

Social Media Advertising and Electorates’ Patronage of Political Parties in Nigeria

Chinedu N. Ogbuji,

Reader

Department of Marketing,
University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Nigeria

Princewill Ogbobula,

Department of Marketing,
University of Uyo, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between social media advertising and electorates’ patronage of political parties in Nigeria. The study specifically studied how content sharing, live chatting and status update impacts on voter intentions and voter commitments of political parties and their candidates. Drawing on a sample size of 400 Nigerian electorates, the study adopted a quasi experimental design with emphasis on the cross-sectional type by using a structured questionnaire with a 5 point likert scale. Our hypotheses testing and data analysis employed the Spearman’s Rank Correlation Coefficient and found that there is a strong, positive and significant relationship between social media advertising and voter intention as well as voter commitment among Nigerian electorates. The study further concluded that social media advertising played a pivotal role in shaping and directing voter behavior as was clearly demonstrated in the 2015 general elections. It was therefore recommended that content sharing, live chatting, and status update be adopted by political parties and candidates as primary motivators in encouraging voters to patronize party candidates.

Keywords: Content Sharing, Live Chatting, Status Update, Voter Intentions, Voter Commitment.

INTRODUCTION:

Traditional media advertising such as print media (newspaper, magazines) and electronic media (TV, radio) have long been adopted by political organizations, government institutions, and other non-profit organization in disseminating information to the public (Pillai, Williams, Lowe, & Jung, 2003). Specifically, these professionally managed media were the primary platforms for both political parties and candidates in not only promoting their personality, but also building their image which reflects on public perception and personality of candidates. In this regard, plethora of studies have demonstrated the impact of these traditional media strategies on public attitude and voter behaviour (Larry, Mary & Richard, 2008; Spiro, 2001; Townera & Dulioa, 2011). Consensus among these scholars suggest that substantial amount of resources have been spent on these platforms which is intended to shape and direct voter behaviour towards patronizing a candidate and committing to political ideologies/parties. Hence, political strategists and campaign managers have one of the biggest challenges to strategically blend the mix of these media in order to project candidates’ image with respect to honesty, plausibility, and credibility (Pillai et al., 2003).

However, the increasing importance and usage of the internet technologies, coupled with a highly competitive political environment, has necessitated the adoption of a more elaborate contemporary technology that is in tune with the realities of marketing communication in the 21st century. Hence, the drift towards the wide usage of social networking technologies in disseminating information to a wide range of prospective voters. The paradigm shift according to Tolbert & McNeal (2010), has made political strategists to key into these social media advertising strategies which come in form of online content sharing (Instagram, YouTube and Blogs), live chats (Whatsapp, Facebook and Twitter), status update (Whatsapp and Facebook). More so, Lambrences &

Tucker (2013), opined that gone are those days when television and other traditional media were prominently used to target specific groups of audiences. They stressed that social networks have opened countless opportunities for campaign directors to better communicate with voters. The modern advertising media have been suggested to provide a more effective and efficient complement for assessing target audience and several studies have examined the nexus between social media advertising and patronage behaviour and they found a significant and positive relationship between social media advertising and purchase intentions as well as buyer commitments (Ward, 2012, Gerodinos, 2012, Kushins & Yamamoto, 2010, Wong, 2007, Ifukor, 2016). Thus, social media advertising may have proved to be a more efficient and effective strategy in encouraging political involvement, voter education and persuasive referral behaviour.

The examination and conceptualization of social media advertising in impacting electoral patronage is the theoretical journey this study embarked on. It developed a more coherent model that demonstrates the link between these two variables. The study further examined the appropriateness in conceptualizing political parties and their candidates as brands which customers (electorates) are expected to patronize among competing brands (political parties/candidates). Hence, it is against this backdrop, the study sought to investigate the relationship between social media advertising and political patronage of electorates in Nigeria.

In this current political dispensation where censored and uncensored information filter the social media platform in a second, a call for adequate and thorough sensitization of current and potential voters have been advocated by the government and other non-governmental organizations. Social media have redefined the political landscape of Nigeria in particular and Africa in general, what with the social media anchored political upheavals and dethronements recorded in Egypt, Libya, Nigeria and most recently, Zimbabwe. Social media has been recognized as a panacea for voters' awareness, education, persuasion and feedback; a vehicle for open social transformation with very little media barriers. From manifesto presentation by a political party to the primary and actual election, political officer holders use several medium to canvass for acceptance and endorsement from the populace. Evidences abound in the just concluded Anambra State gubernatorial election exercise, where social media was used as a tool to inform, persuade, collate and announce results from different polling units. It was equally used to forestall incidence of electioneering fraud and violence.

