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To Vote or Not To Vote: The Effects of Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Parental Socialization on the Political Engagement of College Students

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By

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ABSTRACT

Political engagement involves both indirect and direct actions that effect the political system such as voting, donating to campaigns, and volunteering for a political party. Previous literature has suggested that students demonstrating more interest in politics and exhibiting strong party ties were more likely to vote than those who were uninterested in politics. Limited research has examined the relationship between political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental socialization on the political engagement of college students; however, studies have thoroughly examined the effects of political affiliation. The sample population for this research were students enrolled at one small, private, liberal arts institution located in central Pennsylvania. The data were obtained through the use of mixed methodology, using survey and semi-structured interview techniques. Results show that there were significant relationships between political engagement and political information efficacy. Those who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to be politically engaged. Interestingly, there was a was no relationship between locus of control and political engagement. There were significant relationships between political engagement and parental socialization. Those who recalled their parents being more politically engaged were more politically engaged themselves.

Key Words: Political Engagement of College Students, Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, Parental Socialization

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

The 2020 presidential election was the first opportunity for most traditional age college students (those between the ages of 18 and 24) to vote in a national election. These first-time voters in election battleground states, which are states that could be won by either the Republican or Democratic candidate, played a prominent role in determining the 46th President of the United States. For example, in the 2016 presidential election, Georgia's electoral college votes were distributed to Republican candidate Donald Trump, but in the recent 2020 election Georgia "turned blue" meaning its electoral college votes were won by Democratic candidate Joseph Biden (Bruner 2020). Bruner (2020) interviewed Nse Ufot, the CEO of New Georgia Project, to understand how Georgia switched from supporting a Republican candidate to a Democratic candidate in the last four years. The New Georgia Project is a nonpartisan organization founded by Stacey Abrams in 2013 that aims to register voters in Georgia (Bruner 2020). Nse Ufot emphasized that higher voter turnout among college age students was one of the main factors that flipped Georgia from red to blue. In Georgia alone, 21 percent of the total votes were attributed to young adults between the ages of 18-29 compared to 17 percent nationwide (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020b; Bruner 2020).

Encouraging young adults to vote in the 2020 presidential election depended heavily on grassroot campaigns launched by New Georgia Project, Campus Vote Project, Students for 2020, and Opportunity Youth United (Bruner 2020; Strauss, Katzman, and Bernstein 2020). These organizations, which target college age students to register to vote, relied on social media platforms to conduct registration drives (Bruner 2020; Strauss et al. 2020). The New Georgia Project partnered with Twitch, a livestreaming platform, and registered 9,000 new voters for National Voter Registration Day in September of 2020 (Bruner 2020). Nse Ufot recognized the

power of Twitch and organized another event on election day which consisted of a 12-hour livestream with special appearances and performances from Beyonce's mother Tina Knowles, Astronaut Mae Jemison, and rapper Dave East attracting half a million visitors. Due to these grassroot efforts, Georgia had the highest increase in college age voter registration in the country since 2016 (Bruner 2020).

Historically, voters between the age of 18 and 24 have turned out in lower numbers at the polls than all other age groups since the 1964 presidential election (File 2014). In 1964, about 50.9 percent of individuals aged 18 to 24 years voted as compared to 69.0 percent of individuals aged 25 to 44, 75.9 percent of individuals aged 45 to 64, and 66.3 percent of individuals 65 years and older (File 2014). Yet, when comparing young adults' (18 to 29 years old) voting behavior from 1980 to 2020, interesting trends emerge. According to the Census Bureau (2017), 48.2 percent of individuals aged 18 to 29 voted in the 1980 presidential election remaining consistent throughout the last 40 years with slight increases in the 1992 presidential election (52.0 percent) and in the 2008 presidential election (51.1 percent). Based on calculations made by Tufts College (CIRCLE) Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (2021b), about 53 to 55 percent of eligible voters aged 18 to 29 voted in the 2020 presidential election. This projection shows that individuals aged 18 to 29 turned out in numbers similar to past cohorts in 1964, 1992, and 2008, revealing how impactful college age students are in the national voter electorate (File 2014; United States Census Bureau 2017).

As reported by Sprunt (2020) and Frey (2020), over half of the United States population is in the Millennial generation or younger and they comprise 37 percent of eligible voters. Cilluffo and Fry (2018) found that voting reached a high during the 2018 midterm election due to participation from Generation X, Millennials, and Generation Z. The Millennial generation and

Generation Z accounted for 30.6 million votes or a quarter of the total votes in 2018. Thirty percent of eligible voters in Generation Z turned out to vote and were responsible for four percent of all the votes in the 2018 midterm election (Sprunt 2020). This emphasizes the impact young adult voters can have in national elections.

As young individuals become more politically conscious, they begin to engage directly with political activities and institutions. After polling 1,100 individuals between 18 and 29 years old, Tufts College Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (2020a), reported that 83 percent believed they had the power to change the country. For instance, 25 percent of young adults were registering others to vote, 29 percent were donating money to campaigns, 18 percent were volunteering for political campaigns, 27 percent were attending marches or public demonstrations, and 50 percent were trying to convince other young adults to vote (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). As stated in Kiesa (2020), 33 percent of young adults advocated for local, state, or national policy, 29 percent donated money to a campaign, and 16 percent volunteered for a political campaign. This demonstrates that young adults are participating in the political process while encouraging others to do so too.

Although young adults are becoming more involved, they lack key knowledge about the voting process and are not typically contacted by politicians (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). More than half of young adults (53 percent), have not been contacted at any time this year by a political campaign, or organizations advocating for a specific candidate (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). Young adults who voted in the past where more likely to be contacted by political campaigns and organizations. Additionally, those contacted by campaigns and organizations are much more likely to vote than those who are not (New Georgia Project 2020). Educating young individuals about the voting process is key to increasing engagement because

they will have more confidence in their ability to navigate the political sphere (New Georgia Project 2020). Roughly 51 percent of young adults correctly answered whether their state had online voter registration available (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). In addition, a third (32 percent) of young adults did not know if they could register to vote online in their state. While online voter registration is helpful to many individuals who know the process, 7.5 percent of young adults expressed that they do not have good internet access (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). If young adults do not believe they have enough political knowledge to participate in the electoral process, they may become less confident in themselves and their ability to engage with politics. Consequently, lack of internet access and political information are two barriers young adults face when undergoing the voting process.

Even though young adults face barriers in the voting process, they are passionate about a wide variety of political issues. In 2020, both racism and policing communities of color have become more important issues to young adults (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). For instance, young adults identifying as Asian, Latino, or Black indicated that racism was one of their top two priorities when voting. According to Frey (2020) individuals that make up the Millennial and Generation Z cohorts are more racially diverse than any previous generation and almost half of them identify as a racial or ethnic minority. Interestingly, 27 percent of young adults in the Millennial and Generation Z cohorts participated in peaceful protests during the summer of 2020 after the deaths of George Floyd and Breonna Taylor (Frey 2020). In addition, nonwhite members compose over half of the Millennial and Generation Z in nine different swing states including Arizona and Florida (Frey 2020). Interestingly, there is no one single issue that is the most important to all young adults (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). Overall, about 12 to 13 percent of young adults identified environmental issues, racism, and health care access as one of

their top priority issues for the 2020 presidential election. This is a change from 2018, because most young individuals prioritized college affordability, healthcare access, employment, tax rates, and racism as top issues (Tufts University CIRCLE 2020a). These issues exemplify that young adults are interested in participating politically. This research examined the effects of political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental socialization on the political engagement of college students at a small, private, liberal arts college in central Pennsylvania using a mixed methods approach.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

Defining Political Engagement

Previous studies have examined political engagement among traditional age college students (Bernstein 2005; Hargittai and Shaw 2013; Niemi and Hanmer 2010; and Snell 2010). Political engagement can be defined as both indirect and direct actions that effect the political system (Bernstein 2005; Hargittai and Shaw 2013). Hargittai and Shaw (2013) define political engagement as direct political action such as voting, donating to campaigns, and volunteering for a political party.

Snell (2010) utilized survey and interview data collected from the National Study of Youth and Religion to understand 18-24 year old's political participation. In total, 59 percent of the sample did not self-identify as being political (Snell 2010). For instance, those identifying themselves as semipolitical defined being political as engaging with politics on an individual level such as watching political news rather than collective political behavior like voting or volunteering for a campaign. Therefore, those individuals identifying as semipolitical view political behavior in terms of individual political acts (Snell 2010). Snell (2010) found that individuals who identified themselves as not political were either distrustful of the government or did not believe they could have an impact on the political system.

Although there is robust literature on political engagement, most studies analyze the voting behavior of college age students (Hargittai and Shaw 2013; Niemi and Hanmer 2010). Niemi and Hanmer (2010) sampled 12,000 college students and studied the effects of geographic location and psychological factors on voter turnout. Students who demonstrated more interest in politics and exhibited strong party ties were more likely to vote than those who were uninterested in politics (Niemi and Hanmer 2010). Those who lived closer to their home while at college were more likely to make it to the polls and vote than those who lived farther from their home while at college (Niemi and Hanmer 2010). Interestingly, those who were able to register in a battleground state by either picking their hometown or college town were likely to do so.

Theoretical Framework

Self-efficacy, locus of control, and the social learning theory were used to analyze the relationship between political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental socialization on the political engagement of traditional age college students. Bandura (1977) describes self-efficacy theory as one's perceived capability of performing tasks which require a certain level of skill and knowledge. This theory is instrumental in supporting the independent variable, political information efficacy. College students' level of political information efficacy revealed how confident and capable they are at collecting and understanding political material (Bandura 1977). For this reason, the self-efficacy theory provided the context needed to understand the relationship between political information efficacy and political engagement. Rotter (1966) and Twenge, Zhang, and Inn (2004) define locus of control theory as the degree to which an individual perceives their life is controlled by internal or external factors. Those who exhibit an internal locus of control believed that they have the power to alter their life outcome, while those with an external locus of control felt that luck or other external factors have more influence on

their life choices (Twenge et al. 2004). The locus of control theory supports the independent variable locus of control because it measured how much control college students believe they have in the political process. Gidengil, Wass, and Valaste (2016) define the social learning theory as the process of observational learning and modeling behaviors of parental figures or role models. For instance, Bandura (1977) emphasizes that parents' behaviors can be internalized and later replicated by their children. The social learning theory provided a theoretical foundation to study the independent variable parental socialization.

Political Information Efficacy and Political Engagement

Researchers have studied the political information efficacy of college students (Austin, Van de Vord, Pinkelton, and Epstein 2008; Kaid, McKinney, and Tedesco 2007; Moffett and Rice 2018; Muralidharan and Sung 2018; Tedesco 2007). Moffett and Rice (2018) define political information efficacy as how confident an individual is in finding and understanding political content.

Moffett and Rice (2018) surveyed college undergraduates before the 2016 election to understand the relationship between political information efficacy and political engagement. After analyzing results, Moffett and Rice (2018) found that college students who consumed political content on social media platforms were more likely to create political posts and convince others to vote. In other words, college students who spent more time online reading political posts were more likely to express their own political beliefs than those who spent less time online consuming political content (Moffett and Rice 2018). Similarly, Muralidharan and Sung (2016) surveyed 363 college students from five major U.S. universities to understand how their political information efficacy shaped their voting patterns in the 2012 presidential election. Muralidharan and Sung (2016) found that election news, in the form of news websites, television

news shows, and radio news shows had a greater impact on college students political information efficacy than other news sources. Interestingly, Moffett and Rice (2018) found the students' online political engagement influenced in-person political behavior. For example, students self-identifying as strong partisans and who spent more time reading online political content were more likely to persuade others to vote offline. Moffett and Rice (2018) concluded that political online activities can engage students who may not otherwise participate in political activities. This suggests that college students gain political knowledge and confidence from consuming various forms of news media (Moffett and Rice 2018).

Tedesco (2007) conducted an experiment with 271 young adults to understand how Internet activity effects political information efficacy. The findings express that increased interactivity exposure on websites had significantly increased the participants' political information efficacy. As a result, participants that spent more time interacting with websites, were more likely to feel informed about politics than those participants who spent less time interacting with websites. Similarly, Hargittai and Shaw (2013) found those who spent more time online and have web-based skills were more likely to be accessing or discussing political content than those who spent less time online. Moreover, Tedesco (2007) found that increased interactivity exposure on websites increased the likelihood of participants valuing voting. Overall, the results confirm that exposure to interactivity on websites increased young adults' perception that their opinion matters in the political process (Tedesco 2007).

Kaid et al. (2007) employed the National Election survey to compare how media use effected the political behavior of young and older voters. The findings emphasize that older voters were more likely than younger voters to rely on television news media for political information (Kaid et al. 2007). Additionally, older voters were more likely to read newspapers

than younger voters and younger voters were more likely to rely on the Internet for gathering political information than older voters. Furthermore, younger voters perceived themselves to be less politically informed and were less likely to exercise their right to vote than older voters. Yet, younger voters who watched presidential debates and engaged with campaign messaging were more likely to feel confident and had higher levels of political information efficacy than younger voters who did not engage with political media (Kaid et al. 2007). Similarly, Austin et al. (2008) found that celebrity endorsed political promotions predicted higher rates of self-efficacy in young adult voters. In other words, the more receptive young adults were to celebrity endorsements the less likely they were to be complacent and more likely to vote (Austin et al. 2008).

Locus of Control and Political Engagement

Various studies define locus of control as an individual perceiving how much control they have over their life choices and outcomes (Blanchard and Scarboro 1973; Kaid et al. 2007; Twenge, Zhang, and Inn 2004). Twenge et al. (2004) define locus of control in terms of an internal and external locus of control. For instance, individuals believing they have control over their own destiny exhibit an internal locus of control while those believing external forces determine their fate have an external locus of control (Twenge et al. 2004). Twenge et al. (2004) analyzed 97 samples of college age students between 1960 and 2002 to understand how their locus of control has changed over time. College students in 2002 developed more of an external locus of control than their predecessors in 1960 (Twenge et al. 2004). Increasingly, college students perceived outside forces rather than internal forces controlling their lives. For example, college students in 2002 scored more externally on the locus of control scale than 80 percent of college students from 1960 (Twenge et al. 2004). Over decades, college students began to

develop an external locus of control and believed that external forces rather than their own decisions controlled their fate. Interestingly, Twengo et al. (2004) explained that the increase in external locus of control was due to an increase in individualization among American college students. Instead of influencing students in leading an independent life, the rise of individualization in the United States had conditioned students into believing that they have little power to change the larger world (Twengo et al. 2004)

Blanchard and Scarboro (1973) surveyed 118 college age students to understand how one's self-perceived locus of control effects voting behavior. The findings reinforce that those identified as "Internals," on Rotter's locus of control scale, were more likely to cast a vote than those who identified as "Externals" (Blanchard and Scarboro 1973:123-124). In other words, those believing they had internal control over the decisions they made were more likely to vote than those believing external factors controlled the decisions they made (Blanchard and Scarboro 1973). For example, Kaid et al. (2007) found younger voters were more likely to believe that they had little control or say in government affairs. Specifically in the 2000 and 2004 election years, younger voters were more likely than older voters to believe that political officials did not care about their opinions (Kaid et al. 2007). This exemplifies that young adults' perceived locus of control can affect their voting behavior (Blanchard and Scarboro 1973; Kaid et al. 2007).

