LEARNING ONLINE: SOCIAL MEDIA'S IMPACT ON SOCIOPOLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

by

Garret Kevin Walker

Thesis

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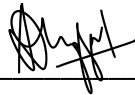in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

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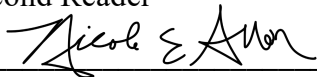
May 2024

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Major Professor

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Second Reader

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Department Chair

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Dean of Peabody College

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[1]Unfortunately, her editorial suggestions of "/////9999999aaaaaaaeeeee", among others, failed to make their way past the proverbial cutting-room floor.

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INTRODUCTION

Sociopolitical development (SPD) is the growth of a critical awareness of social

power (Watts & Guessous, 2006; Christens & Dolan, 2011) and the understanding of how

"cultural and political forces shape one's status in society" (Watts et al., 2003). The

literature on youth sociopolitical development has grown exponentially over the last three

decades, stemming from Watts and colleagues' formulation of how Black adolescents and

young adults challenge oppression and social injustice (Watts, 1994; Hope et al., 2023).

There is some literature to suggest that SPD is a compounding multi-step process that

youth undergo, consisting of: subject awareness, personal and applied connections,

critical analysis engagement, applied civic action, and commitment to civic justice

(Watkins, 2010). What is especially clear, however, is that there is a relationship between

critical analysis of sociopolitical systems and subsequent civic action (Hope and Jagers,

2014; Hope 2016, Bañales et al., 2021).

Adolescents and young adults are not metaphorical *tabula rasa* when it comes to

the development of political thought (Patterson et al., 2013; Patterson et al., 2019) and

desire for civic action (Keating, 2017; Zhu et al., 2018; Erpyleva, 2021). Youth civic

engagement and community action stems from the sense of civic self-efficacy developed

as part of SPD (Christens & Dolan, 2011; Diemer, 2012; Hope, 2016) especially as it

allows for youth political expression in arenas outside of more traditional methods like voting and running for office. This sense of self-efficacy is also fostered in open classroom settings (McIntosh & Muñoz, 2009; Hope & Jagers, 2014; Myong & Liou, 2022), by instructors (Lenzi et al., 2014; Seider & Graves, 2020), and by familial socialization (Diemer, 2012; Bañales et al., 2021).

However, recent literature has come to suggest that the lens of adolescent civic engagement needs to be enlarged to adjust for shifting generational trends (Mirra & Garcia, 2017). Digital landscapes and hybrid (i.e. online and offline) spaces provide unique opportunities for youth sociopolitical development, specifically via adolescent usage of social media platforms. Social media can decrease barriers to dialogues and theories which facilitate SPD that are otherwise unavailable in school settings (Malorni, 2023). While classrooms and instructors are strongly correlated with youth SPD (Torney-Purta et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2018), social media can become a vital (supplemental) source that can better inform young peoples' sociopolitical development with external views not inherent to school settings. Additionally, those who seek out political content on social media are more likely to be civically engaged, both online and in-person (Soe, 2013; Lenzi, 2015) and, for young adults, are more likely to vote (Bañales et al., 2020; Kofi Frimpong et al., 2022). This study explores how political social media usage impacts adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development. Additionally, this study examines the relationship that political socialization has on sociopolitical development in adolescents and young adults.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sociopolitical Development

As mentioned in the introduction, one facet of sociopolitical development involves the growth of a critical awareness of social power (Watts & Guessous, 2006, Christens & Dolan, 2011) and the understanding of how "cultural and political forces shape one's status in society" (Watts et al., 2003). Sociopolitical development itself is not a singular item, but multiple distinct facets of civic engagement (Hope, 2016). These facets build upon each other to facilitate critical consciousness, critical thinking that underpins sociopolitical development (Watts et al., 1999). Adolescence is a particularly sensitive time for sociopolitical development, as young people are in their prime to develop an understanding of the oppressive structures embedded in their institutions (Christens et al., 2016). Additionally, sociopolitical development in adolescents and young adults can be applied to encourage social movements that tackle institutional systems of oppression, especially for marginalized youths (Heberle et al., 2020).

One of the primary indicators of adolescent sociopolitical development is a demonstrated growth of civic self-efficacy – the belief that one is able to be civically engaged and produce desired outcomes (Schulz et al., 2010). Civic self-efficacy is

indicative of civic engagement, actions that address community concerns and public problems (Hope, 2016). Adolescents who develop civic self-efficacy become more confident engaging with communities (e.g., coordinating/attending meetings, contacting officials, etc.), developing critical perspectives on the structural systems that define their environments (Christens & Dolan, 2011; Hopes & Jagers, 2014). There is some correlation between educational attainment and demonstrable civic self-efficacy in that more education correlates with higher self-efficacy (Eckstein et al., 2012), which develops alongside more complex curriculum in secondary (and post-secondary) education. Sociopolitical development is integral to youth civic and political participation and is fostered in multiple aspects of an adolescent's life.

Adolescent Sociopolitical Development in Schools and Homes

It should not be surprising to note that adolescent sociopolitical development occurs primarily within two spaces that they consistently occupy: within their homes (from parental figures and other trusted adults) and within their schooling environments. Within schooling environments, the literature centers on adolescent sociopolitical development within classroom environments (Torney-Purta et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2018; Myoung & Liou, 2022) as well as through instructors and adults who provide mentoring capacities for youths (Watts et al., 2002; Seider & Graves, 2020). There is strong support that open school environments (ones that have the capacity for civic and political discussion within classrooms) are the most productive for adolescent sociopolitical development (Godfrey & Grayman, 2014; Rapa et al., 2020). Torney-Purta et al.'s (2007)

analysis of high school students note specifically that part of the reason that an open environment aids adolescents in classrooms is that it supports with building identity, especially with Latinx students. Additionally, open classroom environments demonstrate support for developing a sense of civic efficacy (Zhu et al., 2018; Myoung & Liou, 2022), which, as previously discussed, is indicative of sociopolitical growth.

However, the relationship between school climate and civic engagement may be more complicated than an open school environment simply leading to increased sociopolitical development. In the United States, quadrennial presidential elections draw more attention to political campaigns, especially as there is increased media attention that raises saliency in the general population (Farnsworth & Lichter, 2008). This increased saliency, while raising discourse in school settings, fails to result in similar results that one might expect in a non-election year (McIntosh & Muñoz, 2009). It should also be noted that there is room within the current literature to suggest that "closed" school environments can also benefit youth sociopolitical development. In 2021, Erpyleva conducted two rounds of interviews with adolescents who participated in one of two Russian protest cycles: the "For Fair Elections" (FFE) movement (2011-2012) and a collection of anti-corruption rallies (2017-2018). Thematic analyses of these interviews noted the presence of authoritarian school policies that limited civic and political discussion in schools incentivized students to search for alternative avenues of civic engagement and political expression.

Parental figures (Diemer, 2012; Bañales et al., 2021), educators, and mentors provide immense value towards adolescent sociopolitical development (Watts et al., 2002; Seider & Graves, 2020) and there is support that direct sociopolitical discussion

positively impacts subsequent adolescent sociopolitical development and civic

engagement (Diemer, 2012). Adolescents are also more susceptible to impacts in their

political development from those they perceive as "role-model" figures (Stattin & Russo,

2022), although this receptiveness reduces the closer to adulthood the individual gets

(Eckstein et al., 2012; Morgan, 2021; Stattin & Russo, 2022). An important caveat to the

influence of mentors and educators is that they need to not be perceived as imposing

personal values. In instances of perceived "preached values", adolescents do not receive

the aforementioned sociopolitical development benefits (Watts et al., 2002).

