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Cecil J. Shelton

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Cecil J. Shelton, Student

Dr. Lori Garkovich, Major Professor

Dr. Rosalind Harris, Director of Graduate Studies

WHAT ROCKS THE VOTE? CITIZENS' VIEWS OF COMMUNITY LEADERS AND
POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT

THESIS

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Masters of Science in the
College of Agriculture
at the University of Kentucky

By:
Cecil James Hampton Shelton

Lexington, Kentucky

Chair: Dr. Lori Garkovich, Full Professor of Community and Leadership Development
Lexington, Kentucky
2012

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ABSTRACT OF THESIS

WHAT ROCKS THE VOTE? CITIZENS' VIEWS OF COMMUNITY LEADERS AND POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT

Political engagement has an established body of research. However, one key area that has not been investigated in the field is the relationship between political engagement and type of community lived in. This study explores this relationship between type of community, past political engagement, perceptions of community leaders, attitude about political engagement, and sociodemographic characteristics. A conceptual model was developed based on existing literature. Utilizing a statewide survey conducted in 2009 that yielded 1,154 respondents with a response rate of 30.2% was used to explore these relationships. Using statistical procedures that test correlation were utilized to investigate the relationship between the key study variables. In addition, a regression model was created to be able to predict an individual's political engagement. The result concluded that type of community does not significantly play a role in determining an individual's political engagement. However other insights were revealed that showcase the complexity of political engagement and raise other questions about the role an individual's attitude towards political engagement, and perception of community leaders affects their political engagement.

KEYWORDS: Political Engagement, Social Capital, Perceptions, Attitudes, Community Leaders

Cecil James Hampton Shelton

October 4, 2012

WHAT ROCKS THE VOTE? CITIZENS' VIEWS OF COMMUNITY LEADERS AND
POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT

By

Cecil James Hampton Shelton

Lori Garkovich
Director of Thesis

Rosalind Harris
Director of Graduate Studies

October 5th, 2012

This thesis is dedicated to all the men and women who have served our Country. Because of their service and sacrifices, we have the opportunity to be fully and freely engaged citizens; participating in the political sphere.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Background and Setting

The United States grants its citizens the voluntary right to vote and participate in the political process. It is the foundation of a democracy. As Abraham Lincoln stated, “Democracy is the government of the people, by the people, for the people”. People (citizens) are the life for a democratic government. Since the first election of our fledgling country in the late 1780’s when George Washington was elected president, there have been many fundamental modifications in America’s elective system. Most would agree that many of these changes have been for the best. Not only has the technology in the way we cast our ballot changed, there has also been a major change in who, how, one votes. Some of the most profound changes to our electoral system occurred after the Civil War. The first change started in 1868 with the 14th Amendment which dealt with citizenship, then the 15th Amendment allowing non-white male citizens to vote, the 19th Amendment in 1920 which granted women who are citizens the right to vote and the 26th Amendment that changed the age of voting from 21 years old to 18 years old in 1971. It is safe to say that these and other provisions transformed what was once a privilege held by only white, wealthy men and made them into rights that every citizen is granted regardless of sex, race, education, wealth, or religion.

Yet, during this same time, scholars, government officials and even citizens have debated whether all those granted the right to vote deserve it. How, it has been asked, can a democracy work when so many invest nothing of themselves in learning about the public issues that must be addressed by elected officials? In the early part of the 20th century, Dewey and Lippmann engaged in an extended debate on the question of whether

average citizens are qualified to elect public officials. Lippmann's philosophy is that government should be delegated to political officials and that they should have expert advisors to help guide their decision making, because the common citizens are unable and ill-equipped to lead a democratic society. Dewey argued for the importance of having the public engaged in the area of the political sphere. Dewey believed that this is where there could be public debate, with knowledge and learning being shared among citizens and their elected leaders. This process would enable the collective society as a whole to deliberate on the concerns and challenges facing our country. To a great degree, this debate continues even today, just in different terms.

According to some, we are losing our battle with citizens being engaged in the political process. For these persons, the decline of political participation has been apparent for the past three decades. (Hibbings and Theiss-More, 2002; Putnam, 2000; Rosenstone and Hansen, 1993) From this perspective, social and environmental changes to society are causing us to interact with each other differently than we have in the past, resulting in a degradation or alteration in our social networks and societal norms. This is said to be leading to fewer people taking the time to build the social relationships essential for democratic participation. This would be a nightmare for Dewey, as his belief is that individuals need to interact with each other so that they can deliberate and act on the pressing issues of the day.

Another theory is that people are not participating less in political activities. Rather, instead of sitting around and waiting every four years to have a say, they are engaging in the political sphere in other ways (Norris, 2002; Zukin, et.al. 2006). If this is the case, then it would actually favor the Dewey philosophy that citizens are creating a

space that is not dependent on an artificial timeline of elections, but individuals are out and about interacting with others, discussing the issues and taking action to solve the issues based on their consensus on the best course of action.

The research on these questions is mixed and a host of studies offer seemingly contradictory results (Dalton, 2008; Norris, 2002; Putnam, 2009). What is clear is that Americans are changing how they interact with each other and the political system.

Growing up in a small (less than 15,000) rural Kentucky community, I considered myself actively involved in the political sphere when I headed to college. I had already started voting; I kept up with politics by reading the local paper; I actively sought out conversations with others at the local country store on the issues of the day; all while making sure that I contacted my officials either through a formal letter or bumping in to them as I was getting gas or having dinner. My participation in the political sphere seemed normal to me, it was something that I just did, and it was easy to be engaged. Not only did I feel that it was my duty as a citizen to be engaged, I saw that I could have an impact on what happened in my community through these activities.

As I adjusted to life at a University that had a larger population than my entire county, I did travel back home quite often. But my return trips became fewer and I found that it was more difficult to be engaged in the local political sphere; as I had to seek out the information I needed to make informed decisions. I was no longer exposed to the local news, or the concerns of my fellow residents on a daily basis. While I did move to a large city that had many interesting issues and the same state and national issues persisted, I found myself not as engaged as I would have been if I was at “home”. I was still voting, reading my new community’s newspaper, and even traveled to Washington D.C. to lobby

my congressmen on certain issues. But I did not feel like I was participating to the extent that I had been. When I think back on the reasons why I was not as engaged, I concluded that because I was in a larger community, I felt that citizens held different attitudes and opinions than I did. But it is also true that I felt my new local officials didn't have the time to listen to me and I was busier than I had been with school, work and exploring what this new community had to offer me.

I became intrigued with the question of what factors influenced political engagement. I wanted to assess whether the type of community one is living in could alter in some form or fashion the type and frequency of individual participation in the political sphere. But when I began to review the existing research, I found that there was a limited amount of current literature that deals with political engagement by type of community. More surprising, I found that there were conflicting views about what was even happening to political engagement in America.

Statement of Problem

While much research has been done on the current state of political participation in terms of voting behavior, in the US and the world; there has been little effort to investigate the effect that different types of communities could have on the type and frequency of political engagement. Furthermore, according to Oliver (2000), the research that has been conducted dealing with the type of community and political engagement is either 30 or more years old which means that the research does not take into account the trends in suburbanization or, was conducted in such a way that the validity of the findings is questionable due to small sample sizes or not taking into account individual-level

characteristics. In addition to type of community, another area that does not have a strong foundation of prior research is how an individual's perception of their community leaders and attitude towards political participation could not only be related to the type of community that they live in, but affect the way that they are engaged in their local political sphere. Thus, there is a need for research that explicitly explores the relationship between size of community and different types of political engagement.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationships among community of residence, personal characteristics (e.g., age, income and education), perceptions of community leaders, existing attitudes towards political engagement, and past involvements with different forms of political engagement activities. The analysis will be based on data from a statewide survey of households in Kentucky. While only a snapshot of one state at one point in time, I believe that this study can begin the process of deepening our understanding of the meaning of political engagement in contemporary America.

Limitations of the Study

A limitation of the study is that the sample is composed of only residents from Kentucky. Hence, the results may not be generalizable to other states or the nation due to different political, cultural and social environments.

The measurement tool was a one-time self-reported mail questionnaire. Therefore, responses to questions on perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards

political engagement might be influenced by recent events in their community or the state or, reflect the particular circumstances of political engagement in their community.

Because this study is based on a mail survey, only a select few variables were used to draw conclusions about this topic. In other words, with regard to perceptions of community leaders, attitudes towards political engagement, and types of political engagement a researcher could add many more variable which might better explain the relationships under consideration.

Basic Assumptions of this Study

Respondents truthfully responded to the survey.

The instrument created for data gathering validly measures perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement.

Need for the Study

During the 2008 election period, a total of \$5.3 billion was spent by candidates, political parties, and interest groups on the congressional and presidential races (Cummings, 2011). This sum of money was used to target groups of citizens to vote for a particular candidate, party or issue. The voter return for this large sum of money was over 132 million voters, or a modest turnout of only 6 out of every 10 eligible voters (McDonald, 2012). Why are more individuals not going to the polls to have a say in who runs our government?

Our current elected officials have more power and resources at their disposal than their predecessors. In addition, they are facing significant challenges: an ongoing war

(with high cost to our financial and human capital); a deep and persistent economic decline (e.g., budget deficits, high unemployment, inflation); an energy/environmental crisis (e.g., rising prices for fossil fuels, climate change, declining environmental quality); domestic conflicts over civil rights (e.g., gay rights, religious freedoms, women rights) and immigration (e.g., porous national borders, homeland security, perceived lax federal enforcement); an educational system that seems to be failing in maintaining America's competitiveness (e.g., national achievement scores behind other developed countries, declining funding for programs, a perceived loss of safe learning environments); and, serious national health problems (e.g., cost, availability, chronic diseases related to lifestyle choices).

Although all Americans are affected by these challenges, elected officials are placed in power to address them by a small percentage of voters. An even smaller percentage of voters or nonvoters take other action to help shape policies and decisions once an elected official takes office. This is a time in our history when the pace of change combined with the scope of the challenges we face will have a lasting impact on the US and our future. As Ray Kroc, founder of McDonalds' once said: "None of us is as good, as all of us". It is time to figure out the factors that influence citizens' involvement in public decision-making. Now more than ever, understanding the relationships among perceptions of community leaders, attitudes towards political engagement, and past political behaviors is necessary in order to address the challenges we face. This is especially true for those who are involved in community development efforts and are committed to participatory community change.

It is the hope of the researcher that the results from this study will be useful to not only scholars in the political and social science fields, professionals in the applied political science area, nonprofits, and other public service groups, but to citizens. It is hoped that community residents will become more aware of those factors that influence their type and frequency of political engagement. Once aware, perhaps they will take active steps to combat any influence that is making them less likely to be engaged; so that the decisions being made are by the people and for the people.

Overview of the Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organized so as to first provide a conceptual framework for understanding the state of knowledge about political engagement through a review of the literature (Chapter 2). From this, the specific hypotheses to be tested will be identified. Chapter 3 describes the methods that will be used to answer the research question and provide a clear link between the issues identified in the review of the literature and this analysis. Chapter 4 presents the results of this study, while Chapter 5 summarizes this study and considers its implications with recommendations for future research.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

Type of Community

There are many ways that community can be defined, envisioned or constructed. Garkovich describes two types of communities, as either “a geographically bound physical place with people living together and meeting their livelihoods and social interaction needs. To groups of people whose interaction is based not on physical proximity but on common interest” (Garkovich, p13, 2011). When looking at the type of community that is bound to a physical geographic space, it is known that these communities are classified and ranked by the population that lives within their boundaries. A common classification of population for counties is the rural-urban continuum codes developed by the United States Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service (Parker, 2012). These codes classify counties into nine different categories that range from large metropolitan areas to rural areas with fewer than 2,500 people and not adjacent to an urban area. Just based on the size difference of the community; one can think about how this range of places from a metro area to a rural area could differ in terms of the characteristics of the people who live there as well as their opportunities.

Rural Communities

Just like the range of population between metro and rural areas, there is also a wide range in the type of rural communities. Rural communities can range from a luxury ski resorts in the Rocky Mountains, to coal mining towns in the Appalachian Mountains,

to retirement enclaves in the south, or farm villages in the Midwest. This diversity comes with a range of issues and challenges that are unique to rural communities (Flora et. al., 1992). Some of these issues include: a changing demographic in terms of not only growth or decline in rural areas compared to urban ones, as well as an overall change in age structure and ethnic makeup. For example, in some rural communities there has been a significant out migration of youth, while in others, there has been a significant increase in the Hispanic population (Beaulieu and Israel, 2011; Brown and Schafft, 2011). Other rural communities have faced in-migration by retirees or families leading to a rural version of suburbanization.

Another area of great change is the transformation of the rural economy. Once, rural areas relied primarily on extractive industries (e.g., forestry, mining) and production agriculture for employment and family income. But this has changed dramatically. New technologies have allowed agriculture producers to become much more efficient leading to higher production efficiencies, and the other extractive industries have seen a similar displacement of labor by capital. Other rural communities have gone through a dramatic cycle of rapid manufacturing growth during the 1970s-1980s followed by the loss of a significant proportion of these jobs to offshore sites where the costs of production (i.e., land, labor, regulations) are much lower. These losses in revenue sources in rural communities have been linked to the reason why rural areas remain with high poverty rates, lagging median income and low education attainment when compared to other types of communities(Beaulieu and Israel, 2011; Brown and Schafft, 2011).

Urban vs. Rural

In regards to how one can contrast urban and rural places, according to Flora et.al. (1992), there is no more controversial thing then discussing how urban and rural areas compare. While in the past there might have been some more easily definable differences, in today's society these have been altered due to technology and innovation. However they go on to state that just because these two types of communities may now appear similar, does not mean that the solutions to address common issues will work in both urban and rural communities. They like others (Brown and Schafft, 2011; Freudenburg 1986), go back to the idea of Tonnies from 1887, that there are significant differences in the nature of social life in rural and urban places. Tonnies (1887) contrasts *gemeinschaft* communities, where relationships are valued and personal, and individuals have a strong sense of attachment to one another and to place with *gesellschaft* communities, where social relationships are more instrumental. As a result, in urban places community members do not have a strong attachment to others or place.

Based on this idea from Tonnies, the two different styles of communities *gemeinschaft* (community) and *gesellschaft* (society), Flora et.al. (1992) provide insights as to how these may explain the societal difference in urban and rural places. The basis of this explanation has to do with the physical characteristics of the community. First, while it is agreed that members of both urban and rural communities can share the same values which can translate into shared community norms, the dissimilarity is how these shared community norms are regulated or enforced. Because rural areas are usually smaller than urban places, residents of rural areas cross paths with other residents at regular intervals. This allows them to become familiar with each other socially. Because of these repetitive

encounters with the same members of the community, multilayered relationships are built with each other. It is likely that the shared community norms will be enforced, due to the fact that being known will alter behavior. A rural citizen would not want to be judged or discussed for failing to keep a community norm.

Another factor that strengthens this perspective is that when a member of a larger community reflects on all of the different groups that they belong too, they may see them as separate because there is not a lot of physical or social overlap. However citizens of rural areas may not see different groups, as there is a high amount of overlap of both physical and social connections from one group to another that reinforces the connection to the community as a whole. Because of this lack of division among the different groups or associations, when trying to address an issue or challenge that is specific to one association or group, it may seem best to not address it as a single problem but as a community problem (Flora et.al., 1992).

Overview of Political Participation Trends

When thinking about political participation, the most common indicator for many is voting in elections. However; voting is not the only means of participation or having an influence on politics. There are other types of political engagement that can influence the political sphere. Other types of behaviors that have been identified in past studies are: writing your elected officials; displaying campaign material; signing a petition; attending a rally; donating money to a campaign; and more recently, using the internet to gain or distribute information (Dalton, 2008; Lake and Huckfeldt, 1998). Yet, voter turnout continues to be a primary focus in most studies.

The research on voter turnout has created an arena for debate among scholars as there are two ways of thinking about voter turnout. One path is that our societal norms have changed in such a way that our participation in politics has declined and will continue to decline as our society becomes more individualistic. This idea gained notoriety from Robert Putnam's book *Bowling Alone*. In Putnam's work, he explains how societal changes have led to an erosion of social capital since the 1960's which has dramatically reduced our participation in both civic and political activities (Putnam, 1995, 2000). Putnam's analysis has spurred a vast amount of research on social capital and political engagement (e.g., Newton, 1997; Teorell, 2003).

