Understanding the Phenomenon of Lower Youth Voter Turnout in Guwahati

Ayush Sharma[1] and Roumi Deb[2]

[1]*Student, B.Sc. (hons) Anthropology, Final Semester, Department of Anthropology,*
Amity University Noida, E-mail- sarnaayush628@gmail.com
[2]*Head of Department, Department of Anthropology, Amity University Noida.*

Abstract: Elections are a crucial element for a democracy to function efficiently and act as a mechanism of checks and balances for elected representatives. Various democratic nations are facing a problem of low voter turnout, particularly among young people. The high level of inconsistencies in the turnout of youth is a matter of concern. India, the world's largest democracy, is also facing this issue. As a hub of the majority population, the voter turnout numbers and the gap between urban and rural areas are concerning. The present study was conducted in Guwahati, Assam, to understand the reasons for low voter turnout among youth and explore their knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions regarding the electoral process. The findings reveal various factors behind low voter participation, such as migration for education, low awareness, and several others. Additionally, the concepts of compulsory voting and the role of the media were also highlighted. Thus, elections serve as the backbone of democracy, and every voter needs to exercise their right to vote.

Keywords: Democracy, Elections, Voting, Youth and Rights.

Introduction

Election is one of the most crucial processes for a democratic nation. It is a process through which representatives are elected so that the voices of the commoner are heard and raised inside the Parliament so that new laws, decisions and strategies are framed and implemented for the development of people and the nation. Thus, we can say that elections decide the fate of a nation and the future of democracy is protected by it. Hence, voting becomes an essential tool for citizens to determine who

can lead the country and fighting for their issues, making the elected representatives accountable. Election is not a 20th-century phenomenon, but it has existed since ancient times.

Electoral systems first emerged in ancient civilizations. Ancient Greek societies employed a voting system through ostracism, which led to the ten-year exile of individuals deemed threatening to the state. Ostracism demonstrated the Athenians' strong commitment to defending their state against potential tyrannical rule. During the Roman Republic, multiple electoral bodies were created through an intricate system that established public assemblies based on social and economic group divisions. The political influence of Roman society heavily favoured elite groups because the assemblies gave their elite members superior control in both legislative decision-making and magistracy appointments (Yakobson, 1999). The medieval period saw the emergence of proto-democratic institutions, primarily in Europe, which eventually led to the establishment of representative systems of governance. In 1215, the Magna Carta became the foundation for developing parliamentary democracy in England. During the 13th century, the Parliament began to select representatives from counties and boroughs, although landowners made up most of those elected voters (Pallister, 2015). Under the Venetian Republic, a distinctive electoral method was employed for Doge selection, combining voting and lotteries to prevent power abuse and maintain power diffusion, thereby establishing early electoral checks and balances (Muir, 2003).

India has experienced a substantial development in its electoral systems. Chola dynasty inscriptions reveal that villages had assemblies called sabhas, which followed complex procedures for member selection, serving as an early version of representative governing systems. British colonizers introduced a formal voting system to India when they established control over the region. The Indian Councils Act of 1861 introduced elected councils to the government, but these institutions included few representatives from India. Indian representation grew in successive reforms, starting with the Morley-Minto Reforms in 1909 and continuing with the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms in 1919, which introduced communal electorates. Through the Government of India Act of 1935, India reached a significant milestone when provincial legislatures gained electorates that paved the way for self-governance (Low, 1991).

India demonstrated its commitment to democratic principles by implementing universal adult suffrage, despite its diverse cultural landscape, following its

independence in 1947 and despite facing significant social and economic challenges. The 1951–52 election became historic because it included 173 million eligible voters, who were predominantly illiterate, at a rate of 85 per cent. The Election Commission of India has made multiple efforts to educate voters while building strong electoral systems (Brass, 2001). The democratic process in India has maintained continuous elections, allowing for peaceful transfers of power between governments, while the number of political parties has multiplied. Since the 1990s, voters received enhanced transparency through the implementation of electronic voting machines and voter-verifiable paper audit trails.

