

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### **Background to the Study**

Nigerian politicians have been blamed for the country's underdevelopment, and multiple problems, including insecurity and seeming loss of zeal in political activities by the citizens (Fadakinte, 2014). Since the restoration of democratic governance in 1999, Nigeria has held six general elections, and every election year, issues of credibility of the electoral process seem to develop more in both quality and quantity, hence the conduct of most of the elections at all levels have been adjudged to be far below international standards (Ekpe, Daniel & Ekpe, 2013/). More importantly, there have been wide spread allegations of monetary inducement of voters by politicians as motivation to vote on election days which reached pathological levels in 2018 governorship election in Ekiti and Osun states (<https://punchng.com>). Yet, the relative numbers of voters have continually declined from 1999 to date. Since this social and civic activity of political participation is a prime determinant of leadership practices and the eventual socio-economic wellbeing of a people, in a party political system, it becomes worrisome when citizens become apathetic or when a segment of society deviously alienate others from participation. In this connection, a search for possible explanation of current political behaviour, i.e. an understanding of factors that influence political engagement, attracts the attention of Social Psychology.

Accordingly, Idike (2014) insists that performance of current political parties in Nigerian politics has highly induced and encouraged political apathy in the democratic system. Such performance was identified as low awareness and image problems arising from the perception of National Orientation Agency (NOA) as government propaganda machine to implement youth participation in NOA e-pooling (Ekwenchi & Udenze, 2014). Earlier, Akude (2007) demonstrated that the Nigerian political elite are still united in the philosophy of personal enrichment through access to state power. It becomes absolutely clear that the rise in political apathy may be a product of the political elite's behaviour to keep the citizenry away from engagement in politics so as to achieve their selfish goals. Therefore, if this trend continues, it may spell doom for the survival of the nation's nascent democracy.

Records from the Independent National Electoral Commission (2015) suggest that most Nigerians are gradually withdrawing from political activities with respect to population of the citizens in election years, total number of registered voters and those that actually turned out for the elections. The 1979 Presidential and National Assembly elections revealed that 20.61% of the population voted. In 1983 Presidential and National Assembly election only 18.00% of the population of the citizens voted. In 1999 election year, only 52.52% of the registered voters participated, while 47.70% avoided the polls. Furthermore, four years later (2003), the same trends of drop in political activities continued as 69% registered voters participated, and 30% shunned from the polls. In 2007, only 57.50% registered voters participated, while 42.50% avoided the polls. Result of Presidential and National Assembly elections in 2011 showed that among the registered voters, only 53.68% voted, while 46.32% avoided the polls. More recently, in 2015 records showed that 42.76% of citizens cast their votes, while 57.24% avoided the polls (<http://www.inec.org/>). Regrettably, presidential and national assembly election of 2015 was the year of worst political decline in the history of Nigeria from 1999 to the present time.

Against this background, it is evident that the trend of political engagement in the country is moving toward political apathy. This suggests that there is extant need to examine the nature and mechanisms involved in political engagement among Nigerians. Prior to the study, a focus group was conducted by listing some factors that may predict political engagement such as religion, prosocial behaviour, educational levels, locality, poverty, and personal sense of power, political interest, political efficacy and love of money. Students were asked to rate three factors that may predict political engagement. The result of the pilot survey revealed that Love of money was 90%, Prosocial behavior 75%, and Personal sense of power 70%, Poverty 20%, Political interest 20%, Educational level 10%, and Locality 10%. Three highest scores were selected from the outcome of the pilot survey. Therefore, love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power were the predictors of political engagement chosen by the students.

Political engagement refers to the individual's ability to give or withhold his consent. This could be achieved by demonstrating some behaviour towards political activities or deciding to stay back at home. Political engagement means implementation of public policy directly or by influencing the selection of individuals who make the policy (Verba, Schlozman, & Bradley,

1995). Political engagement also means any voluntary act to influence election or public opinion, activity that has intent or effect for influencing regional, national or supranational governance (Johnson, 2008). As a citizen gives consent, it is assumed that he or she has performed an act of political engagement which enables the citizen to join in holding the elected government accountable for the government's behaviour in office within the period as stipulated by law. However, if the citizen withholds consent by means of not casting vote, the citizen may not hold the elected leader accountable for misbehaviour in office and this may be a demonstration of political apathy. Thus, consent given refers to ballot cast during elections which is an endorsement of an aspect of political engagement.

Voluntary act that influences election or public opinion refers to the electorates who cast votes to elect representatives for political office, while the aspect of public opinion refers to the vote cast by already elected representatives to uphold a bill which enhances public policy. Both aspects of voluntary actions emphasize that individuals are not under any form of coercion and all behaviours are focused on contribution (action) towards possible change. Furthermore, political engagement is an intentional act toward some goal. One may assume that act of intent could be at any level of human existence, which means that the electorates who give the mandate and the represented elected officials both strive to achieve same goal (political engagement).

Zani and Barrett (2012) defined political engagement as having interest in, paying attention to, having knowledge of, or having opinion about either political or civil matters. This definition emphasizes the role of cognition in the process of political activities and goes beyond the mere act of casting ballot on Election Day. Thus, it suggests a more psychological approach to political activities. Furthermore, political engagement scale comprises of four main domains; Electoral behaviour (EB), Attentiveness (AT), Political voice (PV) and Social Media Engagement (SME). Individuals who are sensitive to issues within their environment, whether political or social (civil), are politically active and are deemed to be participating in politics. It however becomes necessary to straighten up the difference between political participation from political engagement.

Showing interest in politics is exemplified by citizens who are very sensitive to issues that border on both civil and politics of the elected leaders. Being interested in politics emphasizes the need to be completely engrossed in the issues that may be of general concern in order to see areas government may address in the interest of the global electorates community. Perhaps, one may say that such interest may lead to some cognitive changes that could initiate affective and behavioral metamorphoses. Paying attention means to give complete concentration to political leaders behaviours. This may involve following up those behaviours in the news and other forms of information media which political leaders make available to the citizens. An engaged citizen airs his opinion to the public on issues that concern poor performances of elected leader's behaviours. Opinion expressed by a citizen may be explored through the media such as radio, Television, or the internet.

Political participation may refer to the situation where citizens give their consent by means of casting votes which is part of a demonstration of their basic right as legitimate members of the society, state, or nation where they live. This may suggest that political participation is behaviour in which one demonstrates his franchise as regards selection of political candidates without other aspects of political behaviours. However, political engagement encompasses the act of voting or asking someone to vote a particular candidate, joining in signing petition and protest, discussing politics with family and friends and using social media platforms to address political issues. Then, it becomes absolutely clear that political participation is a component of political engagement.

Political engagement theorists over four and half decades ago proposed five aspects of political engagement and they include:

- i. Voting at polls,
- ii. Supporting possible pressure groups by being a member of the group,
- iii. Personally communicating directly with the legislator,
- iv. Participating in political party activity and thus acquiring a claim on legislators, and
- v. Engaging in habitual dissemination of political opinions through word of mouth communication to other citizens (Woodward & Roper, 1950).

Rush and Althoff, (1971) also proposed a ten hierarchical political engagement order, from holding political or administrative office to political apathy. The hierarchical order assumes that political engagement and political apathy are in highest and lowest levels of a continuum. Individuals could be at any level of the continuum (Rush & Althoff, 1971).

Furthermore, scholars pointed out some benefits of political engagement:

- i. Increased knowledge about politics and overall development,
- ii. Increased capacity for dealing with political and social problems (Benoit, Hansen & Lance, 2004 ),
- iii. Increase in the capacity of private citizens to influence public decisions and participate in democratic decision-making process (Shakaia, 2016; Weiss, 2017).
- iv. Political engagement increases awareness, interest, knowledge and attentiveness about what are the issues that bother the people.

As individuals become aware, it may rekindle interest, knowledge and attentiveness which could lead to other forms of political engagements. More recently, with the emergence of the social network sites, there appears to be new forms of political engagement as more youths are getting involved in politics which tends to boom traditional political participation (Bode, Vrag, Borah & Shah, 2014).

Over five and half decades ago, it was reported that diverse reasons motivate individuals' engagement in politics: psychological factors, social factors and political factors (Lane, 1961). Accordingly, psychological factors refer to loneliness, unconscious conflict, tension and power. Education, occupation, income, social status, sex, age, residence and religion all refer to social factors. More recently, Miller (2018) found that people who feel threatened participate more in politics than those who are relatively not threatened. Similarly, Hou, Canetti, Ma, Hall, Lau, Ng, and Hobfoll (2018) argue that predictors of threat among opposition members were sex, age, marital status level of education and depressive symptoms. Other reasons why people participate include social Identity, self-interest, and values. Scholars argue that some determinants of people's disengagement from politics include: cynicism, selfishness, and incompetency (Davis, 2006), illegitimacy of government (Asobi, 2007), vote buying (Owasa, 2013), money politics,

poverty (Fagunwa, 2015), inadequate information and deceit ( Adamu & Ocheni, 2016). Literatures in political engagement show contributions by authors' from Political Science and Public Administration backgrounds. It therefore, becomes necessary to seek psychological approach to political engagement (Electoral behaviour, Attentiveness, Political voice, and Social media engagement) for a more nuanced understanding. The foregoing arguments provide impetus for a search to unravel the relationships that exist among the variables of, love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power as predictors of Political engagement, electoral behavior, attentiveness, political voice and social media.

Money had been defined by various scholars as the bloodline of all organic culture and as a psychological metaphor that every culture understands (Nnedum, 2009). Various approaches have been made towards understanding of money. Three most prominent of these approaches were transactional, liquidity and scientific construct approaches. Transactional approach defines money as all goods and services. This definition of money was peculiar with the barter system. The liquidity approach defines money as a store of value. This definition advanced the capacity of money as construct which has value both at the present and in the future. The scientific approach is usually referred to as modern economist approach. Modern economist approach defines money as a measure of goods and services. The three approaches addressed three different capacities about the concept of money. It becomes obvious that the approaches drive their definitions from the potential qualities of money.

Lawler (1981) found a significant impact of money on people's behaviour, performance, and effectiveness in organizations. Similarly, Tang (2002) reported that there is a significant relationship between money and human behaviour. Perhaps, this means that individuals perceive money from various perspectives and as such are influenced accordingly, although influence of money on individuals may not be the same across persons. Esa & Zahari, (2005) argue that influence of money on any individual has to do with personality type of the individual. This submission means that while some individuals may be influenced by money, others may not be as influenced. Influence of money may include not only performance of a behaviour, but how such performance is done (effectiveness). Furthermore, performance may go to emphasize the capacity of money to illicit autonomic processes which result in spontaneous responses due to

stimulation. One could define money as an object of valued economic materials which may illicit spontaneous responses in individuals when primed.

Love of Money (LOM) as construct has received numerous attention among college students, employees in organizations and health workers. LOM has been defined as one's attitude toward money, or one's meaning of money (Tang & Chui, 2003). According to Du & Tang (2005), love of money scale is a subset of the money ethics scale (MES).

Empirical studies hold that throughout Africa, 16% of voters surveyed in 33 countries during the fifth round of the Afro barometer survey reported being offered money or goods (vote buying) in exchange for their vote during the last elections (Mares & Young, 2016). The rate of vote buying (a component of love of money) among 33 nations in Africa suggests that the act is a prevalent one from which Nigeria may not be exempted. Yet vote-buying appears to be confirmation of the influence of money on individual behaviour in the domain of political engagement. No wonder Chen & Tang, (2006) posit that positive attitude towards love of money relates with vote buying which is related to abuse, theft, corruption and deception in order to secure electoral turnout in favor of political patrons. Robinson & Verdier, (2013), argue that vote buying is a particular form of political clientism, "which is a direct exchange at the individual level of rewards and material goods" by political patrons in return for electoral support by voters. According to Adamu & Ocheni, (2016) vote buying connotes the exchange of voting rights with money from candidates in an election.

Apart from vote buying, sometimes incumbent governments adopts another component of love of money which is the use of social policy as a part of vote buying and clientistic tactics in discretionary government spending (Jones, Mark, Osvaldo & Mariano, 2012). Usually, poor communities are targets of some government social policies which are ploys to secure turnout (political engagement) in upcoming elections. According to the United Nations- WIDER 2018, such targeted discretionary government spending is referred to as conditional cash transfer (CCT). Conditional cash transfer programs represent one of the most important social policy innovations of the last two decades which secure future political support especially from the impoverished areas of the nation. Such areas are promised development of their locality, health care, school and other social amenities for their political support during elections. In politics, individuals may

show positive attitude towards love of money by receiving incentives (training, access to recreation and special benefits) which is conditional to secure future political engagement in favor of either political patrons or incumbent government. Theoretically, it is assumed that individuals that manifest positive attitude towards love of money may not display prosocial behaviours.

Prosocial behaviour has been defined as variety of positive emotions, attitudes directed to others (Eisenberg, 1986). Scholars posit that prosocial behaviour is acting in ways that benefit others (Fehr & Fischbacher, 2003). Voluntary behaviour intended to benefit others (Knafo-Noam, Uzevsky, Isreal, Davidor, & Zahn-Waxler, 2015). Prosocial behaviour is altruistic behaviour which is dependent on moral (Tongeren, Green, Davis, Hook, & Hulsey, 2016). Prosocial behavior is positive emotional behaviours that are directed towards others. They are evident in acts of sharing; helping and cooperating. Therefore, the sole aim of prosocial behaviour is the benefit to others, which is expected to be valuable since it gives both parties meaning to life (well-being). Prosocial behaviour is manifested without coercion or force, but voluntarily. One could define prosocial behaviours as a behaviour which has no valuable reward, but morally, voluntarily and emotionally motivated which is rendered to another individual without immediate expectation of reward.

Scholars seem to have divergent positions on types of prosocial behaviour. Carlo & Randall, (2002) proposed six-types of prosocial behaviours;

- i. Altruistic,
- ii. Compliant,
- iii. Emotional,
- iv. Dire,
- v. Public and
- vi. Anonymous.

Altruistic prosocial behaviour refers to helping others when there is little or no perceived potential for a direct or explicit reward to the self. Compliant prosocial behaviour refers to helping other people in response to verbal request. Emotional prosocial behaviour is help that is



intended to benefit the others acting under emotionally provocative circumstances. Direct prosocial behaviour involves helping people under emergency situations. Public prosocial behavior involves helping people before the presence of others to obtain their approval and respect. Anonymous prosocial behaviour refers to the tendency to help others without other people's knowledge.

Dunfield and Kuhlmeier (2013) identify three diversities of early prosocial behaviour as: instrumental need, emotional distress and material desire. These three diversities were found among children between 2 years to 4 years old. Prosocial instrumental need explain acts of prosocial behaviour that are manifested towards alleviating a negative state which requires helping someone accomplish a goal directed behaviour such as getting something that is out of reach. An unmet material desire requires sharing behaviour which requires giving material resource such as individuals that lack food, clothing and shelter. It was observed that alleviating emotional distress requires comforting of someone who is emotionally challenged such as the bereaved and victims of tragic events (Dunfield, 2014).

Negative consequences of prosocial behaviour include poor adolescence development, neuroticism, disinhibition, impulsivity, antisocial behaviour and tendency (Goma-i-Freixanet, 1995). Furthermore, it was observed that exposure to social network sites with prosocial contents increase the accessibility of prosocial thoughts, empathy, helping behaviours and decreases aggressive related cognition and effects (Greitemeyer, 2011). However, studies revealed that prosocial children perceive others' motive for prosociality as personal (Hunter and Warden, 2011). New findings hold that prosocial behaviour has multiple benefits in individuals: such as its implication in positive adolescent development outcomes, donation of free labour especially in health services, social care and education (Lam, 2012). Similarly, literatures concur that prosocial behaviour may influence humans and could be learnt through social modeling (Dunfield & Kuhlmeier, 2013). Individuals who are exposed to material with prosocial contents are influenced to think, feel and behave in like manner. In line with earlier findings, more recently, studies show that priming individuals with prosocial materials, model them towards empathic actions and thoughts which are directly related to well-being, happiness and socio-economic status, (Khanna, Sharma, Chanhan & Pragyendu, 2017). Therefore, as individuals get

influenced as a result of their exposure to prosocial contents, they enjoy some positive affects which has positive implication on well being and life satisfaction.

Since prosocial behaviour could influence individuals' behaviour in health care, social services and education, it is anticipated that prosocial behaviour will influence individuals on political engagement. Studies reveal that individuals with self-efficacy in problem solving and empathy are positively related to public prosocial behaviour (De Caroli & Sagone, 2013). Similarly, Anderson, John & Keltner (2012) reported that self efficacy has significant positive association with personal sense of power. Therefore, the researcher assumes that prosocial behavior will have significant positive association with personal sense of power.

Scholars appear to have different definitions of personal sense of power. Ng, (1980) defined power as satisfaction of one's own desire even when those desires compete with those of others. According to Keltner, Gruenfield, & Anderson (2003) power is the ability to influence others, control over money, information, decision making process, and shaping internal states. Keltner et al. (2003) hold that "individuals who have access to money, material resources; power over decision making premise have power". Earlier definitions laid emphasis on material possession of power, which is social power. Therefore, individuals who do not have neither money nor material resources nor occupy social position of authority do not have power.