Adolescent Civic Engagement and Political Socialization

Adolescents are not strangers to either civic engagement or political thought.

There is literature to suggest adolescents participate in more civic activities than their

young adult peers (Eckstein et al., 2012; Hope & Jagers, 2014), possibly because they

have "more time" (i.e., less likely to experience the commitment of full-time employment

or post-secondary education). However, adolescents are frequently perceived as being

woefully incompetent in the arenas of politics and civic engagement by many adults

(Christens & Dolan, 2011; Patterson & Pahlke, 2021; Erpyleva, 2021), despite many

examples to the contrary. Tammoland, a mid-20th century playground slated for

destruction to make way for housing development, is a surprising example of youth civic

coordination. At the direction of youths and adolescents (some as young as 5!) and with

the aid of adults, children in 1960's London coordinated protests, fundraising, and

awareness campaigns in an (ultimately doomed) campaign to save their local playground

(Keating, 2017). This capacity for youth community engagement is repeatedly reflected in the literature, from youth engagement in civic protest (Hope 2016; Zhu et al., 2018; Swart et al., 2020; Erpyleva, 2021) to youth participatory action research that facilitates community change.

The latter can be seen in Inland Congregations United for Change (ICUC) – a California affiliate of Faith in Action that influenced policy change and program implementation through youth driven efforts. Following the death of a 16-year-old girl in a shooting, community youth in San Bernardino, CA were invited by ICUC to process their grief. This invitation morphed into a collective process that, alongside ICUC staff and a local university, allowed engaged youths to gather qualitative data, meet with city and state government officials and community leaders, and conduct public campaigns that have positively impacted local governance through policy and program implementations (Christens & Dolan, 2011). However, this is not to say that adolescent sociopolitical development is contingent on organizations centered around community needs; overall, organizational membership and participation apply additive effects for civic engagement (McFarland & Thomas, 2006). One predominant example of this is within (Southern) church culture in the United States, which has varying degrees of encouraging civic engagement (Lichterman, 2005; Morgan, 2021). Churches have been identified as strong wells of organizational foundations and civic engagement (Speer et al., 2021), and there is evidence to support this as a cross-cultural trend, as seen through an analysis of political influence stemming from church networks in Kenya (Lichty, 2019).

Political participation is another crucial element of sociopolitical development. There is a wealth of knowledge that strongly correlates future voting patterns with adolescent sociopolitical development (Sherrod et al., 2010; Myoung & Liou, 2022), serving as powerful indicators of future political engagement across spectrums of government. Additionally, a willingness to engage with and consume political discussion correlates strongly with other pro-social behaviors. Adolescents more eager to engage in political debate and question social inequities are more likely to perform community service work (McIntosh & Muñoz, 2009), demonstrate higher perceived competence on subject matter and desire to be engaged (Lenzi, 2015), and can develop "radiating effects," mirroring benefits to lesser degrees in those around them (Watts et al., 2002).

Another important facet of adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development involves their experiences of political socialization. Adolescence is formative for future civic trajectories, which are partially informed by the politics that are introduced in these formative years (Hart et al., 2007). Political socialization consists of the communication of political ideas through a social agent (e.g. family, peers, (social) media, etc.) and can serve as a predictive measure for subsequent electoral habits and sociopolitical development in youth, particularly when coming from parents and peers (Diemer & Li, 2011). Functionally, this might be because those who are more politically socialized can more easily recognize and act against structural and sociopolitical inequalities. Additionally political socialization correlates with higher political self-efficacy, which in turn can encourage higher rates of civic engagement behavior. Leath & Chavous (2017) note that Black freshmen on majority-white undergraduate campuses were more likely to be engaged in civic and leadership behaviors on campus if they self-reported high levels

of political self-efficacy and socialization, suggesting that these elements would be beneficial to civic engagement facilitations.

It is evident that sociopolitical development in adolescents is not only present, but can be plentiful and impactful when appropriately fostered, particularly as adolescents grow into young adulthood. Adolescents that demonstrate higher levels of SPD are more confident acting within and around their communities. They develop these skills within instructional settings and with "role models" that they hold in positive regard and take these developments into their young adulthood. Adolescents also bring the political and civic interests they've developed with them into their young adulthood and their communities.

Social Media

Literature written at the intersection of (adolescent) social media usage and sociopolitical development is much more nascent, emerging in the early 2010's. The literature in this realm primarily centers on two platforms: Facebook and X (formerly known as Twitter and referenced as such onwards), with more recent publications considering Instagram. However, it is important to recognize the rapidly evolving landscape that is "social media", as well as adolescent interest in specific platforms. A recent analysis of teenage social media use by Pew Research Center shows that, between 2014 to 2022, adolescent interest in Facebook and Twitter sharply declined thanks to a

preference for alternatives[2] like TikTok, Instagram (a subsidiary of Meta, which owns Facebook), YouTube, and Snapchat (Vogels et al., 2022). With these shifts, it is essential to consider how social media is currently discussed, either in the contexts of Facebook and Twitter, or as a conglomeration of "social media" as an overgeneralized entity, and recognize that future research requires specificity in platform consideration. Unfortunately, there has been a noticeable neglect of social media in regards to sociopolitical development literature (Bañales et al, 2020), creating gaps in our current understanding. Wilf & Wray-Lake (2023), however, provide direction for future research at the intersection of social media and sociopolitical development in young adults and adolescent; the development of the Sociopolitical Action Scale for Social Media (SASSM) provides unique insight into this literature, demonstrating stronger correlation between social media action and multiple sociopolitical domains that complement digital spaces.

The current literature denotes multiple beneficial elements to political and civic social media usage. There is evidence to support the claim that those who seek out political content and news on social media and the internet at large are more likely to be civically engaged, both online and in-person, (Soe, 2013; Lenzi, 2015) and demonstrate civic self-efficacy (Lenzi, 2015). This civic engagement makes sense, as Thorkildsen & Xing (2016) note that Facebook usage tends to switch from global to local contexts when focused on social and community interactions. Additionally, social media can aid in overcoming barriers to discussions, theories, and concepts that youths might not

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[2] Another element to consider amongst alternatives are now-defunct social media platforms, like Google+, YikYak, and Vine.

otherwise encounter in more traditional settings of sociopolitical development like school and home (Malorni, 2023). Young adults that engage with civic and political content in social media are more likely to vote (Bañales et al., 2020; Kofi Frimpong et al., 2022), but there may be a racial moderation relationship at play here; Bañales et al. notes that while this relationship appeared with Latinx young adults in their study, it did not appear with Black young adults (2020). This might be explained by literature which denotes that adolescent social media usage is correlated with forms of sociopolitical development that do not manifest via in-person actions (Mirra & Garcia, 2017; Wray-Lake & Abrams, 2020).

