	Outer Weights	Outer Loadings	VIF	Decision
fb1 - > Facebook	0.133	0.73*	2.549	Retain
fb2 - > Facebook	0.091	0.717*	3.25	Retain
fb3 - > Facebook	0.054	0.736*	3.68	Retain
fb4 - > Facebook	-0.022	0.714*	2.932	Retain
fb5 - > Facebook	0.258*	0.814*	2.749	Retain
fb7 - > Facebook	0.064	0.74*	2.61	Retain
fb8 - > Facebook	0.109	0.755*	2.973	Retain
fb9 - > Facebook	0.224*	0.858*	3.279	Retain
fb10 - > Facebook	-0.021	0.798*	2.839	Retain
fb11 - > Facebook	0.167	0.847*	2.367	Retain
fb12 - > Facebook	0.033	0.784*	2.19	Retain
fb13 - > Facebook	0.116	0.781*	2.375	Retain
fb14 - > Facebook	0.053	0.759*	3.568	Retain
tw1 - > Twitter	0.172*	0.83*	3.111	Retain
tw2 - > Twitter	0.241*	0.869*	3.77	Retain
tw3 - > Twitter	0.067	0.848*	4.13	Retain
tw4 - > Twitter	0.135	0.863*	4.581	Retain
tw5 - > Twitter	0.075	0.875*	4.59	Retain
tw6 - > Twitter	0.231*	0.873*	4.901	Retain
tw7 - > Twitter	0.021	0.811*	3.878	Retain
tw8 - > Twitter	-0.007	0.852*	4.665	Retain
tw9 - > Twitter	0.232*	0.841*	3.2	Retain
wa1 - > WhatsApp	0.476*	0.851*	1.708	Retain
wa2 - > WhatsApp	0.424*	0.771*	1.667	Retain
wa3 - > WhatsApp	0.019	0.742*	2.24	Retain
wa4 - > WhatsApp	0.321	0.792*	1.814	Retain
yt1 - > YouTube	0.052	0.768*	2.406	Retain
yt2 - > YouTube	0.325*	0.854*	2.754	Retain
yt3 - > YouTube	0.143	0.845*	2.957	Retain
yt4 - > YouTube	0.135	0.82*	2.629	Retain
yt5 - > YouTube	0.172*	0.783*	2.24	Retain
yt6 - > YouTube	0.37*	0.854*	2.076	Retain

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Table 4.20: Results of Formative Construct Assessment (b)

	Outer Weights	Outer Loadings	VIF	Decision
fb1 - > Social Media	0.048	0.622*	2.76	Retain
fb2 - > Social Media	-0.002	0.614*	3.329	Retain
fb3 - > Social Media	0.034	0.615*	3.559	Retain
fb4 - > Social Media	0.006	0.589*	3.122	Retain
fb5 - > Social Media	0.064	0.695*	2.89	Retain
fb6 - > Social Media	0.054	0.518*	1.954	Retain
fb7 - > Social Media	0.006	0.622*	2.417	Retain
fb8 - > Social Media	0.017	0.654*	2.52	Retain
fb9 - > Social Media	0.082	0.73*	3.783	Retain
fb10 - > Social Media	-0.011	0.705*	3.624	Retain
fb11 - > Social Media	0.088	0.733*	4.158	Retain
fb12 - > Social Media	0.001	0.684*	3.368	Retain
fb13 - > Social Media	0.069	0.662*	3.044	Retain
fb14 - > Social Media	-0.012	0.655*	3.029	Retain
tw1 - > Social Media	-0.019	0.625*	3.043	Retain
tw2 - > Social Media	0.075*	0.627*	3.718	Retain
tw3 - > Social Media	0.001	0.625*	2.962	Retain
tw5 - > Social Media	0.032	0.634*	3.55	Retain
tw7 - > Social Media	0.027	0.587*	2.676	Retain
tw9 - > Social Media	0.011	0.621*	2.587	Retain
wa1 - > Social Media	0.141*	0.753*	2.415	Retain
wa2 - > Social Media	0.201*	0.597*	1.984	Retain
wa3 - > Social Media	-0.034	0.641*	2.652	Retain
wa4 - > Social Media	0.087	0.694*	2.128	Retain
yt1 - > Social Media	0.015	0.7*	2.77	Retain
yt2 - > Social Media	0.145*	0.754*	3.018	Retain
yt3 - > Social Media	0.079	0.756*	3.278	Retain
yt4 - > Social Media	0.017	0.756*	3.063	Retain
yt5 - > Social Media	0.07*	0.715*	2.501	Retain
yt6 - > Social Media	0.154*	0.773*	2.553	Retain

	Outer Weights	Outer Loadings	VIF	Decision
fb1 - > Facebook	0.132	0.726*	2.59	Retain
fb2 - > Facebook	0.123	0.717*	3.125	Retain
fb3 - > Facebook	0.031	0.717*	3.302	Retain
fb4 - > Facebook	-0.062	0.687*	2.848	Retain
fb5 - > Facebook	0.24*	0.811*	2.572	Retain
fb6 - > Facebook	-0.01	0.604*	1.87	Retain
fb7 - > Facebook	0.049	0.726*	2.276	Retain
fb8 - > Facebook	0.139	0.763*	2.395	Retain
fb9 - > Facebook	0.185*	0.852*	3.589	Retain
fb10 - > Facebook	0.047	0.823*	3.254	Retain
fb11 - > Facebook	0.172*	0.855*	3.681	Retain
fb12 - > Facebook	0.053	0.798*	2.935	Retain
fb13 - > Facebook	0.084	0.773*	2.791	Retain
fb14 - > Facebook	0.072	0.765*	2.72	Retain
tw1 - > Twitter	0.268*	0.858*	3.652	Retain
tw2 - > Twitter	0.129	0.86*	4.336	Retain
tw3 - > Twitter	0.214*	0.858*	3.379	Retain
tw5 - > Twitter	0.157*	0.871*	3.897	Retain
tw7 - > Twitter	0.105	0.805*	3.119	Retain
tw9 - > Twitter	0.299*	0.852*	3.002	Retain
wa1 - > WhatsApp	0.521*	0.884*	1.708	Retain
wa2 - > WhatsApp	0.292*	0.701*	1.667	Retain
wa3 - > WhatsApp	0.076	0.753*	2.24	Retain
wa4 - > WhatsApp	0.341	0.815*	1.814	Retain
yt1 - > YouTube	0.08*	0.776*	2.406	Retain
yt2 - > YouTube	0.263	0.836*	2.754	Retain
yt3 - > YouTube	0.124	0.838*	2.957	Retain
yt4 - > YouTube	0.192	0.838*	2.629	Retain
yt5 - > YouTube	0.175	0.793*	2.24	Retain
yt6 - > YouTube	0.368	0.856*	2.076	Retain

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

4.5.5 Assessment of Inner Model (Structural Model)

The structural model presented for evaluation in Figure 4.7, Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Twitter are the variables to measure social media as exogenous variables, and SP, BJP, INC and BSP are the variables for measuring political party choice as endogenous variable. The analysis involved in this evaluation was testing of the coefficient of determination (R^2), f^2 effect sizes and structural model path coefficients.

4.5.6 Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice

The analysis was first carried out to study the influence of different social media platforms on political party choice without introducing any moderator. The value of Adjusted R square for Political Party Choice for SP different social media is 0.312 (See Table 4.21, Figure 4.7), which means decision for choosing a SP as party for voting has 31.2 per cent explained variations due to different social media. Further, on considering particular social media, Facebook is found to have greater significant influence on SP by (β 0.197, t 2.961, p< 0.05), followed by YouTube (β 0.177, t 2.88, p< 0.05), WhatsApp (β 0.167, t 3.022, p< 0.05) and Twitter (β =0.117, t =2.242, p <0.025).

Similarly, adjusted R square value for political party choice as BJP through different social media is 0.158 (See Table 4.21, Figure 4.7), which means decision for choosing a BJP as party for voting has only 15.8 per cent explained variations due to different social media. Further, on considering particular social media, Facebook is found to have greater positive significant influence on BJP (β 0.235, t 3.528, p< 0.05), followed by WhatsApp (β 0.195, t 3.208, p< 0.05) and YouTube (β 0.123, t =1.957, p< 0.05). However, Twitter (β -0.143, t =3.023, p<0.05) has negative influence on decision to vote for BJP.

Likewise, the adjusted R square for political party choice for INC by different social media is 0.238 (See Table 4.21, Figure 4.7), which means decision for choosing a INC as party for voting has 23.8 per cent explained variations due to social media. Further, on considering particular social media, WhatsApp is found to have greater significant influence on INC (β 0.202, t 3.421, p< 0.05), followed by YouTube (β =0.144, t 2.251, p< 0.05), Facebook (β 0.131, t 1.984, p< 0.05) and Twitter (β =0.099, t =1.974, p< 0.05).

Lastly, the adjusted R square for political party choice for BSP by different social media is 0.334 (See Table 4.21, Figure 4.7), which means decision for choosing a BSP as party for voting has 33.4 per cent explained variations due to social media. Further, on considering particular social media, WhatsApp (β 0.158, t 2.634, p< 0.05) is found to have greater significant influence on BSP, followed by YouTube (β 0.267, t =4.447, p< 0.05), Facebook (β 0.145, t =2.212, p< 0.05) and Twitter (β 0.106, t 2.077, p< 0.05). All social media platforms have significant positive influence on decision to choose BSP for voting. Thus, for all selected social media platforms it is clear that they have a significant positive influence on decision to choose a particular party for voting.

Table 4.21: Path Coefficients of the Inner Model 11 (a) - Main Effects

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.197	2.961*	0.312
	Twitter	0.117	2.242*	
	WhatsApp	0.167	3.022*	
	YouTube	0.177	2.88*	
	Facebook	0.235	3.528*	0.158
	Twitter	-0.143	3.023*	

BJP	WhatsApp	0.195	3.208*	
	YouTube	0.123	1.957*	
INC	Facebook	0.131	1.984*	0.238
	Twitter	0.099	1.974*	
	WhatsApp	0.202	3.421*	
	YouTube	0.144	2.251*	
BSP	Facebook	0.145	2.212*	0.334
	Twitter	0.106	2.077*	
	WhatsApp	0.158	2.634*	
	YouTube	0.267	4.447*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

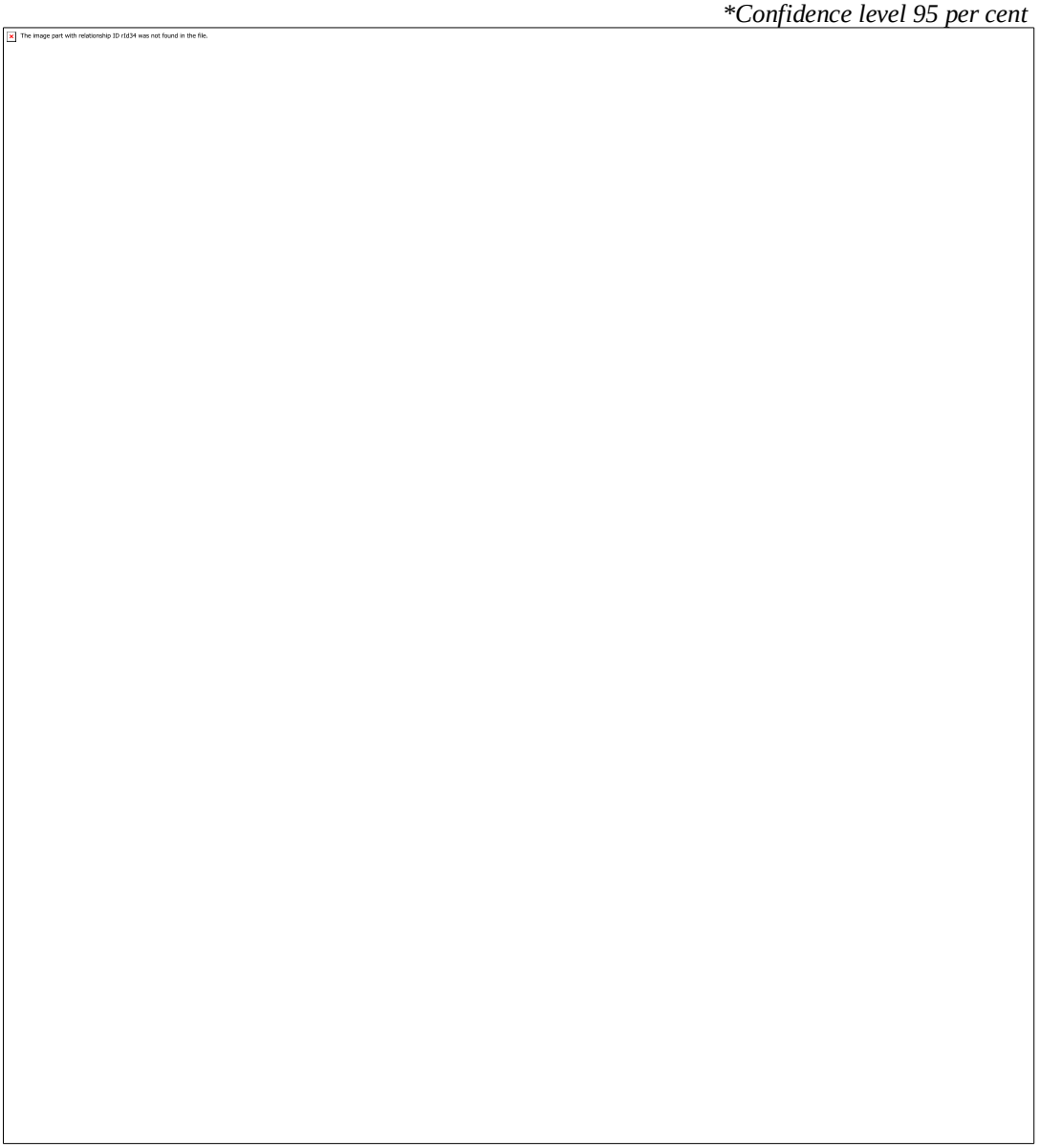


Fig. 4.7: Structural Model 11 (a): Influence of Social Media on Political Party

Choice

Additionally, Model 11 (b) presented in Table 4.22 and Figure 4.8 social media as a whole is considered as exogenous variable and political parties as endogenous variable. Wherein, 30.9 per cent variation is explained by social media in decision to vote in favour of Samaazwaadi Party. Similarly, 14.2 per cent, 24.7 per cent, 33.7 per cent variation is explained for choosing BJP, INC and Samaazbaadi Party respectively. Furthermore, significant positive influence is found between social media usage and political party choice among Samaazwaadi Party , BJP, INC and BSP. Therefore, null hypothesis is rejected (H_0 (5)).

Table 4.22: Path Coefficients of the Inner Model 11 (b) - Main Effects

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.129*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.08*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.866*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.856*	
SP	Social Media	0.557	20.609*	0.309
BJP	Social Media	0.379	9.837*	0.142
INC	Social Media	0.499	15.234*	0.247
BSP	Social Media	0.582	21.865*	0.337

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

Fig. 4.8: Structural Model 11 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice

Besides analysing the direct effect between social media and political party choice, the moderating role of voter demographics was also explored. The presence of moderator is tested to foresee whether there is any change in the link between two related variables. Since the moderator is a categorical moderator and independent variables as well as moderator are both formative, the two-stage approach is recommended for the moderating analysis (Chin et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2017). A two-stage approach was also applied to explore the effect that moderator would have on the relationship between two variables, usually between the predictor and the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, voter demographics have been presented as the moderator between the two related constructs. Thus, the analysis is performed by including the

moderator to anticipate the changes between social media and political party choice. The PLS algorithm and bootstrapping techniques are applied to determining the decision of moderating or non-moderating effect. The algorithm indicates the path coefficient and the t-value validates the decision of significance or non-significance. The following sub-section describe on the analysis of the moderator and its effect on the two constructs.

4.5.7 Influence of Social Media and Political Party Choice with Moderating Effect of Gender

To study the moderating effect of gender between the relationship of social media and political party choice, social media is measured through Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube whereas political party choice is measured through decision for SP, BJP, INC and BSP. The results for hypothesis testing are as follows:

Result indicated that there is a negative relationship between interacting effect of Facebook and gender with SP and the relationship was not significant at ß =-0.115 and t =1.715 (Table 4.23). Similarly, interacting effect of Facebook and gender with BSP have negative insignificant influence at ß =-0.029 and t =0.454. However, positive insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Facebook and gender with BJP and INC at ß =0.064 and t =1.002, and ß =0.082 and t =1.254 respectively.

Similarly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of gender on relationship between Twitter and party choice. Result indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between interacting effect of Twitter and gender with SP at ß =0.134 and t =2.333 and with BSP at ß =0.143 and t =2.557. For BJP also the interaction between gender and twitter has positive insignificant relation at ß =0.016 and t =0.306.

However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Twitter and gender with INC at ß =-0.068 and t =1.14.

Further, moderating effect of gender on relationship between WhatsApp and party choice was studied. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of WhatsApp and gender with SP however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.091 and t =1.635. Likewise, interacting effect of WhatsApp and gender with BSP (ß =0.067 and t =1.087) and BJP (ß =0.028 and t =0.479) have positive insignificant influence. Negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of WhatsApp and gender for INC (ß =-0.05 and t =0.885).

Lastly, analysis was carried out to study the moderating effect of gender on relationship between YouTube and party choice. Result indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between interacting effect of YouTube and gender with INC (ß =0.134 and t =2.116) and insignificant positive relationship with BSP (ß =0.011 and t =0.177). Negative insignificant influence was found between interacting effect of YouTube and gender with BJP at ß =-0.103 and t =1.644 and SP at ß =-0.009 and t =0.149.

