

Determinants of voter turnout in 2015 Tanzania general election: a case of morogoro municipality, Tanzania

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Abstract

Worldwide voters' turnout shows a notable decline since the mid 1980s, this is a challenge to democratization process. A number of efforts have been in place to address this, still a great proportion of registered voters do not vote in the elections as revealed in 1995, 2000, 2005 and 2010 General elections in Tanzania. This study was designed to assess the context specific determinants of voters' turnouts in Tanzania general election in Morogoro municipality after all the efforts by various stakeholders to address low turn outs experienced in earlier elections. Specifically the study determined voters' turnouts and analyzed motives for voting. A cross-sectional study design was employed. Questionnaire was used as a tool for data collection to gather both qualitative and quantitative information. Multistage sampling was employed. Data were collected from four randomly selected wards from Morogoro urban (purposely selected) in Morogoro region namely Kichangani, Tungi, Mazimbu and Mji Mpya where in each ward 60 individuals were drawn randomly. Data processing and analysis was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software. Chi-square test indicates significant associations between marital status and voting ($p = 0.000$), voters education and the likelihood of voting ($p = 0.000$) and access to information and the likelihood of voting ($p = 0.001$). The motives for turning to vote in general election in the study area were leadership role towards development (22.5%), exercising democracy (17.5%), good policies of political parties and manifestos (20.0%) and achievement done by former leaders (15.0%), good promises made by candidates during campaigns (10.0%) and voted to avoid corrupt leaders (15.0%). The study recommends for provision of civic education programme to citizens through various means and rigorous campaigns to disclose candidates' potentialities.

Keywords: General Election; Voter Turnout; Tanzania; Determinants of Voter Turnout.

1. Introduction

1.1. Background information and problem statement

Free and fair election is one among rational and essential elements of a democratic government (Goodwin-Gill 2006; Meyer-Resende 2011; Beetham 2004; Bjornlund 2004; Muhanga & Andrew 2015; Muhanga 2017). In that the number of voters who turn to vote on the voting day account for the level of citizens' civic political participation (Chinsinga 2006). Murphy and Freyman (2009) argue that voting is not only the act but also the process of electing leaders who formulate laws and policies that affect citizens' lives and incidence of voting is not universal hence voters participation vary as the methods used in electing those leaders/representatives. Although election is facing many problems worldwide (IFES 2014; MNA 2014; AU 2014; Norris et al., 2015), one of those problems is voters turnout drop in elections. This problem of low voters' turnouts affects the processes of democratization (TEMCO 2010, Hansford & Gomez 2010). Voter turnout is the percentage of eligible voters who cast a ballot in an election. Voter turnout is one measure of citizen participation in politics. A high turnout is generally seen as evidence of the legitimacy of the current system (Niemi & Weisberg 2001, Pintor et al., n. d).

Worldwide voters' turnout shows a notable decline since the mid 1980s, this indicates a challenge to democratization process (Murphy & Freyman 2009, Pintor et al., n.d). According to Ferrini

(2012:1) turnouts at the elections has declined in the decades following the World War Two in many convectional democracies. Despite the situation, some countries including Denmark, Sweden and Iceland have shown stable turnout while other nations showing declining turnouts by 9 % between 1970s to 2000s (IDEA, 2007). Referendum have generally low turnout than general elections worldwide, but there is more variations in turnouts (LeDuc 2003) as quoted in IDEA (2004) while Palfrey & Rosenthal (1983) as quoted in Fain (1993:826) argue that as the team sizes get large voter participation decreases. For example Clark et al., (2004) as quoted in IDEA (2004) pointed out that in the United Kingdom Election of 2001 there evidenced a drop out in turnouts by 2%.