While there are multiple aspects to social media and adolescent sociopolitical development that the literature elevates, it is important to recognize that there are many detriments that muddle the relationship at hand. Few users, even consistent users, engage in civil discourse on Facebook (Thorkildsen & Xing, 2016), which suggests that earlier findings regarding Facebook be taken with a proverbial grain of salt. The active intake (e.g. utilizing content to facilitate dialogue with others and coordinating community affairs instead of "slacktivism") of civic-related material is essential as well. Those who simply post and promote content do not demonstrate sociopolitical development (Lenzi, 2015), even when factoring the amount time spent on these activities (Kofi Frimpong et al., 2022). Social media can also provide a paradox of intimidating users from engaging in discussion, out of a fear of lack of knowledge, and can also oversimplify arguments that encourage "echo chambers", which hampers critical consciousness development and subsequent sociopolitical development (Malorni, 2023). This is particularly amplified when considering the dual impact of platform algorithms reinforcing consumed content

and the user trend to follow political and civic influencers that align with user ideologies on social media (Peter & Muth, 2023). Given the literature that currently exists, it is difficult to discern social media's precise impact on sociopolitical development.

<p style="text-align:center;">*Parasocial Relationships*</p>

Another element of social media that requires consideration is the impact of parasocial relationships that develop between influencers and users. Stronger parasocial relationships are moderated by multiple factors, including perceived source trustworthiness and similarity to self (Harff, 2022) and perceptions of trustworthiness can be amplified by "personalized exchanges" between influencer and consumer (Chung & Cho, 2017). Additionally, those who develop deeper parasocial relationships form interest and are more receptive to discussion points and causes endorsed by social media influencers (Wen & Cui, 2014; Harff, 2022). Political and civic influencers are primarily interpreted as "supplemental" sources of information compared to news outlets (Peter & Muth, 2023), but they can still be motivating forces for real-world action, especially within the activism scene (Kofi Frimpong et al., 2022).

Perhaps the most salient, if not exaggerated, real world application of this comes through Taylor Swift, who has made headlines twice (in 2018 and 2023) for being credited with voter registration spikes after utilizing social media to encourage her followers to vote in upcoming electoral cycles (Gonzales, 2018; Donaldson, 2023). Unfortunately, there is room to doubt the authenticity of influencer intent on social media. Concerns of grassroots activism versus performative "astroturfing" have begun to

permeate conversations around influencer content on political and social movements, especially given the lack of clear motivation amongst influencers, their potential renumerations, and their perceived pressure to provide such content from followers and external sources (Goodwin et al., 2023).

Current Study

Based upon the above literature review, it is clear that there is a breadth of research that exists in the individual domains of both adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development and the implications of social media usage; adolescence is formative for civic trajectories (Hart et al., 2007) and sociopolitical development (Christens & Dolan, 2011), and social media is a dominant force in adolescent and young adult life (Vogels et al, 2022) and is a space where they engage in little "p" politics (Mirra & Garcia, 2017). However, there is still a significant gap of knowledge in how these two subjects intersect. In this paper, I further examine the relationship between adolescent and young adult social media use and their sociopolitical development. Specifically, I clarify whether political-centric social media usage is associated with adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development and activities within their communities. I suggest that a positive relationship exists between politically relevant social media usage and SPD (H1). I also hypothesize that political socialization capacity positively impacts adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development; the more politically socialized they are (e.g.: through friends, family, neighbors, news sources, etc.) the more sociopolitical development will be exhibited (H2).

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Data Source

     This study analyzed secondary data that were collected as part of the Current Population Survey (CPS), specifically within the Volunteering and Civic Life (VCL) Supplement. Per the U.S. Census, the CPS is an interview survey designed to provide estimates of labor force characteristics within civilian populations (United States Census Bureau, 2021). The CPS is conducted in approximately 60,000 housing units through the United States. Eligible housing units are defined as having at least one civilian resident that is at least 16 years of age. Additionally, the sample of 60,000 housing units includes 10,000 units that are eligible for the Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP), with the intent of estimating health insurance coverage of children in low-income households. The District of Columbia, as well as 32 states, are inclusive of this supplementary 10,000 housing unit sample. The general CPS sample aims to collect data that allow samples that are reflective of all 50 states, as well as the District of Columbia (ibid).

     During the 2020-2021 recruitment, the CPS randomly selected approximately 72,000 housing units for interview nationally, of which approximately 60,000 were eligible; the remaining 12,000 units were listed to be ineligible due to one of the

following: destruction, vacancy, nonresidential usage, secondary residences, or non-specified alternative reasonings. Each household is interviewed once a month for four consecutive months, as well as a subsequent interview a year after the initial interview. In the case of underage household members (i.e. those under 16), a single household member of age provided survey answers and is deemed as a reference person for future interviews (this reference person is typically the primary owner or renter of the housing unit). Initial interviews are conducted in-person, while subsequent interviews are conducted either via phone or in-person, at the discretion of each housing unit (United States Census Bureau, 2021).

The Volunteering and Civic Life (VCL) supplement was first conducted in 2010 and, since 2015, has been performed biennially. The VCL supplement consists of self-response questions that are provided in addendum to the Current Population Survey (CPS) and aims to collect information that captures multiple lenses of civic health and community engagement. Housing units, as well as household members that are at least 16 years of age, are randomly selected for participation. The most recent data for the VCL, which asked about behavior from the last twelve months, was collected from September 19th, 2021 to September 28th, 2021, with the data publicly available in January 2023 (United States Census Bureau, 2021). Demographic variables used in this study were collected in the first wave of the CPS, while the remaining variables examined in the study were collected in the one-year follow-up. A copy of the VCL Attachment 7 is in the appendix.

Participants

The Current Population Survey (CPS) sample consisted of 127,872 records, but after removal of 24,014 ineligible records, the CPS sample totaled to $n = 103,858$. Of these 103,858, 48,098 respondents were randomly selected for the Volunteering and Civic Life (VCL) (46.3% of the total CPS sample). Respondent age ranged from 0 years to at least 85 years, with an average age of approximately 41 – ages 80-84 were categorized as 80 and those 85 or older were categorized as 85. 22,753 respondents (47.3%) self-identified as male, while 25,345 (52.7%) self-identified as female. 39,522 (82.2%) respondents self-identified as white, while 4,590 (9.5%) self-identified as Black, 533 (1.1%) self-identified as Indigenous American, 2,476 (5.2%) self-identified as Asian, and 208 (0.4%) self-identified as Hawaiian/Pacific Islander. The remaining 769 (1.6%) of respondents self-identified as "Other" or multiple identifications. Additionally, 5,504 (11.4%) of respondents self-identified as Latinx. Regarding educational attainment, the reported range reflected what was seen in the CPS sample and primarily fell into one of three categories: high school diploma or GED (12,952, 26.9%), some post-secondary education (12,929, 26.9%), or a Bachelor's degree (10,961, 22.79%).