Table 4.23: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 12 (a) with Moderating effect of Gender

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.218	3.13*	0.327
	Twitter	0.149	2.531*	
	WhatsApp	0.184	3.355*	
	YouTube	0.156	2.488*	
	Gender	0.057	1.468	
	Gender*Facebook	-0.115	1.715	
	Gender*Twitter	0.134	2.333*	
	Gender*WhatsApp	0.091	1.635	
	Gender*YouTube	-0.009	0.149	
BJP	Facebook	0.214	3.108*	0.162
	Twitter	-0.118	2.306*	
	WhatsApp	0.183	2.987*	
	YouTube	0.134	2.094*	
	Gender	-0.015	0.361	
	Gender*Facebook	0.064	1.002	
	Gender*Twitter	0.016	0.306	
	Gender*WhatsApp	0.028	0.479	
	Gender*YouTube	-0.103	1.644	
INC	Facebook	0.159	2.445*	0.252
	Twitter	0.087	1.522	
	WhatsApp	0.202	3.424*	
	YouTube	0.158	2.472*	
	Gender	-0.007	0.162	
	Gender*Facebook	0.082	1.254	
	Gender*Twitter	-0.068	1.14	
	Gender*WhatsApp	-0.05	0.885	
	Gender*YouTube	0.134	2.116*	
BSP	Facebook	0.167	2.472*	0.356
	Twitter	0.16	2.834*	
	WhatsApp	0.168	2.782*	
	YouTube	0.252	4.037*	
	Gender	0.01	0.248	
	Gender*Facebook	-0.029	0.454	
	Gender*Twitter	0.143	2.557*	
	Gender*WhatsApp	0.067	1.087	
	Gender*YouTube	0.011	0.177	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

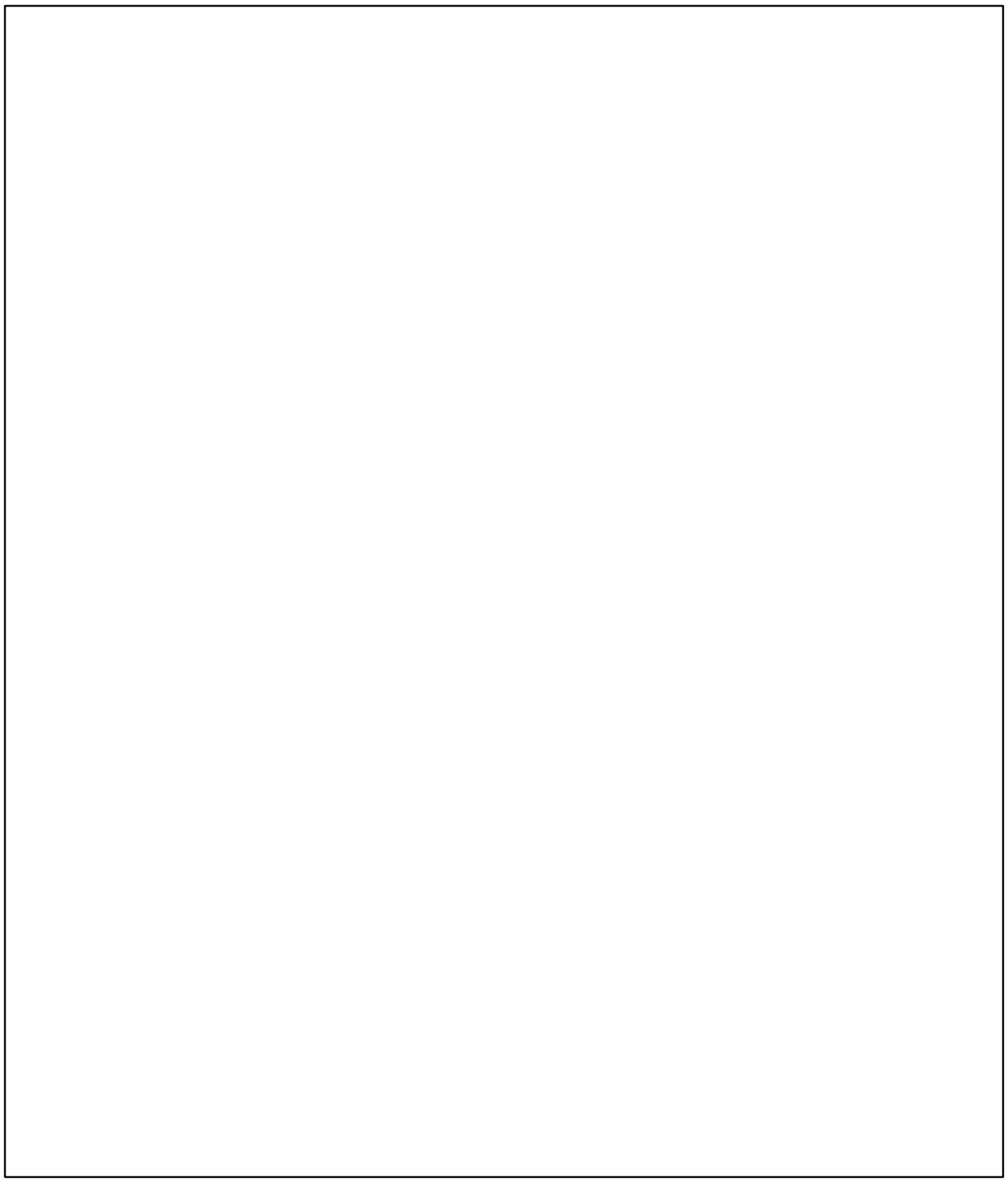


Fig. 4.9: Structural Model 12 (a): Influence of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, WhatsApp on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Gender

Model 12 (b) in Table 4.24 represents moderating effect of gender on relationship between social media as a whole on political party choice. Results show that gender moderates the relationship of social media and choosing in favour of INC (ß =0.099 and t =2.392) and BSP (ß =0.129

and t =3.601) whereas, it does not act as moderator for decision to vote for SP (ß =0.048 and t =1.423) and BJP (ß =0.016 and t =0.383).

Gender has shown varied significant relationships between social media and political party choice. In some instances, the moderating or interacting factor may not reveal significant result demonstrating that the independent variable has a constant effect on the dependent variable (Dawson, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, social media has a constant effect on political party choice (H_0 (6)).

Table 4.24: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 12 (b) with Moderating effect of Gender

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.129*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.08*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.866*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.856*	
SP	Social Media	0.557	20.609*	0.31
	Gender	0.051	1.348	
	Gender* Social Media	0.048	1.423	
BJP	Social Media	0.379	9.837*	0.139
	Gender	-0.015	0.359	
	Gender* Social Media	0.016	0.383	
INC	Social Media	0.499	15.234*	0.252
	Gender	-0.003	0.069	
	Gender* Social Media	0.099	2.392*	
BSP	Social Media	0.582	21.865*	0.348
	Gender	0.009	0.237	

Gender* Social Media	0.129	3.601*

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

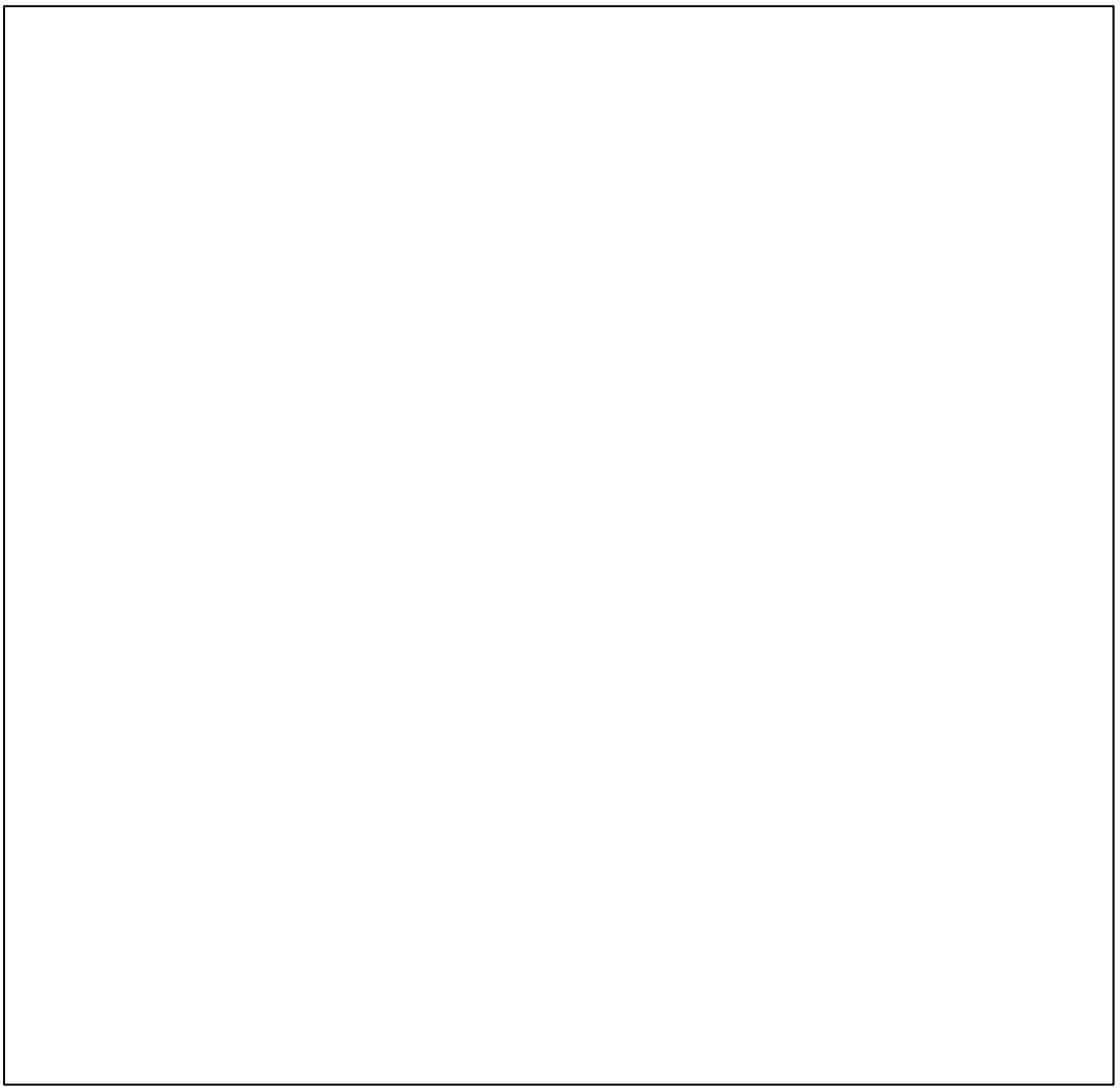


Fig. 4.10: Structural Model 12 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Gender

4.5.8 Influence of Social Media and Political Party Choice with Moderating Effect of Age

Age of the voters was considered as moderating variable between social media use and political participation wherein social media is measured through Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube whereas political party choice is measured through decision for SP, BJP, INC and BSP. Figure 4.11 and 4.12 depicts the structural models for measuring relationship between social media and political party choice with moderating effect of Age.

Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Facebook and age with SP and however the relationship was not significant at ß=0.076 and t =1.232 (see Figure 4.11). Similarly, interacting effect of Facebook and age with BSP have positive insignificant influence at ß =0.041 and t =0.718. However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Facebook and age with BJP and INC at ß =-0.093; t =1.428, and ß =-0.012; t =0.179 respectively.

Similarly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of age on relationship between Twitter and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Twitter and age with BJP and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.048 and t =0.891 (see Table 4.11). Likewise, interacting effect of Twitter and age with BSP has positive insignificant influence at ß =0.025 and t =0.488. However, for SP , interaction between age and twitter has negative insignificant relation at ß =-0.077 and t =1.372. Also, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Twitter and age with INC at ß =-0.025 and t =0.428.

Analysis was carried out to study the moderating effect of age on relationship between WhatsApp and party choice. Results indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of WhatsApp with INC and BSP have positive insignificant influence at ß =0.073 and t =1.291, and ß =0.005 and t =0.106. However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of WhatsApp and age with SP (ß =-0.038 and t =0.731) and BJP (ß =-0.048 and t =0.809).

Lastly, analysis was carried out to study the moderating effect of age on relationship between YouTube and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of YouTube and age with SP and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.016 and t =0.28 (see Figure 4.11). Likewise, interacting effect of

YouTube and age with BJP have positive insignificant influence at ß =0.017 and t =0.261. However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of YouTube and age with INC at ß =- 0.059 and t =0.952. Similarly, negative significant influence is found between interacting effect of YouTube and age with BSP at ß =-0.151 and t =2.773.

Table 4.25: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 13 (a) with Moderating effect of Age

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.185	2.645*	0.316
	Twitter	0.123	2.322*	
	WhatsApp	0.169	3.023*	
	YouTube	0.172	2.78*	
	Age	0.044	1.116	
	Age*Facebook	0.076	1.232	
	Age*Twitter	-0.077	1.372	
	Age*WhatsApp	-0.038	0.731	
	Age*YouTube	0.016	0.28	
BJP	Facebook	0.219	3.275*	0.170
	Twitter	-0.136	2.838*	
	WhatsApp	0.185	2.996*	
	YouTube	0.14	2.21*	
	Age	0.074	1.721	
	Age*Facebook	-0.093	1.428	
	Age*Twitter	0.048	0.891	
	Age*WhatsApp	-0.048	0.809	
	Age*YouTube	0.017	0.261	
INC	Facebook	0.166	2.524*	0.250
	Twitter	0.09	1.744	
	WhatsApp	0.207	3.405*	
	YouTube	0.135	2.124*	
	Age	-0.093	2.319*	
	Age*Facebook	-0.012	0.179	
	Age*Twitter	-0.025	0.428	
	Age*WhatsApp	0.073	1.291	
	Age*YouTube	-0.059	0.952	

	Facebook	0.142	2.148*	
	Twitter	0.1	2.009*	
	WhatsApp	0.151	2.51*	
	YouTube	0.275	4.573*	
BSP	Age	0.073	2.026*	0.352
	Age*Facebook	0.041	0.718	
	Age*Twitter	0.025	0.488	
	Age*WhatsApp	0.005	0.106	
	Age*YouTube	-0.151	2.773*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

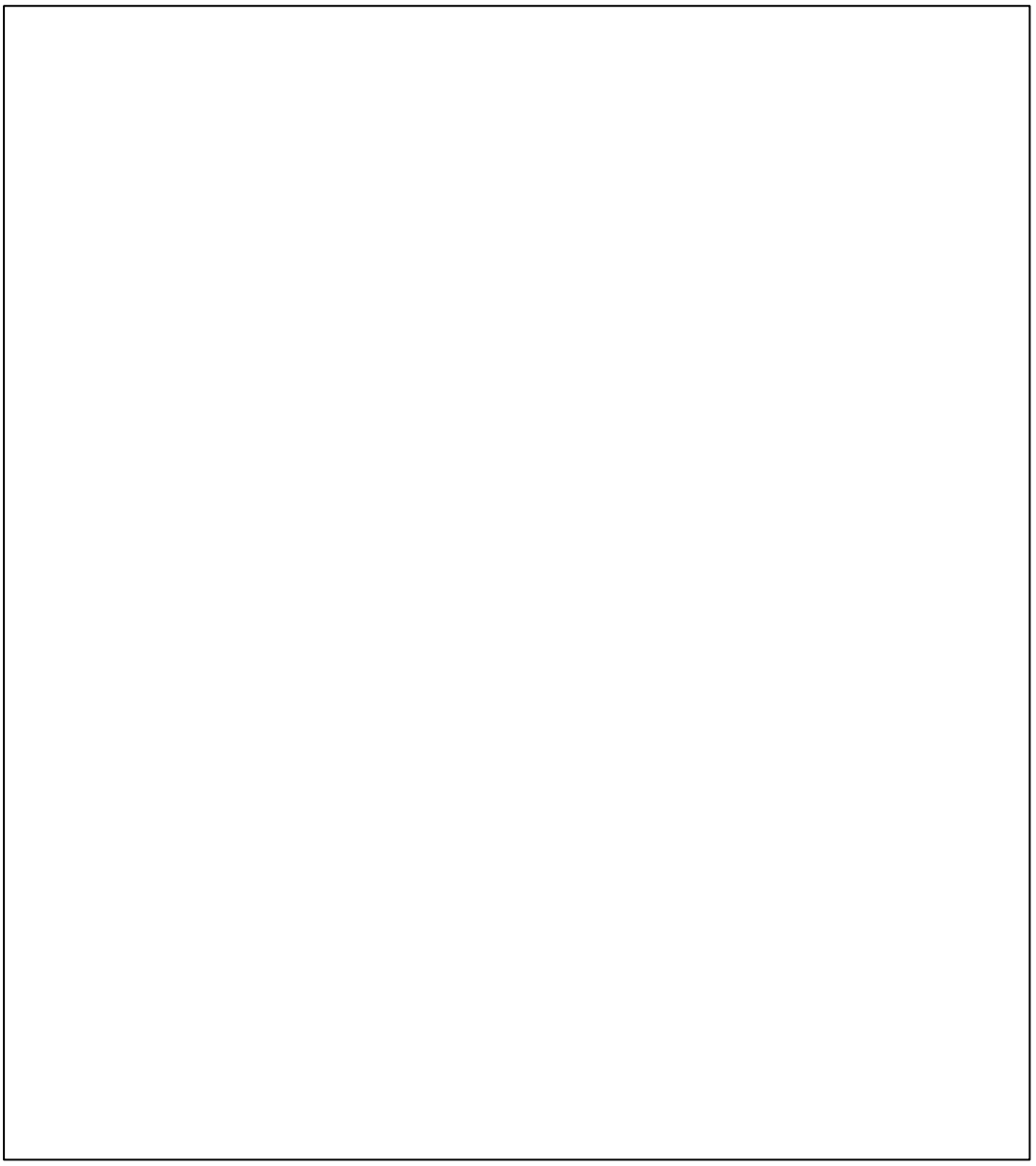


Fig. 4.11: Structural Model 13 (a): Influence of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, WhatsApp on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Age

Model 13 (b) in Table 4.26 represents moderating effect of age on relationship between social media as a whole on political party choice. Results show that age negatively moderates the relationship of social media and choosing in favour of BSP (ß =-0.067 and t =2.298) whereas, it

does not act as moderator for decision to vote for SP (ß =-0.008 and t =0.268), BJP (ß =-0.021 and t =0.62), and INC (ß =- 0.021 and t =0.62).

