

A STUDY OF SOME FACTORS RELATED TO COMMUNITY  
SATISFACTION AND KNOWLEDGE

by

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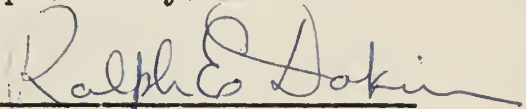
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## CHAPTER I

### THE PROBLEM

A community is to be viewed functionally, not just as a physical place and a collection of people; so viewed, it is a configuration of collective facilities and services to meet basic needs. We contend that people view these differently according to a number of factors which shape their perceptions (age, sex, occupation, family status). For example, the head of a family, by virtue of his status, may not feel that his community provides a sufficient range or quality of services for his children; therefore, he develops a feeling of dissatisfaction toward this community. A single person may be indifferent to or ignorant of children-oriented facilities and services.

Attitudes toward community facilities and services and toward change of the community as regards its facilities and services are the major foci of this research. Our position specifies that people vary along a measurable continuum of liberalism-conservatism. We define liberals as those persons who are relatively dissatisfied with facilities and services as they exist and who have attitudes in favor of change. Conservatives are those persons who are relatively satisfied with the existing facilities and services provided by their communities and who do not generally favor change. The means of measuring both will



be specified in chapter 3.

The liberal-conservative dimension is of particular concern here as it characterizes various segments of the population: leaders-followers, males-females, the relatively well educated-the relatively poorly educated, the older-the younger, the farm people-the townspeople. Communities are various mixes of liberalism-conservatism; the literature leads us to anticipate certain patterns but there are a number of areas of uncertainty with contradictory results indicated in the literature. It is the patterns of liberalism-conservatism among various segments of community population which this study explores and hopes to help clarify. Various anticipated patterns are considered in the immediately succeeding paragraphs.

Leadership is an important focal point for such a study and community may be characterized in terms of its leaders. Irwin T. Sanders, in his book The Community, pointed out that some leaders resist change in all its forms to the best of their ability. They feel that what they have is so good that the existing arrangements ought to be preserved in so far as that is possible; they fear that alterations in the community may adversely affect their own differentially advantaged positions in the community structure. Such leaders may resist a school bond issue which would raise the quality of education and prepare the citizens for better jobs. The reasons they give for opposition are complex, involving more than the objection to additional taxes which would have to be levied; they may even reveal an

attitude that "ordinary people" should not be educated too far out of line with their social expectations. Not all of the people of the community agree with these leaders; yet they have little voice since they are not involved in the major decisions unless some issue is put to public vote.<sup>1</sup>

The above type of leader is usually in the minority. One finds that most leaders are selective in their approach to social change. They recognize that it is impossible to preserve all arrangements, to completely stifle change; some change is inevitable. These leaders have a philosophy of progress consisting of change in limited directions and lean toward the idea that a certain degree of social planning is needed to help the community to arrive at goals they consider acceptable. Such leaders obstruct change which is not contained in their approved plans.

A third type of leader may also be noted. This is the sort of person who seems to think that any change is for the good. He thrives on the excitement of a crisis situation.<sup>2</sup> Such persons are few in number in any stable social system.

Cognitions of things or objects, no less than approaches to social change, are selectively organized. Our first impressions and old beliefs tend to resist change. If there is a

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<sup>1</sup>Irwin T. Sanders, The Community: An Introduction to a Social System (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958), Chapter 3.

<sup>2</sup>Thelma Herman McCormack, "The Motivation of Radicals," American Journal of Sociology, LVI (July 1950), pp. 17-24.

change in a person's perceptions, it is likely to be in the direction of increased "cognitive consonance"<sup>\*</sup>. People tend to develop favorable attitudes toward objects which are seen as means of goal achievement.

There is a large body of data, mentioned in the second chapter, which indicate that people in various occupational and income levels differ significantly in their opinions and attitudes on a wide variety of social issues. Such differences are greatest concerning issues which obviously and directly affect people's interests. In this study, we assume that leaders, representing the high occupation and income levels, have different perceptions of community facilities than the general public.

This study will attempt to compare the types of community facilities viewed as inadequate by the powerless with those viewed as such by persons occupying strategic power positions; in other words, it seeks to indicate whether those two segments of the population have the same or different views of the adequacy of community facilities, and how they differ.

It should be emphasized that differential attitudes toward change within a community may prove a source of local conflict. Sanders stated that:

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<sup>\*</sup>"Cognitive consonance" is the characteristic of a cognitive system which refers to the internal harmony existing among the component cognitions in the system. A cognitive system is said to be high in consonance when its component cognitions are congruent. This concept is distinguished from that of "cognitive dissonance".

A pro and a con group arise to fight for or against some proposed change. Such disagreements may become bitter and result in impaired social relationships which affect community life for years to come. Oftentimes the con or anti group is fighting a losing battle, since it may be trying to resist some impersonal change which is already well under way in the larger society and is beginning to make its impact upon the local community.

Marx and Mannheim<sup>1</sup> have pointed out that actors who occupy different social statuses differ more in their perspectives than do those who occupy the same or similar statuses. Hence, the assessment of consensus among actors in different statuses is a central problem in the study of normative and social integration. For a better development of the social system, its members must operate within an atmosphere of consensus about goals and means. Amitai Etzioni,<sup>2</sup> pointed out that beliefs play an important role in decisions about means, and it is necessary to determine the degree of consensus about what means are to be used. Consensus as regards the situation represents a major emphasis in this paper.

This research will be an empirical test for some parts of Palmier's<sup>3</sup> theory on "the impermanence of power". He mentioned that every social unit (person or group) wishes at least to maintain its relative autonomy, and so must safeguard itself

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<sup>1</sup>Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations on Power, Involvement, and Their Correlates (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964), p. 130.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

<sup>3</sup>Leslie Palmiers, "The Impermanence of Power," Human Relations, 16 (1963), pp. 199-205.



against decisions taken by other autonomous social units. It is assumed that one social unit makes decisions to which another has to adjust. The first are the "directors" and the second "the directed". In this study, the influentials (or the leaders), by virtue of the fact they were perceived by persons in their social systems as leaders and persons of influence, are considered the "directors". The public is conceived as followers or "directed". Palmier asserts that directors (those in control) will attempt to maintain the "status quo" and their relative autonomy. That is, he assumes they are more satisfied than other people with things as they are and wish to maintain them as they are. Thus they will be characterized by a higher degree of "conservatism" (following the authors' meaning of liberalism and conservatism) than the public, the "directed". Moreover, such change as they do approve, will be highly selective as contrasted with approval of change generally. We further assume that business leaders will be more conservative than other types of influentials and the general public.

Some results of conservatism studies seem to be contradictory. McClosky<sup>1</sup> finds conservatism associated with low levels of education. Mayer<sup>2</sup> seems to find liberalism associated with low levels of income and occupation (and, presumably, thus with

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<sup>1</sup>H. McClosky, "Conservatism and Personality," American Political Science Review, 42 (1958), pp. 27-45.

<sup>2</sup>Kurt B. Mayer, Class and Society (New York: Random House, Inc., 1955), Chapter 7.



low education). This contradiction does not end at a case of disagreement about the effect of socio-economic factors on the attitudes of people, namely their conservative and liberal attitudes. Other investigators think that these factors have nothing to do with the attitudes of people. Russell Kirk,<sup>1</sup> in his book A Program For Conservatives, pointed out that the people whom we call "conservatives" are not restricted to any social class or any economic occupation or any level of formal education. Some are physicians, and some engine drivers, and some professors, and some clerks, and some bankers, and some clergymen. In a popular magazine, recently, he noticed a passing reference to "the rich conservatives, the well-off liberals, and the poor liberal men". He stated that this notion is nonsense. Some millionaires are fanatically radical, and some working men are fiercely conservative. Conservatism, liberalism, and radicalism are states of mind, not of the pocketbook.

Kirk, again and again, repeats his notion that conservatives are not merely a sect of political economists; the principles of conservatism are not simply economic doctrines and they are not confined to the interests of a single class. Conservatism, then, is not simply the concern of the people who have a great deal of property and influence: it is a social concept important to every man who desires equal justice and personal freedom and all the lovable old ways of humanity.

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<sup>1</sup>Russell Kirk, A Program for Conservatives (Chicago: Henry Regnery Company, 1954).

Mills,<sup>1</sup> in his book The Power Elite, does not seem very satisfied with Kirk's writings when he states:

If one cannot say that American conservatism, as represented by the men of wealth and power, is unconscious, certainly conservatives are often happily unconscious . . . . On the right and in the center, public relations fills any need for 'ideology', and public relations are something you hire. Just now, the elite of wealth and power do not feel in need of any ideology, much less an ideology of classic conservatism.

Returning to those researchers who associate conservatism and liberalism (presumably satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the existing social order) as measured in this paper, with socio-economic factors, the theories of Verne S. Sweedlun and Golda M. Crawford<sup>2</sup> concerning this issue should be mentioned. They pointed out that several conditions may give a liberal or conservative emphasis to a social group or to persons within the group. Each of these conditions is no doubt decisive in some cases, though in any group there are persons not influenced by these factors in the way that one might expect.

Sweedlun and Crawford pointed out that age, in the first place, seems to influence the individual's attitudes toward social change. Restlessness, discontent, and change are characteristics of youth but gradually decrease with advancing years. As a rule, greater age brings reluctance to try innovations and

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<sup>1</sup>Wright C. Mills, The Power Elite (New York: Oxford University Press, 1959), p. 330.

<sup>2</sup>Verne S. Sweedlun and Golda M. Crawford, Man in Society Vol. II, (New York: American Book Company, 1956), Chapter 1.

experiments. Thus, the liberals usually are found among the younger age groups, conservatives among the elders.

Kurt W. Back,<sup>1</sup> of the University of Carolina, supports this conclusion. He conducted a study of persons with proclivities to change, attempting to isolate their characteristics. He concluded that changers were men, young, better educated and persons who fitted into government programs for education and economic change.

In the second place, Sweedlun and Crawford contend, the prizes of the culture are not distributed equally among the members -- that is, there exist in any group inequalities in wealth, power and status. Some members gain and keep favored positions, but the right to these positions may be challenged by others in the group. These latter work for changes in the social order because of dissatisfaction with existing conditions and a desire for change that will bring personal benefits. Thus, those who are, or think they are, at a disadvantage within a social system may strive, under suitable conditions, to change the system. This type of liberal seeks to redistribute the prized possessions of the culture such as education, income and status. This explanation suggests that those of high education, income, and status will tend to have more conservative attitudes toward social change than the relatively deprived who have low incomes and statuses in the system.

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<sup>1</sup>Kurt W. Back, "The Change Prone Person," Revista de Ciencias Sociológicas, 2 (December, 1958), pp. 508-523.

In short, those who are in favorable positions will tend to resist efforts to change the social order. Privileged persons will tend toward conservative views; the members of society who derive benefits from the status quo will resist change.

The third determinant of liberal or conservative tone in individuals or groups, according to Sweedlun and Crawford, is education. The person who makes a careful study of any social or physical problem is likely to come up with a "solution" -- that is, study gives him a deeper insight into the situation and a tendency to advocate rational modifications may be expected to emerge to mitigate the problem. Thus, liberalism must be fed continually with ideas and plans that come from articulate and investigative persons who come to see possibility for social or physical improvement. Sweedlun and Crawford, however, do not have a clear-cut statement about the effect of education on liberal or conservative attitudes of people. They proceed to discuss the school as an institutional agency of society, to promote stability. As such an agency, the school cannot avoid the selection of materials that are drawn from group tradition and group skills, nor can it avoid exerting pressure to support the established order. By means of the schools, the cultures of the past and present are knit together and projected into the future. This process tends to preserve not only the political order but also the entire social order.

Because of these contradictory theories and findings concerning the association or nonassociation of socio-economic



factors with people's attitudes toward social change, the present study seeks additional evidence in support of either finding. It also attempts to find out whether or not there is an association between socio-economic factors and satisfaction and dissatisfaction of individuals with existing community facilities and services. We assume this is one possible measure of attitudes toward social change; those who are satisfied with the existing facilities and services, we presume, have negative attitudes toward social change and community improvement and those who are dissatisfied have positive attitudes.