Given the noted research interest in adolescents and young adults, the following analysis only considered respondents who were between 16 and 25 years of age and removed all other respondents from analysis. Thus, the analystic sample for this study consisted of $n = 3,862$ respondents, of which 1,905 were adolescent and young adult men (49.3%) and 1,957 were adolescent and young adult women (50.7%). Approximately 22% of respondents self-identified as non-white: 449 (11.6%) self-identified as Black,

206 (5.3%) self-identified as Asian, 63 (1.6%) self-identified as Indigenous American, and 138 (3.6%) were merged into an "Other" category. Additionally, 870 respondents (22.5%) self-identified as Latinx. Educational attainment was relatively evenly distributed, which is to be expected with the age range of interest and expected educational milestones. 909 (23.5%) respondents reported still being in high school or not completing high school, while 1202 (31.1%) reported acquiring a diploma or GED equivalent. 1084 (28.1%) respondents claimed some post-secondary education and 667 respondents (17.3%) reported completing a Bachelor's degree (or beyond, as briefly noted earlier).

Measures

Sociopolitical Development. A measure of sociopolitical development was created from multiple questions included in the VCL related to different aspects of respondent sociopolitical development. These questions were selected to reflect behaviors associated with sociopolitical development as discussed in literature reviewed earlier. The sociopolitical development measure was constructed from five questions in the VCL: community engagement, public meeting attendance, contacting a public or government official, organizational membership, and volunteering history. Responses to these questions included "*Yes*" and "*No*", as well as multiple forms of non-response: "*Refusal*", "*No response*", and "*Don't know*". "Active Sociopolitical Development" was calculated by dividing the sum of responses by the total number of questions. This resulted in a measure with a range of 0 to 1, with $M = 0.1$ and $SD = 0.16$. Additionally, with a

significant right skew, it is worth noting that most of this sample reported not engaging in any sociopolitical questions of interest.

Political Socialization. A political socialization measure was constructed from three questions in the VCL: frequency of discussing local, social, or political issues with friends or family, frequency of discussing local, social, or political issues with neighbors, and frequency of (generalized) news consumption regarding local, social, or political issues. Responses to these questions included "*Basically every day*", "*A few times a week*", "*A few times a month*", "*Once a month*", "*Less than once a month*", and "*Not at all*", as well as multiple forms of non-response: "*Refusal*", "*No response*", and "*Don't know*". "Political Socialization" was calculated by dividing the sum of responses by the total number of questions. This resulted in a measure with a range of 1 to 6, with $M = 2.6$ and $SD = 1.2$, with higher values indicating higher socialization.

Political Social Media Usage. A nominal political social media usage measure was adapted from one question in the VCL: "*[In the past 12 months,] how often did [you/[NAME]] post [yours/his/her] views about political, societal, or local issues on the internet or social media?*". Responses to this question included "*Basically every day*", "*A few times a week*", "*A few times a month*", "*Once a month*", "*Less than once a month*", and "*Not at all*", as well as multiple forms of non-response: "*Refusal*", "*No response*", and "*Don't know*". It is worth noting that this sample has a significant right skew for this question, with approximately 74% of respondents indicating that they had never utilized social media or the internet at large to communicate about political, societal, or local issues within the last 12 months.

The Current Population Survey (CPS) contained multiple basic demographic information questions. For this analysis, questions related to respondent age, gender, educational attainment, and race were included, as briefly discussed previously. Descriptive statistics for these demographics can also be seen in Table 1. Additional demographic information not included in the analysis ranged from geographic location to household structure and marital status to income and employment status.

Data Preparation and Cleaning

For this analysis, data were retrieved from the United States Census Bureau's publicly published Volunteering and Civic Life webpage and were analyzed utilizing Stata Statistical Software, version 18.0 BE. "Active Sociopolitical Development" and "Political Socialization" were reverse utilizing `revrs`, an additional module added to Stata, after construction, to align lower instances in either measure with smaller numerical values higher instances with larger numerical values. Descriptive statistics were generated for all variables, including frequency counts, standard deviation, means, and ranges. For the purposes of this analysis, multiple measures were condensed due to low observation amount. Under race, an "other" category was developed to encompass responses with a frequency of less than 30 observations including Hawaiian/Pacific Islander and multiple mixed race combinations. Under education, observations equal or less to a 10th grade education were condensed into "less than or equal 10th grade" as a nominal category. Additionally, 6 observations that had reported obtaining a Master's

Degree were combined with those who reported having a Bachelor's Degree to create "Bachelor's Degree+".

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics (N = 3862)

	Mean/Prop.	*SD*	Min.	Max.
Active Sociopolitical Development	.10	.18	.00	1.00
Political Socialization	2.76	1.23	1.00	6.00
Political Social Media Usage (Frequency)				
Never	74%			
Less than once a month	8%			
Monthly	4%			
A few times a month	6%			
Weekly	5%			
Daily	2%			
Local Election Participation (last 12 months)				
No	50%			
Yes	28%			
Not Eligible	22%			
Respondent age	21.09	2.91	16.00	25.00
Respondent gender (Female)	51%			
Respondent Race				
White	78%			
Black	12%			
Indigenous American	2%			
Asian	5%			
Other	4%			
Latinx (Non-Latinx)	77%			
Educational Attainment				
10th grade or less	10%			
11th or 12th grade	13%			
High school diploma or GED equivalent	31%			
Some college	28%			
Bachelor's or more	17%			

Source: Current Population Survey - Volunteering and Civic Life (VCL) Supplement 2021

Some additional changes were made to the data prior to analysis as well. For the VCL measure regarding local election practice, 30 currently underaged participants (i.e.

16 or 17) responded that they had voted in the last twelve months; these observations were removed from analysis out of an abundance of caution in case these were invalid data. Additionally, all underaged participants who reported not voting were recoded as "not eligible", given that this parameter is more applicable due to respondent age. Given the research question's interest in adolescent youth, all observations over the age of 25 were removed from analysis; the age cutoff was determined to emphasize a transition in behavior from adolescent to young adult (if such was present in the data), given that literature has discussed how adolescents have more capacity for active sociopolitical development behavior than young adults (Eckstein et al., 2012; Hope & Jagers, 2014) and that undergraduate settings can assist in solidifying the development of political thought (Morgan, 2021). Additionally, observations with missing data (including refusal to answer and do not know responses) in relevant measures were listwise deleted for this analysis, leaving a total sample size of 3862 observations which were included in the analysis.

Bivariate pairwise correlations were utilized to highlight relationships between all study variables. A full table of the correlations can be seen in Table 2. Linear regressions were conducted to assess the relationship of political social media usage on adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development. All regressions included the following covariates: political socialization, local electoral participation, educational attainment, age, gender, race, and Latinx ethnicity. Multiple linear regression models were made to aid in discerning what might best capture the relationships present in the data. The constructed linear regression models were as follows: a regression without political social media usage (model0a - to establish a baseline effect), a regression with political social

Table 2

Bivariate Correlations

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Active Sociopolitical Development (1)	1							
Political Socialization (2)	.28[a]	1						
Political Social Media Usage (3)	.14[a]	.36[a]	1					
Race (4)	-.01	-.02	-.02	1				
Gender (5)	.02	0	.06[a]	0	1			
Local Election Participation (6)	.13[a]	-.04[a]	-.03[b]	.01	-.02	1		
Educational Attainment (7)	.07[a]	.25[a]	.03[b]	.04[b]	.08[a]	-.49[a]	1	
Ethnicity (8)	.15[a]	.13[a]	.02	.12[a]	.03	-.05[a]	.13[a]	1

[a]Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

[b]Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

media usage (model1a – to establish if there was any relationship between political social media usage and sociopolitical development), a regression measuring an interaction between political social media usage and voting activity on sociopolitical development (model2a), a regression measuring a relationship between political social media usage and respondent race on sociopolitical development (model3a) and a model measuring the relationship between political socialization and electoral habits on sociopolitical development (model4a).