Most of African countries evidenced turnouts decline in voting exercise in recently years. For example in Kenya in 2010 Constitutional Referendum, registered voters were 12,616,627 but only 9,106,285 voters turned to vote which is about 74.5%, in Senegal voters turnout declined from 70.6% in 2007 to 50.0% in 2012, in Seychelles turnouts declined from 85.9% in 2007 to 85.3% in 2011 while Zimbabwe evidenced turnouts decline from 63.5% in 2005 to 44.3% in 2009 (African Elections Database 2011). Since the re-introduction of multiparty democracy in Tanzania, citizens have attended to polls for general elections in 1995, 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2015 respectively. In the first multiparty election in 1995 the registered voters were 8 929 969 but only 6 846 681 voters' equivalent to 76% turned to vote. In 2000 General Election, registered voters were 10 088 484 and those who turned to vote were 8 517 598 that are equal to 84.4%. In 2005 General Election, registered voters were 16 401 694 and voters who turned were 11 875 927 that is

about 72.4%. In 2010, Tanzania General Election registered and qualified voters were 20 137 303 where turnout was 8 626 283 which is equal to 42.8% (African Election Database 2011). All these elections revealed the turnouts drop of about 69.1% (IDEA, 2011). In 2015, Tanzania witnessed a total of 23 254 485 voters registering with 15 193 862 turning out for voting (NEC 2015). Similarly Tairo (2011) argues that Tanzania has evidenced the number of turnouts decreasing from time to time since 1995 to 2010 general elections although the number of registered voters increasing in those sessions from 1995, 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2015 respectively.

On the other hand, Morogoro region evidenced the same problem of turnout decline whereby in 2005 election registered voters were 894 179 but only 666 302 voters turn to vote which is about 74.5%. In 2010 general election registered voters in Morogoro Municipality were 185 235 but 67 361 voters turn to vote that means on other way 65.4% of all registered voters did not vote (African Elections Database 2011).

Studies (Mwinyi & Kayunze 2014; Chinsinga 2006; Settle & Abrams, n.d) have associated turn out with general determinants such as weather condition in the polling day, campaign, access to media, time spend in queues, civic and voter education, low caliber and distance to polling station, availability of information, winning majority, income, legislative profits and employment rate. Some of these determinants applied to previous elections in Tanzania and elsewhere. Having noted these factors and incognizant of the intensity of the problem since 1995 several efforts have been taken by government, NGOs, FBOs and others to solve or reduce low voter turnouts in Tanzania. These efforts included free and independent mass media campaigns, provision of awareness and education about citizens' right to participate in this political arena particularly on the importance of voting, establishment of Permanent National voters register (PNVR) in 2004. This paper analyses the context specific determinants with respect to voters turn out after all these efforts taken to address voters turnout in Tanzania and Morogoro municipality in particular by focusing on the 2015 General Election.

2. Theoretical approaches towards determinants of voter turnout

2.1. An information theory

An information theory was propounded by John G. Matsusaka in 1993 to study what determines voters' turnout in election, he claims that:

"Campaign spending increases voter turnout. People who are contacted by campaign worker prior to an election are more likely to vote. Public employees and farm owners are more likely to vote; farm labourers are less likely to vote. Married people are more likely to vote. A person level of education is positively correlated with his or her probability to vote. People who recently moved are less likely to vote. A person's age is positively correlated with her probability of voting, other things equal" (Matsusaka 1995:92)

Matsusaka explains that, campaign and frequently contact with voters provides less expensive in getting information about candidates and parties that are competing to take power (Matsusaka 1995). Matsusaka in his An Information Theory argues that employed people interact more with the government that enabling them get information about political knowledge hence will increase voter turnout likewise married people who enjoy economies of scale information acquisition about politics (Matsusaka 1995). Also Matsusaka (1995) explains that, "Education and age bring knowledge that is useful in processing information" age of citizens brings about positive correlation with the chance of voting since older people are more likely to vote for they have more knowledge and confident to vote unlike young people. Unlike citizens who frequently move (seasonal or permanent migration) are likely less to vote. Moreover Matsusaka suggests that contacted by campaign through personal contact,

phone radio, television are likely to vote. "When the price of information is low, the fraction of people who vote is high" (Matsusaka 1995).