Sex role is a social factor expected to have a relationship with satisfaction with the way things are. In the American culture, and in many others, there would appear to be a pronounced difference in the definition of sex roles in regard to the matter of conformity. The typical feminine role tends to be defined as involving promulgation of the conventional values of the culture, dependence upon the group, submissiveness to the male, avoidance of disagreement with others in the interests of group harmony. The typical masculine role tends to place more stress on the ideals of self-sufficiency, self-assertion, independence of thought, "standing on one's two feet and casting a shadow."<sup>1</sup>

Thus, the socially dictated meaning of the group-pressure

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<sup>1</sup>David Krech, Richard S. Crutchfield and Egerton L. Ballachey, Individual in Society (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962).



situation might be expected to differ in significant aspects for males and for females, and females might be expected to conform more readily in it. There is considerable evidence to support this prediction.<sup>1</sup> In Crutchfield's studies,<sup>2</sup> females consistently earned higher conformity scores than did males. Moreover this difference tended to get larger as the testing sessions continued.

It should be emphasized that, though females and males differ on the average in conformity-proneness, there are still very large individual differences in conformity in both groups. In the many samples of persons tested, females, like males, ranged all the way from complete independence to complete conformity in their test performance. Obviously there is much more to individual differences in conformity than is accounted for by pressures stemming from socially prescribed roles. Basic personality variables still remain. This author sees this last statement as providing some support for Kirk's theory of conservatism.

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<sup>1</sup>M. H. Applezweig and G. Moeller, "Conforming Behavior and Personality Variables," Tech. Rep., No. 8. Contract NONR 996(02). (New London, Conn.: Connecticut College, 1958). H. Beloff, "Two Forms of Social Conformity: Acquiescence and Conventionality," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 56 (1958), pp. 99-104. S. E. Asch, "Studies of Independence and Conformity. A Minority of One Against a Unanimous Majority," Psychological Monographs, 70 (1956), No. 9 (Whole No. 416). R. D. Tuddenham, "Some Correlates of Yielding to a Distorted Group Norm," Tech. Rep., No. 8. Contract NR 170-159, University of California, Berkely, 1958.

<sup>2</sup>Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, op. cit.

It is important also to note that many investigators have observed significant sex differences in persuasibility. Two findings consistently reported are of interest. First, females have been found to be more persuasible than males. Second, the correlations between personality measures and persuasibility were higher among males than among females. For example, Janis and Field<sup>1</sup> report that, whereas feelings of personal inadequacy are associated with persuasibility in male subjects, in female subjects the correlation is almost zero. This is commonly interpreted as meaning that, in the American society, the culture demands of females greater compliance with prestigious sources of information and a pattern of smooth, harmonious social relationships.

To sum up, it would seem that organized personality is a congruent system of biological and social characteristics that reflect certain patterns of social behavior. Satisfaction with the existing social order is a social characteristic that goes along with the female congruent system of personality including submissiveness, conformity and persuasibility. This paper seeks an empirical test for this proposition.

Another problem undertaken by this research is an attempt to find out the effect of length of residence, if any, on people's satisfaction with the social system. The longer the

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<sup>1</sup>I. L. Janis and P. B. Field, "Sex Differences and Personality Factors related to Persuasibility. In I. L. Janis, et. al.," Personality and Persuasibility (New Haven, Conn: Yale University Press, 1959).

period of residence of a given individual in a given community the better he becomes familiarized with its state of affairs. Moreover, the long-term residence individual tends to be characterized by a higher degree of adaptation and more adequate adjustment to the social system. Thus, he is expected to have a higher degree of satisfaction with the existing social order expressed in the 16 community facilities and services in this study.

Finally, the paper attempts to compare the two major segments of the community (general farmers and the town households) as respects dissatisfaction with community facilities and services. There is a tendency for most investigators to view the American farmers as the tradition representatives of the American culture, lovers of old lovable ways of life, and those who tend to resist alterations and social change.<sup>1</sup> Recent investigations conducted by sociologists, economists, and political scientists seem to indicate that this view of farmers as traditionalists has changed or is in the process of change.

Farmer, like businessmen and laborers, organized to meet the problem of stability when they learned from experience that they were unable to do so as individual enterprisers. They have used pressure group tactics to procure adoption of favorable governmental policy.

At first, the national government promoted agriculture

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<sup>1</sup>See for example Kirk, op. cit., p. 38.

chiefly by sponsoring agricultural education and research and co-operative marketing. The agricultural depression of the 1920's and the general economic depression of the 1930's led to a crisis for agriculture. The government responded to the needs of the farm group by adopting a comprehensive policy to give agriculture equality in a free-enterprise system with other sectors of the American economy. To achieve this purpose, the program of the government provided for production controls, parity-price payments, marketing quotas, price supports, and crop insurance.<sup>1</sup> American farmers have, with minor exceptions, supported these nontraditional measures.

Mills<sup>2</sup> stated in his book, The Power Elite, "it is widely felt that the most successful 'lobby' in the United States is the farm bloc<sup>3</sup>; in fact it has been so successful that it is difficult to see it as independent force acting upon the several organs of government. It has become meshed firmly with these organs."

What this author is trying to illustrate is the fact that farmers, as a pressure group, trying to solve farm problems according to their interests, have very much been adapted to

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<sup>1</sup>Verne S. Sweedlun and Golda M. Crawford, Man in Society, Vol. I, (New York: American Book Company, 1956), Chapter 24.

<sup>2</sup>Mills, op. cit., p. 260.

<sup>3</sup>Farm bloc is a group in the United States Congress formed by members from the Agricultural states, irrespective of party lines, to obtain agricultural legislation.



governmental programs for agriculture. Lubell<sup>1</sup> in The Future of American Politics pointed out that the memory of the depression and dread of another economic debacle seems to be the strongest single psychological force among farmers today. It is reflected in their farm operations. It may well be the strongest single factor, apart from inherited tradition, influencing their voting. He demonstrated the increasing trend of farmer liberalism by a table prepared by John Ellickson for Wallace's Farmer and Iowa Homestead. The table shows the differing democratic percentages of presidential votes in the larger Iowa cities, in towns under 10,000 population and in townships inhabited entirely by farmers. Not only have the farmers been more consistently democratic, but the voting relationship of town and country has been changing steadily. In both 1916 and 1920, there was little difference in voting between townspeople and farmers. By 1928 a wide gap had developed. Where the towns show a relatively small democratic rise over 1920, the farmers almost doubled their democratic percentage. Moreover, the farmers, up to 1948 at the end of the table, had higher democratic percentages than the townspeople.

A secondary focal point of this research is an attempt to find out the effect of socio-economic variables on lack of attitude formation. Direct contact and experience with the elements of the social order enhance the process of development and

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<sup>1</sup>Samuel Lubell, The Future of American Politics (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952).



crystallization of social attitudes. As people become familiar with the existing state of affairs in their communities, they develop favorable, indifferent, or unfavorable attitudes toward them. People's development and crystallization of social attitudes is selectively organized in congruency with their systems of cognitions and goal achievement. Leaders, relatively higher educated people, relatively higher income people, males, and long-term residents in the community are expected to have higher degrees of attitude formation as regards the condition (adequacy or inadequacy) of community facilities and services. This proposition is stated as a possible result of the fact that those segments of the population are characterized by higher degrees of organizational participation, a relatively higher level of experience, and closer contact with the elements of the social order.

In summary, this research deals with the attitudes populations manifest toward community facilities and services. Respondents' attitudes will be measured in terms of the degrees to which they express their dissatisfaction with selected community facilities and services. Comparisons will be made of attitudinal variation between various strategic segments of the population (leaders and the general public, townspeople and farm people) and various socio-economic levels. To accomplish these ends, interviews with a random sample of the population in the western part of Kansas and with the top reputational leaders who were identified in the same part of the state will be utilized.

Asserted relationships between people's attitudes toward their community facilities and the variables will be tested -- that is, between attitudes and the individual's status (leader or public), his occupation, his income, his education, his age, his sex, his length of residence in the community, and his place of residence (farm or town). In addition, the relationship between the individual's status, in terms of whether he is a leader or a public, and his degree of dissatisfaction with certain types of community facilities will also be examined.

This study seeks indications of the answers to these questions: (1) Who is the conservative? (2) Does he occupy a strategic position from which to block or facilitate change? (3) How do people react to their communities (in terms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction and conservatism and liberalism)? The significance of these questions comes from the relation of these factors or dimensions to the process of social change; particularly, the crucial role of satisfaction and dissatisfaction is implicit in much that is said about motivation, activity, and reinforcement following Talcott Parsons' writings in his book Toward a General Theory of Action.

Acquaintance with this information helps the change agent to organize his program on a more rational basis. It indicates which social class and which type of people should be emphasized as far as the process of social preparation of the people for a new or a changing situation is concerned.

A secondary purpose of this study is an identification of

the relatively more knowledgeable people regarding the condition of the existing community facilities and services. It is assumed that community knowledge is directly related to attitude formation, and lack of knowledge is lack of attitude crystallization. Socio-economic variables are the tools utilized to identify the knowledgeable and the ignorants.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND DERIVED HYPOTHESES

A study of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with community facilities is, in reality, a study of attitudes toward the existing social order. Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey<sup>1</sup> mentioned that, in coping with various problems in trying to satisfy his wants, the individual develops attitudes. He develops favorable attitudes toward objects and people that satisfy his wants. The individual will develop unfavorable attitudes toward objects and persons that block the achievement of his goals. Rosenberg<sup>2</sup> has illustrated that the sign and the intensity of feeling toward the object of an attitude are associated with what the individual believes to be its instrumental value in facilitating or blocking the achievement of goals. The study suggests that attitude objects which are seen as means of goal achievement are evaluated favorably, whereas those which are seen as sources of frustration are evaluated unfavorably. The findings also support the principle of consistency: the

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<sup>1</sup>David Krech, Richard S. Crutchfield and Egerton L. Ballachey, Individual in Society, A Text Book of Social Psychology (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), pp. 180-182.

<sup>2</sup>M. G. Rosenberg, "Cognitive Structure and Attitudinal Effect," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 53 (1956), pp. 367-372.



components of attitudes systems tend to be congruent in valence.<sup>1</sup>

Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey stated:

The individuals' attitudes may come to have "surplus" instrumental value for him. He develops his attitudes in response to problem situations -- in trying to satisfy specific wants. In so far as his attitudes are enduring systems, they remain with him and may be used by him to solve a number of different problems -- to satisfy a number of different wants. For example, a boy may require a favorable attitude toward politics merely to please his father who is a professional politician; as an adult this attitude becomes involved in satisfying his wants for power, or in achieving prestige, or in securing material gain, or in helping other people.<sup>2</sup>

Smith and White<sup>3</sup> indicate how people use their attitudes to satisfy various wants in a study of attitudes toward Russia. In this study 10 men, chosen because of their varying attitudes toward Russia, were subjected to 29 test procedures, which furnished personality descriptions as well as measuring their attitudes toward Russia. The attitudes of the men were involved in their relations with other persons and were found to play a major role in their life adjustments. In some cases these attitudes were expressed to maintain the individual's relationship with a group which he valued; in other cases they were used by

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<sup>1</sup>Valence of attitude component refers to the degree of positivity or negativity of the cognitive, feeling, or action tendency components of an attitude system. Valence may vary from extreme positivity, through a neutral valence (corresponding to the absence of a definite attitude), to extreme negativity.

<sup>2</sup>Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, op. cit., p. 181.

<sup>3</sup>M. B. Smith, J. S. Bruner and R. W. White, Opinions and Personality (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964) pp. 48-60.



the individual to differentiate him from a group, to disrupt a group, or to dominate a group.

This review of the relevant literature will be presented under four divisions: (1) theoretical background on social attitudes; (2) social class perception and social attitudes; (3) inhibition of attitude formation; and, (4) selected experimental studies.

### Theoretical Background on Social Attitudes

Large number of researchers have concerned themselves with social attitudes and considerable amount of literature exists on this topic.<sup>1</sup> Znaniecki<sup>2</sup> pointed out that changes in attitudes occurs whenever the community goes into a crisis produced by new undertakings. The so-called "mob-mind" is explained by Lorden<sup>3</sup> in saying that the mob expresses attitudes that are

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<sup>1</sup>For example, in a general review of attitudes and motives by Bain, references were included and classified into four sections as follows: attitude theory, theory and technique of measurement, overt behavior attitudes, and verbal attitudes or opinions. Sherman divided his review into four parts: definitions, theories of measurements, methods, and results. House presents a summary of the definitions of attitude as found in the sociological literature. Karpf gave a brief summary of the attitude theories of Faris, Thomas, and Mead. Dunham classified his review into six divisions: theoretical problems of attitudes; physiology of the attitude; construction of attitude scales; measurement of attitudes; studies of attitude changes; and attitudes as revealed through case analysis.