Furthermore, Galinsky, Gruenfeld and Majee, (2003) defined personal sense of power as a psychological state and perception of one's capacity to influence others. This definition assumes a broad approach to power. It emphasizes the aspect which assumes that each individual with or without money, or resources within decision making premises has a personal sense of power. The definition assumes a psychological approach to the concept of power. More recently, Anderson, Oliver, John and Daucher, (2012) define personal sense of power as not just control over resource but a psychological state of becoming aware of one's capacity to influence other people and change internal state. Personal sense of power does not only focus on ability to provide or withhold valued resources or administer punishment. Furthermore, control over valued recourses endorses more negative potentials of power. Possession of resources or money does not emphasize awareness of power capacity by the individual and limits such capacity to

persons in possession of resource. However, one could define personal sense of power as an awareness of one's capacity to influence other people's internal state. However, in the context of the present study, personal sense of power is an individual's perception of his ability to influence other people and change internal state.

Scholars found that personal sense of power has significant positive relationship with human behaviour (Anderson, John & Keltner, 2012). Earlier studies showed that, effects of personal sense of power were evident in organizational setting among employees, consumer behavior, personality traits and increased source of personal powers (Bugental & Lewis, 1999). The positive implications of personal sense of power have been found in reduced stress level among those with high personal sense of power and decreased anxiety compared to relative individuals with lower personal sense of power (Sapolsky, 2012).

Negative consequences of personal sense of power have been linked to depression and schizophrenia (Ross & Sastry, 1999). More recent observations reveal that, absence of personal sense of power has negative implications on affects, mood and cognition (Smith & Hofmann, 2016). Similarly, if personal sense of power was found to influence behaviours positively in organizational settings, the researcher expects personal sense of power to influence undergraduates' political behaviour. Finally the present study explored the relationship between Love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power as predictors of political engagement among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Electoral process is known to be an internationally approved technique of selecting political leaders. It is based on the paradigm that if majority of the citizens who are of voting age come out in mass and cast their votes for a particular individual vying for a political position, the individual so voted for would more likely handle such political position according to the wishes of the majority who voted him. Contrary to this assumption, different forms of political maneuvering which includes intimidation, vote buying, rigging, and election violence amongst others may have changed the electoral behaviour of the masses over the years. Among the nations that are involved in different forms of electoral maneuvering, developing nations seem to

be worse hit (e.g. Nigeria). Thus, archival data shows that the level of political engagement in Nigeria over the last four decades seems not to be stable, and continually it is in decline when compared to the proportion of the population who has reached the voting age (<http://www.inec.org>). This continuous decline in political engagement comes with some consequences such as bad leadership, nepotism, misappropriation of fund by political office holders, holding of political office by unqualified citizens and selfish individuals. This further leads to economic, infrastructural, social and security decay witnessed nationwide.

Knowing that political engagement can put adequate checks and balances on elected political officers, different scholars over the years have sought to understand factors that are related to political engagement, (Ibrahim, Liman & Mato, 2015; Mbah, Nwangwu & Ugwu, 2019), while most of them focused on systemic problems of the body handling the elections in Nigeria (Onuoha & Ojo, 2018; Kalu & Gberevbie, 2018), others focused on unethical behaviours of politicians who are vying for political positions (Akude, 2007; Obiefuna-Oguejiofor, 2018).

Most of these studies adopted descriptive and qualitative design in exploring the factors they were interested in what (Obiefuna-Oguejiofor, 2018; Kalu & Gberevbie, 2018). However, only a few, to the best of researcher's knowledge, have adopted predictive design to explore the psychological factors (internal that could be implicated in political engagement). The present study examines the psychological factors (such as love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power) to see if they predict political engagement, electoral behaviour, attentiveness, political voice and social media engagement through self report psychological tests, and inferential statistics.

### **Research Questions**

1. Will love of money significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria?
2. Is prosocial behavior a significant and positive predictor of political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria?
3. How would personal sense of power significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria?

### **Purpose of the Study**

The general purpose of the study is to examine whether love of money, prosocial behavior and personal sense of power will significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.

### **Objectives**

- i. To determine if love of money will significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.
- ii. To determine if prosocial behaviour will significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among Undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.
- iii. To determine if personal sense of power will significantly and positively predict Political Engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.

### **Operational Definition of Terms**

This sub theme provides definition of terms used in the present work such as: political engagement, electoral behaviour, attentiveness, political voice and social media engagement; love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power.

#### **Political Engagement:**

Political Engagement is an individual's involvement in politics in the following dimensions: Electoral behaviour, Attentiveness, Political voice and Social media engagement as measured by Political Engagement Scale (Nweke, 2018).

#### **Electoral behaviour:**

Electoral behaviour is an individual's willingness to vote or campaign for candidate or party, place stickers on cloth, cars, and houses as measured by Electoral Behaviour Subscale of Political Engagement Scale by Nweke (2018).

#### **Political Voice:**

Political voice is an individual's willingness to lay complaint about political issues at mass media, join in signing petition or participate in peaceful protest on political issues as measured by Political voice subscale of Political Engagement Scale by Nweke (2018).

**Attentiveness:**

Attentiveness is an individual's willingness to follow up political matters through news media, discussing same with family and friends as measured by Attentiveness subscale of Political Engagement Scale by Nweke (2018).

**Social Media Engagement:**

Social Media engagement is an individual's willingness to follow up political updates through news media, and using internet to post, like or dislike political matters as measured by Social media engagement subscale of Political Engagement Scale by Nweke (2018).

**Love of Money:**

Love of Money (LOM) is an individual's positive attitude toward becoming rich as measured by LOM scale by Tang & Chiu (2003).

**Prosocial Behaviour:**

Prosocial behaviour is an individual's willingness to help others even with making sacrifices as measured by prosocial behaviour (PB) scale by Afolabi, (2013).

**Personal Sense of Power:**

Personal Sense of Power is an individual's awareness of his ability to influence other people's internal state as measured by Personal Sense of Power scale (PSPS) by Anderson, et al.; (2012).

## **CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

In this chapter relevant literature on the studied variables: political engagement, love of money, prosocial behaviour, and personal sense of power were reviewed. The review was done under the following subheadings: conceptual, theoretical and empirical reviews.

### **Conceptual Review**

This sub section highlights the various conceptualizations on political engagement, love of money, prosocial behaviour, and personal sense of power that were reviewed.

### **Political Engagement (PE)**

Engagement has been consistently applied by scholars in organizational behaviour and personnel management as an adjective to establish level of employee's, involvement in achieving organizational goals. Subsequently, it was found that organizational engagement involves employee's emotional outcome, commitment to the extent to which the employee personally joins in helping the organization work better than is necessary to maintain the position (Macey & Schneider, 2008), and desire to go beyond preserving the status quo (Smythe, 2009). Similarly, it was reported that organizational engagement is: harnessing the ego of members of organization to fulfill its role in work (Kahn, 1990). The basic point in engagement is that it has to do with awareness and commitment of individuals towards achieving some set goals. Concepts such as harnessing the ego, desire to go beyond the status quo, emotional outcome and working better than is necessary to maintain position continue to lay emphasis on the psychological imperativeness of participation which is engagement. It is a cognitive aspect of change one has that manifests in form of behaviour in pursuit of a specific goal.

Yet not quite much study has been carried out with respect to engagement in the domains of politics. The researcher submits that if individuals could be engaged with respect to organizational setting, it is expected that such behaviour may be applicable to politics. Therefore, political participation may be physical involvement with one form of political behaviour, which may lack necessary commitment. One could say that the major difference between political participation and political engagement is "commitment". Abdi (2007) defines political engagement as the behavioral manifestation of an individual's right to fulfill his obligation

towards the society in holding discussions and exchange of opinion. This means that political engagement is a social construct that is made possible and available by the state to its citizens within a democratic framework. This provision is demonstrated by right to engage in politics without restriction. A right to engage in politics is a moral legal duty vested on every legitimate citizen to join in politics of his/her state or nation. Political engagement behaviours could come in form of holding discussions and exchange of opinion about issues of general concerns which the government is expected to accomplish. Such issues could be about unemployment, security, health-care and drop in academic performance.

Arowolo and Aluko (2010) define political engagement as a political system which includes community activities, civic activities, public opinion, and formation of policies, civic responsibilities and participation in election of political leaders. This definition lays emphasis on political engagement and concluded with participation, therefore, drawing a line between the two constructs. The major difference between the definitions of Abdi (2007) and Arowolo & Aluko (2010) is that Abdi (2007) submitted a part of what political engagement should be. Abdi (2007) argues that political engagement is based on two main factors (holding discussion and exchange of opinions) while, Arowolo and Aluko (2010) expanded the definition to include broader range of social activities. Earlier, Solt (2008) defined political engagement as the act of demonstration of interest, discussion and electoral participation by an individual. Again, this definition seems to seek a three dimensional approach to the construct which appears similar to (Abdi 2007). Perhaps it makes sense to infer that the number of political activities may not define political engagement rather the presence of psychological involvement (commitment).

Andolina, Iceeter, Zukins and Jenkins (2003) define political engagement as the participation in civic activities, electoral activities, political voice and attentive listening. Some behaviour manifested in forms of joining in civic activities such as: Community services', helping in building structures of common benefits, joining in electoral process or activities exemplifies political engagement. The behavioural aspect emphasizes the role of prosocial behaviour in accomplishing the goals of political engagement. These behaviours may come in form of voting during election, campaigning for political party, or inviting others to vote for someone or running for political office. Political voice refers to political behaviour that involves speaking out about government activities on the news or internet. Attentive listening refers to continuous



connections with news to follow-up government progress on television or radio. Meanwhile, it appears that there are two main domains to the aspect of political engagement those that are anchored on electoral activities and those that dwell on civic activities.

Electoral activities have to do with all aspects of behaviour that concerns electoral processes which could be in form of voting in election, running for political position, sticking a banner of political party or symbol of a party on someone's door, car, cloth or house. Sometimes, it may involve campaigning or even spending one's personal resource to ensure the objectives of the campaign is achieved (Andolina et al, 2008; Solt, 2008; Arowolo & Ahuko, 2010). Thus, aspects that deal on civic activities part of political engagement include interest and discussion towards politics, community services, public opinion, policy formulation and civic responsibility (Andolina, et al, 2003; Abdi, 2007; Arowolo & Ahuko, 2010).

Electoral Behaviour refers to personal efforts one makes on another individual such as asking someone or people to vote for a particular candidate or party during elections, wearing of campaign buttons, and putting stickers on car. Also, Electoral Behaviour includes spending one's personal fund in the course of achieving specific goals during elections. Attentiveness (AT) refers to behaviors that people manifest, whether there in an ongoing election or not, which might include the following what is happening in government or public affairs. Sometimes this behaviour manifests in family or friendly discussion about government or public affairs. Sources of such information on attentiveness may include watching television, listening to radio, and reading magazine or newspaper. Political voice refers to things people do in order to express their views on political issues. Such behaviours include visiting a public official, Newspaper, magazine, radio, or television, to lodge a complaint on political issues. Sometimes, it may require joining in protest march, or peaceful demonstration and signing email petition on political issues.

In more recent time, scholars seem to adapt a more spontaneous approach to political engagement. Rainie, Smith, Scholzman, Brady and Verba (2012) hold that political engagement refers to the act of using social media platforms to post thoughts about civil and political issues, reacting to others posting, pressing forward to act on issues and vote or follow candidates. This

aspect of engagement can be seen when a citizen gets on the twitter to post issues that bother on his immediate environment as well as those that are of global concern. Similarly, in the context of the present investigation, political engagement will be studied using some adopted measures or components from works of Andolina et al (2003) and Rainie et al.; (2012).

Social media engagement refers to use of the television, radio and internet such as Facebook, twitter, email, newspaper, personal Blogs to post, like or dislike political information. Such behaviours may include; asking someone to vote a particular candidate or party, campaign support for a particular party on the internet, radio or television. It is the intention of the researcher to examine how each predictor relates with political engagement and its domains. On these observations rest the crust of the present investigation on love of money, prosocial behaviour, and personal sense of power as predictors of political engagement, electoral behaviour, attentiveness, political voice and social media engagement among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria. After all, political engagement is a very significant aspect of social engagement in every society.

Political Engagement is an individual's ability to be involved in politics in the following dimensions: Electoral behaviour, attentiveness, political voice and social media engagement as measured by Political Engagement Scale (Nweke, 2018).

Some of the items on the political engagement questionnaire include; in the past how frequently have you been involved in the following:

1. Attended meetings called by political organizations or candidates running for political offices? Never =1, Rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3, Very often = 4, Always = 5;
2. Voted during elections?  
Never = 1, Rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3. Very often = 4, Always = 5
3. Put a political sticker on your car or any other belonging?  
Never = 1, Rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3. Very often = 4, Always = 5
4. Contacted by someone personally to work for or contributed money to a candidate, or political party?  
Never = 1, Rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3, Very often = 4, Always = 5.

### **Concept of Love of Money (LOM)**

Gq̄siorowska and Helka (2012) defined money as a universal market driven force used as a medium of exchange store of value and unit of account and symbols and emotional concept which might be perceived as social resource used for inter personal regulation. It goes to point out the most important characteristics that make object money. Thus, money objects are symbols that must have capacity as medium of exchange, store of value and unit of account. Medium of exchange refers to the ability of money to serve the purpose of exchange which is advancement on the former trade by barter system. This capacity was a major limitation on the barter system. Store of value emphasizes the fact that money could be kept for a reasonably long period of time and still retain its value. Unit of account emphasizes the stability of the original value of money over time.

Money is a concept that has to do with symbolic implication of an object. Symbolic means that the object could be in form of picture or an object which is generally accepted has meaning and represents a specific idea. The symbolic object will have to be generally accepted by all sections of the wider society. Subjective norm gives values to what money mean to people of various societies. To this end, a symbolic object may not have much meaning to individuals without the norm value. Therefore, the symbolic and norm association may interact to enhance the attitude or emotion individuals have about money. According to Lea and Webley (2006), individuals get money for what it makes them achieve. This is why Ajzen (1991) posit that what money makes people achieve may be dependent on subjective norm, attitude and perceived behavioral control.

Zhang, (2009) argues that the benefits of money come as the substitute for social resources such as social attractiveness, friendship, and social support as well as inner resources such as intelligence or self-esteem. One may say that the benefits of money are so much therefore, people who do have money and physically unattractive may gain attractiveness in the eye of others by simply spending their money on them. Money seems to be a powerful resource that may pave way for those who have it within a social setting. The effect of money on others may include friendship, loyalty, esteem and intelligence. However, Tang (1995) gave a cognitive definition of money as the perception of materialism. Perception of money refers to attitude

people have about money. This means that money may take the shape of materialism, which is a concept that deals with what money can buy or other monetary related concepts.

Love of money has been defined as an individual's attitude towards money (Tang & Chiu, 2003). Also, love of money is one's meaning of money (Tang & Chiu, 2003). It becomes clear that if one's love for money is high; one may have a high desire to be rich, may be highly motivated by money and considers money as the most important thing in one's life. Similarly, Tang (1991) holds that high love of money relates positively with type-A personality behaviours.

Love of Money, according to Tang (1995) has three major components:

- i. Affective component (Rich),
- ii. Cognitive component (Importance) and,
- iii. Behavioural component (Motivation).

The affective component refers to the feeling individuals have when they are primed with money or materials of economic value. Such feelings could stimulate feelings of richness. The cognitive component deal with the individual's thought processes in appraisal of importance of money in one's life. The behavioural component is the action part of love of money. Though cognitive and affect components may not be visible to outsiders, but the behavioural component deals with relationship between the individual and others within a social context. Therefore, love of money is concerned with the level of motivation an individual manifests with reference to money or materialism.

More recently, love of money have been reported in the domain of political engagement as vote buying. Vote buying has emerged as an integral part of election campaign (Jessen & Justensen, 2014). Surprisingly, throughout Africa 16% of voters surveyed in 33 countries during the fifth Afro barometer survey reported being offered money or goods in exchange for their vote during the last elections (Mares & Young, 2016). Robinson & Verdier (2013) argue that vote buying is a particular form of political clientism, that is, direct exchange at the individual level of rewards and material goods by political patrons in return for electoral support by voters. Similarly, vote buying is defined as a transaction whereby candidates distribute private goods such as cash and gifts in exchange for electoral support or higher turnout during elections (Finan & Schechter,

2012). However, apart from vote buying, there appears to be another dimension of love of money in political engagement (Conditional Cash Transfers).

According to the United Nations WIDER project 2018, Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs) represent one of the most important social policy innovations of the last two decades. Earlier, Conditional cash transfers (CCTs) was noted as sometimes adopted by most incumbent government who use social policy as a part of vote buying and clientelistic tactics for discretionary government spending (Jones, Mark, Osvaldo & Mariano, 2012). According to Adamu & Ocheni (2016) vote buying connotes the exchange of voting right with money from political candidates in an election. One may define love of money as thoughts, feelings and behaviours toward materialism.