The psephologist community examines youth voting patterns because these behaviours affect the validity of democratic systems alongside representation quality and political results. Young people demonstrate reduced voting patterns than older citizens throughout several national democracies. The electoral behaviour of young citizens is influenced by their political disengagement, systemic obstacles, socioeconomic status, and digital activism habits. The voting behaviour of young Americans has marched on a rollercoaster path in United States electoral history. About 50% of eligible U.S. voters in the 18–29 age bracket participated in the 2020 presidential election compared to 39% in 2016, according to CIRCLE (2021). An analysis of several factors, including political activism, accessible mail-in voting, and digital mobilization programs, led to this voting increase (Holbein & Hillygus, 2020). Midterm elections tend to generate lower engagement levels, as people follow a consistent pattern of increased and decreased political participation. The voting participation of Canadian youth increased significantly between recent national elections. The voter turnout of citizens between 18 and 24 years old rose to 57.1% during the 2015 federal election after reaching 38.8% in 2011 (Elections Canada, 2016). Canadian sustained voter engagement emerged because of prioritizing civic education, combined with digital outreach, despite minor reductions in turnout from one election to the next.

The democratic nations of Western Europe achieve better voter turnout results from their young citizens than their Eastern and Southern European counterparts. The high youth voter turnout rates, exceeding 75% in Nordic countries, particularly in Sweden and Norway, along with Denmark, stem from strong civic education programs combined with automatic voter registration and a deeply rooted tradition of electoral participation. Youth voter commitment is less pronounced in Southern European countries. Only 40% of Italian youths aged under 25 participated in the

2018 general election, as young citizens faced both political frustration and economic instability (Tormey, 2019). The percentage of Polish youth who vote for candidates is lower than the national average, even after digital platforms and specific youth-directed campaigns were implemented (Markowski, 2016).

In Latin America, socio-political instability, along with distrust of electoral institutions, is the main influencing factor. Research from Mainwaring & Pérez-Liñán (2019) on Brazil shows that youth (ages 16–24) involvement in the 2018 presidential election remained unusually low because young people dropped out of politics due to dissatisfaction with the political system. In the Mexican electoral process, youth voting has shown inconsistent behaviours. Youth participation increased substantially in the 2018 presidential election because young voters joined anti-corruption movements through social media platforms. Local elections attract less youth voter participation than other electoral levels. Although South Africa implemented various approaches to engage its young voters their voting participation continues to diminish. Only 46% of voters aged 18–29 participated in the 2019 general elections, whereas 57% participated in 2014, according to the Electoral Commission of South Africa (2019). The participation numbers decline because young adults face high unemployment rates, as well as political disinterest and institutional distrust. Young voters showed low enthusiasm in the 2019 Nigerian elections. According to Olorunmola (2020), they voted at a rate of 34% even though #NotTooYoungToRun led youth movements in the country. The Australian voting requirements compel citizens to participate in elections, which has kept youth voter turnout consistently above 85% (AEC, 2021). New Zealand maintains strong youth voting participation levels because it runs specific voter education programs. The Japanese electorate that voted in the 2017 elections showed low participation from people between 18 and 29 years old, with just 35.6% voting, according to Stockwin's (2019) research. South Korea offers youth-oriented voter education programs, yet its youth voter participation lags the country's overall voting statistics.

Compulsory voting is a democratic practice wherein citizens are legally obligated to participate in elections. This mechanism aims to enhance civic responsibility and improve the inclusiveness and legitimacy of electoral outcomes. Originating in Belgium in the late 19th century and adopted by Australia in 1924, compulsory voting is now practised in over 25 countries worldwide, with varying degrees of enforcement (Birch, 2009). In nations like Australia and Belgium, enforcement is strict, resulting in consistently high voter turnout—often above 90%—while in

others, such as Mexico and Greece, enforcement is lax or symbolic (Gratschew, 2004). Compulsory voting offers an effective solution for reducing voting inequality among different socioeconomic strata. The voting practices of individuals who possess greater education and income, as well as heightened political interest, contribute to the social exclusion of people with lower socioeconomic status in voluntary voting systems (Lijphart, 1997).

Compulsory voting promotes equal participation, resulting in election results that better reflect the entire population. Mandatory voting promotes increased policy engagement from political parties, which seek support from diverse electoral groups, thus preventing extreme ideological divides. Australia became a leading example of mandatory voting success because its turnout increased from under 60% to above 90% following the introduction of compulsory voting, according to Brennan and Hill (2014). Countries under mandatory voting rules develop stronger democratic systems with public-centred policy results as a direct result of automatic voter participation. The practice strengthens civic duty while promoting political socialization through the integration of voter education programs, as noted by Franklin (2004).