<sup>2</sup>Florian Znaniecki, "Group Crises Produced by Voluntary Undertakings," in Social Attitudes, ed. by Kimball Young (New York: H. Holt and Co., 1931), pp. 265-90.

<sup>3</sup>D. M. Lorden, "Mob Behavior and Social Attitudes," Sociology and Social Research, XIV (1930), pp. 324-31.

conventionally concealed. Warren<sup>1</sup> and Allport,<sup>2</sup> among others, believe in the organic theory of attitudes. Bain<sup>3</sup> and Symonds<sup>4</sup> represent the behavior theory of attitudes. However, the largest portion of writers seem to support the mentalic theory of attitudes. Thus Faris<sup>5</sup> believes that an attitude is a tendency or predisposition to action. He stated that "the attitude is in part the residual effect of the act, but it remains as a predisposition to certain forms of subsequent activity." Bogardus<sup>6</sup> stated "an attitude is a tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes thereby a positive or negative value." Young<sup>7</sup> thinks that an attitude is a set or a

<sup>1</sup>Howard C. Warren, Human Psychology (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), Chapter XVII.

<sup>2</sup>F. H. Allport, Social Psychology (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924), pp. 244-245.

<sup>3</sup>Read Bain, "An Attitude on Attitude Research," American Journal of Sociology, XXXIII (1928), pp. 940-957.

<sup>4</sup>P. M. Symonds, The Nature of Conduct (New York: Macmillan Co., 1928), pp. 216-239.

<sup>5</sup>Ellworth Faris, "The Concept of Social Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, IX (1925), pp. 404-409. "Attitudes and Behavior," American Journal of Sociology, XXXIV (1928), pp. 271-281. "The Concept of Social Attitudes," in Social Attitudes, ed. by Kimball Young (New York: H. Holt and Co., 1931), pp. 2-16.

<sup>6</sup>E. S. Bogardus, Fundamentals of Social Psychology (New York: Century Co., 1931), Chapters V-VI.

<sup>7</sup>Kimball Young, Social Psychology (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1930), p. 138. "Language Thought and Social Reality," in Social Attitudes, ed. by Kimball Young (New York: H. Holt and Co., 1931), pp. 100-135.

tendency to action or an anticipatory behavior. Znaniecki<sup>1</sup> seems to prefer the term "social tendency" to the term "attitude". Some researchers seem to think of attitudes in terms of "behavior patterns". Park and Burgess<sup>2</sup> stated "the clearest way to think of attitudes is as behavior pattern or units of behavior." Bernard<sup>3</sup> stated "attitudes are for the most part acquired behavior patterns having been built up out of our experiences in characteristic situations." Wolfe<sup>4</sup> and Markey<sup>5</sup> talked about attitudes as "behavior integrations". Thomas and Znaniecki<sup>6</sup> stated that an attitude is "a process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activity of the individual in the social world."

Other writers used different terminology in describing

<sup>1</sup>Florian Znaniecki, The Laws of Social Psychology (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), pp. 67-79.

<sup>2</sup>Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921), pp. 439-442.

<sup>3</sup>L. L. Bernard, Introduction to Social Psychology (New York: H. Holt and Co., 1926), pp. 247-248.

<sup>4</sup>A. B. Wolfe, Conservatism, Radicalism, and Scientific Method. An Essay on Social Attitudes (New York: Macmillan Co., 1923), pp. 9-10.

<sup>5</sup>John F. Markey, "Trends in Social Psychology," in Trends in American Sociology, ed. by Lundberg, Bain and Anderson (New York: Harper and Bros., 1929), pp. 128-135.

<sup>6</sup>W. I. Thomas and F. Znaniecki, The Polish Peasant in Europe and America, Vol. I, (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1927).



attitudes. Lumley<sup>1</sup> mentioned "susceptibility to certain kinds of stimuli and readiness to respond." North<sup>2</sup> names attitude as "the dynamic element in human activity, the motive for activity" and Thorndike<sup>3</sup> used the terms "dispositions, pre-adjustments, or sets." In the field of attitude theory, Cantril<sup>4</sup> indicated that an attitude is a general rather than a specific tendency.

Allport and Schanck<sup>5</sup> claim that attitudes, although their roots are instinctive, may be influenced by the culture but that attitude motivation is always personal. Hiller<sup>6</sup> follows Thomas and Znaniecki's conception by correlating attitudes and values and emphasizes that they are determined by the group's heritage, its present status, and its future career.

Brown<sup>7</sup> contends that an "attitude is a tendency to act in a more or less specific way toward some object," and holds that

<sup>1</sup>F. E. Lumley, Principles of Sociology (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1928), pp. 1-14.

<sup>2</sup>C. C. North, Social Problems and Social Planning (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1932), pp. 6-7.

<sup>3</sup>Edward L. Thorndike, Educational Psychology, Briefer Course (New York: Teachers College, 1917), p. 144.

<sup>4</sup>Hadely Cantril, "General and Specific Attitudes," Psychological Monographs, VIII (1932), pp. 1-109.

<sup>5</sup>G. W. Allport and R. L. Schanck, "Are Attitudes Biological or Cultural in Origin?" Character and Personality, IV (1936), pp. 195-205.

<sup>6</sup>E. T. Hiller, Principles of Sociology (New York and London: Harper and Bros., 1933), pp. 64-77.

<sup>7</sup>L. Guy Brown, Social Psychology - The Natural History of Human Nature (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1934), pp. 344-370.



attitudes are built up through action. Sutherland and Woodward<sup>1</sup> agree with Brown's definition but emphasize the close relationship of attitudes to biological drives, asserting that the former have become attached to external values through the learning process. Murray<sup>2</sup> thinks that an attitude is an obvious readiness to act in a fixed way and can be subsumed under the term "need", which is more intensive. Allport<sup>3</sup> tries to distinguish between attitudes and other forms of readiness to response: attitudes have objects, either material or conceptual; are pointed in some direction with reference to this or that object; are always inferred rather than observed; and are real and substantial ingredients of human nature. Horne<sup>4</sup> examines the nature of the attitude with respect to its object, which he defines as "any effective stimulus to which an individual may react." Stagner<sup>5</sup> mentioned that an attitude is always characterized by

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<sup>1</sup>R. L. Sutherland and Julian L. Woodward, Introductory Sociology (New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1937), pp. 195-204.

<sup>2</sup>Henry Murray, Explorations in Personality (New York: Oxford University Press, 1938), pp. 111-113.

<sup>3</sup>G. W. Allport, "Attitudes," in Handbook of Social Psychology, ed. by Clark Murchison (Worcester: Clark University Press, 1935).

<sup>4</sup>E. P. Horne, "Socially Significant Attitude Objects," Purdue University Studies in Higher Education, XXXVII (1936), pp. 117-126.

<sup>5</sup>R. Stagner and N. Drought, "Measuring Children's Attitudes Toward Their Parents," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXVI (1935), pp. 169-176.

(a) object, (b) direction, and (c) intensity. Mead<sup>1</sup> regards attitudes as the "beginnings of acts". He states:

The organization of the social act has been imported into the organism and becomes then the mind of the individual. It still includes the attitudes of others, but now highly organized, so that they now become what we call social attitudes rather than the roles of separate individuals.

For Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey<sup>2</sup> an attitude is "an enduring system of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to a social object." They talked about such terms like "action tendency component of attitude", "attitude constellation", "consonance of attitude cluster", "feeling component of attitude", "interconnectedness, attitude", "multiplexity of attitude component", and "valence of attitude component".

In this study, as stated earlier, people satisfied with community facilities and services and possessing favorable attitudes toward them are considered conservatives because they do not want to change the existing social order. Conservatism vs. radicalism or an attitude toward social change was investigated by Wolfe<sup>3</sup> who gave an extensive theoretical discussion in this

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<sup>1</sup>George Mead, Mind, Self and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934), pp. 178-179.

<sup>2</sup>Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, op. cit., p. 177.

<sup>3</sup>A. B. Wolfe, Conservatism, Radicalism and Scientific Method, an Essay on Social Attitudes (New York: Macmillan Co., 1923), pp. 175-205.

field. In an earlier study<sup>1</sup> he advocated that the motivation of radicalism takes place through one of three possible readjustments: repression, substitution and transference, and re-enforcement. Bittner<sup>2</sup> stated:

. . . In this sense only is radicalism in movements a function of personality traits and social position. Movements and their characteristics as such are not the product of the presence of these persons: to say that some social order benefits the perceived interests and cathectic drives of some persons is only half the explanation of its structure. Irrational moods and inclinations produce chaos, not order. It is necessary to show that personal attitudes are socially sanctioned and that these sanctions are social facts precisely in the sense Durkheim gave the term; that they are not felt by man is no reason to disregard their existence.

Concerning the possibility of affecting attitude changes, Znaniecki<sup>3</sup> states:

The existence of potential tendencies as attitudes and the capacity of attitudes to be empirically modified by observable influences are all we need for a scientific study of those changes in human conduct which occur while no overt actions are being performed.

Plant<sup>4</sup> regards attitudes as fixed stereotyped responses which are changed by subtly changing the environment and are never changed by the exclusive alterations of mental mechanisms within

<sup>1</sup>A. B. Wolfe, "The Motivation of Radicalism," Psychological Review, XXVIII (1921), pp. 280-300.

<sup>2</sup>Egon Bittner, "Radicalism and the Organization of Radical Movements," American Sociological Review, 28 (December, 1963), p. 939.

<sup>3</sup>Florian Znaniecki, Social Actions (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1936), p. 29.

<sup>4</sup>James S. Plant, Personality and the Culture Pattern (New York Commonwealth Fund, 1937), pp. 29-30, 83-88.



the person. Lichtenstein,<sup>1</sup> in reviewing the thirty-one studies of effect of instruction on attitudes, finds that about the same number report change as report no change. He suggests that "some means other than pencil-paper responses should be worked out to get at actual conduct in a given situation." Beck<sup>2</sup> discusses the inner dynamics of attitude changes which take place in areas where different ethnic groups come into contact. Greenfield<sup>3</sup> agrees with Katz and Stotland<sup>4</sup> that accurate prediction of attitudes or attitude probabilities must involve research into the psychological dynamics of attitude structure and change which the simple associations of external characteristics cannot themselves accurately predict. He would insist that field study of the general area of social background attitudinal correlates is necessarily a part of such sociological research.

### Social Class Perceptions and Social Attitudes

People may share class attributes which differ markedly from those of others without being particularly aware of this

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<sup>1</sup>Arthur Lichtenstein, Can Attitude Be Thought? (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1934), pp. ix-89.

<sup>2</sup>R. Beck, Change of Sentiment in Floating Personality (Stuttgart: Kohlhammer, 1938), p. 76.

<sup>3</sup>Robert W. Greenfield, "Factors Associated Attitudes Toward Desegregation in a Florida Residential Suburb," Social Forces, 40 (October, 1961), pp. 31-42.

<sup>4</sup>Daniel Katz and Ezra Stotland, "A Preliminary Statement to a Theory of Attitude Structure and Change," in Psychology: A Study of Science, ed. by Sigmund Koch (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), Study I, Vol. 3, pp. 453-456, especially.



cleavage. Moreover, thinking and conduct are not determined merely by objective position in the social order but depend in part upon the way in which people perceive and interpret their social circumstances. Mayer<sup>1</sup> pointed out that there is a large body of data on public opinion research which demonstrate conclusively that people in various occupational and income levels differ significantly in their opinions and attitudes on a wide variety of social and political issues. A number of public opinion surveys, as well as specific studies concerned with class attitudes, reveal definite correlations between opinions and income and occupation.<sup>2</sup> Mayer mentioned that such differences are greatest concerning issues which obviously and directly affect people's interests. Thus, persons at lower income and occupational levels typically hold more 'liberal' or 'radical' socio-political views--favoring government control of business, the extension of governmental welfare activities, strong labor unions and greater social security--than members of higher occupational and income groups. For example, a question asked by

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<sup>1</sup>Kurt B. Mayer, Class and Society (New York: Random House Inc., 1955).