Though, seen by scholars, firms and millions of users as a real time tool to propagate and have access to myriad number of persons in different locations by the click of a button, it has also been criticized by many political watchers as a growing platform to promulgate cheap lies, political blackmail, unhealthy publicity and unsolicited propaganda. These recent developments have, to an extent, raised a question mark as to the importance of social media advertising in promoting healthy competition, peaceful co-existence, and unity in the country during and after electioneering periods. Given the above, could it be that the social media advertising strategies have been misused or have not been properly utilized by party strategists in attracting electorates? Is social media advertising a veritable tool to winning elections? Can it be harnessed as a bridge between political parties (or candidates) and the electorates? However, from the Nigeria context; very few studies have actually developed a more coherent and integral model by adopting content sharing, live charts, and status update; which all have the capacity to probe into the sub-conscious of voter attitude, perception, intentions, and commitment. This work therefore, adds to the discourse by examining the effect of social media advertising and political patronage in Nigeria, using the aforementioned dimensions.

LITERATURE REVIEW:

Theoretical Foundation:

The theories upon which this study was anchored are the 'theory of media ecology and the critical theory of communication'. The theory of media ecology was propounded by Marshall McLuhan in 1964. The theory recognizes the importance of the internet in sharing information among countless number of actors. As stated by Cliff in (2009), the theory of media ecology houses characteristics of global communities and it is an off shoot of social media where people freely express their views about events in the society. Social media platforms as it is popularly known today can be likened to a media ecology which may also be viewed as a global village where people of different ethnic, socio-cultural, demographic and religious affiliation engage in different forms of discussion that may be mutually beneficial to all parties (Criffin, 2009).

Secondly, the critical theory of communication was propounded by Stanley Deetz in 1995. The author of the theory emphasis that organization decisions are more often than not made to achieve specific objectives, and as such, the language of communication becomes paramount and instrumental if the stated objectives must be achieved. Although, the theory was focused more on business organization as to examining the choice of words and languages while communicating to the market; however in recent times, non-profit organization such as

political parties have seen the need to apply this theory in the political market place (Learmonth, 2013). Deetz (1995) also stated the importance of social media in communicating to organizations target audience. With respect to the foregoing, it is pertinent to mention that political parties today have realized the importance of social media advertising in directing and shaping voting intentions and commitments. Since many political parties and their candidates now rely on social media in coming out victorious in elections, it is however, imperative to state that the above theories are suitable in serving as underpinning theories to this study.

Concept of Social Media Advertising:

Discourse on social media advertising has on the increase for nearly two decades (Larry et al., 2013). This however may be connected to the growing importance of information and communication technology vis-sa-vis the internet. According to Tolbert & McNeal (2010), the increasing importance of, and usage of internet technologies and other electronic devices have necessitated the adoption of social media advertising in informing, persuading, and reminding both actual and potential voters about products and services (party programmes and activities). By way of explaining the social media advertising concept, Pillia et al. (2003), suggest that it is a form of non-journalistic media strategy where organizations communicate to its markets about product and services. This could be in form of content sharing where political organizations distribute key programme schedule to the public.

More so, Smith & Deaster (2011), assert that organizations are open to different social media platforms in disseminating information to the public among numerous of them, Facebook, tweeter, Instagram, YouTube, and MySpace; are among the most popular. Martin (2015) argued that tweeter and Facebook in recent times are arguably the most popular platforms used by most politicians to air their views in terms of criticisms or support for a course of programme. The authors also argue that political parties can use their media platforms to market their candidates especially during the eve of an election. In addition, Ward (2012), postulated that social media advertising is a 21st century tool to gain competitive advantage. It further argued that competitive advantage can also be sustained by advertising organizations' offering using social media sites. He finally stated that site such as YouTube can be effectively used by party strategists to out-pace another party and thereby de-marketing the party.

Electorates' Patronage:

Patronage as a concept has long been explored in political marketing (O'cass, 2002; Kotler, 2003). According to Kotler (2003), political brands must explore the marketing concept in order to enhance voter patronage. He further argued that political organizations must understand electorates' needs and expectations so as to design service offering to satisfy them (voters). O'cass (2002), in a study defined patronage as the act of exercising electoral franchise by voting for a particular party. Also, Engel et al. (1990) defined patronage as decision making process that reflects electorates' preference and choice. The authors further stated that voters form intentions to act after evaluating competing political parties using factors such as party identity, party image, candidate credibility etc.