However, compulsory voting is not without criticism. Detractors argue that it infringes on individual freedom, including the right to abstain as a form of political expression or protest (Lever, 2009). Some critics argue that forcing disinterested or uninformed citizens to vote may compromise the quality of electoral decision-making, leading to random or symbolic ballots (Brennan & Hill, 2014). Furthermore, enforcing such a law can be administratively complex, particularly in large or resource-constrained democracies. Despite these debates, compulsory voting is increasingly discussed in contexts where voter apathy is growing, particularly among young people. For example, in the United Kingdom and Canada, youth turnout is disproportionately low. Low-compulsory voting has been proposed as a solution to reverse declining participation trends. However, success depends heavily on the broader institutional context, including public trust in the electoral system, ease of voting, and the presence of meaningful political choices.

Recent global developments, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, have tested the resilience of compulsory voting systems. In Australia, where voting is both compulsory and efficient, authorities adapted quickly by expanding postal voting and extending pre-poll periods—demonstrating how mandatory voting can function even under crisis conditions (Maley, 2020). These adaptations suggest that when

combined with administrative flexibility and civic education, compulsory voting can continue to play a significant role in sustaining democratic participation in the 21st century. The COVID-19 pandemic, together with other worldwide developments, has proven to be a test for mandatory voting regulations. Australia demonstrated how mandatory voting operates during crises by immediately expanding its postal voting systems and introducing longer pre-poll voting periods. Compulsory voting demonstrates that its continued importance for democratic participation depends on strong administrative flexibility along with public education programs throughout the 21st century.

The voting patterns of young Indian voters in the world's largest democracy have become a prominent focus of academic research since the late 20th century. Young voters represent a substantial segment of eligible voters, according to the Election Commission of India (ECI), which defines them as individuals ranging from 18 to 25 years old. The annual addition of 15 million voters to the electoral rolls indicates that a significant proportion of these new voters belong to the youth population (Election Commission of India, 2019). The participation of young voters in Indian elections has shown inconsistent patterns throughout general elections. Voter participation levels of young people during the 2009 general elections fell below the national voting rate. In the 2014 general elections, first-time voters between 18 and 19 years old displayed a higher turnout rate of 68.4% compared to the national average of 66.4% (Centre for the Study of Developing Societies [CSDS], 2014). This increase in voters was attributed to growing political awareness, combined with social media activities and targeted ECI campaign efforts through Systematic Voters' Education and Electoral Participation (SVEEP). Study evidence indicates that youth voting behaviour remains shaped by the differences between urban and rural residents, as well as by gender, educational levels, and economic backgrounds. The population of urban youth residing in metropolitan areas consistently shows lower election participation rates than those living in rural areas. The data from the CSDS-Lokniti post-poll survey (2019) showed that rural youth reached turnout levels of 70%, but urban youth demonstrated rates of 55–60% during polls. The difference in voting rates stems from citizens decreased interest in elections and dissatisfaction with political candidates, as well as obstacles related to students and job seekers moving between areas.

Multiple studies have shown a decreasing trend in young people participating in elections in India (Verma, 2023). Data from the ECI demonstrate that the 2024

general elections saw a voter participation rate of 65.79% (ECI, 2024), compared to 67.4% recorded during the previous elections (Rajesh & Dayal, 2024). A decrease in voter participation levels causes democracy functions to become a matter of growing concern. Multiple states documented substantial decreases in voter participation during the 2024 General Elections. In Bihar, the voting rate fell to 56.19% (Chakrabarty, 2024). Electoral participation decreased in all three segments of smaller regions —Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Daman and Diu, and Goa — when compared to prior voting sessions (Joy, 2024). The voting numbers in Madhya Pradesh experienced their most significant decline, decreasing to 68.29% (Joy, 2024) from the previous figure of 71.2% (Lokniti, 2019). The voting numbers in West Bengal amounted to 79.29% (Joy, 2024), showing a decrease from the previous election, when 81.76% of voters cast their ballots (Lokniti, 2019).