<sup>2</sup>Arthur W. Kornhauser, "Analysis of 'class' Structure of Contemporary American Society: Psychological Bases of Class Division," Industrial Conflict, ed. by George W. Hartmann and Theodore Newcomb (New York: Cordon, 1939), pp. 230-250; Alfred Winslow Jones, Life, Liberty and Property (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1941); Richard Centers, The Psychology of Social Classes (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949); Herman M. Case, "An Independent Test of the Interest-Group Theory of Social Class," American Sociological Review, 17 (December, 1952), pp. 751-755.

Richard Centers<sup>1</sup> of a representative national cross section of the adult white male population inquired whether "the working people" should be given more power and influence in government. Among the results, it was found that 74% of the large business answered "disagree" while only 25.3% of the semiskilled manual gave the same answer, and 24.1% of the large business answered "agree" while 65.5% of the semiskilled manual were agreed.

There is also convincing evidence, following Mayer, that class divisions in attitudes and opinions are translated into political activity and expressed through the ballot. Studies of voting behavior indicate that in recent decades party preferences have been closely related to the occupational and income characteristics of voters.<sup>2</sup> The higher income groups generally support the traditionally more conservative Republican Party, while lower income groups fairly consistently prefer the Democrats, the party more sharply identified with reforms and social change.

Another evidence of the coexistence of sharp class cleavages

<sup>1</sup>Centers, op. cit., Table 9, p. 60.

<sup>2</sup>Kornhauser, op. cit., and Centers, op. cit., pp. 65-69. See also Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson and Hazel Gaudet, The People's Choice (New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 1947); Gerhart H. Saenger, "Social Status and Political Behavior," American Journal of Sociology, 51 (September, 1945), pp. 103-113; Angus Campbell, Gerald Gurin and Warren E. Miller, The Voter Decides (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1945); Alfred DeGrazia, The Western Public: 1952 and Beyond (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1954); and Bernard R. Berelson, Paul F. Lazarsfeld and William McPhee, Voting (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954).

in opinion with a common value system extending widely through different classes is provided by an investigation of attitudes toward corporate property rights undertaken in Akron, Ohio, in 1938-39 by Alfred W. Jones.<sup>1</sup> Selecting a "crucial" rather than a "typical" community, a one-industry city where industrial conflict had been intense and had resulted in sit-down strikes of the rubber workers in 1936, Jones found that the views of the industrial executive and business leaders toward corporate property were closely consistent with their economic positions. The attitudes of manual workers organized in the CIO also reflected in some measure their objective life conditions, but less than among the business leaders. Between those two extremes of wealthy and powerful businessmen on the one hand and the rubber workers organized by the CIO on the other, there was a wide divergence of attitudes toward corporate property. While many individuals seemed drawn toward the extremes, nevertheless a predominant tendency existed toward a moderate, middle-of-the-road point of view widely shared by persons of diverse occupations and income levels.

Mayer pointed out that perception and awareness of prestige arrangements not only vary from one type of community to another but are affected by the location of people in the status structure. Several community studies indicate that local status arrangements are conceived quite differently by individuals on

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<sup>1</sup>Jones, op. cit.



different levels of the prestige hierarchy. Members of top-ranking local status groups, who "look down" upon all other members of the community, generally see the whole community as divided into definite prestige groups, differentiating precisely between the various levels. Those near the middle of the prestige order usually do not discriminate as finely between "new" and "old" upper-class groups as do the top groups themselves, while lower-class people frequently lump all upper and upper-middle status groups together.

When people belong to different social classes, they belong to different groups. Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey<sup>1</sup> stated that the group affiliations of the individual play a vital role in the formation of his attitudes. Both the membership groups with which the individual affiliates and the membership groups to which he aspires to belong are important in shaping his attitudes. But the individual does not passively absorb the prevailing attitudes in the various groups to which he affiliates. Attitude like cognitions, develop selectively in the process of want satisfaction. The individual will pick and choose among the attitudes offered to him those which are want-satisfying. Every individual affiliates with many groups, which may endorse congruent or incongruent attitudes. Thus, the effect of group influences on the formation of attitudes is indirect and complex. These studies also indicated that for the rank-and-file

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<sup>1</sup>Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, op. cit., p. 191.



citizen, political attitudes mainly reflect primary group influences. There is little or no connection between an individual's stand on specific political and social issues, his party identification, his political behavior and his more general attitude toward change--his conservative or liberal ideology.

Sweedlun and Crawford<sup>1</sup> contend that the prizes of the culture are not distributed equally among the members "of different social classes" -- that is, there exist in any group inequality in wealth, power or status. Some members gain and keep favored positions, but the right to these positions may be challenged by others in the group. These latter work for change in the social order because of dissatisfaction with the existing conditions and a desire for changes that will benefit themselves. Thus, those who think they are at a disadvantage within a social system may strive under suitable conditions to change the system. This type of liberal seeks to redistribute the prized possessions of the culture such as education, income and status.

On the other hand, those who are in favorable positions resist such efforts to change the social order. The structural arrangements of society, therefore, lead to the development of conservatism in privileged persons and members of society who derive benefits from the status quo resist change. Putney<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Verne S. Sweedlun and Golda M. Crawford, Man in Society, Vol. II, (New York: American Book Company, 1956), Chapter 1.

<sup>2</sup>Snell Putney, "Radical Innovation and Prestige," American Sociological Review, 27 (August, 1962), p. 548.

supported this view by stating that

in many sociological and anthropological theories of change, prestige leaders are viewed as tending to be conservative, for the simple reason that they had a vested interest in the status quo. It is further assumed if members of the elite do advocate radical change, they will forfeit their prestige.

Barnett<sup>1</sup> has developed this idea considerably in his work on innovation. He contends that "a reputation is an obligation to conform, and it permits little freedom in advocating novel ideas . . . . Radical departures, those which exceed the bounds of expectability for their originators, must be advocated at the risk of prestige loss." Barnett states further that this risk of prestige loss ". . . is one important reason why the elite are seldom in the vanguard of cultural change."

Education, as an important characteristic of social class, is presumed to be effective in forming and shaping people's perception and attitudes toward different social, political and economic issues. Sweedlun and Crawford<sup>2</sup> pointed out that education is a determinant of liberal or conservative tone in individuals or groups. They stated:

A person who makes a careful study of any social or physical problem is likely to come up with a "solution" -- that is, his study gives him a deeper insight into the situation and a tendency to advocate change. Thus, liberalism must be fed continually with ideas and plans that come from articulate and investigative persons who seek possibilities for social and physical improvement.

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<sup>1</sup>Homer G. Barnett, Innovation: The Basis of Cultural Change (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953).

<sup>2</sup>Sweedlun and Crawford, op. cit., p. 6.

In the same context, Sweedlun and Crawford mentioned that the school, as an institutional agency in society, generates conservative forces. It can not avoid the selection of materials that are drawn from group tradition and group skills, nor can it avoid pressure to support the established order. By means of schools, the cultures of the past and present are knit together and projected into the future. This process tends to preserve not only the political order but also the entire social order. In this connection, McClowsky<sup>1</sup> conducted research on "conservatism and personality" in 1958. He concluded that conservatism is not a preferred doctrine of the intellectual elite, but the reverse; conservative beliefs are found most frequently among the unformed, the poorly educated and the less intelligent.

Russell Kirk,<sup>2</sup> in his book, A Program for Conservatives, pointed out that the people whom we call "conservatives" are not restricted to any social class or any economic occupation or any level of formal education. Some are physicians, and some engine drivers, and some professors, and some clerks, and some bankers, and some clergymen. In a popular magazine recently, he noticed a passing reference to "the rich conservatives, the well off liberals, and the poor liberal men." He stated that

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<sup>1</sup>H. McClowsky, "Conservatism and Personality," American Political Science Review, 42 (1958), pp. 27-45.

<sup>2</sup>Russell Kirk, A Program for Conservatives (Chicago: Henry Regnery Company, 1954).

this notion is nonsense. Some millionaires are fanatically radical, and some working men are fiercely conservatives. Conservatism, liberalism and radicalism are states of mind, not of the pocket book. Conservatism is something more than mere solicitude for tidy incomes.

Monk and Newcomb<sup>1</sup> conducted research on perceived consensus in relation to occupational classes in 1956. The study presents a partial report of how perceptions of the attitudes of members of occupational groups, and communication with members of such groups, are related to an individual's own attitude. In terms of the theoretical basis for this study, they concluded that the bases for perceived similarity between personal attitude and the modal attitude of groups are both "realistic" (i.e., based upon information received via communication) and "autistic" (i.e., based upon desired similarity).

#### Inhibition of Attitudes

This study, it will be recalled, deals with respondents' inabilities to express attitudes toward the community as well as their attitudes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with it. In this research, inhibition of attitudes is defined as lack of an attitude expression (a "don't know" response). This, we believe, is largely a result of deficient information about the

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<sup>1</sup>Mark Monk and Theodore Newcomb, "Perceived Consensus Within and Among Occupational Classes," American Sociological Review, 21 (February, 1956), pp. 71-79.



social environment. Attitudes, according to the literature, are formed through the processes of socialization, education, and experience, and differences in attitudes stem from differential socialization, education and experience. Different segments of the population are expected to have different levels of knowledge about the elements of the social system because they are differently socialized, educated and experienced.

Gresham M. Sykes<sup>1</sup> conducted research on factors influencing knowledge of persons' communities. He pointed out that as income levels rise the proportion of knowledgeable individuals increases. When his sample was dichotomized into those earning \$5000 or more per year, and those earning less, the former group showed a significantly higher percentage of knowledgeable people. However, it was those earning \$2000 or less per year who were primarily responsible for the relatively smaller percentage of knowledgeable people in the less than \$5000 per year group.

Occupational classifications were made on the basis of the United States Census groupings. In general, as occupational status declined, the proportion of high scores became smaller. When occupational statuses were grouped, the two highest categories (professionals, proprietors, managers, and officials) showed a significantly higher proportion of high scores than did semiskilled workers and lesser ranked occupations.

In testing education, the sample showed a significantly

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<sup>1</sup>Gresham M. Sykes, "The Differential Distribution of Community Knowledge," Social Forces, 29 (May, 1951), pp. 376-382.

consistent increase in the percentage of knowledgeable individuals with an increase in the educational level, until the group "completed college" was reached, at which point the proportion decreased slightly. When grouped by those having completed high school or less, and those having some college or more, the higher educational level group showed a significantly higher proportion of high scores.

These findings suggest that (1) a certain amount of education is essential for the acquisition of community knowledge, but that this level is soon reached (approximately some high school); (2) educational level is importantly associated with the level of community knowledge within the context of lower economic status, but not within the context of relatively higher economic status; and (3) there is a tendency for the highest educational levels (completed college and beyond) to have a lower level of community knowledge than the educational level immediately below.

In testing length of residence, a more or less consistent increase was evident in the proportion of high scores as the length of residence increased. When grouped by categories of (a) those having lived in the community more than 10 years, and (b) those having lived in the community less than 10 years, there was significantly greater proportion of knowledgeable persons in the group of longer term residence.

## Selected Experimental Studies

A study on "attitude crystallization"<sup>1</sup> was reported by Olsen.<sup>2</sup> It was designed as a broad exploratory investigation of the phenomenon of attitude crystallization. No explicit hypotheses were formulated to be tested. Instead, the original goal was simply to discover whether any other social characteristics were significantly related to attitude crystallization. Out of fourteen factors, sex, age, education, occupation, and income were tested. It was found that there were no significant relationships between attitude crystallization and occupation, education or income. So the author concluded that attitude crystallization is not directly related to social stratification.

Another study conducted by Madigan<sup>3</sup> in three barrios in Mindanao is one of a series of reports published by the Community Development Research Council of the University of Philippines. The primary purpose of this study was apparently to

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<sup>1</sup>Attitude crystallization scores were obtained by doubling over the distribution of liberalism-conservatism scores. A person of high attitude crystallization was defined as being liberal or conservative in 5 or 6 of the areas. A person of medium crystallization was either liberal or conservative in 4 areas, and a person of low crystallization was liberal in three and conservative in three. These scales measured liberalism-conservatism with respect to freedom of speech, international relations, domestic politics, racial integration, moral problems, and religious beliefs.

<sup>2</sup>Marvin E. Olsen, "Liberal-Conservative Attitude Crystallization," The Sociological Quarterly, III (January, 1962), pp. 17-26.