### **Concept of Prosocial Behavior (PB)**

Eisenberg and Miller (1987) defined prosocial behaviour as voluntary intentional behaviour that results in benefit for another. It makes sense to say that any behaviour which an individual exhibit that is voluntary, intentional and also aims at another person's welfare is prosocial behaviour. Other theorists define prosocial behaviour as a behavior performed to benefit others rather than to benefit self (Twenge, Baumeister, Dewall, Natalie & Bastels, 2007). The major difference between the first and second definition is that Eisenberg & Miller, (1987) emphasized the aspect of voluntary disposition to the commencement of prosocial behaviour. Therefore, any behaviour that benefits others which is done under compulsion or coercion may not be described as prosocial behaviour. Twenge et al., (2007) on the other hand failed to recognize the position of voluntariness in prosocial behaviours.

Earlier, Baron and Byrne (2005) defined prosocial behaviour as a helpful action that benefits other people without necessarily providing any direct benefits to the person performing the act, and may even involve a risk from the helper in the course of the help. Furthermore, Baron and Byrne (2005) definition argue that prosocial behaviour is a selfless act, without benefit which may come at a cost (sacrifice) to the person performing it. However, Baron and Byrne's (2005) failed to recognize the role of voluntariness of such behaviour and were not quite specific about the intention of the person whether to perform or not to perform the behavior. Perhaps one could

say that a voluntary disposition may ignite positive intention to engage in prosocial behaviour. Prosocial behaviour can be seen in an undergraduate's willingness to engage in helping behaviour without expectation of reward.

Prosocial behaviour has been related to concepts such as empathy, altruism, well being and happiness. Carlo and Randall (2002) reported of positive association between prosocial behaviour, altruism and empathy. Individuals who are prosocial may also be empathic and altruistic. More recently, Khana et al. (2017) found that prosocial behaviour relates positively with well-being and happiness. Therefore, individuals who reported elevated well being and are happy with life may demonstrate prosocial tendencies. Yildiz, Senel, and Sahan (2015) found significant positive correlation between general self efficacy and prosocial behaviour. Similarly, Galinsky & Dubois (2011) found that general self efficacy had significant positive association with personal sense of power. For this present investigation, researcher holds that prosocial behaviour may have positive association with personal sense of power among the study participants.

### **Concept of Personal Sense of Power**

Power is ubiquitous in interpersonal relationships, emerging among work place colleagues, neighbours, friends, family members, and even romantic partners (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003). Every area of human relationship is filled with power considerations. Each individual feels a sense of being in control or influence over another. The struggle for control is demonstration of the capacity of power each individual is endowed with. Power is having capacity to influence another. A romantic partner in control over another is seen as being more powerful than the other who in this case considered less powerful. An individual with power assumes leadership position over the other who concedes a followership position. In romantic relationships, partners struggle for dominance or control (power). Traditional, conceptual and operational definitions of power have focused on valued resources; power is often construed as the control over money, information, or decision-making premises (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003).

Scholars have sought diverse definitions of power. Traditionally, it is perceived as having control over goods of value or control over material things which includes money. Experimental manipulations of power have typically involved assigning individuals to positions that provide control over such resources (Anderson, & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky et al., 2003). However, Power is not solely control over resources or composed solely of one's social position (Anderson et al., 2012). Thus, experimentation on power with a view of placing individuals in position where they may have control over resources underscores the whole essence of power. Power is the feeling (attitude) that people have of a capacity they possess to influence things in their life. Socio-cultural perceptions of power include position of authority and control over resources. It seems that the effect of power is felt in terms of its influence. Those who feel the influence power-wields most are those subjects whose internal states are affected by the presence of person with power. Power may be assumed to be a social relational construct, and an individual power can be understood only in relation to another individual or group of individuals.

To this end, the effect of power may not be experienced without the presence of influence. It may not be out of place to assume that power is similar to potential energy, and influence is to kinetic energy. Individuals do not always have to use their power to be considered powerful (French & Raven, 1959). The capacity to influence others without using power dwells in the perception of the presence of power, which deploys the role of influence. Therefore, powerful persons do not always have to use their power to establish their capacity. Perhaps, perception of another individual's power could be acquired through personal experience, information from others, or through news media.

One of the benefits of power is that individuals, who feel the presence of power in them, acquire higher energy and perceive motivation that propels them to engage in behaviors that aim at consolidating such power. Personal sense of power is different from other socio-structural indicators of their power (Anderson et al., 2006). People have capacity to feel some form of power by virtue of their personality characteristics. Personal sense of power is trait-like concept or personality characteristics that individuals possess without reference to social-status (Anderson et al.; 2012). Earlier, studies hold that as individuals tend to attain higher levels of power across social contexts, they might form higher generalized sense of power (Lord et al.;

1986). Personal sense of Power is a psychological state, a perception of one's capacity to influence others (Burgental, Blue, & Cruzcosa, 1989; Galinsky, et al., 2003). Psychological aspect of power has to do with feelings of emotion individuals' experience.

Personal sense of power is the perception of one's ability to influence another person or other people to his own benefit (Anderson, et al., 2012). It goes beyond the possession of resource needed by other people, and the awareness of capacity to influence others. This capacity may vary from person to person. Those that perceive themselves as powerful behave in more effective ways that increase their actual power (Bandura, 1999; Bugental & Lewis, 1999).

Fast & Chen, (2009) argue that sometimes personal sense of power of individuals coincides with their control over resources, position of authority, or status in the eye of others. Individuals' belief about their power can shape their actual influence over others above and beyond the effects of their socio-structural position. This foregoing establishes the influence power has on individuals who are aware of such capacity. Therefore, personal sense of power advances the argument that each individual "irrespective of social status or position" is endowed with capacity to influence others. This capacity to influence others may vary from person to person. It is assumed that personal sense of power is a trait and runs in a continuum. Personal sense of power is defined as ones awareness of his or her endowed capacity to cause changes in internal states of others person (s).

Anderson, et al.; (2012) hold that personal sense of power relates positively with conscientiousness and extraversion. Earlier, Galinsky and Dubois (2011) reported that personal sense of power has positive association with self-efficacy. Positive association with self-efficacy implies that individuals who have such capacity may initiate goal directed behavior (political engagement) overcome challenges and influence outcome. Capri, Ozkendir, Ozkurt and Karakas (2012) found significant association between general self-efficacy beliefs and satisfaction with life.

### **Theoretical Review**

This subsection highlights the theories of political engagement, love of money, prosocial behavior and personal sense of power.



**Political Engagement:**

- i. Theory of planned behavior
- ii. Social identity theory

**Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)**

The theory of planned behavior was first propounded by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) in the context of Reasoned Action, but was however advanced with the inclusion of a component called “Perceived behavioral control” by Ajzen (1991). The TPB is used to predict and explain human behavior in specific contexts (Lakovteva & Kolveriecid, 2009). Specifically, TPB assumes that attitude and personality traits have indirect impact on specific behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

The TPB holds that decision to engage in politics is a rational process which involves consideration of various behavioral options. Consequences of these behavioral options are equally considered before a decision is reached whether to engage or not to engage in politics. Decision to engage or refrain from engaging in politics is referred to as “behavioral intention”. Scholars argue that behavioral intentions are strong predictors of whether we act or not act on our attitude in a given situation (Levav & Fitzsimons, 2006). Situation and time seem to be necessary factors in formation of behavioral intentions. Earlier, it was observed that intentions are moderately correlated with behaviors (Albarracin, Johnson, Fishbein & Muellerleile, 2001).

More recent findings hold that forming an implementation plan predicts even stronger intentions-behavioral relationship (Webb & Sheeran, 2007). Implementation plan may be assumed to be part of perceived behavioral control, which is having arrangement of events or things that will enable a particular behavior occur. Scholars argue that behavioral intentions were previously dependent on two main factors: attitude and subjective norm (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Attitude toward political engagement refers to the feelings individuals have which may arise as consequences of engaging in politics. These feelings are emotions that could be positive or negative. A positive feeling predicts enhanced political engagement intentions, while a negative feeling predicts withdrawal from the political engagement intentions. Specifically, positive attitude towards love of money according to the theory of planned behavior holds that individuals who experience such would advance for political engagement. However, the advancement may be moderated by what significant others feel one should do (subjective norm).

An individual who perceives that what significant others think that one should do is in support with attitude toward political engagement will/ may ascend to perceived behavioral control.

However, if subjective norm does not support the positive attitude, the behavior may not be sustained except the positive attitude was able to prevail above the subjective norm. Furthermore, perceived behavioral control plays an important role in sustaining goal directed behaviors. Perceived behavioral control assesses available resources that an individual has in to accomplish a given goal. Therefore, with respect to political engagement, perceived behavioral control focuses on the level of available resources the individual has such as; personal sense of power, willingness to engage in selfless services (prosocial behavior) and level of love of money. Once the individual is assured that these resources are available and adequate, there may be high tendency for the individual to engage in political activities.

Ajzen, (1991) submits that perceived behavioural control (PBC) assesses the extent to which an individual appraises the available resources he or she has in dealing with the challenges of behaviour is dependent on. Perceived behavioural control is an assessment of behavior ease or difficulty. An appraisal of enough resources from which to carry out political engagement seems to increase confidence in political engagement intentions (Lee & Kozar, 2005). TPB within the framework of the present study holds that love of money, prosocial behavior and personal sense of power are some attributes that may predict political engagement through political engagement intentions. Specifically, love of money is represented in the theoretical framework as attitude and prosocial behavior is personality trait which may be influenced by subjective norm which may mount pressure on the ability of an individual to either develop or not develop political engagement intentions. However, if political engagement is sustained, perceived behavioral control assesses the level of resource available to the individual for sustaining and achieving political engagement behavior.

Furthermore, a significant amount of positive association has being found in literature between political engagement and personal sense of power, generalized self-efficacy and internality of control beliefs (Hirschi, 2009). Perceived behavioral control appears to be more concerned with the self, and perception of one's ability to engage in a task and accomplish goals. Scholars found that personal sense of power relates positively with personality traits especially dominance

(Anderson et al.; 2012). Earlier knowledge was that individuals with personal sense of power report positive emotions such as love, happiness and enthusiasm (Anderson, et al.; 2001). The TPB may have demonstrated strength in assumptions of personal resources in to be successful in goal directed behaviours, normative influences as factors that influence intention to perform an act and that behaviour is a product of linear decision. However, the TPB has come up with some weaknesses in terms of the fact that it did not consider the environmental or economic factors and the possibility that behaviour can change over time. The TPB is more concerned with perceived behavioral control but not actual control. Despite the strength and weaknesses of the TPB it is still very influential in understanding of goal directed behaviour.

### **Social Identity Theory (SIT)**

Tajfel and Turner (1986) proposed the theory of social identity. According to the theory, each individual strives to enhance his or her self-esteem which has two components: a personal identity and various collective or group identities that are based on groups to which we belong. People could boost their self-esteem through their own personal achievement or through affiliation with successful groups. Social identity leads us to derive pride with our connection with others even if we do not receive benefits from these others. In this process we feel a need to belittle others to feel secure about us (negative side of social identity).

Porter (2013) reported a study in which 1578 high school students participated, using hierarchical regression analyses. Applying the theory of social identity, it was concluded that political identity positively relates to political involvement but was not related to political service. Moral identity was positively related to service and expressive political involvement, but negatively related to traditional political involvement. Fowler and Kam (2007) using the theory of social identity to explain the relationship between altruism, social identification and political participation. It was concluded that altruism and social identification increase political participation.

There appears to be limited empirical support for the theory of social identity with respect to political engagement. The SIT does not seem to be a theory that addresses non-norm conforming behaviors such as environmental activism (Feilding, McDonald, & Louis, 2008). However, the

theory failed to explain the dynamics in social behaviors such as perceived behavioral control, intention of the individual, subjective norm and attitude towards the stimulus object. The SIT seems to be concerned with only the stability or protection of the individuals' self-esteem versus the group (in-group or out-group) but was not able to explain the dynamics underpinning political engagement. The SIT has did not factor in how positive self esteem from in-group members would have long lasting effect on personal identity. SIT failed to incorporate the fact that competitive participants show greater in-group favoritism than cooperative participants.

### **Theory of Love of Money**

- i. The grand generative theory of money
- ii. Love of money model

#### **The grand generative theory of money**

The grand generative theory of money was propounded in the combined works of (Egwu, 1996; 2004; Nnedum, 2009). The grand generative theory of money (GGTM) proposes that the meaning an individual or a people attach to money could better be viewed from their cultural money metaphorical expressions and expressions of their cognitive psycho-linguistic ideation. According to Egwu (1996) work, time, money and organization are three metaphorical constructs, under which the construct of money can be understood in each culture. Furthermore, the Grand generative theory of money proposes that money the meaning of money may vary from one location to another because of the language acquisition and the psychological implication of such language on the people within the locality. Egwu, (2004) argues that metaphors have epistemological status in socio-scientific research as it could bind and constrain the window for perceiving the meaning of reality. Grand generative theory of money no doubt had demonstrated how meaning of money may be perceived in each culture, but did not incorporate personality differences in such perception, or duration at which such perceived meaning may elapse as depreciation may take effect over time due to global economic challenges.

#### **Love of money model**

Love of money model was proposed by Tang (1991). According to Tang (1991) Love of Money, has three major components: Affective component (Rich), Cognitive component (Importance)

and, Behavioral component (Motivation). The affective component refers to the feeling, individuals have when they are primed with money or materials of economic value. Such feelings could stimulate feelings of richness. The cognitive component deal with the individual's thought processes in appraisal of importance of money in one's life. The behavioral component is the action part of love of money. Though, cognitive and affect components may not be visible to outsiders, but the behavioral component deals with relationship between the individual and others within a social context. Therefore, love of money is concerned with level of motivation an individual manifests with reference to money or materialism. However, the LOM model may not have given explanation to the possibility that despite behavior individuals may have for money, life experience or previous knowledge may change such feelings. Basically, the LOM model has not demonstrated robustness in understanding of changes in behaviour of individuals over time. Also, LOM model did not factor in that some individuals may have high love of money and can still be motivated to help or donate money to charity.

### **Theory of Prosocial Behavior**

This subsection highlights some of the theories of prosocial behavior behind the theoretical assumptions in this study.

- i. Decision Model Intervention theory
- ii. Cost-Reward Analysis Theory
- iii. Empathic-Altruistic hypothesis

### **Decision Model Intervention Theory (DMIT)**

Latane and Darley (1970) proposed the decision model intervention theory. It holds that whether or not a person renders aid depends upon the outcome of a series of prior decision that involves recognizing the situation as one that requires assistance, deciding to take personal responsibility and deciding how to help. The theory has been used to understand how people respond in emergency situations (Schroede, Penner, Dovidio & Piliavin, 1995). The DMIT could be used to explain aspects of the theory of planned behavior (perceived behavioral control). This is because the DMIT is a rational process of assessing the extent of resources the individual has, if help is needed before taking up responsibility to help. However, perceived behavioral control addresses concerns such as amount of resource needed to develop and sustain political engagement

intensions. DMIT may have been very effective in understanding and explaining of prosocial behavior especially in emergency situations; however with respect to the present investigation (political engagement) the DMIT may have demonstrated strength in understanding of how individuals help in emergency situations but failed to factor in that most helping situations may not always be emergency situation. Therefore, the type of helping situation with respect to political engagement is none emergency help type. Even at that, some personality traits may not have the capacity to help in emergency situations. DMIT lacks empirical support for the understanding and explanation required in non emergency situations.

### **Cost- Reward Analysis Theory (CRAT)**

Cost-reward analysis of helping (CRAT) proposes that deciding to help in situations was an economic one that requires analysis that reduces cost and increases reward. People are relatively rational and primarily concerned about their self-interest. In emergency situations people weigh the probable cost and reward of alternative courses of action before they will arrive at the best personal outcome for them. Studies have found that bystanders could help when the cost of helping is minimal or will increase personal development (Gueguen & De Gail, 2003) or increase the cost of helping such as guilt, or shame for inaction (Dovidio, Piliavin, Gaertner, Schroedner & Clark ,1990). This theory may not be effective in understanding of the concept of why people engage in politics. CRAT advances the claims of cost implication of prosocial behavior. Individuals hope to help when the act would not put them at a disadvantage resourcefully or negatively affect them (Baron & Byrne, 2005). The theoretical assumptions of love of money and the CRAT assumptions relate inversely with each other in the sense that those that score high on love of money may be less prosocial, therefore are quite unlikely to give help to others. This is because they may not want to be at financial or emotional disadvantage. Therefore in relation with the CRAT, individuals may not engage in prosocial behaviors if they perceive such behavior would place them at a loss. CRAT may have demonstrated strength in analysis of how individuals help after a simple arithmetic of costs and reward, but did not factor in a situation when cost will equal benefit. Also, the CRAT failed to incorporate that to some extent, individuals may help even in the presence of extreme cost. The CRAT may have demonstrated an inverse association with love of money independent variable but may not have the capacity to address other variables in the present study.