Alternatively, it has been argued that while yes, participation in electoral voting has decreased, other types of political engagement are increasing. This idea is based on the notion that citizens do not wait to participate every two or four years, rather, they are participating in other types of political engagement that can occur continuously through a variety of actions. Dalton states, "Rather than an absolute decline in political action, the changing norms of citizenship are shifting the ways Americans participate in politics – decreasing electoral participation but increasing other forms of action" (Dalton, 2008: P 165).

We can see that although these two ideas are different, they do agree that American society is changing in such a way that there are fewer people exercising their right to vote. However, there is a body of literature that rebuts this idea of fewer people voting and call voter turnout rates a statistical artifact of the past (McDonald and Popkin 2001). These researchers realize a disconnect between the two most common ways to calculate voter turnout rates. The first way to calculate the turnout rate is called the

voting-age population (VAP). The VAP is calculated by using US Census Bureau statistics on the population of a given area that is the legal age for voting and older. According to the US Census Bureau, this statistic includes individuals who are both eligible and ineligible to vote, but it does not include individuals living abroad who can vote in local elections such as military service personnel. The more accurate method according to McDonald and Popkin is to use the voter-eligible population (VEP). The VEP uses the VAP as a base and then parts of the population are removed based on factors that would disqualify them from participating due to governmental regulations and restrictions (e.g., not registered to vote). On a national level, when voter turnout rates are calculated using these two methods, the results can vary significantly. To understand this more and how it relates to Kentucky Table 2.1 shows both the VAP and VEP including their differences for elections held in Kentucky from 1980 to 2010.

Table 2.1
Voter Turnout in Kentucky 1980 through 2010

Year	Voter-Eligible Population	Voting-Age Population	Difference
2010	44.2%	40.7%	3.5
2008 (<i>presidential</i>)	58.9	55.7	3.2
2006	44.2	39.0	5.2
2004 (<i>presidential</i>)	59.4	56.9	2.5
2002	37.2	36.4	0.8
2000 (<i>presidential</i>)	53.1	50.4	2.7
1998	41.5	38.2	3.3
1996 (<i>presidential</i>)	49.3	47.3	2.0
1994	29.2	27.2	2.0
1992 (<i>presidential</i>)	53.8	53.0	0.8
1990	33.6	33.2	0.4
1988 (<i>presidential</i>)	49.3	48.8	0.5
1986	25.5	25.2	0.3
1984 (<i>presidential</i>)	51.8	51.2	0.6
1982	26.8	26.5	0.3
1980 (<i>presidential</i>)	50.5	49.9	0.6

(McDonald and Popkin, 2001)

From the chart it is evident that over the past 30 years a larger proportion of Kentucky's population is becoming ineligible to vote in elections. Past studies have given us reasons varying from increased ineligibility due to criminal convictions, non - US citizens, or simply a failure to register to vote. (McDonald, 2002; McDonald and Popkin, 2001) This increase in ineligible voters in our communities raises questions about the legal and social processes which affect whether individuals can vote. This table also contradicts the idea that political participation, especially through the lens of voter turnout, is declining. Looking at VEP we see the turnout rate is 50.5% in 1980 compare that to the last presidential election of 2008 with a turnout rate of 58.9% an increase of 16.6%. However, there has been an even more substantial percent change increase of 64.9% in non-presidential election years. So for Kentucky, at least, it can be concluded that voter turnout rates are increasing, at least among the voter eligible.

Even with the growth in VEP turnout rates for non-presidential elections, these rates still lag behind presidential election turnout rates. This trend is not specific to Kentucky; this is a national trend that previous studies have explored. For example, Caran (2007) and Hanjnal and Lewis (2003) note that the variance in voter turnout can be explained by the timing of the elections and the type of mayoral governance structure (i.e., an elected mayor compared to a hired city manager). Kentucky does not use the hired city manager system; therefore it is not relevant to this study. Caran (2007) makes an interesting point, in an analysis of over 300 local elections. Caran discovered that the turnout gap between presidential and local elections on average varied about half over a 25 year period. In other words, people were more likely to turn out for presidential rather than local elections. He goes on to comment, "This turnout gap is somewhat

counterintuitive because local governments have the most and direct impact on voter lives, while the decisions and actions of the federal government are remote in time, space and impact” (Caran, 2007: p39)

Thus, prior research suggests that voter trends are more complex than participation rates alone suggest. This is evident from the fact that there is high variance among voter turnout rates depending on the timing of the election. This implies that there may be other factors contributing to their decision to either participate or not participate in an election.

The complexity of political participation is further illustrated in a recent PEW Study which found the majority of the public, views voting as a civic duty. In addition, 9 in 10 agree that it is their civic duty to always vote even though only 1 out of 2 always votes. The discrepancy between their belief and participation might be explained by the skepticism that exists around political participation. To shed some light on this idea, 51% of the population agrees with the statement, “People like me don’t have a say about what the government does.” This is followed by only 38% agreeing with the statement that "most elected officials care what people like me think." With this negative view of political efficacy, one would think that people would view voting as a futile action. However, 68% agree that voting gives them some say about how the government runs things. These seemingly contradictory attitudes and beliefs about their community leaders and the influence of their political participation suggest that other social factors may be at play (PEW, 2009).

Factors Influencing Political Participation

When considering political participation, we cannot simply think about it in terms of a single population, but rather that population represents many individual participants. These individuals differ from one another; they have different life experiences, political ideologies (from liberal to conservative), different educational backgrounds, as well as levels of income and social networks. All of these different experiences and characteristics create the unique individuals that we are. As unique individuals, we bring diverse past experiences that influence our individual values, beliefs and perceptions. These experiences affect the way we encounter and participate in everyday life. Subsequently, they also affect the form and the frequency in how we participate in the political sphere (Mondak & Halperin, 2008). This approach to political participation is much like the (Columbia) idea that one should investigate the societal influences that possibly affect the individual instead of studying them in isolation from each other (Zuckerman 2005).

There is ample evidence of the strong positive association between age, income, education, and length of residency on the method and frequency of political participation (Teixeira, 1987; Verba & Kim, 1974; Binstock, 2006). However, one area that has not had adequate attention in prior research is how the individual's perception of community leaders and attitude toward political engagement affect their involvement in political activities.

Building off Allport's definition, Pickens defines attitudes as “a mental or neural state of readiness, organized thought experience, exerting a directive and dynamic influence of the individual's response to all object and situations to which it is related.”

(Pickens, 2010, P.44) Another way of thinking about attitude is an approach or a tendency to respond with a specific behavior to a situation that an individual may commonly encounter. When discussing an individual's attitude, in actuality one is discussing the emotion or behavior that is caused by some stimuli on that individual. Alfred Adler believed that a person's attitude had a direct impact on their behavior, and he went on to suggest that a "persons thoughts, feelings and behaviors were transactions with one's physical and social surroundings" (Pickens, 2010, P.46).

Since our attitudes are formed and modified throughout our lives based on past circumstances, they have an impact on the way in which we will encounter and deal with future situations. Our attitudes are part of our individual personalities. It has been stated that attitudes, "being part of our personalities they may produce both indirect and situational effects on political behavior" (Mondak & Halperin, 2008, p. 339).

Socioeconomic factors can contribute to the development of attitudes or beliefs because they shape our life experiences. For instance, women who have sought need-based governmental assistance may have had an experience where they were treated with dignity and respect, which promoted a sense of belonging within that community. As a result, the individual may gain the perception that the political system values them. However, if the women felt marginalized, then this may create the sense of being estranged from that community, creating a perception that the political system does not value them as an individual (Mettler & Stonecash, 2008). These experiences can form either positive or negative attitudes that then influence the individual's views on the world around them.

These attitudes and beliefs also can influence an individual's political behaviors. For example, research shows that the perceptions of not belonging or not being valued can lead to lower levels of political participation (Anderson, 2009; Verba & Nyle, 1972). This goes back to the idea that if an individual believes they will have minimal influence on governmental decisions, they will be less likely to participate. Others (Zipp, Landerman & Luebke, 1982) suggest that attitudes regarding political efficacy are a significant factor in an individual's political participation. They found that a greater feeling of political efficacy lends itself to increased levels of voter turnout. Therefore, if an individual feels a sense of attachment or feels their views are valued, this leads to a sense of trust and a greater likelihood that individual will participate in the political sphere.

This idea of trust and participation has become a common theme in research focusing on social capital (Newton, 2001; Putman 1995; Zhang and Chia, 2006). The idea of social capital is said to be from Hannifin (1916) who introduced the concept to stress its importance in a democracy. He held that social capital was good will, fellowship, social interaction and other things that made up the social and civil life of the individuals and families in a community. He understood that social capital could be used to benefit the whole community by encouraging cooperation of its parts to meet individual needs while providing leadership opportunities to others. His understanding of social capital had uses for both private and collective gain (Zhang & Chia; 2006). Since its introduction, the concept of social capital has become quite popular. Over the years, social capital has been defined and measured in various ways, yet researchers regularly agree that social capital is produced in individual social networks (Stern & Fullerton,

2009). According to Lin (2001), social capital is a collection of social assets that are gained from interaction within social networks that share mutual standards and principles.

Social Capital and Political Participation

Trust is an important component to social capital. Not only must one trust individuals within society but also they must have trust in institutions (Zhang and Chia, 2006). Through regular and repeated interactions within society, social capital is attained and nurtured. But individuals have to have a certain level of trust in the other participants and institutions for them to effectively engage in these activities that lend to the development of social capital. Trust is developed by both these interactions and the current social and political conditions (Cook and Gronke, 2005). Maloy (2009) describes trust as a commodity that can be increased, depleted or conserved based on the social environment. In addition Maloy (2009), summarizing many different understandings of trust from social science perspectives, describe trust as a “Psychic quantity- an attitude disposition or belief”.

Many studies have shown that individuals who participate in volunteer associations have higher levels of interpersonal trust and political engagement (Stern & Fullerton, 2009; Hanks & Eckland, 1978). Less is known about how individuals' trust in political institutions affects their political engagement. We do know that when an individual's preferred party is in office, that individual trusts their government more than when an opposing party has control (Keele, 2005). Furthermore, Cook and Gronke (2006) found that confidence in an institution allowed for approval of institutions. However the lack of confidence within that institution is not the same as a lack of trust in

the institution. Rather they see trust can be placed on a continuum that ranges from active trust to active distrust with lack of trust falling in the middle. Therefore when an individual's preferred party is not controlling Congress or the Presidency, their decreased level of trust may or may not affect their level of confidence or approval for political institutions.

In regards to political figures, we know from a study conducted by Bowler and Karp (2004), that when negative attitudes of politicians are held those carry over to negative attitudes towards the government. Less is known about how these perceptions of local political officials affect political participation. One study conducted by Rahn and Rudolph (2005) focused on this idea of what impacts the level of trust at the local level. They determined that there are four areas that deal with trust in local government:

The quality of policy outcomes – Do policy actions lead to the provision and maintenance of desired public good and services?

Policy congruence –To what extent does the individual perceive a similarity in their political views and those of local leaders?

Procedural considerations – Do citizens' feel that government benefits are distributed fairly, that government decisions process are fair and just and that government is responsive of their concerns?

Attributes of political leaders – Are political leaders seen in competent, professional, efficient and honest?

Another important component to social capital is efficacy. Efficacy can be commonly defined as the individual believes that he/she can make a difference. A deeper meaning of political efficacy comes from the work by Coleman, Davis, Niemi and others. Here, Anderson (2010) argues that "Scholars generally agree that political efficacy includes: (1) intern efficacy – beliefs about one's own ability to influence the political process – and (2) external efficacy – beliefs about the responsiveness of government

officials to the concerns of the citizenry” (Anderson, 2010 p 63). It is the popular belief that if an individual feels they personally can make an impact through some type of political activity and that the political system is capable of responding to that action, then that individual will feel empowered, which will motivate them to participate in the political sphere.

Definitions of Terms

Type of community

Conceptual- is any physical place in close proximity in regards to place, time and connection where individuals or groups may reside, assemble or visit to meet their various needs, wants and interest.

Operational- the classification of a physical geographical reliant community, based on Beale’s(1993)USDA ERS rural-urban continuum codes that have been recoded from nine categories into the following five codes: metropolitan, urban adjacent, urban non-adjacent, rural adjacent and rural non-adjacent

Political engagement

Conceptual- Any activity that a citizen participates in, that influence: the outcome of a governmental election, the actions governmental officials take, or the ideas or opinions that another individual holds about public policy issues.

Operational- an individual taking part in one or more of the following: voted in a local election; worked for a political campaign locally; signed a petition for a local candidate or issue; contacted a local public official’ and attended any local rallies, protest, boycotts, and marches.

Community leader

Conceptual – Any individual that is in a position to exert influence within a community. This may be based on a formal position (e.g., an elected official) or may be informal reflecting that individual's status within the community.

Operational – Any elected governmental official that has authority within a community.

Perceptions of professionalism and competency of community leaders

Conceptual – the way an individual assesses their community leader's professional skills and capabilities.

Operational- respondents' assessment of the effectiveness of their community leaders in the following areas: communicates with residents; involves residents in the decision making; seeks community change, growth and improvement; transforms goals into realities; effectively models ethical behavior when in a leadership role.

Attitudes towards political engagement

Conceptual – an individual's emotional outlook on different types of political engagement activity.

Operational – the respondents' views on the effectiveness of different types of political engagement, based on the following statements: voting makes a difference in how the government runs things; ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community; I trust public offices to make the best decision for my community.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is based on two aspects of previous studies. First, from Flora et.al. (1992) we have an understanding that even though rural and urban places are starting to look more similar to each other, and that citizens of both community can share the same attitudes and norms, there is still a fundamental difference in the types of daily interactions that occur within these communities. Citizens of a rural community have a lot of overlapping interactions (in terms of place and social structures); therefore they build strong ties to the place and people of their community, reinforcing the shared attitudes and norms of that community. This is much less likely to occur in urban places where daily interactions are of a different quality (in terms of place and social structures), leading to less solidarity.

Second, building on studies by Dalton (2008) and Zhang and Chia (2000) it seems that political participation is more than voting and that social capital (trust and efficacy) leads to a sense of belonging and thus, greater political participation. Together, these studies suggest that any analysis of political engagement must consider how place, socioeconomic characteristics, attitudes and beliefs influence that engagement. This leads to the selection of the following variables for this study (Table 2-2).

While there are multiple ways and reasons one could see how these variables are related to each other, for the purpose of this study, it will be argued that both perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement influence the type and frequency of political engagement. In addition, the type of community has specific societal differences that allow for certain attitudes or behaviors to be enforced, therefore this would influence both perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards

political engagement. To better understand this relationship, an illustrated chart has been created:

Figure 2.1

Relationship of Key Variable Categories

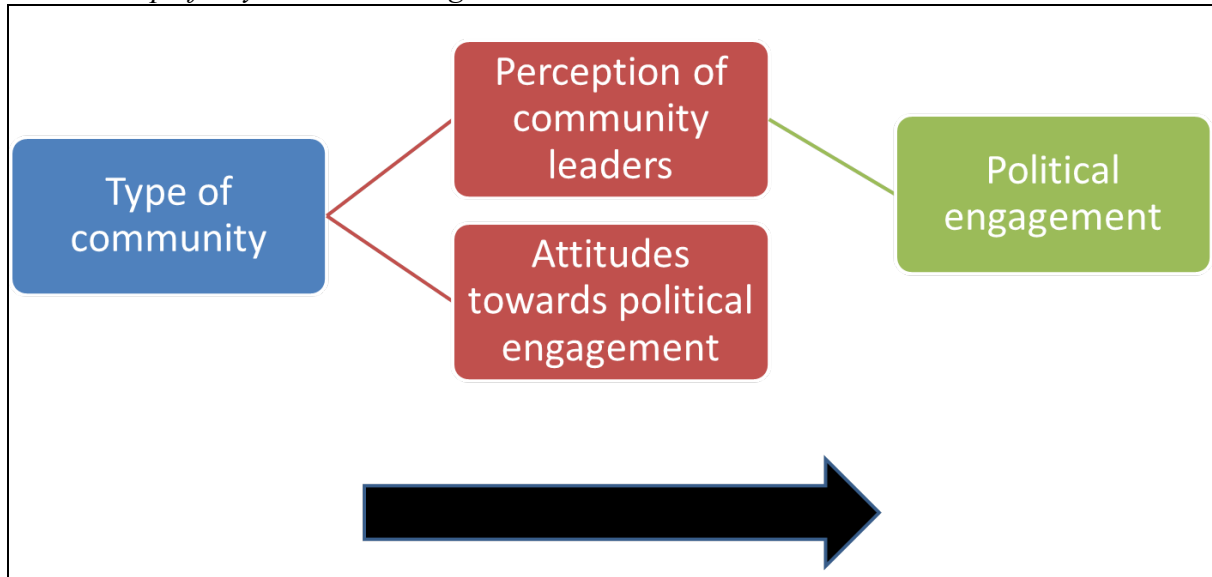


Table 2.2.