In conclusion, age does not act as a moderator between social media and political party choice. In some instances, the moderating or interacting factor may not reveal significant result demonstrating that the independent variable has a constant effect on the dependent variable (Dawson, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, social media has a constant effect on political party choice (H_0 (7)).

Table 4.26: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 13 (b) with Moderating effect of Age

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.129*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.08*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.866*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.856*	
SP	Social Media	0.552	19.592*	0.308
	Age	0.042	1.11	
	Age* Social Media	-0.008	0.268	
BJP	Social Media	0.373	9.541*	0.15
	Age	0.085	1.97*	
	Age* Social Media	-0.068	1.845	
INC	Social Media	0.516	15.328*	0.253
	Age	-0.092	2.4*	
	Age* Social Media	-0.021	0.62	
BSP	Social Media	0.579	20.698*	0.344
	Age	0.069	1.979*	

Age* Social Media	-0.067	2.298*

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

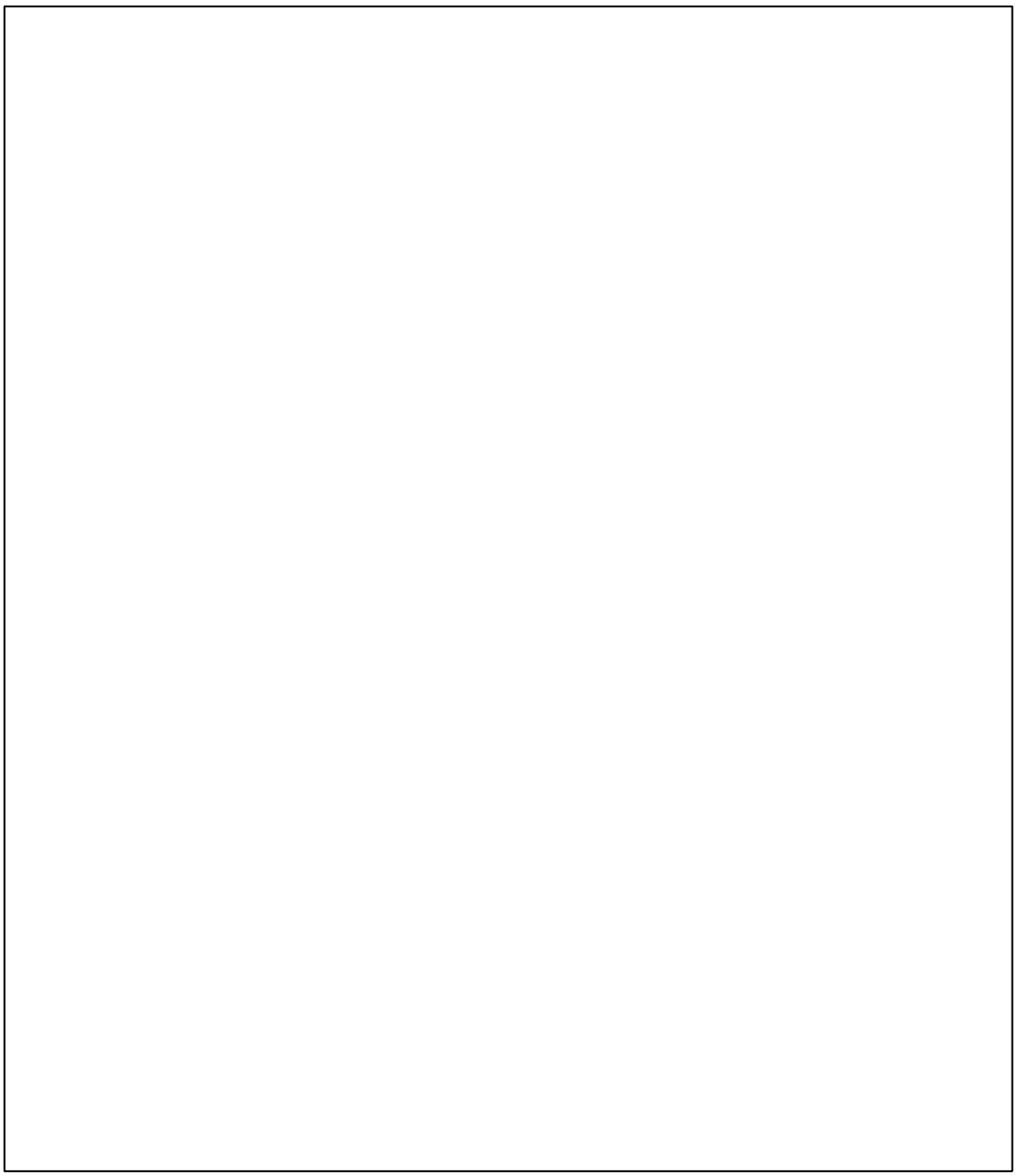


Fig. 4.12: Structural Model 13 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Age

4.5.9 Influence of Social Media and Political Party Choice with Moderating Effect of Education

Education was considered as moderating variable between the relationship of social media and party choice wherein social media is measured through Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube whereas Political party choice is measured through decision for SP, BJP, INC and BSP.

Figure 4.13 and 4.14 depicts the structural model for measuring relationship between social media and political party choice with moderating effect of education.

Result indicated that there is a negative relationship between interacting effect of Facebook and education with BSP (ß =0.022 and t =0.34) and BJP (ß =0.035 and t =0.511), however the relationship was not significant (see Table 4.27). However, interacting effect of Facebook and education with SP (ß =-0.089 and t =1.247), and INC (ß =-0.077 and t =1.194) have been found to be insignificantly negative.

Similarly, moderating effect of education on relationship between Twitter and party choice was studied. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Twitter and education with SP and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.081 and t =1.318 (see Table 4.27). Likewise, interacting effect of Twitter and education with INC and BSP have positive insignificant influence at ß =0.035 and t =0.621, ß =0.095 and t =1.736 respectively. Also, for BJP, interaction between education and twitter has significant positive relation at ß =0.014 and t =0.259.

Further, analysis was carried out to study the moderating effect of education on relationship between WhatsApp and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of WhatsApp and education with INC and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.039 and t =0.67 (see Table 4.27). Likewise, interacting effect of WhatsApp and education with BSP have positive insignificant influence at ß =0.025 and t =0.367. However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of WhatsApp and education with BJP at ß =-0.104 and t =1.74 and SP at ß =-0.037 and t =0.65.

Lastly, analysis was carried out to study the moderating effect of education on relationship between YouTube and party choice. Result indicated that

there is a negative relationship between interacting effect of YouTube and education with SP and however the relationship was not significant at ß =-0.004 and t =0.9.56 (see Table 4.27). Likewise, interacting effect of YouTube and education with BJP have negative insignificant influence at ß =-0.013 and t =0.188. Similarly, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of YouTube and education with INC at ß =-0.002 and t =0.029 and BSP at ß =-0.111 and t =1.549.

Table 4.27: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 14 (a) with Moderating effect of Education

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.186	2.626*	0.318
	Twitter	0.122	2.263*	
	WhatsApp	0.167	2.995*	
	YouTube	0.186	2.96*	
	Education	0.021	0.537	
	Education*Facebook	-0.089	1.247	
	Education*Twitter	0.081	1.318	
	Education*WhatsApp	-0.037	0.65	
	Education*YouTube	-0.004	0.056	
BJP	Facebook	0.262	3.615*	0.178
	Twitter	-0.141	2.969*	
	WhatsApp	0.2	3.14*	
	YouTube	0.109	1.716	
	Education	0.107	2.537*	
	Education*Facebook	0.035	0.511	
	Education*Twitter	0.014	0.259	
	Education*WhatsApp	-0.104	1.74	
	Education*YouTube	-0.013	0.188	
INC	Facebook	0.108	1.598	0.241
	Twitter	0.1	1.972*	
	WhatsApp	0.207	3.433*	
	YouTube	0.156	2.392*	
	Education	-0.019	0.492	
	Education*Facebook	-0.077	1.194	
	Education*Twitter	0.035	0.621	
	Education*WhatsApp	0.039	0.67	
	Education*YouTube	0.002	0.029	
BSP	Facebook	0.172	2.557*	0.359
	Twitter	0.107	2.165*	
	WhatsApp	0.117	1.935	
	YouTube	0.256	4.23*	
	Education	-0.146	3.74*	
	Education*Facebook	0.022	0.34	
	Education*Twitter	0.095	1.736	
	Education*WhatsApp	0.025	0.367	
	Education*YouTube	-0.111	1.549	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

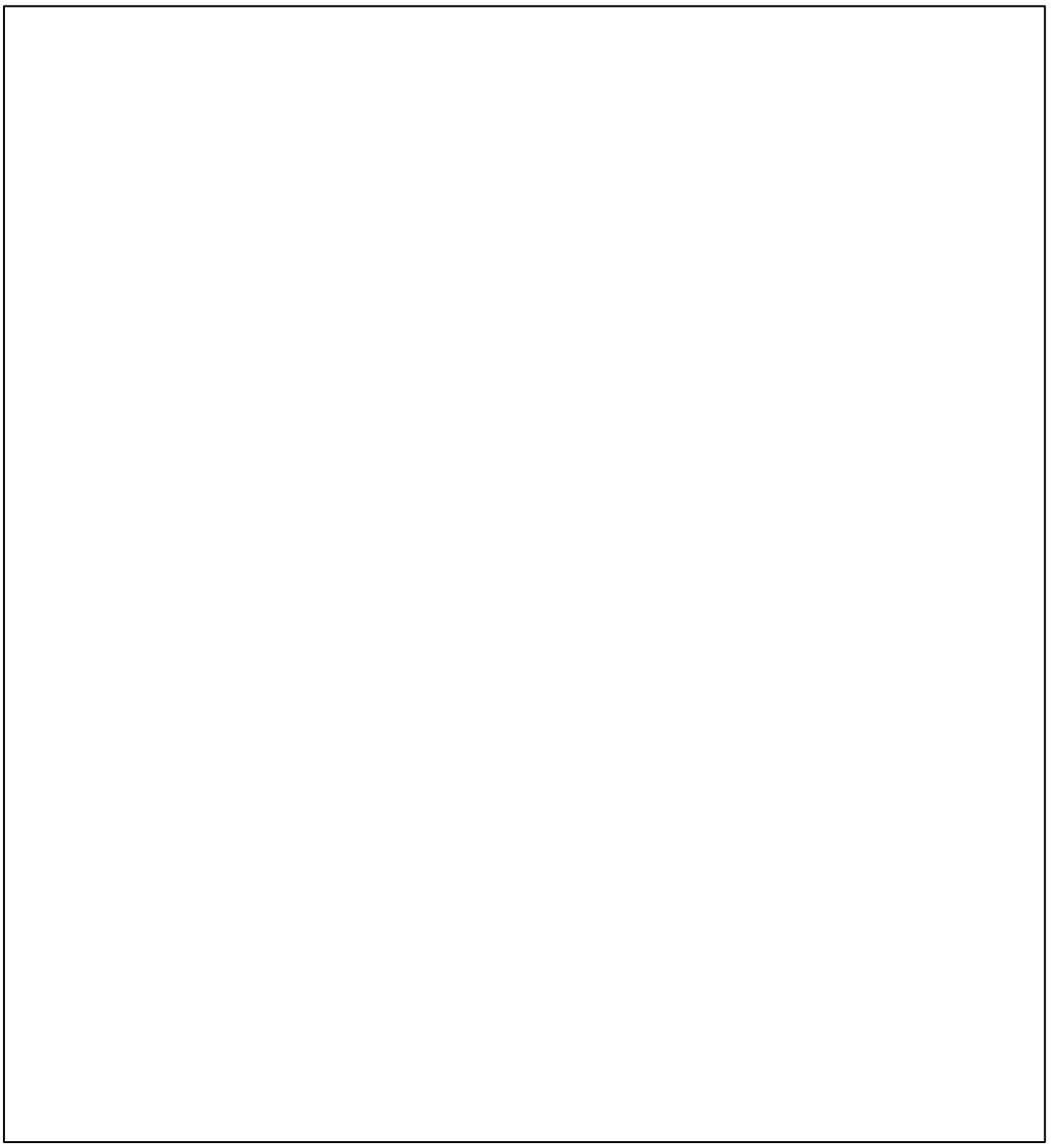


Fig. 4.13: Structural Model 14 (a): Influence of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, WhatsApp on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Education

Model 14 (b) in Table 4.28 represents moderating effect of education on relationship between social media as a whole on political party choice. Results show that education does not moderates the relationship of social media and political party choice at all i.e, INC (ß =-0.006 and t =0.17) and BSP (ß =0.031 and t =0.931), SP (ß =-0.049 and t =1.583) and BJP (ß =-0.038 and t =0.996). In conclusion, it can be said that education has

no influence on relationship of social media and political party choice (H_0 (8)).

Table 4.28: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 4 (b) with Moderating effect of Education

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.303*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.101*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.783*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.828*	
SP	Social Media	0.559	20.31*	0.31
	Education	0.029	0.795	
	Education* Social Media	-0.049	1.583	
BJP	Social Media	0.392	10.18*	0.151
	Education	0.107	2.629*	
	Education * Social Media	-0.038	0.996	
INC	Social Media	0.495	14.66*	0.244
	Education	-0.02	0.519	
	Education * Social Media	-0.006	0.17	
BSP	Social Media	0.565	20.277*	0.352
	Education	-0.127	3.296*	

Education * Social Media	0.031	0.931

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

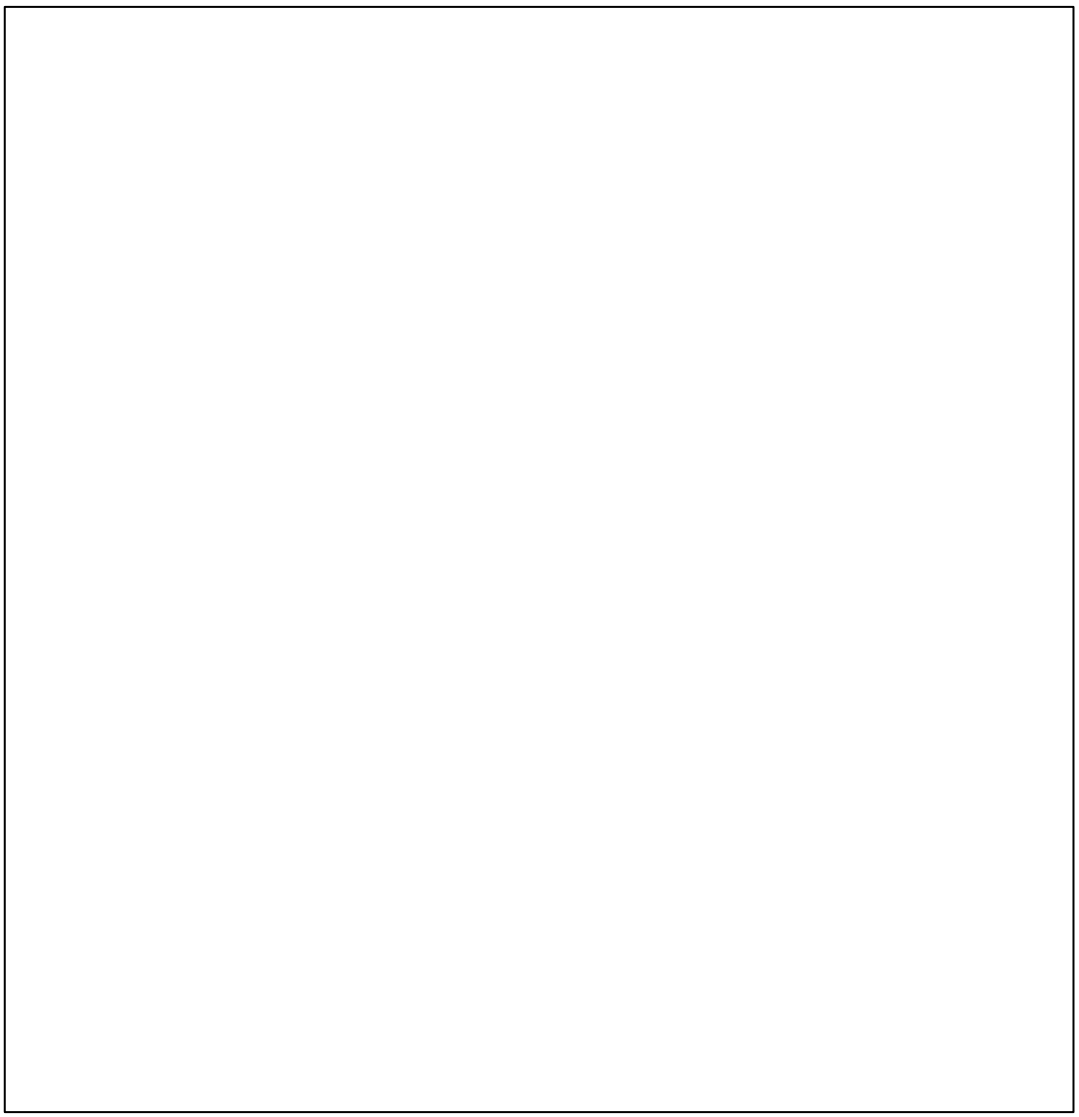


Fig. 4.14: Structural Model 14 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice with Education as Moderator

4.5.10 Influence of Social Media and Political Party Choice with Moderating Effect of Income

Looking at the moderating effect of Income between the relationship of social media and political party choice wherein social media is measured through Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube whereas political party choice is measured through decision to vote for SP, BJP, INC and BSP. Figure 4.15 and 4.16 depicts the structural model for measuring relationship between social media and political party choice with moderating effect of income.

Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Facebook and income with BJP (ß =0.008 and t =0.111) and SP (ß =0.172 and t =2.434), however the relationship is not significant for BJP and significant for SP (see Table 4.29). Similarly, interacting effect of Facebook and income with INC and BSP have negative insignificant influence at ß =-0.041 and t =0.61, and ß =-.031 and t =0.453 respectively.

Similarly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of income on relationship between Twitter and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Twitter and income with INC and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.104 and t =1.902 (see Table 4.29). Nevertheless, negative significant influence is found between interacting effect of Twitter and income with SP (ß =-0.165 and t =2.779) and insignificant with SP (ß =-0.165 and t =2.779), BJP (ß =-0.033 and t =0.6) and BSP (ß =-0.007 and t =0.12).

Further, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of income on relationship between WhatsApp and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of WhatsApp and income with INC and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.046 and t =0.862 (see Table 4.29). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of WhatsApp and income with SP at ß =-0.069 and t =1.186, BJP at ß =-0.067 and t =1.197 and BSP at ß =-0.071 and t =1.213.

Lastly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of income on relationship between YouTube and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of YouTube and income with BSP and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.02 and t =0.31 (see Table 4.29). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of YouTube and

income with SP at ß =-0.012 and t =0.167, BJP at ß =-0.009 and t =0.139 and INC at ß =-0.107 and t =1.664.

Table 4.29: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 15 (a) with Moderating effect of Income

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.194	2.831*	0.328
	Twitter	0.108	2.024*	
	WhatsApp	0.167	2.941*	
	YouTube	0.188	3.006*	
	Income	0.039	0.993	
	Income*Facebook	0.172	2.434*	
	Income*Twitter	-0.165	2.779*	
	Income*WhatsApp	-0.069	1.186	
	Income*YouTube	-0.012	0.167	
BJP	Facebook	0.236	3.402*	0.166
	Twitter	-0.134	2.752*	
	WhatsApp	0.19	2.99*	
	YouTube	0.127	1.972*	
	Income	0.027	0.647	
	Income*Facebook	0.008	0.111	
	Income*Twitter	-0.033	0.6	
	Income*WhatsApp	-0.067	1.197	
	Income*YouTube	-0.009	0.139	
INC	Facebook	0.119	1.735	0.245
	Twitter	0.107	2.114*	
	WhatsApp	0.206	3.471*	
	YouTube	0.135	2.236*	
	Income	0.01	0.245	
	Income*Facebook	-0.041	0.61	
	Income*Twitter	0.104	1.902	
	Income*WhatsApp	0.046	0.862	
	Income*YouTube	-0.107	1.664	
BSP	Facebook	0.141	2.113*	0.343
	Twitter	0.113	2.19*	
	WhatsApp	0.146	2.409*	
	YouTube	0.274	4.496*	
	Income	0.057	1.473	
	Income*Facebook	-0.031	0.453	
	Income*Twitter	-0.007	0.12	
	Income*WhatsApp	-0.071	1.213	
	Income*YouTube	0.02	0.31	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

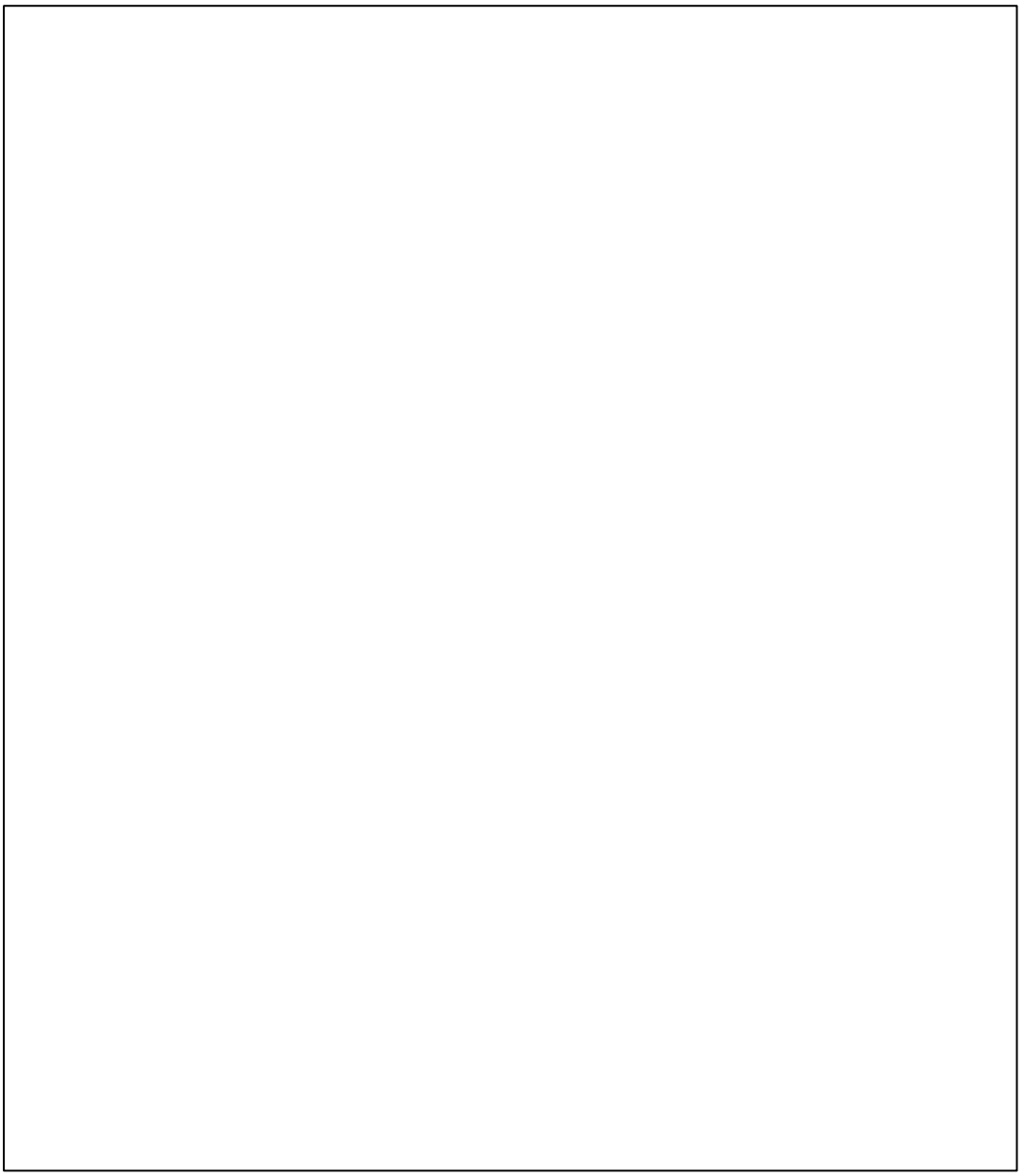


Fig. 4.15: Structural Model 15 (a): Influence of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, WhatsApp on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Education

Model 15 (b) in Table 4.30 represents moderating effect of income on relationship between social media as a whole on political party choice. Results show that income moderates the relationship of social media and choosing in favour of BJP (ß =-0.103 and t =-0.104) and BSP (ß =-0.07

and t =-0.07) whereas, it does not act as moderator for decision to vote for SP (ß =-0.039 and t =-0.041) and INC (ß =- 0.011 and t =-0.01). In conclusion, income has shown varied significant relationships between social media and political party choice. In some instances, the moderating or interacting factor may not reveal significant result demonstrating that the independent variable has a constant effect on the dependent variable (Dawson, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, social media has a constant effect on political party choice (H_0 (9)).

Table 4.30: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 15 (b) with Moderating effect of Income

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.118*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.087*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.804*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.838*	
SP	Social Media	0.556	0.566*	0.31
	Income	0.04	0.037	
	Income * Social Media	-0.039	-0.041	
BJP	Social Media	0.391	0.395*	0.149
	Income	0.022	0.021	
	Income * Social Media	-0.103	-0.104*	
INC	Social Media	0.497	0.502*	0.244
	Income	0.017	0.015	
	Income * Social Media	-0.011	-0.01	
	Social Media	0.583	0.593*	

BSP	Income	0.051	0.047	0.342
	Income * Social Media	-0.07	-0.07*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

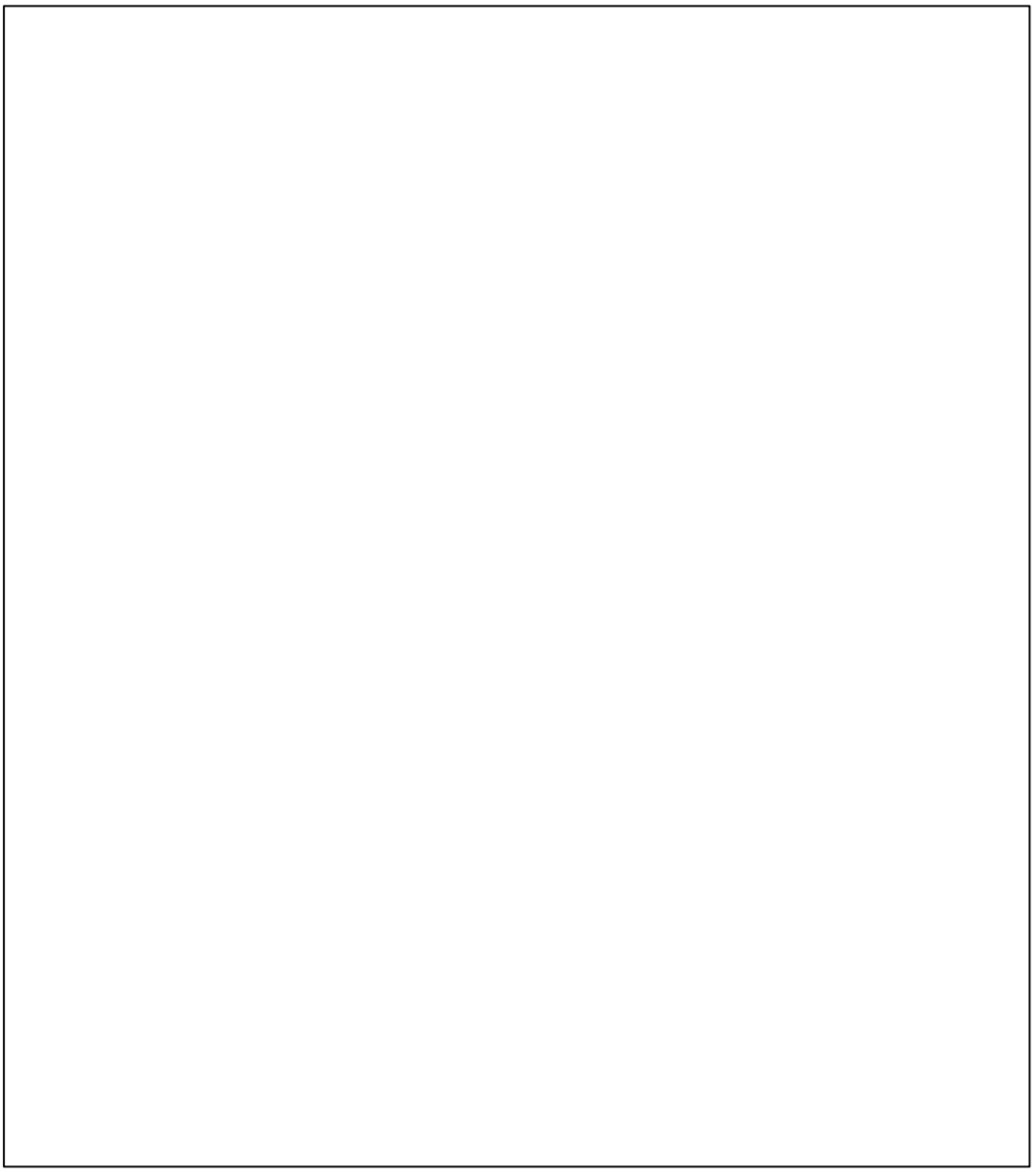


Fig. 4.16: Structural Model 15 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice with Income as Moderator

4.5.11 Influence of Social Media and Political Party Choice with Moderating Effect of Residential Area

Looking at the moderating effect of residential area between the relationship of social media and political party choice wherein social media is measured considering Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube whereas political party choice is measured by decision for SP, BJP, INC and BSP.

Result indicated that there is a negative relationship between interacting effect of Facebook and residential area with SP and however the relationship is not significant at ß =-0.02 and t =0.299 (see Table 4.31). Similarly, interacting effect of Facebook and residential area with INC have negative insignificant influence at ß =- 0.01 and t =0.143. However, positive insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Facebook and residential area with BJP and BSP at ß =0.056 and t =0.823, and ß =0.01 and t =0.156 respectively.

Similarly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of residential area on relationship between Twitter and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Twitter and residential area with INC and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.046 and t =0.939 (see Table 4.31). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Twitter and residential area with SP (ß =-0.053 and t =1.009), BJP (ß = -0.071 and t =1.504) and BSP (ß =-0.014 and t =0.281).

Further, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of residential area on relationship between WhatsApp and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of WhatsApp and residential area with SP and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.004 and t =0.07 (see Table 4.31). Likewise, interacting effect of WhatsApp and residential area with BJP (ß =0.26 and t =0.429) and INC (ß =0.046 and t =0.939) have positive insignificant influence. However, negatively significant influence is found between interacting effect of WhatsApp and residential area with BSP at ß =-0.118 and t =2.

Lastly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of residential area on relationship between YouTube and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of YouTube

and residential area with SP (ß =0.027 and t =0.408) and BSP (ß =0.079 and t =1.307), however the relationship was not significant (see Table 4.31). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of YouTube and residential area with BJP at ß =-0.035 and t =0.54 and INC at ß =-0.009 and t =0.139.

Table 4.31: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 16 (a) with Moderating effect of Residential Area

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.124	1.813*	0.314
	Twitter	0.122	2.276*	
	WhatsApp	0.165	2.929*	
	YouTube	0.174	2.766*	
	Area	0.002	0.054	
	Area*Facebook	-0.02	0.299	
	Area*Twitter	-0.053	1.009	
	Area*WhatsApp	0.004	0.07	
	Area*YouTube	0.027	0.408	
BJP	Facebook	0.229	3.35*	0.161
	Twitter	-0.14	2.881*	
	WhatsApp	0.196	3.202*	
	YouTube	0.128	2.005*	
	Area	0.027	0.647	
	Area*Facebook	0.056	0.823	
	Area*Twitter	-0.071	1.504	
	Area*WhatsApp	0.026	0.429	
	Area*YouTube	-0.035	0.54	
INC	Facebook	0.207	3.007*	0.245
	Twitter	0.087	1.702	
	WhatsApp	0.212	3.585*	
	YouTube	0.145	2.268*	
	Area	0.057	1.469	
	Area*Facebook	-0.01	0.143	
	Area*Twitter	0.046	0.939	
	Area*WhatsApp	0.047	0.866	
	Area*YouTube	-0.009	0.139	

	Facebook	0.15	2.227*	
	Twitter	0.105	2.014*	
	WhatsApp	0.151	2.5*	
	YouTube	0.266	4.376*	
BSP	Area	-0.002	0.065	0.341
	Area*Facebook	0.01	0.156	
	Area*Twitter	-0.014	0.281	
	Area*WhatsApp	-0.118	2*	
	Area*YouTube	0.079	1.307	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

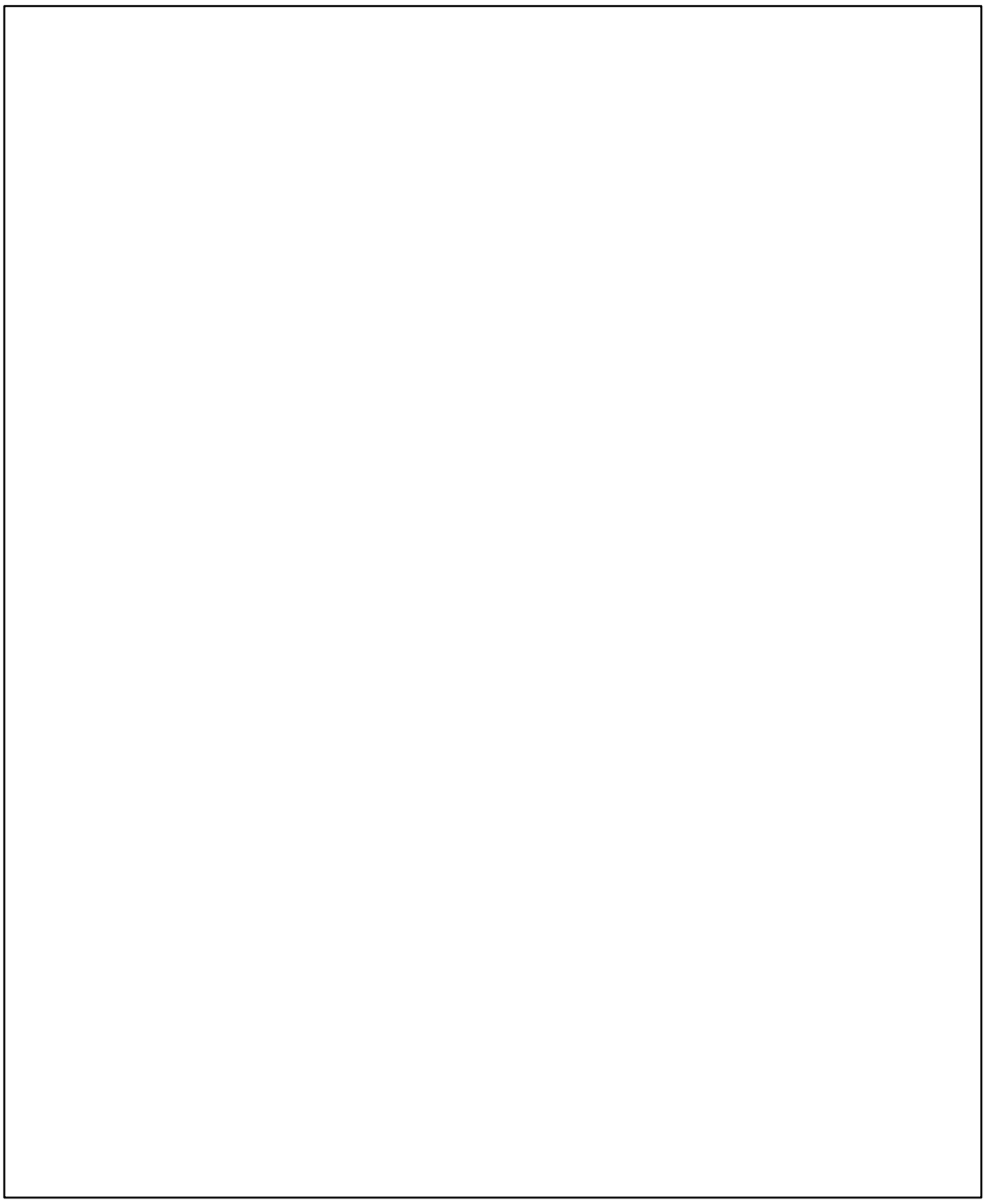


Fig. 4.17: Structural Model 16 (a): Influence of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, WhatsApp on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Residential area

Model 16 (b) in Table 4.32 represents moderating effect of residential area on relationship between social media as a whole on political party choice. Results show that residential area does not moderate the relationship of social media and political party choice at all i.e., INC (ß =0.044 and t =1.35) and BSP (ß =-0.03 and t =0.979), SP (ß =-0.011 and t =0.388) and BJP (ß

=-0.032 and t =0.862). In conclusion, residential area does not act as a moderator between social media and political party choice (H_0 (10)).