<sup>3</sup>Francis C. Madigan, The Farms Said No (Quezon City: Community Development Research Council, University of Philippines, 1962). Study Series No. 14, 359 pp.

develop a procedure by which a community development workers might predict the extent to which individuals are likely to cooperate with the community development workers in carrying out development projects. The criterion of cooperativeness was a score on a resistance scale. The relationships between a series of 21 factors and the resistance score were examined. These factors were suggested either by theoretical considerations or by persons with practical experience in community development work and they include a wide range of types of variables: for example sex, education, size of farm, social class position, office holding, income, leadership ideals, and authoritarian personality. The relationship between a number of independent variables such as education, income, size of farm and the resistance score is quite similar to relationships found in the American studies of the adoption of recommended farming practices.<sup>1</sup> Those concerned with community development work will find it encouraging that not only those who have formal leadership positions but also those who have leadership appeal have relatively low resistance scores. The resistance score for those who prefer democratic leadership are lower than the scores of those who prefer authoritarian leadership. Similarly, individuals who perceive themselves in a social class position either higher or lower than that indicated by objective measures

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<sup>1</sup>Herbert F. Lionberger, Adoption of New Ideas and Practices (Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State University Press, 1961), pp. 96-106.



such as income and occupation have higher resistance scores than those who are more accurate in the perception of their class position.

In 1960, Lystad<sup>1</sup> conducted a study titled "Institutionalized Planning for Social Change." In this study of an organization which plans for change in the field of social welfare, it was found that those functions which directly initiate community changes were less frequently engaged in than those functions which primarily set the stage for overcoming resistance to change, i.e., public relations functions. It was also found that committee members, who by virtue of their higher social status in the community had more vested interests in the status quo, were less in favor of such planning activities than were the staff members who have less vested interest in the status quo.

In dealing with additional studies concerning the relationships between socio-economic factors and attitude, Stagner<sup>2</sup> explored attitudes toward fascism among college students and found this group not so conscious of middle-class interests as antagonistic to liberal or radical measures favoring the lower classes. Age, sex, and intelligence were not significant

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<sup>1</sup>Mary H. Lystad, "Institutionalized Planning for Social Change," Sociology and Social Research: An International Journal, 44 (January-February, 1960).

<sup>2</sup>R. Stagner, "Fascist Attitudes: An Exploratory Study," Journal of Social Psychology, VII (1936), pp. 309-319.

factors, but the economic factor was.<sup>1</sup> Wilke<sup>2</sup> maintains that radical attitudes of students show no relation to age, although women are slightly more radical than men. Fay and Middleton<sup>3</sup> studied the relationship between liberal-conservative attitudes of college students and such factors as father's vocation, size of town, father's political preference, sex, college class, fraternity membership, and major subject. Students who came from the country and cities over 500,000 and whose fathers were socialists were the most liberal in political outlook. Seniors, male students, and nonfraternity students were the most liberal. Lentz<sup>4</sup> in studying similar attitudes, argued for the validity

<sup>1</sup>R. Stagner, "Fascist Attitudes: Their Determining Conditions," Journal of Social Psychology, VII (1936), pp. 438-454.

<sup>2</sup>W. H. Wilke, "Student Opinion in Relation to Age, Sex and General Radicalism," Journal of Social Psychology, VII (1936), pp. 244-248.

<sup>3</sup>P. J. Fay and W. C. Middleton, "Certain Factors Relating to Liberal and Conservative Attitudes of College Students. I. Father's Occupation; Size of Town," Journal of Social Psychology, XI (1940), pp. 91-105; P. J. Fay and W. C. Middleton, "Certain Factors Relating to Liberal and Conservative Attitudes of College Students. II. Father's Political Preference; Presidential Candidates Favored in 1932 and 1936 Elections," Journal of Social Psychology, XI (1940), pp. 107-119; P. J. Fay and W. C. Middleton, "Certain Factors Relating to Liberal and Conservative Attitudes of College Students: Sex, Classification, Fraternity Membership, and Major Subject," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXX (1939), pp. 378-390.

<sup>4</sup>T. F. Lentz, "Generality and Specificity of Conservatism-Radicalism," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXIX (1938), pp. 540-546.

of the concept of general conservatism, while Nelson,<sup>1</sup> in administering the Lentz conservative-radical questionnaire to college students of four state universities, found a slight tendency toward conservatism, although Seniors were less conservative than Freshmen. In addition, he reported that the more liberal students came from homes of teachers and social workers and that father's vocation was more significant as an influence upon student attitudes than was class in college.

The North Carolina Experiment Station published a study titled "Factors Associated with the Acceptance of Health Care Practices Among Rural Families."<sup>2</sup> The following general hypothesis was tested: there is an association between indices of social and economic status and the adoption of recommended health care measures by rural people. In this exploratory study, the general procedure consisted of constructing an index of adoption of recommended health care measures, which was considered to be the dependent variable. This index was then related to a series of social and economic independent variables. Among the results of this study, it was found that, in terms of occupation, those households with heads having clerical and kindred work as major

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<sup>1</sup>E. Nelson, "Radicalism-Conservatism in Student Attitudes," Psychological Monographs, L (1938), pp. 1-32; E. Nelson, "Father's Vocation and Certain Student Attitudes," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXXIV (1939), pp. 275-279.

<sup>2</sup>This paper was published with the approval of the Director of Research as paper No. 862 of the Journal series of the North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station. See Rural Sociology, 23 (June, 1958), pp. 198-206.



occupation had the highest median adoption score in health practices (53) and those with heads in professional and managerial work were very similar in adoption score (52). Next to these groups were skilled and semiskilled workers and then common laborers and farm operators. Those households in which the head's major occupation was housewife had a median adoption score of only 16. In terms of age of male head, it was found that the median adoption score was highest for households whose male head was in the 35-44 age category. Those 25-34 years were similar in score (49) and then were followed by those in 45-54 age group with a median adoption score of 42. Those households with lowest median scores (16) had heads 65 years of age and over. Results concerning age of female head were found to be similar to those of male head. In terms of education of household heads, there was a positive association between education of the male and also the female head with median index score of adoption of recommended health practices. Those households with the female head having under five years of formal schooling had a median score of 25 while those in which the female head completed one or more years of college had a median adoption score of 54. It was also found that adoption scores increased directly with income. Those households with socio-economic scores<sup>1</sup> under 70 and those of 70-79 were alike in having adoption scores of 33. There

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<sup>1</sup>Socio-economic status was measured by the short form of Sewell's socio-economic status scale. For details see: William H. Sewell, "A Short Form of the Farm Family Socio-economic Status Scale," Rural Sociology, VIII (1943), pp. 160-170.



was an increase in median adoption score (50) for the highest status households.

In the following two studies, the relationship between conservatism, traditionalism and adoption of new practices could be observed. In the first study, conducted by Hoffer and Dale,<sup>1</sup> a survey was made of 93 Michigan farmers who grew 5 or more acres of corn in 1955. The purpose was to find out if they used certain approved practices in corn growing and, if they did not, what was the reason for their failure to do so. Special attention was given to attitudes and values in relation to the adoption of a practice. The results showed that if a farmer was efficient, had initiative, and was progressive, he was likely to adopt approved practices. On the other hand, if he tended to be conservative and valued security highly he would postpone the adoption of a practice or possibly never adopt it. Therefore, it could be inferred from this study that when a farmer was conservative there would be a tendency to reject system change.

In the second study, conducted by Ramsey, Polson, and Spencer,<sup>2</sup> 12 value orientations were tested for their relationship to two scales of practice adoption. One adoption scale in-

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<sup>1</sup>Charles R. Hoffer and Dale Stangland, "Farmer's Attitudes and Values in Relation to Adoption of Approved Practices in Corn Growing," Rural Sociology, 23 (June, 1958), pp. 112-120.

<sup>2</sup>Charles E. Ramsey, Robert A. Polson and George E. Spencer, "Values and the Adoption of Practices," Rural Sociology, 24 (March, 1959), pp. 35-47.

volved behavioral adoption of four practices applicable to dairy farming, and the other involved knowledge, critical evaluation, and the use of lime. Significant linear negative relationships were found between the behavioral adoption scale and two of the value orientations: security and traditionalism. Significant linear relationships were found between the lime scale (cognitive adoption) and five value orientations: positive relationships with achievement, science and material comfort and negative relationships with security and traditionalism.

Abma<sup>1</sup> pointed out that the introduction of rational organization, the appointment of experts and full-time employees, and the contact with the influence of the outside world have not only reduced the intensity of bonds between villagers but have also changed their character. Villagers no longer meet and do things together as members of the village community but as members of one or the other of the special interest associations or in their occupational pursuits.

In a theoretical discussion of regional attitudes, Bernard<sup>2</sup> pointed out that the differences between the farmers and the city dwellers lies in their judgements and attitudes which they

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<sup>1</sup>Ernst Abma, "Participation in Community Services: A Case Study of the Health Service," Sociologia Ruralis, 1 (Spring, 1960), pp. 43-49.

<sup>2</sup>L. L. Bernard, "A Theory of Rural Attitudes," American Journal of Sociology, XXII (1917), pp. 630-649.

have built out of experience and training. Steiner<sup>1</sup> described and illustrated the changes from conservatism to liberalism in the rural community which are largely due to industrialism and modern communication.

The following study, conducted by Jyrkila,<sup>2</sup> illustrates the movement of liberalism into rural communities. A pilot study of recipients of welfare aid was undertaken during the summer of 1958 in 23 Finnish communities, of which 9 were cities, 6 market towns, and 8 agricultural communities. Data were collected by means of observation and personal interviews. It is usually accepted that the way of life in rural areas is more conservative than in urban, and the old habits and customs are more persistent in villages than in big cities. However, when the answers of the applicants for social benefits were analysed according to their residence in cities and in rural areas, it appeared that those living in the purely agrarian areas expressed, in fact, the more modern ideas. Relatively, more of those living in the countryside than of those in cities said that the community is responsible for the needy, quite contrary to expectations. Recent policies in respect of subsidies and allowances has favored people living in the countryside. This might well

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<sup>1</sup>J. F. Steiner, "Village Mores in Transition," in Social Attitudes, ed. by Kimball Young (New York: H. Holt and Co., 1931), pp. 166-187.

<sup>2</sup>Faina Jyrkila, "Conflict of Norms and the Behavior of Recipients of Social Welfare Assistance in Finland," Sociologia Ruralis, 1 (Spring, 1960), pp. 36-41.

be the reason for the seemingly greater acceptance by the rural applicants of the responsibility of the state in this matter. It might, of course, be a sign of the rapid social change which is taking place in the agricultural areas.

The greater acceptance of the new norms by the rural applicants can also be seen from their answers to a question about "reluctance" or "readiness" in going to the welfare office. Rural applicants less frequently (62%) than urban applicants (81%) felt it "difficult" to apply for relief. The strength of the old norms can be gauged from the reasons these people gave as to why they felt it "difficult" to apply. In this respect no significant difference was apparent between applicants from cities and from countryside.

One may no longer assume that farmers are the strongest supporters of tradition in contemporary American society. Hamilton<sup>1</sup> wrote an article titled "The Sociology of a Changing Agriculture." He mentioned that the methods of farming were largely traditional ones passed on from father to son and from neighbor to neighbor. He contends, writing about the role of the federal government, that long before the first world war social unrest was growing among American farmers. Movements to correct economic injustices and to alleviate undesirable living conditions led to such organizations as the Grange, The Farmers Union, The Farmers Equity Society, and others which Carl C.

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<sup>1</sup>Horace C. Hamilton, "The Sociology of a Changing Agriculture," Social Forces, 37 (October, 1958), pp. 1-7.



Taylor has described and analyzed in his contribution "The Farmers Movement". Agricultural unrest in this early period also led to some radical political activity which reached a high peak in the Populist Movement.

The inclination to search for political solutions to agricultural problems led to the invention of the farm relief plans of the 1920's and to the New Deal Programs of the 1930's. But even earlier, the drive to improve agriculture and rural living had led to the establishment of federal-state public programs for agricultural research, vocational education, and the present strong Agricultural Extension Service. Other public developments included the rural postal service, the federal farm credit system, and federal aid for public highways.

The same article involved some indications that farmers, as well as non-agricultural people, have long believed, and are constantly reminded, that the application of science and modern technology in agricultural and industrial production provides the major means of raising levels of living and of achieving other elements of the good life. The rapid adoption of mechanization and technology in agricultural production and rural living has been and is continuing to be a dominant factor in the American changing agriculture.