Parental Socialization and Political Engagement

Researchers have studied the effects of parental socialization on political engagement of young adults (Brady, Schlozman, and Verba 2015; Lahtinen, Erola, and Wass 2019; Neundorf, Niemi, and Smets 2016; Voorpostel and Coffee 2015; Warren and Wicks 2011). Brady et al. (2015) defines parental socialization as the way in which parents teach their children directly and indirectly through their actions on how to understand and interact with the world.

Warren and Wicks (2011) studied how political engagement of parents influences their children's future political activity. The findings claim that the development of young adults' sense of political engagement was directly connected to their parents' political engagement and indirectly impacted by their online political media consumption. Interestingly, parents with a higher degree of education were more likely to be politically engaged and pass this value down to their children than parents with less education (Warren and Wick 2011). Similarly, Brady et al. (2015) found parents' socioeconomic status and the amount of political stimulation parents create in the household largely predicts how politically active their children will be. Using an eight-act scale to score how politically engaged young adults were, Brady et al. (2015) found that the average respondent performs 2.11 political acts. Furthermore, about 25 percent of this activity was attributed to parental influence due to the parents' education level and socioeconomic status (Brady et al. 2015). Consequently, parents with access to higher degrees of education due to their socioeconomic status were more likely to encourage their children to engage with politics than those parents with less education and a lower socioeconomic status (Brady et al. 2015). Lahitnen et al. (2019) also found both socioeconomic status and education level to be prominent factors in predicting the political engagement of parents. By using Finnish voting records between 1980 and 1989, Lahitnen et al. (2019) specifically studied how siblings voted in the 2015 national election and how their mothers and fathers separately influenced them. The findings reveal that both the mother and father had equal importance in influencing their children's involvement in politics (Lahitnen et al. 2019). This equal importance between mother and father emphasizes the importance of socioeconomic status of the young adults' childhood family. Therefore, these findings reinforce that an individual's childhood has an impact on their voting behavior as adults (Lahitnen et al. 2019).

While parents that are politically active are more likely to have children that are politically engaged, parents who do not engage in politics also have an effect on their children's political identity. For example, Voorpostel and Coffe (2015) studied the effects of parental separation on young adults' political participation in Switzerland. Utilizing a random sample of households between 1999-2009, Voortpostel and Coffe (2015) found that young adults with separated parents were negatively affected in terms of developing a political identity and participating in politics. For example, young adults with separated parents were less likely to vote frequently and volunteer than young adults whose parents were not separated. As separated parents began to engage less with politics, their children were more likely to model their behavior rather than learning how to become politically active on their own (Voorposetl and Coffee 2015). This research yielded similar results to Harigattai and Shaw (2013) who found that if parents believe it is important to vote, there is a greater chance that this value will be passed on to their child than parents who do not believe voting is important (Harigittai and Shaw 2013). Overall, Voorpostel and Coffe (2015) made it clear that the parents' actions rather than their personality or characteristics have more of an impact on their children's future political activity (Voorpostel and Coffe 2015).

Neundorf et al. (2016) investigated how civic education could compensate for a lack of parental socialization. Employing the Belgian Political Panel Study between 2006 and 2011 yielding 2,821 respondents, Neundorf et al. (2016) found that a combination of parental socialization and civic education courses produced a foundation of political engagement in 14 year old children. Additionally, children who completed civic education courses and who were not exposed to politics in their homes were more likely to become politically engaged than students who were not exposed to politics at school or in their home (Neundorf et al. 2016). The

findings consistently report that children from disadvantaged families with lower socioeconomic statuses and who were not provided with civic education in their school were at high risk of becoming politically unengaged (Neundorf et al. 2016). Interestingly, children who were not socialized by their parents to engage with politics could break this cycle if they participated in protests (Brady et al. 2015).

Sex and Political Engagement

Muralidharan and Sung (2016) found that sex had a significant relationship with political engagement. Young female voters relied on social media platforms and family members for political information while males listened to political satire shows, political talk shows, and political radio shows (Muralidharan and Sung 2016). Yet, young female voters were more likely than male voters to increase their political information efficacy levels by conversing with others (Muralidharan and Sung 2016). A different study conducted by Harigattai and Shaw (2013), found that women were less likely than men to interact with political content online. This does not support Muralidharan and Sung's (2016) finding that women relied on social media platforms for political knowledge. Although men and women interact with political content and conversations differently, Niemi and Hanmer (2010), found that young women voted at higher rates than young men. Similarly, Snell (2010) found that individuals who identified as being disengaged from politics were more likely to be young men than young women. According to Blanchard and Scarboro (1973), female students voting for the first time were more likely to vote if their fathers were more conservative. On the other hand, there was a significant relationship between political philosophy and voting for male students who were previously eligible to vote (Blanchard and Scarboro 1973).

Partisanship and Political Engagement

Numerous studies define partisanship as strong preference for a political party (Ardoin, Bell, and Ragozzino 2015; Wray-Lay, Arrunda, and Hopkins 2019). Ardoin, Bell, and Ragozzino (2015) examined votes cast in 86 precincts, located on 42 college campuses, across five states after the 2008 presidential election. It was found that precincts located on college campuses provided more support for the Democratic candidate Barack Obama than precincts not located on college campuses. Yet, during local and state elections Republican candidates received greater support in college precincts than non-college precincts (Ardoin et al. 2015). These findings argue that college voters lean Democratic, but are not monolithic in their political ideology. Moreover, college students voted in higher numbers during national elections rather than state and local elections (Ardoin et al. 2015).

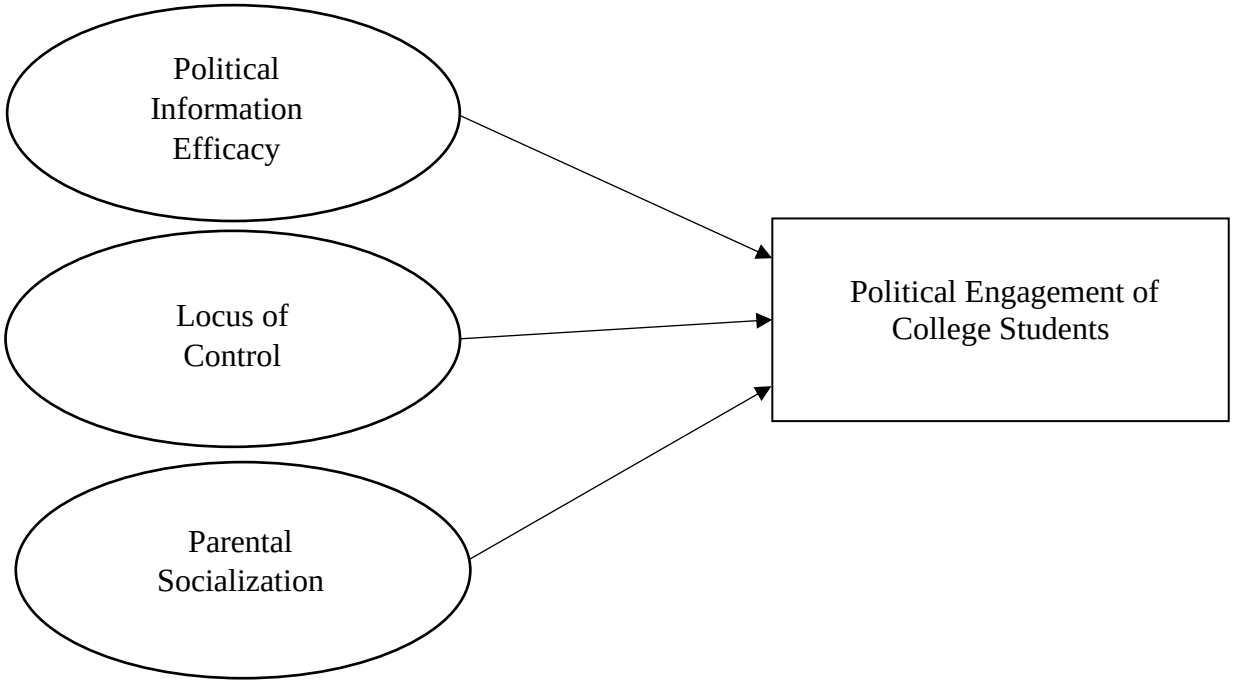
Wray-Lake, Arrunda, and Hopkins (2019) examined the effects of political affiliation on young adults' political participation across age and time. Data were collected through the Monitoring the Future (MTF) which is an ongoing national longitudinal study that tracks behaviors and attitudes of young adults since 1975. Wray-Lake et al. (2019) found that youth who had an affiliation with either political party were more likely to have higher rates of participation in the political process than those who did not have an affiliation with a political party. In other words, partisan ties created in one's youth influenced political engagement in their future. Similarly, Muralidharan and Sung (2016) found those who strongly identified with one of the two main political parties, were more likely to vote. On the other hand, young adults who did not have strong partisan ties were less likely to participate in the electoral process and may become disengaged as they grow older, leaving them distrustful of the government and avoiding political conversations (Wray-Lake et al. 2019).

CHAPTER 3 – RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Additions to Literature

This research adds to previous literature in several ways. First, it updates the literature by analyzing the 2020 presidential election and a new cohort of eligible voters. Next, by using both social psychological factors such as political information efficacy and locus of control, and a broader sociological approach which analyzes how parents socialize their children, this research created a multi-dimensional study. Lastly, both sex and partisanship were used as control variables due to the multiple amounts of studies previously conducted on these two variables and the political engagement of college students.

RESEARCH MODEL



HYPOTHESES

H_1: Traditional age college students who feel more confident about the political content they consume will be more politically engaged than college students who feel less confident about the political content they consume.

Rationale: Moffett and Rice (2018) found college students who spent more time online reading political posts were more likely to express their own political beliefs than those who spent less time online consuming political content. Additionally, Kaid et al. (2007) found younger voters who watched presidential debates and engaged with campaign messaging were more likely to feel confident and had higher levels of political information efficacy than younger voters who did not engage with political media (Kaid et al. 2007).

H_2: Traditional age college students who identify with an internal locus of control will be more politically engaged than college students who identify with an external locus of control.

Rationale: Blanchard and Scarboro (1973) found, those who believe that they have internal control over the decisions they make are more likely to vote than those who believe that external factors control the decisions they make. Similarly, Kaid et al. (2007) found younger voters were more likely to believe that they had little control or say in government affairs.

H_3: Traditional age college students who perceive their parents to be politically engaged will be more politically engaged than students who do not perceive their parents to be politically engaged.

Rationale: Warren and Wicks (2011) found that the development of young adults' sense of political engagement was directly connected to their parents' political engagement. Lahitnen et al. (2019) found that both the mother and father have equal importance in influencing their children's political engagement.

CHAPTER 4 - DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Data and Methodology

The data for this research were students from Elizabethtown College which is a small, private, liberal arts institution located in central Pennsylvania. The data were obtained through the use of mixed methodology, using survey and semi-structured interview techniques yielding a total of 108 questionnaire respondents and 8 interviewees. The purpose of utilizing both methods was to increase the validity and reliability of the sample that the data was collected from. First, a questionnaire was distributed that consisted of closed and open-ended questions. The questionnaires were distributed to different Core Areas of Understanding, including 100, 200, 300, and 400 level classes. A probability sample was employed to systematically select courses from the Spring 2021 semester. Faculty of the selected courses were contacted through e-mail and if faculty were willing to participate, links to the questionnaire were distributed at the beginning or end of a class period, or by the faculty on their own. In addition, the link to the questionnaire was posted on the Jays app and on personal social media accounts. A final question on the questionnaire requested future participation in semi-structured interviews. Furthermore, convenience sampling and snowball sampling were used to gather 8 participants for 40 minute semi-structured zoom video call interviews.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable for this research was the political engagement of college students. In order to operationalize this variable, multiple questions from the questionnaire and interview were utilized. The following questions from the questionnaire (see Appendix B for full questionnaire and codebook), adapted from Bernstein (2005), Kaid et al. (2007), Snell (2010), Twenge et al. (2012), and Wray-Lake et al. (2019), were used to operationalize political engagement. The measure was split into four measures of political engagement including, general political engagement, political engagement and participation, political engagement on

social media, and political engagement and media platform use. The following questions were used to operationalize general political engagement.

On a scale of 1-5, 1 being none and 5 being a great deal, please indicate your level of interest in each of the following statements.

- In general, how much interest do you have in politics?
- In general, how much do you discuss politics with your family and friends?
- How much interest did you have in the 2020 presidential election?
- In general, how much did you follow political campaigns in the 2020 presidential election?
- How much did you research either political candidate in the 2020 presidential election?

On a scale of 1-5, 1 being never and 5 being very often, please indicate how often you spoke to to others about the campaigns and were exposed to media coverage of the campaigns.

- How often have you been exposed to media coverage of either presidential campaigns?
- How often have you talked with other people about either of the presidential campaigns?

A general political engagement index was created to collapse the responses from the following questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 7 indicating low engagement to 35 indicating high engagement. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .894, showing that the index was highly reliable for measuring general political engagement. The mean for the index was 24.36 with a standard deviation of 5.76.

Political engagement was operationalized using multiple questions from the questionnaire. The following questions were used to operationalize political engagement and participation.

Are you registered to vote?

- Yes
- No

Did you vote in the 2020 State primary election?

- Yes
- No

Did you vote in the 2020 National presidential election?

- Yes
- No

How did you vote?

- Mail-in Ballot
- In-person
- Did not know how to vote

Indicating either yes or no, in the past 12 months have you participated in any of the following activities?

- Discussed politics with family, friends, or others
- Watched a presidential debate
- Tried to persuade others to vote
- Registered others to vote
- Volunteered as a poll worker
- Gave money to a political candidate
- Contacted by a political campaign
- Volunteered for a political campaign
- Attended a political meeting
- Attended a political rally or campaign event
- Contacted a political official (e.g. a local representative, State Senator, or Governor)
- Participated in a lawful demonstration (e.g. public protest or march)
- Boycotted certain products or companies
- Signed a petition in support of a social or political issue

A political engagement and participation index was created to collapse the questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 1 indicating low engagement to 15 indicating high engagement. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .777, showing that the index was adequately reliable for measuring political engagement and participation. The mean for the index was 7.30 with a standard deviation of 2.94.

Political engagement was operationalized using multiple questions from the questionnaire. The following questions were used to operationalize social media political engagement.

On a scale of 1-5, 1 being never and 5 being very often, how often have you engaged in each of the following activities, in regards to the 2020 presidential election?