Study Variables

Perceptions of Community Leaders	Attitudes Towards Political Engagement	Types of Political Engagement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communicates with residents - Involving residents in decision making - Seeking community change - Transforming community goals into realities - Effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles 	<p>Efficacy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things - Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community <p>Trust:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I trust public officials to make the best decisions for my community - I trust the local government to do the right thing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Voted in local elections* - Worked for a political campaign locally - Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue - Contacted a local public official - Attended local rallies

* This variable will be used as the dependent variable.

Summary

This chapter has explored the literature on the relationship between political engagement and type of residence. In addition to the importance of other factors that influence levels of political engagement. Flora and others (1992) provide a context for understanding the cultural and social differences between rural and urban places; which may lead to different attitudes toward community leaders, as well as levels and types of political engagement.

A review of the literature on political participation showed different interpretations of voter turnout depending on how it is calculated and whether the election was a local or national election. But other factors, such as social capital, one's level of trust and efficacy and sense of belonging also explain political engagement. Finally, there is an extensive literature on the influence of socioeconomic characteristics and political engagement.

The chapter concludes with the presentation of key variables to be used in this study and how they are conceptually linked.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to expand the understanding of the relationship between personal characteristics such as socioeconomic characteristics (age, income and education); held perceptions of community leaders; attitudes towards political engagement, and past involvement with different forms of political engagement activities, have on an individual's likelihood to vote, while considering how the type of community could affect these characteristics and behaviors.

Objectives of the Study

1. Identify the relationship between type of community and variables of interest to the study.
2. Identify the relationship between sociodemographic attributes and political engagement.
3. Identify the relationship between perceptions of community leaders and political engagement.
4. Identify the relationship between attitudes towards political participation and political engagement?
5. Identify the relationship between perceptions of community leader and attitudes of community leaders.
6. Create a regression model to predict whether an individual will or will not vote.

Research Hypothesis

- 1) There is a relationship between type of community and variables of interest
- 2) There is a relationship between socioeconomic attributes and political engagement
- 3) There is a relationship between perceptions of community leaders and political engagement
- 4) There is a relationship between attitudes towards political participation and political engagement
- 5) There is a relationship between perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political participation
- 6) A regression model will be able to accurately predict if an individual will or will not vote based on the variables of the study

Research Design

This study was conducted using a correlation research method so that relationships between the variables could be analyzed. Fields defines correlation research as “a form of research in which you observe what naturally goes on in the world without directly interfering with it” (Fields, 2010 p. 783). This analysis used variables that were gathered from a state wide mail survey using a probabilistic sampling technique.

The variables of the survey that were used in this analysis were categorized into four main areas: sociodemographic; perceptions of community leaders; attitudes towards political engagement and past political engagement activates. Because there is a lack of

foundational theory that relates to type of community and political engagement (Oliver, 2000) a conceptual model was developed based on the work of (Flora and others, 1992)

Instrumentation

The instrument for this study was a paper based, mail survey (Appendix A). It was created in the spring of 2009 by a committee of faculty members in the Community and Leadership Development Department at the University of Kentucky. A mail survey was selected based on some key strengths related to mail surveys. First, because mail surveys are self-respondent; paper based surveys have a lower cost than traveling to conduct face to face interviews over a large geographic area. Secondly, this survey dealt with a politically sensitive issue, with the instrument being self-reported, allowed the respondent to feel at ease when responding to the survey and they could take their time contemplating the different answers. (May, 2011)

Data Collection and Population

The data used to answer these questions were collected by the Survey Research Center at the University of Kentucky. The survey asked 45 questions ranging in themes related to social capital to food consumption in addition to demographic characteristics. A probabilistic, representative sampling technique through a statewide, mail-out survey in a southeastern state (Kentucky) was used to gather this data. Initially 4,000 survey questionnaires were mailed between March 6 and March 10, 2009. After that, 3,666 follow-up post cards were mailed on March 19, 2009. Then, a second survey was mailed to 3,123 non-respondents between May 6 and May 8, 2009. The survey was closed on June 23, 2009, having received 1,154 complete respondents. Out of the 4,000 residents,

184 were not eligible due to inaccurate address or no longer residing at the address.

Therefore, the survey yielded a response rate of 30.2% based on 3,816 eligible residents.

It should be noted that the research committee conducting the survey made every effort possible to receive a representative sample of the state, over all they were successful in this endeavor. However, less than 10 percent of our respondents indicated living in a rural community, yet according to the 2010 census data, around 42 percent of Kentucky's population lives in a rural community (U.S. Census, 2012). Table 3.1 presents a distribution of the respondents' sociodemographic characteristics

Table 3.1
Selected Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Residence		
Metro	648	56.2
Urban Adjacent	180	15.6
Urban Non-Adjacent	208	18.0
Rural Adjacent	49	4.2
Rural Non Adjacent	52	4.5
Missing	17	1.5
Age		
30 years old or younger	94	8.1
31 – 60 years old	741	64.2
61 years old and older	319	27.6
Missing	0	0
Education		
Less than high school or GED	122	10.6
Completed high school or equivalent	299	25.9
Some college or associate's	386	33.4
Bachelor's or higher degree	338	29.3
Missing	9	0.8
Income		
\$24,999 or less	224	19.4
\$25,000 to \$49,999	292	25.3
\$50,000 to \$74,999	216	18.7
\$75,000 to \$124,999	223	19.3
\$125,000 or mote	111	9.8
Missing	88	7.6

Regarding residency, the majority (n=648; 56.2%) of the respondents lived in a metro area with the next most represented area being urban non-adjacent having 208 residents respondents (18%). Both rural adjacent (n=49) and rural non-adjacent (n=52) had the fewest respondents. Even when you combined both rural categories it is still has the fewest respondents accounting for only 8.7 percent of the sample. When looking at age we see that the majority (n=741; 64.2%) are between the ages of 31 and 60 years old.

With less than 10 percent (8.1%; n=94) being under the age of 30, and over a quarter (27.6%; n=319) of the population being over the age of 61 years old.

Now looking at education we see that 29.3(n=338) percent have attained at least a bachelor's degree, and almost 9 out of 10 (89.4%; n=1014) respondents have attained a high school diploma or equivalent. Regarding income we see that 224 (19.4%) respondents earn below \$25,000 per year. However 51.6 percent (n=550) earn \$50,000 or more a year, with 111(9.6%) of the respondents earning in the top category of \$125,000 or more a year. (For a complete list of frequency and percentages for our study variables, see appendix B).

Data Analysis

A list of all variables used in this study can be found in Appendix C

Recoding

Using the responses from the survey, the ordinal scale responses to perceptions of community leaders (communicates with residents; involving residence in decision making; seeking community change, growth, and improvements; transforming goals into realities; effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles) and attitudes towards political engagement (voting makes a difference in how the government runs things; ordinary people have real influences on the decisions made in my community; I trust public official to make the best decision for my community; I trust the local government to do the right thing) were recoded from the original five point liker scale: (1= poor / strongly disagree; 2= fair / disagree; 3= average / neither agree or disagree; 4= good / agree; 5= great / strongly agree) to a three point Likert scale: (1= fair / disagree;

2= average / neither agree or disagree; 3= good / agree). This allowed for a more robust analysis with other variables of interest.

Another recoding was done using variables related to perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement. This time they were recoded into a new dichotomous variable named positive perceptions and positive attitudes. To accomplish this, the recoding was designed so that a positive perception or attitude (3) would be coded as (1) and all other responses would be coded as (0).

The final recoding occurred with the political engagement behaviors (Did you vote, worked for a political campaign locally, sign a petition for a local candidate or issue, contacted a local official, or attended any local rallies, boycotts or marches). Originally, these variables had been coded in such a way that participation was indicated as 0 and nonparticipation was 1. To maintain consistency throughout the data of positive perceptions and attitudes, the political engagement variables were recoded so that past participation (positive behavior) was coded as 1 and nonparticipation (negative behavior) was coded as 0.

Constructed Variables

Using the new variable positive: perceptions, attitudes, and political engagement; three new variables were created that turned this ordinal data into interval data. This was done by calculating the positive responses to each subset of variables. This created a scale that ranged from 0 (no positive perceptions of community leaders) to 5 (maximum positive perceptions of community leaders). In regards to attitudes, the scale ranged from

0 (no positive attitudes towards political engagement) to 4 (maximum positive attitudes towards political engagement). Finally scores were created for political engagement, which ranged from 0(no past political engagement) to 4 (highest levels of political engagement). The variable related to voting was not calculated in as it is being used as an outcome variable in the analysis. This is why the range is from 0 to 4 and not 5.

Table 3.2
General Statistics Related to Constructed Variables

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Positive perceptions of community leaders	0.99	1.58
Positive attitudes towards political engagement	1.00	1.27
Level of political engagement	1.11	1.13
(Frequency charts for the constructed variables are located in the Appendix D)		

Objective 1

The recoded variables for perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement in addition to the socioeconomic characteristics and political engagement behaviors became the rows of the cross tabs while the residence variable was used in the columns. A cross tab was created with the percentages of the respondents falling into each category. By creating a cross tab it is possible to determine how the responses to the different variables change due to the type of community that the respondents live in. A chi squared statistic was also calculated to see if the difference based on type of community was statistically significant. (See Appendix E for an explanation of all statistical tests). For the purposes of this analysis, residence is county-

based and is a recoded of USDA's ERS rural-urban continuum codes. We use county as the place of residence because Kentucky has the highest number of counties per population of any state, reflecting the combination of small geographic size and small population size that has historically meant that the county is the key political unit of community identity (To see how the results change when aggregating the data with only metro, urban and rural categories see appendix F).

Objective 2

Cross tabs were created using SPSS by placing the different types of political engagement in the rows and the types of socioeconomic characteristics in the columns. Percentages were calculated using the row percentages to illustrate the proportion of respondents that fell into each category. Chi Squares were calculated to determine the significance of these relationships.

Objective 3

Using the responses from the survey and the same recoded variable from objective 1, cross tabs were created by placing the positive and negative (good or fair) variables related to perceptions of community leaders (Communicates with residence, involving residence in the decision making, seeking community change growth and improvement, transforming goals into realities, effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles) in the rows and the types of political engagement in the

columns. Percentages were calculated using the column percentage. This gives the rate of political engagement based on the respondent's perception of their community leaders. Questions related to political engagement where simple yes no responses as to whether the respondents had or had not participated in that activity in the past two years.

Objective 4

Cross tabs were created by placing the positive and negative (agree and disagree) variables related to attitudes towards political participation in the rows and the types of political engagement in the columns. Percentages where calculated using the column percentage. This gives the rate of political engagement based on the respondents' attitude. Spearman Correlation Coefficients (Spearman Rho) was calculated to see if there was any significant correlation between the variables. (For an explanation of this statistical test, please refer to Appendix E)

Objective 5

Cross tabs were created by placing the variables related to perceptions of community leaders in the rows and the attitudes towards political participation in the columns. Percentages where calculated for the percentage of respondents that fell in to each category. Because this analysis is comparing only both the positive and negative attitudes and perceptions together to better understand the relationship between the variables, the middle category for both perceptions and attitudes have been removed so that we are comparing the most positive perceptions with the most positive attitudes, and

the most negative perceptions with the negative attitudes. For this analysis a Spearman's Correlation Coefficient was calculated to see if there were any significant correlations.

Objective 6

Using the new constructed variables for perceptions of community leaders; attitudes towards political engagement; and level of political engagement, in addition to the sociodemographic characteristics a proper type of regression was researched that would be applicable to the type of variables that were being analyzed. It was determined by using a flow chart that was created by Fields, (2009) that based on the fact that there is one outcome (Dependent) variable that is categorical (vote: yes or no); three continuous predictor (independent) variables (positive perceptions of community leaders; positive attitudes towards political engagement; and level of political engagement) and four categorical independent variables (type of community, income, age, and education) that a Logistic regression analysis would be appropriate. Because there is only one outcome variable in the analysis binary logistic regression will be used. Due to the system that categorical variables have to be imputed, dummy variable must be created. An option within SPSS will calculate these variables as part of the analysis. The method used in this analysis of logistic regression is the forward likelihood ratio method. This method was chosen due to the large sample size and the amount of variables and because there is no past grounded literature that dictates the way these relationships should interact with each other.

Validity and Reliability

The face validity and reliability of this study was established by the committee of faculty that developed the survey questionnaire. This expert committee was made up of individuals that had expertise in the areas of: political engagement, rural sociology, in addition to survey design and development. According to Ruane (2006): “The face validity simply makes sure that the measures looks good on the surface” (Ruane, 2006 p. 62). In regards to reliability, some precautions were taken so that a representative sample was used, however because this was not a longitudinal study, the results may not be reliable based on the notion that following studies have not been conducted to see if the results are the same with other participants or time frames.

The researcher, another master’s level graduate student and, a faculty member in the Community and Leadership Development Department established content and predictor validity for the variables for the study. Content validity makes sure that the “empirical indicators do represent the full content of a concept’s nominal definition” and predictor validity showcases that the measures are able to accurately predict some other logically related outcome. ” (Ruane, 2006, p.64) In regards to content validity, due to the fact that there are multiple dimensions to perceptions of community leaders, attitudes towards political participation, and political engagement; multiple questions were used so that these different dimensions would be taken into full consideration. When looking at predictor validity, the responses used to create constructs were directly related to that idea or behavior.

Summary

The objectives of the study, being designed from the purpose of the study, lead to the development of the study's six hypotheses. These hypotheses will be tested by using variables found in a statewide survey that was conducted in 2009. Additionally some variables were constructed from the existing variables. These variables were identified based on a framework that was shaped by studying appropriate literature. It was determined that these variables were equally valid and reliable for testing the hypotheses. Three common statistical analyses: Chi-Square; Spearman correlation coefficient and a Logistic Regression model will be used to test the hypotheses. The succeeding sections of this thesis will expound the results of the test and implications that they have on society.

Chapter Four: Findings

(A list of all test statistics for this analysis can be found in appendix G)

Objective 1

The purpose of Objective One is to understand the relationship between type of community and the other main variables of interest for this study. In other words, does the type of community that you live in affect the other variables that are being used in this study?