Despite positive developments in certain cities, the aggregated voting results continue to raise alarm. Srinagar recorded 38% voter participation, securing the lowest position among all electoral constituencies yet marking a substantial increase from the 14.4% voting rate in 2019 (Nair, 2024). The voting turnout in Hyderabad increased from 44.8% in 2019 to 45.1% in 2019. The electoral participation rate in Secunderabad reached 48.1% in the current period, up from 46.5% five years ago (Nanisetti, 2024). Similarly, Kanpur increased to 52.9% from 51.6% over the same period (Singh, 2024). Despite these gains, the numbers underscore the need for increased voter involvement, as active participation is essential for conveying a strong message to elected representatives. Increased turnout in a constituency ensures better representation of all communities and age groups. The most alarming aspect of this election emerged from Nagaland, as six districts located in eastern Nagaland failed to participate at all (Das, 2024). The voters in Assam showed attendance rates of 78.25%, then 81.17%, and ultimately reached 85.45% during the three phases of the election. The voting participation rate maintained a comparable level to earlier general elections, with an 81.56% turnout (Chakrabarty,2024).

Considering the above facts, this study aims to understand the reasons for low voter turnout and explore their knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions regarding the electoral process.

Materials and Methods

The present study was conducted in Guwahati, Assam. Fifty youths aged between 18-25 were randomly selected. Data was collected using a structured schedule and

in-depth interviews to collect detailed information. Subjects were informed about the purpose of the research, and written consent was obtained from each participant after they were thoroughly informed about the procedure. Rapport was established among the subjects to facilitate the collection of information conveniently.

Socio-Demographic Profile of Participants

According to represented Table 1, all 50 respondents fell into the category of 18-25 years, out of which 28% of subjects were female and 72% were male. The majority of respondents (72%) turned out to be students, 22% were females and 50% males. Furthermore, 80.5% of the respondents were pursuing undergraduate studies, and the remaining 19.5% were enrolled in postgraduate studies. Specifically, 80% of males enrolled in undergraduate programmes, while 20% were in postgraduate programmes. In contrast, 81% of female respondents enrolled in undergraduate programmes, and 19% were in postgraduate programmes. Few respondents (18%) turned out to be employed, and all were males working in various departments, falling within the income group of ₹ 6,00,000 – ₹ 8,00,000 per year. Additionally, all the employed individuals were postgraduates. Unfortunately, 10% of the total respondents were unemployed, with 6% being female and the remaining 4% being male. All cited various reasons for their unemployment. Moreover, 4% turned out to be married, with 50% of the married individuals being males and 50% being females. Another thing to note is that none of the students had a source of income and were dependent on their families for their expenses.

Table 1: Socio-Demographic Profile of Participants (N = 50)

	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)
Age Group	18–25 years	50	100	72	28
Occupation	Students	36	72	50	22
	Employed	9	18	18	0
	Unemployed	5	10	4	6
Education Level	Undergraduate	40	80.5	80	81
	Postgraduate	10	19.5	20	19
Employment Status	Employed	9	18	18	0
Education of Employed	Postgraduate	9	100	100	0
Income of Employed	₹6,00,000–₹8,00,000	9	100	100	0

	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)
Unemployment Status	Unemployed	5	10	4	6
Marital Status	Married	2	4	2	2
Income Source of Students	Family-dependent	36	100	100	100

Understanding Voting History of the Participants

The analysis of the voting behaviour of the participants becomes crucial before we delve further to assess new concepts related to lower voter turnout. According to Table 2, 60% of of subjects abstained from voting in the the General Elections 2024, citing various reasons. A positive thing to note is that out of the of 40% of votecast a cast their votefirst-timee first-time voters, fathe lling within the 18-20 age group. All the female respondents showed high enthusiasm in the general election and registered their vote. Male turnout was only 16.67%; even the unemployed youth (male) also abstained, all having specific issues and arguments. The most important thing to understand is the voting behaviour of non-participants in the 2024 General Elections; all of them had exercised their voting rights in previous elections (Assam State Election 2021 and Guwahati Municipality Elections 2022).

**Table-2: Voting Behaviour Analysis of Respondents in the 2024
Indian General Elections**

Category	Details
Total Respondents	100%
Voted in 2024 General Elections	40%
First-time Voters (Age 18–20)	18%
Abstained from Voting	60%
Previously Voted (2021 & 2022)	100% of abstainers
Male Turnout	16.67%
Female Turnout	100%

Understanding the Phenomena of Low Voter Turnout

The participants presented various views on low voter turnout, which becomes crucial for election perspectives and democratic foundations. They put forth several factors and concluded that migration was the primary factor. The majority of respondents, being students, highlighted how migration to different cities for studies

had created an issue for their absence in voting. The schedule and travel turned out to be a significant barrier for them, despite their willingness to participate.