To aid in discerning what model can best interpret included measures, likelihood ratio tests were conducted between model variations. Model1a was found to be better at explaining the relationship between variables than Model0a ($p<.001$, $x^2=25.21$, $df=5$) and Models2a-4a were all found to be better indicators of the relationships at hand when compared to Model1a: Model2a ($p<.001$, $x^2=32.86$, $df=10$), Model3a ($p<.001$, $x^2=48.23$, $df=20$), Model4a ($p<.001$, $x^2=27.96$, $df=2$). Of these latter models, Model3a proved to be

best at explaining variation, with an R^2 of 0.16. Model visuals can be seen in the appendix.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Political Social Media Usage and Sociopolitical Development

H1: It was hypothesized that higher frequencies of political social media usage would facilitate higher adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development. The hypothesis that political social media usage would facilitate higher adolescent and young adult social political development (SPD) was partially supported by the analysis. Compared to those who never used social media with political intent, those who used social media less than once per month demonstrated a higher measured SPD (β = .032, p = .005, 95% CI [.01, .054]). However, contrary to predictions, additional frequency of usage did not demonstrate any significant relationship between usage and SPD.

Political Socialization and Sociopolitical Development

H2: It was hypothesized that higher levels of political socialization would be predictive of higher sociopolitical development in adolescents and young adults. The hypothesis that higher levels of political socialization would serve as a predictor for SPD was supported

by the analysis. For every unit increase in political socialization, adolescents and young adults demonstrated a higher measured SPD (β = .032, p < .001, 95% CI [.026, .037]).

Political Social Media Usage and Race on Sociopolitical Development

Analysis of covariates on SPD provided a relatively nuanced interpretation. Looking only at race, multiple statistically significant negative relationships with sociopolitical development were observed. Compared to white respondents, Black respondents exhibited lower sociopolitical development on average (β = -.05 p < .001, 95% CI [-.071, -.03]) and Asian respondents exhibited lower sociopolitical development on average (β = -.034, p = .015, 95% CI [-.061, -.007]). However, when considering the interaction between race and political social media usage frequency, this narrative shifts dramatically. Black respondents, Asian respondents, and "Other" race respondents who indicated using social media for political purposes *daily* had a significantly higher measured sociopolitical development compared to white respondents (β = .168 p = .006, 95% CI [.048, .289]), (β = .259 p = .004, 95% CI [.085, .433]), (β = .175 p = .031, 95% CI [.016, .333]), respectively. While this effect does not continue to demonstrate with lessened social media usage amongst Black respondents, Asian respondents who use social media for political purposes a few times per month still exhibit higher measured sociopolitical development (β = .261 p < .033, 95% CI [.021, .5]). Curiously, Indigenous Americans exhibited higher sociopolitical development at the less than one time per month level (β = .415 p = .001, 95% CI [.172, .658]), but not at any higher frequencies.

Covariate Relationships with Sociopolitical Development

Electoral habits were also indicative of sociopolitical development in this sample, supporting previous literature. Those who had participated in a local election within the last twelve months exhibited higher measured sociopolitical development ($\beta = .059$ $p < .001$, 95% CI [.045, .072]), as did those who were ineligible ($\beta = .04$ $p < .001$, 95% CI [.02, .061]) when compared to those who did not vote. Interestingly, respondent age corresponded with a lower measured sociopolitical development ($\beta = -.007$ $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.01, -.004]), but this finding is arguably minimal and could be indicative of less capacity for community engagement due to additional external responsibilities, as previously discussed in the literature review. Contrary to the literature, educational attainment was overall not predictive of sociopolitical development. The sole exception to this was reflected in those who had obtained a bachelor's degree or more; these respondents exhibited heightened sociopolitical development tendencies ($\beta = .045$ $p = .002$, 95% CI [.016, .074]). Respondents who self-identified as being Latinx, on average, demonstrated less SPD behaviors than non-Latinx respondents ($\beta = -.055$ $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.041, -.068]). Respondent gender was found to be not significant to SPD behaviors in this sample. A full table of the conducted regressions can be seen in the appendix (Table 1A).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study examined how political social media usage may impact and foster adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development. Additionally, this study examined whether adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development was influenced by political socialization. These findings suggest that social media and digital spaces are becoming increasingly relevant within the realm of sociopolitical development in young people (Mirra & Garcia, 2017; Malorni, 2023). Expanding the literature's understanding of where sociopolitical development occurs in young persons is critical, as it can allow for theory to understand and account for additional influences that are not captured through just physical spaces. Recognizing that social media has the capacity to influence sociopolitical development means that it can be a powerful tool for adolescent and young adult engagement in communities and politics. Ideally, this could be part of a multi-pronged approach to instilling civic action in younger generations.

The study found strong support for a positive relationship between political socialization and sociopolitical development. Additionally, there was only partial support for the relationship between political social media and youth and adolescent sociopolitical development. Specifically, infrequent political social media use (i.e. less than monthly) facilitated higher SPD in adolescents and young adults; this study found no

support for a relationship between additional social media usage and SPD. However, when considering how political social media usage and respondent race interacted, some supplemental findings were revealed. Black and Asian respondents demonstrated statistically significant higher sociopolitical development when compared to white respondents for using social media on a *daily* level. It is likely that these observations stem from the context of salient racial violence during the data collection period.

The global onset of Covid-19 spurred an elevation in anti-Asian hate crimes with over 9,000 reported cases occurring between March 2020 and June 2021 per *Stop AAPI Hate*, a non-profit that operates a self-report system for hate crimes against Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders within the United States. (The Associated Press, 2021). In part, the increase in frequency stems from socially-embedded xenophobia and racism; these sentiments were fanned and even encouraged during the earlier stages of the pandemic, as politicians across levels of government, including former President Donald Trump, attempted to label Covid-19 as the "China virus" (and other racially-based epithets) (Gover et al, 2020), due to the origins of Covid-19 in Wuhan, China. The usage of this xenophobic language by public officials has since been shown to have correlated with a subsequent increase in reported hate incidents reported and discussed in media (Jeung, 2020). This heightened media attention led to subsequent social media dialogue, with multiple activists and influencers denouncing the violence, especially under *#StopAsianHate* (Chung, 2021). In addition to this, the murders of Breonna Taylor and George Floyd (in March 2020 and May 2020, respectively) as a result of police brutality provided fresh energy into the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement and subsequent

(social) media attention. Taylor's murder spurred widespread usage of *#SayHerName* across social media and activist platforms to draw attention to the deaths of Black women and girls at the hands of excessive police force (Owens, 2021) and Floyd's murder renewed *#BLM* and incited widespread protests across the United States and calls to defund police departments (Amnesty International, 2020). This increased discussion, especially on social media platforms, helped young people engage with dialogue surrounding *#BLM* and connect with otherwise inaccessible organizing spaces and movements (Malorni, 2023).