Social Media Advertising and Electorates' Patronage:

A number of studies have examined the effect of social media advertising on political patronage (Lewe & Jung, 2003; Ifukor, 2016; Gerodinos, 2012). However, consensus among these authors suggest that social media advertising influences voter patronage in divers ways.

Content Sharing and Electorates' Patronage:

Content sharing among other things is one of the tools political parties use in promoting their identity and image (Dale & Strauss, 2009). Content sharing in social media advertising can be carried out using sites like Facebook and Instagram. According to Jackson & Lilleker (2011), contents such as videos and images can create a sense of social connectedness, belonging, feelings, and even emotions among participants. The authors stated that content sharing advertising can be effective in turning not only non-voters to voters, but also, acquiring loyal voters from other political parties.

Lewe & Jung (2003) reveal the likelihood of an enhanced voter patronage using emotional pictures, images, and texts. They assert that video animation can create a sense of humor to participants of a site and in turn influence voter preference. Given the above, we hypothesize as follows:

H₀₁: Content sharing does not significantly influence voter intentions among Nigerian electorates.

H₀₂: Content sharing does not significantly influence voter commitments among Nigerian electorates

Live Chatting and Electorates' Patronage:

Live chatting is another social media advertising tool used in communicating with citizens. According to Larman & Ghosh (2010), live chatting can be used to spread new online stories among users in the group. They stated that political strategists can use live chatting to counter accuse a party for false propaganda in a bid to redeem party image and trust.

Dalton & Beck (2012), also stressed the importance of live chatting in promoting party candidate. The authors argued that live chatting has a unique way of simultaneously engaging several users in a platform and at the same time getting immediate response in form of feedback from them on important issues. Social media sites like the popular WhatsApp and Blackberry Instant Messaging are used by candidates to actively interact with voters as the former can shape the latter's behaviour (Chernor et al., 2011). With respect to the forgoing, we hypothesized as follows:

H₀₃: Live chatting does not significantly influence voter intentions among Nigerian electorates.

H₀₄: Live chatting does not significantly influence voter commitments among Nigerian electorates.

Status Update and Electorates' Patronage:

Literature on the link between status update and voter patronage indicates that active reaction on the part of voters as posts by parties can either do better to encourage voter support or to over-hit the polity (Heckelman, 2008). The author further stated that profile update in form of text or pictures can move millions of voters to the polls to support a candidate. This is because Facebook and Twitter update today is an essential instrument of political campaign. However, it lacked substance in research content in the effect of change of status on voter patronage (Gerber & Rogers, 2009).

According to Dugan (2010), politicians use profile updates to disperse information. This information can be more or less emotionally aimed at seeking public sympathy and subsequent support by electorates. More so, Bullas (2011), argued that status update can probe into the sub-consciousness of voters thereby creating a sense of sympathy for candidates and parties. As simple as status update may seem, however, it can be a major instrument to shaping and directing voter behaviour. As simple profile update can ignite thousands of followers to begin to comment and this can exact some form of psychological influence on the public (Heckelman, 2008). Hence this study hypothesized as follows:

H₀₅: Status update does not significantly influence voter intentions among Nigerian electorates.

H₀₆: Status update does not significantly influence voter commitment among Nigerian electorates.

METHODOLOGY:

This study employed survey research design to gather information from respondents. Due to the fact that we are dealing with study subjects who are eligible voters across the country, the study specifically adopted the cross-sectional research design in planning and developing a good framework for it.

Basically, the population for the study is the registered voters in Nigeria. According to the ongoing voters registration in the country, a total of Seventy One Million, Four Hundred Thousand (71,400,000) eligible voters have been officially registered by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC, October, 2017). Based on the above figure, a sample of four hundred (400) persons were selected with the help of Krecjic & Morgan (1970) table. This number constituted those that were issued copies of the research instrument.

Given the nature of the study as to the aim of examining the relationship between social media advertising and voter patronage, Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient was used to evaluate the extent to which the independent variable affects the dependent variable in all cases of the hypothesis. In addition, while the researchers conducted a pilot study in order to identify weakness in the research instrument for validation, Cronbach Alpha test was used to measure the reliability of the instrument.

Out of a total of 400 copies of the questionnaire distributed, only 387 copies were returned. However, the total number of copies were subjected to data treatment. With respect to the above, a total of 380 copies were found useful for the study.