Table 4.32: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 16 (b) with Moderating effect of Residential Area

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.256*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.119*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.852*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.773*	
SP	Social Media	0.557	20.193*	0.307
	Area	0.008	0.22	
	Area * Social Media	-0.011	0.388	
BJP	Social Media	0.379	9.952*	0.139
	Area	0.016	0.379	
	Area * Social Media	-0.032	0.862	
INC	Social Media	0.495	14.984*	0.249
	Area	0.055	1.416	
	Area * Social Media	0.044	1.35	
BSP	Social Media	0.583	21.991*	0.336
	Area	-0.002	0.049	
	Area * Social Media	-0.03	0.979	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

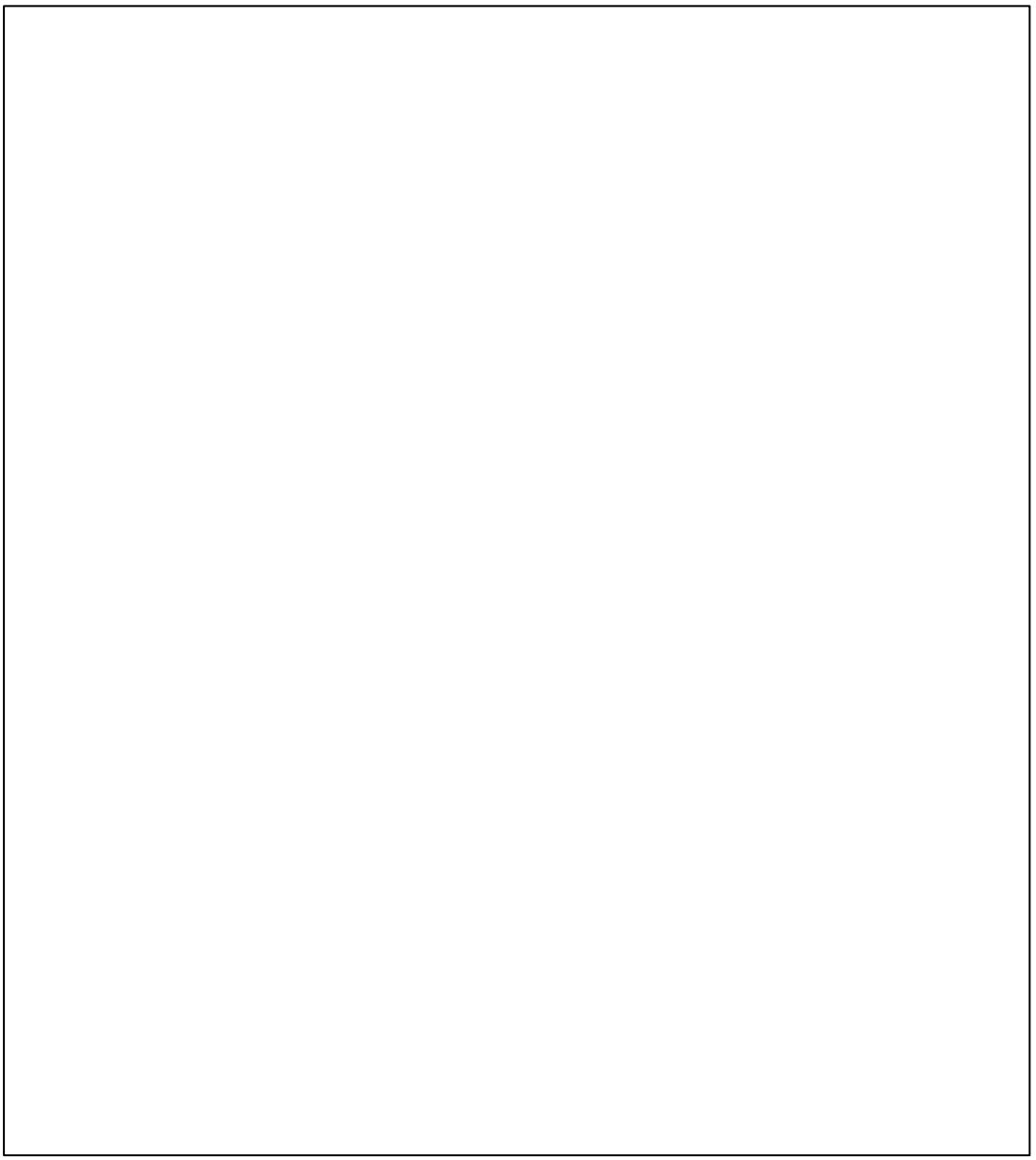


Fig. 4.18: Structural Model 16 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice with Residential Area as Moderator

4.5.12 Influence of Social Media and Political Party Choice with Moderating Effect of Marital Status

Marital status of voters is considered to study as moderating variable between the relationship of social media and political party choice wherein social media is measured through Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and YouTube whereas political party choice is measured through decision for SP, BJP, INC and BSP.

Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Facebook and marital status with SP and however the relationship is not significant at ß =0.42 and t =0.625 (see Table 4.33). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Facebook and marital status with BJP (ß =-0.034 and t =0.514), INC (ß =-0.05 and t =0.848) and BSP (ß =-0.104 and t =1.606).

Similarly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of marital status on relationship between Twitter and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Twitter and marital status with INC (ß =0.068 and t =1.288) and BSP (ß =0.045 and t =0.88), however the relationship is not significant (see Table 4.33). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Twitter and marital status with SP at ß =-0.042 and t =0.786 and BJP at ß =-0.019 and t =0.394.

Further, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of marital status on relationship between WhatsApp and party choice. Result indicated that there is a negative relationship between interacting effect of WhatsApp and marital status with SP (ß =-0.014 and t =0.253), BJP (ß =-0.085 and t =1.363), INC (ß =-0.05 and t =0.848) and BSP (ß =-0.027 and t =0.457), and however the relationship is not significant (see Table 4.33).

Lastly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of marital status on relationship between YouTube and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of YouTube and marital status with BJP and however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.09 and t =1.136 (see Table 4.33). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of YouTube and marital status with SP at ß =-0.072 and t =1.136, INC at ß =-0.092 and t =1.461 and BSP at ß =-0.059 and t =0.978.

Table 4.33: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 17 (a) with Moderating effect of Marital Status

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.221	3.193*	0.318
	Twitter	0.113	2.068*	
	WhatsApp	0.164	2.887*	
	YouTube	0.168	2.615*	
	Marital Status	0	0.002	
	Marital Status*Facebook	0.042	0.625	
	Marital Status*Twitter	-0.042	0.786	
	Marital Status*WhatsApp	-0.014	0.253	
	Marital Status*YouTube	-0.072	1.136	
BJP	Facebook	0.213	3.037*	0.165
	Twitter	-0.13	2.674*	
	WhatsApp	0.185	2.945*	
	YouTube	0.133	2.06*	
	Marital Status	0.045	1.051	
	Marital Status*Facebook	-0.034	0.514	
	Marital Status*Twitter	-0.019	0.394	
	Marital Status*WhatsApp	-0.085	1.363	
	Marital Status*YouTube	0.09	1.409	
INC	Facebook	0.137	2.041*	0.261
	Twitter	0.091	1.731	
	WhatsApp	0.178	2.928*	
	YouTube	0.159	2.478*	
	Marital Status	0.075	1.827	
	Marital Status*Facebook	-0.05	0.774	
	Marital Status*Twitter	0.068	1.288	
	Marital Status*WhatsApp	-0.05	0.848	
	Marital Status*YouTube	-0.092	1.461	
BSP	Facebook	0.136	1.963*	0.373
	Twitter	0.11	2.12*	
	WhatsApp	0.11	1.848	
	YouTube	0.296	4.864*	
	Marital Status	0.15	3.99*	
	Marital Status*Facebook	-0.104	1.606	
	Marital Status*Twitter	0.045	0.88	
	Marital Status*WhatsApp	-0.027	0.457	
	Marital Status*YouTube	-0.059	0.978	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

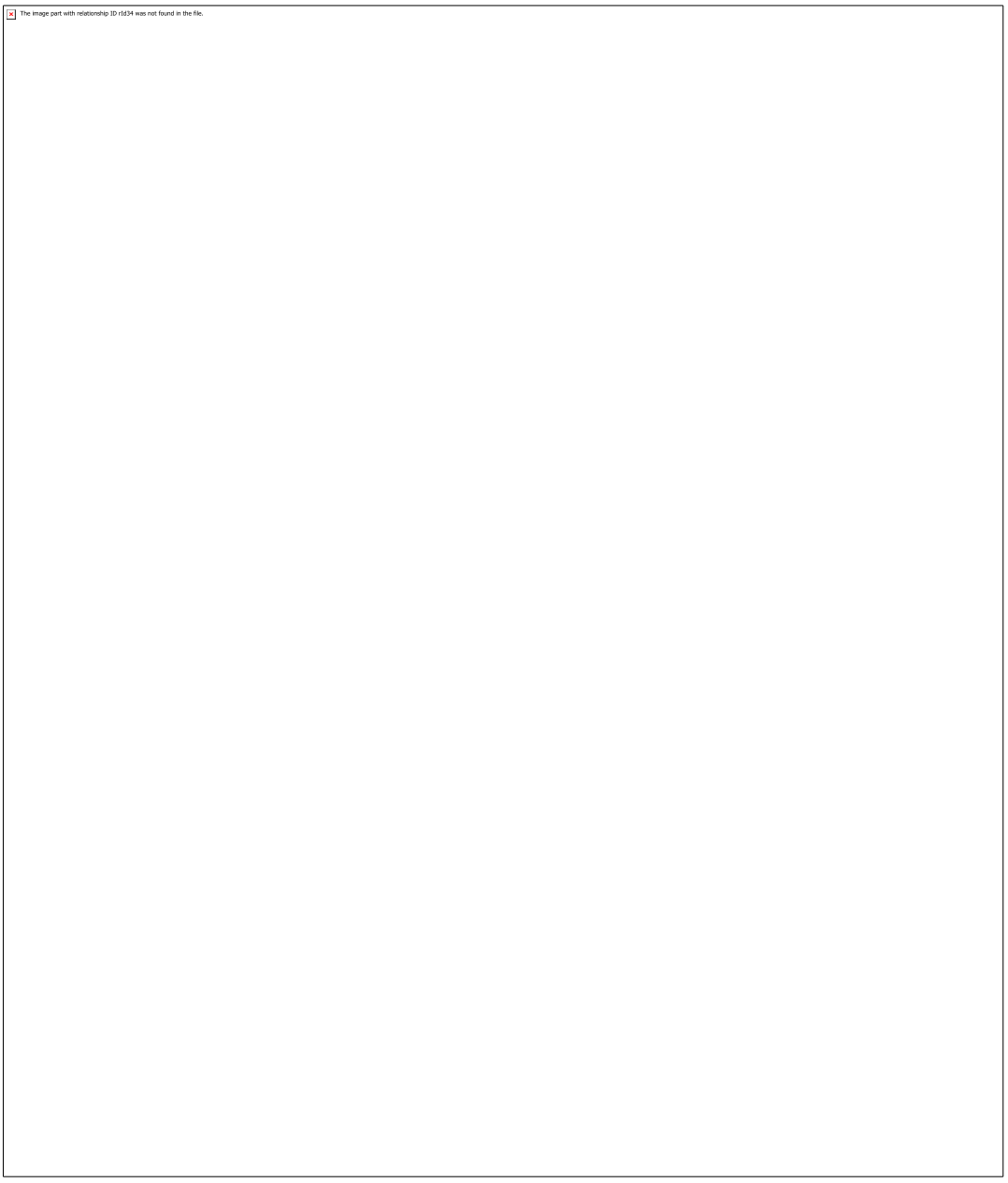


Fig. 4.19: Structural Model 17 (a): Influence of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, WhatsApp on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Marital Status

Model 17 (b) in Table 4.34 represents moderating effect of marital status on relationship between social media as a whole on political party choice. Results show that marital status negatively moderates the relationship of social media and choosing in favour of BSP (ß =-0.12 and t =3.741)

whereas, it does not act as moderator for decision to vote for SP (ß =-0.057 and t =1.79), BJP (ß =-0.041 and t =1.044), and INC (ß =-0.119 and t =1.59).

In conclusion, marital status does not act as a moderator between social media and political party choice. In some instances, the moderating or interacting factor may not reveal significant result demonstrating that the independent variable has a constant effect on the dependent variable (Dawson, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, social media has a constant effect on political party choice (H_0 (11)).

Table 4.34: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 17 (b) with Moderating effect of Marital Status

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.166*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.08*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.781*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.831*	
SP	Social Media	0.565	19.404*	0.31
	Marital Status	-0.005	0.139	
	Marital Status * Social Media	-0.057	1.79	
BJP	Social Media	0.371	9.061*	0.142
	Marital Status	0.047	1.095	
	Marital Status * Social Media	-0.041	1.044	
INC	Social Media	0.494	13.948*	0.262
	Marital Status	0.068	1.692	
	Marital Status * Social Media	-0.119	1.59	
	Social Media	0.561	19.203*	

BSP	Marital Status	0.136	3.669*	0.367
	Marital Status * Social Media	-0.12	3.741*	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

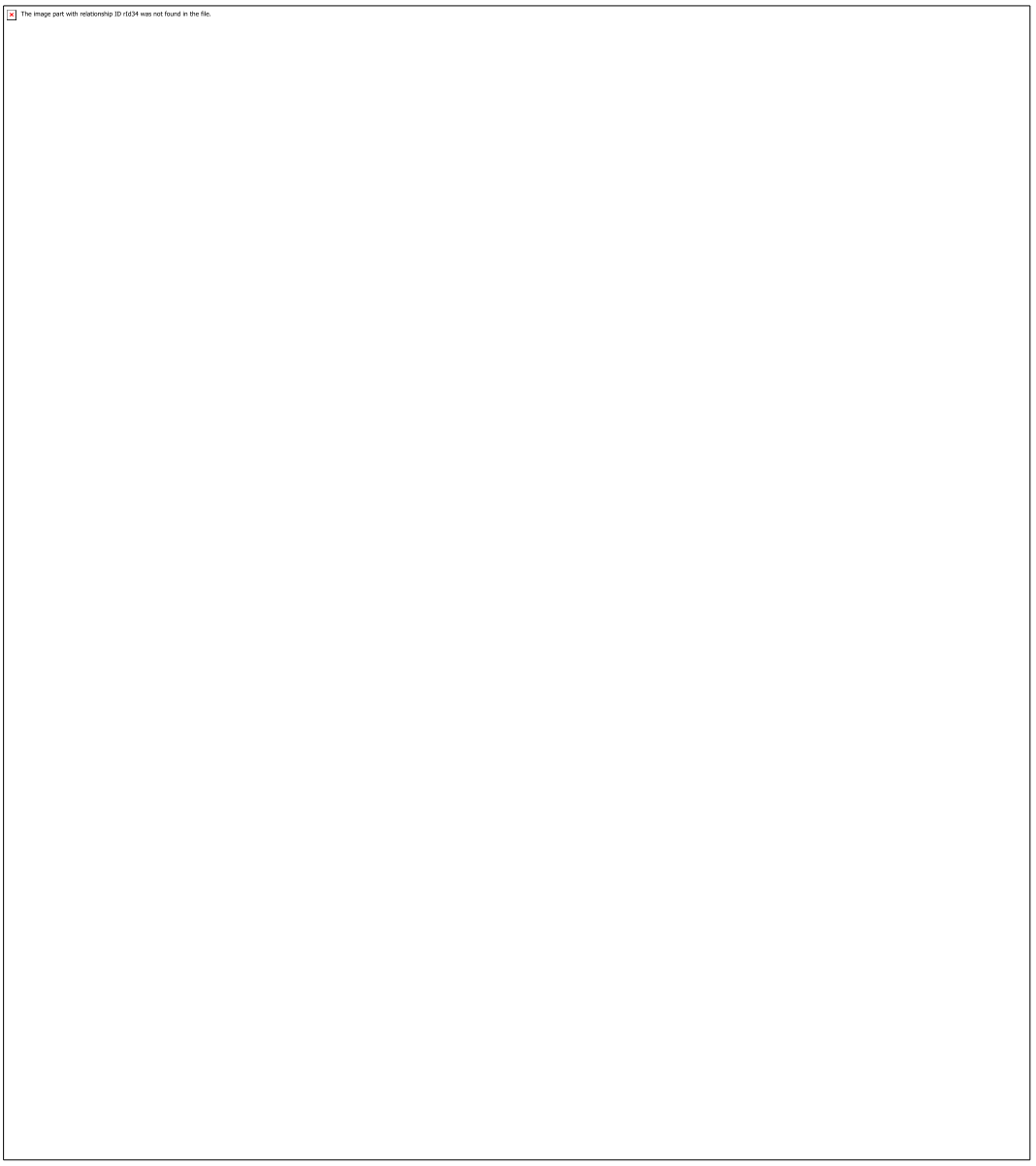


Fig. 4.20: Structural Model 17 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice with Marital Status Moderator

4.5.13 Influence of Social Media and Political Party Choice with Moderating Effect of Occupation

Occupation of voters is considered to study as moderating variable between the relationship of Social media and political party choice wherein social media is measured through Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and

YouTube whereas political party choice is measured through decision for SP, BJP, INC and BSP.