### **Empathic-Altruistic Hypothesis**

Empathic-Altruistic hypothesis was propounded by (Batson, Duncan, Ackerman, Buckley & Birch, 1981) hold that one explanation of altruism is empathy. Empathy advances the fact that one can actually experience another's emotional state, feeling empathic toward them and taking their perspective. This goes to say that individuals help others because they experience empathy towards them and also feel good to do good deeds. This hypothesis advances the goal and objective of the present investigation which is that individuals, who experience empathy, can engage in politics for the sole desire to help others experience a better life, but failed to explain the role of other variables with respect to political engagement. A major weakness of the empathic altruistic hypothesis is its lack of ability to note that selfless behaviour maybe selfishly egoistically motivated.

### **Theories of Personal Sense of Power**

There are various theories of power; however this sub section shall focus on some of the theories that are relevant to the present investigation:

- i. Social power theory by French & Raven (1959)
- ii. Power-Approach theory by Keltner et al.; (2003)

### **Social Power Theory**

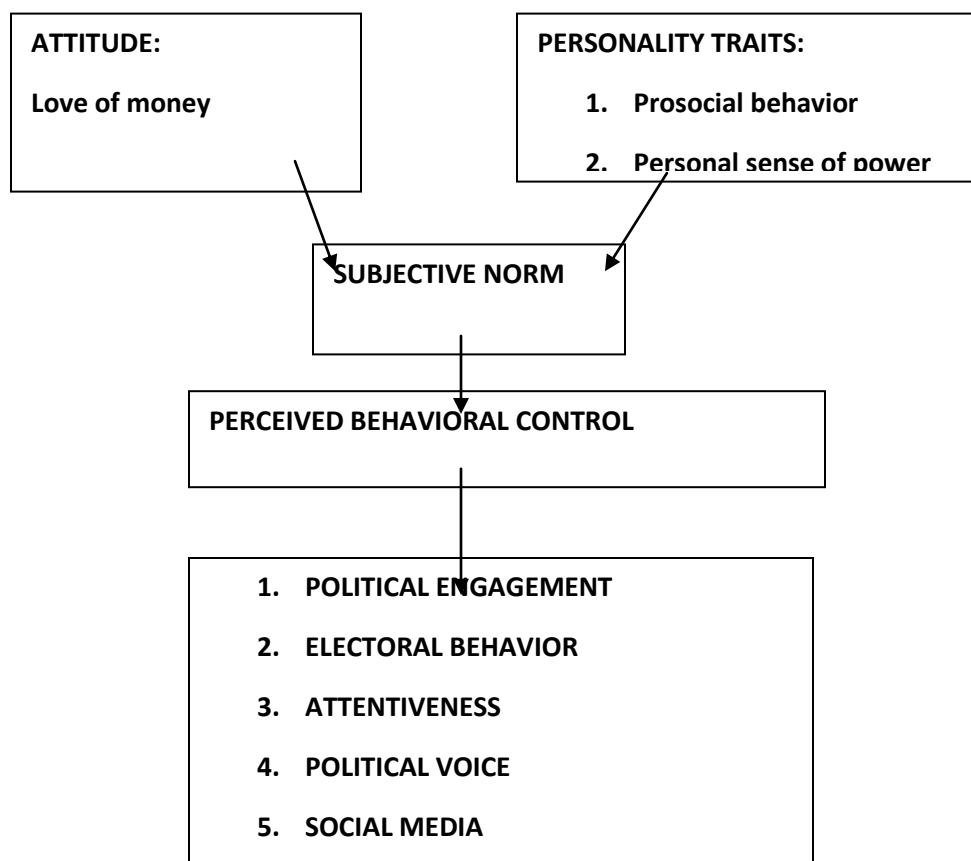
Social power theory was propounded by French and Raven (1959). Accordingly, power is potential to exert influence on another person in a social context. Social influence occurs when the presence (either actual or implied) or actions of an individual cause a change in belief, attitudes or behavior of another person. Therefore, the theory of social power argues that such power may not be available to some individuals. The theory failed to link other variables in the present study. Therefore, individuals who do not have social powers may not have such capacity to influence others. This assumption may be viewed as a weakness of the social power theory. It goes to point out that some persons may not have the power to wield influence. According to Anderson, et al; (2012) all individuals have personal sense of power to a certain measure. The only difference across persons is becoming aware of the existence of one's personal sense of power.

### **Power-Approach Theory**

Keltner et al.; (2003) propounded the power-approach theory. The theory assumes that power could be available in less formalized roles. For instance, in child-parent, husband-wife and to even exchange based relationship (employer-employee). Thus, power was relative capacity to modify another's internal state either by withholding resources in which that person depends on or administering punishments. Therefore, having resource is not power, but power depends on the fact that the resource is needed by another person in which manipulations may show effect of the influence on the dependent individual. This theory is more concerned with how the resource aspect of power is manipulated. It emphasizes the importance of seeking resources others need to acquire power by means of manipulation of such resources. Therefore, it implies that by means of such resource-dependant relationship influence is perceived by the individuals or ability to use coercion or cause pain. The power approach theory does not fit into what personal sense of power stands for. The Power-Approach theory strives to exclude universality of the fact that all persons have some forms of power which was supported by Bandura (1987) in his self-efficacy theory.

The Power Approach theory explores reduction of individuals to simple resource seeking persons and ability to dehumanize others. Again, the example of the power approach theory in family setting theoretically does not have universal acceptance, because for parent-child relationship provision of resource is basically a filial obligation especially in African and communalism contexts. Also, in the husband-wife relationship, withdrawal of resource in that aspect from the child or wife may result in non-norm supportive behavior and retaliatory tendencies. Therefore, it seems that the Power-Approach theory may be more useful in the formal exchange based establishments where the employer has power especially to hire and fire at the same time as well as use coercion to maintain control (power) of the business organization. The power approach may have demonstrated some understanding in African/traditional setting but may be weak in understanding some formal settings. Despite that power approach theory has not received enough empirical backings.





**Figure 1 (adapted from Ajzen, 1991).**

### **Theoretical Framework**

This section examines a summary of all theories upon which related literature were based, before the selection of theoretical framework. Grand theory of money advances the argument that meaning of money to an individual or people could be better understood from their cultural money metaphorical expression or expressions of their cognitive psycho-linguistic ideation. Basically, this theory is concerned with the meaning of money especially among African samples. Therefore grand theory, argues that attitude to money is culturally determined. The theory was not able to connect all the study variables in the present study.

Decision model intervention theory proposes that rendering aid depends on outcome of three series of prior decision that involves recognizing the situation as one that requires assistance, deciding to take personal responsibility and deciding to help. This theory was used to understand why individuals help especially in emergency situations. Therefore, giving help does not erupt

without due considerations. The Decision model theory addresses an aspect of helping behavior such as those that are non-emergency but may not be suitable for helping under non emergency situations. This condition makes the theory to be incapable of linking other constructs in the present study since political engagement is a non emergency behavior. Cost-Reward analysis theory advances that before an individual decides to help, he undergoes a rational process which is basically economical in nature. The helper may not wish to render help when he or she perceives that the help will place him or her at a loss both emotionally or financially. Therefore, this position does not portray an altruistic disposition. Empathic-Altruistic hypothesis holds that one explanation of altruism is empathy. Empathy advances the fact that one can actually experience another's emotional state, feeling empathic toward them and taking their perspective. This goes to say that individuals help others because they experience empathy towards them and also feel good to do good deeds. This hypothesis advances the goal and objective of the present investigation which is that individuals who experience empathy can engage in politics for the sole desire to help others. However, this hypothesis does not connect with all variables in the present investigation. As such will not be the theoretical framework.

Social power theory advances the argument that power is the potential an individual which enables him or her to exert influence on others. Therefore, within the social environment, individuals occupy various positions and such positions have some power ascribed to them. Based on these social positions they wield control on others. This is felt through influence. Thus, all people do not have such capacity at the same time. So the theory may not form a framework in the present investigation.

Power-Approach theory advances the concerns that power is felt in terms of influence. Such influence occurs when the individual has resources, money or valuable commodities of need to others. The ability to manipulate such administration of these commodities creates effects on those in need of such goods or services. Such effects are referred to as influence. This theory has limitation in the sense that not everyone has such power. Therefore, the theory argues that very few people have the capacity to experience social power. As a result the theory fails to form a base for advancement of the pursuits of this work.

Social identity theory advances the argument that individuals join groups for the main purpose of enhancement of self esteem. The theory of social identity has not been able to demonstrate mechanism surrounding behavior manifestation only that it tells us that the motivation or drive behind identification with social groups was need for enhancement of self or groups esteem. Those who could not achieve esteem alone may drive such enhancement by association with significant groups (basking in reflected glory). The social identity theory has not demonstrated any significant link with respect to the variables under consideration.

The theory of planned behavior was considered the most appropriate theoretical model to be adopted for the present study (see fig. 1). This conclusion was arrived at because among other theories reviewed, the TPB provided best possible link between the study independent variables (love of money, prosocial behavior and personal sense of power) and dependent variables: political engagement, electoral behaviour, attentiveness, political voice and social media engagement, through political engagement intentions.

### **Love of Money and Political Engagement**

Ana (2013) reported a study which examined if targeted programs (component of love of money) increased pro-incumbent voting (political engagement) by persuading beneficiaries to cast ballots against their first partisan choice. Data for the study was drawn from randomized component of Progresca cash transfer program. Result showed that enrollment in the programs (love of money) led to substantive increase in voters' turnout (political engagement).

Jenny and Wantchekon (2014) reported a study on “do electoral handouts (a component of love of money) affect voting behavior (political engagement)”? Empirical result showed that love of money have no effect on either political engagement or vote-share when using different matching techniques and constituency-level fixed effects during the 2011 Beienesse presidential election. This finding is not supported by earlier study by (Ana & De La, 2013).

Leight, Panda and Ralston (2016) reported a study that analyzed voter behavior (political engagement) under a regime of payment for votes (factor in love of money) in the laboratory. Data for the study was drawn from 86 subjects at Harvard Decision Science Laboratory and the

Busara experimental laboratory in Nairobi, Kenya. Results revealed that love of money enhanced political engagement in favor of political patrons. The finding is consistent with earlier study by Ana (2013) but different from Jenny and Wantchekon (2014).

Smith, de Mesquita and LaGatta (2016) reported a study on group incentives (a component of love of money) and rational voting (political engagement). The study adopted a tournament style analysis and showed that contingent allocation of prizes where incentives (love of money) are given as a result of future expectation based on relative level of support affected equilibrium voting behavior (political engagement). This finding is consistent with earlier works (Ana, 2013; Leight, et al 2016).

Chuyi-Lu and Chung-Ping (2016) reported a study on vote buying (component of love of money) and victory of election (political engagement) among Taiwanese. Data for the study was drawn from panel of 23 counties of Taiwan over a period of 1998-2008. Results revealed that love of money increases political engagement and increase vote share which reduces probability of electoral success. This finding is confirmed in the works of (Ana, 2013; Leight, et al 2016; Smith, et al 2016).

Filipovich, Nino-Zarazua, & Hernandez (2018) reported a study on electoral effects of Mexico's Progres-Prospera (a program on anti poverty policy design). Data was drawn from three presidential elections within a period of profound political transitions. Results revealed that only voters in treated (receive of reward or monetary incentives) localities were influenced to come out and vote during elections (political engagement). This work was confirmed in works of (Ana, 2013; Leight, et al 2016; Smith, et al 2016; Chuyi-Lu & Chung-Ping, 2016).

Canare, Mendoza & Lopez (2018), reported a study on empirical analysis of vote buying (love of money) among the poor drawing evidence from elections (political engagement) in the Philippines. Samples for the study were drawn from residents in Manila after the 2016 elections. Results showed that love of money among the poor was common. Most prevalent forms of love of money were food, clothing, and money. Different vote buying has different correlates including some socio-economic factors. Most of the voters who were offered money or goods accepted but only about two third voted for the candidates. This finding is consistent with earlier

works by (Ana, 2013; Leight, et al 2016; Smith, et al 2016; Chuyi-Lu & Chung-Ping, 2016; Filipovich, et al 2018).

Baez, Carnacho, Conovder, & Zarate (2018), reported a study which was executed under World Bank Group on conditional cash transfer, political engagement and voting behavior. Data for the study was drawn from voters who participated in Columbia 2010 presidential election. Conditional cash transfer (love of money) was represented by enrollment in a large scale anti poverty program. Results showed that love of money had positive effect on political engagement in 2010 presidential elections by increasing the probability that program beneficiaries registered to vote and cast a ballot in favor of the incumbent that implemented and expanded the program. The finding is consistent with earlier studies (Ana, 2013; Leight, et al 2016; Smith, et al 2016; Chuyi-Lu & Chung-Ping, 2016; Filipovich, et al 2018; Baez, et al.; 2018).

In a related study, Cruz, Keefer, Labonne & Trebbi (2018) reported a study on “can campaign promises change voter behavior (political engagement), even when vote buying and clientism are so pervasive”? Results revealed that Philippines’ voters who receive information about current promise voted for candidates with policy promises closest to their own preferences. Voters who are informed about current and past campaign promises reward incumbent who fulfilled their past promises. Also, voters with clienteles’ ties to candidates respond weakly to campaign promises. Finally, cost benefit analysis result showed that vote buying (love of money) is more effective than information campaign on turnout (political engagement) during elections. This finding is consistent with earlier studies (Ana, 2013; Leight, et al 2016; Smith, et al 2016; Chuyi-Lu & Chung-Ping, 2016; Filipovich, et al 2018; Baez, et al.; 2018; Baez, 2018).

### **Prosocial Behaviour and Political Engagement**

Taylor, Merrilees, Baid, Goeke-Morey, Shirlow, and Cummings (2018) reported a study on impact of political conflict on trajectories of adolescent prosocial behaviour: implications for civic engagement. Participants for the study were 999 adolescents with mean age of 12.18years, standard deviation of 1.82, between the ages of 10-20year old. The study lasted for 6 consecutive years in Belfast, Northern/Ireland which is a setting of on-going sectarian conflict. A dual change model, which combines the strengths of auto-regressive and latent growth curves approaches, found an initial shallow decrease in prosocial behaviours that dropped more sharply in later

adolescence. Exposure to sectarianism related to an accelerated decrease in prosocial behavior. Trajectories of prosocial behaviours positively related to later social and political engagement.

Neaman, Otto and Vinokur (2018) reported a study on toward an integrated to environmental (component of political engagement) and prosocial education. Participants for the study were 310 students, undergraduates and ex-alumni of School of Agriculture, Pontifical Catholic University of Valparaiso, Chile. Participants were between the ages of 17 to 41 years with mean age of 22.35, and males 59% while females were 41% females. Participants lived in urban areas (76%) and rural area (24%). Statistics used were Rasch-type model, classical data analysis, and Pearson product moment correlations. Results showed that prosocial behavior was positively related to pro-environmental behavior at ( $r = 0.34$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The finding is consistent with other study (Taylor, et al 2018).

In a study reported by Fowler (2006) on Altruism (component of prosocial behavior) and Turnout (political engagement) among students, in which 350 students served as participants from introductory undergraduate political science courses between the ages of 18-27years with mean age of 20 years. Result show that people who care about benefits to others (prosocial behavior) are more likely to vote. The study is supported by other scholars (Taylor, et al 2018; Neaman, et al 2018).

In a related study, Jankowski (2007) reported findings on altruism (component of prosocial behavior) and decision to vote (political engagement). Data set employed for the study was drawn from the national election survey pilot study in 1995. Result showed that weak prosocial correlation determines voters' turnout in elections. The finding is consistent with earlier study by (Taylor, et al 2018; Neaman, et al 2018; Fowler, 2006).

In a related study, Rotemberg (2009) investigated attitude-related altruism (a component of prosocial behavior), turnout and voting. The study argues that individuals are more prosocial towards political candidates who agree with them, and people's well being rise when others share their personal opinions. Result showed that substantial voting turnout emerged with nontrivial voting and modest prosocial behavior. This finding is in congruence with earlier studies (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007).

Stel and Harinck (2011) reported an experimental study on effect of mimicry (a trait prosocial personality) on political voting behavior (political engagement). Participants for the study were 80 female and 6 male students of Leiden University between the ages of 17 to 28 years. Result revealed that prosocial behavior had significant positive effect on voting behavior (political engagement). The finding is consistent with earlier works (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009).

In a study reported by Dawes, Loewen and Fowler (2011) on social preferences (component of prosocial behavior) and political participation, participants for the study were 234 students. Results show that subjects who were most interested in increasing total welfare (prosocial behavior) in dictator game were more likely to participate in politics than subjects with selfish preferences. Therefore, Dawes et al.; work is consistent with earlier works (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009; Stel & Harinck, 2011).

Flavin, and Keane (2011) reported a study on satisfaction with life (a component of prosocial behavior) and political participation (political engagement) evidence from the United States of America. 1,548 adults participated in the study (using a survey data). Result showed that individuals who are prosocial are more likely to turn out to vote and participate in the political process. The finding of the present study is consistent with earlier works (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009; Stel & Harinck, 2011; Dawes, et al.; 2011).

Barker and Martin (2011) reported a study on political participation: The happiness (characteristic of prosocial personality) connection. Three aspects of participation were examined, the family, work places and politics. Results show that in each of the three areas, increased prosocial behavior political engagement via channels of personal relationships and helping others. This study is consistent with earlier studies (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009; Stel & Harinck, 2011; Dawes, et al.; 2011; Flavin, & Keane, 2011).