Table 4.1.1
Variables of Interest by Type of Community

	Metro	Urban Adjacent	Urban Non- Adjacent	Rural Adjacent	Rural Non- Adjacent
Education	%	%	%	%	%
Less than High school diploma or equivalent	11.0	13.6	8.2	14.3	5.9
Completed High School or GED	25.4	27.1	27.5	26.5	25.5
Some College or an Associates	33.3	32.8	34.8	36.7	35.3
Bachelor's or Higher Degree	30.2	14.2	29.5	22.4	33.3
Annual Family Gross Income					
\$24,999 or less	22.3	21.9	17.2	26.7	17.0
\$25,000 to \$49,999	26.3	33.1	28.1	24.4	23.4
\$50,000 to \$74,999	21.3	18.1	19.3	11.1	25.5
\$75,000 to \$124,999	18.7	18.1	27.1	24.4	25.5
\$125,000 or more	11.4	8.8	8.3	13.3	8.5
Age					
Under 30 years of age	8.8	6.1	8.2	2.0	15.4
31 to 60 years of age	62.3	63.9	65.4	65.3	73.1
61 and older	28.9	30.0	26.4	32.7	11.5

Table 4.1.1 (cont.)
Variables of Interest by Type of Community

		Metro	Urban Adjacent	Urban Non- Adjacent	Rural Adjacent	Rural Non- Adjacent
	Perceptions of community leaders	%	%	%	%	%
Communicates with residents						
	Fair	40.1	39.9	38.1	46.9	24.0
	Average	41.0	41.6	41.1	32.7	52.0
	Good	18.9	18.5	20.8	20.4	24.0
Involves residence in decision making *						
	Fair	53.2	56.8	52.5	63.3	36.0
	Average	35.7	35.5	36.1	16.3	50.0
	Good	11.1	7.7	11.4	20.4	14.0
Seeks community change, growth and improvement						
	Fair	40.4	33.1	39.5	46.9	26.0
	Average	35.0	43.6	32.5	24.5	46.0
	Good	24.5	23.3	28.0	28.6	28.0
Transforms community goals into a reality						
	Fair	45.6	39.8	45.5	53.1	30.0
	Average	36.1	43.3	35.0	26.5	52.0
	Good	18.3	17.0	19.5	20.4	18.0
Effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles						
	Fair	41.7	38.2	36.0	53.1	34.7
	Average	33.9	40.0	40.1	22.4	46.9
	Good	24.4	21.8	23.9	24.5	18.4

Attitudes Towards Political Engagement

Voting makes a difference in how
the government runs things

Disagree	33.3	30.9	25.6	42.9	34.0
Neither agree nor disagree	27.8	30.3	31.5	18.4	28.0
Agree	38.8	38.8	42.9	38.8	38.0

Ordinary people have a real
influence on the decisions made in
my community*

Disagree	48.6	46.9	40.7	44.9	51.0
Neither agree nor disagree	26.7	37.1	39.7	30.6	36.7

Agree	24.8.	16.0	19.6	24.5	12.2
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Table 4.1.1 (cont.)
Variables of Interest by Type of Community

	Metro	Urban Adjacent	Urban Non- Adjacent	Rural Adjacent	Rural Non- Adjacent
Perceptions of community leaders (cont.)	%	%	%	%	%
I trust my public officials to make the best decisions for my community					
Disagree	53.2	42.3	42.6	61.2	44.0
Neither agree nor disagree	29.7	39.4	40.7	18.4	44.0
Agree	17.1	18.3	16.7	20.4	12.0
I trust our local government to do the right thing*					
Disagree	48.9	43.4	37.1	53.1	42.0
Neither agree nor disagree	29.2	38.2	37.6	18.4	42.0
Agree	21.9	18.5	25.2	28.6	16.0
Political Engagement					
Voted					
Yes	88.1	86.9	89.9	91.7	90.2
No	11.9	13.1	10.1	8.3	9.8
Worked for a political campaign locally					
Yes	13.4	14.2	9.3	16.7	5.9
No	86.6	85.8	90.7	83.3	94.1
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue					
Yes	40.9	39.1	41.7	50.0	41.2
No	59.1	60.9	58.3	50.0	58.8
Contacted a local public official					
Yes	46.2	43.4	43.7	52.1	41.2
No	53.8	56.6	56.3	47.9	58.8
Attended any local rallies, boycotts or marches.					
Yes	12.5	12.1	9.2	14.6	3.9
No	87.5	87.9	90.8	85.4	96.1

(* *p*- is significant at .05)

It is interesting to note that respondents living in a rural non-adjacent community
(very rural) are just as likely to have a high school diploma or equivalent (25.5%) as

those living in metro area (25.4%). In addition, respondents living in a rural non-adjacent area are more likely to hold a bachelors or advanced degree (33.3%) then those in any other area (metro-30.2%, urban adjacent to a metro -14.2%). Along similar lines of education, respondents living in the rural non-adjacent areas are earning just as much as those living in other areas. While rural non-adjacent has one of the lowest percentages (8.5%) of areas earning a gross income of \$125,000 or more per year compared to rural adjacent percentage of 13.3% or metro at 11.4%, rural non adjacent are ahead of urban non-adjacent (8.3%). Furthermore, rural non-adjacent has one of the highest proportions when you combined the top 2 categories for annual family gross income (34% of respondents living in rural non-adjacent earn an annual gross income of \$75,000 or more per year). Compare this to 30.1% of metro respondents. It should also be noted that rural non-adjacent has the lowest percentage (17.0%) earning \$24,000 or less per year among the different types of community.

With regard to age, it is intriguing that rural non-adjacent areas have the highest proportion (15.4%) of respondents belonging to the youngest age category and the least (11.5%) percentage of individuals 61 and older which is not what would be expected given national trends. In regards to the chi square test that relate to socioeconomic variables and residency, none where significant.

When exploring the relationship between perceptions of community leaders and residency we find that for the most part the majority of all types of communities have a fair to average perception of the professionalism and competency of their community leaders. However there are some exceptions and two of them lie within the rural non-adjacent communities. In regards to the responses to the question concerning

“Communicates with residence” the respondent in the rural non-adjacent responded 52% stated their community leaders were average while 24% said that their community leaders were either fair or good in this area. Another question where the majority of respondents did not rate fair to average was regarding “Seeking community change, growth and improvement” respondents from the rural non-adjacent responded to the positive with 46% responding average, 28% responding good and 26% responding fair. When conducting chi squares for this section related to perceptions of community leaders and type of community, one variable was significant "involves residents in decision making" $X^2(8) = 18.13$. $p = .020$.

The table highlights that there is also a majority of negative attitudes across all types of communities' regarding political participation. However, there is one variable that is an outlier: all types of communities, agree with the statement that “Voting makes a difference in how government runs things”. In contrast, an overwhelming majority either disagrees or neither agrees or disagree with the statements: Ordinary people can have a real influence on the decisions made in my community; I trust my public officials to make the best decision for my community; and, I trust our local government to do the right thing.” This is in spite of their positive attitude that voting can make a difference in how the government runs things. In addition, the last three variables also are all significant in their chi square test: Ordinary people have a real influence on the decisions made in my community by residence = $X^2(8) = 21.92$. $p = .006$; I trust my public officials to make the best decision for my community by residence = $X^2(8) = 21.27$. $p = .006$; I trust our local government to do the right thing by residence = $X^2(8) = 19.18$. $p = .014$

Based on the majority of negative attitudes and perceptions one would think that the respondents would not engage in the political sphere. However that is not the case. It is clear that the majority of respondents vote, there is not a lot of variance between the lowest rate of 86.9% from respondents in urban adjacent communities to 91.7% reported from the respondents living in rural adjacent communities. It should also be noted that voting is the highest reported type of political engagement among the types being studied. The next most common form of engagement is "contacted a local public official" with respondents from the rural adjacent communities reporting the highest level of participation (52.1%) while rural non-adjacent respondents reported the lowest percentage of participation (41.2%). A potential interesting finding is that out of all of the different types of communities, rural adjacent reported having the highest amount of participation in all types of political engagement. While rural non-adjacent respondents, had the lowest level of participation in community engagement among the variables, these residents were most likely to vote.

In summary, when it comes to both participation in political engagement and socioeconomic characteristics, there are some notable variances between them and the residency variables but none are significant. In regards to perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement, it seems that no matter what type of community the respondent was from they are in general going to hold a negative perception or attitude. When comparing these results to those in appendix F, the nuances of the differences become less visible when only looking at 3 categories (metro urban and rural) compared to the 5 categories used in the main analysis

Objective 2

Objective Two sought to expand an understanding of how socioeconomic characteristics affect political engagement. In other words, how do the traits that characterize a person affect their behavior in terms of political engagement? Table 4.2 shows how different socioeconomic characteristics affect the different types of political engagement.

Table 4.2.1
Political Engagement by Sociodemographic Characteristics

Age		Under 30 years old	31-60 years old	61 years old and older
		%	%	%
Voted in a local election*		91.5	91.0	82.1
Worked for a political campaign locally		16.5	13.8	9.1
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue*		30.1	40.5	45.9
Contacted a local public official		33.0	50.5	38.8
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches		13.0	12.6	9.5
Education	Less than High School or no GED	Completed High School or GED	Some college or Associates degree	Bachelor degree or higher
	%	%	%	%
Voted in a local election*	73.1	86.3	89.2	95.5
Worked for a political campaign locally*	3.4	8.4	12.1	20.8
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue*	20.5	32.3	45.4	50.9
Contacted a local public official*	29.1	38.8	48.4	55.3
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches*	6.0	5.5	11.1	20.2

Table 4.2.1 (cont.)

Political Engagement by Sociodemographic Characteristics

Income	\$24,999 or less	\$25,000 to 49,999	\$50,000 to 74,999	\$75,000 to 124,999	\$125,000 or more
	%	%	%	%	%
Voted in a local election*	77.2	89.6	89.7	94.6	93.5
Worked for a political campaign locally	9.8	10.8	12.1	16.7	18.5
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue*	26.3	38.2	44.9	49.5	54.6
Contacted a local public official*	34.7	41.0	52.3	52.5	59.3
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches*	8.4	8.3	12.2	16.3	20.4

Residence	State	Metro	Urban Adjacent	Urban Non- Adjacent	Rural Adjacent	Rural Non- Adjacent
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Voted in a local election	88.5	88.1	86.9	89.9	91.7	90.2
Contacted a local public official	45.3	46.2	43.4	43.7	52.1	41.2
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue	41.2	40.9	39.1	41.7	50.0	41.2
Worked for a political campaign locally	12.6	13.4	14.2	9.3	16.7	5.9
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches	11.5	12.5	12.1	9.2	14.6	3.9

(* *p*- value is significant at the .05)

Through this table we can see that individuals' personal characteristics do have an effect on the type of political participation they might chose to participate in. Focusing on age, with the exception of two variables we see that as age increases those ndividuals are least likely to vote (82.1% for respondents 61 years old and older paralleled to 91.5% for respondents 30 years old and younger.) or attend a rally, protest, boycott or marches. However older individuals are more likely to sign a petition, 45.9% of the oldest respondents reported signing a petition in the past two years compared to only 30.1% from the youngest respondent. When calculating the Chi square for this section, there

were two significant variables: Voted in local election= $X^2(2) = 17.88$. $p = .000$; and signed a petition for a candidate or issue= $X^2(2) = 7.72$ $p = .021$

These findings are comparable to the results of a study conducted by Robert Binstock (2006), where he noted that while the seniors are not showing up to the polls like the younger generations. The seniors other forms' of participation are not lagging far behind the younger members of society.

When looking at the section on education and engagement, the repeating theme is that as individuals attain a higher level of formal education, their engagement increases substantially. When focusing on respondents who have voted in the past two years, the respondents with less than a high school diploma voted at a rate of 73% compared to a rate of 95.5% for respondents with a college degree. One of the most notable differences between the respondents that have less than a high school diploma and a college graduate is, signing a petition for a local candidate or issue. One out of every two respondents that have a college degree have signed a petition in the past two years compared to only three out of ten respondents with less than a high school diploma or equivalent, For this section every single variable was significant when the Chi square was calculated: Voted in local election = $X^2(3) = 45.54$. $p = .000$; worked for a political campaign = $X^2(3) = 34.14$ $p = .000$; signed a petition for a local candidate or issue = $X^2(3) = 45.91$ $p = .000$; Contacted a local public official= $X^2(3) = 31.91$. $p = .000$; attended any rallies, boycotts, protest or marches = $X^2(3) = 37.51$ $p = .000$. A potential explanation for this difference is that because of an individual's education, they have been exposed to or made more aware of timely and relevant issues that concern them. This does not mean that there are not timely

and relevant issues concerning the groups of individuals with less education, but simply that they do not have the networks to inform them of these issues.

Much like the results of education and political engagement, there is also a positive relationship between income and political engagement. As one's yearly gross income increases they are more likely to be engaged in political activities. Once again focusing on voting, one can see that those respondents who earn less than \$25,000 vote at a rate of 77.2% of the time while those that gross \$125,000 or more vote at rate of 93.5 percent. Like that of education, the largest, difference between the lowest and highest earners comes from the variable related to signing a petition for a local candidate or issue. Just over a quarter (26.5%) of the respondents that earn less than \$25,000 per year has signed a petition compared to the majority (54.6%) of respondents earning \$125,000 or more a year. Another form of political engagement that has variance caused by income is "contacted a local public official." Here, only 34.7% of the lowest earners have contacted officials in the past two years, compared to 59.3% of the highest earners. When calculating the chi square for this section all of the variables except one was significant: Voted in local election= $X^2(4) = 39.01$ $p = .000$; Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue= $X^2(4) = 36.61$ $p = .000$; contacted a local public official= $X^2(4) = 28.77$ $p = .000$; Attended any local rallies, protest, boycotts or marches= $X^2(4) = 17.30$ $p = .002$.

The final section of the table deals with place of residence and political engagement. For this section of the table, the average for the whole state is also listed so that one may compare the different types of communities to the state as a whole. This information has been repeated to reinforce that residence is a socioeconomic factor that

could have an impact on a respondent's political engagement behaviors. For a discussion of this part of the table, please see the last paragraphs of objective 1.

One thing of interest is that respondents living in rural adjacent (rural communities that are adjacent to metro communities) communities reported participating at the highest rate among all types of political engagement. One explanation for this high level of participation is that the members of these communities may share many of the same values and beliefs of those residents who live in the other rural areas, however these citizens have to respond to issues associated with both the metro areas and rural communities, causing them to have to be more engaged than the others.

Objective 3

Objective Three considered how perceptions of one's community leader may possibly affect their political participation. This section determines if a respondent's views and opinions of community leaders have an effect on their decision to participate in the political sphere.

Table 4.3.1

Perceptions of Community Leaders and Political Engagement

		Voted	Worked for a campaign	Signed a petition	Contacted public officials	Attende d Rallies
		%	%	%	%	%
Communicates with residents						
	Good	20.3	24.8	19.1	43.3	23.1
	Fair	39.2	35.5	41.0	20.4	37.7
Involving residence in the decision making						
	Good	11.5	14.4	11.7	12.2	<u>16.2</u>
	Fair	53.6	49.6	55.2	55.9	<u>46.2</u>
Seeking community change, growth and improvement						
	Good	26.8	29.5	27.2	27.3	<u>33.6</u>
	Fair	38.2	36.7	39.0	39.1	<u>32.1</u>
Transforming goals into realities						
	Good	19.0	18.7	19.1	19.2	<u>25.2</u>
	Fair	43.6	43.9	44.6	46.2	<u>38.2</u>
Effectively modeling behaviors when in leadership roles						
	Good	24.6	28.8	22.9	25.0	26.0
	Fair	40.2	37.4	42.4	42.2	39.7

(underlined values denotes a positive Spearman Correlation at the .05 level)

Here it is clear that when a respondent holds a more negative perception (giving a score of fair instead of good) they are much more likely to be engaged in the political sphere by participating in more forms of engagement besides just voting. This is true in all cases except one. When respondents view their local leader positively in regards to seeking community change, growth and improvement , they are more likely to attend rallies, protest and marches then those that don't have such a favorable perception of community leaders (but only by a small margin of 33.6% to 32.1%). One of the largest contrasts deals with the variable involving residents in the decision making. Only 11.5%

of the respondents whose perception of their community leaders is positive regarding their inclusion in decision making compared to 53.6% of respondents who held a negative perception of their community leaders. When calculating the Spearman Correlation Coefficient for this section we had three significant variables surface: first, the role of residents in the decision making and attending rallies, protest, boycott or marches = $r_s = -.062$, $p = .039$; seeking community change, growth, and improvement and attending rallies, protest, boycotts or marches = $r_s = .066$, $p = .031$; and, transforms goals into realities and attending rallies, protest boycott or march = $r_s = .061$, $p = 0.43$

Overall, it seems surprising that respondents who have a negative perception about every variable related to perceptions of community leaders are more likely to vote. An interesting observation can be made, that citizens are voting for and electing local officials who they evaluate as being incompetent for their elected positions. Furthermore, the citizens who believe that their local officials are not competent are spending more of their time and resources to support either the current elected officials or supporting their opponent who may replace them in the next election. Citizens who see their local officials as being competent do not spend as much time and resources on supporting the current local official.

Objective 4

Objective Four examine how one's attitudes toward political participation will affect their actual political engagement.

Table 4.4.1

Attitude Towards Political Engagement and Political Engagement

	Voted	Worked for a campaign	Signed a petition	Contacted public officials	Attended rallies, boycotts and marches
	%	%	%	%	%
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things	<u>41.4</u>	<u>53.9</u>	42.4	40.8	<u>58.3</u>
Agree	<u>29.9</u>	<u>22.7</u>	29.9	33.7	<u>20.5</u>
Disagree					
Ordinary People have real influence on how the decisions made in my community	22.4	<u>32.4</u>	22.4	22.5	32.8
Agree	46.8	<u>40.8</u>	46.0	50.1	38.2
Disagree					
I trust public officials to make the best decisions for my community	17.2	22.1	16.2	<u>16.6</u>	20.5
Agree	49.8	44.3	52.0	<u>54.0</u>	44.7
Disagree					
I trust the local government to do the right thing	22.5	23.4	<u>19.7</u>	<u>19.2</u>	24.2
Agree	45.3	42.6	<u>50.0</u>	<u>52.0</u>	43.2
Disagree					

(underlined values denote that the r_s is significant at $p=.05$)

This analysis reveals some interesting relationships among attitudes and actual political engagement. First, it is important to note that respondents who agreed with the statement that “voting makes a difference in how the government runs things” were much

more likely to be politically engaged. For example, individuals who agreed with this statement voted at a rate of 41.4% compared to 29.9% for the respondents who disagreed. In addition, the respondents who agreed with the statement that “voting makes a difference in how the government runs things” participate in other types of political activities at least 40% of the time. In addition there were three significant Spearman Correlation Coefficients between the relationship among the attitude that voting makes a difference in how the government runs things; and political engagement (voted in a local election, worked for a campaign locally and attended rallies, protest, boycotts or a march. The test statistics for these are: voting makes a difference in how the government runs things and voted in a local election= $r_s = -.124$, $p = .000$; worked for a campaign locally = $r_s = -.107$, $p = .000$; and attended rallies, boycotts and marches = $r_s = -.333$, $p = .000$.