- Writing social media posts on political issues (e.g. composing an original tweet, writing an original Facebook post)
- Creating and posting online audio, video, animation, photos, or computer artwork to express political views
- Sharing political news, video clips, photos, or other's content on your social media account (e.g. re-tweeting a political news article, sharing a political video clip on an Instagram story)
- Participating in online political discussions (e.g. discussion boards, Twitter threads, Facebook comments)
- Exchanging opinions about politics via email, social networking platforms, or instant messenger

A social media political engagement index was created to collapse the questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 5 indicating low engagement to 22 indicating high engagement. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .893, showing that the index was highly reliable for measuring social media political engagement. The mean for the index was 8.68 with a standard deviation of 4.54.

Political engagement was operationalized using multiple questions from the questionnaire. The following questions were used to operationalize political engagement and media platform use.

On a scale of 1-5, 1 being never and 5 being very often, how often did you rely on these platforms for political content, in regards to the 2020 presidential election?

- YouTube
- Twitter
- Instagram
- Snapchat
- Facebook
- Tik-Tok
- Personal Blogs
- Online Forums and Discussion Boards
- Government Web Sites (e.g. Local, State, or National)
- Presidential Candidate's Websites
- Network Television News (e.g. ABC, MSNBC, NBC, Fox News, CNN)
- Network Television News Web Sites (e.g. bbc.com, foxnews.com)
- Print Media News (e.g. The New York Times, The Wall Street Journal)
- Print Media News Web sites (e.g. nytimes.com, wsj.com)
- News pages of internet service providers (e.g. Google News, Yahoo News)

A political engagement and media platform use index was created to collapse the questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 15 indicating low engagement to 56 indicating high engagement. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .815, showing that the index was highly reliable for measuring political engagement and media platform use. The mean for the index was 31.84 with a standard deviation of 9.09.

Independent Variables

The independent variables for this research were political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental socialization. The following questions from the questionnaire (see Appendix B for full questionnaire and codebook), adapted from Kaid et al. (2007), Kushin and Yamamoto (2010), and Tedesco (2007), were used to operationalize political information efficacy.

On a scale of 1-7, 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree, how much do you agree with the following statements?

- My vote makes a difference
- I can make a difference if I participate in the election process
- I have a real say in what the government does
- Whether I vote or not has no influence on what politicians do
- Voting gives people an effective way to influence what the government does
- Protesting gives people an effective way to influence what the government does
- One can be confident that politicians will always do the right thing
- One cannot always trust what politicians say
- Politicians often quickly forget their election promises after a political campaign is over
- Politicians are more interested in power than in what the people think

A general political efficacy index was created to collapse the questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 14 indicating low political efficacy to 61 indicating high political efficacy. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .778 showing that the index was adequately reliable for measuring general political efficacy. The mean for the index was 36.99 with a standard deviation of 8.66.

On a scale of 1-7, 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree, how much do you agree with the following statements?

- I consider myself well-qualified to participate in politics
- I think that I am better informed about politics and government than most people
- I feel that I have a pretty good understanding of the important political issues facing our country
- If a friend asked me about the presidential election, I feel I would have enough information to help my friend figure out who to vote for

A political information efficacy index was created to collapse the questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 4 indicating low political information efficacy to 28

indicating high political information efficacy. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .917, showing that the index was highly reliable for measuring political information efficacy. The mean for the index was 16.93 with a standard deviation of 6.43.

The second independent variable for this research was locus of control. The following questions from the questionnaire (see Appendix B for full questionnaire and codebook), adapted from Rotter (1966) and the National Longitudinal Surveys (1979), were used to operationalize locus of control.

For each question select the statement that you agree with the most

a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.

b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to- be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.

b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability. Luck has little or nothing to do with it.

a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.

b. There really is no such thing as "luck."

a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.

b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

a. What happens to me is my own doing.

b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

A locus of control index was created to collapse the questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 1 indicating high external locus of control to 8 indicating high internal locus of control. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .522, showing that the index was moderately reliable for measuring locus of control. The mean for the index was 4.50 with a standard deviation of 1.76.

Parental Socialization

The third independent variable for this research was parental socialization. The following questions from the questionnaire, adapted from Brady et al. (2015), were used to operationalize parental socialization.

What is your mother or father's highest level of education?

- Less than High School
- High School or GED
- Associates Degree (2 years of College)
- Bachelors Degree (4 years of College)
- Master's Degree or higher

When you turned 18, did your parents encourage you to register to vote?

- Yes
- No

On a scale of 1-5, 1 being never and 5 being very often, growing up how often did you notice your parents doing any of the following?

- Growing up, in general how often did your parents talk about politics in the house?
- Growing up, in general how often did your parents vote?

On a scale of 1-5, 1 being never and 5 being very often, growing up, how often do you remember your parents engaging in any of the following political activities?

- Watching a presidential debate
- Trying to persuade others to vote
- Registering others to vote
- Volunteering as a poll worker
- Giving money to a political candidate
- Being contacted by a political campaign
- Volunteering for a political campaign
- Attending a political meeting

- Attending a political rally or campaign event
- Contacting a political official (e.g. a local representative, State Senator, or Governor)
- Participating in a lawful demonstration (e.g. public protest or march)
- Boycotting certain products or companies
- Signing a petition about a social or political issue

A parental political engagement index was created to collapse the questions above, for some of the analyses. The index ranged from 15 indicating low engagement to 74 indicating high engagement. The index had a Cronbach's Alpha of .914, showing that the index was highly reliable for measuring parental political engagement. The mean for the index was 30.04 with a standard deviation of 10.64.

Control Variables

The first control variable for this research was sex. The following question from the questionnaire was used to operationalize sex.

What gender do you identify as?

- Female
- Male
- Non-binary

The second control variable for this research was partisanship or political ideology. The following question from the questionnaire, adapted from Snell (2010), was used to operationalize political ideology.

When it comes to politics, do you usually think of yourself as

(1) Very Liberal
(2) Liberal
(3) Somewhat Liberal
(4) Neither Liberal or Conservative
(5) Somewhat Conservative
(6) Conservative
(7) Very Conservative

CHAPTER 5 – QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

The final sample size for the survey was 108 individuals. Tables 1.1 and 1.2 illustrate the descriptive statistics of the dependent variable political engagement of college students, specifically the measure of general political engagement. The majority of respondents (76.9 percent) were interested in politics, 73.2 percent discussed politics with others, and 92.6 percent were interested in the 2020 presidential election. Additionally, 77.8 percent of respondents were interested in the political campaigns during the 2020 election and 71.3 percent of respondents researched political candidates during 2020. Interestingly, 74.2 percent of respondents felt informed about either presidential candidate, 75.9 percent were often exposed to media coverage of either candidate, and 55.6 percent talked with others about either candidate.

[Insert Tables 1.1 and 1.2 here]

Tables 1.3 and 1.4 present the descriptive statistics for the dependent variable political engagement of college students, specifically the measure of political engagement and participation in the past 12 months. The majority of respondents (95.4 percent) indicated they were registered to vote. While respondents participated by voting in their state primary elections (58.3 percent), a majority of respondents (85.2 percent) voted in the 2020 national presidential election. Consistent with research from the Tufts University Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (2020), more individuals between the ages of 18-29 were registered voters and voted in the 2020 election than past elections. Overall, about 53-55 percent of young adults between the ages of 18-29 voted in the 2020 presidential election which is inconsistent with the study body of which 85.2 percent voted (Tufts University CIRCLE 2021). This inconsistency could be due to the age range because the students at Elizabethtown ranged

from 18-22 years old and the sample from Tufts University was 18-29 years old. Interestingly, the majority of respondents (62.0 percent) voted by mail while 25.9 percent voted in-person.

The majority of respondents (99.1 percent) discussed politics with family or friends, 86.1 percent watched a presidential debate, and 62.0 percent tried to persuade others to vote. Interestingly, data from Tufts University CIRCLE (2020) suggested that about 50 percent of young adults were trying to convince other young adults to vote, which is inconsistent with the findings from Table 1.3. Few respondents (17.6 percent) helped others to register to vote, 1.9 percent volunteered as a poll worker, and 11.1 percent gave money to a political campaign. Compared to the findings from Tufts University CIRCLE (2020), about 25 percent of young adults were registering others to vote and 29 percent were donating money to political campaigns. This is slightly inconsistent with the findings from Table 1.3 which show a lower percentage of students participating in these political activities.

Additionally, 61.1 percent of respondents had been contacted by a political campaign, but only 4.6 percent of respondents volunteered for a political campaign. Once again, Tufts University CIRCLE (2020) found that 18 percent of young adults volunteered for political campaigns and about 53 percent were not contacted by a political campaign, showing inconsistencies with findings from Table 1.3. Few respondents, (12.0 percent) attended a political meeting, 18.7 percent contacted a political official, and 20.6 percent participated in a lawful demonstration like a protest or rally. Inconsistent with findings from Tufts University CIRCLE (2020), about 27 percent of young adults attended marches or public demonstrations contrast to 20.6 percent of Elizabethtown College students. Lastly, 34.6 percent of respondents boycotted products or companies in the last year and 52.3 percent signed a petition about a political issue.

[Insert Tables 1.3 and 1.4 here]

Table 1.5 displays the descriptive statistics of the dependent variable political engagement of college students, specifically the measure of social media and political engagement. Most respondents, (65.4 percent) had never composed an original political social media post and 74.8 percent had never created an original video, photo or audio post about politics. Additionally, 54.2 percent of respondents had never shared political content on their personal social media accounts, 65.4 percent never participated in online political discussions, and 51.4 percent never exchanged political opinions online.

[Insert Table 1.5 here]

Tables 1.6-1.8 detail the descriptive statistics of the dependent variable political engagement of college students, specifically the measure of political engagement and media platform use. Overall, respondents relied on Instagram the most (47.2 percent) then Twitter (43.9 percent), YouTube (42.6 percent), Facebook (26.9 percent), Tik-Tok (21.3 percent), and Snapchat (15.8 percent) for consuming political content on social media platforms. Additionally, respondents relied on network television news (75.0 percent), network television web sites (50.9 percent), government websites (50.0 percent), print news media websites (44.4 percent), presidential candidate websites (42.1 percent), news pages of internet service providers (34.6 percent), print news media (32.7 percent), online forums and discussion boards (13.9 percent), and personal blogs (7.5 percent) for consuming political content.

[Insert Tables 1.6, 1.7, and 1.8 here]

Tables 1.9-1.11 exhibit the descriptive statistics of the independent variable political information efficacy. Majority of respondents (71.4 percent) believed that their vote makes a difference, 69.2 percent believed that they can make a difference in the election process, and

28.1 percent believed they have a real say in government. Interestingly, 36.4 percent of respondents believed that whether they vote or not, they have no influence on government. Additionally, respondents (53.2 percent) agreed that voting influences the government and 56.1 percent agreed that protesting influences the government. The majority of respondents (86.0) disagreed that politicians always do the right thing and 76.7 percent agreed that politicians cannot always be trusted. Interestingly, 72 percent of respondents agreed that politicians tend to forget campaign promises after they are elected and 67.3 percent agreed that politicians are interested in power. Overall, 36.4 percent of respondents felt that they were well-qualified to participate in politics and 35.6 percent agreed that they are better informed about politics than most others. Lastly, the majority of respondents (64.5 percent) felt that they understood important politics issues and 54.2 percent felt confident in helping friends decide which candidate to vote for.

[Insert Tables 1.9, 1.10, and 1.11 here]

Table 1.12 presents the descriptive statistics of the independent variable locus of control. The majority of respondents (54.6 percent) agreed with the statement, “people’s misfortunes result from the mistakes they make,” exhibiting an internal locus of control. The majority of respondents (62.0 percent) agreed with the statement, “I have often found that what is going to happen will happen,” showing an external locus of control. The majority of respondents (77.6 percent) agreed with the statement, “when I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make then work,” demonstrating an internal locus of control. The majority of respondents (81.3 percent) agreed with the statement, “in my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck,” showing an internal locus of control. The majority of respondents (71.0 percent) agreed with the statement, “getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability and luck has little or nothing

to do with it," exhibiting an internal locus of control. The majority of respondents (78.5 percent) agreed with the statement, "most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings," displaying an external locus of control. The majority of respondents (59.4 percent) agreed with the statement, "many times I feel that I gave little influence over the things that happen to me," exhibiting an external locus of control. Lastly, the majority of respondents (66.4 percent) agreed with the statement, "what happens to me is my own doing," showing an internal locus of control.

[Insert Table 1.12 here]

Tables 1.13 and 1.14 illustrate the descriptive statistics of the independent variable parental political engagement and socialization. The majority of respondents (70.1 percent) selected that their parents' highest level of education was a Bachelor's degree or higher. Most respondents (59.8 percent) had discussed politics with their parents, 90.6 percent believed that their parents had voted, and 81.3 percent had been encouraged by their parents to register to vote when they turned 18. Overall, the majority of respondents (67.3 percent) recalled their parents watching presidential debates, while 35.5 percent recalled their parents registering others to vote. Additionally, few respondents (8.4 percent) recalled their parents volunteering as a poll worker, 15.8 percent recalled their parents donating money to a political candidate, and most respondents (52.3 percent) recalled their parents being contacted by a political campaign. Few respondents (9.3 percent) recalled their parents volunteering for a political campaign, 13.1 percent recalled their parents attending a political meeting, and 10.3 percent recalled their parents attending a rally or campaign event. Similarly, few respondents (14.9 percent) recalled their parents contacting a political official, 9.4 percent recalled their parents participating in a lawful

demonstration, 21.7 percent recalled their parents boycotting products or companies, and 20 percent recalled their parents signing a petition.

[Insert Tables 1.13, and 1.14 here]

Table 1.15 presents the descriptive statistics of both control variables gender identity and political ideology. Majority of respondents (65.7 percent) identified as female, 31.5 percent as male, and 2.8 percent as non-binary. Overall, 47.2 percent of respondents identified as liberal, 22.2 percent as neither liberal or conservative, and 30.6 percent as conservative.

[Insert Table 1.15 here]

Table 2.1 shows the bivariate correlations between the political engagement of college students, general political efficacy, political information efficacy, gender identity, and political ideology. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between general political efficacy and and general political engagement (r=.360; p=.000). This indicates that those who are generally more confident in their ability to participate in politics are more likely to be politically engaged. There was a weak, positive, statistically significant relationship between general political efficacy and political engagement and participation (r=.296; p=.000). This shows that those who are generally more confident in their ability to participate in politics are more likely to be engaged with political activities like watching a presidential debate. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between general political efficacy and social media political engagement (r=.329; p<.01). This reveals that those who were generally more confident in their ability to participate in politics were more likely to be politically vocal on social media platforms. There was a weak, positive, statistically significant relationship between general political efficacy and political engagement and media platform use (r=.299; p<.01). This shows that those who were generally more confident about their ability to participate in politics

were more likely to utilize social media platforms and other media forms like network television to consume political content. Lastly, there was a moderate, positive relationship between general political efficacy and how informed a respondent felt about a political candidate (r=.342; p=.000). This illustrates that those who were generally more confident about their ability to participate in politics were more likely to be well informed about either political candidate. These findings support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who feel more confident about the political content they consume will be more politically engaged than college students who feel less confident about the political content they consume.