Lack of political awareness was cited exclusively as another factor for low voter participation. Forty-four per cent of the total respondents unanimously believed that young people today lack a basic understanding of their responsibilities as citizens. According to them, youth are being diverted from fundamental issues of national interest and tend to ignore matters concerning the foundations of democracy.

Educational institutes were put under the centre of attention when the scheduling of elections was discussed. Respondents believed that institutions have seriously ignored the concerns of students who are willing to vote, especially those who are not present in their respective constituencies on the day of voting. 84% of respondents raised the matter of the exam schedule not aligning with the schedule of the General Elections 2024. The examination must occur within a time frame that allows every student from different parts of the country the opportunity to travel at their convenience and cast a vote comfortably.

While other factors were flagged at different times during the interview, the weather proved to be an interesting factor in low voter participation. Scorching heat became a severe issue in elections for voters; 14% raised the matter and came up with the idea of pushing the election dates to such a time when the weather is comfortable as people have to wait in a long queue to cast their vote, 22% believed that scorching heat is an urban issue and used as an excuse to refrain from voting.

The Election Commission of India and other concerned agencies are working constantly to create voting awareness among the youth, but 26% of respondents believe that more efforts need to be made by the agency. One matter raised for discussion with educational institutions before announcing the final election schedule is to ensure there is no conflict with the institute schedule, allowing students sufficient time to travel to their respective constituencies. Moreover, 22% of respondents argued for paying more attention to establishing proper schemes and plans for awareness, particularly among young people.

Recent trends in elections reveal a disparity in voter participation between urban and rural areas. Twenty-two per cent of respondents believed in this notion and further added that there is a point of high awareness among rural youths compared to urban youths. According to them, rural youths are comparatively more aware of matters concerning the development of society. As mentioned earlier, urban youths tend to ignore such matters and are less politically aware.

Political Understanding, engagement, Perception, Attitude and other aspects of the voter-An important point to note is that none of the respondents were members of any political party or a similar organisation. All of them unanimously believed that voting is an essential component of a healthy democratic setup and emphasised the need for higher voter turnout.

Various models of elections and systems are in place across the world, and many voices have been raised in the past to change the current system or model of election. About 44% respondents argued for changing the current model of elections in our country, believing it is important for an efficient democracy; 12% of respondents came up with the idea of adopting the Israel model of elections, 30% proposed the idea of adopting the American model of elections, and 2% suggested to adopt French model of elections. However, 42% of respondents emphasised the current model of the electoral system, arguing that it is one of the best and that many democratic nations look forward to it as an inspiration.

The minimum age to contest Lok Sabha and State Assembly elections in India is 25. However, many arguments have been put forward across different forums to reduce the age. The same argument was presented to participants to gather their views on this matter, and interestingly, 40% of them supported the notion of lowering the minimum age for elections. According to them, India is a hub of the youth population, with many in the 18- to 30-year-old age group, making it crucial for a younger leader to come forward and carry the leadership flag alongside experienced leaders. Even the retirement age of elected representatives was raised wholeheartedly by respondents, 30% of them talked about a specific retirement age of elected representatives as it will create more opportunity for youth to come out join the leadership positions and get chance to raise their voice inside Parliament and State Assembly. They also believed that older politicians contesting elections aren't motivating the youths to engage in voting, and hence, certain amendments are to be done as soon as possible.

The educational qualifications of elected representatives have always been a subject of question. The demand for a minimum academic qualification has been consistently raised by individuals at various forums. Even many politicians have been vocal about this issue on several occasions. The participants also raised similar concerns; 84% of them discussed graduation as the minimum criterion for educational purposes before a candidate file their nomination for election. They also argued that an uneducated candidate or one without a degree creates a negative impact on the voting process, as many young voters may feel demotivated.

The impact and influence of the media in elections have always been a subject of debate. However, 64% of respondents believed that media influences people to come out and vote, and it is doing a good job of engaging the youth and creating awareness among them. However, 36% argued the opposite; for them, the media is a source of negativity, specifically TV, which is a hub of hatred and unnecessary information. Matters of national importance are neglected, and hence, the youth tend to ignore the elections.