Matsusaka points out that, higher income earners will be exposed to information and hence likely to vote and ease to access high cost to campaign site and time spend in politics (Matsusaka 1995). Therefore Matsusaka in his theory, An Information Theory shows that, the probability of voting increases if price of information decreases and knowledge rises. Also Matsusaka explains that some citizens do not go to polls because they are not informed about candidate to vote. Citizen will come to vote if and only if they know each manifesto/policy of each candidate plans to execute if elected (Matsusaka 1995).

1.2. The rational theory of voter behaviour

The rational theory of voter behaviour was developed by Anthony Downs in 1957 to study behaviour voters and determinants of voters' participation in election. Down suggests that, *ceteris paribus* increase in the availability in information about candidates heightens the likelihood that the potential voters will captured by the campaign and therefore that he/she will vote. Downs insists on the availability of information in order to make legible voters vote where information availability is positively linked with campaigns that increases voters turnout (Downs 1957). Downs also explains that, voters will vote and turnout will increase if advantages and benefits of voting increase in the past election. He further claims that, the more the legislative profits voter gains, the more the likelihood he/she will vote (Downs 1957).

Downs (1957) argues that the higher the winning the majority closeness to election day the higher the disincentive to vote. Downs shows that the size of the winning the majority in that particular election between candidates will lead some of voter because/for they already know who will win. Moreover, Downs claims that, there is positive relation between voters' participation and their income. Downs concludes that the higher the income of voters the higher the turnout in election (Downs 1957). Lastly Downs shows that, unemployment and women suffrage directly affect voters turnout and voters participation in political arena at large. He further explains that, the higher the unemployment rate the lower the turnout because they do not see the impact of voting, the more women suffrage the more the turnout in election (Downs 1957).

3. Methodology

3.1. Description of the study area and justification for its selection

This study was conducted in Morogoro municipality in Morogoro region. The municipality is about 195km West of Dar es Salaam city along the Tanzania – Zambia highway lying on the foot of the Uluguru Mountains with a total area of 260 Km² (square kilometres). Morogoro municipality is bordered to the west and north by Mvomero district and to the east and the south by the Morogoro rural district. According to the 2012 Population Census, Morogoro municipality has a total population of 315 866 women being 164 166 (52%) and 151 700 (48%) are men with a population growth rate of 2.4% per annum. The municipality is subdivided into 19 administrative wards and 275 streets (NBS and OCGS, 2012).

Morogoro Municipality was selected for the study due to the fact that in 2010 general election 65.4% of registered voters did not turn to vote which was above 57.2% of registered voters who did not vote all over the country. Therefore, Morogoro municipality evidenced problem of turnout drop in 2010 general election compared to other places in Tanzania (NEC 2010).

3.2. Research design

The research used a cross sectional design in which data collected once at a single point of time for determining the relationship between variables (Kothari 2004). The design was suitable for the descriptive study in which data collected at a single point in time and used for describing as well as determining the relationship between variables. The design was favourable because of time limit and resources.

3.3. Sampling

3.4. Population

The research population for the study included both females and males aged 18 years and above from wards in Morogoro municipality.

3.5. Sampling technique and sample size

Morogoro municipality was purposively selected due to having recorded a low turnout, whereby 65.4% of all registered voters did not vote in 2010 General Election. Four wards namely Mazimbu, Kichangani, Tungi and Mji Mpya were randomly selected; in each ward 60 respondents were randomly selected from the sampling frames created out of list of names of residents in the respective wards.

Simple random sampling method was used to get a sample from both male and female. In addition, in order to get proportionate balanced sample between female and male interviewees/respondents stratified sampling was employed to obtain a proportionate balanced sample. The total sample size comprised of 240 respondents (30 females and 30 males from 4 randomly chosen wards). The sampling size is justified by the fact that a sub sample of 30 respondents is the bare minimum for studies in which statistical data analysis is to be done regardless of the population size (Bailey, 1994). The choice of this figure is based on the fact that 240 respondents are sufficient for a study of this nature and therefore representative.