In a related study reported by Fang, Galambos, and Johnson (2012) investigated on Happiness (component of prosocial trait) is the way: paths to civic and political engagement between adulthood and Midlife. Six hundred and ninety (690) adults between the ages of 22-43years served as participants, Autoregressive-cross-lagged-models controlling for cross-time stabilities

in prosocial behavior and political engagement. Result indicated that higher prosocial behavior predicted higher future political engagement, while parenthood at ages 32 and 43 predicted higher civic engagement. This finding is consistent with earlier studies (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009; Stel & Harinck, 2011; Dawes, et al.; 2011; Flavin, & Keane, 2011; Barker & Martin, 2011)

Kanacri, Valdenegro, Jineriez-Moya, Saavedra and Mora (2016) reported a study on civic and political engagement and giving behaviors (prosocial): the role of empathy (prosocial trait) and beliefs about poverty. Participants for the study were 656 female and 638 males, who were randomly selected from different cities in Chile. Results showed that prosocial behavior is a driver of political and civic engagement. This study is consistent with earlier studies (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009; Stel & Harinck, 2011; Dawes, et al.; 2011; Flavin, & Keane, 2011; Barker & Martin, 2011; Fang, et al 2012).

In a more recent study reported by Loewen, Ochrane and Arsenault (2017) on empathy (component of prosocial trait) and political preferences (component of political engagement) participants were drawn from adult population. Results showed that variation in levels of prosocial behavior explain variations in partisan identification (political engagement). Thus, the more prosocial individuals are, the more likely they are to identify with and vote for parties of the left (party that supports social equality), even at a personal cost. The finding of Loewen, et al; (2017) is consistent with earlier works (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009; Stel & Harinck, 2011; Dawes, et al.; 2011; Flavin, & Keane, 2011; Barker & Martin, 2011; Fang, et al 2012; Kanacri, et al 2016).

### **Personal Sense of Power and Political Engagement**

In another study reported by Solhang (2006) on knowledge and self efficacy (a component of personal sense of power) as predictors of political participation (a component of political engagement) and civic attitude with relevance for educational price in which 1,730 students aged between 16 and 19 years served as participants. Five structural equation models were then estimated using LISREL. Result showed that personal sense of power is a stronger predictor of motivation and three aspects of political engagement than knowledge.



Caprara, Schwartz, Capanna, Vecchione & Baranelli (2006) reported a study on personal value (personal sense of power) and traits on political choice (a component of political engagement). Data for the study was drawn from 3044 voters for the major coalition in Italian nation election 2001. Results showed that supports of the two coalitions differed in traits. Personal sense of power explained substantial variance in past and future voting behavior and in change of political engagement, trumping personality traits. This finding is consistent with similar study (Solhang 2006).

Leimgruber (2011) reported a study on direct effect of personal values (a component of personal sense of power) on voting behavior (a component of political engagement). Data for the study was drawn from Swiss electoral data (Set 2007). Empirical analysis result showed that personal sense of power had direct effect on political engagement. This finding is similar with earlier findings (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006).

Hashish and Kamel (2014) reported a study on identity, political efficacy (component of personal sense of power) and expected political participation (a component of political engagement) among nursing students after 25<sup>th</sup> January revolution in Egypt. Participants in the study were 403 nursing students. Results of the study showed that personal sense of power relates positively with political engagement. This finding is consistent with earlier studies (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber (2011).

Weinschent (2017) reported a study on Big Five personality traits (components of personal sense of power), political participation, and civic engagement evidence from 24 countries. Data from representative survey conducted in 24 countries were used to examine influences of personal sense of power on political participation. Logistic, Poisson, and Ordered logit models were used for data analysis. The results was consistent with earlier studies that personal sense of power influence political participation (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Hashish & Kamel (2014).

Shehata (2017) reported a study on political participation and power relations in Egypt: The scope of newspapers and social networks sites. Participants in the study were 527 Egyptian youth, (51% were males, while 49% were females). The research employed mixed method

approach which comprised of survey and semi structured interviews of 12 political activists and journalists. Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was statistics used for data analysis. Results showed that there was significant relationship between reading newspaper and youth's political participation. Result also showed that social network sites did not have significant relations with political participation. This study is consistent with earlier studies (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Hashish & Kamel (2014).

Similarly, Ahoya (2016) reported a study on political efficacy (a component of personal sense of power) and political participation among Nurses in Tertiary hospitals in the Republic of Kenya. Participants for the study were drawn from nurses working in two hospitals. 347 participants with not less than 3 years working experience were selected using proportional stratified random sampling method. Demographic information and two other scales (political efficacy scale and political participation scale were used for data collection). Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used for data analysis. Results revealed that there was a moderate positive correlation between political efficacy and political participation at ( $r=0.31$ ,  $p<.01$ ). This study is consistent with earlier studies that personal sense of power is a positive associate of political enagement (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Hashish & Kamel, 2014; Weinschent, 2017, Shehata (2017).

In another related examination, Maurissen (2018) reported a study on political efficacy (a component of personal sense of power) and interest as mediators of expected political participation among Belgian adolescents. Participants for the study were drawn from Belgian (Flemish) sample of the ICCS 2016 study. The results indicated that three educational strategies (i.e. classroom discussions, civic learning opportunities, and student participation at school) are positively associated with expected political participation in distinct ways. Also a substantial part of this relationship is mediated by political interest and political efficacy. This study is consistent with earlier studies in the relationship between personal sense of power and political engagement (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Hashish & Kamel, 2014; Weinschent, 2017; Ahoya; 2016).

More recently, McDonnel (2019) reported a study on municipality size, political efficacy (component of personal sense of power) and political participation: a systematic review. The study examined how extant empirical literature bears on the relationship between size, political efficacy (component of personal sense of power) and political participation. Multiple regression analysis results showed that citizens of smaller municipalities feel a greater sense of political efficacy and participate to a greater degree in local politics. This study is consistent with earlier studies on the relationship between personal sense of power and political engagement (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Hashish & Kamel, 2014; Weinschent, 2017; Ahoya; 2016; Maurissen, 2018).

Zuniga, Diehl and Ardevol-Abrem (2017) reported a study on Internal, External and Government political efficacy (component of personal sense of power). Effects on news use, discussion and political participation. The study drew participants from a panel data from the United States, statistics of used was confirmatory factor analysis. The study tested political efficacy dimensions for their impact on news consumption, discussions and political participation. Results showed that political efficacy has significant positive relationship with news use, discussion and participation. The findings were are consistent with earlier studies (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Hashish & Kamel, 2014; Weinschent, 2017; Ahoya; 2016; McDonnel, 2019, Maurissen, 2018; McDonnel, 2019).

Xia and Shen (2018) reported a study on political participation in Hong Kong: The role of News Media (component of personal sense of power) and online alternative media. Participants in the study were drawn from online survey of Hong Kong adults conducted by international market research firm YouGov. The sample participants consist of 1,057 Hong Kong citizens between 18 years and above. To measure traditional news media (component of personal sense of power) use participants were asked to report frequencies of information use of three media outlets including newspapers ( $M=2.19$ ,  $SD=1.39$ ), radio ( $M=1.58$ ,  $SD=1.37$ ), and television ( $M=2.23$ ,  $SD=1.37$ ) on a 5 point Likert scale. To measure alternative media use participants were asked if they had used the nine aforementioned alternative news websites in Hong Kong. This was assessed on a 10 point scale to measure online alternative media use frequency. However, only 3.7% used one or some of the nine alternative news websites. Measure internal efficacy three questions were

employed to measure individual's internal efficacy on a 4 point scale and result showed ( $X=67$ ,  $M=1.75$ ,  $SD=0.65$ ). Also to measure political satisfaction, two questions were raised and answers were recorded on a 4 point spanning from (not satisfied with degree of democracy). Finally, results showed that traditional news media play role of efficacy facilitator to boost institutional and non institutional, political participation, while online alternative media mainly serve as a political dissatisfaction amplifier to fuel citizens' non institutional political participation such as protest participation. The finding of the study is consistent with earlier works (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Hashish & Kamel, 2014; Weinschent, 2017; Ahoya; 2016; McDonnel, 2019, Maurissen, 2018; McDonnel, 2019; Zuniga, et al.;2017).

### **Summary of Literature Review**

Summary of literature reviewed on the relationship between love of money and political engagement showed that a component of love of money (Conditional Cash Transfers) had significant effect in electoral turnout during elections especially in favor of the incumbent who implemented and expanded the program (Ana, 2013, Baez, et al 2018). Another component of love of money (vote buying or vote selling) showed significant effect on electoral turnout (political engagement) however such effect was also found to reduce probability of electoral success in a multi party system which is in favor of electoral patrons (Jenny & Wantchekon, 2014; Smith et al 2016; Chuyi-Lu & Chung-Ping, 2016; Leight, et al 2016; Canare, et al 2018; Filipovich, et al 2018; Cruz, et al., 2018).

Reviewed literature between prosocial behavior and political engagement showed that there was positive and significant relationship between the two concepts. This means that individuals who are prosocial are more likely to engage in political activities. The association was supported by various scholars from diverse background (Fowler 2006; Jankowski, 2007; Rotemberg, 2009; Stel & Harinck, 2011; Dawes, et al.; 2011; Flavin, & Keane, 2011; Barker & Martin, 2011; Fang, et al 2012; Kanacri, et al 2016; Loewen, et at.; 2017).

Review of related literature between personal sense of power and political engagement revealed that there is positive and significant relationship between the two concepts. Individuals who are aware of their personal sense of power are more likely to engage in political activities. The finding is consistent with earlier studies (Solhang, 2006; Caprara, et al 2006; Leimgruber, 2011;

Hashish & Kamel, 2014; Weinschent, 2017; Ahoya; 2016; McDonnel, 2019; Maurissen, 2018; McDonnel, 2019; Zuniga, Diehl and Ardevol-Abrem 2017).

Basically, studies reveal positive association among related concepts with love of money, prosocial behavior and personal sense of power on political engagement (Baez, et al.; 2018; Loewen, et at.; 2017; Maurissen, 2018). However, the studies did not show any direct positive association with love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power on political engagement dimensions as present study independent variables. To the best of researcher's knowledge, there appears to be gap in knowledge in the relationship existing between love of money, prosocial behaviour, and personal sense of power and political engagement, electoral behavior, attentiveness, political voice and social media, especially among the study sample.

### **Hypotheses**

Having explored the above related concepts, theories and empirical works with respect to dependent and independent variables, the following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

1. Love of Money will significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.
2. Prosocial behavior will significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.
3. Personal sense of power will significantly and positively predict political engagement dimensions among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria.

## CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

The chapter highlights information about the participants, instruments for data collection, the procedure and design/statistics.

### **Participants**

One thousand one hundred and fifty-eight (1,158) undergraduates who volunteered from three randomly selected federal universities in South-East Nigeria participated in the study. The choice of federal universities was because they have cosmopolitan background compared to state universities. The three federal universities that participated were randomly selected from the five federal universities in the south east using simple random sampling (deep pick). These randomly selected universities were as follows Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka, Federal University of Technology Owerri, and University of Nigeria Nsukka. The ages of the participants ranged from 19 to 30 years with mean age of 23.33 and standard deviation of 2.82. Five hundred and forty-one (46.7%) of the participants were males and 617 (53.3%) were females. Among the participants 945 (84.8%) were from South-East, 30 (2.7%) were from South-West, 12 (1.11%) North-Central, 93 (8.3%) were from South-South, North East was 14 (1.3%), and North West was 21 (1.9%). For each selected university, Nnamdi Azikiwe University was represented by faculty of management sciences, University of Nigeria Nsukka was represented by faculty of social sciences and Federal University of technology Owerri was represented by Faculty of Engineering. Thereafter incidental random sampling was adopted to administer the research instruments to the available and willing students present at the time of the study in their lecture halls.

### **Instruments**

Four instruments were used for the study:

1. Political engagement scale (Nweke, 2018).
2. Love of money scale (Tang & Chiu, 2013).
3. Prosocial behaviour scale (Afolabi, 2013)
4. Personal sense of power scale (Anderson, John, & Keltner, 2012).

### **Political Engagement Scale (PES)**

Political engagement scale was developed by Nweke (2018) in the course of this study. The PES has a total of 26 items which assesses the levels of individual's engagement in political activities. The PES has four main domains, the Electoral behavior (EB), Attentiveness (AT), Political Voice (PV) and Social Media engagement (SM). Items on the PES that were derived from the Index of civic and political engagement (ICPE) were indicated with asterisks at the appendix section, while those that were adopted from the social media political engagement were not marked asterisks (Adolina, et al.; 2003; Rainie, et al.; 2012). Electoral behaviour is measured by items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 19, on the PES. Attentiveness (AT) domain is measured by items 3, 20, and 21. Political voice is measured by items 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 on the PES. Social media domain is measured by Items 15, 16, 17, 18, 22, 23, 24, 25, and 26 measure Social Media engagement of the political engagement scale. Some items on the PES include: In the past, how frequently have you being involved in the following: "Attended meetings called by political organization, or candidates running for office?" and "talked to people and try to show them why they should vote for or against a candidate or a party".

The domains of PES are considered relevant measures of political engagement because they were adopted from national survey works (Adolina, et al.; 2003; Rainie, et al.; 2012). Furthermore, the items that measure each domain were already assigned to the respective domains they measure (Adolina, et al.; 2003; Rainie, et al.; (2012). The PES has a five-point Likert response format ranging from "1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree". All items are positively scored. However, the present study, political engagement was conceptualized as a one-dimensional scale, and alongside its domains.

A pilot study was conducted to establish the reliability and validity of the test. The study involved 20 lecturers and 180 undergraduates of Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka. The lecturers were from the departments in Social Sciences, 9 were from Department of Psychology, Political science was 6, Sociology was 3, Mass communication 2, and Economics 1. Among them were 5 females and 15 males (the participants were senior lecturers and professors). The following validity and reliability indices were obtained. Results showed that content validity ratio of 4 domains of the PES using Lawshe (1975) for the 26 items equals 98.2%. Item analysis result for the 180 students' showed that the items correlated ranged from .30 to .52. Similarly,

the internal consistency reliability (Cronbach alpha) for the 26 items is .78. However, the Cronbach alphas for the different subscales are .76, .69, .65 and .70. The sub factors of instruments also correlated significantly whereby the correlation between Electoral behavior and Political Voice  $r = .35^{**}$ ; Electoral Behavior and Social media  $r = .42^{**}$ , Electoral behavior and Attentiveness  $r = .49^{**}$ , Political Voice and Social media  $r = .52^{**}$ , Political Voice and Attentiveness  $r = .41^{**}$  & Attentiveness and Social media  $r = .40^{**}$  (evidence of convergent validity).

### **Love of Money Scale (LOMS)**

The LOMS was developed by Tang & Chiu (2003). This is a 9-item 3 factor scale used to assess attitude people have about money. The LOM is a five point Likert format ranging from 1 strongly agree, to 5 strongly disagree. The LOMS has three components an affective component (items 1, 2, & 3), behavioral component (items, 4, 5, & 6), and Cognitive component (items 7, 8, & 9). Items on LOMS are positively scored. Sample items on the LOMS include: “I want to be rich”, it would be nice to be rich” and “I am motivated to work hard for money”. Tang (2005) conceptualized LOM as a single construct and reported a Cronbach alpha of 0.70 for the scale. Pilot study was conducted with 180 students to provide evidence of the validity and reliability of Love of Money scale among Nigerian participants. The following psychometric properties were obtained for Nigerian sample. A total Cronbach alpha of .75 was found. Also, it has convergent validity .35 with achievement factor of love of money and divergent validity of -.25 with evil factor love of money.

### **Prosocial Behaviour Scale (PBS)**

The Prosocial Behaviour Scale (PBS) was developed by Afolabi (2013) to measure prosocial behaviors among undergraduates. The PBS is a 12-items scale. The response pattern is a Likert format which ranged from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. Sample items on the PBS include: “I enjoy helping others”, I make personal sacrifices to make others comfortable”. Items on PBS are positively scored except 2 and 9 which are reversed scored. Afolabi (2013) reported 0.81 Cronbach alpha coefficients and .77 test retest and .72 split half reliability among Nigerian sample. The scale has been used by authors in different works within the country (Onyenecho & Afolabi, 2018; Afolabi, 2014).



### **Personal Sense of Power Scale (PSPS)**

Personal Sense of Power Scale was developed by Anderson, John, & Keltner, (2012). The PSPS consists of 8 items that measures how individuals perceived power. The Items are on a seven-point Likert response format ranging from “1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Items 2, 4, 6, and 7 were reversed during scoring, while other items are positively scored. Items on the personal sense of power scale include: “1. I can get people to listen to me” “my wishes do not carry much weight” and “I can get people to do what I want”. Anderson, et al; (2012) reported internal consistency of Cronbach alpha between .76 and .91, while convergent validity on conscientiousness, and extraversion were .59, .48 respectively and divergent validity was neuroticism -.46. Earlier, Galinsky and Dubois (2011) found that general self efficacy scale by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995) positively predicted personal sense of power scale. Pilot study was conducted with 180 students as participants and the following psychometric properties were obtained. A convergent validity of  $r = .52, p < .01$  was obtained when Personal sense of Power Scale was correlated with general self efficacy scale. Also, the internal consistency (Cronbach alpha) of .80 was obtained for the PSPS.