#### A Perspective on Attitudes

In concluding this chapter, attitudes are defined as acquired tendencies or predispositions to respond, act, think,

perceive or feel, in a certain way to given stimuli. Attitudes serve as "set" inner controls which are manifested as activities repeated in response to similar situations. Attitudes are distinguished from other types of mentalic responses in that they are pointed in some direction with reference to this or that object. Individual's attitudes differ in direction and intensity.

Attitudes are called social because they develop in a highly organized patterns built up through experience in characteristic situations congruently with the attitudes of significant others. Attitude development is very much affected by an individual's reference groups to which he may or may not belong. When a member of a group faces a certain situation, he responds to it according to a structure of attitudes that he brings from the group situation.

Another explanation of the social nature of attitudes is the inference that they are affected by the individual's position in the social system and his socio-economic characteristics which influence his choice of reference groups. These forces, affecting the development of social attitudes, are important determinants of the individual's behavior.

Social attitudes are affected by social class identifications. When people belong to different social classes, they belong to different groups. Both membership groups with which the individual affiliates and the membership groups to which he aspires to belong are important in shaping and crystallizing his

attitudes. An individual's attitudes, representing those of his group, are assumed to be affected by social forces developed as a result of his socio-economic characteristics, his system of values, and his aspired goals.

"Inhibition of attitudes is defined as lack of an attitude expression (a don't know response). This, we believe, is largely a result of deficient information about the social environment. This concept is affected by the process of socialization, education and contact with the elements of the social order.

#### Derived Hypotheses

The hypotheses which will guide this research, derived from the literature, are as follows:

1. Business leaders are more satisfied with their community facilities and services than other types of leaders, and also more so than the general public. Thus, following the study's definition of the terms "conservative" and "liberal", the first group will have more conservative attitudes than other leaders or the general public.

2. Middle income people are more satisfied with their community facilities and services than either upper or lower income people.

3. Older people are more satisfied with existing community facilities and services than younger groups. That is, older people will be more conservative than younger people.

4. There is an inverse relationship between level of

achieved education and degree of satisfaction with community facilities and services.

5. Younger and better educated persons tend to have more liberal attitudes toward change of existing state of community facilities and services than the older and less educated persons.

6. Males are less satisfied with community facilities and services than females.

7. Open country and town residents do not differ significantly in their degrees of conservatism regarding community facilities and services.

8. There is a positive correlation between the length of time persons have lived in communities and the degree of satisfaction they express with community facilities.

9. There is a negative correlation between leader's and public's views of the inadequacy of community facilities and services. That is, those items about which leaders are most concerned will be those about which the public is least concerned and vice versa.

10. There is a positive correlation between the views of town households and those of open country dwellers as to the inadequacy of community facilities and services.

11. The same segments of population residing in different geographical areas will have positively correlated views of the inadequacy of their community facilities and services.

12. Community facilities and services differ in their



degree of visibility from one area to another. Thus, following this proposition, it is expected that the same segments of population residing in different areas have significantly differing degrees of knowledge and ignorance about their community facilities and services.

13. Higher prestige people are more knowledgeable about the existing state of affairs than lower prestige people. Thus, it is expected that leaders have significantly more knowledge about the condition of their community facilities and services than the general public residing in the same community.

14. Males are more knowledgeable about community facilities and services than females.

15. Older people are more knowledgeable about community facilities than younger people.

16. Long-term residents in communities have a higher degree of knowledge about their community facilities and services than short-term residents.

17. People of higher educational levels have more knowledge about their community facilities and services than those of lower educational levels.

18. People of higher family incomes have a higher degree of community knowledge than those of lower family incomes.

## CHAPTER III

### A STATEMENT OF METHOD

The methods used in this study will be described in three main sections: (1) the data and the samples; (2) the variables and calculation of community facilities and services dissatisfaction scores; and (3) analysis.

#### The Data and The Samples

The data used in this study were collected for the Area Development project at Kansas State University, sponsored by Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station, in 1962 and 1963. These data include samples of the publics residing in two major geographical areas of the state and of the influentials or leaders. The public samples are of two types of residents: those living in the towns and those living in the open country within the designated geographical territories. The sampling techniques are briefly set forth in the following paragraphs.

Town households, Northwest Kansas.--A 3% random sample was taken of households in all incorporated towns in the Colby trade area (The trade area is the part enclosed in the dotted line on the map, Fig. 1). A 1% sample of households was taken in all Northwest Kansas incorporated towns outside the Colby trade area. There were 56 respondents in the Colby area, and 62 in

NORTHWEST KANSAS AREA  
1963

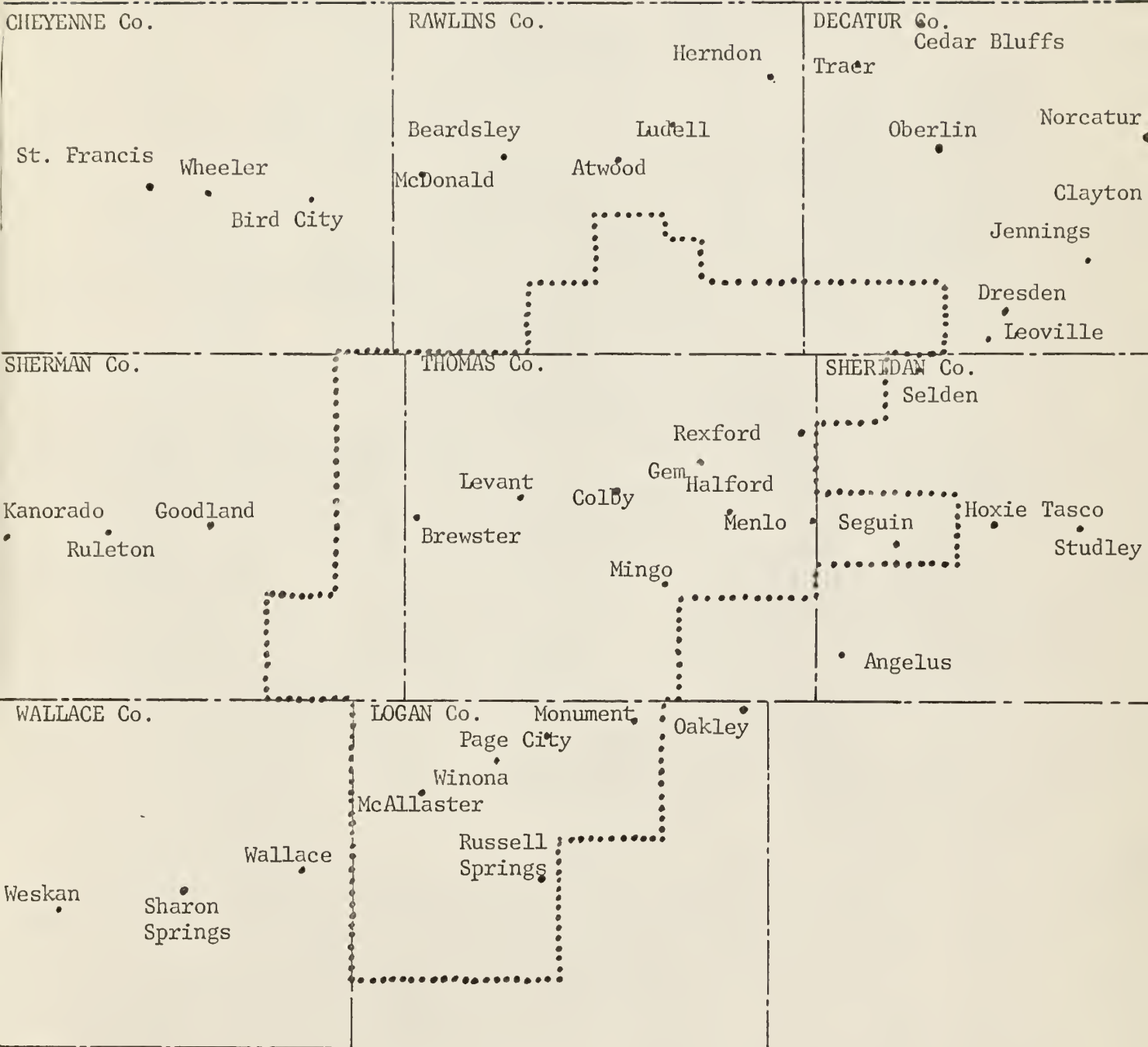


Fig. 1

the outer area, a total of 118 town households. Of these, 100 gave completely usable responses on the items with which this study is concerned; these respondents constitute the sample utilized.

Open-country households, Northwest Kansas.--A 3% random sample was taken of all farmers in the Colby trade area and a 1% random sample of farmers outside the Colby trade area. All were given the general farm schedule and half, chosen randomly, were given the household schedule which includes the items on which this study is focused. The farm sample for the Northwest area is 29 farm households of which 14 were in the Colby trade area and 15 were from the remaining territory delineated on the map. Of these sampled respondents, 4 did not give complete answers concerning the variables under study and were not included in the analysis. Thus, the number of Northwest Kansas open country dwellers handled in this research is 25.

Town households, Southwest Kansas.--A random sample was taken of the households in all incorporated towns in the Garden City trade area. The towns where interviews were taken, with the number of interviews and the percentage of households sampled are:

<u>Town</u>	<u>Number taken</u>	<u>% of households</u>
Garden City	50	1.25
Lakin	18	4.00
Deerfield	11	8.00
Copeland	8	10.50
Ingalls	5	8.00
Sublette	15	4.00
Satana	15	5.00
Total	<u>122</u>	



Thirteen of these respondents gave incomplete answers concerning the variables in study; thus, the number upon which this study is based is 109 households.

Open-country households, Southwest Kansas.--A 4% random sample was taken of all farmers in the Garden City trade area. Approximately half (chosen randomly) were given household schedules. The number in the general farm sample was 77 respondents; the number given the household schedule was 39. Six of the latter group did not give complete answers on the items being analyzed in this study and were excluded, making the sample number analyzed 33 respondents.

Community leaders.--The leadership sampling was accomplished by a technique first devised by Samuel Stouffer<sup>1</sup> and modified by Dakin.<sup>2</sup> A list of the names and addresses of all persons occupying those of 28 key community positions in every community located within the survey areas was secured. These key positions included 14 principal positions representing nearly all major sectors of the organized culture and 14 alternate positions, each of which represented the same sector of the culture as the corresponding principal position. In addition, the names and addresses of three area key positionals was secured; those

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<sup>1</sup>Samuel Stouffer, Communism, Conformity and Civil Liberties (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1955).

<sup>2</sup>This description of the modified technique is taken from an unpublished paper, "Leadership Patterns in Area Development," presented by Professor Dakin at the Great Plains Resources Economics Committee Community Development Workshop, Manhattan, Kansas, April, 1964.