A strong, positive, statistically significant relationship between political information efficacy and general political engagement suggests that those who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to be politically engaged (r=.767; p=.000). There was a strong, positive, statistically significant relationship between political information efficacy and political engagement and participation (r=.669; p<.01). This indicates that those who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to participate in political activities like voting. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between political information efficacy and social media political engagement (r=.469; p=.000). This shows that those who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to be politically vocal on social media platforms. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between political information efficacy and political engagement and media platform use (r=.424; p=.000). This suggests that those who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to utilize social media platforms and other media forms like government websites to consume political content. There was a strong, positive, statistically significant relationship between political information efficacy and how informed a respondent

felt about a political candidate (r=.768; p=.000). This reveals that those who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to be informed about either political candidate. These findings support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who feel more confident about the political content they consume will be more politically engaged than college students who feel less confident about the political content they consume.

[Insert Table 2.1 here]

Table 2.2 shows the bivariate correlations between political engagement, locus of control, gender identity, and political ideology. Interestingly, there was no relationship between locus of control and any of the political engagement variables including, general political efficacy, political engagement and participation, social media political engagement, media platform use, and how informed a respondent felt about either candidate. This does not support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who identify with an internal locus of control will be more politically engaged than college students who identify with an external locus of control.

[Insert Table 2.2 here]

Table 2.3 illustrates the bivariate correlations between political engagement, parental socialization, gender identity, and political ideology. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between parental political engagement and general political engagement of the respondents (r=.388; p=.000). This suggests that those who recalled their parents being more politically engaged were more politically engaged themselves. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between parental political engagement and the respondents' political engagement and participation (r=.377; p=.000). This shows that those who recalled their parents being more politically engaged were more likely to participate in political activities like contacting a political official. There was a moderate, positive, statistically

significant relationship between parental political engagement and respondents' social media political engagement (r=.356; p=.000). This reveals that those who recalled their parents being more politically engaged were more likely to be politically vocal on social media platforms. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between parental political engagement and media platform use (r=.357; p=.000). This illustrates that those who recalled their parents being more politically engaged were more likely to utilize social media platforms and other media forms like government websites to consume political content. There was a moderate, positive, statistically significant relationship between parental political engagement and how informed a respondent felt about a political candidate (r=.326; p<.01). This indicates that those who recalled their parents being politically engaged were more likely to be informed about either political candidate. This finding supports the hypothesis that traditional age college students who perceive their parents to be politically engaged will be more politically engaged than students who do not perceive their parents to be politically engaged.

[Insert Table 2.3 here]

Table 3.1 shows the bivariate relationship between the political engagement of college students and general political efficacy. There was a statistically significant and substantive difference found between general political efficacy and general political engagement. There was a 47 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the general political efficacy index that were highly politically engaged (p=.000). These results are consistent with previous research (Austin et al. 2008; Kaid et al. 2007; Moffett and Rice 2018; Muralidharan and Sung 2018; Tedesco 2007), and support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who feel more confident about the political content they consume will be more politically engaged than college students who feel less confident about the political content they consume.

There are no other significant differences between individuals who scored high and low on the general political efficacy index that were highly politically engaged, but there are some substantive differences. For instance, there was a 12.2 percent difference between between individuals who scored high and low on the general political efficacy index that were highly politically engaged and participated in political activities. There was also a 9.5 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the general political efficacy index that were highly politically engaged on social media platforms. Additionally, there was a 9 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the general political efficacy index that were highly engaged and consuming political media. Lastly, there was a 40.7 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the general political efficacy index that were highly informed about either political candidate. These results do not support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who feel more confident about the political content they consume will be more politically engaged than college students who feel less confident about the political content they consume, because they are not statistically significant. However, the results are substantively interesting because it displays that there are differences between students who were highly politically engaged and who ranked either high or low on the general political efficacy scale.

[Insert Table 3.1 here]

Table 3.2 presents the bivariate relationship between the political engagement of college students and political information efficacy. There were multiple statistically significant and substantive differences found between political information efficacy and political engagement. There was a 77 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the political information efficacy index that were highly politically engaged (p=.000). For example, there was

a 57.6 percent difference between between individuals who scored high and low on the political information efficacy index that were highly politically engaged and participated in political activities (p=.000). There was also a 24.2 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the political information efficacy index that were highly politically engaged on social media platforms (p=.001). Additionally, there was a 18.8 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the political information efficacy index that were highly engaged and consuming political media (p=.034). Lastly, there was a 69.6 percent difference between individuals who scored high and low on the political information efficacy index that were highly informed about either political candidate (p=000). These results are consistent with previous research (Austin et al. 2008; Kaid et al. 2007; Moffett and Rice 2018; Muralidharan and Sung 2018; Tedesco 2007), and support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who feel more confident about the political content they consume will be more politically engaged than college students who feel less confident about the political content they consume.

[Insert Table 3.2 here]

Table 3.3 illustrates the bivariate relationship between the political engagement of college students and locus of control. There were no statistically significant differences found between locus of control and any of the political engagement variables, but there were a few substantive differences. There was a 18.3 percent difference between individuals who scored as externals and internals that were highly politically engaged. Additionally, there was a 17.7 difference between individuals who scored as externals and internals that were highly politically engaged and participated in political activities. There was also a 7.2 percent difference between individuals who scored as externals and internals that were highly politically engaged on social media platforms. Additionally, there was no substantive difference between individuals locus of

control and the political engagement and media platform use index. Lastly, there was a 6 percent difference between individuals who scored as externals and internals that were highly informed about either political candidate. These results are inconsistent with previous research (Blanchard and Scarboro 1973; Kaid et al. 2007; Twenge et al. 2004), and do not support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who identify with an internal locus of control will be more politically engaged than college students who identify with an external locus of control.

[Insert Table 3.3 here]

Table 3.4 shows the bivariate relationship between the political engagement of college students and parental political engagement. There were three statistically significant and substantive differences found between parental political engagement and political engagement. Of the students who identified themselves as highly politically engaged, there was a 51.1 percent difference between individuals who ranked their parents as either high or low on the parental political engagement index (p=.026). In addition, of those students who identified themselves as highly politically engaged and who participated in political activities, there was a 81.8 percent difference between individuals who ranked their parents as either high or low on the parental political engagement index (p=.000). There was also a 53.5 difference between individuals who ranked their parents as either high or low on the parental political engagement index that were highly politically engaged on social media platforms. These results are consistent with previous research (Brady et al. 2015; Lahtinen et al. 2019; Neundorf et al. 2016; Voorpostel and Coffee 2015; Warren and Wicks 2011), and support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who perceive their parents to be politically engaged will be more politically engaged than students who do not perceive their parents to be politically engaged.

There are no other significant differences between individuals who ranked their parents as either high and low on the parental political engagement index that were highly politically engaged, but there was one substantive difference. For example, there was a 33.4 substantive difference between individuals who ranked their parents as either high or low on the parental political engagement index who were highly engaged and consuming political media. Lastly, there was no statistically significant or substantive difference between individuals who ranked their parents as either high or low on the parental political engagement index who were highly informed about either political candidate. These results do not support the hypothesis that traditional age college students who perceive their parents to be politically engaged will be more politically engaged than students who do not perceive their parents to be politically engaged because they are not statistically significant.

[Insert Table 3.4 here]

Table 4.1 shows the linear regression results of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, parental political engagement, gender identity, and political ideology on the general political engagement of college students. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, it appears from Model 1 (R^2=.136) that general political efficacy was predictive of general political engagement of college students explaining 13.6 percent of the variance. The coefficient for general political efficacy was moderate and statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 2 (R^2=.399) shows that political information efficacy was a better predictor of general political engagement of college students than general political efficacy explaining 39.9 percent of the variance. Additionally, the coefficient for political information efficacy was moderate and statistically significant. As shown in Model 3 (R^2=.021) locus of control was a worse predictor of general

political engagement than political information efficacy and general political efficacy, with 2.1 percent of the variance in general political engagement being explained by locus of control. This was consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, locus of control is not statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 4 (R^2=.100), shows that parental political engagement was predictive of general political engagement of college students explaining 10 percent of the variance. Parental political engagement was a worse predictor of the general political engagement of college students than general political efficacy and political information efficacy, but a better predictor than locus of control. The coefficient for parental political engagement was small and statistically significant.

Consistent with Models 1 and 2, general political efficacy and political information efficacy were still both statistically significant predictors of general political engagement in Model 5. Interestingly, inconsistent with Model 3, locus of control became a statistically significant predictor of general political engagement in Model 5. Inconsistent with Model 4 parental political engagement was not a statistically significant predictor of general political engagement in Model 5. Adding the control variables of gender identity and political ideology did not change the effect of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental political engagement from Model 5, with Model 6 (R^2=.490) being a better predictor of general political engagement than Model 5 (R^2=.488). Overall, the full model, (Model 6) was the best predictor of general political engagement, explaining 49 percent of the variance in general political engagement.

[Insert Table 4.1 here]

Table 4.2 shows the linear regression results of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, parental political engagement, gender identity, and

political ideology on the political engagement and participation of college students. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, it appears from Model 1 (R^2=.042) that general political efficacy was predictive of political engagement and participation of college students explaining 4.2 percent of the variance. The coefficient for general political efficacy was small and statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 2 (R^2=.316) shows that political information efficacy was a better predictor of political engagement and participation of college students than general political efficacy, explaining 31.6 percent of the variance. Additionally, the coefficient for political information efficacy was moderate and statistically significant. As shown in Model 3 (R^2=.030) locus of control was a worse predictor of political engagement and participation than political information efficacy and general political efficacy, with 3.0 percent of the variance in political engagement and participation being explained by locus of control. This was consistent with Tables 2 and 3, since locus of control was not statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 4 (R^2=.136), shows that parental political engagement was predictive of general political engagement of college students explaining 13.6 percent of the variance. Parental political engagement was a better predictor of political engagement and participation than general political efficacy and locus of control, but a worse predictor than political information efficacy. The coefficient for parental political engagement was moderate and not statistically significant.

Inconsistent with Model 1, general political efficacy was not a statistically significant predictor of political engagement and participation in Model 5. Consistent with Model 2, political information efficacy was still a statistically significant predictor of political engagement and participation in Model 5. Interestingly, inconsistent with Model 3, locus of control became a

statistically significant predictor of political engagement and participation in Model 5. Additionally, parental political engagement became a statistically significant predictor of political engagement and participation in Model 5, which was consistent with Model 4. Adding the control variables of gender identity and political ideology to Model 6 did not change the effects of general political efficacy and political information efficacy, but did change the effects of locus of control and parental political engagement from Model 5. Overall, Model 6 (R^2=.420) was a better predictor than Model 5 (R^2=.408) of political engagement and participation, accounting for 42 percent of the variance.

[Insert Table 4.2 here]

Table 4.3 shows the linear regression results of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, parental political engagement, gender identity, and political ideology on the political engagement of college students on social media. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, it appears from Model 1 (R^2=.037) that general political efficacy was predictive of political engagement of college students on social media explaining 3.7 percent of the variance. The coefficient for general political efficacy was small and statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 2 (R^2=.150) shows that political information efficacy was a better predictor of political engagement of college students on social media than general political efficacy, explaining 15 percent of the variance. Additionally, the coefficient for political information efficacy was small and statistically significant. As shown in Model 3 (R^2=.015) locus of control was a worse predictor of political engagement on social media than both general political efficacy and political information efficacy, with 1.5 percent of the variance in political engagement on social media being explained by locus of control. This was consistent with Tables 2 and 3, since locus

of control was not statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 4 (R^2=.065), shows that parental political engagement was predictive of political engagement on social media, explaining 6.5 percent of the variance. Parental political engagement was a better predictor of political engagement on social media than general political efficacy and locus of control, but a worse predictor than political information efficacy. The coefficient for parental political engagement was small and statistically significant.

Inconsistent with Model 1, general political efficacy was not a statistically significant predictor of political engagement on social media in Model 5. Consistent with Model 2, political information efficacy was still a statistically significant predictor of political engagement on social media in Model 5. Consistent with Model 3, locus of control was not a statistically significant predictor of political engagement on social media in Model 5. Lastly, parental political engagement was not a statistically significant predictor of political engagement on social media in Model 5, which was inconsistent with Model 4. Adding the control variables of gender identity and political ideology to Model 6 did not change the effects of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, and locus of control, but did change the effect of parental political engagement from Model 5. Overall, Model 6 (R^2=.278) was a better predictor than Model 5 (R^2=.204) of political engagement of college students on social media, accounting for 27.8 percent of the variance.

[Insert Table 4.3 here]

Table 4.4 shows the linear regression results of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, parental political engagement, gender identity, and political ideology on the political media consumption and engagement of college students. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, it appears from Model 1 (R^2=.100) that

general political efficacy was predictive of the political media consumption and engagement of college students, explaining 10 percent of the variance. The coefficient for general political efficacy was small and statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 2 (R^2=.067) shows that political information efficacy was a worse predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students than general political efficacy, explaining 6.7 percent of the variance. Additionally, the coefficient for political information efficacy was small and statistically significant. As shown in Model 3 (R^2=.009) locus of control was a worse predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students than both general political efficacy and political information efficacy, with 0.9 percent of the variance in political media consumption and engagement of college students being explained by locus of control. This was consistent with Tables 2 and 3, since locus of control was not statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 4 (R^2=.063), shows that parental political engagement was predictive of political media consumption and engagement of college students, explaining 6.3 percent of the variance. Parental political engagement was a worse predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students than general political efficacy and political information efficacy, but a better predictor than locus of control. The coefficient for parental political engagement was small and statistically significant.

Consistent with Model 1, general political efficacy was a statistically significant predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students in Model 5. Inconsistent with Model 2, political information efficacy was not a statistically significant predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students in Model 5. Consistent with Model 3, locus of control was not a statistically significant predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students in Model 5. Lastly, parental political engagement was not a

statistically significant predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students in Model 5, which was inconsistent with Model 4. Adding the control variables of gender identity and political ideology to Model 6 did not change the effects of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental political engagement from Model 5, with Model 6 (R^2=.193) being a better predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students than Model 5 (R^2=.182). Overall, the full model, (Model 6) was the best predictor of political media consumption and engagement of college students, accounting for 19.3 percent of the variance.