3.6. Data sources, collection and analysis

Data were collected from both primary and secondary sources with qualitative and quantitative information. The data gathered from field survey were summarized, sorted, edited, coded, and analyzed prior to be entered into computer for processing and analysis. Analysis was done using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer software. Descriptive and inferential statistics were analyzed. In descriptive statistical analysis, frequencies, percentages on variables were computed. Inferential analysis was done using chi-square analysis to determine whether there were significant relationships between voting and some independent variables.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Eight aspects of socio-demographic characteristics namely age, sex, education level, religion, marital status, occupation, civic education and membership to political parties of respondents were asked about, and the results are presented.

4.2. Age of respondents

The results in Table 1 show that 35% of the interviewed respondents were aged between 21 to 30 years, 37.5% were between 31 to 40 years, 12.5% were aged between 41 to 50 years, 5% were between 51 to 60 years while 10% were above 61 years.

5. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 1: Age of Respondents (N = 240)

Variables	Values	Frequency	Percent %
Age	21 - 30	84	35.0
	31 - 40	90	37.5
	41 - 50	30	12.5
	51 - 60	12	5.0
	>61	24	10.0
Total		240	100.0

5.1. Sex of respondents

The sample of respondents interviewed comprised of 50% male and 50% female as presented in Table 2. Equal number of men and women were included for the research based on gender equality.

5.2. Respondents' marital status

The results in Table 2 show that 57.5% of the interviewed respondents were married, 35% were single, 2.5% were widow and 5% were separated.

6. Socio - demographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 2: Sex and Marital Status of Respondents (N=240)

Variables	Values	Frequency	Percent %
Sex	Male	120	50.0
	Female	120	50.0
Total		240	100
Marital status	Married	138	57.5
	Single	84	35.0
	Widowed	6	2.5
	Separated	12	5.0
	Total		240

6.1. Respondents' education level

The results in Table 3 indicates that 42.5% of the interviewed respondents as presented in Table 2 had primary school education, 7.5% of respondents had adult attained education, 27.5% of respondents completed form four, 2.5% of the respondents had completed form six. 7.5% of respondents had certificate, 10% of respondents had diploma level while 2.5 had attained higher education.

6.2. Respondents' occupation

The results in Table 3 show 25% of the interviewed respondents were peasant, 37.5% were businessmen/women, 15% were public servants, 5% were unemployed, and 7.5% were Retired Officers and 10% were private servants.

7. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 3: Marital Status, Education Level and Occupation of Respondents (N = 240)

Variables	Values	Frequency	Percent %
Education level	Primary Level	102	42.5
	Adult education	18	7.5
	Secondary level (O)	66	27.5
	Secondary level a(A)	6	2.5
	Certificate	18	7.5
	Diploma	24	10.0
	Higher education	6	2.5
Total		240	100
Occupation	Peasant	60	25.0

	Businessmen/women	90	37.5
	Public servant	36	15.0
	Unemployed	12	5.0
	Retired officer	18	7.5
Total	Private servant	24	10.0
		240	100.0

7.1. Civic education

The results in Table 4 show that 10% of the interviewed respondents had civic education while 90% had no civic education. This implies that most of people in Morogoro had no civic education hence they are not likely to turn to vote for they have no civic education.

7.2. Membership to political parties

The results in Table 4 show that 57.5% of the interviewed respondents had membership to different political parties while 42.5% had no membership to political parties. Also the study shows that, respondents had membership to either of the following political parties namely CCM, CUF, CHADEMA and NCCR-MAGEUZI.

7.3. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 4: Religion, Civic Education and Membership to Political Party (n=240)

Variables	Values	Frequency	Percent %
Civic education	Had civic education	24	10.0
	Had no civic education	216	90.0
	Total	240	100
Membership to political parties	Had membership	138	57.5
	Had no membership	102	42.5
Total		240	100.0

8. Voters turn out

Table 5 presents findings with respect to voters' turnout in Morogoro Municipality during the 2015 General Elections; the results show that 70% of the respondents casted their votes while 30 % did not.