Regarding the findings for political socialization and sociopolitical development, this study found itself in line with pre-existing literature. Political socialization can translate into multiple facets of sociopolitical behavior, including community engagement and activism (Hope, 2016) and subsequent political engagement (Ballard & Syme, 2016). This intuitively makes sense, as those who are more politically socialized are simply more likely to recognize structural inequities within their community (Diemer & Li, 2011). Reaffirming additional support for the positive relationship between political socialization and adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development begs us to consider what potential avenues are possible to introduce and enable platforms for political socialization that are accessible to adolescents and young adults.

A sizeable number of respondents in this study reported no community involvement (e.g. socializing with neighbors, attending public meetings, voting, etc.). At first glance, this provides support for Putnam's (1995) argument about the decline of social capital; the sample in this study appears to be alarmingly socially isolated from community and civic engagements. However, it is important to recognize the context during data

collection, which occurred during the Covid-19 pandemic. While some elements of engagement like voting and public meeting attendance could have been addressed through virtual substitutes (i.e. mail-in voting and town hall live streams, respectively), many others, such as volunteering, are reliant on physical presence and capacity. Given that Covid-19 vaccines were not available to the general public until August 23rd, 2021 (United States Department of Health and Human Services, 2024), one month before the end of data collection, there should be some care in asserting that this sample speaks directly to decreasing social capital. It is likely that Covid-19 exacerbated whatever decreases in social capital are present in this sample, but further research would be needed to examine this relationship.

Limitations and Future Research

There were some limitations in this study that are worth noting. The respondents in this sample were overwhelmingly white, with 78% of respondents identifying as such; this skew is intentional, given the Current Population Survey's stated aim to obtain demographics that are reflective of the United States' populace (United States Census Bureau, 2021). However, especially given the race-based interaction that was present in this study, it would have arguably been more meaningful to intentionally recruit a more diverse sample. While this sample does make it theoretically easier to extrapolate findings to the United States population at large, it loses the potential to elaborate on non-white civic participation.

Given the nature of working with these secondary data, it is difficult to ascertain causality. Since the data are cross-sectional observations, rather than longitudinal, further research should be conducted to provide further support for the findings in this study. If future research were conducted, qualitative work could illuminate additional relationships that are obscured due to how the VCL structured their question regarding political social media usage. Considering Vogels et al.'s (2022) report on adolescent social media interests, this research could attempt to capture what platforms are being utilized and discern where sociopolitical development does and does not occur (e.g. TikTok vs. Snapchat or Reddit vs. YouTube, hypothetically). The limitation of this question is further complicated by respondent interpretation of "political, societal, or local issues"; respondents may not have considered that their content posted online was adjacent enough to these issues or could not remember relevant ("slacktivism" re) posts. Further qualitative research could aid in clarifying these questions to better understand the relationship between political social media usage and SPD, as well as better detail possible future implementation measures.

Implications and Conclusion

This study serves as a potential signifier of how adolescent and young adult sociopolitical development can be observed in online and hybrid spaces, especially as these spaces continue to grow and become embedded in daily life. Not only does this study continue to provide support for young people having civic interest and a capacity for engagement in their communities, but it also demonstrates how literature needs to

adapt to account for additional avenues of participation, rather than solely traditional forms like voting (predictors), protest/activism, and volunteering. Political social media usage has become another facet of civic engagement and practitioners need to implement this into their approaches to engage with young people.

This study brings into question how social media is discussed in the political sphere. One example involves TikTok, with many states enacting their own bans on TikTok and the federal government attempting to enact similar legislation at the federal level (Maheshwari & Holpuch, 2024). While the debate mostly centers around privacy securities, TikTok's popularity amongst adolescents and young adults cannot be denied (Vogels et al., 2022) and Malorni (2023) highlights TikTok as one of the platforms her adolescent co-researchers denote as being capable of diversifying perspectives. Additionally, precedent for limiting youth accessibility to social media is starting to cement itself. Florida's legislature, for instance, has passed age-restrictions on social media platforms, prohibiting adolescents younger than 16[3] from independently creating profiles (Paúl & Lima-Strong, 2024). The findings from this study create an urgent need to ensure access to social media platforms because of the potential benefits to social political development they provide.

Organizations dedicated to facilitating social movements and change, especially those that work with adolescents and young adults (like ICUC), should utilize social media platforms to create informative content that can reach wide audiences, especially ones outside of their current followers, since social media can expose adolescents to new

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[3] This expands upon the federal government's 1998 Children's Online Privacy Protection Rule, which requires parental consent to create a profile for users younger than 13 (Paúl & Lima-Strong, 2024).

dialogues (Malorni, 2023). These organizations can engage in outreach that spans their geographic or manpower limitations, spreading their mission to young people and potentially planting the seeds for additional like-minded movements. There is both merit and meaning to the dialogues that are occurring digitally, and failing to capture these impacts only hampers the literature's understanding of sociopolitical development in young people. Social media can help provide insights on how to facilitate new approaches to civic engagement and encourage young people to shape a world they want to inherit.

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APPENDIX A

SUPPLEMENTAL DOCUMENTS

Table 1A

Linear Regressions

Effect	Estimate	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
			LL	*UL*	
Fixed effects					
Political Social Media Usage (Frequency)					
Less than once a month	.032	.114	.01	.054	.003
Monthly	.025	.016	-.007	.056	.061
A few times a month	.016	.013	-.011	.042	.123
Weekly	.011	.015	-.019	.04	.241
Daily	.025	.021	-.017	.066	.121
Respondent Race					
Black	-.05	.011	-.071	-.03	<.001
Indigenous American	-.043	.026	-.094	.008	.099
Asian	-.034	.014	-.061	-.007	.015
Other	.012	.017	-.02	.045	.223
Social Media Usage & Race Interaction					
Less than once a month & Black	.04	.03	-.019	.099	.093
Less than once a month & Indigenous American	.415	.124	.172	.658	.001
Less than once a month & Asian	-.018	.047	-.108	.072	.695
Less than once a month & Other	-.045	.067	-.178	.087	.5
Monthly & Black	-.058	.042	-.14	.023	.162
Monthly & Indigenous American	-.069	.103	-.271	.133	.504
Monthly & Asian	.097	.068	-.036	.229	.077
Monthly & Other	.077	.073	-.067	.22	.147
A few times a month & Black	.016	.032	-.047	.079	.31
A few times a month & Indigenous American	-.003	.103	-.204	.199	.979
A few times a month & Asian	.261	.122	.021	.5	.017
A few times a month & Other	.072	.073	-.071	.214	.163
Weekly & Black	-.027	.035	-.095	.04	.427
Weekly & Indigenous American	-.013	.076	-.161	.136	.866
Weekly & Asian	.069	.057	-.043	.182	.113
Weekly & Other	.159	.101	-.039	.357	.058
Daily & Black	.168	.061	.048	.289	.003
Daily & Indigenous American	.033	.083	-.131	.196	.348
Daily & Asian	.259	.089	.085	.433	.002
Daily & Other	.175	.081	.016	.333	.016
Latinx (Non-Latinx)	.055	.007	.041	.068	<.001
Political Socialization	.032	.003	.026	.037	<.001
Respondent age	-.007	.001	-.01	-.004	<.001
Respondent gender (Female)	.001	.006	-.01	.012	.447