Other correlations that are significant deal with ordinary people have a real influence on how the decisions are made in my community and respondents working on a campaign locally. The test statistic related to this correlation is $r_s = .076$, $p = .012$. Another variable that has two other significant Spearman Rho statistics are I trust my local government to do the right thing with, signed a petition for a local candidate or issue ($r_s = -.075$, $p = .012$) and contacted a local public official ($r_s = -.113$, $p = .000$); lastly, I trust public officials to make the best decision for my community with contacted public official $r_s = -.072$, $p = .016$.

However for the next three measures of political attitudes (Ordinary people have a real influence on the decisions made in my community, I trust public officials to make the best decisions for my community and I trust the local government to do the right things) a negative relationship appears. In other words, respondents who agreed with these

statements are less likely to be political engaged. Therefore individuals who don't believe that they can influence the government or that they can trust their public officials or that the local government will do the right thing are engaged in the political realm more than those that do believe they can have an influence, can trust their public officials and that the local government will do the right thing.

Objective 5

Objective Five examines the relationship between perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement.

This analysis illustrates the relationship between the indicators for perceptions of community leaders and the attitudes towards political engagement. The analysis shows a greater percentage of respondents who hold negative views regarding both perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement then hold positive views. A good way to think about this analysis is in terms of the whole sample. Out of all of the respondents, only 12.8% agree with the statement that voting makes a difference in how the government runs things and hold a positive (rated good) perception of their community leader. On the flip side, 34.3% of all the respondents disagree with the statement "I trust our local government to do the right thing" and rate their community leaders as fair in regards to transforming goals into reality. The calculations of the Pearson Correlation coefficient indicate that all of these p-values are significant.

Table 4.5.1

Perceptions of Community Leaders and Attitudes Towards Political Engagement

		Voting makes a difference in how government runs things		Ordinary people have real influence on the decision made in my community		I trust Public officials to make the best decisions for my community		I trust our local government to do the right thing	
		A %	D %	A %	D %	A %	D %	A %	D %
Communicates with residence	Good	12.8	-	9.9	-	9.3	-	11.8	-
	Fair	-	19.6	-	28.6	-	23.0	-	29.8
Involving residence in the decision making	Good	8.4	-	7.5	-	6.5	-	7.7	-
	Fair	-	25.0	-	36.6	-	28.4	-	39.2
Seeking community change, growth and improvement	Good	16.4	-	11.7	-	11.1	-	12.8	-
	Fair	-	20.8	-	28.1	-	23.8	-	30.9
Transforming goals into realities	Good	12.5	-	10.1	-	9.5	-	10.4	-
	Fair	-	22.2	-	31.2	-	25.8	-	34.3
Effectively modeling behaviors when in leadership roles	Good	15.8	-	11.9	-	10.9	-	13.1	-
	Fair	-	21.0	-	29.1	-	24.2	-	31.8

(A=Agree, D=Disagree)

(all *P*-Values are significant at the 0.05 level)

Objective 6

This step involved creating a model that would predict whether or not an individual would vote based on the variables in the analysis. Selected tables from the SPSS Output regarding this analysis are below

Table 4.6.1

Dependent Variable Encoding

Original Value	Internal Value
No	0
Yes	1

Table 4.6.2

Categorical Variables Coding

			Parameter coding			
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Residents	Metro	552	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Urban Adjacent	139	1.000	.000	.000	.000
	Urban Non-Adjacent	172	.000	1.000	.000	.000
	Rural- Adjacent	44	.000	.000	1.000	.000
	Rural Non-Adjacent	43	.000	.000	.000	1.000
Annual	\$24,999 or less	188	.000	.000	.000	.000
Family	\$25,000 to \$49,999	261	1.000	.000	.000	.000
Gross	\$50,000 to \$74,999	198	.000	1.000	.000	.000
Income	\$75,000 to \$124,999	200	.000	.000	1.000	.000
	\$125,000 or more	103	.000	.000	.000	1.000
Highest	Less than High School or no GED	92	.000	.000	.000	
Grade of	Completed High School or GED	240	1.000	.000	.000	
Education	Some college or Associate's Degree	327	.000	1.000	.000	
Completed	Bachelor's or Higher Degree '	291	.000	.000	1.000	
Age		59	.000	.000		
	30 Years old and younger					
	31-60 Years old	612	1.000	.000		
	61 Years old and older	279	.000	1.000		

Table 4.6.1 indicates that the software kept the same coding variables as originally recoded. Because voted is coded as 1 this will be what the rest of the model is predicting or that voting is the target variable.

Table 4.6.2 highlights how the categorical variables of this analysis were recoded so that they could properly be used in the analysis.

Table 4.6.3

Iteration History^{a,b,c}

Iteration	-2 Log likelihood	Coefficients
		Constant
Step 0 1	704.642	1.541
2	677.577	1.965
3	676.981	2.041
4	676.981	2.043
5	676.981	2.043

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. Initial -2 Log Likelihood: 676.981

c. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 4.6.3 is the Iterating History and informs the researcher of the log-likelihood of the model with all predictor variables omitted. Based on these coefficients, SPSS calculates by selecting the target variable that occur the most (voting) and predicts that a person will vote more often than not because that is what the observed data is informing it to do. SPSS calculates the following classification table (Table 4.6.4 in such a way to create a better model.

Table 4.6.4
Classification Table^{a,b}

			Predicted		
			QVOTED	Percentage	
Observed			no	Yes	
Step 0	VOTED	No	0	109	.0
		Yes	0	841	100.0
	Overall Percentage				88.5

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. The cut value is .500

Because SPSS predicts that everyone will vote, it will not accurately account for the 109 individuals that did not. Because of this, the model accurately predicts if an individual will or will not vote 88.5% of the time.

Table 4.6.5
Summary of Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	2.043	.102	402.846	1	.000	7.716

With the table 4.6.5 Variables in the Equation we can see that the b_0 (the Y intercept) is equal to 2.04 with only the constant in the model. This b_0 coefficient is significant based on the Wald score, just like the X^2 score from above if the Wald statistic is significant, it can be determined that the coefficient is significantly different from 0 and that it is impacting the way the model predicts voting.

4.6.6

Variables not in the Equation

		Score	df	Sig.
Step 0	Variables			
	Positive Perception	4.115	1	.042
	Positive Attitude	4.777	1	.029
	Grade.	42.724	3	.000
	Grade. (1)	2.293	1	.130
	Grade. (2)	.012	1	.911
	Grade. (3)	22.311	1	.000
	Income.	34.015	4	.000
	Income. (1)	.047	1	.829
	Income. (2)	.868	1	.351
	Income. (3)	8.900	1	.003
	Income. (4)	2.489	1	.115
	Age.x.30yrs.	19.961	2	.000
	Age.x.30yrs.(1)	15.008	1	.000
	Age.x.30yrs.(2)	19.961	1	.000
	Residence	1.983	4	.739
	Residence(1)	.773	1	.379
	Residence(2)	.210	1	.647
	Residence(3)	.258	1	.612
	Residence(4)	.897	1	.344
	EHNOVOTING	47.110	1	.000
	Overall Statistics	108.724	16	.000

In table 4.6.6, (Variables Not in the Equation) it is important to point out the last statistic in the table named Overall Statistic is a $X^2(16) = 108.724$, $p = .000$. with this statistic being significant it informs the researcher that the variables that are not in the equation are significantly different than 0 and that by adding additional variables it will make this model have more predictive power.

Now SPSS calculated what variables that were not used in the previous equation will help created a stronger model. It is calculating this additive property because of the stepwise method of forwards likelihood ratio.

Table 4.6.7, highlights that the automatic calculations provided a 3 steep process

Table 4.6.7

Classification Table^a

			Predicted		
			VOTED		Percentage
Observed			no	yes	Correct
Step 1	VOTED	No	0	109	.0
		Yes	0	841	100.0
		Overall Percentage			88.5
Step 2	VOTED	No	0	109	.0
		Yes	0	841	100.0
		Overall Percentage			88.5
Step 3	VOTED	No	6	103	5.5
		Yes	5	836	99.4
		Overall Percentage			88.6

a. The cut value is .500

With this process of adding different variables to the equation it now allows the model at the end of step 3 to predict if an individual will vote or not with an accuracy of 88.6% of the time. Table 4.6.8 list what variables were added and at what step to create this increase of maximum predictability of this model.

Table 4.6.8
Variables in the Equation

								95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1	VOTING	.938	.146	41.232	1	.000	2.554	1.918	3.401
	Constant	1.339	.125	111.896	1	.000	3.815		
Step 2	Grade.			21.806	3	.000			
	Grade. (1)	.725	.305	5.639	1	.000	2.065	1.135	3.755
	Grade. (2)	.790	.301	6.890	1	.018	2.204	1.222	3.977
	Grade. (3)	1.791	.384	21.705	1	.009	5.995	2.822	12.736
	VOTING	.843	.148	32.262	1	.000	2.324	1.737	3.108
Step 3	Constant	.552	.243	5.139	1	.023	1.737		
	Grade.			26.788	3	.000			
	Grade. (1)	.834	.314	7.040	1	.000	2.303	1.244	4.266
	Grade.(2)	1.018	.314	10.502	1	.008	2.769	1.495	5.125
	Grade.(3)	2.030	.396	26.303	1	.001	7.615	3.505	16.544
	Age.x.30yrs.			22.016	2	.000			
	Age.x.30yrs. (1)	-.356	.518	.472	1	.492	.700	.254	1.935
	Age.x.30yrs. (2)	-1.36	.528	6.700	1	.010	.255	.090	.717
	Constant	.838	.152	30.284	1	.000	2.312	1.716	3.117
	Grade.	1.112	.510	4.757	1	.029	3.042		

According to this table (4.6.8) in step 1 the variable that contributed the highest predictability in voting was past level of political engagement (not including voting). In step 2 the categorical variables related to highest grade of education completed had the second highest effect on the models predictability. However we see that in step 3 the variable that measured classified the respondents age was included and therefore has a high level of influence over the models predictability. Once again we see that all of these variables have a significant impact on not only the b_0 coefficient but also in the way the model accurately predicts voting. There is one exception that should be noted, Age.x.30yrs.Q180 (1) has a p value above .05 ($p=.492$) and therefore is not significant,

however because this variable is part of a total of 3 variables that make up age and the other 2 variables are significant. The researcher will keep this variable as part of step3.

Table 4.6.9
Model if Term Removed

		Change in -2		df	Sig. of the Change
Variable		Model Log Likelihood	Log Likelihood		
Step 1	EHNOVOTING	-338.490	60.096	1	.000
Step 2	Grade.	-308.443	24.443	3	.000
	EHNOVOTING	-318.149	43.856	1	.000
Step 3	Grade.	-300.144	29.837	3	.000
	Age.x.30yrs.	-296.221	21.992	2	.000
	EHNOVOTING	-305.539	40.628	1	.000

Another way to showcase that the variables in the model are important to the model accuracy predicting voting is with table 4.6.8 which deals with removing certain parts of the current constructed model. The important statistic to look at in this table is the significant of the model log likelihood, because all of the values are $p=.000$ that means if any variable would be removed it would have a significant effect on the predictability of the model.

Table 4.6.10

Variables not in the Equation after Model

			Score	df	Sig.
Step 1	Variables	Positive_Perception	3.596	1	.058
		Positive_Attitude	4.142	1	.042
		Grade.	23.953	3	.000
		Grade. (1)	.403	1	.526
		Grade. (2)	.109	1	.741
		Grade. (3)	14.871	1	.000
		Income.	20.105	4	.000
		Income. (1)	.483	1	.487
		Income. (2)	.329	1	.566
		Income. (3)	6.295	1	.012
		Income. (4)	.790	1	.374
		Age.x.30yrs.	17.561	2	.000
		Age.x.30yrs. (1)	11.611	1	.001
		Age.x.30yrs. (2)	17.444	1	.000
		Residence	2.185	4	.702
		Residence(1)	.562	1	.453
		Residence(2)	.669	1	.414
		Residence(3)	.050	1	.822
		Residence(4)	1.000	1	.317
	Overall Statistics		58.259	15	.000
Step 2	Variables	Positive_Perception	3.282	1	.070
		Positive_Attitude	4.065	1	.044
		Income.	7.435	4	.115
		Income. (1)	1.033	1	.309
		Income. (2)	.041	1	.840
		Income. (3)	2.383	1	.123
		Income. (4)	.077	1	.782
		Age.x.30yrs.	23.239	2	.000
		Age.x.30yrs. (1)	14.042	1	.000
		Age.x.30yrs. (2)	22.857	1	.000
		Residence	1.321	4	.858

Table 4.6.10 (cont.)

Variables not in the Equation after Model

		Score	df	Sig.
	Residence(1)	.298	1	.585
	Residence(2)	.388	1	.534
	Residence(3)	.222	1	.638
	Residence(4)	.432	1	.511
	Overall Statistics	36.334	12	.000
Step 3	Variables Positive_Perception	1.930	1	.165
	Positive_Attitude	2.386	1	.122
	Income.	8.988	4	.061
	Income. (1)	1.011	1	.315
	Income. (2)	.098	1	.754
	Income. (3)	2.892	1	.089
	Income. (4)	.072	1	.788
	Residence	.903	4	.924
	Residence(1)	.165	1	.685
	Residence(2)	.392	1	.531
	Residence(3)	.285	1	.593
	Residence(4)	.065	1	.799
	Overall Statistics	14.048	10	.171

Once again we receive a table for the variables that are not in the model, Table 4.6.10. Once again if we look at the X^2 of the overall statistics we see that $X^2(10) = 14.048$, $p = .171$; therefore this is a non-significant statistic which means the remaining variables of this table have coefficients that are not significantly different from 0 and therefore will not add to the predictability of the model thus they will not be included in the model. Based on table 4.6.8 and 4.6.9 the variables of this study that affect the prediction of an individual voting or not voting are now known.

Table 4.6.11

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	616.885 ^a	.061	.120
2	592.442 ^a	.085	.167
3	570.451 ^a	.106	.208

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 6 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Based on the Nagelkerke R Square found in Table 4.6.10, the model can predict 21% of the variability of the outcome variable if an individual will vote or not.

Summary

To test the hypothesis of the study, three common statistical tests were employed: Chi-Square; Spearman correlation coefficient and Logistic regression model. Based on these test statistic values, each hypothesis was examined and determined if it was significant the results are as follows:

1) There is s relationship between type of community and variables of interest – this hypothesis is not accepted because of the small number of statistically significant test statistics that tested the relationships.

2) There is a relationship between socioeconomic attributes and political engagement - this hypothesis is accepted because there were a high number of variables with significant test statistics' related to the association of the variables.

3) There is a relationship between perceptions of community leaders and political engagement – this hypothesis is rejected because of the small

number of statistical significant test statistics that tested the relationships between the variables.

4) There is a relationship between attitudes towards political participation and political engagement – this hypothesis is rejected because of the small number of statistical significant test statistics that tested the relationships between the variables.

5) There is a relationship between perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political participation -- this hypothesis is accepted because there were a high number of variables that had significant test statistics' related to the association of the variables.

6) A regression model will be able to accurately predict if an individual will or will not vote based on the variables of the study - this hypothesis is accepted because the regression model that was created to predict voting behavior in individuals based on the variables of the study was found to be significant and can predict at a rate of 88.6% accuracy.

Chapter Five: Conclusions

Summary of the Research Analysis

Objective 1

It is concluded that type of community does not have a statistically significant relationship with education, income, age and all the variables related to political engagement. When these variables were investigated for possible relationships none of the test statistics of Chi-Squares calculated to be significant at the $p = .05$. However one of the five variables that make up perceptions of community leaders, involving residents in decision making, did have a significant association with type of community. It was calculated that these two variables: type of community and involving residents in decision makings was significant at the $p = .05$ level with a test statistic of $X^2(8) = 18.13$, $p = .20$. for these variables it should be noted that respondents living in the rural adjacent communities evaluated their elected officials good 20.4% of time while respondents living in urban adjacent rated their elected leaders good at a rate of 7.7% of the time.