Table 5: Voting in 2015 Tanzania General Election (n=240)

Voting in 2015 Elections	Frequency	Percent
Voted	168	70.0
Didn't vote	72	30.0
Total	240	100.0

8.1. Voters turnout based on marital status

This study was also interested on establishing the influence or association of marital status and voting. The findings reveal that 47.5% of married individuals, 17.5 % of single ones , 2.5 % of those who are widows and 2.5% those separated casted their votes. It further reveals that 10.0% of married individuals, 17.5 % of single ones , 0.0% of those who are widows and 2.5% those separated respectively did not cast their votes.

The Pearson Chi-Square test indicates $\chi^2 = 31.304^a$, $p = 0.000$ this tells us that there is statistically significant association between voters turnout and marital status. These results are conforming to An Information Theory (Matsusaka 1995) which claims of a significant association between marital status and voters turn out.

Table 6: Voting in 2015 Tanzania General Election Basing on Marital Status (N=240)

Marital status of the respondent	Voting in 2015 Tanzania general election		Total
	Voted (%)	Didn't Vote %	
Married	114 (47.5)	24 (10.0)	138 (57.5)
Single	42(17.5)	42 (17.5)	84 (35.0)
Widow	6(2.5)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)
Separated	6(2.5)	6 (2.5)	12 (5.0)
Total	168(70)	72(30)	240 (100)

8.2. Voting in 2015 tanzania general election based on sex of respondents

Table 7 presents findings with respect to voters' turnout in Morogoro Municipality during the 2015 General Elections basing on sex; the results show that 37.5% of the respondents who casted their votes were females while 32.5 % were males.

Table 7: Voting in 2010 Tanzania General Election Basing on Sex (N=240)

Sex of respondents	Voting in 2015 Tanzania General Election		Total
	Voted	Didn't vote %	
Female	90 (37.5)	30 (12.5)	120 (50)
Male	78 (32.5)	42 (17.5)	120 (50)
Total	168 (70)	72 (30)	240 (100)

However, the relationship between voting and sex of the respondent was not significant ($\chi^2 = 2.857^a$, $p = 0.091$) that is, being male and female had no impact when it came to voting.

8.3. Voting in 2015 tanzania general election based on respondent's education level

The findings in Table 8 reveal that 32.5% of those who voted had primary school education, 5.0 % had adult education, where 17.5 % had an ordinary certificate of secondary education, followed by 2.5% who had an advanced certificate of secondary school education.

Table 8: Voting Based on Respondent's Education Level Crosstabulation (N=240)

Respondent's education level	Voting in 2015 Tanzania general election		Total
	Voted %	Didn't vote %	
Primary Level	78(32.5)	24(10.0))	102 (42.5)
Adult education	12(5.0)	6(2.5)	18 (7.5)
Secondary level (O Level)	42 (17.5)	24(10.0)	66 (27.5)
Secondary level (A Level)	6 (2.5)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)
Certificate	18 (7.5)	0(0.0)	18 (7.5)
Diploma	12 (5.0)	12 (5.0)	24 (10.0)
Higher Education	0	6 (2.5)	6 (2.5)
Total	168 (70)	72 (30.0)	240 (100)

Other studies (Denny and Doyle 2008; Matsusaka 1995; Ladner 2000) identify education as one among determinants of electoral participation, whereby citizens with high education level have a greater chance to vote. The findings in this study indicate that all those who voted had a certain level of education. Pearson Chi-square test did indicate a significant relationship ($\chi^2 = 32.259$, $p = 0.000$).