[Insert Table 4.4 here]

Table 4.5 shows the linear regression results of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, parental political engagement, gender identity, and political ideology on how informed college students were about either candidate. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, it appears from Model 1 (R^2=.069) that general political efficacy was predictive of how informed college students were about either candidate, explaining 6.9 percent of the variance. The coefficient for general political efficacy was small and statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 2 (R^2=.314) shows that political information efficacy was a better predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate than general political efficacy, explaining 31.4 percent of the variance. Additionally, the coefficient for political information efficacy was moderate and statistically significant. As shown in Model 3 (R^2=.018) locus of control was a worse predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate than both general political efficacy and political information efficacy, with 1.8 percent of the variance in how informed college students were about either candidate being explained by locus of control. This was consistent

with Tables 2 and 3, locus of control was not statistically significant. Consistent with bivariate results from Tables 2 and 3, Model 4 (R^2=.045), shows that parental political engagement was predictive of how informed college students were about either candidate, explaining 4.5 percent of the variance. Parental political engagement was a worse predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate than general political efficacy and political information efficacy, but a better predictor than locus of control. The coefficient for parental political engagement was small and statistically significant.

Inconsistent with Model 1, general political efficacy was not a statistically significant predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate in Model 5. Consistent with Model 2, political information efficacy was still a statistically significant predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate in Model 5. Consistent with Model 3, locus of control was not a statistically significant predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate in Model 5. Interestingly, parental political engagement was not a statistically significant predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate in Model 5, which was inconsistent with Model 4. Adding the control variables of gender identity and political ideology to Model 6 did not change the effects of general political efficacy, political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental political engagement from Model 5, with Model 6 (R^2=.356) being an equal predictor of how informed college students were about either candidate with Model 5 (R^2=.356). Overall, both models, (Model 5 and 6) were the best predictors of how informed college students were about either candidate, explaining 35.6 percent of the variance.

[Insert Table 4.5 here]

CHAPTER 6 – QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

On March 15 and continuing throughout April, 8 in-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted for about 30 to 40 minutes. The semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix C for interview questions) included questions about political engagement, political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental socialization. The four main themes from findings of the interviews were (1) political engagement includes both outward and inward acts, (2) being politically informed is essential, (3) many voices create change, and (4) parents are influential.

The first major finding of the interviews was that students defined political engagement as interacting outwardly with politics and inwardly. When asked how to define political engagement, the participants focused on how they were political engaged in the last election. For instance, many spoke about having conversations about the election with friends and family, watching a presidential debate, and voting. Interestingly, most students did not discuss volunteering for campaigns or donating money to campaigns when asked about their own engagement with the 2020 presidential election. Yet, one student stressed that "knowing who you are voting for and why" is a prominent element of political engagement. This was emphasized by almost all of the students interviewed. Even though they had only been asked about their own political engagement and not asked about researching candidates, they associated being well-researched as political engagement. Broadly, one participant felt that "generally showing that you care about politics in some was is engagement." This is interesting to note, because some students felt that you did not have to be completely immersed in an election to be engaged, but having a conversation with a friend was enough to show that one was politically engaged. This finding illustrates that traditional college age students define political

engagement in broad terms and include both indirect and direct acts that effect the political system as engagement. Additionally, most participants agreed that they were more engaged with politics than they have been in the past, due to the fact that most of them had the opportunity to vote in a presidential election for the first time. This was also due to students feeling that this election was "high stakes" and could directly impact their future.

The second major finding from the interviews was that being politically informed is essential when voting. When asked how confident the students felt about finding and consuming political information, most felt reasonably confident in their ability to understand political issues most important to them and the views of each candidate on these specific issues. Interestingly, almost all of the participants stressed that finding information from unbiased news sources and seeking information that represented multiple political perspectives was instrumental before they voted. This finding is particularly prominent, as most students had a level of awareness of their own bias and were motivated to seek out multiple political perspectives before making a decision to vote. One participant felt that "If you're going to vote for a president you should at least know what the candidates believe and how it will affect you and your community." Other participants echoed this belief with another individual saying that "knowing who and what you are voting for is so important." Once again, almost all of the students felt that one should do research to understand who they are voting for and what that particular candidate believes in. This emphasizes how students intertwine political efficacy and political engagement, showing that to be engaged one should be informed. Although the students agreed that being politically informed is important when engaging with politics, some felt that it is almost impossible to keep up with all of the news stories and to understand every policy issue or view a candidate holds. One participant felt that "you can be as educated as you want, but at the end of the day you're not an

insider, so you can't really know everything." Interestingly, this quote exhibits a level of realism among students and exemplifies how college students are aware that they will not know everything about policy or a candidates views before voting, but it is still valuable to learn as much as one can.

The third major finding from the interviews was that most participants valued their one vote, but believed that many votes are needed to create large scale change. One participant thought that "multiple people who believe the same thing and band together can make a difference when one voice alone cannot." This attitude was prominent as others felt that it was important that they exercise their right to vote, yet they understood the power in numbers. Additionally, some students claimed that one's geography had a large impact on the value of one's vote and felt that their vote was not as powerful as someone's in a swing state. Furthermore, some participants felt less hopeful that their vote mattered because of their skepticism of the government and their belief of corrupt government officials. One individual felt that "at some level there will be corruption in the government and although we live in a democracy and have the privilege to vote, hidden corruption cannot be changed by voting." This quote reinforces the findings from Kaid et al. (2007) which claims that younger voters were more likely than older voters to believe that politicians did not care about their opinions and that they had little control over government affairs. Yet, others students felt that small change like convincing a friend to vote or having difficult political discussion with family were useful ways to use one's voice to create change. Most participants felt that exercising their right to vote was important even if it only made a small impact. For instance, one individual said "I will always vote and encourage others to vote and then hope a ripple effect takes place and can make a difference even if my single vote did not."

The last major finding from the interviews was that parents have the ability to influence how their children view and engage politics. Multiple participants believed that they learned how to value politics by how their parents valued politics. One participant said that “I learned from both of my parents that you cannot control it [politics] as much as you think, but you should voice your opinion knowing that it might not make a difference but at the same time it could.” This once again indicates college students slight skepticism with participating in politics, but that they still value voting. Interestingly, if one parent was less engaged than another parent, most students felt more influenced by their parent who was more engaged with politics than the parent who was less engaged with politics. Other students felt that the way their parents spoke, or did not speak about politics influenced how eager they were to vote or become engaged when they were 18. While some students were never encouraged by their parents to vote when they turned 18, most said their parents encouraged them to vote in the 2020 presidential election. Once again, this unusually polarized election coupled with the COVID-19 pandemic impacted how students and their parents valued political engagement. While some students were not heavily impacted by their parents, one participant recalled the first time they voted in a presidential in 2016, with her and her mother celebrating by taking pictures after voting. This student felt that both of their parents “tried really hard to encourage my siblings and I to vote and participate in the political process growing up.” This was interesting because this student was highly politically engaged with the 2020 presidential election as well. Interestingly, Most students said they felt more politically engaged than their parents during the 2020 presidential election and spent time having conversations with their parents about politics more than they had in the past.

CHAPTER 7 - SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This research examined the effects of political information efficacy, locus of control, and

parental socialization on the political engagement of college students. The first hypothesis stated that traditional age college students who feel more confident about the political content they consume will be more politically engaged than college students who feel less confident about the political content they consume. This hypothesis was supported by both the quantitative and qualitative findings. Previous research has found that college students who spent more time online reading political posts were more likely to express their own political beliefs than those who spent less time online consuming political content (Moffett and Rice 2018). Additionally, Kaid et al. (2007) found younger voters who watched presidential debates and engaged with campaign messaging were more likely to feel confident and had higher levels of political information efficacy than younger voters who did not engage with political media (Kaid et al. 2007). The second hypothesis stated that traditional age college students who identify with an internal locus of control will be more politically engaged than college students who identify with an external locus of control. This hypothesis was not supported by the quantitative and qualitative findings, which showed that locus of control had no statistically significant effect on the political engagement of college students. Research from Blanchard and Scarboro (1973) found, those who believe that they have internal control over the decisions they make are more likely to vote than those who believe that external factors control the decisions they make. Similarly, Kaid et al. (2007) found younger voters were more likely to believe that they had little control or say in government affairs. The third and final hypothesis stated that traditional age college students who perceive their parents to be politically engaged will be more politically engaged than students who do not perceive their parents to be politically engaged. This hypothesis was supported by both the quantitative and qualitative findings. Additionally, previous research found that the development of young adults' sense of political engagement was

directly connected to their parents' political engagement. Lahitnen et al. (2019) found that both the mother and father have equal importance in influencing their children's political engagement.

Overall, results from the survey research suggested that there were significant relationships between political engagement and political information efficacy. Those who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to be politically engaged. Individuals who felt more confident with their political knowledge were more likely to participate in political activities like voting and watching a presidential debate. Interestingly, there was a was no relationship between locus of control and political engagement. There were significant relationships between political engagement and parental socialization. Those who recalled their parents being more politically engaged were more politically engaged themselves. Additionally, those who recalled their parents being more politically engaged were more likely to participate in political activities like voting and signing a petition.

Interestingly, when using multivariate analysis and including control variables in the full models some independent variables would often lose significance. This is important to note because this indicates that the control variables, gender identity and political ideology can have a significant influence on political engagement.

Qualitative data were also obtained from semi-structed in-depth interviews. The prevailing trends from the interviews were (1) political engagement includes both outward and inward acts, (2) being politically informed is essential, (3) many voices create change, and (4) parents are influential. Overall, students' relationship with politics was connected with their confidence in understanding political content and their parents' relationship with politics. It is also important to note that the 2020 election brought about the highest rates of voter turnout among the college age group, was particularly polarizing, and took place during the COVID-19

pandemic. Most participants felt more engaged with the 2020 presidential election than previous elections, and were more motivated to participate and understand political content they were consuming. Students felt strongly about being aware of their own bias and seeking information that represented multiple perspectives and that having conversations with friends and family helped them develop confidence.

There were strengths as well as limitations associated with this research. Strengths included the multiple independent variables used including political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental socialization. Previous research has focused heavily on partisanship, political information efficacy, and parental socialization, but has not combined these variables under one study. Additionally, this research was gathered after the 2020 presidential election, during a pandemic, and was the first opportunity for many traditional age college students to vote. The most apparent limitation was that the sample size was low with only 108 respondents and limited to the Elizabethtown student body, thus not being representative of a larger and more diverse population.

This research added to the literature on the political engagement of college students analyzing the engagement of students during the 2020 presidential election and included the variables political information efficacy, locus of control, and parental socialization. The results of this study may be useful to those studying political engagement of young adults, colleges in the United States, and future political candidates attempting to engage college students. It is important to continue to monitor and research this generational cohort, Generation Z, as they continue to participate in future elections because of the high voter turnout in 2020.

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APPENDIX A: Tables

Table 1.1
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: General Political Engagement

Variable	N	Percent
How Much Interest in Politics		
None	6	5.6
Very Little	19	17.6
Some	46	42.6
Quite a Bit	26	24.1
A Great Deal	11	10.2
How Much Discussion of Politics		
None	5	4.6
Very Little	24	22.2
Some	37	34.3
Quite a Bit	32	29.6
A Great Deal	10	9.3
How Much Interest in the 2020 Election		
None	3	2.8
Very Little	5	4.6
Some	31	28.7
Quite a Bit	29	26.9
A Great Deal	40	37.0
How Much Interest in Political Campaigns		
None	4	3.7
Very Little	20	18.5
Some	31	28.7
Quite a Bit	38	35.2
A Great Deal	15	13.9
How Much Research of Political Candidates		
None	12	11.1
Very Little	19	17.6
Some	28	25.9
Quite a Bit	35	32.4
A Great Deal	14	13.0

Table 1.2
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: General Political Engagement

Variable	N	Percent
Exposed to Media Coverage of Presidential Candidates		
Never	1	0.9
Rarely	6	5.6
Somewhat	19	17.6
Often	44	40.7
Very Often	38	35.2
Talked with Others About Either Presidential Candidates		
Never	3	2.8
Rarely	14	13.2
Somewhat	30	28.3
Often	35	33.0
Very Often	24	22.6
How Informed About Either Presidential Candidate		
Very Uninformed	4	3.7
Uninformed	4	3.7
Somewhat Uninformed	7	6.5
Neutral	13	12.0
Somewhat Informed	33	30.6
Informed	29	26.9
Very Informed	18	16.7

Table 1.3
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: Political Engagement and Participation

Variable	N	Percent
Are You Registered to Vote		
Yes	103	95.4
No	5	4.6
Did You Vote in the 2020 State Primary Election		
Yes	63	58.3
No	45	41.7
Did You Vote in the 2020 National Presidential Election		
Yes	92	85.2
No	16	14.8
How Did You Vote		
Did Not Know How to Vote	11	10.2
In-Person	28	25.9
Mail-in Ballot	67	62.0

Table 1.4
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: Political Engagement and Participation

Variable	N	Percent
Discussed Politics with Family or Friends		
Yes	107	99.1
No	1	0.9
Watched a Presidential Debate		
Yes	93	86.1
No	15	13.9
Tried to Persuade Others to Vote		
Yes	67	62.0
No	41	38.0
Registered Others to Vote		
Yes	19	17.6
No	89	82.4
Volunteered as a Poll Worker		
Yes	2	1.9
No	106	98.1
Gave Money to a Political Candidate		
Yes	12	11.1
No	96	88.9
Been Contacted by a Political Campaign		
Yes	66	61.1
No	42	38.9
Volunteered for a Political Campaign		
Yes	5	4.6
No	103	95.4
Attended a Political Meeting		
Yes	13	12.0
No	95	88.0
Attended a Political Rally or Campaign Event		
Yes	10	9.3
No	98	90.7
Contacted a Political Official		
Yes	20	18.7
No	87	81.3
Participated in a Lawful Demonstration		
Yes	22	20.6
No	85	79.4
Boycotted Products or Companies		
Yes	37	34.6
No	70	65.4
Signed a Petition		
Yes	56	52.3
No	51	47.7

Table 1.5
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: Political Engagement on Social Media

Variable	N	Percent
Composing a Political Social Media Post		
Never	70	65.4
Rarely	12	11.2
Somewhat	15	14.0
Often	7	6.5
Very Often	3	2.8
Creating Political Video, Photos, or Audio		
Never	80	74.8
Rarely	17	15.9
Somewhat	8	7.5
Often	1	0.9
Very Often	1	0.9
Sharing Political Content on Social Media		
Never	58	54.2
Rarely	14	13.1
Somewhat	12	11.2
Often	15	14.0
Very Often	8	7.5
Participating in Online Political Discussions		
Never	70	65.4
Rarely	21	19.6
Somewhat	11	10.3
Often	4	3.7
Very Often	1	0.9
Exchanging Political Opinions Online		
Never	55	51.4
Rarely	17	15.9
Somewhat	19	17.8
Often	14	13.1
Very Often	2	1.9

Table 1.6
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: Political Engagement and Social Media Platform Use