Compulsory voting emerged as a countermeasure to address the issue of low voter turnout. Sixty-four per cent of 64 respondents believed that mandatory voting is an urgent need for our nation and should be implemented as soon as possible. According to them, some countries in Europe and around the world have already implemented compulsory voting and have achieved huge turnouts in elections. Still, remaining 36% of respondents argued that mandatory voting is not required in our country and that new ideas and campaigns should be used to drive people towards polling booth, referring compulsory voting as a "tool of force" and citing voting as a right. It is on the individual if they want to exercise their right.

Conclusion

The present study highlights the issue of lower youth voter turnout. The most concerning aspect was the high level of education among the respondents, as well as their desire to vote and engage in the electoral process; 60% of. However, of the respondents didn't turn out to vote, highlighting a significant gap in electoral awareness and actual voting. Migration to other cities for studies and the clash of examination dates with the election schedule of their constituency played a significant role in the youth's abstention from voting during elections. Low political awareness and ignorance of matters of national interest were cited as primary reasons for urban youth abstaining from the electoral process. Every respondent unanimously believed that voting is an essential component of a strong democratic foundation; however, demanded urgent intervention and reforms, such as a, minima educational qualification for candidates contesting elections and a retirement age for leaders. Even changes in the election model were proposed by them. A key highlight is that is that all female respondents voted in the 2024 general elections in , which is a positive takeaway when the gender gap is prevalent in every sector of democracy. The concept of compulsory voting was significantly discussed, and 64% of respondents showed tremendous interest and support. However, some argue that voting is an individual

right and cannot be forced upon individuals; thus, it's a personal choice. Moreover, they emphasised awareness among youth. The impact of media elicited mixed reactions among respondents - some believed it had a significant effect in creating awareness, whereas others thought it was an agent of hatred and negativity. Elections are the most predominant force in ensuring the core of democracy, and hence, every individual needs to exercise their voting right and decide the fate of India.

References

Australian Electoral Commission. (2021). *Annual report 2020–21*. Retrieved from https://www.aec.gov.au/About_AEC/Publications/Annual_Reports/2020/files/annual-report-2020-21.pdf

Birch, S. (2009). *Full participation: A comparative study of compulsory voting*. United Nations Development Programme. Retrieved from https://www.idea.int/sites/default/files/publications/full-participation-a-comparative-study-of-compulsory-voting.pdf

Brass, P. R. (2001). *The politics of India since independence* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511816270

Brennan, J., & Hill, L. (2014). *Compulsory voting: For and against*. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139939731

Centre for the Study of Developing Societies [CSDS]. (2014). *National election study post-poll 2014*. Lokniti-CSDS. Retrieved from https://lokniti.org/national-election-studies

Chakrabarty, R. (2024, April 4). Lok Sabha election 2024 turnout: A state-wise analysis. *The Indian Express*. Retrieved from https://indianexpress.com/article/political-pulse/lok-sabha-election-2024-voter-turnout-statewise-analysis-9193187/

CIRCLE. (2021). *Youth voting and civic engagement in America*. Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement. Retrieved from https://circle.tufts.edu/latest-research/youth-voting-and-civic-engagement-america

Das, P. (2024, April 3). Eastern Nagaland boycotts polls: A constitutional crisis? *The Hindu*. Retrieved from https://www.thehindu.com/news/national/eastern-nagaland-boycotts-polls-constitutional-crisis/article68042869.ece

Election Commission of India. (2019). *Statistical report on general elections 2019 to the 17th Lok Sabha*. Retrieved from https://eci.gov.in/statistical-report/statistical-reports/

Election Commission of India. (2024). *General election to Lok Sabha 2024 – Voter turnout*. Retrieved from https://eci.gov.in

Elections Canada. (2016). *Estimation of voter turnout by age group and gender at the 2015 federal general election*. Retrieved from https://www.elections.ca/res/rec/part/estim/turnout2015/estim_turnout2015_e.pdf

Electoral Commission of South Africa. (2019). *National and provincial elections 2019*. Retrieved from https://www.elections.org.za/NPEDashboard/app/dashboard.html