8.4. Political party campaigns attendance influence on voting

This study sought to establish the influence of Political Party Campaigns Attendance on turning out for voting in 2015 General Election. Table 9 presents the results, whereby 27.5% of those respondents who attended political party campaigns voted and 42.5% of

those who did not attend to the political party campaigns casted their votes. This implies that attendance to political party campaigns had no influence to voters turn out as more respondents who did not attend to campaigns turned out. These findings contradict to An Information Theory and The Rational Theory of Voter Behaviour which associate campaigns attendance and the likelihood of voting (Matusaka 1995; Downs 1957). Pearson Chi-Square (χ^2) =119^a p=0.730. This tells us that there is no statistically significant association between attending Political Party Campaigns and the likelihood of voting.

Table 9: Political Party Campaigns Attendance Influence on Voting in 2015 General Election (N=240)

		Voting in 2015 Tanzania General Election		Total (%)
		Voted (%)	Didn't Vote (%)	
Political party campaigns attendance	Attended	66 (27.5)	30 (12.5)	96 (40)
	Didn't attend	102 (42.5)	42 (17.5)	144(60)
Total		168 (70)	72 (30)	240 (100)

8.5. Access to voting related information and voter turning out

Incognizant of the role information can play towards awareness creation hence participation in election, this study sought to establish relationship between political related information access and its influence on voters turn out. Cross tabulation was used to determine how access to information influences voting. The results in Table 10 show that a greater proportion 85.7% of the respondents who had access to information voted while only 14.3% of respondents who had no access to information voted.

Table 10: Access to Information and Voting (N=240)

Access to Information	Voting in 2015 Tanzania General Election	
	Accessed (%)	Not accessed (%)
Who have access to information	85.7	66.7
Those who had no access to information	14.3	33.3

Findings from this study are in line with claims from An Information Theory and The Rational Theory of Voter Behaviour (Downs 1957; Matusaka 1995) which associate information access to the likelihood of turning out for voting. From the Pearson Chi-Square test it can be observed that $\chi^2 = 11.429^a$, $p = 0.001$. This indicates that there is statistically significant association between access to information and the likelihood of voting.

9. Motive for voting in general election

9.1. Motives for voting in election

The results in Table 11 show that 22.5% of interviewed respondents were encouraged by leadership roles towards development to vote, 17% of the respondents voted just for the sake of exercising democracy, 15% vote for active leaders, 15% voted in order to combat corruption while 10% voted because they were influenced by electoral campaigns. This implies that majority of voters are influenced by leadership roles towards development meaning that if they do not realize development they are less likely to vote. Intrinsic and extrinsic motives are major forces that drive voting and are likely to increase or decrease turnout since voting is giving authority to others by our votes thus ensures elected leaders accountable for responsibilities about bringing sustainable development (Goodwin-Gill, 2006).

Table 11: Motive Forces for Voting in Election (N=240)

Motive forces	Frequency	Percent (%)
Manifestos active political party	48	20.0
Active leader	36	15.0
To avoid corruption	36	15.0
Exercising democracy	42	17.5
Campaign	24	10.0
Leadership roles towards development	54	22.5
Total	240	100.0

9.2. Political party membership and voting

The relationship between political party membership and voting was determined by cross tabulation to find out whether the two variables were related. The results in Table 12 show that a greater proportion (60%) of respondents who were members to political parties voted while only 25.0% of respondents who were not members to any political party voted. People who are members of different political parties do vote unlike those who do not adhere to any political party since they have ambition of taking power/leadership (Settle and Abrams (n.d). The details are presented under Table 12.

Table 12: Political Party Membership and Voting (N=240)

Membership to political parties	Voting in 2015 Tanzania general election	
	Who voted (%)	Who didn't vote (%)
Those who had membership to political parties	60.7	39.3
Those who didn't adhere to political parties	25.0	75.0

10. Distance, time spent to and lining up in the polling stations

10.1. Distance to the polling station

To determine the distance from the residence to the polling stations, respondents were asked how many metres they walked from their homes to the polls. The results in table 5(c) show that 32.5% of respondents walked the distance between 0 M and 300 M, 30% walked the distance between 400 M and 600 M, 20% walked the distance between 700 M and 900 M while 17.5% walked the distance above 900 M. This implies that majority of voter (about 82.5%)stayed near to the polling station whereby this shows that polling station were located near voters' residence. These results predict that high number of those who live near polling site come to vote. Dyck and Gimpel (2005) argue that as travel distance increases voters are likely not to vote unlike voters who stay far from polls who opt to vote by mail rather than going to polling site. Likewise Mills (2002) asserts physical accessibility of polls determines rates of turnout since distance can act as a motive or disincentive.