Local Election Participation (last 12 months)					
Yes	.059	.007	.045	.072	<.001
Not Eligible	.04	.01	.02	.061	<.001
Educational Attainment					
11th or 12th grade	.008	.012	-.014	.031	.241
High school diploma or GED equivalent	-.01	.012	-.034	.015	.444
Some college	.011	.013	-.015	.037	.206
Bachelor's or more	.045	.015	.016	.074	.001

ATTACHMENT 7
SUPPLEMENT RECORD LAYOUT
Current Population Survey, September 2021
Volunteering and Civic Life Supplement

NAME	SIZE	DESCRIPTION	LOCATION
PES1	2	In the past 12 months, that is from	1001-1002

September 2020 until today, how

often did [you/[NAME]] talk to or

spend time with friends and family?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-3 Refused
-2 Don't know

-1 Not in universe

1 Basically every day

2 A few times a week

3 A few times a month

4 Once a month

5 Less than once a month

6 Not at all

PES2	2	[In the past 12 months,] how often did	1003-1004

[you/[NAME] discuss political, societal,

or local issues with friends or family?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer
-3 Refused

-2 Don't know

-1 Not in universe

1 Basically every day

2 A few times a week

3 A few times a month

4 Once a month

5 Less than once a month

6 Not at all

PES4	2	In the past 12 months, how often did	1005-1006

[you/[NAME]] have a conversation or spend

time with [your/his/her] neighbors?

EDITED UNIVERSE:
PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer

-3 Refused

-2 Don't know

-1 Not in universe

1 Basically every day

2 A few times a week

3 A few times a month
4 Once a month

5 Less than once a month

6 Not at all

PES5	2	[In the past 12 months,] how often did	1007-1008

[you/[NAME]] discuss political, societal, or

local issues with [your/his/her] neighbors?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

 VALID ENTRIES:

 -9 No answer

 -3 Refused

 -2 Don't know

 -1 Not in universe

 1 Basically every day

 2 A few times a week

 3 A few times a month

 4 Once a month

 5 Less than once a month

 6 Not at all

| PES6 | 2 | [In the past 12 months,] how often did [you/[NAME]] and [your/his/her] neighbors do favors for each other such as house sitting, watching each other's children, lending tools, and other things to help each other | 1009-1010 |

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer

-3 Refused

-2 Don't know

-1 Not in universe
1 Basically every day

2 A few times a week
3 A few times a month

4 Once a month

5 Less than once a month

6 Not at all

PES7   2   [In the past 12 months,] did [you/[NAME]   1011-1012
             get together with other people from
             [your/his/her] neighborhood to do
             something positive for [your/his/her]
             neighborhood or the community?

             EDITED UNIVERSE:

             PRSUPINT = 1

             VALID ENTRIES:

             -9 No answer

             -3 Refused
             -2 Don't know

             1 Yes
             2 No

PES9   2   [In the past 12 months,] how often did   1013-
                                                                  1014
             [you/[NAME]] post [your/his/her] views

             about political, societal, or local issues on the

             internet or social media?

             EDITED UNIVERSE:

             PRSUPINT = 1

             VALID ENTRIES:
             -9 No answer

             -3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Basically every day

2 A few times a week

3 A few times a month

4 Once a month

5 Less than once a month

6 Not at all

PES10	2	[In the past 12 months,] how often did [you/[NAME]] read, watch or listen to news	1015-1016

or information about political, societal, or

local issues?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer
-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Basically every day

2 A few times a week

3 A few times a month

4 Once a month

5 Less than once a month

6 Not at all

PES11	2	[In the past 12 months,] did [you/[NAME]	1017-1018

vote in the last local elections, such as for

mayor or school board?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer
-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

				1019-1020

PES12   2   [In the past 12 months,] did [you/[NAME]
attend a public meeting, such as a zoning or

school board meeting, to discuss a local

issue?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer
-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

				1021-1022

PES13   2   [In the past 12 months,] did [you/[NAME]
contact or visit a public official – at any level

of government – to express [your/his/her]

opinion?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer
-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

| PES14 | 2 | [In the past 12 months,] Did [you/[NAME] | 1023-1024 |

buy or boycott products or services based

on the political values or business practices

of that company?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer
-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

| PES15 | 2 | In the past 12 months, did [you/[NAME] | 1025-1026 |

belong to any groups, organizations, or

associations?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer

-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

PES15A   2   How many groups, organizations, or associations would you   1027-1028

say [you have/[NAME] has] belonged to over the
past 12 months?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PES15 = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No
answer
-3
Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

0 may be considered "not in
  universe."

1 One 2 Two
3 Three

4 Four

5 Five

6 Six

7 Seven or more

PES16   2   In the past 12 months, did [you/[NAME]]   1029-1030

spend any time volunteering for any
organization or association?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer

-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

PES16A   2   Some people don't think of activities they do   1031-1032
infrequently or for children's schools or
youth organizations as volunteer activities.
In the past 12 months (have you/has she/has he)
done any of these types of activities?

       EDITED UNIVERSE:

       PES16 = (-9,-2, 2)

       VALID ENTRIES:

       -9 No answer

       -3 Refusal

       -2 Do not know

       -1 Not in universe

          1 Yes

          2 No

PES16D   2   How often did [you/[NAME]] volunteer?   1033-1034

       EDITED UNIVERSE:

       PRSUPVOL = 1

       VALID ENTRIES:

       -9 No answer

       -3 Refusal

       -2 Do not know

       -1 Not in universe

1 Basically every day

2 A few times a week

3 A few times a month

4 Once a month

5 Less than once a month

6 Not at all

PTS16E	3	In the past 12 months, approximately how many hours did [you/[NAME]] volunteer? (Topcoded at 500)	1035-1037

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPVOL = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer

-3 Refused

-2 Don't know

-1 Not in universe

 1:500

PES17	2	[In the past 12 months,] did [you/[NAME] give money or possessions with a combined value of more than $25 to a political organization, party, or campaign?	1038-1039

EDITED UNIVERSE:
PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer

-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

PES18	2	[In the past 12 months,] did [you/[NAME]	1040-1041

give money or possessions with a combined

 value of more than $25 to a non-political

 group or organization, such as a charity,

 school, or religious organization?

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No answer
-3 Refusal

-2 Do not know

-1 Not in universe

1 Yes

2 No

PRSUPINT	2	Supplement Interview Status Recode	1042-1043

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRPERTYP = (1,2) AND PRTAGE =16+

VALID ENTRIES:

-1 Not in universe
1 Interview

2 Non-interview

PRSUPVOL	2	Volunteer status recode	1044-1045

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-1 Not in universe
1 Volunteer

2 Not a volunteer

PRSELF	2	Self response recode	1046-1047

EDITED UNIVERSE:

PRSUPINT = 1

VALID ENTRIES:

-1 Not in universe

1 Self response

2 Proxy response

PWNRWGT	10	Nonresponse supplement Weight EDITED UNIVERSE: All persons	1048-1057

Random identification self or proxy eligibility flag

PEELGFLG	2	EDITED UNIVERSE: All persons	1058-1059

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No Response
-3 Refused
-2 Don't Know
-1 Not in Universe
1 Selected for Interview
4 Not Selected for Interview

| PESWP1a | 2 | Now I'm going to read you a list of statements that might or might not describe your main job. Please tell me whether you [strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree] with each of these statements. | 1060-1061 |