Variable	N	Percent
YouTube		
Never	41	38.0
Rarely	21	19.4
Somewhat	24	22.2
Often	16	14.8
Very Often	6	5.6
Twitter		
Never	47	43.9
Rarely	13	12.1
Somewhat	18	16.8
Often	15	14.0
Very Often	14	13.1
Instagram		
Never	35	32.4
Rarely	22	20.4
Somewhat	24	22.2
Often	22	20.4
Very Often	5	4.6
Snapchat		
Never	66	61.1
Rarely	25	23.1
Somewhat	10	9.3
Often	7	6.5
Very Often	0	0.0
Facebook		
Never	62	57.4
Rarely	17	15.7
Somewhat	14	13.0
Often	13	12.0
Very Often	2	1.9
Tik-Tok		
Never	67	62.0
Rarely	18	16.7
Somewhat	13	12.0
Often	8	7.4
Very Often	2	1.9

Table 1.7
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: Political Engagement and Media Platform Use

Variable	N	Percent
Personal Blogs		
Never	87	82.1
Rarely	11	10.4
Somewhat	8	7.5
Often	0	0.0
Very Often	0	0.0
Online Forums and Discussion Boards		
Never	80	74.8
Rarely	12	11.2
Somewhat	10	9.3
Often	4	3.7
Very Often	1	0.9
Government Web Sites		
Never	31	28.7
Rarely	23	21.3
Somewhat	27	25.0
Often	20	18.5
Very Often	7	6.5
Presidential Candidate's Websites		
Never	43	40.2
Rarely	19	17.8
Somewhat	22	20.6
Often	16	15.0
Very Often	7	6.5

Table 1.8
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Dependent Variables: Political Engagement and Media Platform Use

Variable	N	Percent
Print News Media		
Never	52	48.6
Rarely	20	18.7
Somewhat	23	21.5
Often	10	9.3
Very Often	2	1.9
Print News Media Websites		
Never	39	36.8
Rarely	20	18.9
Somewhat	27	25.5
Often	14	13.2
Very Often	6	5.7
News Pages of Internet Service Providers		
Never	46	43.0
Rarely	24	22.4
Somewhat	27	25.2
Often	8	7.5
Very Often	2	1.9
Network Television News		
Never	9	8.3
Rarely	18	16.7
Somewhat	42	38.9
Often	26	24.1
Very Often	13	12.0
Network Television News Web Sites		
Never	29	26.9
Rarely	24	22.2
Somewhat	32	29.6
Often	17	15.7
Very Often	6	5.6

Table 1.9
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Independent Variable Political Information Efficacy

Variable	N	Percent
My Vote Makes a Difference		
Strongly Disagree	4	3.7
Disagree	6	5.6
Somewhat Disagree	3	2.8
Neutral	18	16.7
Somewhat Agree	29	26.9
Agree	29	26.9
Strongly Agree	19	17.6
I Can Make a Difference in the Election Process		
Strongly Disagree	2	1.9
Disagree	8	7.4
Somewhat Disagree	2	1.9
Neutral	21	19.6
Somewhat Agree	22	20.6
Agree	30	28.0
Strongly Agree	22	20.6
I Have a Real Say in Government		
Strongly Disagree	10	9.3
Disagree	21	19.6
Somewhat Disagree	22	20.6
Neutral	24	22.4
Somewhat Agree	19	17.8
Agree	8	7.5
Strongly Agree	3	2.8
Whether I Vote Or Not Has No Influence		
Strongly Disagree	5	4.7
Disagree	17	15.9
Somewhat Disagree	22	20.6
Neutral	24	22.4
Somewhat Agree	20	18.7
Agree	15	14.0
Strongly Agree	4	3.7
Voting Influences the Government		
Strongly Disagree	6	5.6
Disagree	7	6.5
Somewhat Disagree	12	11.2
Neutral	25	23.4
Somewhat Agree	32	29.9

Agree	21	19.6
Strongly Agree	4	3.7
Protesting Influences the Government		
Strongly Disagree	5	4.7
Disagree	14	13.1
Somewhat Disagree	7	6.5
Neutral	21	19.6
Somewhat Agree	24	22.4
Agree	19	17.8
Strongly Agree	17	15.9

Table 1.10

Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108

Independent Variable Political Information Efficacy

Variable	N	Percent
Confident That Politicians Always Do the Right Thing		
Strongly Disagree	47	43.9
Disagree	34	31.8
Somewhat Disagree	11	10.3
Neutral	10	9.3
Somewhat Agree	5	4.7
Agree	0	0.0
Strongly Agree	0	0.0
Politicians Cannot Always be Trusted		
Strongly Disagree	6	5.6
Disagree	6	5.6
Somewhat Disagree	4	3.7
Neutral	9	8.4
Somewhat Agree	14	13.1
Agree	31	29.0
Strongly Agree	37	34.6
Politicians Forget Campaign Promises After Elected		
Strongly Disagree	2	1.9
Disagree	0	0.0
Somewhat Disagree	5	4.7
Neutral	23	21.5
Somewhat Agree	25	23.4
Agree	36	33.6
Strongly Agree	16	15.0
Politicians Are Interested in Power		
Strongly Disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	3	2.8
Somewhat Disagree	8	7.5
Neutral	24	22.4
Somewhat Agree	26	24.3
Agree	28	26.2
Strongly Agree	18	16.8

Table 1.11
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Independent Variable Political Information Efficacy

Variable	N	Percent
I Am Well-Qualified to Participate in Politics		
Strongly Disagree	11	10.3
Disagree	13	12.1
Somewhat Disagree	11	10.3
Neutral	33	30.8
Somewhat Agree	14	13.1
Agree	13	12.1
Strongly Agree	12	11.2
I Am Better Informed About Politics Than Most		
Strongly Disagree	19	17.8
Disagree	19	17.8
Somewhat Disagree	8	7.5
Neutral	23	21.5
Somewhat Agree	16	15.0
Agree	17	15.9
Strongly Agree	5	4.7
I Understand Important Political Issues		
Strongly Disagree	7	6.5
Disagree	5	4.7
Somewhat Disagree	8	7.5
Neutral	18	16.8
Somewhat Agree	31	29.0
Agree	26	24.3
Strongly Agree	12	11.2
I Am Confident In Helping Friends		
Strongly Disagree	15	14.0
Disagree	5	4.7
Somewhat Disagree	7	6.5
Neutral	22	20.6
Somewhat Agree	18	16.8
Agree	25	23.4
Strongly Agree	15	14.0

Table 1.12
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Independent Variable Locus of Control

Variable	N	Percent
People's Misfortunes		
External Locus of Control	49	45.4
Internal Locus of Control	59	54.6
Perception of Fate		
External Locus of Control	67	62.0
Internal Locus of Control	41	38.0
Control of Future Plans		
External Locus of Control	24	22.4
Internal Locus of Control	83	77.6
Control of Life Outcomes		
External Locus of Control	20	18.7
Internal Locus of Control	87	81.3
Employment and Luck		
External Locus of Control	31	29.0
Internal Locus of Control	76	71.0
Perception of Luck		
External Locus of Control	84	78.5
Internal Locus of Control	23	21.5
Influence of Luck		
External Locus of Control	63	59.4
Internal Locus of Control	43	40.6
Perception of Control		
External Locus of Control	36	33.6
Internal Locus of Control	71	66.4

Table 1.13
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Independent Variable Parental Socialization

Variable	N	Percent
Parents Watched Presidential Debates		
Never	15	14.0
Rarely	20	18.7
Somewhat	25	23.4
Often	38	35.5
Very Often	9	8.4
Parents Tried to Persuade Others to Vote		
Never	39	36.4
Rarely	30	28.0
Somewhat	24	22.4
Often	8	7.5
Very Often	6	5.6
Parents Registered Others to Vote		
Never	70	66.0
Rarely	20	18.9
Somewhat	10	9.4
Often	4	3.8
Very Often	2	1.9
Parents Volunteered as a Poll Worker		
Never	90	84.1
Rarely	8	7.5
Somewhat	4	3.7
Often	2	1.9
Very Often	3	2.8
Parents Gave Money to a Political Candidate		
Never	77	72.0
Rarely	13	12.1
Somewhat	9	8.4
Often	4	3.7
Very Often	4	3.7
Parents Been Contacted by a Political Campaign		
Never	36	33.6
Rarely	15	14.0
Somewhat	21	19.6
Often	25	23.4
Very Often	10	9.3

Table 1.14
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Independent Variable Parental Socialization

Variable	N	Percent
Parents Volunteered For a Political Campaign		
Never	86	80.4
Rarely	11	10.3
Somewhat	4	3.7
Often	4	3.7
Very Often	2	1.9
Parents Attended a Political Meeting		
Never	79	73.8
Rarely	14	13.1
Somewhat	5	4.7
Often	5	4.7
Very Often	4	3.7
Parents Attended a Rally or Campaign Event		
Never	82	76.6
Rarely	14	13.1
Somewhat	5	4.7
Often	3	2.8
Very Often	3	2.8
Parents Contacted a Political Official		
Never	72	67.3
Rarely	19	17.8
Somewhat	6	5.6
Often	7	6.5
Very Often	3	2.8
Parents Participated in a Lawful Demonstration		
Never	83	77.6
Rarely	14	13.1
Somewhat	6	5.6
Often	2	1.9
Very Often	2	1.9
Parents Boycotted Products or Companies		
Never	67	63.2
Rarely	16	15.1
Somewhat	14	13.2
Often	6	5.7
Very Often	3	2.8
Parents Signed a Petition		
Never	65	61.9
Rarely	19	18.1
Somewhat	12	11.4
Often	6	5.7
Very Often	3	2.9

Table 1.15
Descriptive Statistics of Respondent Characteristics, N=108
Control Variables

Variable	N	Percent
Gender Identity		
Female	71	65.7
Male	34	31.5
Non-Binary	3	2.8
Political Ideology		
Very Liberal	12	11.1
Liberal	22	20.4
Somewhat Liberal	17	15.7
Neither Liberal or Conservative	24	22.2
Somewhat Conservative	11	10.2
Conservative	18	16.7
Very Conservative	4	3.7

Table 2.1
Correlation matrix of Political Engagement and Political Information Efficacy, N= 108

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
(1) General Political Engagement Index[a]	1.00	.712***	.559***	.601***	.744***	.360***	.767***	.136	-.217*
(2) Political Engagement and Participation Index[b]		1.00	.609***	.567***	.657***	.269***	.669**	.148	-.317**
(3) Social Media Political Engagement Index[c]			1.00	.537***	.459***	.329**	.469***	.141	-.380***
(4) Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index[d]				1.00	.518***	.299**	.424***	-.014	-.158
(5) How Informed About Either Candidate					1.00	.342***	.768***	.188	-.247**
(6) General Political Efficacy Index[e]						1.00	.357***	-.082	-.271**
(7) Political Information Efficacy Index[f]							1.00	.241*	-.145
(8) Gender Identity[g]								1.00	-.069
(9) Political Ideology[h]									1.00

Note: *=p< .05; **=p< .01; ***=p< .001
[a] General Political Engagement Index coded as 7=Not Engaged and 35=Very Engaged
[b] Political Engagement and Participation Index code as 1=Not Engaged and 15=Very Engaged
[c] Social Media Political Engagement Index coded as 5= Not Engaged and 22= Very Engaged
[d] Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index coded as 15= Not Engaged and 56=Very Engaged
[e] General Political Efficacy coded as 14= Low Political Efficacy and 61= High Political Efficacy
[f] Political Information Efficacy Index coded as 4=Low Political Information Efficacy and 28= High Political Efficacy
[g] Gender Identity coded as 0= Female, 1= Male, and 2= Non-Binary
[h] Political Ideology coded as 1=Very Liberal and 7= Very Conservative

Table 2.2
Correlation matrix of Political Engagement and Locus of Control, N= 108

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) General Political Engagement Index[a]	1.00	.712***	.559***	.601***	.744***	-.171	.136	-.217*
(2) Political Engagement and Participation Index[b]		1.00	.609***	.567***	.657***	-.154	.148	-.317**
(3) Social Media Political Engagement Index[c]			1.00	.537***	.459***	-.164	.141	-.380***
(4) Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index[d]				1.00	.518***	-.049	-.014	-.158
(5) How Informed About Either Candidate					1.00	-.167	.188	-.247**
(6) Locus of Control Index[e]						1.00	.058	.305**
(7) Gender Identity[f]							1.00	-.069
(8) Political Ideology[g]								1.00

Note: *=p< .05; **=p< .01; ***=p< .001
[a] General Political Engagement Index coded as 7=Not Engaged and 35=Very Engaged
[b] Political Engagement and Participation Index code as 1=Not Engaged and 15=Very Engaged
[c] Social Media Political Engagement Index coded as 5= Not Engaged and 22= Very Engaged
[d] Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index coded as 15= Not Engaged and 56=Very Engaged
[e] Locus of Control Index coded as 1= High External Locus of Control and 8=High Internal Locus of Control
[f] Gender Identity coded as 0= Female, 1= Male, and 2= Non-Binary
[g] Political Ideology coded as 1=Very Liberal and 7= Very Conservative

Table 2.3
Correlation matrix of Political Engagement and Parental Socialization, N= 108

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) General Political Engagement Index[a]	1.00	.712***	.559***	.601***	.744***	.388***	.136	-.217*
(2) Political Engagement and Participation Index[b]		1.00	.609***	.567***	.657***	.377***	.148	-.317**
(3) Social Media Political Engagement Index[c]			1.00	.537***	.459***	.356***	.141	-.380***
(4) Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index[d]				1.00	.518***	.357***	-.014	-.158
(5) How Informed About Either Candidate					1.00	.326**	.188	-.247**
(6) Parental Political Engagement Index[e]						1.00	-.004	-.095
(7) Gender Identity[f]							1.00	-.069
(8) Political Ideology[g]								1.00

Note: *=p< .05; **=p< .01; ***=p< .001
[a] General Political Engagement Index coded as 7=Not Engaged and 35=Very Engaged
[b] Political Engagement and Participation Index code as 1=Not Engaged and 15=Very Engaged
[c] Social Media Political Engagement Index coded as 5= Not Engaged and 22= Very Engaged
[d] Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index coded as 15= Not Engaged and 56=Very Engaged
[e] Parental Political Engagement Index coded as 15= Not Engaged and 74= Very Engaged
[f] Gender Identity coded as 0= Female, 1= Male, and 2= Non-Binary
[g] Political Ideology coded as 1=Very Liberal and 7= Very Conservative

Table 3.1.
Political Engagement of College Students by General Political Efficacy (N=108)