Table 13: Distance to the Polling Station (N=240)

Parameter	Values	Frequency	Percentages %
Distance (M)	100 M to 300 M	78	32.5
	400 M to 600 M	72	30.0
	700 M to 900 M	48	20.0
	Above 900 M	42	17.5
Total		240	100.0

The results show that 77% of the interviewed respondents stay near to the polling station (less than 1 km) while 22.5% stay a distance (beyond 1 km) to the polling station. This implies that polling stations were located near to voters' residence since large proportion of voters (77%) agreed that polls are near to their home where majority walked on foot to polls. Other studies (Mwinyi & Kayunze 2014; Chinsinga 2006) have also associated voters turn out with the

distance to the polling station. This indicates that the National Electoral Commission in Tanzania has managed to address the issues of distance from the polling which was one of the determinants for voter turnout in previous elections.

Table 14: Distance to Polling Stations (n=240)

Parameter	Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Distance to polling station	Less than 1 km	186	77.5
	Beyond 1 km	54	22.5
	Total	240	100.0

10.2. Relationship between distance and turnout

The results in Table 15 show that 77.4% of respondents who stay nearby polls vote unlike 44.4% of respondents who stay far from polls who did not vote. These findings indicate that there is positive relationship between distance and likelihood of voting. Voters do face the dual constraints of distance and time particularly those living further away from polling stations where they have higher travel costs and take more time than those living closer. These dual costs lead to lower turnout among those living more distant from polling stations (Dyck and Gimpel, 2005).

Table 15: Distance to the Polling Station and Turnout (N=240)

Distance	Voting in 2015 Tanzania General Election	
	Who voted (%)	Who didn't vote (%)
Who stay nearby polls	77.4	22.6
Who stay far from polls	44.4	55.6

10.3. Minutes spend by voters going to the polling station

The respondents were asked how many minutes they had spent walking to the polling stations. The results show that 35% of interviewed respondents had spent 1 to 5 minutes to reach the polling stations, 37.5% spent 6 to 10 minutes to reach the polls. 5% of the respondents spent 11 to 30 minutes to reach the polling stations while 22.5% of all interviewed respondents spend more than 30 minutes to reach the polls. Therefore 77.5% of the interviewed respondents used less than 30 minutes unlike 22.5% who spend more than 30 minutes as indicated in table 5(d). This implies that polls were located near to voters' homes because most (77.5%) used less than 30 minutes. Distance to and from the polling locations/stations determine the time and likelihood to vote or not vote since increases or reduces costs of voting. Voters' most convenient location to vote is near his or her workplace since acts as the motivation (Markowitz, 2009).

Table 16: Minutes Spend Walking to the Polling Station in Morogoro Urban (N=240)

Parameter	Variables	Frequency	Percents%
Minutes(time)	1 to 5 minutes	14	35.0
	6 to 10 minutes	15	37.5
	11 to 30 minutes	2	5.0
	Above 30 minutes	9	22.5
Total		40	100.0

11. Conclusion

It has been observed that despite efforts by various stakeholders to improve on the factors that are impeding voters turnout a little has been achieved in certain aspects. Access to civic education among voters remains a major factor towards voters turnout, as it has been found by this study that a significant proportion of the respondents interviewed respondents had civic education. If this is left unattended thoroughly implies that most of people in Morogoro are not likely to turnout to vote. This study therefore calls for stakeholders to capitalize on voters' civic education.

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