Result indicated a positive relationship between interacting effect of Facebook and occupation with SP, however the relationship was not significant at ß =0.01 and t =0.138 (see Table 4.35). Also, positive insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Facebook and occupation with BJP and INC at ß =0.028 and t =0.416, and ß =0.029 and t =0.522 respectively. On the other hand, interacting effect of Facebook and occupation with BSP have negative significant influence at ß =- 0.144 and t =2.355.

Similarly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of occupation on relationship between Twitter and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive relationship between interacting effect of Twitter and occupation with BJP (ß =0.024 and t =0.445), INC (ß =0.004 and t =0.07), and BSP (ß =0.184 and t =3.75), however the relationship is not significant. (see Table 4.35). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of Twitter and occupation with SP at ß =-0.085 and t =1.403.

Further, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of occupation on relationship between WhatsApp and party choice. Result indicated that there is a insignificant positive relationship between interacting effect of WhatsApp and occupation with BSP at ß =0.015 and t =0.251 (see Table 4.35). However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of WhatsApp and occupation with SP at ß =-0.026 and t =0.426, INC at ß =-0.07 and t =1.111, and BJP at ß =-0.079 and t =0.133.

Lastly, analysis is carried out to study the moderating effect of occupation on relationship between YouTube and party choice. Result indicated that there is a positive significant relationship between interaction of YouTube and occupation, and SP at ß =0.121 and t =0.202 (see Table

4.35). Likewise, interacting effect of YouTube and occupation with BJP and INC have positive insignificant influence at ß =0.008 and t =0.133, and ß =0.072 and t =1.051 respectively. However, negative insignificant influence is found between interacting effect of YouTube and occupation with BSP at ß =-0.042 and t =0.743.

Table 4.35: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 18 (a) with Moderating effect of Occupation

DV	IV	ß	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
SP	Facebook	0.212	3.028*	0.323
	Twitter	0.118	2.202*	
	WhatsApp	0.182	3.306*	
	YouTube	0.154	2.506*	
	Occupation	-0.055	1.403	
	Occupation*Facebook	0.01	0.138	
	Occupation*Twitter	-0.085	1.459	
	Occupation*WhatsApp	-0.026	0.426	
	Occupation*YouTube	0.121	2.02*	
BJP	Facebook	0.247	3.534*	0.167
	Twitter	-0.15	3.039*	
	WhatsApp	0.209	3.484*	
	YouTube	0.109	1.712	
	Occupation	-0.077	1.842	
	Occupation*Facebook	0.028	0.416	
	Occupation*Twitter	0.024	0.445	
	Occupation*WhatsApp	-0.079	1.199	
	Occupation*YouTube	0.008	0.133	
INC	Facebook	0.108	1.614	0.243
	Twitter	0.102	1.992*	
	WhatsApp	0.201	3.332*	
	YouTube	0.158	2.505*	
	Occupation	0.072	1.051	
	Occupation*Facebook	0.029	0.522	
	Occupation*Twitter	0.004	0.07	
	Occupation*WhatsApp	-0.07	1.111	
	Occupation*YouTube	0.072	1.051	

	Facebook	0.156	2.298*	
	Twitter	0.095	1.832	
	WhatsApp	0.158	2.682*	
	YouTube	0.265	4.565*	
BSP	Occupation	0.064	1.686	0.354
	Occupation*Facebook	-0.144	2.355*	
	Occupation*Twitter	0.184	3.75*	
	Occupation*WhatsApp	0.015	0.251	
	Occupation*YouTube	-0.042	0.743	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

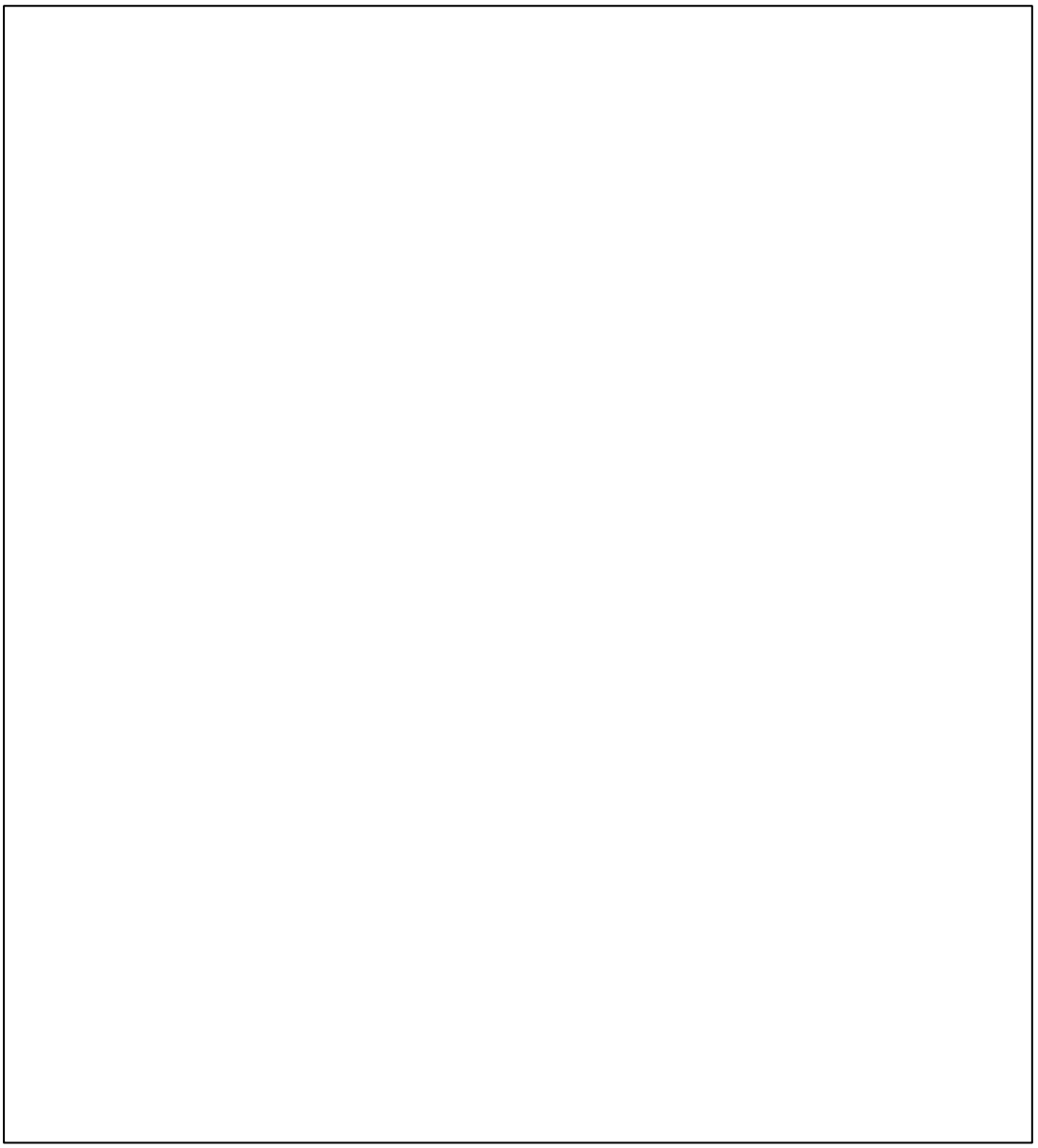


Fig. 4.21: Structural Model 18 (a): Influence of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, WhatsApp on Political Party Choice with Moderating effect of Occupation

Model 18 (b) in Table 4.36 represents moderating effect of occupation on relationship between social media as a whole on political party choice. Results show that occupation does not moderates the relationship of social media and political party choice at all i.e., INC (ß =-0.02 and t =0.507) and BSP (ß =0.051 and t =1.356), SP (ß =-0.049

and t =1.707) and BJP (ß =-0.072 and t =1.707). In conclusion, Occupation has no significant influence on relationship between social media use and political party choice. (H_0 (12)).

Table 4.36: Path Coefficient of the Inner Model 18 (b) with Moderating effect of Occupation

DV	IV	β	T Statistics	Adjusted R^2
Social Media	Facebook	0.349	6.133*	0.984
	Twitter	0.093	2.088*	
	WhatsApp	0.325	5.77*	
	YouTube	0.377	6.726*	
SP	Social Media	0.561	20.077*	0.311
	Occupation	-0.049	1.271	
	Occupation * Social Media	0.043	1.31	
BJP	Social Media	0.388	10.07*	0.143
	Occupation	-0.072	1.707	
	Occupation * Social Media	-0.016	0.381	
INC	Social Media	0.5	14.915*	0.246
	Occupation	-0.02	0.507	
	Occupation * Social Media	0.01	0.268	
	Social Media	0.578	20.619*	

BSP	Occupation	0.051	1.356	0.339
	Occupation * Social Media	-0.036	1.032	

**Confidence level 95 per cent*

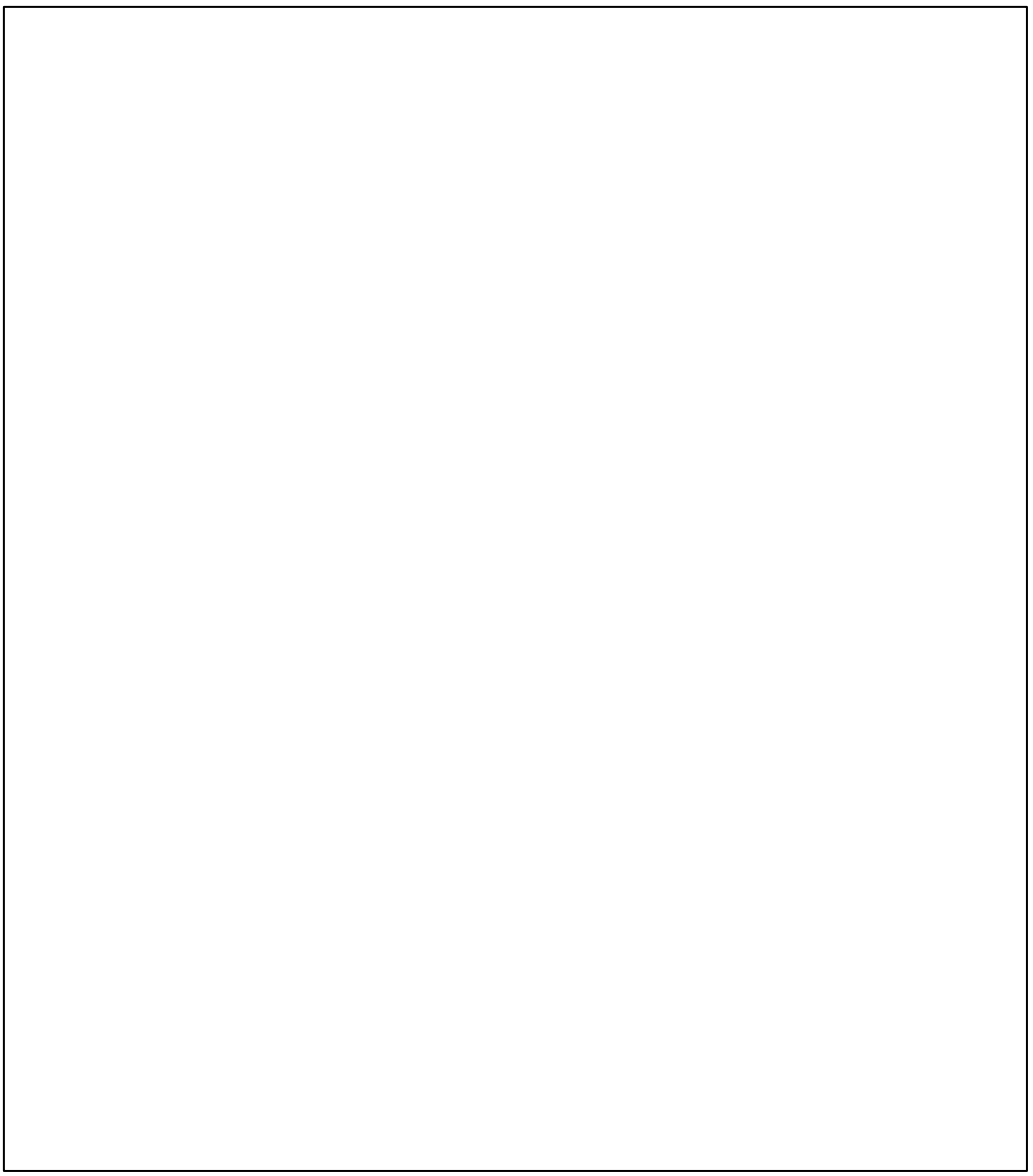


Fig. 4.22: Structural Model 18 (b): Influence of Social Media on Political Party Choice with Occupation as Moderator

4.5.14 DISCUSSION:

The study aimed to examine the relationship between demographics, social media usage and political party choice, found a positive relationship between social media and party choice. Individually also whether it is Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter and YouTube, usage was found to have a positive impact on choosing a particular party. Overall, these findings are in line with previous findings (Rekha, 2015 and Han, 2008).

Looking at the decision of choosing a particular party being influenced by particular social media platform, current study found that citizens who are more active on Facebook are more likely to vote in favour of BJP, followed by SP and INC. On the other hand, SP has a higher tendency to get votes by citizens who are using Twitter or YouTube more. Likewise, higher usage of WhatsApp for the political purpose may lead to take decision in favour of INC. These findings have novelty in itself as hardly any study reported such results before.

This study has focused on seven of the most significant demographics (i.e., age, gender, education, marital status, area, occupation, and income) to examine their moderating influence to take the decision vote in favour or disfavour of a particular party. Researchers around the globe studied the impact of occupation (Weakliem, 1991), education (Henry, 2005), marital status (Newman, 2012), income (Kasara and Pavithra, 2015) on political party choice directly but none of them examined the moderating effect of demographics between the relationship of social media use and party choice. The current study contributes new findings to the literature which suggests that gender, education, age, income, and profession are the strong predictor for voting behaviour (Bone and Ranney, 1981; Campbell et al., 1960; Asher, 1992; Trevor, 1999; Burgess et al., 2000; Holt et al., 2013) but hardly any study considered indirect influence of demographics on political party choice. To address this, current results highlighted that majority of demographics does not moderated the relationship.

However, for some parties demographics such as gender and income are found as moderator for decision in favour of some parties but it cannot be claimed to have impact on relationship between social media use and political party choice as people change their mind so quickly (Baines et al., 2005).

4.6 USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA BY POLITICAL PARTIES IN SATISFYING THE COMMUNICATION NEEDS OF VOTERS

Content analysis was employed to achieve the objective, wherein three steps ware followed, namely formation of coding, accessing data and analysis. Figure 4.23 describes the procedure for content analysis from real-time data extraction, formation and collection of data and finally analysing. Further, the data set of extracted posts was then passed through text pre-processing stage. Finally, classification of text into communications needs was carried out as per Uses Gratification theory, which is discussed further in sections below.