Decision rules for Testing of Hypotheses:

Accept the null hypotheses (H₀) and reject the alternate hypotheses (H_a) if the significant probability value (PV) >0.05, that is, no significant coefficient exist. Reject the null hypotheses (H₀) and accept the alternate hypotheses (H_a) if the significant probability value (PV) <0.05. The strength of the relationship is decided thus; -0.1 to -0.4(weak negative relationship), -0.5 to -0.7 (moderate negative relationship), -0.8 to -0.9 (strong negative relationship), -1 (perfect negative relationship); +0.1 to +0.4 (weak positive relationship), +0.5 to +0.7 (moderate positive relationship), +0.8 to +0.9 (strong positive relationship), +1 (perfect positive relationship).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS:

Test of Hypothesis One:

H₀₁: Content sharing does not significantly influence voter intention among Nigerian electorates.

Decision: Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.912 and probability value of 0.000. This result indicates that there is a strong and positive significant relationship between content sharing and voter intention among Nigerian electorates'. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis, because the PV (0.000) <0.05 level of significance.

Test of Hypothesis Two:

H₀₂: Content sharing does not significantly influence voter commitment among Nigerian electorates'.

Decision: Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.833 and probability value of 0.000. This result indicates that there is a strong and positive significant relationship between content sharing and voter commitment among Nigeria electorates'. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis, because the PV (0.000) <0.05 level of significance.

Test of Hypothesis Three:

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between live chatting and voter intention among Nigerian electorates.

Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.944 and probability value of 0.000. This result indicates that there is a strong and positive significant relationship between live chatting and voter intentions among Nigerian electorates. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis, because the PV (0.000) <0.05 level of significance.

Test of Hypothesis Four:

H₀₄: Live chatting does not significantly influence voter commitment among Nigerian electorates'.

Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.824 and probability value of 0.000. This result indicates that there is a strong and positive significant relationship between live chatting and voter commitment among Nigerian electorates'. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis, because the PV (0.000) <0.05 level of significance.

Test of Hypothesis Five:

H₀₅: Status Update does not significantly influence voter intention among Nigerian electorates.

Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.821 and probability value of 0.000. This result indicates that there is a strong and positive significant relationship between status update and voter intentions. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis, because the PV (0.000) <0.05 level of significance.

Test of Hypothesis Six:

H₀₆: Status update does not significant influence voter commitment among Nigeria electorates'.

Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.910 and probability value of 0.000. This result indicates that there is a strong and positive significant relationship between status update and voter commitment. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis, because the PV (0.000) <0.05 level of significance.

CONCLUSION:

With respect to the analysis and findings, it is clear that social media advertising plays a pivotal role in shaping and directing voter behaviour. The impact of social media advertising on Nigerian electorates' was however felt more in the 2015 general election. Political gladiators were at the top gear in using different forms of social media strategies in projecting themselves and at the same time de-marketing opponents in a bid to out-smart competing candidates and coming out victorious.

Media strategies such as video and picture sharing was adopted in sites like Facebook and Whatsapp in promoting political parties and their candidates by communicating electioneering promises and key programmes in their manifestos, to actual and potential voters. This however played a major role in influencing voter preference and commitment. Also, live charting and status update were also found to be primary motivators in encouraging thousands of voters to patronize specific candidates. While these tools were mostly used by the ruling party to showcase major achievements in the country and at the same time promoting their candidates, the opposition party was also at it to uncover different forms of lies and propaganda being perpetuated by the ruling party.

It is evident that media advertising strategies actually paid off; it is however important to report that a significant relationship does exist between social media advertising strategies and electorates' patronage. This therefore, hold that voter intentions and commitments can be enhanced through sharing live stories, news, updates; and constantly encouraging the public on important national issues bothering on security, economy, health, education, infrastructural facilities etc.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

1. Content sharing in social media advertising such as news and stories are encouraged to be used by candidates of political parties in promoting their image as this has a way of influencing voter commitment and intention.
2. More so, live charting and status update should be used by party strategists as this media strategies have been proved by the study to be a veritable tool in directing and shaping voter patronage.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT:

The authors are grateful to the Department of Marketing, University of Uyo, Uyo, Nigeria, for providing the enabling environment in terms of laboratory under which this study was carried out.