### **Procedure**

The topic was approved by ethical committee board and the required identification was issued to the researcher to enable him access the institutions where the research were carried out. The instruments for the research require each participant to sign a consent form before completing them. Three schools were randomly selected from the federal universities using simple random sampling. From each selected school, one faculty was randomly selected. According to Mensah (2013), the minimum required number of participants for each school where the standard deviation is not known is 386.

Therefore, incidental random sampling was used to administer to any available student seated in a class, five minutes before their lecture until the required minimum number was obtained. Four research assistants were employed to assist the researcher in administering the questionnaires to the participants. It took about 25 minutes to complete the questionnaires for each student and the data were collected within two months. On completion, the questionnaires were collected immediately. A total of 1210 questionnaires were administered. However, 1158 were properly filled, collated and were used for data analysis.

**Design and Statistics**

The present investigation adopted predictive design. Statistics employed for the study were Pearson  $r$  product moment correlation and Multiple Regression analyses. Data generated were managed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0.

## CHAPTER FOUR: RESULT

This chapter deals with the results of data analysis. The order of result presentation are as follows: Table 1: Zero order correlation coefficient, and Table 2: Standardized Beta Coefficient result for effects of Love of money, Prosocial Behaviour, and Personal Sense of Power on Political Engagement, Electoral behaviour, Attentiveness, Political voice and Social media.

**Table 1: Zero order Correlation Matrix Using Raw Data**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Political Engagement	1							
2. Love of money	.06*	1						
3. Prosocial behaviour	.14**	.10**	1					
4. Personal sense of power	-.03	.36**	.38**	1				
5. Electoral behaviour	.90**	.06*	.09*	-.06	1			
6. Attentiveness	.83**	.02	.12*	.01	.77**	1		
7. Political voice	.85**	-.14*	-.12*	.19**	.77**	.61**	1	
8. Social media	.84**	.18**	.28**	.08**	.56**	.59**	.57**	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2- tailed)

\*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2- tailed)

Table 1 shows the zero order correlation coefficient of the studied variables. There was a significant positive correlation between love of money and political engagement  $r = .06^*$ ,  $p < .05$ . The correlation between Prosocial behaviour and political engagement was  $r = .14^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ , while the correlation between personal sense of power and political engagement was also significant at  $r = -.03^*$ ,  $p < .01$ . The correlation between love of money and prosocial behaviour was significant at  $r = .10^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ . The correlation between love of money and personal sense of power was significant at  $r = .36^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ , while the correlation between prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power was significant at  $r = .38^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ . The correlation between Electoral behaviour and Love of money was at  $r = .06^*$ ,  $p < .01$ , also the correlation between

Electoral behaviour and Prosocial behaviour was  $r = .09^*$ ,  $p < .01$  and the correlation between Electoral behaviour and Personal sense of power was  $r = -.6$ ,  $p < .05$ . The correlation between Attentiveness and love of money was  $r = .01$ ,  $p < .05$ , while the correlation between Attentiveness and prosocial behaviour was  $r = .12^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ , and the correlation between Attentiveness and Personal sense of power was  $r = .01$ . The correlation between Political voice and love of money was  $r = -.14^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ , the correlation between Political voice and Prosocial behavior was  $r = -.12^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ , and the correlation between political voice and Personal sense of power was  $r = -.19^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ . The correlation between Social media and love of money was  $r = .18^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ , also correlation between Social media and Prosocial behaviour was  $r = .28^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ , correlation between Social media and Personal sense of power was  $r = .09^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$ .

### Summary of result

1. love of money and political engagement  $r = .06^*$ ,  $p < .05$
2. Prosocial behaviour and political engagement was  $r = .14^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
3. Personal sense of power and political engagement was also significant at  $r = -.03^*$ ,  $p < .01$
4. love of money and prosocial behaviour was significant at  $r = .10^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
5. prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power was significant at  $r = .38^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
6. Electoral behaviour and Love of money was at  $r = .06^*$ ,  $p < .01$
7. Electoral behaviour and Prosocial behaviour was  $r = .09^*$ ,  $p < .01$
8. Electoral behaviour and Personal sense of power was  $r = -.6$ ,  $p < .05$
9. Attentiveness and love of money was  $r = .01$ ,  $p < .05$
10. Attentiveness and prosocial behaviour was  $r = .12^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
11. Attentiveness and Personal sense of power was  $r = .01$
12. Political voice and love of money was  $r = -.14^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
13. Political voice and Prosocial behavior was  $r = -.12^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
14. political voice and Personal sense of power was  $r = -.19^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
15. Social media and love of money was  $r = .18^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
16. Social media and Prosocial behaviour was  $r = .28^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$
17. Social media and Personal sense of power was  $r = .09^{**}$ ,  $p < .01$

**Table 2: Standardized Beta Coefficient Results for Independent Effects of Love of Money, Prosocial Behaviour and Personal Sense of Power on Political Engagement.**

Predictor Variables	Adjusted $R^2$	df1(df2)	F	B	Std Error
<b>MODEL 1 (PES)</b>	<b>.03</b>	<b>3(1154)</b>	<b>13.49**</b>		
A. Love of Money				<b>.09**</b>	.10
B. Prosocial behaviour				<b>.18**</b>	.15
C. Personal sense of Power				<b>.13**</b>	.08
<b>MODEL 2 (EB)</b>	<b>.02</b>	<b>3(1154)</b>	<b>10.21**</b>		
A. Love of Money				<b>.10*</b>	.03
B. Prosocial Behaviour				<b>.13**</b>	.05
C. Personal sense of power				<b>.14**</b>	.03
<b>MODEL 3 (AT)</b>	<b>.01</b>	<b>3(1154)</b>	<b>6.22**</b>		
A. Love of Money				<b>.02</b>	.02
B. Prosocial behaviour				<b>.14**</b>	.03
C. Personal sense of power				<b>.05</b>	.02
<b>MODEL 4 (PV)</b>	<b>.04</b>	<b>3(1154)</b>	<b>17.55**</b>		
A. Love of money				-.09	.02
B. Prosocial Behaviour				-.06	.04
C. Personal sense of power				<b>.12*</b>	.02
<b>MODEL 5 (SM)</b>	<b>.11</b>	<b>3(1154)</b>	<b>47.31**</b>		
A. Love of money				-.19	.04
B. Prosocial Behaviour				<b>.30**</b>	.06
C. Personal sense of power				.10*	.03

\*\*P< .01, \* P< .05, **Adjusted  $R^2$** , PES= Political Engagement Scale, EB=Electoral Behaviour, AT=Attentiveness, PV= Political Voice, SM= Social Media Engagement

The five Models were analyzed independently using multiple regression Enter method. Thereafter the following outcomes were obtained. Model 1 (Hypothesis one) in Table 2 showed that when Enter method was applied to Political engagement for the three independent predictors (love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power), the adjusted  $R^2 = .03$ . This means that the multiple models contributed 3% in understanding political engagement. The ANOVA summary ( $F$  ratio) shows that the adjusted  $R^2$  value was significant at  $F(3, 1154) = 13.49, P < .01$ . Specifically, the unstandardized beta values for each of the predictor factors were for Love of money  $\beta = .09^*, P < .05$ . For prosocial behaviour  $\beta = .18^{**}, P < .01$ . Personal sense of power  $\beta = .13^{**}, P < .01$ .

The results of hypotheses 2 and 3 can be seen in modules 2, 3, 4 and 5 (see Table 2).

Model 2 tested the predictive strength of love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power on Electoral behaviour. The overall module contributed to 2% of Electoral Behavior (Adjusted  $R^2 = .02$ ). The  $F$ -ratio was also significant  $F(3, 1154) = 10.21, p < .001$ . The unstandardized beta coefficient of each predictor variable is love of money  $\beta = .10^{**} < .01$ , prosocial behavior  $\beta = .13^{**} < .000$ , and personal sense of power revealed  $\beta = .14^{**} < .01$ .

Model 3 tested the predictive strength of love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power on Attentiveness domain. The overall module contributed to 1% of Attentiveness (Adjusted  $R^2 = .01$ ). The  $F$ -ratio was also significant  $F(3, 1154) = 6.23, p < .01$ . The standard beta coefficient of each predictor variable is love of money  $\beta = .02 > .05$ , prosocial behaviour  $\beta = .14^{**} < .01$ , and personal sense of power revealed  $\beta = .05 > .05$ .

Model 4 tested the predictive strength of love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power on Political voice domain. The overall module contributed to 4% of Political voice (Adjusted  $R^2 = .04$ ). The  $F$ -ratio was also significant  $F(3, 1154) = 17.55, p < .000$ . The standard beta coefficient of each predictor variable is love of money  $\beta = .09 > .05$ , prosocial behaviour  $\beta = -.06 < .05$ , and personal sense of power revealed  $\beta = .12^{**} > .05$ .

Model 5 tested the predictive strength of love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power on Social media domain. The overall module contributed to 11% of Social media

(Adjusted  $R^2 = .11$ ). The  $F$ -ratio was also significant  $F(3, 1154) = 47.31, p < .000$ . The standard beta coefficient of each predictor variable is love of money  $\beta = .19 < .01$ , prosocial behaviour  $\beta = .30^{**} < .000$ , and personal sense of power revealed  $\beta = .10^* < .05$ .

### Summary of Result

1. Love of money significantly and positively predicted political engagement at  $\beta = .09^*$ ,  $P < .05$  and electoral behaviour at  $\beta = .10^{**} < .01$ .
2. Prosocial behaviour significantly and positively predicted political engagement at  $\beta = .18^{**}$ ,  $P < .01$ ; electoral behaviour at  $\beta = .13^{**} < .000$ , attentiveness  $\beta = .14^{**} < .01$ , and social media engagement at  $\beta = .30^{**} < .000$ .
3. Personal sense of power significantly and positively predicted political engagement at  $\beta = .13^{**}$ ,  $P < .01$ ; electoral behaviour  $\beta = .14^{**} < .01$ , political voice  $\beta = .12^{**} > .05$ , and social media engagement  $\beta = .10^* < .05$ .

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The study examined Love of Money, Prosocial Behavior and Personal Sense of Power as predictors of Political Engagement, electoral behaviour, attentiveness, political voice and social media engagement. The finding of association between love of money and political engagement was consistent with earlier studies (Ana, 2013; Leight, et al; 2016; Cruzei et al; 2018; Canare, Mendoza, & Lopez, 2018; Baezi, Camacho, Zarate, & Conover, 2018); Filipovich et al; 2018).

Earlier studies as examined in review of related literature revealed that love of money manifested in different forms such as vote selling, vote-buying, acceptance of incentives (money, gift) and conditional cash transfers). In each of these forms in which love of money manifested, it was evident that the goal for such manipulation by the political patrons or incumbent government was to increase political engagement of the targeted groups through inducement by money or material rewards. The targets of this form of transactions were usually the impoverished members of the society. The transaction between the political patrons and the electorates was referred to as political clientism (Verdier, 2013). According to Baez et al; (2018) undergraduates who have positive attitude towards love of money would sell their votes to get money and engage in politics but, lose focus of their political interests. This position is also sustained by Leight, et al; (2018) who argues that in cost benefits analysis, politicians adopt vote-buying because it is more effective than information campaign in generating electoral support and greater political engagement.

Therefore, love of money may account for the current level of political engagement of the undergraduates in south eastern Nigeria. As a result, undergraduates in south east were eager to engage in politics as a result of being motivated with money, gifts, or other forms of monetary rewards. Perhaps, this explains the reason why most students volunteer to campaign for politicians to the detriment of their studies. It was found that love of money did predict Electoral behavior and global political engagement, but failed to predict attentiveness, social media engagement and political voice. The electoral domain of political engagement is the aspect of political engagement in which an undergraduate votes, encourages others to do the same for a political patron or an incumbent who may have advanced positive motivation in terms of cash and or other material resources. It appears that electoral behavior is more predisposed to actions



that bring result in retaining or changing government which is the control of resource and seat of power. Therefore, undergraduates know that when they work with politician the reward comes immediately, so they key in. One could also understand the reason these undergraduates widen the scope of electoral behavior to some unethical dimensions such as falsifying voters result, destruction of polling booths, snatching of polling booths and sometimes vandalism of electoral building. Perhaps this explains the reason why many undergraduates do not engage in political activities. Since, undergraduates who engage in unethical behaviours were rewarded by politicians and incumbent government other undergraduates who may not fit into this type of political practice could decide to avoid political activities.

More also, this could lead to the perception that politics was a dirty game which has been a general notion since ancient time. These undergraduates that engage in unethical political practices, also seem to be aggressive, since the only language the politicians and incumbent government wish to hear was result. Consequently, undergraduates were not concerned with the attentiveness, social media engagement or political voice, since cost-benefit analysis result reveal that it pays more to get undergraduates who need money to work for politicians. Perhaps, this approach is because action is more potent through electoral activities that have to deal with electorates and voting processes than other political outlets. Of course, neither political patrons nor incumbent governments would be interested to spend money on any other aspect of political engagement other than where the resources promise to reward them handsomely. This means that to the average politician, election and political activities seems to be business. No wonder politicians go to any length to borrow or raise funds for politics.

The domain of social media was not predicted despite that in the contemporary time, undergraduates seem to have been so addicted to mobile phones that they cannot live their lives without mobile phones and the internet. Today, among the undergraduates, it is about mobile phone and data subscription. As a result most undergraduates have come to embrace the use of mobile phone. Accordingly, the uses of the mobile phone and internet have included political engagement. Rainnie et al (2012) found that over 66% of social media users have employed the platforms to post their thoughts about political issues. This application may be because the social media is convenient, easy to reach wider participants within a very short time. According, to

Rainie et al (2012), the proportion of youth that use social media is higher than other groups put together. Therefore, it makes sense to say that the undergraduates are formidable forces to reckon with in the aspect of political engagement.

One could wonder the motivation behind the use of social media as an instrument to addressing political issues in which undergraduates had keyed in. After all, money and gifts serve as inducement in predicting electoral behavior. The reason may be because social media has come with some satisfaction and also an instrument for political discourse, which provides the user with a sense of belonging to an online social group in which the theory of social identity applies (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). In as much as humans crave social interaction, the social media engagement seems to be another type of family where undergraduates belong and events are addressed simultaneously as they arise through Facebook, email, Twitter, Personal Blogs and chat groups. Love of money did not predict Attentiveness and Political Voice. Perhaps one of the reasons why Love of money did not predict Attentiveness and Political Voice may be found in the works of Tang (2006) who reported that individuals that have high love of money may manifest type-A personality traits. Accordingly, type-A personality traits demonstrate impatience, selfishness, aggressive tendencies, profit oriented and non prosocial traits. If these traits manifest in an individual it may be hard or extremely difficult for the individual to engage in non profiting social issues such as having interest in news about politics or discuss politics with authorities in a manner that suggests collective welfare.

The empirical report on love of money, political engagement and electoral behavior domain may be explained in the theory of planned behavior (TPB) by Ajzen (1991). According to the TPB, attitude / personality traits, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control are three factors upon which organized behavior may be predicted. According to the topic under consideration, the dependent variables are Political engagement, Electoral behavior, Attentiveness, Political voice, and Social media. In line with TPB, all dependent variables are considered to be planned behavior which is hybrid of the theory of reasoned action. Furthermore, determinants of planned behavior in the context of the present study are the independent variables; love of money, prosocial behavior and personal sense of power. However, according to Ajzen (1991) the independent variables may not have direct prediction of the dependent variables. Therefore to predict the dependent variables, the independent variables would have to pass through the

attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. Therefore, since the purpose of the present study is to examine actual behavior, the researcher assumes that inclusion of intention may not be necessary.

The thought of carrying out a behavior is regarded as behavioral intention. As a result, love of money may serve as feelings or thought towards incentives, vote buying or selling and acceptance of conditional cash transfers which undergraduates manifest when primed with money. Individuals who have developed political engagement and electoral behavior intentions may likely have developed positive attitude towards love of money. If such level of positive attitude developed in an undergraduate is high such a person may have overcome pressure from the environment (subjective norm). Subjective norm is pressure from the environment which aims at a specific behavioral expectation of an individual.

However, subjective norm may equally be seen as an undergraduate's perception of what is right or wrong. Perhaps, if an undergraduate has positive attitude towards love of money for instance and the individual has much need which may require money to be solved, even if part of the pressure from the environment is what other people expect the undergraduate to do was not to actualize the behavior, the undergraduate would take a decision contrary to subjective norm and move on to the next level (perceived behavioral control) to goal actualization. Perceived behavioral control is the level at which undergraduates' level of confidence or lack of it with respect to the political engagement. According to Ajzen (1991s), a behavior may be manifested only when such behavior is within an individual's control. Perhaps, considering a behavior under one's control may entail looking at one's available resources, considering one's level of confidence in self, considering consequences of one's actions. If these considerations come up positive, the individual may begin to make plans toward engagement with the behaviour (s) under consideration (political engagement and electoral behavior). Such plans may include moving towards the politicians for mobilization, voting, persuading someone to vote a party or candidate and taking instructions from political patrons. The collusion between undergraduates and political patron as well as the incumbent government ensures that remunerations and conditional cash transfers are made possible which then generates increased political engagement behaviors.