The other significant interactions come from variables related to attitudes towards political engagement. Two of the four variables that related to attitudes towards political engagement had a statistically significant relationship with type of community. Equally, “ordinary people have a real influence on the decisions being made in my community” ($X^2(8) = 21.92$, $p = .006$) and “I trust our local government to do the right thing” were significantly associated to types of communities with a test statistic of $X^2(8) = 19.1$, $p = .014$. Once more residents living in rural adjacent communities gave the highest ratings compared to the other types of communities.

These findings that less than 1/5 only 16.67% of the analysis's variables had relationships that allowed for a significant test statistic leads the research to conclude that there is not a relationship between type of community and the variables of the analysis. This idea that there is no significant relationship between the sociodemographic characteristics and type of community reinforces the notion of Flora et.al. (1992), that the physical differences between rural and urban places are becoming less evident and that the core variances lay within the societal influences.

Now, looking at the variables of this study that did have a significant relationship with type of community (i.e., local officials involve residents in decision making; ordinary people have a real influence on the decisions being made; and I trust local government to do what's best in my community), one could conduct a thought-provoking study to see in what way these three variables are associated not only with each other but also to the types of communities in which the respondents reside.

Objective 2

It is concluded that there is a significant relationship between many of socioeconomic variables and political participation. In regards to age; both voted in a local election and signed a petition for a local candidate or issue had significant Chi-Square test at the $p=.05$. Voted in local elections yielded $\chi^2(2) = 17.88, p = .000$; there is a negative relationship regarding age and political participation. As a person ages, they are less likely to vote than younger respondents. Instead, there is a positive relationship between the other significant test statistic of age and "signed a petition for a local

candidate or issue.” Hence, as a person gets older they are more likely to participate in this type of engagement. This relationship generated a statistic of $\chi^2(2) = 7.72, p = .21$.

When looking at education and political engagement all variables are statistically significant. The general relationship between education and political engagement is a positive one. As a participant’s level of formal education increases so does the rate at which they engage in political activities.

Moving onto income, all but one variable (“Worked for a political campaign locally”) is statistically significant, greatly comparable to the relationship that we saw with education. In general, the more income a participant earns the more active that they are in political engagement. Finally, the last section was type of community and political engagement. This section has already been addressed above in the conclusion of objective 1.

These results regarding sociodemographic characteristics and political engagement coincided with the research of past researchers who have studied this topic including Teixeira, 1987; Norman & Kim, 1974; Binstock, 2006. When looking at these political engagement variables it is interesting to realize that similar variables are significant across the majority of the different sociodemographic characteristics. For example, “voted in a local election” and “signed a petition for a local candidate or issue” were significant 3 out of the four times, whereas “worked for a campaign locally” was only significant when correlated to education. To understand the relationship between the different types of political engagement based on sociodemographic characteristic would permit for a greater depth of understanding for this study.

Objective 3

It is recognized that despite the fact there is a descriptive relationship between perceptions of community leaders and political engagement there is no strong statistical support for this relationship. When considering the results, there are 3 significant Spearman Correlations between perceptions of community leaders (involving residents in the decision making; seeking community change, growth and improvement; and transforming goals to realities) and if a respondent had attended rallies, boycotts and marches. The test statistics are as follows,: first, the role of residents in the decision making and attending rallies, protest, boycott or marches = $r_s = -.062$, $p = .039$; seeking community change, growth, and improvement and attending rallies, protest, boycotts or marches = $r_s = .066$, $p = .031$; and, transforms goals into realities and attending rallies, protest boycott or march = $r_s = .061$. $p = 0.43$

It is clear through these data, that there are more respondents that embrace negative perceptions of their community leaders then there are those with positive perceptions. Nevertheless, it is these individuals that hold these negative perceptions that are partaking in political engagement activities. A study of this idea that respondents who hold negative perceptions of community leaders are the ones engaging in political activity would make for an interesting addition to this study. It could be that because of the negative perceptions these respondents embrace, they are driven to be engaged for they feel like the elected officials could not do it alone, or perhaps because the respondents are already engaged their exchanges with the elected officials provide them with reasons to hold this negative perception. The researcher could build off of the literature that is

already existing based on institutional trust and efficacy and how it relates back to social capital, generating a depth that has yet to be discovered in the current literature.

Objective 4

There are only a few generalizations that can be made about attitudes towards political engagement and political engagement. Only 30% of the variables are correlated with each other at a significant level. There also is an interesting yet not statistically significant relationship between the attitude that voting makes a difference in how the government runs things and political participation. Furthermore, three types of political participation (voted in local elections, worked for a campaign locally and attended a rallies, protest, boycott or a march) have significant correlations. But overall, there is not a significant relation between the variables associated with attitudes towards political engagement and actual political engagement.

It is bewildering why there is such a low rate of significant relationships between the variables related to attitudes of political engagement and political engagement. One possible reason for this low correlation rate would be the points made by Dalton and the PEW study in regards to duty-based norms. This argument is that because respondents believe voting and other forms of political engagement are duty based, they are still engaged even if they feel that their engagement will not have any effect on them or within their community.

Once again this negative relationship appears where respondents with positive attitudes towards the political engagement are less likely to be engaged in political

activities then the respondents who hold negative attitudes. This may indicate that the respondents who are highly engaged in political activities have vanishing confidence in the process, whereas those respondents who engage less frequently, perhaps because they see it only as a duty, feel that their engagement is creating a difference within their community. Or perhaps it could be that those who hold negative attitudes towards political engagement select to engage further so that they may feel that they are being heard by their community leaders.

Objective 5

It is concluded from the calculated Spearman Correlation Coefficients that there is a significant relationship between perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engagement. All of the considered test statistics are highly significant at the $p = .05$ level (as all are essentially significant at the $p = .001$ level). The relationship that emerges is that there are a larger proportion of the respondents who hold both negative perceptions of community leaders and negative attitude towards political engagement than the proportion of respondents who hold positive perceptions and attitudes.

One of the principal Spearman Correlation Coefficients relates to the variables “transforming goals into realities” and “I trust my public official to make the best decision for my community” $r_s = .573$, $p = .000$. For these variables, over a quarter (25.8%) of respondents disagreed with the statement “I trust my public officials to make the best decisions for my community” and their perception is that their community

leaders are fair in their ability to transform goals into realities. While less than 1 out of 10 (9.5%) respondents agreed with the statement that they trust their public officials to make the best decisions for my community and perceived their community leader as good in their ability to transform goals into realities

Objective 6

It can be concluded that a regression model can be used to predict if an individual will vote or not based on variables of this study. By utilizing a logistic regression model and using a forward stepwise likelihood ratio the following model was produced.

Table 5.6.1
Coefficients Related to Logistic Regressions

	B (SE)	Lower	Odds Ratio Exp(B)	Upper
Included				
Constant	1.12 (.51)		3.04	
LE (Level of engagement)	.84 (.15)	1.72	2.31	3.12
Age-2 (61 and older)	-1.37 (.53)	.09	.255	.717
Age-1(31 to 60)	-.36 (.52)	.25	.700	1.94
Age-0(30 and younger)				
Grade -3 (Bachelors or more)	2.03 (.40)	3.51	7.62	16.55
Grade -2 (Some college)	1.02 (.31)	1.50	2.77	5.13
Grade-1 (High school or Ed).	.83 (.31)	1.25	2.30	4.27
Grade-0 (Less than High school)				
R ² = .48 (Hosmer & Lemeshow), .11 (Cox & Snell), .21(Nagelkerke). Model X ² (6)= 106.530				

Model for Logistic Regression

Est. Logit for Vote=1.12+ (.84)*LE+ (-1.37)*Age-2+ (-0.36)*Age-1+ (2.03)*Grade-3+
(1.02)*Grade-2+ (0.83)*Grade-1

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to predict voting for 1154 individuals using past political engagement, age and highest level of formal education, as predictors. A test of the full model against a constant only model was statistically significant, indicating that the predictors as a set reliably distinguished between those who did and did not vote (chi square = 106.530, $p < .000$ with $df = 6$).

Nagelkerke's R^2 of .21 indicated that these variables explain 21% of the variance in voting. Prediction success overall was 95.6% (99.4% for voting and 5.5% for not voting). The Wald criterion demonstrated that all variables made significant contribution to the prediction with the exception of Age-1 ($p = .492$). EXP(B) value indicates that when the level of engagement is raised by one unit (additional action/behavior) the odds ratio is 3 times as large and therefore individuals are 3 more times likely vote.

Summary

This study is grounded in a model that attempts to predict if an individual will or will not vote. The model was tested using logistic regression with a method of forward selecting likelihood ratios and using the variables related to past political engagement; age and education. Although the key variables of interest were not used in the model that predicts voting behavior, a model was still established that allowed for the use of select variables from the study to construct it.

When researching the topic and investigating the relationships between these key variables of perception of community leaders, attitudes towards political engagement and actual political engagement, exciting discoveries were made. Starting with objective 1 the

way in which the variables were defined and measured and the categorical tool used to delineate type of community, it became clear that there were no significant differences related to place between sociodemographic variables and political engagement variables. While unexpected, this finding does give some more merit to the theory that types of communities are becoming more like each other.

In regards to objective 2, there were some significant relationships between sociodemographic characteristics and political engagement. This was expected from past studies that had linked personal sociodemographic characteristics to type and frequency of political engagement (Teixeira, 1987; Norman & Kim, 1974; Binstock, 2006). During this analysis it was revealed that with the variables of this study, both age and education had relationships that were significant. These are two of the same variables that were then used in the regression model to better predict individuals' voting behaviors.

When considering the analysis for objective 3 that looked at perceptions of community leaders and political engagement, it was determined that there was no relationship between these variable groups. However, the cross tabs that were created highlighted an interesting negative relationship between perceptions of community leaders and political engagement. In other words respondents who held negative perceptions of community leaders were more likely to be engaged in political activities. While there are some initial thoughts at what might be causing this relationship, a study that would explain this association would add an interesting body of literature that currently does not exist.

Parallel to objective 3, objective 4 focused on the relationship between attitudes towards political engagement and political engagement. Although there were some variables that did have a statistically significant relationship, it was determined that there was not a general significant relationship between the variables. Once again we see this negative relationship for three of the four variables: that the respondents who hold negative attitudes towards political engagement are more likely to be engaged in political activities. However, for the respondents who agreed that voting can make a difference in the way the government runs things, they were more likely to be engaged in all measured forms of political engagement. The latter makes sense, when taking into account the literature on political efficacy. It is the variables that have a negative relationship that are perplexing.

Object 5 examined the variables related to perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political participation. The correlation between these variables were all significant, signaling that there was an affiliation shared among these variables. It was noted that there was a greater part of the sample that held both negative perceptions of community leaders and attitudes towards political engaging, then the respondents that held positive perceptions and attitudes.

Future Research

Due to this study, additional questions have risen due to some unanticipated results and relationships that were not being explored in the scope of this study. One key area would be related to political engagement; perceptions of community leaders and

attitudes towards political engagement. While this study did highlight that these variables have a negative relationship (i.e. residents with negative perceptions of community leaders are more political engaged), there were no measures that helped explain this relationship. Therefore a future study may possibly survey participants with the same types of questions measuring perceptions of community leaders; attitudes towards political participation; political engagement, but include some additional questions that would aid in clarifying the manufacturing of these perceptions, attitudes and behaviors.

Another area that needs to be researched, so a more complete understanding of the relationship between type of community and political engagement is: Why do residents in the rural-adjacent communities have higher engagement levels than those who are in the other types of communities?

Additionally, if the researcher were to conduct this analysis for a second time, there are certain areas that would be revised in anticipations of generating a stronger model to predict whether an individual would vote or not. The main alteration would take into consideration the variables used to measure political engagement; the variables used in this study are restricted to limited formal types of political engagement. Since political engagement was a significant predictor if someone would vote or not, by increasing this variable to measure both formal and informal types of political engagement; this could conceivably return a stronger model. Another area that would be reassessed and perhaps changed is the way that types of communities were classified. While the analysis did explore types of communities based on a recoded system of BEAL codes that had five different categories, and then again with only 3 different categories. There are other classifications to categorize types of communities that have a fundamentally different

method to classifying communities, which may influence the relationship between type of community and the other variables of the study.

In addition, these questions asked in this study were answered using a quantitative research method. However after seeing that these variables share complex relationships, it might be of value to change the research method to either a mix of both quantitative and qualitative or to change the research method entirely and investigate these questions using a qualitative method where interviews could be employed to help gather data that would clarify the development or causality that these relationships have on one another.

Lastly, as the researcher noted earlier, there is a limited amount of literature on the topic of political engagement and type of community. Most studies that did look at political engagement used voting as the key variable of their study, as did I. In the future, it would be important to close the gap in the literature by using the same variables to predict other types of political engagement and not just voting. This would allow us to take the focus away from voting, which has received the majority of attention in the restricted literature, and look at other types of engagement. This would allow us to gain a more meaningful understanding of use for both political scientists and community developers..

Implication for Community Development Professionals

While this research may bring up more questions than it answers, there are some key findings with implications for the community development field. First, this study shows that type of community does not play a significant role in predicting political engagement. Knowing this, community leaders and others in both urban and rural areas can work together to develop and implement programs geared at increasing civic engagement. This may allow for more focused design of civic engagement programs that can be effective in both rural and urban communities.

With regard to the relationship between sociodemographic characteristics and political engagement, it is evident that more work needs to be done to make sure that community services and programs that relate to political engagement are reaching individuals of all backgrounds. This is essential to insure that all residents are better informed and equipped to participate in the political arena. This would ensure that all groups of people are having their voices heard regarding the decisions that leaders are making that could have a major effect on their lives.

Another implication from this study is that individuals who perceive their community leaders in a positive light are less likely to be politically engaged. Knowing this, intentional steps on the community leader's or community developers' part should be taken to engage these individuals so that they can contribute their thoughts and dialog to the political arena. This will allow the community leaders and other residents to hear a different side of the political chatter. This may help to bring about some balance in the

political sphere and allow for others to accurately gauge the state of politics in a local community.

Appendix A: Kentucky State Wide Survey

SECTION I: Perspectives on Community Life

In this section, we would like to ask you about your views on (attitudes, opinions, and satisfaction) community issues or problems in your community.