REFERENCES:

- Chernor, B. (2011). Learning about politics from the social media. *Political Communication*, 14(4), 421-430.
- Criffin, E. (2009). *A first look at communication theory* (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Dale, H. & Straues, B. (2009). Measuring user influence in twitter: The million follower fallacy. *Weblock & Social Media*, 24-38
- Dalton, V. & Beck, J. (2012). Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. *Business Horizon*, 52. 357-365.
- Deetz, S. (1995). *Transferring communication and business: building response and responsible workplace*, Homtan Press.
- Derzon, J., & Lipsey, M. (2002). A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of mass communication for changing substance-use knowledge, attitude, and behaviour. *Classical and contemporary theories and research*, 4(2), 231-258.
- Engel, J., Blackwell, R., and Mniard, P. (1990). *Consumer behaviour*, Drydon Press, Chicago, USA.
- Funk, C.L. (2011). Bringing the candidate into models of candidate evolution. *Journal of Politics*, 61(3), 700-720.
- Gerodimos, R. (2012). Online youth civic attitudes and the limit of civic consumerism. *Social media and democrat*, 45, 166-189.
- Ifuka, P. (2016). Elections or selections? blogging and twittering the Nigerian 2015 general elections. *Bulleting of Science, Technology, and Society*, 30(10), 398-414.
- Jackson, N. & Lilleker, D. (2011). Microblogging, constituency service ad impression management. *Journal of Legislative Studies*, 17, 18-105
- Kotler, P. (2003). *Marketing management*. 11th ed. Pearson Education, New Jersey, USA.
- Kushin, M. & Yamamoto, M. (2010). Did social media really matter? College students' use of online media and political decision making in the 2018 election. *Mass communication and society*, 13 608-630.
- Lambrecht, A., & Tucker, C. (2013). When does retargeting works? Information specification in online advertising. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 50, 561-576.
- Larry, C., Mary, M. & Richard, E. (2008). The consumption of online news: The relationship of attitude towards the site and credibility. *Journal of Internet Commerce*, 7(4), 528-549.
- Learnout, M. (2013). *Social media paves way to white house advertising age*, 80(1), 16.
- Lewe, J. & Jung, B. (2003). What drive voters to spread the word in social media? *Journal of Political Marketing Research & Case Studies*, 1-14.
- Martin, P. (2015). The mass media as sentiment: Why bad news about issues is good news for participation. *Political communication*, 25(2), 180-193.
- O'Cass, A. (2002). A micromodel of voter choice: Understanding the dynamics of voter characteristics in general elections. *Psychology and marketing journal*, vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 61-85.
- Pillai, R., Williams, E., Lowe, K., & Jung, D. (2003). Personality transformational leadership, trust, and the 2000 US Presidential vote. *Leadership Quarterly*, 14(2), 161-192.
- Qing, B., & Oyedeki, T. (2011). Credibility perception of different types of weblogs among young adult. *Global Media Journal*, 11(19), 1-14.
- Smith, E. & Decoster, J. (2011). Dual process models in social and cognitive psychology: Conceptual integration and link to underlying memory systems. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 4(2), 108-131.
- Spiro, K. (2001). Public trust and mistrust: Perception of media credibility in the information age. *Mass communication and society*, 4(4), 381-403.
- Tolbert, C., & Mcneal, R. (2010). Unraveling the effects of the internet on political participation. *Political Research Quarterly*, 56(2), 175-185.

Townera, T. & Duhioa, D. (2011). The web 2.0 election: Does the online medium matter? *Journal of Political Marketing*, 109(2), 175-188.

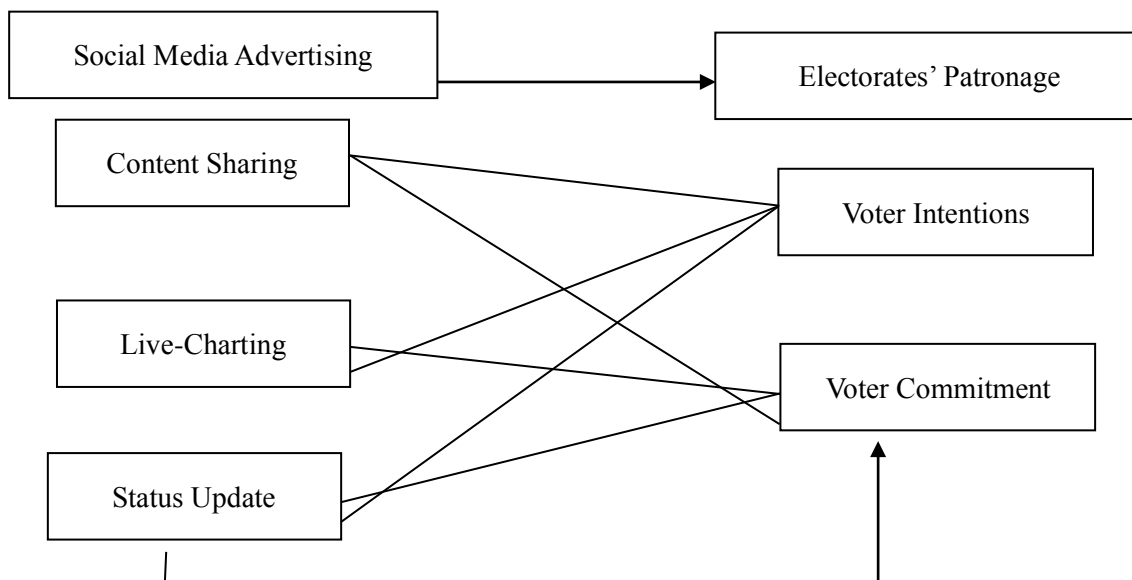
Ward, J. (2012). Reaching citizens online: How youth organizations are evolving their web presence. *Social Media and Democracy*, 45, 150-165.