Furthermore, the researcher assumes that within the theory of planned behavior, some reasons why attentiveness, social media engagement and Political Voice were not predicted by love of money may be because, the participants did not perceive positive attitude towards other dependent variables. Therefore, the participants were unable to overcome subjective norm and as a result were not in control of the behavior.

The result of hypothesis two was confirmed. This finding is consistent with earlier works by scholars who reported positive association between empathy (a component of prosocial behavior) and political engagement (Kanacri, 2016; Fowler, 2006; Dawes et al 2011). According to Loewen, et al (2017) the association between political engagement and prosocial behavior is so predictive that increase in prosocial behavior is associated with increase in political engagement. Other scholars hold that altruism (a component of prosocial behavior) has positive association with political engagement (Carlo & Randall, 2002; Dunfield, 2013).

In a similar study, it was reported that happiness (a common trait with prosocial individuals) increases political engagement (Baker & Martin, 2011). This may be because prosocial individuals may likely wish to maintain government that deployed polices which might have accounted for their social wellbeing and change those that do not. Consequent upon this the motivation to engage in politics (vote) may arise. Fang et al (2012) reported that higher prosociality predicted higher future political engagement. Therefore, undergraduates who experience higher level of prosociality may be more disposed to engage in political activities. Undergraduates that are prosocial perceive political engagement as a form of sacrifice. As a result coming out and shelving other pressing tasks for political activities is their own way of contributing to maintaining collective social well-being of the society. In a related study, Flavin and Keane (2011) reported that individuals who are prosocial are more predisposed to active political engagement.

Perhaps since the undergraduates perceive political engagement as a form of prosocial behavior it was easy for them to get involved with some domains of political engagement. In the literatures on prosocial behavior, it is assumed that such behaviours are carried out without expectation of reward. Therefore, the undergraduates may see political behaviours as a form of

helping for the public good. This may explain reason why undergraduates who are prosocial may engage in politics through global political engagement and some domains of it (electoral behavior, attentiveness and social media) more than those who are less prosocial. Perhaps, it is a lot easy to understand that prosocial undergraduates are not controlled by rewards. Prosocial undergraduates are motivated by collective goods and benefits. Therefore, it makes sense to know that they could go beyond just political engagement and electoral behaviour unlike the undergraduates that focus on money. According to the assumptions of theory on prosocial behaviour, these prosocial undergraduates make sacrifices to ensure that everyone has benefits. Seemingly, it will be envisaged that these undergraduates could join in peaceful protest, join in writing petition, and denying themselves comforts just to see things improve.

Accordingly, earlier studies showed consistent findings with the present study (Kanacri, 2016; Fouler, 2006; Daves et al; 2011; Dunfield, 2013; Loewen, et al; 2017; Fang et al; 2012; Flavin & Keane, 2011). In line with review of related literature, engagements in politics appear to be a helping behavior to the society at large. Like most helping behavior, it may require sacrifice of some personal resources, such as time, money, energy, and attention to accomplish political engagement goals. As a result, undergraduates who perceive themselves as having high tendency towards prosociality are more likely to endure challenges in order to accomplish political engagement goals. Earlier studies reveal that individuals with different levels of prosocial behaviors may have different levels of political engagement (Jankowski, 2007). This finding is in support of (Flavin & Keane, 2011; Stel & Harinck, 2011) who reported that the higher the level of prosocial behavior the higher the level of political engagement. According to the findings of the result it was evident that some undergraduates in south-eastern Nigeria may engage in politics because of the arousal of prosocial tendencies they felt towards the societal welfare.

The result of hypothesis two may find explanations in the theory of planned behavior. According to the theory of planned behavior, prosocial behavior is a personality trait. Undergraduates who wish to engage in politics will have political engagement intentions which are a cognitive activity. Political engagement intention is a wish to accomplish political engagement activities or behavior. However, such intention may have to be proven strong in the face of subjective norm. Subjective norm is influence or pressure from the environment. Also, subjective norm refers to an individual's perception of what may or may not be acceptable which includes how significant

others expect him to behave. If the undergraduate's trait is higher or defies expectations of subjective others, then the undergraduate would carry on with political engagement. This situation metamorphoses to perceived behavioral control.

Perceived behavioral control refers to one's endowed qualities that are necessary for carrying out a specific behavior (political engagement, electoral behavior, attentiveness, political voice and social media). Now, at this stage the undergraduate's level of available resource has to be examined to ensure that it is enough to overcome stresses and challenges of political engagement. High perceived behavioral control results in the particular individual making plans on how to execute actions that will enable him achieve the behavior under consideration. An individual with high perceived behavioral control implies more predictive behavior intention outcome. Therefore, the undergraduate manifest behaviors such as making sacrifices, helping those who cannot afford to engage in politics and even transporting them to election centers. The prosocial individual also makes data available for other students, speaks out on political issues to friends and family members, visits public officials to report about demerits of government functions, and listens to news on political issues, petitions and joins in peaceful civil marching in protest to government activities. In these activities the prosocial undergraduates may have manifested behaviors in line with the domains of political engagement.

Association between personal sense of power and political engagement was confirmed in the present study on global political engagement and all of its domains except attentiveness. Similarly, earlier findings reported positive association between personal sense of power and political engagement (Caprara, et al; 2006; Solhang, 2006; Leimgruber, 2011; Gahnsky & Dnbrons 2011; Quintelier, 2012; Anderson et al; 2012; Condon & Holleque, 2013; Vecchione, 2014; Hela & Hamza 2015; Weinschert, 2017). The result of the present study showed that undergraduates in south east were aware of the capacity they have to influence change through political engagement, electoral behavior, political voice and social media. Capacity to effect change means that one knows that when he or she engages in political activities they could change the result of political activities of a place. Perhaps the outcome of this study explains the level of political engagement of undergraduates in the south-eastern Nigeria. Studies consistently emphasized the need for someone to believe in himself or herself (a component of PSP) as the

basis for successful accomplishments in political tasks. If an undergraduate does not have personal sense of power such a person may not see the need to engage in politics. This is because presence of personal sense power enables one to become aware of his or her ability to initiate and sustain action towards a goal directed behavior (political engagement and its domains). Perhaps, one could say that motivation to engage in politics in line with personal sense of power is intrinsic because it is dependent on the individual. Personal sense of power also refers to self will, political efficacies which are trait-like and vary from one person to another person. As a result, while some undergraduates engage easily in politics, others appear not to be interested. Relationship between personal sense of power and political engagement and its domains may find explanation in the theory of planned behavior.

According to the theory of planned behavior, by Ajzen (1991), personal sense of power is a personality trait. Personality traits vary from one individual to another. In line with the TPB, attitude and personality traits are affected by subjective norm. Perhaps, if an undergraduate's trait is high it implies that the undergraduate has tendency to overcome subjective norm. Subjective norm is expectation of how or what one should do by significant others. It also refers to pressures that come from the environment on what ones trait will be. However, since subjective norm has to do with the undergraduate evaluation of both personal and environmental factors, the undergraduate may damn the environmental definition to choose what he or she feels his personal sense of power should be. When this happens, the undergraduate assumes a higher sense of power. Undergraduate with high sense of power may overcome what or how significant others expectation of him/her is.

Perceived behavioral control assesses the degree of personal sense of power undergraduate has in order to overcome challenges that stand in the way to achieve political engagement. Such assessment of personal sense of power includes self will, self determination, self belief, and political self efficacy. Positive assessment of PSP leads to higher level of political engagement. Higher level of personal sense of power is more predictive of political engagement than political engagement intentions. This is because once an undergraduate has positive assessment of PSP, he /she begins to make plans on execution of political engagement behaviors. Such plans may include mapping strategies on how to make political engagement a success. Execution plans include; speaking to people about ones political intentions, display of political materials, voting

during election, campaigning for or against political party of incumbent government, joining in peaceful demonstrations, and using social media to address political issues.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The sample size of the present study was 1,158 participants. This sample is only a small portion of the entire population of undergraduates in South-East Nigeria. As such, choice of Federal universities was considered a limitation.

Literature on relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables were not locally available. Also, literatures linking the independent variables to some domains of political engagement were not available such as electoral behaviour, attentiveness, political voice and social media engagement. As a result the study focused more on global political engagement. As is common with self reports, there is possibility of bias in the response of participants.

### **Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies**

To improve political engagement among undergraduates in the South-East Nigeria, it was recommended that efforts should be made to ensure that:

1. Incumbent government and politicians should deploy welfare schemes to federal universities in South-East as this may motivate more undergraduates to engage in politics.
2. Incumbent government and politicians should enhance the living conditions in our federal universities to enable students engage in politics.
3. Government and politicians should create seminars to expose undergraduates to the power they have in making change in democratic governance through political engagement.

It was suggested that more work should be embarked on with undergraduates in state, and private universities in the South-East Nigeria. This may strengthen the result of the present study. Studies may be focused on interaction effects of the independent variables of the present study to



examine how they associate with political engagement and its domains. Also, studies should be carried out using mixed method, so that the weakness of self report may be overcome.

### **Implications of the Study**

Implications of the present study include the following:

1. Love of money was a significant and positive predictor of political engagement, and Electoral Behavior, among undergraduates in South-East Nigerian undergraduates. This means that undergraduates who have love of money (and other monetary incentives) and are motivated accordingly may engage in politics.
2. Prosocial behavior positively and significantly predicted political engagement, Electoral Behavior, Attentiveness, and Social Media among undergraduates in South-East Nigeria. This means that undergraduates in South-East Nigeria who are happy, empathic, and altruistic and satisfied with living conditions in campus may engage in politics.
3. Personal sense was a significant and positive predictor of political engagement, electoral behavior, political voice and social media engagement among undergraduates in south-East Nigeria. This means that undergraduates in South-East Nigeria are aware of the capacity they have to influence outcome in politics.

### **Conclusion**

The present study investigated love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power as predictors of political engagement among undergraduates in south-east Nigeria. The design of the study investigated predictive influence of love of money, prosocial behaviour and personal sense of power on political engagement among undergraduates in south-east Nigeria. The findings confirmed that some undergraduates in south east Nigeria may engage in political activities because they have love of money. Empirical review suggested that politicians had earlier applied related concepts to love of money such as conditional cash transfer, targeted programmes and vote buying in seeking more political involvement among electorates. Also, the targets of the electorates were people living mainly in poor regions of the society. However, such recipients were forced to vote sometimes against their wish. Yet still youths were not fully represented in the electoral process. It was noted that the incumbent and political leaders sometimes influence the youths to engage in anti political activities such as ballot box snatching,

and instigating violence in areas where they may feel disadvantaged. However, the present study found that if undergraduates are motivated as a group, through scholarship programmes, healthcare benefits and free WiFi facilities, they may likely perceive the need to engage in politics.

Furthermore, prosocial behavior literatures reviewed hold that when people are happy and satisfied with life they will be more likely engage in political activities. The fact that undergraduates are satisfied with life may serve as a motivator for them to engage in altruistic behaviours even in the face of impending sacrifice. Undergraduates whose living conditions have been enhanced with reasonable facilities and perceive themselves as comfortable may sense happiness which is essential ingredient in political behaviour. Finally, undergraduates who are aware of their personal sense of power seem to perceive things from different sides. They appear to be courageous, fearless and strong in the face of challenges. Personal sense of power is a form of self efficacy that enables one to initiate and accomplish a goal directed behaviour. Therefore, enhancement of personal sense of power among south east undergraduates may increase their self worth and political engagement.

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## APPENDIX

### SECTION A

#### Personal Data

Please fill in the blanks and tick (✓) the best option/ response that apply to you.

**Age:**.....

**Marital status:** Married {  }, Single {  }, Divorced {  }, Separated {  }

**Religion:** Christian {  }, Muslim {  }, Others {  }

**Educational qualification:** please tick your highest qualification.

(SSCE) {  }, OND {  }, NCE {  }, HND {  }

**Study level:** 100 {  } 200 {  } 300 {  } 400 {  } 500 {  }

**State of origin**.....

**Occupation:** civil servant {  } student {  } Trader {  }

**Registered voter:** Yes {  }, No {  }

**Registered member of a political party:** Yes {  }, No {  }

**Voted within the past election:** Yes {  } No {  }

**Confidence in government:** Yes {  } No {  }

**Belief in government developmental program:** Yes {  } No {  }

**Membership with social group:** Yes {  }, No {  }

**Membership with religious group:** Yes {  }, No {  }

## SECTION B

## INSTRUCTION

## PART 1

The statements below represent the degree to which a person is engaged in politics. Please indicate how accurately each statement describes your behavior by ticking (✓) one of the numbers after each statement.

**Always = 5 (A), Very Often = 4 (VO), Sometimes = 3 (S), Rarely = 2 (R), Never = 1 (N)**

Please this scale represents how individuals perceive money, kindly go through the items one

	<b>In the past, how frequently have you being involved in the following.....</b>	1	2	3	4	5
1	Attended meetings called by political organization, or candidates running for office?	1	2	3	4	5
2	Voted during elections?	1	2	3	4	5
3	Talked to people and try to show them why they should vote for or against any party or candidates?	1	2	3	4	5
4	Put a political sticker on your car, or any other belongings?	1	2	3	4	5
5	Placed a political sign in front of your house or business?	1	2	3	4	5
6	Wore a campaign button?	1	2	3	4	5
7	Contacted personally by someone to vote for or against any candidate for political office?	1	2	3	4	5
8	Contacted by someone personally to work for or contribute money to a candidate, or political party?	1	2	3	4	5
9	Worked for or contributed money to a candidate?	1	2	3	4	5
10	Contacted or visited a public official at any level of government to express your opinion?	1	2	3	4	5
11	Contacted a newspaper or magazine to express your opinion on a public issue?*	1	2	3	4	5
12	Called in to a radio or television talk show to express your opinion on a political issue?	1	2	3	4	5
13	Taken part in a protest march or demonstration?	1	2	3	4	5
14	Signed an e-mail petition about a political issue?	1	2	3	4	5
15	Posted links to political stories for others to read on internet?	1	2	3	4	5
16	Posted your own thoughts about political issues on the internet?	1	2	3	4	5
17	Encouraged others to vote on the internet?	1	2	3	4	5
18	“Liked” and promote materials related to political issues that others have posted on the internet?	1	2	3	4	5
19	Worked as a campaigner for a political group or candidate?	1	2	3	4	5
20	Talked about politics or government with family?	1	2	3	4	5
21	Mobilized support for a political course?	1	2	3	4	5
22	Read a newspaper?	1	2	3	4	5
23	Read news magazines online?	1	2	3	4	5
24	Watched or read news on the internet?	1	2	3	4	5
25	Watch a political program on Radio or TV?	1	2	3	4	5
26	Watched news on TV or listened to news on Radio?	1	2	3	4	5



after the other and circle options that best reflect your feelings. There no right and wrong answers.

**(1) Strongly disagree, (2) Disagree (3) Undecided (4) Agree and (5) strongly agree.**

1	I want to be rich.					
2	It would be nice to be rich.					
3	Having a lot of money (being rich) is good.					
4	I am motivated to work hard for money.					
5	Money reinforces me to work harder.					
6	I am highly motivated by money.					
7	Money is good.					
8	Money is important.					
9	Money is valuable					

### Part 3

**Instruction:** Please read the following statements and tick the category that conforms to the frequency with which you can carry out the following acts. There is no right or wrong answer. The numbers stands for 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

S/N	ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1.	I enjoy helping others					
2.	I stopped helping people because there is no gain in it					
3.	I make personal sacrifice to make others comfortable					
4.	At any cost, I can help a sick person to the hospital					
5.	I am happy when people around me are happy					
6.	Contributing to charity is something I have considered severally					
7.	It is Godly to work for the well-being of one's community					
8.	I do things that make others happy					
9.	Helping others can put you in trouble					
10.	I am generous because I share the little I have with others					
11.	It is unspeakable to see people dying without the help from people around					
12.	I feel proud and fulfilled whenever I have helped somebody in need of assistance					

**PART 4**

This section concerns how you feel about your personal Power. Please read the statements carefully and feel free to respond to the items as it appeals to you. The response options are from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). There is neither right, nor wrong answer. Please use the following keys:

**1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Disagree a little, 4= Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5= Agree a Little, 6=Agree, 7= Agree Strongly**

1	I can get people to listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My wishes do not carry much weight.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I can get people to do what I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Even though I say my view they do not carry much influence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I think I have a great deal of power.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My ideas and opinions are often ignored.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Even when I try, I am not able to get my way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	If I want to, I get to make the decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### APPENDIX 1

#### Presidential Election Results from 1979-2015

S/N	Year	No of registered voters (100%)	No of valid votes (%)	No of invalid votes (%)	Sum of valid and invalid votes (%)	No of registered voters who did not vote
1	1979	Record not available	15,140,144	Record not available	15,140,144	
2	1983	Record not available	14,293,396	Record not available	142,293, 396	
3	1999	57, 938, 945 (100%)	29,848,441(51.52%)	431,611 (0.745)	302,280,052(5.26)	27,658,893 (47.7)
4	2003	60,823,022(100%)	39,450,489 (69.11%)	2,538,246	41,988,735(69.03)	18,834,287(30.97)
5	2007	61,567,036(100%)	35,397,517 (57.5%)		35,397,517(57.49)	26,169,519(42.50)
6	2011	73,538,040(100%)n	38,209,978(52%)	1,259,506 (1.71%)	39,469,484(53.68)	34,058,556(46.32)
7	2015	68,833,476(100%)	28,587,564 (41.53)	822,519 (1.227)	29.432,083 (42.76)	39,401,393(57.24)

**Source:** Vanguard new paper on April 23, 2011, 7:59Am. Presidential election1996-2011 in figures.

Presidential election result 2015

Source: [http://www.inecnigerian.org/election result](http://www.inecnigerian.org/election%20result)

### APPENDIX 11

Estimated population of Nigeria some from Worldmeter.info

S/N	Year	Population	± P.A %
1.	2018	195,875,37	+2.61%
2.	2017	180,886,311	+2.63%
3.	2016	185,989,640	+ 2.65
4.	2015	181,181,744	+2.70%
5.	2010	158,578,261	+2.68%
6.	2005	138,939,478	+2.58%
7.	2000	122,352,009	+2.52%
8.	1995	108,011,465	+2.54%
9	1990	95,269,988	+2.64%
10	1985	83,613,300	+2.62%
11.	1980	73,460,724	+3.00%
12	1975	63,373,572	+2.51%

Result is based on current population of Nigeria as at Wednesday November 15<sup>th</sup> 2017, United Nations Estimate. (+, -) percentage increase.