1. Please indicate how satisfied you are with each of the following items. One means very dissatisfied and five means very satisfied. (Circle your answer)

	Very dissatisfied				Very satisfied
a. Your community in general	1	2	3	4	5
b. Youth in your community	1	2	3	4	5
c. Your job	1	2	3	4	5
d. Your job security	1	2	3	4	5
e. Job opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
f. Your housing	1	2	3	4	5
g. Air quality in your community	1	2	3	4	5
h. Water quality in your community	1	2	3	4	5
i. Greenery and open space in your community	1	2	3	4	5
j. Your amount of spare time	1	2	3	4	5
k. Your neighborhood as a place to live	1	2	3	4	5
l. Your standard of living (things you have like housing, car, furniture, recreation and the like)	1	2	3	4	5
m. The beauty and attractiveness of your community	1	2	3	4	5
n. Your local newspaper	1	2	3	4	5
o. The quality of safety in your community	1	2	3	4	5
p. Your current income level	1	2	3	4	5
q. Your financial security during retirement	1	2	3	4	5
r. Your health	1	2	3	4	5

2. As change occurs, many Kentuckians may be facing both new opportunities and challenges. Please tell us how these various challenges and opportunities are affecting you. For the following statements one means worse off and three means better off. (Circle your answer)

	Worse off	About the same	Better Off
a. All things considered, do you think you are better or worse off than you were five years ago?	1	2	3
b. All things considered, do you think you are better or worse off than your parents when they were your age?	1	2	3
c. All things considered, do you think you will be better or worse off five years from now than you are today?	1	2	3

3. Please tell us how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your community. One means strongly disagree and five means strongly agree. (Circle your answer)

	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
a. Public officials care a lot about what I think.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
d. My community has good leaders.	1	2	3	4	5
e. There are many opportunities for citizen participation in community decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I trust public officials to make the best decisions for my community.	1	2	3	4	5
g. People in my community are willing to look for better ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5
h. People work together to get things done in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
i. My local newspaper provides unbiased information on issues affecting my community.	1	2	3	4	5
j. My local newspaper provides accurate information on issues affecting my community.	1	2	3	4	5
k. I trust our local government to do the right thing.	1	2	3	4	5
l. I trust others in my community to do what's best for the community.	1	2	3	4	5
m. It is very important for residents to volunteer their time to community activities.	1	2	3	4	5
n. It is very important to get more residents to take leadership roles in this community.	1	2	3	4	5

4. Please rate the leaders in your community on the following characteristics. One means poor and five means great. (Circle your answer)

	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Great
a. Communication with residents	1	2	3	4	5
b. Involving residents in decision-making	1	2	3	4	5
c. Seeking community change, growth and improvement	1	2	3	4	5
d. Transforming community goals into realities	1	2	3	4	5
e. Effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles	1	2	3	4	5

5. Please tell us how much you disagree or agree with each of the following statements. One means strongly disagree and five means strongly agree. (Circle your answer)

	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
a. I believe that youth can contribute to the community.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Youth take lots of initiative in the planning of community activities.	1	2	3	4	5
c. I can learn as much from young people as they can learn from me.	1	2	3	4	5
d. Youth have positive adult role models in this community.	1	2	3	4	5
e. I am aware of the issues and concerns of youth in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I work to make sure that youth are involved in community decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
g. Youth are involved in the planning of community activities.	1	2	3	4	5
h. I am willing to partner with youth on community projects.	1	2	3	4	5
i. Youth have the opportunity to make decisions on community issues.	1	2	3	4	5
j. I believe that youth can handle responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
k. Leadership opportunities for youth exist within my community	1	2	3	4	5

6. Please indicate how satisfied you are with the services, activities, and/or opportunities for youth in your community. One means very dissatisfied and five means very satisfied. (Circle your answer)

	Very dissatisfied				Very satisfied
a. Educational opportunities (academic tutoring, scholarships, character development)	1	2	3	4	5
b. Skill development activities (computer training, leadership development, public speaking/communication, team building)	1	2	3	4	5
c. Employment/Career awareness (internships, part-time and summer jobs)	1	2	3	4	5
d. Extracurricular activities (school sporting events, school club events, drama, band)	1	2	3	4	5
e. Recreational opportunities (music lessons, movies, community festivals)	1	2	3	4	5
f. Civic engagement opportunities (community service projects, serving on community boards)	1	2	3	4	5
g. Violence prevention programs	1	2	3	4	5
h. Social services for drug treatment	1	2	3	4	5

7. How do you rate the youth in your community, based on the following? One means poor and five means excellent. (Circle your answer)

	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
a. Attitude toward work	1	2	3	4	5
b. Willingness to work	1	2	3	4	5
c. Dependability	1	2	3	4	5
d. Job skills	1	2	3	4	5
e. Educational success in school	1	2	3	4	5
f. Respect for adults	1	2	3	4	5
g. Respect for the community	1	2	3	4	5
h. Serving as role models for other youth	1	2	3	4	5
i. Attitudes toward volunteerism or community service	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION II: Perspectives on Media Use and Community Involvement

In this section, we would like to ask you about your media use and involvement in various community organizations and activities.

8. Where do you get most of your news? One means not at all and five means most likely. (Circle your answer)

	Not at all				Most likely
a. Newspapers	1	2	3	4	5
b. Television	1	2	3	4	5
c. Radio	1	2	3	4	5
d. Internet	1	2	3	4	5
e. Conversation with other people	1	2	3	4	5
f. Other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

9. How would you rate each of the following as a source of information on important issues affecting YOUR community? One means poor and five means excellent. (Circle your answer)

	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
a. National newspaper news	1	2	3	4	5
b. Local newspaper news	1	2	3	4	5
c. National television news	1	2	3	4	5
d. Local television news	1	2	3	4	5
e. National radio news	1	2	3	4	5
f. Local radio news	1	2	3	4	5
g. National internet sites	1	2	3	4	5
h. Local internet sites	1	2	3	4	5

10. How often do you read, watch, or listen to each of the following types of media content? One means never and five means frequently. (Circle your answer)

	Never				Frequently
a. Newspaper stories about national politics and international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Newspaper stories about local politics and community issues.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Television news stories about national politics and international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
d. Television news stories about local politics and community issues.	1	2	3	4	5
e. Radio news stories about national politics and international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
f. Radio news stories about local politics and community issues.	1	2	3	4	5

11. Apart from how often you consume these types of content, how much attention do you pay to them? One means not at all and five means close attention. (Circle your answer)

	Not at all				Close attention
a. Newspaper stories about national politics and international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Newspaper stories about local politics and community issues	1	2	3	4	5
c. Television news stories about national politics and international affairs	1	2	3	4	5
d. Television news stories about local politics and community issues	1	2	3	4	5
e. Radio news stories about national politics and international affairs	1	2	3	4	5
f. Radio news stories about local politics and community issues	1	2	3	4	5

12. Do you have Internet access/use? (Place a check by your answer)

a. No _____ b. Yes _____ c. Don't Know _____

[IF YES] → 12a. Where do you **MOSTLY** access/use the Internet? (please select only one)

a. at home b. at work c. in public libraries d. in community centers e. other

12b. Which Internet services do you typically use? (please select only one)

a. Dial-up b. DSL c. Cable d. Satellite e. Wireless f. other

13. How often are you involved in each of the following types of Internet activities? One means never and five means frequently. (Circle your answer)

	Never				Frequently
a. Read news stories about national politics and international affairs	1	2	3	4	5
b. Read news stories about local politics and community issues	1	2	3	4	5
c. Express your opinion about national politics and international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
d. Express your opinion about local politics and community issues.	1	2	3	4	5
e. Pass along information encountered on-line on national politics and international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
f. Pass along information encountered on-line on local politics and community issues.	1	2	3	4	5
g. Search for information on-line on national politics and international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
h. Search for information on-line on local politics and community issues	1	2	3	4	5

a. No
b. Yes

- Print
- On-line
- Both print and on-line

Poor 1 2 3 4 5 Excellent

a. No
b. Yes

- Print
- On-line
- Both print and on-line

Poor 1 2 3 4 5 Excellent

	Never				Frequently
a. Family members	1	2	3	4	5
b. Your neighbors	1	2	3	4	5
c. Co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
d. Other friends and acquaintances	1	2	3	4	5

a. No _____

b. Yes _____

c. Don't Know _____

- a. At least once a week
- b. At least once a month
- c. At least once a year

17b. Is your contact with your Extension Office typically about: (Circle your answer)

- a. A farm-related issue or program
- b. A gardening issue or program
- c. A home or family issue or program
- d. A community issue or program
- e. A youth issue or 4-H program
- f. A soil sample analysis
- g. Other (please explain)

18. Do you <u>currently</u> belong to or participate in this type of organization? (Circle your answer)	[IF YES] →		Do you currently hold a leadership position? (Circle your answer)	
a. Religious Organizations (church, adult or youth church groups, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
b. Business and Professional Organizations (Chamber of Commerce, Kentucky Bar Association, Business and Professional Women, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
c. Farm Organizations (Farm Bureau, Cattleman's Association, Dairymen, Inc., Southern States, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
d. Fraternal Service Organizations (Lions, Kiwanis, Rotary, VFW, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
e. Community Service Organizations (United Way, Red Cross, PTA, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
f. Cooperative Extension Programs (4-H, Extension Homemakers, Extension Advisory Council, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
g. Youth-Related Organizations (FFA, 4-H, Girl/Boy Scouts, YWCA/YMCA, youth sports leagues, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
h. Political Organizations (Democrats/Republicans, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
i. Advocacy Organizations (Mothers Against Drunk Driving, Sierra Club, NRA, etc.)	No	Yes →	No	Yes
j. Other (please specify): _____	No	Yes →	No	Yes

19. Now, we would like to ask you some questions about your participation in local political or community life. Please tell us if in the past two years you have: (Circle your answer)

In the PAST TWO YEARS I have:	Circle your answer	
a. Voted in a local election.	Yes	No
b. Worked for a political campaign locally.	Yes	No
c. Attended a civic forum or meeting where citizens spoke about local issues.	Yes	No
d. Worked on behalf of a local social group, cause or organization.	Yes	No
e. Written a letter to the editor or called into a local radio station.	Yes	No
f. Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue.	Yes	No
g. Contacted a local public official.	Yes	No
h. Contributed money to local organizations.	Yes	No
i. Donated blood, food, or clothing to local organizations.	Yes	No
j. Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches.	Yes	No

SECTION III: Perspectives on Food

In this section, we would like to ask you about your perspectives on food and consumption patterns.

20. How often do you shop for groceries at each of the following places? One means never and four means almost always. (Circle your answer)

How often do you shop for groceries at:	Never	Occasionally	Often	Almost always
a. Superstores or warehouse stores	1	2	3	4
b. Large grocery stores/supermarkets	1	2	3	4
c. Small independent grocery stores	1	2	3	4
d. Convenience stores	1	2	3	4
e. Farmer's markets	1	2	3	4
f. Roadside stands	1	2	3	4

21. How important is each of the following factors in your decision to purchase food? One means not at all important and three means very important. (Circle your answer)

	Not at all Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
a. Cost	1	2	3
b. Freshness	1	2	3
c. Locally produced or grown	1	2	3
d. Nutritious or healthy	1	2	3
e. Organic	1	2	3
f. Convenience	1	2	3

22. Please tell us how much you disagree or agree with each of the following statements. One means strongly disagree and five means strongly agree. (Circle your answer)

	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
a. Given the choice, I would prefer to buy locally grown food.	1	2	3	4	5
b. It is easy to find locally grown produce in this area during the growing season.	1	2	3	4	5
c. My home garden is an important source of food for my family.	1	2	3	4	5
d. I regularly buy locally grown food.	1	2	3	4	5
e. Locally grown food is healthier than food shipped in from elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
f. Given the choice, I would prefer to buy organically grown food.	1	2	3	4	5
g. It is easy to find organically grown food in this area.	1	2	3	4	5
h. I regularly buy organically grown food.	1	2	3	4	5
i. Organically grown food is healthier than conventionally grown food.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION IV: General Information

Now we would like to ask you a series of questions about yourself and your household. This information will allow us to compare the responses of a wide variety of Kentuckians.

23. What county do you live in? (e.g., Madison, Jefferson, Calloway, Pike)

24. How many years have you lived in this county? _____ years

25. Have you ever lived: (Circle your answer)

	Yes	No
In another Kentucky county	1	2
In another state	1	2
In another country	1	2

26. Are you: a. Female _____ b. Male _____

27. In what year were you born? 19 _____

28. Are you Hispanic/Latino? Yes _____ No _____

29. What is your race? (Circle your answer)

- a. White/Caucasian
- b. Black/African American
- c. Asian
- d. American Indian and Alaska native
- e. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander

30. What is your current (most recent) marital status? (Circle your answer)

- a. Now married
- b. Widowed
- c. Separated
- d. Living together
- e. Divorced
- f. Never married

31. How many people in each of these age groups live in this household? (Household members are all those individuals who would consider this house to be their home) Please tell us the **NUMBER** in each age group.

<u>Age group</u>	<u>Number</u>
a. 0-4 years old	_____
b. 5-10 years old	_____
c. 11-15 years old	_____
d. 16-20 years old	_____
e. 21-34 years old	_____
f. 35-49 years old	_____
g. 50-64 years old	_____
h. 65-79 years old	_____
i. 80 years old or more	_____

32. What is your highest level of education completed? (Circle your answer)

- a. 8th grade or less
- b. Some high school, no diploma
- c. High school graduate or GED
- d. Some college, no degree
- e. Associate's degree
- f. Bachelor's degree
- g. Graduate or professional degree

33. How would you describe your current employment status? (Circle your answer)

- a. Homemaker
- b. Student
- c. Disabled
- d. Retired
- e. Unemployed
- f. Permanently employed or self employed

[IF permanently employed]

33a. How many hours of paid employment do you work a week? (Circle your answer)

- a. Under 35 hours per week
- b. 35 to 50 hours per week
- c. 51 or more hours per week

34. Besides yourself, how many other employed workers live in your household? _____

35. What is your current or what was your last regular occupation? (Circle your answer)

- a. Management, professional, financial or business operations, and related occupations (including Farmers and farm managers)
- b. Professional and related occupations (including computer, architecture, social services, legal, education, library, arts, healthcare)
- c. Service occupations (including Healthcare support occupations, Fire, law enforcement, food preparation and service, maintenance, personal care occupations)
- d. Sales, office, and administrative support occupations
- e. Forestry and farming occupations such as farm labor, logger, etc.
- f. Construction, mining, and installation, maintenance, and repair occupations
- g. Production, transportation, and material moving occupations
- h. Never employed
- i. Other (Please list job title): _____

36. Are you a farmer? (Circle your answer)

- a. No → **If no, skip to Question 37**
- b. Yes → **If yes, (Please answer both 36a and 36b) →**

36a. About how many acres do you operate, including grassland and cropland?

Please check the box that indicates the total number of acres that you currently operate (include both rented and owned)			
Size in acres		Size in acres	
a. Less than 20 acres		d. 100 to 179 acres	
b. 20 to 49 acres		e. 180 to 259 acres	
c. 50 to 99 acres		f. 260 or more acres	

36b. What were your estimated gross farm sales last year?

Please check the box that represents the estimate of your gross sales from your farming operation last year.			
Gross sales		Gross sales	
a. Under \$1,000		f. \$25,000 to \$49,999	
b. \$1,000 to \$2,499		g. \$50,000 to \$99,999	
c. \$2,500 to \$4,999		h. \$100,000 - \$249,999	
d. \$5,000 to \$9,999		i. \$250,000 - 499,999	
e. \$10,000 to \$24,999		j. \$500,000 or more	

37. Do you currently have health insurance? (Circle your answer)

- a. No
- b. Yes

[IF YES] → 37a. How do you obtain health insurance? (Circle your answer)

- a. Purchased as a private individual
- b. As a job benefit
- c. Through a government program such as Medicare or Medicaid

37b. Do you purchase a supplemental insurance? (Place a check by your answer)

- a. No _____
- b. Yes _____

38. In what type of housing do you live? (Circle your answer)

- a. Apartment
- b. House
- c. Mobile Home
- d. Other _____

39. Do you: a. Rent _____ b. Own _____

40. How often do you attend religious services? (Circle your answer)

- a. Rarely or never
- b. A few times a year
- c. Once or twice a month
- d. Once a week
- e. More than once a week

41. How important is religion in your life? One means not at all important and four means very important. (Circle your answer)

Not at all important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
1	2	3	4

42. Which do you consider yourself to be? (Circle your answer)

a. Republican b. Democrat c. Independent d. Other (specify) _____

43. Which of these best describes your usual stand on **ECONOMIC** issues? One means very liberal and seven means very conservative. (Circle your answer)

Very liberal

1

2

3

4

5

6

Very
conservative
7

44. Which of these best describes your usual stand on **SOCIAL** issues? One means very liberal and seven means very conservative. (Circle your answer)

Very liberal

1

2

3

4

5

6

Very
conservative
7

45. Which of the following comes closest to your annual family income, before taxes, from all sources last year (2008)? (Circle your answer)

- a. Under \$10,000
- b. \$10,000 to \$14,999
- c. \$15,000 to \$24,999
- d. \$25,000 to \$34,999
- e. \$35,000 to \$49,999
- f. \$50,000 to \$74,999
- g. \$75,000 to \$99,999
- h. \$100,000 to \$124,999
- i. \$125,000 to \$149,000
- j. \$150,000 to \$199,999
- k. \$200,000 or more

Please feel free to give us any comments or suggestions regarding this survey below.

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this survey. Results of the survey and published reports will be available at the Website of the Department of Community and Leadership Development (<http://www.uky.edu/ag/cld>).