Franklin, M. N. (2004). *Voter turnout and the dynamics of electoral competition in established democracies since 1945*. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511616887

Gratschew, M. (2004). Compulsory voting. In IDEA (Ed.), *Voter turnout in Western Europe since 1945* (pp. 105–112). International IDEA. Retrieved from https://www.idea.int/sites/default/files/publications/voter-turnout-in-western-europe-since-1945.pdf

Holbein, J. B., & Hillygus, D. S. (2020). *Making young voters: Converting civic attitudes into civic action*. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108773454

Joy, S. (2024, April 1). Declining turnout in major Indian states. *India Today*. Retrieved from https://www.indiatoday.in/elections/lok-sabha/story/voter-turnout-decline-uttar-pradesh-maharashtra-bihar-punjab-2529137-2024-04-01

Lever, A. (2009). Is compulsory voting justified? *Public Reason*, 1(1), 57–74. Retrieved from https://publicreason.ro/pdfa/1

Lijphart, A. (1997). Unequal participation: Democracy's unresolved dilemma. *American Political Science Review*, 91(1), 1–14. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.2307/2952255

Low, D. A. (1991). *The Indian National Congress: Centenary hindsights*. Oxford University Press. Retrieved from https://global.oup.com/academic/product/the-indian-national-congress-9780195628221

Maley, M. (2020). The 2020 ACT election: Conducting a compulsory vote in a pandemic. *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 79(4), 533–537. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8500.12468

Markowski, R. (2016). The Polish parliamentary election of 2015: A free and fair election that results in unfair political consequences. *West European Politics*, 39(6), 1311–1322. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1080/01402382.2016.1173331

Mainwaring, S., & Pérez-Liñán, A. (2019). *Democratic breakdowns and resilience in Latin America*. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108597708

Muir, E. (2003). *Civic ritual in Renaissance Venice*. Princeton University Press. Retrieved from https://press.princeton.edu/books/hardcover/9780691114564/civic-ritual-in-renaissance-venice

Nair, S. (2024, April 2). Srinagar sees rise in turnout but remains lowest. *Hindustan Times*. Retrieved from https://www.hindustantimes.com/india-news/srinagar-sees-rise-in-turnout-but-remains-lowest-101712008723415.html

Nanisetti, S. (2024, April 2). Telangana urban centres show low turnout again. *The Hindu*. Retrieved from https://www.thehindu.com/elections/telangana/urban-centres-in-telangana-show-low-turnout/article68045789.ece

Olorunmola, A. (2020). *Youth participation in Nigeria's electoral process*. Centre for Democracy and Development. Retrieved from https://cddwestafrica.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/Youth-Participation-in-Nigerias-Electoral-Process.pdf

Pallister, D. M. (2015). *Magna Carta: The foundation of freedom 1215–2015*. Third Millennium Publishing. Retrieved from https://www.thirdmillenniumpublishing.com/product/magna-carta/

Rajesh, R., & Dayal, S. (2024, April 3). A decline in voter turnout: Reading between the numbers. *Scroll.in*. Retrieved from https://scroll.in/article/1067342/voter-turnout-in-2024-lok-sabha-elections-decline-numbers-analysis

Singh, A. (2024, April 1). Kanpur's voter turnout sees marginal rise. *The Times of India*. Retrieved from https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/city/kanpur/lok-sabha-polls-kanpurs-voter-turnout-sees-marginal-rise/articleshow/108946456.cms

Stockwin, J. A. A. (2019). *Governing Japan: Divided politics in a resurgent economy* (4th ed.). Wiley-Blackwell. Retrieved from https://www.wiley.com/en-us/Governing+Japan%3A+Divided+Politics+in +a+Resurgent+Economy% 2C+4th+Edition-p-9781119022356

Tormey, S. (2019). *The end of representative politics*. Polity Press. Retrieved from https://politybooks.com/bookdetail/?isbn=9781509526243

Verma, R. (2023). Understanding youth political behaviour in India: Trends and challenges. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 58(1), 42–48. Retrieved from https://www.epw.in/journal/2023/1/commentary/understanding-youth-political-behaviour-india.html

Yakobson, A. (1999). *Elections and electioneering in Rome: A study in the political system of the late Republic*. Franz Steiner Verlag. Retrieved from https://www.steiner-verlag.de/Elections_and_Electioneering_in_Rome