	General Political Efficacy (Percent)		
	Low	Medium	High
	(n=19)	(n=72)	(n=15)
General Political Engagement Index			
Low Engagement	36.8	5.6	0.0
Medium Engagement	36.8	61.1	26.7
High Engagement	26.3	33.3	73.3
Note: $\chi 2$= 25.905; p= .000			
Political Engagement and Participation Index	(n=19)	(n=73)	(n=15)
Low Engagement	42.1	16.4	6.7
Medium Engagement	36.8	60.3	60.0
High Engagement	21.1	23.3	33.3
Note: $\chi 2$= 8.695; p= .069			
Social Media Political Engagement Index	(n=19)	(n=73)	(n=15)
Low Engagement	89.5	71.2	53.3
Medium Engagement	0.0	21.9	26.7
High Engagement	10.5	6.8	20.0
Note: $\chi 2$= 8.344; p= .080			
Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index	(n=19)	(n=70)	(n=14)
Low Engagement	68.4	34.3	7.1
Medium Engagement	26.3	54.3	78.6
High Engagement	5.3	11.4	14.3
Note: $\chi 2$= 13.678; p= .008			
How Informed About Either Candidate	(n=19)	(n=73)	(n=15)
Not Informed	26.3	13.7	0.0
Somewhat Informed	21.1	11.0	6.7
Very Informed	52.6	75.3	93.3
Note: $\chi 2$= 7.805; p=.099			

Table 3.2.
Political Engagement of College Students by Political Information Efficacy (N=108)

	Political Information Efficacy (Percent)		
	Low	Medium	High
	(n=23)	(n=73)	(n=15)
General Political Engagement Index			
Low Engagement	34.8	5.9	0.0
Medium Engagement	60.9	68.6	18.8
High Engagement	4.3	25.5	81.3
Note: $\chi 2$=52.277; p=.000			
Political Engagement and Participation Index	(n=23)	(n=51)	(n=33)
Low Engagement	47.8	17.6	3.0
Medium Engagement	52.2	68.6	39.4
High Engagement	0.0	13.7	57.6
Note: $\chi 2$=40.159; p=.000			
Social Media Political Engagement Index	(n=23)	(n=51)	(n=33)
Low Engagement	95.7	74.5	51.5
Medium Engagement	4.3	21.6	24.2
High Engagement	0.0	3.9	24.2
Note: $\chi 2$=18.649; p=.001			
Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index	(n=23)	(n=48)	(n=32)
Low Engagement	60.9	29.2	31.3
Medium Engagement	39.1	60.4	50.0
High Engagement	0.0	10.4	18.8
Note: $\chi 2$=10.444 ; p=.034			
How Informed About Either Candidate	(n=23)	(n=51)	(n=33)
Not Informed	47.8	7.8	0.0
Somewhat Informed	21.7	15.7	0.0
Very Informed	30.4	76.5	100.0
Note: $\chi 2$=40.016 ; p=.000			

Table 3.3.
Political Engagement of College Students by Locus of Control (N=108)

	Locus of Control (Percent)		
	External	Mixed	Internal
	(n=29)	(n=45)	(n=30)
General Political Engagement Index			
Low Engagement	10.3	6.7	16.7
Medium Engagement	41.4	55.6	53.3
High Engagement	48.3	37.8	30.0
Note: $\chi 2$=3.736; p=.443			
Political Engagement and Participation Index	(n=29)	(n=46)	(n=30)
Low Engagement	17.2	15.2	30.0
Medium Engagement	51.7	58.7	56.7
High Engagement	31.0	26.1	13.3
Note: $\chi 2$=4.411; p=.353			
Social Media Political Engagement Index	(n=29)	(n=46)	(n=30)
Low Engagement	62.1	76.1	76.7
Medium Engagement	20.7	19.6	13.3
High Engagement	17.2	4.3	10.0
Note: $\chi 2$=4.243; p=.374			
Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index	(n=29)	(n=45)	(n=27)
Low Engagement	20.7	46.7	37.0
Medium Engagement	65.5	48.9	48.1
High Engagement	13.8	4.4	14.8
Note: $\chi 2$=6.812; p=.146			
How Informed About Either Candidate	(n=29)	(n=46)	(n=30)
Not Informed	10.3	13.0	14.3
Somewhat Informed	10.3	10.9	12.4
Very Informed	79.3	76.1	73.3
Note: $\chi 2$=2.276 ; p=.685			

Table 3.4.
Political Engagement of College Students by Parental Engagement (N=108)

	Parental Engagement (Percent)		
	Low	Medium	High
	(n=76)	(n=22)	(n=5)
General Political Engagement Index			
Low Engagement	14.5	0.0	0.0
Medium Engagement	56.6	45.5	20.0
High Engagement	28.9	54.5	80.0
Note: $\chi 2$=11.042; p=.026			
Political Engagement and Participation Index	(n=77)	(n=22)	(n=5)
Low Engagement	24.7	4.5	0.0
Medium Engagement	57.1	63.6	0.0
High Engagement	18.2	31.8	100.0
Note: $\chi 2$=20.765; p=.000			
Social Media Political Engagement Index	(n=77)	(n=22)	(n=5)
Low Engagement	74.0	72.7	20.0
Medium Engagement	19.5	18.2	20.0
High Engagement	6.5	9.1	60.0
Note: $\chi 2$=15.940; p=.003			
Political Engagement and Media Platform Use Index	(n=76)	(n=20)	(n=5)
Low Engagement	42.1	25.0	20.0
Medium Engagement	51.3	55.0	40.0
High Engagement	6.6	20.0	40.0
Note: $\chi 2$=8.553; p=.073			
How Informed About Either Candidate	(n=77)	(n=22)	(n=5)
Not Informed	19.5	0.0	14.4
Somewhat Informed	10.4	18.2	11.5
Very Informed	70.1	81.8	74.0
Note: $\chi 2$=7.560; p=.109			

Table 4.1

OLS Regression Results of Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Parental Socialization on the General Political Engagement of College Students (N=108)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
General Political Efficacy Index	.416***				.276**	.289**
	(.103)				(.084)	(.092)
Political Information Efficacy Index		.563***			.478***	.463***
		(.068)			(071)	(.074)
Locus of Control Index			-.123		-.148*	-.150*
			(.084)		(.062)	(.068)
Parental Political Engagement Index				.362**	.106	.108
				(.108)	(.090)	(.091)
Gender Identity						.063
						(.095)
Political Ideology						.001
						(.032)
R^2	.136	.399	.021	.100	.488	.490

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients

Standard Error shown in parentheses

*Relationship significant at the .05 level

**Relationship significant at the .01 level

***Relationship significant at the .001 level

Table 4.2

OLS Regression Results of Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Parental Socialization on the Political Engagement and Participation of College Students (N=108)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
General Political Efficacy Index	.242*				.090	.088
	(.112)				(.094)	(.100)
Political Information Efficacy Index		.518***			.444***	.416***
		(.074)			(.077)	(.081)
Locus of Control			-.153		-.154*	-.132
			(.086)		(.069)	(.075)
Parental Political Engagement				.440	.249	.243*
				(.110)	(.099)	(.099)
Gender Identity						.096
						(.103)
Political Ideology						-.030
						(.035)
R^2	.042	.316	.030	.136	.408	.420

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients

Standard Error shown in parentheses

*Relationship significant at the .05 level

**Relationship significant at the .01 level

***Relationship significant at the .001 level

Table 4.3

OLS Regression Results of Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Parental Socialization on the Political Engagement of College Students on Social Media (N=108)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
General Political Efficacy Index	.221*				.125	.049
	(.110)				(.108)	(.111)
Political Information Efficacy Index		.350***			.295**	.256**
		(.081)			(.089)	(.089)
Locus of Control			-.108		-.120	-.028
			(.085)		(.080)	(.083)
Parental Political Engagement				.301**	.162	.134
				(.113)	(.114)	(.110)
Gender Identity						.050
						(.114)
Political Ideology						.116**
						(.039)
R^2	.037	.150	.015	.065	.204	.278

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients

Standard Error shown in parentheses

*Relationship significant at the .05 level

**Relationship significant at the .01 level

***Relationship significant at the .001 level

Table 4.4

OLS Regression Results of Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Parental Socialization on the Political Media Consumption and Engagement of College Students(N=108)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
General Political Efficacy Index	.357**				.297**	.253*
	(.107)				(.107)	(.114)
Political Information Efficacy Index		.228**			.121	.137
		(.085)			(.087)	(.092)
Locus of Control			-.081		-.108	-.080
			(.084)		(.079)	(.086)
Parental Political Engagement				.290*	.197	.188
				(.113)	(.113)	(.114)
Gender Identity						-.109
						(.117)
Political Ideology						-.031
						(.040)
R^2	.100	.067	.009	.063	.182	.193

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients

Standard Error shown in parentheses

*Relationship significant at the .05 level

**Relationship significant at the .01 level

***Relationship significant at the .001 level

Table 4.5

OLS Regression Results of Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Parental Socialization on How Informed College Students Were About Either Candidate(N=108)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
General Political Efficacy Index	.337**				.191	.198
	(.121)				(.108)	(.117)
Political Information Efficacy Index		.563***			.521***	.517***
		(.081)			(.089)	(.094)
Locus of Control Index			-.129		-.138	-.141
			(.095)		(.080)	(.087)
Parental Political Engagement Index				.278*	.033	.034
				(.127)	(.114)	(.116)
Gender Identity						.022
						(.120)
Political Ideology						.003
						(.041)
R^2	.069	.314	.018	.045	.356	.356

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients

Standard Error shown in parentheses

*Relationship significant at the .05 level

**Relationship significant at the .01 level

***Relationship significant at the .001 level

APPENDIX B: Full Questionnaire and Codebook

Are you registered to vote? **(VOTE)**

- Yes
- No

Did you vote in the 2020 State primary election? **(VOTEPRIM)**

- Yes
- No

Did you vote in the 2020 National presidential election? **(VOTENAT)**

- Yes
- No

How did you vote? **(VOTEHOW)**

- Mail-in Ballot
- In-person
- Did not know how to vote

Please indicate your level of interest in each of the following statements.

In general, how much interest do you have in politics? **(POLGEN)**

(1) None
(2) Very Little
(3) Some
(4) Quite a Bit
(5) A Great Deal

In general, how much do you discuss politics with your family and friends? **(POLTALK)**

(1) None
(2) Very Little
(3) Some
(4) Quite a Bit
(5) A Great Deal

How much interest did you have in the 2020 presidential election? **(POLELEC)**

(1) None
(2) Very Little
(3) Some
(4) Quite a Bit
(5) A Great Deal

In general, how much did you follow political campaigns in the 2020 presidential election? **(POLCAMP)**

(1) None
(2) Very Little
(3) Some

(4) Quite a Bit
(5) A Great Deal

How much did you research either political candidate in the previous presidential election? **(POLRSRCH)**

(1) None
(2) Very Little
(3) Some
(4) Quite a Bit
(5) A Great Deal

In the past 12 months have you:

Discussed politics with family, friends, or others **(DISCSPOL)**

- Yes
- No

Watched a presidential debate **(PRESDBT)**

- Yes
- No

Tried to persuade others to vote **(PERSVOTE)**

- Yes
- No

Registered others to vote **(REGVOTE)**

- Yes
- No

Volunteered as a poll worker **(POLLWRK)**

- Yes
- No

Gave money to a political candidate **(DONATE)**

- Yes
- No

Contacted by a political campaign **(CNTCTBY)**

- Yes
- No

Volunteered for a political campaign **(VOLUNCAMP)**

- Yes
- No

Attended a political meeting **(ATTNPOLMTG)**

- Yes
- No

Attended a political rally or campaign event **(ATTNRALLY)**

- Yes
- No

Contacted a political official (e.g. a local representative, State Senator, or Governor) **(CNTCTPOL)**

- Yes
- No

Participated in a lawful demonstration (e.g. public protest or march) **(LAWDEM)**

- Yes
- No

Boycotted certain products or companies **(BOYCOT)**

- Yes
- No

Signed a petition in support of a social or political issue **(SGNPET)**

- Yes
- No

In regard to the 2020 presidential election, how often did you engage in each of the following activities?

Writing social media posts on political issues (e.g. composing an original tweet, writing an original Facebook post) **(WRITESM)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Creating and posting online audio, video, animation, photos, or computer artwork to express political views **(CREATESM)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Sharing political news, video clips, photos, or other's content on your social media account (e.g. re-tweeting a political news article, sharing a political video clip on an Instagram story) **(SHARESM)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Participating in online political discussions (e.g. discussion boards, Twitter threads, Facebook comments) **(PRTCPTSM)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Exchanging opinions about politics via email, social networking platforms, or instant messenger **(EXCHSM)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

In regard to the 2020 presidential election, how often did you rely on these platforms for political content?

(1) YouTube **(YOUTUBE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(2) Twitter **(TWITTER)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(3) Instagram **(INSTGRM)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely

(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(4) Snapchat **(SNAPCHAT)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(5) Facebook **(FACEBOOK)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(6) Tik-Tok **(TIKTOK)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(7) Personal Blogs **(BLOGS)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(8) Online Forums and Discussion Boards **(FRMBRD)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(9) Government Web Sites (e.g. Local, State, or National) **(GOVSITE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(10) Presidential Candidate's Websites **(PRESITE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(11) Network Television News (e.g. ABC, MSNBC, NBC, Fox News, CNN) **(TVNET)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(12) Network Television News Web Sites (e.g. bbc.com, foxnews.com) **(TVSITE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(14) Print Media News (e.g. The New York Times, The Wall Street Journal) **(PRNTNEWS)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(13) Print Media News Web sites (e.g. nytimes.com, wsj.com) **(NEWSSITE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

(14) News pages of internet service providers (e.g. Google News, Yahoo News) **(INTSITE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

How informed did you feel about either of the presidential campaigns? **(INFOCAND)**

(1) Very Uniformed
(2) Uniformed

(3) Somewhat Uniformed
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Informed
(6) Informed
(7) Very Informed

How often have you been exposed to media coverage of either presidential campaigns? **(MEDCAMP)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

How often have you talked with other people about either of the presidential campaigns? **(TALKCAMP)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

My vote makes a difference **(VOTEDIF)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

I can make a difference if I participate in the election process **(PARTPDIF)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

I have a real say in what the government does **(SAYGOV)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral

(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

Whether I vote or not has no influence on what politicians do **(VOTEINFL)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

Voting gives people an effective way to influence what the government does **(VOTEPEEP)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

Protesting gives people an effective way to influence what the government does **(PROTINF)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

One can be confident that politicians will always do the right thing **(CONFPOL)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

One cannot always trust what politicians say **(TRUSTPOL)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree

(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

Politicians often quickly forget their election promises after a political campaign is over **(POLFORG)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

Politicians are more interested in power than in what the people think **(POLPWR)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

Please indicate whether you strongly agree or strongly disagree with each of the following statements.

I consider myself well-qualified to participate in politics **(SELFQUL)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

I think that I am better informed about politics and government than most people **(SELFINF)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

I feel that I have a pretty good understanding of the important political issues facing our country **(SELFISS)**

(1) Strongly Disagree

(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

If a friend asked me about the presidential election, I feel I would have enough information to help my friend figure out who to vote for **(SELFRND)**

(1) Strongly Disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Somewhat Disagree
(4) Neutral
(5) Somewhat Agree
(6) Agree
(7) Strongly Agree

(1) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKGEN)**

a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

(2) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKFATE)**

a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.

b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

(3) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKFUTR)**

a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to- be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

(4) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKATT)**

a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

(5) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKWRK)**

a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.

b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability. Luck has little or nothing to do with it.