Appendix B: Frequency and Percentage of all Variables of the Study

Variable	Frequency	Percent	
Residence			
Metro	648	56.2	
Urban Adjacent	180	15.6	
Urban Non-Adjacent	208	18.0	
Rural Adjacent	49	4.2	
Rural Non Adjacent	52	4.5	
Missing	17		1.5
Age			
30 years old or younger	94	8.1	
31 – 60 years old	741	64.2	
61 years old and older	319	27.6	
Missing	0		0
Education			
Less than high school or GED	122	10.6	
Completed high school or equivalent	299	25.9	
Some college or associate's	386	33.4	
Bachelor's or higher degree	338	29.3	
Missing	9		0.8
Income			
\$24,999 or less	224	19.4	
\$25,000 to \$49,999	292	25.3	
\$50,000 to \$74,999	216	18.7	
\$75,000 to \$124,999	223	19.3	
\$125,000 or mote	111	9.8	
Missing	88		7.6
Perceptions of Community Leaders			
Communicates with residents			
Fair	442	38.3	
Average	464	40.2	
Good	221	1.02	
Missing	27		2.3
Involves residence in decision making			
Fair	594	51.5	
Average	398	34.5	
Good	175	10.8	
Missing	37		3.2

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Perceptions of Community Leaders (cont.)		
Seeks community change, growth and improvement		
Fair	430	37.3
Average	399	34.6
Good	287	24.0
Missing	38	3.3
Transforms community goals into a reality		
Fair	491	42.5
Average	419	36.3
Good	206	17.9
Missing	31	3.3
Effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles		
Fair	446	38.6
Average	401	34.7
Good	266	23.1
Missing	41	3.6
Attitudes Towards Political Engagement		
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things		
Disagree	361	31.3
Neither agree nor disagree	325	28.2
Agree	447	38.7
Missing	21	1.8
Ordinary people have a real influence on the decisions made in my community		
Disagree	528	45.8
Neither agree nor disagree	353	30.6
Agree	247	21.4
Missing	26	2.3
I trust my public officials to make the best decisions for my community		
Disagree	558	48.9
Neither agree nor disagree	380	32.9
Agree	199	16.8
Missing	22	1.9

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Attitudes Towards Political Engagement (cont.)		
I trust our local government to do the right thing		
Disagree	558	48.4
Neither agree nor disagree	380	32.0
Agree	199	16.8
Missing	22	1.9
Political Engagement		
Voted		
Yes	129	11.2
No	1005	87.1
Missing	20	1.7
Worked for a political campaign locally		
Yes	986	85.4
No	144	12.5
Missing	24	2.1
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue		
Yes	665	57.2
No	464	40.2
Missing	28	2.2
Contacted a local public official		
Yes	611	52.9
No	518	44.0
Missing	25	2.2
Attended any local rallies, boycotts or marches.		
Yes	994	86.1
No	113	11.5
Missing	27	2.3

Appendix C: Variables Included in the Study

#	Variables Included in Study	Code	Type
1	Communicates with residents	1= Fair, 2= Average, 3= good	Ordinal
2	Involves residents in the decision making	1= Fair, 2= Average, 3= good	Ordinal
3	Seeks community change, growth and improvement	1= Fair, 2= Average, 3= good	Ordinal
4	Transforms community goals into realities	1= Fair, 2= Average, 3= good	Ordinal
5	Effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles	1= Fair, 2= Average, 3= good	Ordinal
6	Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things	1= Disagree, 2= Neither agree or disagree, 3= Agree	Ordinal
7	Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community	1= Disagree, 2= Neither agree or disagree, 3= Agree	Ordinal
8	I trust public officials to make the best decisions for my community	1= Disagree, 2= Neither agree or disagree, 3= Agree	Ordinal
9	I trust our local government to do the right thing	1= Disagree, 2= Neither agree or disagree, 3= Agree	Ordinal
10	Voted in a local election	1= Yes, 2=No	Dichotomous
11	Worked for a political campaign locally	1= Yes, 2=No	Dichotomous
12	Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue	1= Yes, 2=No	Dichotomous
13	Contacted a local public official	1= Yes, 2=No	Dichotomous
14	Attended any local rallies, protest, boycotts or marches.	1= Yes, 2=No	Dichotomous
15	Age	1= 30 years or younger, 2= 31-60 years old, 3= 61 and older	Ordinal
16	Education	1=Some high school, 2= High school diploma or equivalent, 3= Some college or associates, 4= Bachelors or higher	Ordinal
17	Income	1= \$24,999 or less. 2= \$25,000 to \$49,999, 3= \$50,000 to \$74,999, 4= \$75,000 to \$124,999, 5=\$125,00 or more	Ordinal
18	Type of Community	1= Metro, 2= Urban Adjacent, 3= Urban Non-Adjacent, 4= Rural Adjacent 5= Rural Non-Adjacent	Nominal
<i>Variables use in construction</i>			
<i>Constructed Variables</i>		<i>Code</i>	<i>Type</i>
Positive perception of community leaders		0=low positive perception to 5=high positive perception	Interval
Positive attitudes toward political engagement		0= low positive attitude to 5= high positive attitude	Interval
Level of political engagement		0= low political engagement to 5= high political engagement	Interval

Appendix D: Frequency and Percentages for Constructed Variables

Variable	Frequency	Percentage	
Positive perception of community leaders			
0 (no)	683	58.2	
1 (low)	147	12.7	
2	73	6.3	
3	70	6.1	
4	41	3.6	
5 (High)	83	7.2	
Missing			4.9
Positive attitudes towards political engagement			
0 (no)	560	48.5	
1 (low)	245	21.2	
2	143	12.4	
3	86	7.5	
4(high)	83	7.2	
Missing			3.2
Level of political engagement			
0 (none)	92	8.0	
1 (low)	354	30.7	
2	312	27.0	
3	222	19.2	
4	85	7.4	
5 (High)	49	4.2	
Missing			3.5

Appendix F: Variables of Interest by Type of Community (Metro, Urban, and Rural)

<i>Variables of Interest by Type of community (Metro, Urban, and Rural)</i>			
	Metro	Urban	Rural
Education	%	%	%
Less than High school diploma or equivalent	11.0	10.7	10
Completed High School or GED	25.4	27.3	26
Some College or an Associates	33.3	33.9	36.0
Bachelor's or Higher Degree	30.2	28.1	28.0
Annual Family Gross Income			
\$24,999 or less	22.3	19.3	21.7
\$25,000 to \$49,999	26.3	30.4	23.9
\$50,000 to \$74,999	21.3	18.9	18.5
\$75,000 to \$124,999	18.7	23.0	25.1
\$125,000 or more	11.4	8.5	10.9
Age			
Under 30 years of age	8.8	7.2	8.9
31 to 60 years of age	62.3	64.7	69.3
61 and older	28.9	28.1	21.8
Perceptions of Community Leaders			
Communicates with Residents			
Fair	40.1	38.9	38.4
Average	41.0	41.3	42.4
Good	16.9	19.7	22.2
Involves residence in decision making			
Fair	53.2	54.4	49.5
Average	35.7	35.8	33.3
Good	11.1	9.7	17.2
Seeks community change, growth and improvement			
Fair	40.4	36.6	36.4
Average	35.0	37.6	35.4
Good	24.5	25.8	28.3
Transforms community goals into a reality			
Fair	45.6	42.9	41.4
Average	36.1	38.8	39.4
Good	18.3	18.3	17.2

Variables of Interest by Type of community (Metro, Urban, and Rural)
(Cont.)

	Metro	Urban	Rural
Perceptions of Community Leaders (cont.)	%	%	%
Effectively modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles			
Fair	41.7	37.1	43.4
Average	33.9	40.1	34.7
Good	24.4	22.9	21.4
<hr/>			
Attitudes Towards Political Engagement			
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things			
Disagree	33.3	28.1	38.4
Neither agree nor disagree	27.8	31.0	23.2
Agree	38.8	40.9	38.4
Ordinary people have a real influence on the decisions made in my community			
Disagree	48.6	43.5	48.0
Neither agree nor disagree	26.7	36.5	33.7
Agree	24.8	17.9	18.4
I trust my public officials to make the best decisions for my community			
Disagree	53.2	42.5	52.5
Neither agree nor disagree	29.7	40.1	31.3
Agree	17.1	17.4	16.2
I trust our local government to do the right thing			
Disagree	48.9	40.0	47.5
Neither agree nor disagree	29.9	37.9	30.3
Agree	21.9	22.1	22.2
<hr/>			
Political Engagement			
Voted			
Yes	88.1	88.5	90.9
No	11.9	11.5	10.1
Worked for a political campaign locally			
Yes	13.4	11.6	11.1
No	88.6	88.4	88.9

Variables of Interest by Type of community (Metro, Urban, and Rural)
(cont.)

		Metro %	Urban %	Rural %
Political Engagement (Cont.)				
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue				
	Yes	40.9	40.5	45.5
	No	59.1	59.5	54.5
Contacted a local public official				
	Yes	46.2	43.5	46.5
	No	53.8	56.5	53.5
Attended any local rallies, boycotts or marches.				
	Yes	12.5	10.6	9.1
	No	87.5	89.4	90.9

(* *p*- is significant at .05)

Appendix G: Tables of Test Statistics

Table 4.2.1
Political Engagement by Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variable	Chi-Square Test Statistic
Age and Political Engagement	
Voted in a local election*	$X^2(2) = 17.88, p = .000$
Worked for a political campaign locally	$X^2(2) = 5.60, p = .061$
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue *	$X^2(2) = 7.72, p = .021$
Contacted a local public official*	$X^2(2) = 18.60, p = .000$
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches	$X^2(2) = 2.19, p = .334$
Education and Political Engagement	
Voted in a local election*	$X^2(3) = 45.54, p = .000$
Worked for a political campaign locally	$X^2(3) = 34.14, p = .000$
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue *	$X^2(3) = 45.91, p = .00$
Contacted a local public official*	$X^2(3) = 31.92, p = .000$
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches*	$X^2(3) = 37.51, p = .000$
Gross Annual Family Income and Political Engagement	
Voted in a local election *	$X^2(4) = 39.01, p = .000$
Worked for a political campaign locally	$X^2(4) = 8.93, p = .063$
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue*	$X^2(4) = 36.61, p = .000$
Contacted a local public official*	$X^2(4) = 28.77, p = .000$
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches*	$X^2(4) = 17.30, p = .002$
Types of Political Engagement	
Voted in a local election	$X^2(4) = 1.57, p = .814$
Contacted a local public official	$X^2(4) = 5.61, p = .231$
Signed a petition for a local candidate or issue	$X^2(4) = 1.90, p = .753$
Worked for a political campaign locally	$X^2(4) = 1.94, p = .748$
Attended any local rallies, protests, boycotts or marches	$X^2(4) = 5.05, p = .282$

Table 4.3.1

Perceptions of Community Leaders and Political Engagement

Variable	Spearman's Correlation Coefficient
Communicates with residence	
Voted in local election	$r_s = .030, p = .312$
Worked for a campaign	$r_s = .045, p = .132$
Signed a petition	$r_s = -.027, p = .367$
Contacted a local public official	$r_s = -.047, p = .119$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march	$r_s = .024, p = .419$
Involving residence in the decision making	
Voted in local election	$r_s = -.012, p = .692$
Worked for a campaign	$r_s = .035, p = .243$
Signed a petition	$r_s = -.024, p = .429$
Contacted a local public official	$r_s = -.035, p = .242$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march*	$r_s = .062, p = .039$
Seeking community change, growth and improvement	
Voted in local election	$r_s = .046, p = .125$
Worked for a campaign	$r_s = .026, p = .391$
Signed a petition	$r_s = .007, p = .807$
Contacted a local public official	$r_s = .008, p = .783$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march*	$r_s = .066, p = .031$
Transforming goals into realities	
Voted in local election	$r_s = .039, p = .191$
Worked for a campaign	$r_s = .003, p = .915$
Signed a petition	$r_s = .003, p = .932$
Contacted a local public official	$r_s = -.017, p = .583$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march*	$r_s = .061, p = .043$
Effectively Modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles	
Voted in local election	$r_s = .029, p = .344$
Worked for a campaign	$r_s = .037, p = .225$
Signed a petition	$r_s = -.034, p = .265$
Contacted a local public official	$r_s = -.015, p = .614$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march	$r_s = .012, p = .685$

Table 4.4.1

Attitudes towards Political Engagement and Political Engagement

Variable	Spearman's Correlation Coefficient
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things	
Voted in local election*	$r_s = .124, p = .000$
Worked for a campaign *	$r_s = .107, p = .000$
Signed a petition	$r_s = .042, p = .162$
Contacted a local public official	$r_s = -.009, p = .757$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march*	$r_s = .133, p = .000$
Ordinary People have real influence on how the decisions made in my community	
Voted in local election	$r_s = .027, p = .368$
Worked for a campaign*	$r_s = .076, p = .012$
Signed a petition	$r_s = .018, p = .541$
Contacted a local public official	$r_s = -.037, p = .224$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march*	$r_s = .086, p = .003$
I trust public officials to make the best decisions for my community	
Voted in local election	$r_s = -.017, p = .568$
Worked for a campaign	$r_s = .049, p = .104$
Signed a petition	$r_s = -.042, p = .158$
Contacted a local public official*	$r_s = -.072, p = .016$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march	$r_s = .039, p = .195$
I trust the local government to do the right thing	
Voted in local election	$r_s = .022, p = .469$
Worked for a campaign	$r_s = .023, p = .450$
Signed a petition*	$r_s = -.075, p = .012$
Contacted a local public official*	$r_s = -.113, p = .000$
Attended a rallies, protest, boycott or march	$r_s = .022, p = .461$

Table 4.5.1

Perceptions of Community Leaders and Attitudes Towards Political Engagement

Variable	Spearman's Correlation Coefficient
Communicates with residence	
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things.*	$r_s = .355, p = .000$
Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community *	$r_s = .451, p = .000$
I trust public officials to make the best decision for my community*	$r_s = .505, p = .000$
I trust or local government to do the right thing*	$r_s = .514, p = .000$
Involving residence in the decision making	
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things.*	$r_s = .374, p = .000$
Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community *	$r_s = .517, p = .000$
I trust public officials to make the best decision for my community*	$r_s = .557, p = .000$
I trust or local government to do the right thing*	$r_s = .540, p = .000$
Seeking community change, growth and improvement	
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things.*	$r_s = .417, p = .000$
Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community*	$r_s = .481, p = .000$
I trust public officials to make the best decision for my community*	$r_s = .560, p = .000$
I trust or local government to do the right thing *	$r_s = .525, p = .000$
Transforming goals into realities	
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things.*	$r_s = .403, p = .000$
Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community*	$r_s = .491, p = .000$
I trust public officials to make the best decision for my community*	$r_s = .573, p = .000$
I trust or local government to do the right thing*	$r_s = .558, p = .000$

Table 4.5.1 (cont.)

Perceptions of Community Leaders and Attitudes Towards Political Engagement

Variable	Spearman's Correlation Coefficient
Effectively Modeling ethical behavior when in leadership roles	
Voting makes a difference in how the government runs things.*	$r_s = .410, p = .000$
Ordinary people have real influence on the decisions made in my community *	$r_s = .476, p = .000$
I trust public officials to make the best decision for my community*	$r_s = .549, p = .000$
I trust or local government to do the right thing*	$r_s = .558, p = .000$

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CECIL JAMES HAMPTON SHELTON

Birthdate – June 19, 1987

Birthplace – Lexington, Kentucky

EDUCATION

University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY

B.S Community Communication and Leadership Development **2010**

Areas of concentration: Public Service and Leadership

Minor: Agriculture Economics and Sustainable agriculture

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

University of Kentucky, Lexington KY

Guest Lecturer **2010-2012**

Developed and gave lectures as requested by department
faculty for departmental classes

Teaching Assistant –“UK-101” **2009**

Collaborated on curriculum development, met with
students as needed, and graded all written work.

RELATED EXPERIENCE

University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY

Research Assistant **2010-2012**

Worked independently or in a group to: conduct
research, compile reports or complete other task that
there assigned

Cooperative Extension Service, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY

Summer Extension Intern **2009**

Analyzed secondary data sets for extension publications,
Assisted in organizing and conducting focus groups,
created, processed and analyzed surveys,

United States Department of Agriculture, Republic of Georgia

International Extension Agriculture Intern **2008**

Coordinated a group of local agriculture students to
implement new agriculture technology at their school
farm, planned and hosted an extension field day,
conducted personal research,

PUBLICATIONS AND PAPERS

“What Rocks the Vote? Citizens’ Views of Community Leaders and Political Engagement”

Paper presented at the annual meeting of Rural
Sociology Society, *Chicago, IL*

2012

“Connecting Civic and Political engagement with the perceptions of community leadership”

Published article in special issue of Journal of
Community Development Society

Pending 2012

An Asset-Based Community Assessment of Lexington’s East End

Posted presented at the annual meeting of Community
Development Society, *Cincinnati, OH*

2012

“Connecting Civic and Political engagement with the perceptions of community leadership”

Paper presented at the joint annual meeting of Rural
Sociology Society and Community Development
Society, *Boise, ID*

2012

EXTENSION WORK – SERVICE

“Kentucky By the Numbers: Poverty and Income”

Extension Publication for “SNARL” University of
Kentucky, *Lexington, KY*

2011

“Kentucky By the Numbers: Agriculture 2007”

Extension Publication for “SNARL” University of
Kentucky, *Lexington, KY*

2009

“Kentucky By the Numbers: Agriculture Update”

Extension Publication for “SNARL” University of
Kentucky, *Lexington, KY*

2009

MEMBERSHIPS

Community Development Society

Rural Sociology Society

Kentucky Nonprofit Network