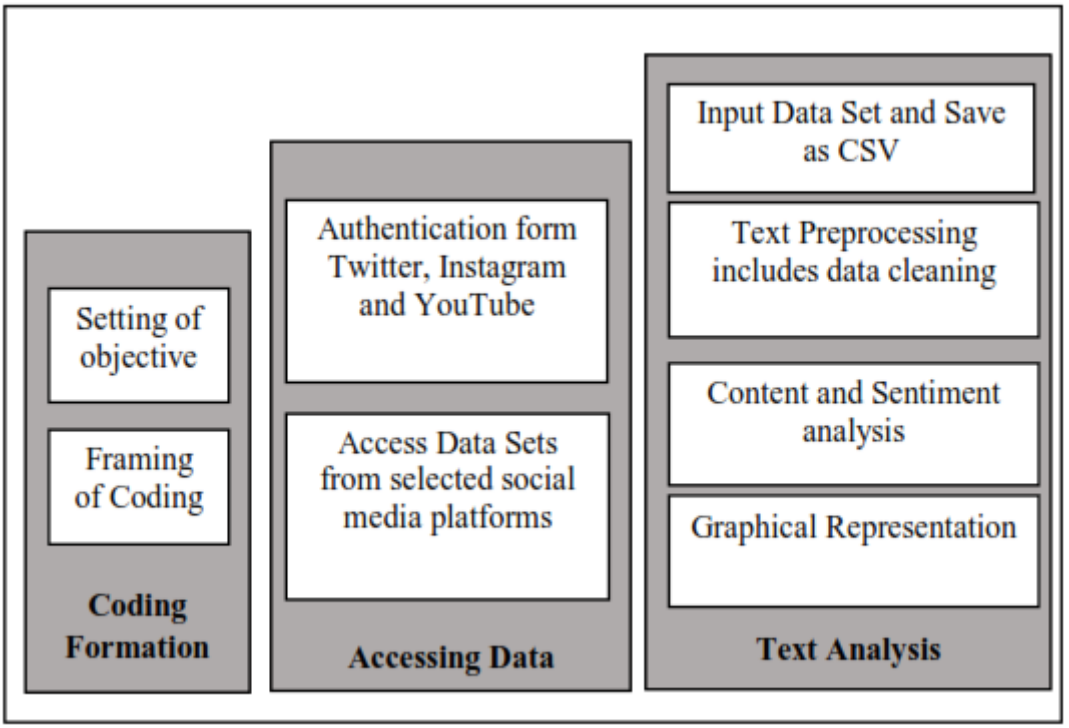


Fig. 4.23: Procedure for Content Analysis

4.6.1 Data Acquisition

For data mining, API tool is used to obtain the Twitter, Instagram and YouTube feed, by authenticating the created application with an authenticated server using consumer key, secret consumer key, access token and secret access key. After the designed App got authentication from the authentication server, a token is generated, which is used for further data mining. The data was fetched from official Twitter, Instagram and YouTube handle of three prominent political parties, namely SP, BJP and INC. The collected data includes total 28,737 tweets from selected parties using R packages that provide the information such text, date-time created, likes, comments, shares, Screen Name, retweet count etc. Table 4.37 depicts the detailed information of parties and the number of posts extracted. The collected data is saved in CSV format for further cleaning.

Table 4.37: Data Collection

	BJP	INC	SP
Twitter	5,920**	1,222*	1,368*
Instagram	330*	261*	58*
YouTube	70*	118*	80*

80 days data i.e.09-Apr-2019 to 28-Jun-2019,29-Apr-19 to 28-Jun-2019*

4.6.2 Text Pre-processing

Before final analysis the data is translated into English using google.translater. Thereafter the translated data was passed through the cleaning process, which removed all the unnecessary data such as numbers, punctuations, stop words, white spaces etc. using an R package called “tm” to get more accurate and relevant results from the dataset. But negation handling is one of the problems in sentiment analysis that can ruin the accuracy. To remove the problem of negation, bootstrapping and state variable was used, which will read the “not” word with “not”+. Hence, the refined tweets are then used for the final analysis.

4.6.3 Data Analysis Tool and Methodology

The coding was developed to classify the extracted data into communication needs as per UG theory. Further, the pre-processed dataset is examined using topic modelling and NRC Emotion lexicon approach, available in tidytext package, comprises of English words along with their relative basic eight emotions i.e. “anger, fear, anticipation, trust, surprise, sadness, joy, and disgust” and two sentiments i.e. “negative and positive”. This study uses R package known as “syuzhet” using “get_nrc_sentiment” command. Finally, the processed data is visualised using ggplot2.

4.6.4 Data Analysis and Interpretation

4.6.5 Cognitive Needs

Table 4.38 represents the categorisation of data among communication needs ie. cognitive needs, social integrative needs, personal integrative needs, affective needs and tension release needs.

Table 4.38: Communication Needs

Needs	Coding	Description	BJP			INC			SP		
			Twitter	Instagram	YouTube	Twitter	Instagram	YouTube	Twitter	Instagram	YouTube
			Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
			Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*
Cognitive Needs	Frequency of tweets	Number of days having at least a post	61	70	31	76	45	47	76	23	41
			100.00	*87.50*	*38.27*	*93.82*	*56.25*	*58.02*	*93.82*	*28.75*	*50.61*
	Level of Information	URL	5590	37	0	970	174	0	1006	20	0
			94.43	*11.21*	*0.00*	*79.38*	*66.67*	*0.00*	*73.54*	*34.48*	*0.00*
		Hashtag	653	87	0	197	174	0	183	25	0
			11.03	*26.36*	*0.00*	*16.12*	*66.67*	*0.00*	*13.38*	*43.10*	*0.00*
		Mention/ User tag	1062	73	4	852	207	14	528	47	11
			17.94	*22.12*	*1.21*	*69.72*	*79.31*	*5.36*	*38.60*	*81.03*	*18.97*
Affective Needs	nformation shar by party convey Sentiments	Posts convey some sentiments	5169	221	67	1015	211	115	953	45	79
			87.31	*66.97*	*95.71*	*83.06*	*80.84*	*97.45*	*69.66*	*77.59*	*98.75*

Needs	Coding	Description	BJP			INC			SP		
			Twitter	Instagram	YouTube	Twitter	Instagram	YouTube	Twitter	Instagram	YouTube
			Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
			Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*
Personal Integrative Needs	Party posts about itself	Posts addressing I, We, our etc	2236	19	0	678	9	0	613	0	0
			37.77	*5.76*	*0.00*	*55.48*	*3.45*	*0.00*	*44.81*	*0.00*	*0.00*
	Updates about daily activities	Posts mentioning visits, addressing, rallies, conferences, attended	1097	55	33	251	47	111	315	18	2
			18.53	*16.67*	*10.00*	*20.54*	*18.01*	*42.53*	*23.03*	*31.03*	*3.45*
Social Integrative Needs	Party's position on issues of social interest	Party mentioning about health, women, education, terrorism, technology	885	29	0	182	46	0	380	20	3
			14.95	*8.79*	*0.00*	*14.89*	*17.62*	*0.00*	*27.78*	*34.48*	*5.17*

Needs	Coding	Description	BJP			INC			SP		
			Twitter	Instagram	YouTube	Twitter	Instagram	YouTube	Twitter	Instagram	YouTube
			Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
			Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*
Tension Release Needs	Tweeting in non-political context.	Posts regarding birthdays, anniversaries, tributes, celebration etc	926	138	0	147	93	0	236	7	0
			15.64	*41.82*	*0.00*	*12.03*	*35.63*	*0.00*	*17.25*	*12.07*	*0.00*
	Tweeting about opposition	Posts to target opposite leaders or parties	1049	63	0	313	65	1	347	43	0
			17.72	*19.09*	*0.00*	*25.61*	*24.90*	*0.38*	*25.37*	*74.14*	*0.00*

Firstly, cognitive needs (Informational) were identified based on two parameters, i.e. consistency of posts and level of information (Vividness). Consistency of posts means posting at least a single post in a day to remain in touch with the audience.

Data reveals all the parties were frequent and consistent in tweeting as they have posted at least a tweet in a day during the selected period (BJP =100 per cent, INC 93.82 per cent, SP =93.83 per cent). On Twitter, BJP (N =5920) has a higher frequency of posts as compared to INC (N =1221) and SP (N =1367).

Similarly, on Instagram BJP (N =330) has a higher frequency of posts as compared to INC (N =261) and SP (N =58) wherein BJP (87.5 per cent) is much more consistent as compared to INC (56.25 per cent) and SP (28.75 per cent).

With regard to YouTube, less frequency and consistency of posts is found as compared to other social media platforms. Only 58.02, 50.61 and 38.27 per cent posts of INC, SP and BJP respectively are found to be consistent. Therefore, BJP has higher visibility and consistency for sharing information on Twitter as well as on Instagram to meet cognitive needs but less on YouTube.

Moreover, content was classified based on information level i.e. text, URL, hashtag, mention, user tag etc. wherein result for Twitter depicts that 94.43 per cent posts of BJP, 79.38 per cent of INC and 73.54 per cent of SP have used URL either to share additional information among voters or to make information attractive. Further, 11.03 per cent posts of BJP, 16.12 per cent of INC and 13.38 per cent of SP have used specific hashtags in their posts. Likewise, 17.94 per cent of BJP, 69.72 per cent of

INC and 38.64 per cent of SP posts have mentioned about fellow twitteraties.

Similarly on Instagram, data depicts that 85.44 per cent posts of INC, 51.72 per cent of SP and 26.97 per cent of BJP have used specific hashtags in their posts. Likewise, 56.90 per cent of SP, 47.13 per cent of INC and 11.21 per cent of BJP posts have mentioned about fellow twitter accounts. However, 66.67 per cent of INC posts, 43.10 per cent of SP and 26.36 per cent of BJP contains user tags in their posts.

Although YouTube is a video sharing application wherein the main information lies in video, however, it needs title in the form of text to seek attention of the voters. Because the current study is text based, therefore only titles are considered for analysis and realised that hashtags are not being used in title at all. Moreover, very few posts have mentioned names of other account holders.

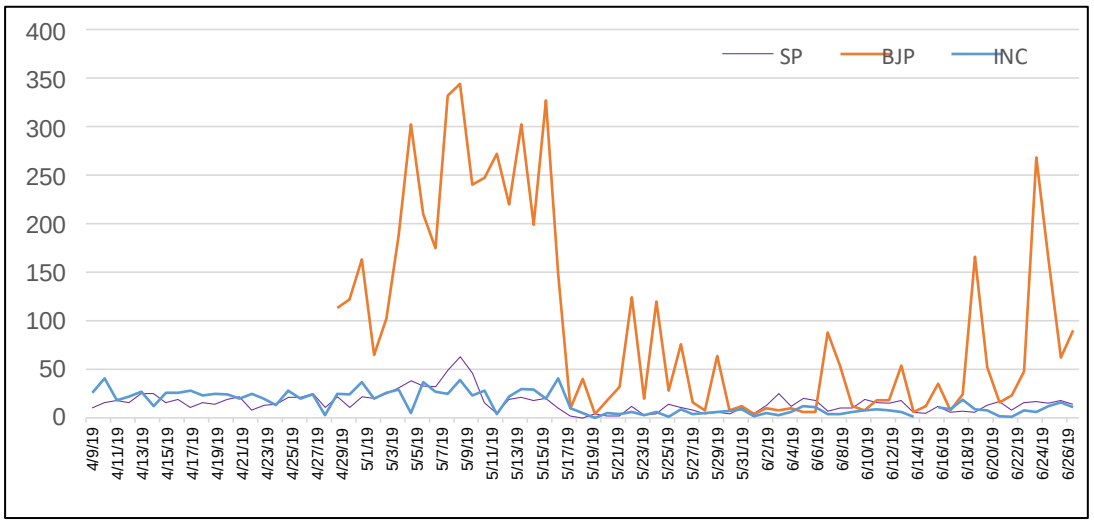


Fig. 4.24: Frequency of Posts on Twitter

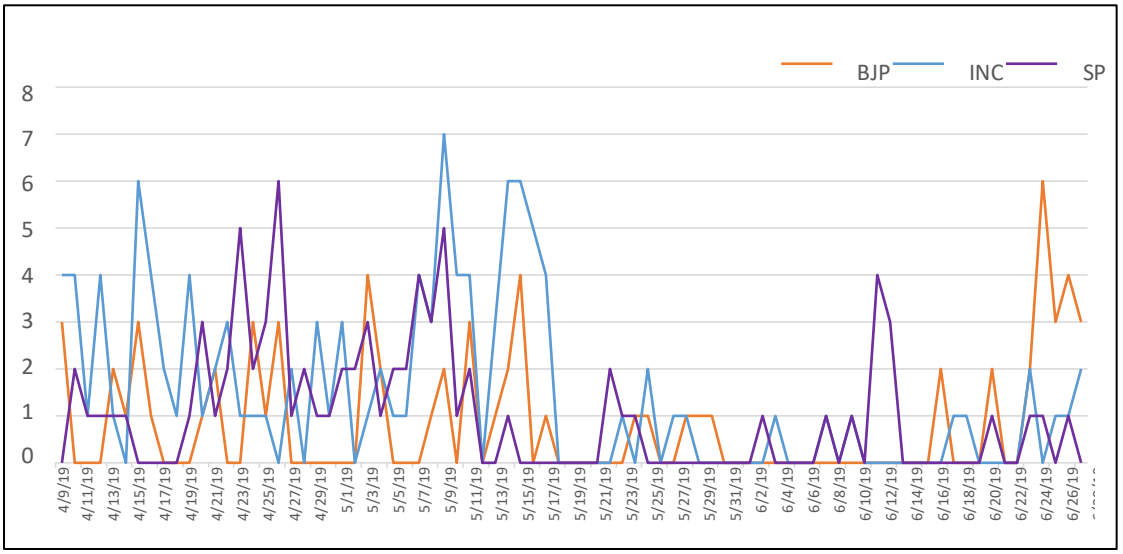


Fig. 4.25: Frequency of Posts on YouTube

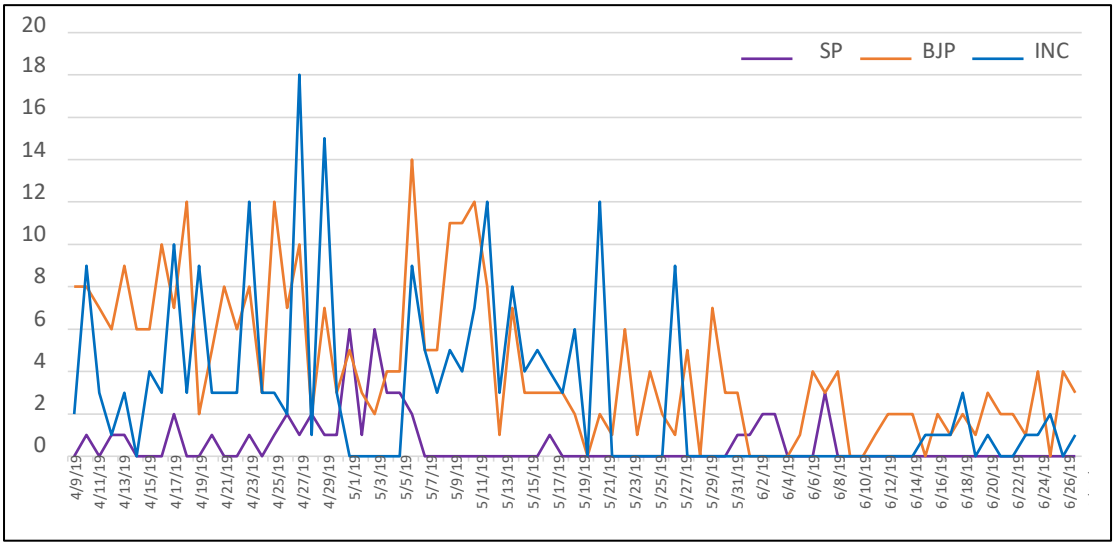


Fig. 4.26: Frequency of Instagram Posts

Overall, political parties want their views and opinions to be made known as and when an issue surfaces and this makes them post frequently on social media. Voters want to retrieve those views and opinion continuously to increase their knowledge and relate it with cognitive skills.

People perceive information in different senses like text, photo, video, link etc. However, information shared on social media with text only has less visibility and information. Therefore, social media users use links in the form of photo, video or other websites to deliver additional information (Wang et al., 2010; Van Der Heide et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2009). Moreover, to give direction and focus to the specific form of information hashtags are used whereas, mentions reveal the involvements of concerned users in that particular content. Therefore, content with hashtags, mentions or URL may be much useful for communicating the right information in the mind of voters. This will help the politicians and political parties to get at tention and interaction with large masses by delivering the content in the right direction.

4.6.6 Affective Needs

Any action evoked by emotions or feelings is known as affective needs. In other words, anything driven from emotions or sentiments have emotional appeals. Individuals feel connected and attached when emotional content, something good or bad, is being shared with related people. The 'nrc' package in R classify the content into seven emotions and post or content which has any of the sentiment is fulfilling affective needs.

Data mentioned in Table 4.38 depicts that the majority of tweets posted by the parties conveys some sentiments as 87.31 per cent tweets and 66.97 per cent Instagram posts of BJP have fulfilled affective needs. Likewise, 83.06 per cent tweets and 80.84 Instagram posts of INC; and 69.66 per cent tweets and 77.59 per cent Instagram posts of SP has fulfilled the affective needs by conveying some emotions. Meaning, the majority of the posts either of Twitter or Instagram carry emotions on particular issue or information targeted by the party. For YouTube, almost every post convey some emotion.

Furthermore, Figure 4.27, 4.28 and 4.29 highlight the specific emotions present in the information shared by different parties.

Figure 4.27 reveals the information shared by political parties conveys the more positive, trusted and anticipated emotions on Twitter. Considering party-wise, although all the parties focused on positive information more, BJP has a higher number of positive posts followed by INC and SP. After positive information, BJP has more expectation in their shared data, whereas INC has shared information based on trust. Likewise, SP has fulfilled more of mixed emotions of positive, trust and negative.