**RESULT OF PILOT TESTS****RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR DOMAIN OF POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.755	9

**RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF POLITICAL VOICE DOMAIN OF POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.692	5

**RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF SOCIAL MEDIA DOMAIN OF POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.610	9

### RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF ATTENTIVENESS

Cronbach Alpha	N of items
.70	3

### CORRELATIONS OF GLOBAL POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT AND GLOBAL PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

		POLENGAG EMENT	PROSOCIA LBEHAVIO R
POL ENGAGEMENT	Pearson Correlation	1	.620**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.268
	N	100	100
PROSOCIALBEHAV IOR	Pearson Correlation	.620**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.268	
	N	100	100

**CORRELATIONS OF GLOBAL POLENGAGEMENT AND SATISFACTION WITH LIFE**

		POLENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTIONWITHLIFE
POLENGAGEMENT	Pearson Correlation	1	.615**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.787
	N	100	100
SATISFACTIONWITHLIFE	Pearson Correlation	.615**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.787	
	N	100	100

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**INTER-CORRELATIONS OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR, POLITICAL VOICE  
AND ONLINE POL VOICE**

		ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR	POLITICAL VOICE	SOCIAL MEDIA	ATTENTIVE NESS
ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  100			
POLITICAL VOICE	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.350* .124 100	1  100		
SOCIAL MEDIA	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.416* .023 100	.519* .380 100	1  100	
ATTENTIVE NESS	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-Tail) N	.491* .130 100	.412** .031 100	.404** .142 100	1

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

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).



**RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR**

<b>Cronbach Alpha</b>	<b>N of items</b>
.76	9

**RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF POLITICAL VOICE**

<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>N of items</b>
.69	5

**RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF SOCIAL MEDIA**

<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>N of items</b>
.65	9

**RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF ATTENTIVENESS**

<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>N of items</b>
.70	3

**RELIABILITY STATISTICS LOVE OF MONEY SCALE**

<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>N of Items</b>
.78	9

### CORRELATIONS OF LOVE OF MONEY SCALE AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

		PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR	LOMS
		R	
PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR	Pearson Correlation	1	-.42**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
LOMS	Pearson Correlation	-.42**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR RELIABILITY

Cronbach's Alpha <sup>a</sup>	N of Items
.80	12

### RELIABILITY OF PERSONAL SENSE OF POWER SCALE

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.80	8

**CORRELATIONS OF PERSONAL SENSE OF POWER AND GENERAL SELF EFFICACY SCALE**

		PERSONAL SENSE NOFPOWE R	GENERAL SELFEFFICA CY
PERSONAL SENSE OF POWER	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  100	.52**  100
GENSELFEFFICACY	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.52** .405 100	1  100

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

**PERSONAL SENSE OF POWER AND DIMENSIONS OF BIG FIVE INVENTORY**

		PERSONAL SENSE OF POWER	NEUROTICIS M	EXTRAVERSI ON	CONSCIENTIO USNESS
PERSONAL SENSE OF POWER	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  100			
NEUROTICISM	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.38* .124 100	1  100		
EXTRAVERSION	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.401* .023 100	.416* .380 100	1  100	
CONSCIENTIOUSNESS	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-Tail) N	.362* .014 100	.123 .100 100	.321** .021 100	1  100

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

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

## Reliability

### POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT SCALE

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.830	26

### Reliability Statistics LOVE OF MONEY SCALE

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.803	9

### Reliability Statistics OF PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.584	12

### Reliability Statistics OF PERSONAL SENSE OF POWER SCALE

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.709	8

## Correlations

		POLENGA GEMENT	LOVEOF MONEY	PROSOCIA LBEHAVIO R	PERSONALSENSE OFFPOWER	ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR	ATTENTIVE NESS	POLITICALVOICE	SOCIALMEDIA
POLENGA GEMENT	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	1 .060* 1158	.060* .040 1158	.137** .000 1158	-.031 .288 1158	.895** .000 1158	.829** .000 1158	.847** .000 1158	.839** .000 1158
LOVEOF MONEY	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.060* .040 1158	1 .040 1158	.099** .001 1158	.362** .000 1158	.058* .049 1158	.012 .691 1158	-.139** .000 1158	.178** .000 1158
PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.137** .000 1158	.099** .001 1158	1 .000 1158	.377** .000 1158	.090** .002 1158	.120** .000 1158	-.119** .000 1158	.281** .000 1158
PERSONA LSENSEOF POWER	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	-.031 .288 1158	.362** .000 1158	.377** .000 1158	1 .052 1158	-.057 .052 1158	.011 .713 1158	-.186** .000 1158	.078** .008 1158
ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.895** .000 1158	.058* .049 1158	.090** .002 1158	-.057 .052 1158	1 .000 1158	.772** .000 1158	.767** .000 1158	.560** .000 1158
ATTENTI VENESS	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.829** .000 1158	.012 .691 1158	.120** .000 1158	.011 .713 1158	.772** .000 1158	1 .000 1158	.612** .000 1158	.586** .000 1158
POLITICA LVOICE	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.847** .000 1158	-.139** .000 1158	-.119** .000 1158	-.186** .000 1158	.767** .000 1158	.612** .000 1158	1 .000 1158	.573** .000 1158
SOCIAL MEDIA	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.839** .000 1158	.178** .000 1158	.281** .000 1158	.078** .008 1158	.560** .000 1158	.586** .000 1158	.573** .000 1158	1 1158

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

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**REGRESSION**

```

/MISSING LISTWISE
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
/NOORIGIN
/DEPENDENT POLENGAGEMENT
/METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER.

```

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.184 <sup>a</sup>	.034	.031	20.07393

a. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	16303.362	3	5434.454	13.486	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	465019.135	1154	402.963		
	Total	481322.497	1157			

a. Dependent Variable: POLENGAGEMENT

b. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	25.059	7.579		3.307	.001
	LOVEOFMONEY	.279	.096	.090	2.901	.004
	PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR	.829	.146	.178	5.677	.000
	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER	-.308	.079	.131	3.919	.000

a. Dependent Variable: POLENGAGEMENT

**REGRESSION**

```

/MISSING LISTWISE
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
/NOORIGIN
/DEPENDENT ELECTORALBEHAVIOR
/METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER.

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**Regression****Notes**

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**Variables Entered/Removed<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR <sup>b</sup>	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: ELECTORALBEHAVIOR

b. All requested variables entered.

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.161 <sup>a</sup>	.026	.023	7.00476

a. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1502.451	3	500.817	10.207	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	56622.852	1154	49.067		
	Total	58125.302	1157			

a. Dependent Variable: ELECTORALBEHAVIOR

b. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.200	2.645		2.344	.019
	LOVEOFMONEY	.104	.034	.096	3.085	.002
	PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR	.218	.051	.134	4.282	.000
	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER	-.117	.027	.143	4.256	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ELECTORALBEHAVIOR

**REGRESSION**

```

/MISSING LISTWISE
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
/NOORIGIN
/DEPENDENT ATTENTIVENESS
/METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER.

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**Regression****Notes**

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	Cases Used	Statistics are based on cases with no missing values for any variable used.
Syntax		REGRESSION /MISSING LISTWISE /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10) /NOORIGIN /DEPENDENT ATTENTIVENESS /METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER.
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	Additional Memory Required for Residual Plots	0 bytes

Variables Entered/Removed<sup>a</sup>

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR <sup>b</sup>		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: ATTENTIVENESS

b. All requested variables entered.

#### Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.126 <sup>a</sup>	.016	.013	3.59914

a. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

#### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	241.653	3	80.551	6.218	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	14948.727	1154	12.954		
	Total	15190.380	1157			

a. Dependent Variable: ATTENTIVENESS

b. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.664	1.359		1.960	.050
	LOVEOFMONEY	.008	.017	.015	.472	.637
	PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR	.112	.026	.136	4.294	.000
	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER	.019	.014	.046	1.354	.176

a. Dependent Variable: ATTENTIVENESS

## REGRESSION

/MISSING LISTWISE

/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA

/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

/NOORIGIN

/DEPENDENT POLITICALVOICE

/METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER.

## Regression

### Notes

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	Cases Used	Statistics are based on cases with no missing values for any variable used.
Syntax		<pre> REGRESSION   /MISSING LISTWISE   /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA   /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)   /NOORIGIN   /DEPENDENT POLITICALVOICE   /METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER. </pre>
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**Variables Entered/Removed<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	PERSONALSENS EOPPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEH AVIOR <sup>b</sup>		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: POLITICALVOICE

b. All requested variables entered.

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.209 <sup>a</sup>	.044	.041	4.80749

a. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1216.681	3	405.560	17.548	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	26671.173	1154	23.112		
	Total	27887.855	1157			

a. Dependent Variable: POLITICALVOICE

b. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	17.498	1.815		9.641	.000
	LOVEOFMONEY	-.064	.023	-.085	-2.758	.006
	PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR	-.068	.035	-.060	-1.939	.053
	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER	-.075	.019	.132	3.987	.000

a. Dependent Variable: POLITICALVOICE

## REGRESSION

/MISSING LISTWISE

/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA

/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

/NOORIGIN

/DEPENDENT SOCIALMEDIA

/METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER.

## Regression

### Notes

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	Cases Used	Statistics are based on cases with no missing values for any variable used.
Syntax		<pre> REGRESSION   /MISSING LISTWISE   /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA   /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)   /NOORIGIN   /DEPENDENT SOCIALMEDIA   /METHOD=ENTER LOVEOFMONEY PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER. </pre>
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**Variables Entered/Removed<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR <sup>b</sup>		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIALMEDIA

b. All requested variables entered.

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.331 <sup>a</sup>	.110	.107	7.75956

a. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8545.514	3	2848.505	47.309	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	69483.146	1154	60.211		
	Total	78028.660	1157			

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIALMEDIA

b. Predictors: (Constant), PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER, LOVEOFMONEY, PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.302	2.930		-.444	.657
	LOVEOFMONEY	.231	.037	.185	6.209	.000
	PROSOCIALBEHAVIOR	.566	.056	.301	10.032	.000
	PERSONALSENSEOFPOWER	-.097	.030	.102	3.197	.001

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIALMEDIA

```
FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=AGE GENDER GEOGRAPZONE MARITALSTATUS RELIGION
  /STATISTICS=STDDEV MINIMUM MAXIMUM MEAN
  /ORDER=ANALYSIS.
```

## GENDER

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	MALE	541	46.7	46.7	46.7
	FEMALE	617	53.3	53.3	100.0
	Total	1158	100.0	100.0	

## RELIGION

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	CHRISTIANITY	1146	99.0	99.0	99.0
	MUSLIM	12	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	1158	100.0	100.0	

```
FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=GENDER
  /ORDER=ANALYSIS.
```

GET

```
FILE='C:\Users\frank\Desktop\INTERNAL_STAGE\AFTTER.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
COMPUTE ELECTORALBEHAVIOR=VAR00002 + VAR00003 + VAR00005 + VAR00006 +
VAR00007 + VAR00008 + VAR00009 + VAR00019.
```

```
EXECUTE.  
COMPUTE ATTENTIVENESS=VAR00004 + VAR00020 + VAR00021.  
EXECUTE.  
COMPUTE POLITICALVOICE=VAR00010 + VAR00011 + VAR00012 + VAR00013 + VAR00014.  
EXECUTE.  
COMPUTE SOCIALMEDIA=VAR00015 + VAR00016 + VAR00017 + VAR00018 + VAR00022 +  
VAR00023 + VAR00024 + VAR00025 + VAR00026 + VAR00027.  
EXECUTE.  
RELIABILITY  
  /VARIABLES=VAR00002 VAR00003 VAR00005 VAR00006 VAR00007 VAR00008 VAR00009  
VAR00019  
  /SCALE('ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR DOMAIN OF POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT') ALL  
  /MODEL=ALPHA.
```

## Reliability

### Notes

Output Created		06-APR-2019 17:03:57
Comments		
Input	Data	C:\Users\frank\Desktop\INTERNAL STAGE\AFTTER PROPOSAL.sav
	Active Dataset	DataSet1
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	1158
	Matrix Input	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
	Cases Used	Statistics are based on all cases with valid data for all variables in the procedure.
Syntax		<pre> RELIABILITY   /VARIABLES=VAR00002 VAR00003 VAR00005 VAR00006 VAR00007 VAR00008 VAR00009 VAR00019   /SCALE('ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR DOMAIN OF POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT') ALL   /MODEL=ALPHA. </pre>
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.02
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.06

[DataSet1] C:\Users\frank\Desktop\INTERNAL STAGE\AFTTER PROPOSAL DR.  
NWAFOR.sav

## Scale: ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR DOMAIN OF POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	1158	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	1158	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.831	8

### RELIABILITY

```

/VARIABLES=VAR00004 VAR00020 VAR00021
/SCALE('ATTENTIVENESS') ALL
/MODEL=ALPHA.

```

## Reliability

### Notes

Output Created		06-APR-2019 17:05:16
Comments		
Input	Data	C:\Users\frank\Desktop\INTERNAL STAGE\AFTTER PROPOSAL.sav
	Active Dataset	DataSet1
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	1158
	Matrix Input	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
	Cases Used	Statistics are based on all cases with valid data for all variables in the procedure.
Syntax		RELIABILITY /VARIABLES=VAR00004 VAR00020 VAR00021 /SCALE('ATTENTIVENESS') ALL /MODEL=ALPHA.
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.02
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.02

## Scale: ATTENTIVENESS

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	1158	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	1158	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.680	3

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00010 VAR00011 VAR00012 VAR00013 VAR00014

/SCALE('POLITICAL VOICE') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

## Reliability

### Notes

Output Created		06-APR-2019 17:06:35
Comments		
Input	Data	C:\Users\frank\Desktop\INTERNAL STAGE\AFTTER PROPOSAL.sav
	Active Dataset	DataSet1
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	1158
	Matrix Input	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
	Cases Used	Statistics are based on all cases with valid data for all variables in the procedure.
Syntax		RELIABILITY /VARIABLES=VAR00010 VAR00011 VAR00012 VAR00013 VAR00014 /SCALE('POLITICAL VOICE') ALL /MODEL=ALPHA.
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.00
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.02



## Scale: POLITICAL VOICE

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	1158	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	1158	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.889	5

RELIABILITY

```

/VARIABLES=VAR00015 VAR00016 VAR00017 VAR00018 VAR00022 VAR00023 VAR00024
VAR00025 VAR00026 VAR00027
/SCALE('SOCIAL MEDIA') ALL
/MODEL=ALPHA.

```

## Reliability

### Notes

Output Created		06-APR-2019 17:08:12
Comments		
Input	Data	C:\Users\frank\Desktop\INTERNAL STAGE\AFTTER PROPOSAL.sav
	Active Dataset	DataSet1
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	1158
	Matrix Input	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
	Cases Used	Statistics are based on all cases with valid data for all variables in the procedure.
Syntax		RELIABILITY /VARIABLES=VAR00015 VAR00016 VAR00017 VAR00018 VAR00022 VAR00023 VAR00024 VAR00025 VAR00026 VAR00027 /SCALE('SOCIAL MEDIA') ALL /MODEL=ALPHA.
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.02
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.03

**Scale: SOCIAL MEDIA****Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	1158	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	1158	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.727	10