SOUTHWEST KANSAS AREA  
1962

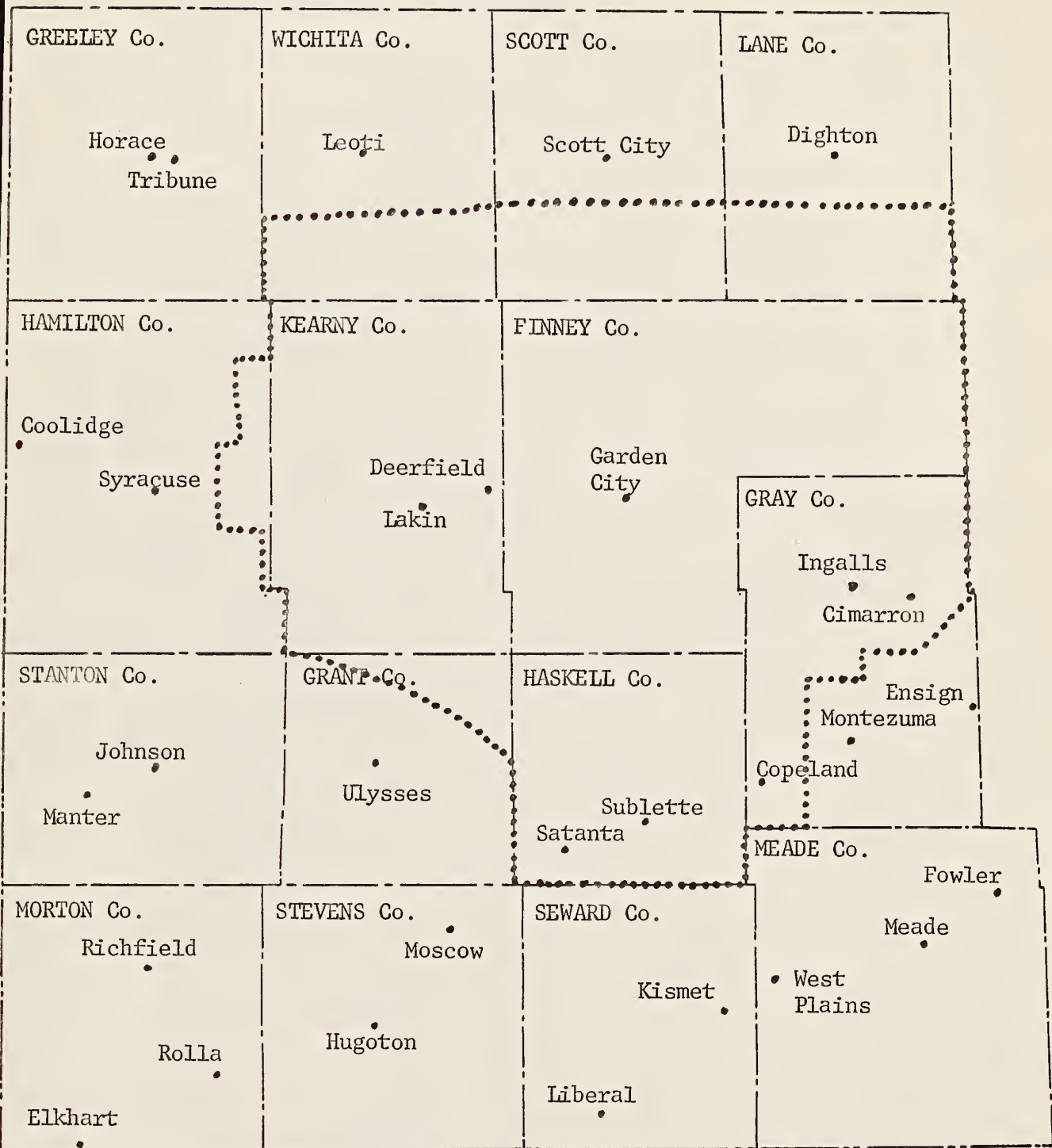


Fig. 2

persons seemed to be in a position to have an area-wide perspective on leadership because of their wide-ranging contacts. The list of community and area positionals was as follows.

### Community Positionals

<u>Principal Key Positionals</u>	<u>Alternates</u>
1. Mayor	1. City Commissioner
2. President, Chamber of Commerce	2. President, largest bank
3. President, largest local labor union	3. Local labor union officials
4. President, local bar association	4. President, local medical association
5. Chairman, library board	5. President of art, dramatic, historical, or musical society
6. Chairman, school board (h.s. preferred)	6. President or chairman, local PTA
7. Commander, largest American Legion Post	7. Head local VFW, AVC, or other veterans organization
8. Minister, largest Protestant Church	8. Minister, second largest Protestant Church
9. Priest, largest Catholic parish	9. Assistant to Priest
10. Chairman, local Community Chest	10. Head, local Red Cross
11. President, Kiwanis	11. President of Rotary, Lions, or other service club
12. Editor, largest newspaper	12. Assistant editor, largest newspaper
13. Society editor, largest newspaper	13. Assistant to society editor, largest newspaper
14. President, largest women's club	14. President, second largest women's club

### Area Positionals

1. The County Chairman of the two major political parties.
2. The County Agent.

Alternates were the next ranking officials of the parties and the leading assistant to the County Agent.

In every community, letters were sent to each of the principals to be found in that community, or to their appropriate alternate whenever the principal positional did not exist in the community, and also to each of the area positions. When these persons failed to respond to the letter or to a single mailed follow-up, personal interviews were sought with them by field workers in the area. If interviews were not possible, appropriate alternates were contacted. The letters (or interviews) sought the following information:

- (1) identification of key leaders residing within the designated area;
- (2) identification of key leaders residing outside of the survey area who could work effectively on development projects for the area with the leaders of the area;
- (3) identification of a key development project undertaken in the area in recent years;
- (4) identification of an important development project which was proposed, but never undertaken.

The objectives of this phase of the area leadership research were (a) to identify persons who had outstanding reputations for effective leadership, and (b) to identify the two important development projects about which the area leaders would later be questioned to gain some insight into how things get done or blocked.

It was anticipated that a large number of persons would be mentioned once or twice and that a few persons would be mentioned numerous times in answer to the five leader identification



questions.<sup>1</sup> It seemed necessary and desirable to interview only those 40 to 60 persons whose names were mentioned most frequently. Those persons, Dakin assumed, were the top area leaders in terms of their reputations for acceptability and influence. This technique was employed in both areas of Kansas being studied.

In the Southwest Kansas area, 41 such persons, residing within the designated area, were identified. These persons were

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<sup>1</sup>The questions were: (1) Suppose a major project was before the people of the Southwest Kansas area, one that required decisions by a group of leaders nearly every one in the area would accept. Which people within the survey area shown on the enclosed map would you choose to make up this group -- regardless of whether or not you know them personally? (2) In most places, certain people are said to be "influential behind the scenes" and to have a lot to say about programs that are planned, projects and issues that come up. What persons in the survey area are influential in this way? (3) If a decision were to be made in the state capital that directed influenced the Southwest Kansas area, who would be the best contact man from the area you could send to get in touch with state officials? (4) Suppose the people of the Southwest Kansas area wanted a hearing before federal officials in Washington on some matter affecting them, who besides their local Congressman do you think should be selected to present their case? (5) Are there other people with whom the leaders you have mentioned work closely who have not been named so far, but who should be included in any complete list of important leaders whose decisions affect development of this area? These five questions, to identify influentials, had been successfully employed on prior research on influentials. [See R. O. Schulze and L. V. Blumberg, "The Determination of Local Elites," The American Journal of Sociology, 63 (November, 1957), pp. 290-296.]

All mentions of names in answer to these five leader identification questions were noted. Each by a community key positional was given a weight of 1 point; each by an area key positional was given a weight of 2 points. The totals for all names mentioned were tabulated and the top 40 to 60 were selected for interview. The exact number of top influentials to be interviewed in any given area was, of course, determined by the breaking point in the frequency distribution.

mentioned a total of 443 times for an average of 10.8 mentions each by the key positionals. The range was from 5 mentions to 51 mentions.<sup>1</sup>

In the Northwest Kansas area, 50 such top influentials were identified. These persons were mentioned a total of 1262 times for an average of 25.24 mentions each by the key positionals.

The characteristics of the respondents (leaders and sampled public--townspeople and open-country) are indicated in the following tables.

SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE  
LEADERS OF SOUTHWEST AND NORTHWEST KANSAS

1. Age

Area	Number of Respon- dents	Less than 40		40-60		Above 60		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	45*	4	8.89	31	68.89	10	22.22	100.00
Southwest Kansas	36*	11	30.56	15	41.67	10	27.78	100.01
Totals	81	15	18.52	46	56.79	20	24.69	100.00

\*The analysis includes only 45 of the 50 identified influentials in Northwest Kansas and only 36 of the 41 in Southwest Kansas because the others did not give sufficiently complete information on the variables being analyzed to be useful in this study.

<sup>1</sup>The majority of the mentions (55.1%) were "nonlocal". That is, the majority of the mentions of influentials were by positionals living in towns in the area other than the hometown of the persons mentioned. In fact, only one of the 41 influentials obtained all of his votes from positionals living in his hometown. In contrast, 24 of the influentials received half or more of their mentions from positionals residing in other communities. This would seem to attest to the fact that the influentials whom Dakin identified had area, as contrasted to local, reputations.

## 2. Education

Area	Number of Respondents	0-7		8-12		13-16		Over 16		Total Per-cent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	45	1	2.22	11	24.44	20	44.44	13	28.89	99.99
Southwest Kansas	36	0	0.00	11	30.56	21	58.33	4	11.11	100.00
Totals	81	1	1.23	22	27.16	41	50.62	17	20.99	100.00

## 3. Income

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than \$3000		\$3000-\$9999		\$10000-\$20000		Over \$20000		Total Per-cent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	45	0	0	0	0	17	37.78	28	62.22	100.00
Southwest Kansas	36	0	0	0	0	9	25.00	27	75.00	100.00
Totals	81	0	0	0	0	26	32.10	55	67.90	100.00

## 4. Occupation

Area	Number of Respondents	Business Men		Other than Business Men		Total Per-cent
		No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	45	17	37.78	28	62.22	100.00
Southwest Kansas	36	13	36.11	23	63.89	100.00
Totals	81	30	37.04	51	62.96	100.00

## 5. Length of Residence

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than 10 years in Comm.		10 years and over		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	45	2	4.44	43	95.56	100.00
Southwest Kansas	36	3	8.33	33	91.67	100.00
Totals	81	5	6.17	76	93.83	100.00

SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF TOWN HOUSEHOLDS OF NORTHWEST AND SOUTHWEST KANSAS

## 1. Age

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than 40		40-60		Above 60		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	100	35	35.00	36	36.00	29	29.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	109	44	40.37	40	36.70	25	22.94	100.01
Totals	209	79	37.80	76	36.36	54	25.84	100.00



## 2. Education

Area	Number of Respondents	0-7		8-12		13-16		Over 16		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	100	6	6.00	71	71.00	15	15.00	8	8.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	109	12	11.01	58	53.21	30	27.52	9	8.26	100.00
Totals	209	18	8.61	129	61.72	45	21.53	17	8.13	99.99

## 3. Income

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than \$3000		\$3000-\$9999		\$10000-\$20000		Over \$20000		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	100	17	17.00	68	68.00	13	13.00	2	2.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	109	9	8.26	78	71.56	18	16.51	4	3.67	100.00
Totals	209	26	12.44	146	69.86	31	14.83	6	2.87	100.00

## 4. Occupation

Area	Number of Respondents	Business Men		Other than Business Men		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	100	20	20.00	80	80.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	109	24	22.02	85	77.98	100.00
Totals	209	44	21.05	165	78.95	100.00

## 5. Length of Residence

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than 10 years in Comm.		10 years and over		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	100	31	31.00	69	69.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	109	19	17.43	90	82.57	100.00
Totals	209	50	23.92	159	76.08	100.00

SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS  
OF A SAMPLE OF OPEN COUNTRY HOUSEHOLDS  
IN NORTHWEST AND SOUTHWEST KANSAS

## 1. Age

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than 40		40-60		Above 60		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	25	6	24.00	14	56.00	5	20.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	33	10	30.30	21	63.64	2	6.06	100.00
Totals	58	16	27.59	35	60.34	7	12.08	100.00

## 2. Education

Area	Number of Respondents	0-7		8-12		13-16		Over 16		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	25	0	0.00	23	92.00	2	8.00	0	0	100.00
Southwest Kansas	33	1	3.03	22	66.67	10	30.30	0	0	100.00
Totals	58	1	1.72	45	77.59	12	20.69	0	0	100.00

## 3. Income

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than \$3000		\$3000-\$9999		\$10000-\$20000		Over \$20000		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	25	3	12.00	17	68.00	3	12.00	2	8.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	33	2	6.06	17	51.52	12	36.36	2	6.06	100.00
Totals	58	5	8.62	34	58.62	15	25.86	4	6.90	100.00

## 4. Occupation

Area	Number of Respondents	Business Men		Other than Business Men		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	25	0	0	25	100.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	33	0	0	33	100.00	100.00
Totals	58	0	0	58	100.00	100.00

## 5. Length of Residence

Area	Number of Respondents	Less than 10 years in Comm.		10 years and over		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	
Northwest Kansas	25	5	20.00	20	80.00	100.00
Southwest Kansas	33	7	21.21	26	78.79	100.00
Totals	58	12	20.69	46	79.31	100.00

By examining the preceding tables, it is observed that different geographical locales vary in the distribution of population in terms of socio-economic variables. In comparing Northwest Kansas leaders with those in the southwestern part of the state, more are concentrated in the middle age group, more are at the highest level of education, they have a relatively lower level of income than in the southwest area and they tend to be characterized by longer-term residence in their communities than such leaders of Southwest Kansas.

Comparing the distributions of town households of Northwest with those of Southwest Kansas, it is observed that the first population category is characterized by a relatively higher representation of older people in the sample, relatively lower levels of education, relatively lower levels of income, and relatively shorter-term residence in their communities than was the public of Southwest Kansas.