BJP INC SP

900

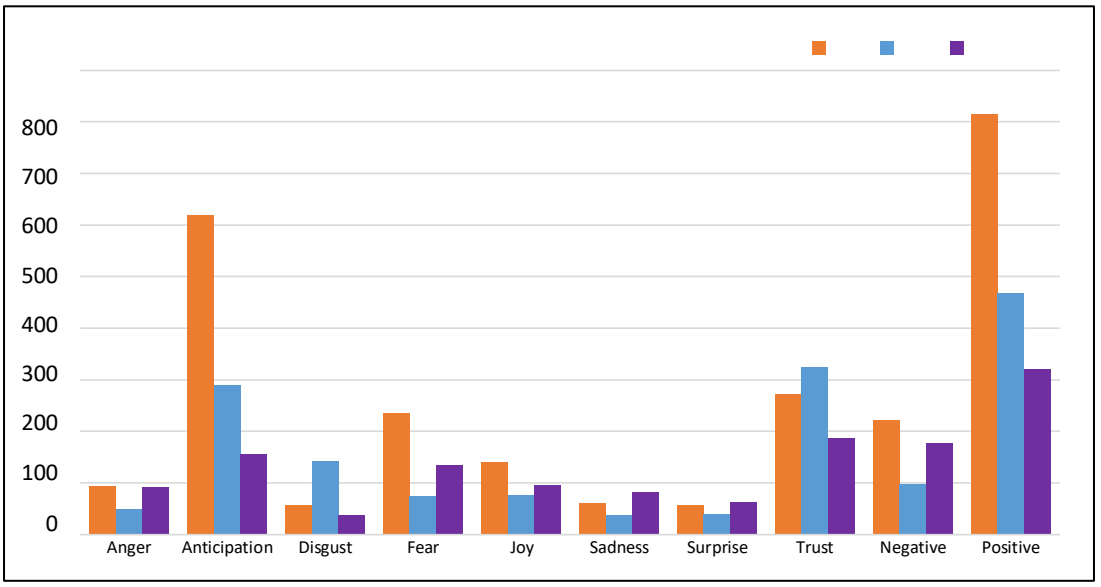


Fig. 4.27: Sentiments of Twitter posts

Furthermore, 84.67 per cent of INC, 77.59 per cent of SP and 66.97 per cent of BJP has satisfied the affective needs. Among these, the majority of information shared by parties on Instagram is positive, followed by the trust. However, posts contain positive, and trust has been shared more by INC than other parties. Whereas, negative emotions are more satisfied by BJP than INC, and SP.

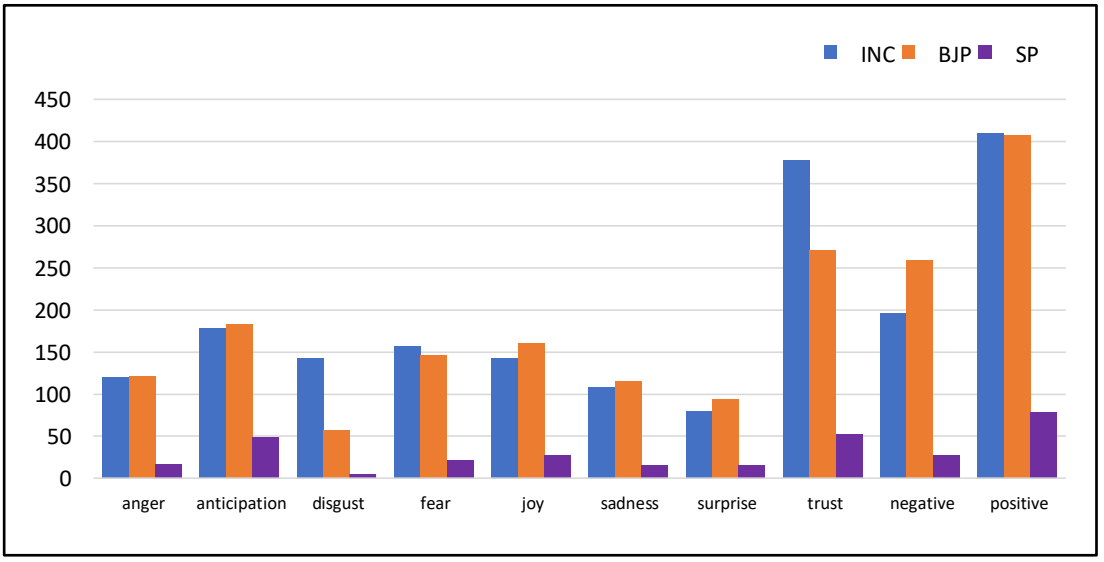


Fig. 4.28: Sentiments of Instagram Posts

With regard to YouTube, majority of posts have satisfied affective needs. Particularly, positive, anticipated and trusted opinions are more revealed by posts of INC than other parties. While BJP and SP have satisfies sentiments of anticipation followed by positive and negative respectively.

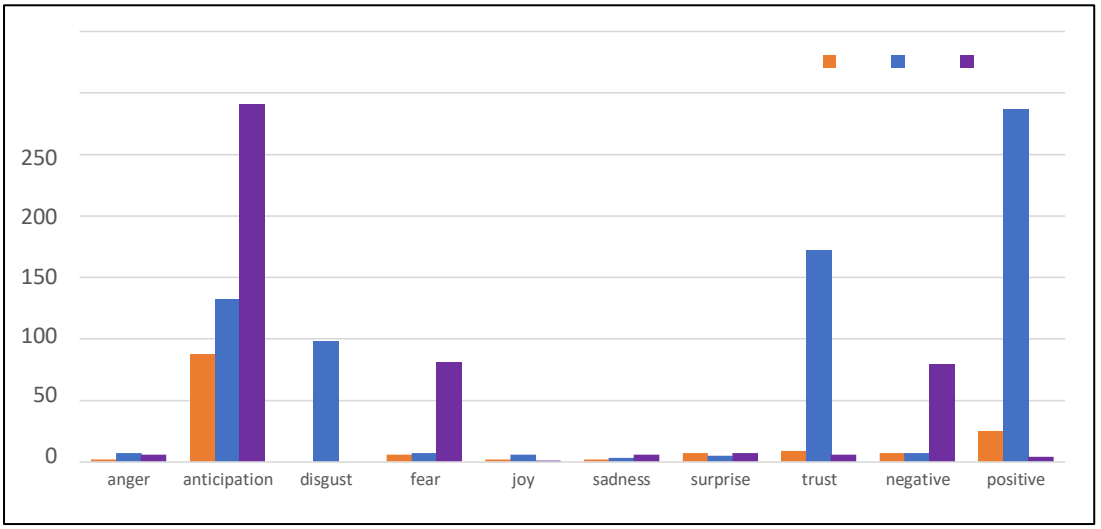


Fig. 4.29: Sentiments of YouTube Posts

The posts posted by political parties carries emotions which are further transferred to voters. Political parties use emotional aspect to appeal and get attached to voters during elections which in contrast, charm their followers and beckon them to react and express their real selves. In order to build trust and positivity among voters, political parties convey similar emotions.

4.6.7 Personal Integrative Needs

Personal integrative needs are related to self-esteem, so individuals use media to bolster their status, gain credibility and stabilize among their audience. Similarly, political parties try to fulfil this need by posting about themselves and their daily activity to build their position in the eyes of voters.

Data mentioned in Table 4.38 depicts that 55.48 per cent tweets of INC, 44.81 per cent tweets of SP and 37.77 per cent tweets of BJP have shared the content depicting 'I, We or Our'. On Instagram, only 3.45 per cent posts of INC, and 5.76 per cent posts of BJP represent self. Whereas on YouTube no such posts are found that address by using I, We, and our words.

Additionally, 23.03 per cent tweets of SP, 20.54 per cent tweets of INC and 18.53 per cent tweets of BJP have shared the content addressing their daily

activities. Likewise, 31.03 per cent posts of SP, 18.01 per cent posts of INC and 16.67 per cent posts of BJP depicts their daily activities on Instagram. Lastly on YouTube, only 42.53 per cent, 10 per cent and 3.45 per cent by INC, BJP and SP respectively represented the daily activities. This includes, the information related to addressing general public, attending conference or meeting, visiting to some places etc.

4.6.8 Social Integrative Needs

Social Integrative encompasses the need to socialize with family, friends and relations in the society. To address the integrative social needs, political parties or leaders associate voters via social media by addressing their social issues in the form of an opinion or generating awareness.

Tweets were accessed based on most frequently raised social issues such as health, women, education, terrorism etc. Results depict 27.78 per cent tweets of SP, 14.95 per cent tweets of BJP and 14.89 per cent tweets of INC revealed their position on social issues. Likewise, on Instagram, SP has satisfied the need of being socially integrated by 34.48 per cent, whereas 17.62 of INC and 8.79 per cent of BJP for the same.

4.6.9 Tension Release Needs

Tension release needs include sharing non-political content such as birthdays, anniversaries, celebrations, tributes etc. or diverting their stress by posting about opposite actors. The data mentioned in Table 4.38 depicts that 17.25 per cent tweets of SP, 12.03 per cent tweets of INC and 15.64 per cent of BJP have posted regarding greetings, birthdays, celebration etc. However, on Instagram, parties have satisfied more of tension release needs by posting non-political content wherein, 41.82 per cent of BJP, 35.63 per cent of INC and 12.07 per cent of SP have depicted the same.

Concerning to diversion of tension, 25.61 per cent of INC, 25.37 per cent of SP and 17.72 per cent of BJP have mentioned about their opposite

parties, leaders or issues on Twitter. In the same manner, 74.14 per cent SP, 24.90 of INC and 19.09 per cent of BJP posted on Instagram to target their competitors to divert the attention of voters. However, tension release needs were not being satisfied on YouTube by either of the party.

CHAPTER – 5

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE SCOPE

5.1 CONCLUSION:

Social media is widely used phenomenon; many researchers have attempted to observe the impact of social media usage for political participation particularly in western & Arab countries in different perspectives but very few studies have been carried out in India. This study determined the influence of social media usage for political purpose on political attitude, political participation and decision to choose a party in Punjab, India. The results thus highlighted some critical aspects related to news consumption through different media in Punjab state of India with clear differentiation in media use, political attitude and participation. The major findings of the study are mentioned below:

- Most often participation in political process is done only through voting by citizens. Though, sometimes people show their participation by encouraging others to vote and by engaging in a discussion about the political candidate either against or in favour that may influence their voting decision followed by visiting a profile of political candidate on social networking site. On an average people have shown rare political participation in the form of attending political rally or speech, participate in the demonstration, working voluntarily for political party, wearing political symbol public meeting with a politician, be a party member and writing an email to the politician. The least form of participation is providing money (funds) to a politician or political party.
- Social media is found as the most frequently and often used media for political getting information, followed by Television whereas

attending political rallies, having direct contact with political candidates and radio are observed as least used media.

- Undoubtedly, voter's interest in politics is significantly influenced by media use. However, different media have varied influences in terms of relationship and significance wherein, selection and effect of media should be accordingly chosen to arouse voter's interest in politics. New media is found to be most prominent for generating positive interest because nowadays political actors, as well as voters, have started using new media to a great extent specially after the victory of Prime Minister Narendra Modi in General Election, 2014.
- Media use has a significant impact on building political attitude. Almost all media found to have a positive contribution to political efficacy except for Radio and Television. However, the strength of influence varies wherein, social media followed by the Newspaper have stronger influence among other media used for political information. Although social media has shifted the paradigm of the political sphere, traditional media still have importance, especially Newspaper has strong influence after social media. Therefore, traditional media cannot be ignored.
- Media use is also found as significant influencer for political knowledge. Nevertheless, each media has varied influence, some have significant, or insignificantly positive influence and others have a negative influence on political knowledge. Thus, among all, political rallies, newspaper, and social media are positively associated with political knowledge.
- Social media has a positive correlation with political interest, efficacy, knowledge, attitude and participation. Specifically,

activities regarding politics on WhatsApp are more prominent than any other social media platform.

- The influence of social media use as a whole is found to be more on political participation followed by political attitude. WhatsApp, YouTube, Facebook respective have shown positive influence. However, Twitter is found to have an insignificant impact on political interest, efficacy, knowledge, attitude and participation.
- WhatsApp has greater influence followed by YouTube and Facebook for political knowledge, efficacy and participation. Only WhatsApp and YouTube have been found to be having significant positive influencing political interest.
- Study found a positive relationship between social media and party choice. Individually also whether it is Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter and YouTube usage have found to be having a positive impact on choosing a particular party. Citizens who are more active on Facebook are more likely to vote in favour of BJP, followed by SP and INC. On the other hand, SP has a higher tendency to get votes by citizens who are using Twitter or YouTube more. Likewise, usage of WhatsApp for the political purpose may lead to choosing in favour of INC.
- Demographics such as gender, education, age, income, and profession have not moderated the relationship between social media use and political party choice. However, for some parties, demographics are found as moderator but it cannot be claimed to have impact on relationship between social media use and political party choice as people change their mind quickly.
- BJP has higher visibility and consistency for sharing information on Twitter as well as on Instagram to satisfy cognitive needs. Almost all parties have satisfied affective needs on Twitter,

Instagram and YouTube. Overall, the content represents positive, anticipation and trust sentiments. Moreover, personal integrative, social integrative and tension released needs are found less satisfied by content shared on YouTube than Twitter and Instagram.

- In terms of affective needs, the content reflected positive, anticipation and trust sentiments more. Whereas, positive, anticipated and trusted opinions were higher for INC than other parties. While BJP and SP have satisfied sentiments of anticipation followed by positive and negative respectively.
- For daily activities to represent social integrative needs, SP majorly mentioned about Youth, women, safety, corruption, education, health, employment, water, electricity etc. which are being mostly retweeted by the general public. BJP has focused on infrastructure, safety, inflation, development, education, law, investment, health, tribal, scams, farmers, poverty, corruption, employment etc. Whereas issues like terrorism, corruption, security, employment, women, demonetization, health, tax, poverty, women, black money, economy was addressed by INC.
- The present study highlighted the change in political ideal models due utilization of social media in Punjab. Therefore, political actors should consider new media to disseminate information to make voters aware, interested and connected in their activities. Nevertheless, the traditional media still have their significant place, no matter social media is being widely used by politicians as medium to woo.

5.2 IMPLICATIONS

This study emphasis on the significance of new media in the development of political attitude, and political participation. Results will

be of help to academics, practitioners and society which are discussed below-

5.2.1 Theoretical Implications

Majority of studies focused on single media, either social media or traditional media, as the usage of new media has not been explored much in an Indian context, and minimal literature is available. However, this study considered different media for a political purpose which is a novelty in itself. Results will add on to the literature of media consumption in politics.

Varied media consumption seems to drive variations in a manner citizen participate in politics. This study contributes to the conceptualization of media behaviour while considering multiple media including traditional media and new media for political attitude and political participation. Study suggests that albeit social media is found to be widely used, traditional media still have its importance.

Among social media platforms used for political purpose, majority of studies have used Facebook, Twitter and YouTube only, the present study has considered WhatsApp as new media which is found as significant and most influencing media platform for political attitude and participation. The study highlighted the activities on the prevailing social media platform for political purpose along with their relation of social media platform in building attitude, interest, knowledge, efficacy and participation. Current findings will assist in making strategic use of media activities to influence voters to arouse interest and motivate to participate in political process.

Moreover, the ultimate action in politics is voting by making decision to choose party or candidate like a consumer take decision to buy a product or service. Similarly, literature suggests the decision to choose party is influenced by media use as many authors studied the relationship

of traditional media usage and voter's political party choice. The present study has contributed to the literature by measuring the indirect relationship between social media usage and political party choice keeping demographics as moderating variables as the we posited that detail of targeted audience is vital while framing strategies and influence decision.

For social media marketing and communication, content plays an imperative role. As social media is based on user generated content, therefore, apart from media usage, strategic use of content shared on social media platform is equally important. Applied machine learning-based content analysis will add-on to new ways to understand the communication needs.

5.2.2 Practical Implications

The study of media and voters behaviour is vital for political parties or candidates, marketers and journalists or media houses.

The results of the study will be vital for political parties and candidates, and marketer to share their message or information according to the reach, influence and popularity of particular media among the voters. Furthermore, the political parties or candidates need to make a balance between the traditional media and social media to be used in campaigns to target specific kind of audience. Results suggest that instead of making a presence on all form of social media, they should focus on specific kind of social media where people are interactive, and the spread of information is quicker and more efficient.

Moreover, political parties or candidates need to make strategies to share content in such a way that people get engaged and participated not only in voting but other forms of political participation as well. Demographics such as gender and income are found as moderator for decision in favour of some parties, which is not inclusive. However, choosing a specific social media platform is critical as voters' decision to choose different

parties varied accordingly. Therefore, political marketers, parties, and leaders need not to pay much attention to demographics. In contrast, dissemination information on social media for political purpose but focus should be laid on the importance of a particular social media platform.

Social media is user friendly, and the findings will help the political parties and practitioners to understand and manage the content to satisfy the communication needs, woo a huge audience of voters at the same time. In order to get better public attention and engagement, along with establishing a connection, political actors need to fulfil communication needs in their shared content. Also, practitioners can apply new methods of machine learning-based analysis to get more accurate and unbiased results.

Furthermore, as political leaders, parties or voters have started shifting to social media from traditional media, media houses or journalists also required to have a presence on new media. Also, traditional media is acting as a watchdog, but social media is like a watchdog over watchdogs. Therefore, results will be helpful for mass communication and journalism to understand the political leaders and parties strategies and communication on new media in addition to voter's behaviour and feedback.

5.2.3 Societal Implications

The advent of technology, social media facilitates two-way communication which reduces the filter that was present in traditional media. As stated above, social media is being used over traditional media to get political information where the interaction between political leaders and society become quick and transparent without the interference of intermediaries. Therefore, the public can access an extensive range of political content and give instant feedback or response in the form of likes, comments, shares etc. on social media which results in quick democratic disclosure. Apart from this if political parties understand the

information needs of the voters they can provide specific information and help reduce the information overload which confuses the voters.

5.3 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE SCOPE

The study concludes the positive influence of social media usage on, political attitude, political participation and party choice but it has certain limitations mentioned below:

- The limited availability of literature in the Indian context concerning the usage of social media as it is the initial stage might have limited the understanding of researcher to some extent.
- The study investigates the political participation as a whole without classifying offline and online participation. Future studies can be conducted considering offline and online participation separately.
- Social media platforms to understand communication behaviour was restricted to four platforms only. The construct can be further examined with more platforms available.
- The current study is limited on data collected from Punjab only so generalization can be a limitation. Future studies can use the methodology to study the phenomenon at national level.
- The study is cross sectional by design. The future study can examine the traditional and social media use in elections using longitudinal data to understand the changes over the years.
- Data extraction from Facebook is restricted, whereas Twitter has a rate limit for data mining; therefore, selection of media and timing of mining is vital.
- The study has considered only text-based content analysis which can be extended to content other than text to have useful insights along with topic modelling and prediction techniques.

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