Wong, J. (2007). Relationship of media use and political disaffection of political efficacy and voting behaviour. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media*, 32, 34-40.

Wu, D., & Dahmen, N. (2010). Web sponsorship and campaign effects: Assessing the difference between positive and negative websites. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 9(4), 314-329.

FIGURES

Fig 1.1: Operational Framework of the Study



Source: Researchers' Adaptation from Literature

TABLES

Table 4.1: Questionnaire Administration

| Details | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------|-----------|------------|
| Distributed copies | 400 | 100.0 |
| Returned copies | 387 | 96.8 |
| Used copies | 380 | 95.0 |
| Unused copies | 7 | 1.8 |

Source: Field Survey Data, 2017, SPSS 21 Output

Table 4.2: Correlation Analysis showing the Relationship between Content Sharing and Voter Intention.

| Correlations | | | Content Sharing | Voter Intention |
|----------------|------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Spearman's rho | Content Sharing | Correlation Coefficient | 1.000 | .912** |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | . | .000 |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |
| | Voter Intentions | Correlation Coefficient | .912** | 1.000 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | . |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Survey Data, 2017, SPSS 21 Output

Table 4.3: Correlation Analysis showing the Relationship between Content Sharing and Voter Commitment

| Correlations | | | | |
|----------------|------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| | | | Content Sharing | Voter Commitment |
| Spearman's rho | Content Sharing | Correlation Coefficient | 1.000 | .833** |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | . | .000 |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |
| | Voter Commitment | Correlation Coefficient | .833** | 1.000 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | . |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Survey Data, 2017, SPSS 21 Output

Table 4.4: Correlation Analysis showing the Relationship between Live Chatting Voter Intention.

| Correlations | | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|-------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | | | Live Chatting | Voter Intention |
| Spearman's rho | Live Chatting | Correlation Coefficient | 1.000 | .944** |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | . | .000 |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |
| | Voter Intention | Correlation Coefficient | .944** | 1.000 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | . |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Survey Data, 2017, SPSS 21 Output

Table 4.5: Correlation Analysis showing the Relationship between Live Chatting and Voter Commitment

| Correlations | | | | |
|----------------|------------------|-------------------------|---------------|------------------|
| | | | Live Chatting | Voter Commitment |
| Spearman's rho | Live Chatting | Correlation Coefficient | 1.000 | .824** |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | . | .000 |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |
| | Voter Commitment | Correlation Coefficient | .824** | 1.000 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | . |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Survey Data, 2017, SPSS 21 Output

Table 4.6: Correlation Analysis showing the Relationship between Status Update and Voter Intention.

| Correlations | | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|-------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | | | Status Update | Voter Intention |
| Spearman's rho | Status Update | Correlation Coefficient | 1.000 | .821** |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | . | .000 |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |
| | Voter Intention | Correlation Coefficient | .821** | 1.000 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | . |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Survey Data, 2017, SPSS 21 Output

Table 4.7: Correlation Analysis showing the Relationship between Status Update and Voter Commitment

| Correlations | | | | |
|----------------|------------------|-------------------------|---------------|------------------|
| | | | Status Update | Voter Commitment |
| Spearman's rho | Status Update | Correlation Coefficient | 1.000 | .910** |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | . | .000 |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |
| | Voter Commitment | Correlation Coefficient | .910** | 1.000 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | . |
| | | N | 380 | 380 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Survey Data, 20176, SPSS 21 Output