(6) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKACC)**

a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.

b. There really is no such thing as "luck."

(7) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKINFL)**

a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.=0 external

b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.=1 internal

(8) select the statement that you agree with the most **(LUCKCONT)**

a. What happens to me is my own doing.

b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

What is your mother or father's highest level of education? **(PAREDU)**

- Less than High School -coded as 1
- High School or GED-coded as 2
- Associates Degree (2 years of College)-coded as 3
- Bachelor's Degree (4 years of College)-coded as 4
- Master's Degree or higher- coded as 5

Growing up, in general how often did your parents talk about politics in the house? **(PARTLK)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Growing up, in general how often did your parents vote? **(PARVOTE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

When you turned 18, did your parents encourage you to register to vote? **(PAREG)**

- Yes
- No

Growing up, how often do you remember your parents engaging in any of the following political activities?

Watching a presidential debate **(PARDBT)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Trying to persuade others to vote **(PARSUADE)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Registering others to vote **(PAREGVT)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Volunteering as a poll worker **(PARPOLL)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Giving money to a political candidate **(PARDNT)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Being contacted by a political campaign **(PARCNTCBY)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often

(5) Very Often

Volunteering for a political campaign **(PARVOL)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Attending a political meeting **(PARMTG)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Attending a political rally or campaign event **(PARLLY)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Contacting a political official (e.g. a local representative, State Senator, or Governor) **(PARCONPOL)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Participating in a lawful demonstration (e.g. public protest or march) **(PARLAWDEM)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

Boycotting certain products or companies **(PARBOYCOT)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often

(5) Very Often

Signing a petition about a social or political issue **(PARSIGN)**

(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Somewhat
(4) Often
(5) Very Often

What gender do you identify as? **(GENDER)**

- Female
- Male
- Non-binary
- Write-in

When it comes to politics, do you usually think of yourself as **(POLVIEWS)**

- (1) Very Liberal
- (2) Liberal
- (3) Somewhat Liberal
- (4) Neither Liberal or Conservative
- (5) Somewhat Conservative
- (6) Conservative
- (7) Very Conservative

What is your age? **(AGE)**

- 18
- 19
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23
- 24
- Write-in

Please specify your race/ethnicity, and select all that apply **(RACE)**

- White
- African American
- Black
- Latinx
- Hispanic
- Asian
- Pacific Islander
- Native American or American Indian

What year will you graduate? **(GRADYR)**

- 2021
- 2022
- 2023
- 2024

What is you major? **(MAJOR)**

- Accounting
  - Business Department
- Actuarial Science
  - Math Department
- Biochemistry and Molecular Biology
  - Chemistry and Biochemistry Department
- Biology
  - Biology Department
- Biology Secondary Education
  - Biology Department
- Biology Laboratory Science
  - Biology Department
- Business Administration
  - Business Department
- Business Data Science
  - Business Department
- Chemistry
  - Chemistry and Biochemistry Department
- Chemistry Laboratory Sciences
  - Chemistry and Biochemistry Department
- Chemistry Secondary Education
  - Chemistry and Biochemistry Department
- Computer Science
  - Computer Science Department
- Criminal Justice
  - Sociology-Anthropology Department
- Data Science
  - Computer Science Department
- Digital Media Production
  - Communications Department
- Early Childhood Education
  - Education Department
- Economics
  - Business Department
- Elementary/ Middle-Level Education

    - Education Department
- Engineering
    - Engineering and Physics Department
- English
    - English Department
- English Secondary Education
    - English Department
- Environmental Science
    - Biology Department
- Exercise Science, Major
    - Interdisciplinary
- Finance
    - Business Department
- Financial Economics
    - Business Department
- Fine Arts
    - Division of Fine and Performing Arts
- French
    - Modern Language Department
- German
    - Modern Language Department
- Graphic Design
    - Division of Fine and Performing Arts
- Health Sciences
    - Occupational Therapy Department
- History
    - History Department
- Information Systems
    - Computer Science Department
- Interfaith Leadership Studies
    - Interdisciplinary Studies
- International Business
    - Business Department
- Japanese
    - Modern Languages Department
- Journalism
    - Communications Department
- Legal Studies
    - Political Science and Legal Studies Department
- Marketing
    - Business Department
- Mathematical Business

    - Mathematical Sciences Department
- Mathematics
    - Mathematical Sciences Department
- Mathematics Secondary Education
    - Mathematical Sciences Department
- Media Analytics and Social Media
    - Communications Department
- Music
    - Division of Fine and Performing Arts Department of Music
- Music Education
    - Division of Fine and Performing Arts Department of Music
- Music Therapy
    - Division of Fine and Performing Arts Department of Music
- Neuroscience
    - Psychology Department
- Physics
    - Engineering and Physics Department
- Physics Secondary Education
    - Engineering and Physics Department
- Political Sciences
    - Political Science and Legal Studies Department
- Public Relations
    - Communication Department
- Psychology
    - Psychology Department
- Religious Studies
    - Religious Studies Department
- Social Studies Education
    - Interdisciplinary
- Social Work
    - Social Work Department
- Sociology-Anthropology
    - Sociology-Anthropology Department
- Spanish
    - Modern Languages Department

Are you a United States citizen? USCITZN

- Yes
- No

What state do you reside in? (when you are not on the E-town campus) STATE

- Alabama

- Alaska
- Arizona
- Arkansas
- California
- Colorado
- Connecticut
- Delaware
- Florida
- Georgia
- Hawaii
- Idaho
- Illinois
- Indiana
- Iowa
- Kansas
- Kentucky
- Louisiana
- Maine
- Maryland
- Massachusetts
- Michigan
- Minnesota
- Mississippi
- Missouri
- Montana
- Nebraska
- Nevada
- New Hampshire
- New Jersey
- New Mexico
- New York
- North Carolina
- North Dakota
- Ohio
- Oklahoma
- Oregon
- Pennsylvania
- Rhode Island
- South Carolina
- South Dakota
- Tennessee

- Texas
- Utah
- Vermont
- Virginia
- Washington
- West Virginia
- Wisconsin
- Wyoming

APPENDIX C: Interview Questions and Consent Script

Interview Questions

Hello, thank you for taking the time to be here for this interview today. My name is Jessica and I am a senior Sociology/Anthropology major conducting research for my Honors in the Discipline Thesis. During this semi-structured interview I will be taking notes as I ask the questions. The goal of this interview is to learn more about the political engagement of college students. The results from this study will be presented at Scholarship and Creative Arts Day at Elizabethtown College, as well as at the Mid-Atlantic Undergraduate Social Research Conference. Just a reminder that this process is voluntary and your name and identity will be kept confidential. If you would like a copy of the completed research, please let me know at the end of the interview.

1. In the last 12 months, how engaged were you with the presidential election?
2. In what ways did you engage with the past presidential election?
3. Did you vote in the last presidential election? Was this your first time voting?
4. What does being politically engaged mean to you?
5. How has the past election influenced your engagement with politics?
6. How confident did you feel when you participated in the 2020 election (e.g. when voting, registering to vote, donating to a campaign).
7. How necessary do you believe it is to be educated about the political process, and keep up with the news cycle in order to participate in the presidential election?
8. Did you understand the information you consumed? Did you feel more confident in participating in the political process after consuming political content?
9. If a friend came to you to ask a question about the presidential election, how confident would you be to answer their questions?
10. How satisfied were you with your political knowledge this past presidential election?
11. Compared to others how politically informed do you believe you are?
12. How much control do you believe you have over your life choices and outcomes?
13. How much influence do you believe your voice has in the political process?
14. What did your parents believe about politics?
15. What do you believe you have learned from your parents about politics?
16. Growing up, in what ways did you notice your parents engaging with political activities?
17. What is your relationship like now with your parents in terms of discussing politics?
18. In comparison to your parents, who do you believe in more politically engaged and why?

APPENDIX D: Faculty Email

Subject Line: Political Engagement Survey

Hello [Insert Professor Name],

My name is Jessica Cox and I am conducting a research project on the political engagement of college students for my senior sociology Honors in the Discipline project. I would be extremely grateful if you encouraged your students in _____ to complete this survey.

The link and a short description are located below to send to students via email. This survey is currently open and should take about 10- 15 minutes to complete.

Here is the survey description in case you want to email your current students:

This survey will assess your sense of political engagement to better understand how college students become engaged and active in the political process. I would greatly appreciate your participation and help in data collection. Thank you!

Here is the link to the survey: _____.

Thank you for your consideration, time, and support of student research. Please let me know if you have any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,
Jessica Cox

APPENDIX E: Survey Consent Form

Survey Consent Form

Title of Research: To Vote or Not To Vote: The Effects of Political Information Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Parental Socialization on the Political Engagement of College Students

Principal Investigator: Jessica Cox

Purpose of Research
The purpose of this survey is to measure your political engagement and see if your engagement is related to how politically informed you are, how confident you are about politics, how you perceive control, and how you were influenced by your parents. In this study, political engagement includes voting, watching presidential debates, volunteering as a poll working, and discussing politics with your friends. You will be asked about how you consume political information, how you have participated in political activities, and how your parents interact with politics.

You are NOT asked which political party you voted for and at no time will be asked about your party affiliation.

Procedures
I will complete the following online Microsoft Forms questionnaire honestly and to the best of my ability. I understand the questionnaire will take me about 20 minutes.

Risks and Discomforts
I understand that the risk or discomfort from participation in this research study are no greater than those experienced in everyday life.

Benefits
I will receive no direct benefits from being in this study; however, my participation may help me reflect on my political engagement.

Compensation:
I understand that I will not receive any immediate or guaranteed compensation for participating in this study.

Confidentiality
The information gathered during this study will remain confidential. All data collected will be kept on a password protected computer and only accessible to the principal investigator and faculty advisor of this study. The results of this research will be published in an undergraduate paper and may be published in a professional journal or presented at professional meetings. The researcher will not provide any identifying information in the report or publication.

Withdrawal without Prejudice
I understand my participation in this study is strictly voluntary. My refusal to participate will involve no penalty. I understand I am free to withdraw at any time while participating.

Contacts and Questions

If I have any questions concerning the research project, I may contact Jessica Cox at coxj1@etown.edu. Additionally, if I want a copy of this consent form, I will email coxj1@etown.edu. Should I have any questions about my participant rights involved in this research I may contact the Elizabethtown College Institutional Review Board Submission Coordinator, Susan Mapp at (717) 361-1990 or via email at mapps@etown.edu.

Statement of Consent:

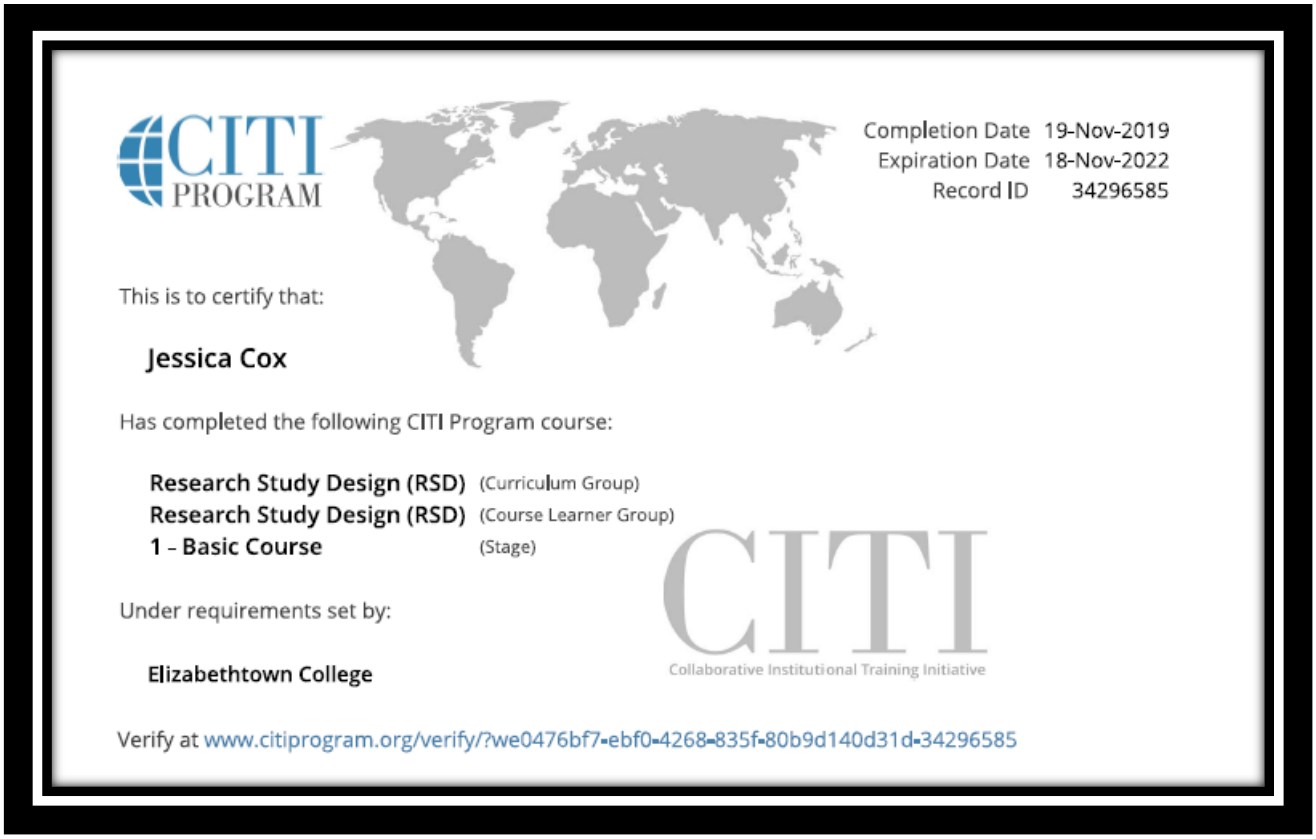
- I am 18 years of age or older.

- I have read the above information. I have asked questions and received answers. I am willing to participate in this study.

By answering "Yes" I agree to participate in this study.

By answering "No" I agree not to participate in this study and will exit the survey.

APPENDIX F: CITI Certificate



CITI PROGRAM

Completion Date 19-Nov-2019
Expiration Date 18-Nov-2022
Record ID 34296585

This is to certify that:

Jessica Cox

Has completed the following CITI Program course:

Research Study Design (RSD) (Curriculum Group)
Research Study Design (RSD) (Course Learner Group)
1 - Basic Course (Stage)

Under requirements set by:

Elizabethtown College

CITI
Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative

Verify at www.citiprogram.org/verify/?we0476bf7-ebf0-4268-835f-80b9d140d31d-34296585