I am proud to be working for my employer.
EDITED UNIVERSE:

Self-respondent employed persons

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No Response
-3 Refused

-2 Don't Know

(1) Strongly agree

(2) Agree

(3) Disagree

(4) Strongly disagree

| PESWP1b | 2 | Now I'm going to read you a list of statements that might or might not describe your main job. Please tell me whether you [strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree] with each of these statements. | 1062-1063 |

My workplace contributes to the community.
EDITED UNIVERSE:

Self-respondent employed persons

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No Response
-3 Refused

-2 Don't Know

(1) Strongly agree

(2) Agree

(3) Disagree

(4) Strongly disagree

| PESWP1c | 2 | Now I'm going to read you a list of statements that might or might not describe your main job. Please tell me whether you [strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree] with each of these statements. | 1064-1065 |

My main satisfaction in life comes from work.
EDITED UNIVERSE:

Self-respondent employed persons

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No Response
-3 Refused

-2 Don't Know

(1) Strongly agree

(2) Agree

(3) Disagree

(4) Strongly disagree

| PESWP1d | 2 | Now I'm going to read you a list of statements that might or might not describe your main job. Please tell me whether you [strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree] with each of these statements. | 1066-1067 |

I contribute to the community through my work.

EDITED UNIVERSE:

Self-respondent employed persons

VALID ENTRIES:

-9 No Response

-3 Refused

-2 Don't Know

(1) Strongly agree
(2) Agree
(3) Disagree
(4) Strongly disagree

PESWP2   2   In the past 12 months, has your workplace or employer   1068-1069
               asked or encouraged employees to volunteer or contribute
               to a specific cause, for example by participating in an
               employer-sponsored volunteering day, providing pro bono
               services, or donating to a charity?

               EDITED UNIVERSE:

               Employed persons

               VALID ENTRIES:

               -9 No Response

                -3 Refused

               -2 Don't Know

               (1) Yes
               (2) No

PWSRWGT   2   Self-response Supplement Weight   1070-1079
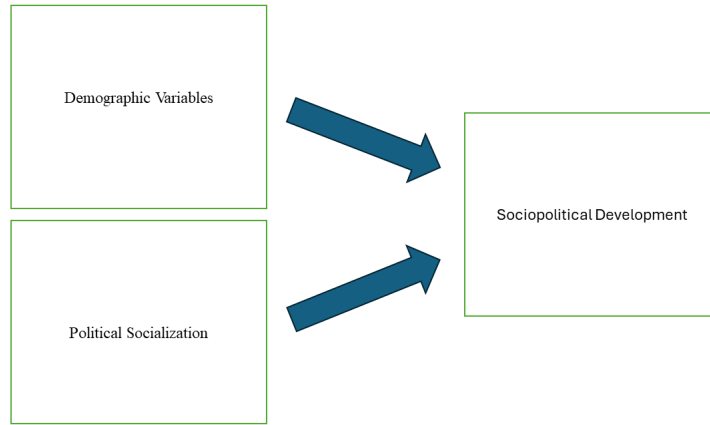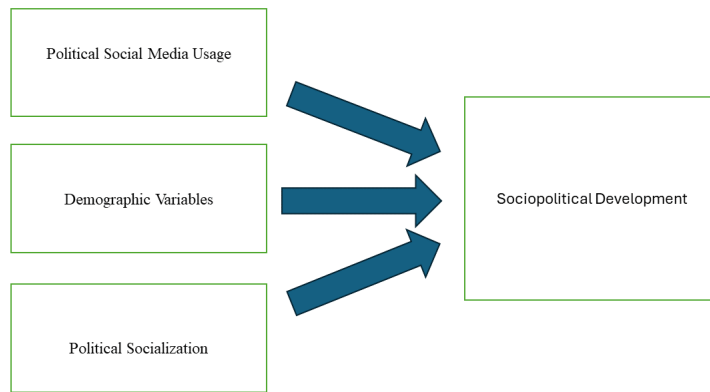
Figure 1a. Representation of Model 0a
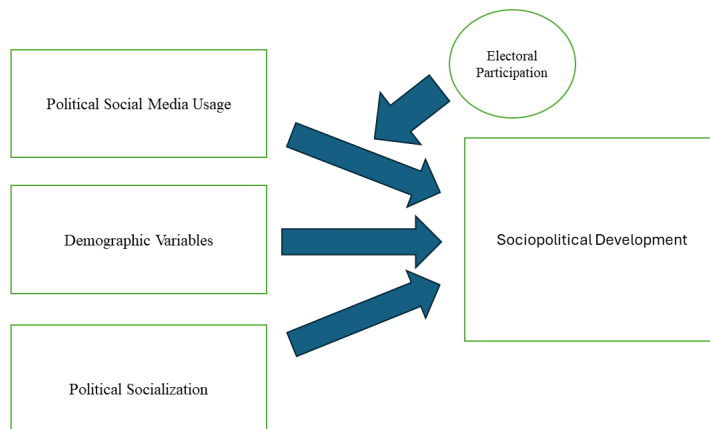

Figure 2a. Representation of Model 1a

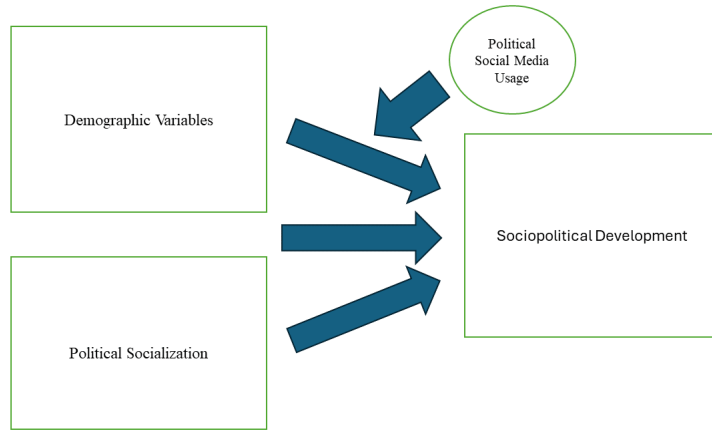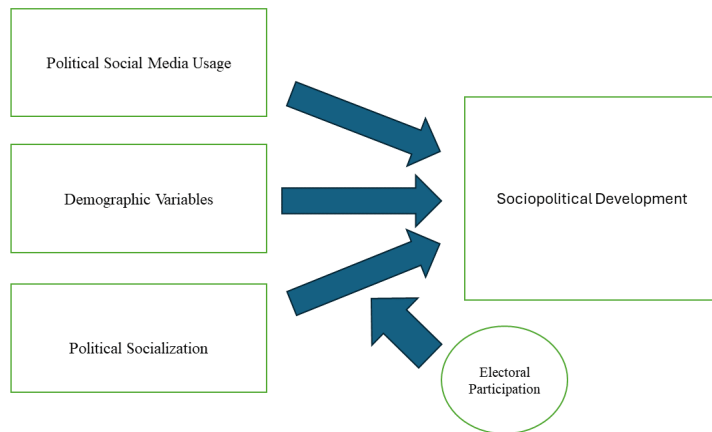*Figure 3a*. Representation of Model 2a

Figure 4a. Representation of Model 3a

Figure 5a. Representation of Model 4a