Comparing the open country households residing in Northwest



with those of Southwest Kansas, it is observed that the first group is characterized by a relatively higher percentage of older people, relatively lower levels of education, relatively lower levels of income, and a slightly longer-term residence in the community than the second group.

Comparing the three segments of the population (leaders, town households, and open country dwellers), it is observed that leaders, like open country dwellers, are concentrated in the middle age group, whereas town households have a relatively higher representation in the younger age group. Leaders have much higher levels of education than the town households and the latter are relatively more educated than open country dwellers. There is much higher representation of town households in the lowest level of education. Leaders are characterized by substantially higher levels of income than town households. Open country dwellers have relatively higher levels of income than town households, but less than leader's. Leaders are characterized by relatively higher representation in business occupations than town households. No farmers in the sample are businessmen. Leaders have the longest length of residence in their communities, next are the open country dwellers, and town households are the least.

#### Selection of Variables and Calculation of "Dissatisfaction Score"

Many factors affect the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction people express with the existing social order. These

factors differ in their nature. Some of them are social, others economic, and some may be personality related factors. The major interest of this study is social factors. However, economic factors are of secondary interest.

The main dependent variable in this study is the "dissatisfaction score"; the secondary one is "community knowledge". There are 9 independent variables to be tested against "dissatisfaction score": sex, age, occupation, formal full-time education, length of residence in community, income, place of residence (whether town or open country), individual status (whether "public" or "leader"), and Kansas area (Northwest or Southwest). Six of these will be tested against "community knowledge". They are: sex, area, age, prestige (in terms of public or leader), education, length of residence, and income.

For better understanding, the portion of the questionnaire handling these variables will be presented. These questions, exactly as asked, are given in the following paragraph. The same questions were asked of the town and farm respondents, but with a slightly different arrangement.

1. What is the household head's name and address.

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(Name, head of household) (Street of RFD) (Town or city)

What do you refer to as your hometown when you are away from the area?

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3. Please list all places of residence of the household head during the past ten years (1953-1963). List the year or years of each residence beginning with the most recent place of residence. List residence from the present to 1953.

(1) Year or Years	(2) Place of Residence			(3) Type of Residence		(4) Why Did You Move?
	Town	County	State	Town	Open Country	
to 1963						XXXXXXXXXXXX

Dissatisfaction scores were calculated from replies to a question dealing with perception of community facilities and the degree to which the respondent is knowledgeable or familiar with the state of existing community facilities and services. This question was presented in a similar way to the leaders and the public samples. The following method was used to calculate a dissatisfaction score for each respondent: (1) sum the number of community facilities and services, checked "inadequate", (2) sum the number of items checked "adequate", (3) total the "inadequate" plus the "adequate" responses, (4) divide the number of items checked "inadequate" by the total of all items rated and multiply by one hundred. This score expresses the proportion of rated items with which the respondent is dissatisfied.



Please check the present condition of each listed community facility and service in your hometown. For those you consider inadequate, check the priority they should have for future development.

Facility or Service	Present Condition				Need for Future Development		
	Ade- quate	Inad- equate	Don't Need	Don't Know	Low Prior- ity	High Prior- ity	Don't Know
1. Welfare services for aged, children, disabled							
2. Parking areas							
3. Zoning regulations							
4. Water for industrial use							
5. Waste disposal (sewage etc.)							
6. Family housing							
7. Employment exchange or clearing house							
8. Streets and roads							
9. Police protection							
10. Fire protection							
11. Medical care in case of illness							
12. Employment opportunities							
13. Industrial development							
14. Retail stores & marketing facilities							

(Continued.)

Facility or Service	Present Condition				Need for Future Development		
	Ade- quate	Inad- equate	Don't Need	Don't Know	Low Prior- ity	High Prior- ity	Don't Know
15.School facilities							
16.Night school for adults							
17.Extension programs (4-H, ag. & home economics)							
18.Library services							
19.Religious programs for young people							
20.Commercial recrea- tion (bowling, movies, etc.)							
21.Public parks, pic- nic areas and sports facilities							
22.Swimming facilities							
23.Recreation center for teenagers							
24.Youth organiza- tions (Scouting, 4-H etc.)							
25.Adult leaders to serve youth groups							
26.Community beauti- fication							
27.Street lighting							

## Analysis of Data

The purpose of this section is to indicate how the data were utilized to test the hypotheses. Generally, the following tests were used in the analysis: (1) multiple regression coefficient, (2) analysis of variance, (3) Spearman's rank order correlation, (4) Chi-Square test.

The following presentations indicate how each individual hypothesis was tested.

In the first hypothesis, it was proposed that business leaders, as one category, would be more conservative than other types of leaders and also more so than the general public. The data were grouped into 4 categories: nonbusiness-public, non-business-leaders, business-public, and business-leader. Analysis of variance with 4 treatments was undertaken, the F-value was calculated and tested for significance. The mean dissatisfaction score (the measure of liberalism in this study) for each of the 4 groups was also calculated to show the tendency or direction.

In the second hypothesis, it was proposed that middle income people would be more satisfied with community facilities and services than either upper or lower income people. To test this hypothesis, the sample observations were divided into three groupings after putting income in order of magnitude, each representing a third of the observations. A three treatments table was constructed for an analysis of variance; the F-value was then calculated and tested for significance. Again, mean

dissatisfaction scores for each group were also calculated to show tendencies.

The third hypothesis specified that older people are more satisfied with existing community facilities and services than younger people. A partial correlation coefficient was run to test the relationship between age and dissatisfaction score.

In the fourth hypothesis, it was proposed that there would be an inverse relationship between amount of education and degree of satisfaction with community facilities and services. Multiple regression analysis was used to test this hypothesis. The advantage of this test is control of other variables that may obscure the effect of education on degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the existing social order. A multiple regression coefficient was calculated to test the relationship between the two variables in this specific hypothesis and all pair possible combinations of the variables used in this research. One function of this step is to direct attention toward points where further analysis may be needed.

In the fifth hypothesis, it was proposed that young and better educated persons would have more liberal attitudes than older and less educated persons. The data were placed into 4 categories: people below 50 years of age having completed 12 years of formal full-time education or less, people below 50 years of age having completed 13 years of formal full-time education or more, people above 50 years of age with 12 or less years of formal full-time education, and people above 50 years



of age with 13 or more years of formal full-time education. A 4 treatment analysis of variance table was constructed; the F-value was calculated and tested for significance. Mean dissatisfaction scores were again calculated for every category.

In the sixth hypothesis, males were assumed to be less satisfied with community facilities and services than females. A two treatment table was constructed for an analysis of variance (male dissatisfaction and female dissatisfaction); the F-value was calculated and tested for significance and the mean dissatisfaction scores were also calculated for both categories.

The seventh hypothesis specified that open country and town residents do not differ significantly in their degrees of conservatism regarding community facilities and services. To test the hypothesis open country people are as dissatisfied (as liberal) as town households are, the data were grouped into two categories: open country (all farmers by occupation) and town households. A two treatment table was constructed for an analysis of variance; the F-value was then calculated and tested for significance. Mean dissatisfaction scores were also calculated for the two categories.

The eighth hypothesis, concerning the relationship between length of residence and degree of dissatisfaction with community facilities and services, was tested by running a multiple regression analysis as previously discussed.

The ninth hypothesis contended there would be a negative rank order correlation between leader and public views of the

inadequacy of community facilities and services. To test this hypothesis, all inadequate votes for each community facility and service were recorded and totalled separately for the leader and the public samples. In addition, so that area comparisons could be made, the perceptions of the leaders were totalled separately for the Southwest and Northwest Kansas areas. After totalling all inadequate votes for every single community facility and service as perceived by those leaders, the items were ranked from 1 to 16; rank order number 1 represents the most inadequate community facility as viewed by those leaders, and number 16 represents the least inadequate community facility or service as perceived by them.

The same process was undertaken for the public's perception of the same community facilities and services. For further comparison within the public, the process of totalling inadequate votes for each item was undertaken separately for each category of the public (namely town households of Northwest and those of Southwest and open country dwellers of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas); these were then aggregated to form the public's general perception of inadequate community facilities and services.

After establishing the item ranks, Spearman's coefficient of linear correlation was applied to compare the perception of leaders and publics. Moreover, the following rank order comparisons were conducted: town households of Southwest vs. town households of Northwest, open country dwellers of Southwest and

those of Northwest, town households of Northwest and open country dwellers of Northwest, town households of Southwest and open country dwellers of Southwest, and leaders of Southwest and leaders of Northwest Kansas. These provide the test of hypotheses 10-12. To further clarify the presentation of results, the percentage of inadequate votes for every individual community facility or service by each of different categories of people was calculated.

The following presentation is an illustration of the method of testing community knowledge against selected socio-economic factors. These are area, prestige, sex, age, length of residence, education and income. To indicate the way the data were handled, the test of association between age and community knowledge will be discussed.

The data were grouped into two categories: those below and those above the mean age level, namely those 20-49 years of age and those 50 or more. It was mentioned before that the respondents were asked about their views of 16 selected community facilities and services. For each facility or service, respondents were asked to choose one of four answers: "adequate," "inadequate," "don't need" or "don't know." The number of "don't know" votes of all respondents under 50 on all items was totalled and then the same thing was done for all respondents 50 and older. Then the number of "adequate", plus "inadequate" plus "don't need" votes of all respondents under 50 and those 50 and over were separately totalled. Finally, a two by two Chi-Square table was constructed from these totals to test the association

between extent of knowledge of community facilities and services and age. The calculated Chi-Square value was tested for significance. Similar analyses were undertaken to test the association between community knowledge and the other variables.

Groupings of data to test these variables were as follows. To test "area" against community knowledge, the data were categorized into leaders of Northwest and leaders of Southwest Kansas, publics of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas. In case of prestige, the data were divided into leaders as representing higher prestige people and publics as representing lower prestige people. For testing "length of residence" against community knowledge, it was considered that those who have been in their community less than 10 years are short period residence people and those who have been there 10 years or more are long period residence people. In the case of education, it was considered that those who had 0-12 years of formal full-time education represent the lower educated portion of the sample and those who had 13 years or more represent the higher educated portion. In the case of income, those who had less than \$6500 as annual total family income were chosen to represent the lower income people and those who had \$6500 or more represent the higher income portion of the sample. The last three categorizations of variables seemed reasonable because they dichotomized the data into two roughly equal parts.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The results of testing hypotheses will be presented in this chapter in the same sequence as the hypotheses were presented in chapter I. Discussion of the findings will be deferred until chapter V. The presentation of results is undertaken in four parts: (1) selected socio-economic variables in relation to dissatisfaction with community facilities and services; (2) rank order correlation between different segments of the population and dissatisfaction with certain community facilities and services; (3) community knowledge and selected socio-economic variables; (4) other findings.

#### Selected Socio-economic Variables in Relation to Dissatisfaction with Community Facilities and Services

Occupation and Dissatisfaction Score.--It was hypothesized that business leaders would be more satisfied (more conservative) than other types of leaders or the general public. The respondents were therefore placed in a category on the basis of (a) the sample in which they were included (leader or public) and (b) their occupation (business or nonbusiness). Thus, four categories emerged. They were: business leaders, nonbusiness leaders, business publics and nonbusiness publics. To classify a

respondent as "business" or "nonbusiness" was not a simple matter. In general, the category termed "managers, officials and proprietors, except farm" as designated by the Bureau of the Census was employed. However, public officials and administrators, postmasters, inspectors and the like were excluded and bank cashiers were included. Also, editors, even though they were also publishers were deemed professionals and thus excluded. In general, those classified as "business" were those utilizing owned, partially owned, or leased property (resources) except farmland for profit-making purposes and high officials in such endeavors.

A primary test was undertaken to find out whether or not there is a tendency to support or contradict the proposition that business people are significantly more conservative than nonbusiness people. Controlling the other variables (age, sex, education, income, length of residence, and status in terms of leader or public) under scrutiny, a multiple regression analysis was completed on the general effects of the business occupational affiliation for all respondents. Then, an analysis of variance was completed to treat the data in terms of the categories specified by the hypothesis.

- (a) Correlation between occupation in terms of business and nonbusiness, and score of dissatisfaction with community facilities and services.

Partial correlation =  $-.0923$

Critical or tabulated partial correlation is

.107<sup>1</sup> for the sample size and number of variables.

Thus, it is concluded that there is no significant correlation between business or nonbusiness occupation and dissatisfaction score. However, there is a consistent observable tendency for businessmen to have lower dissatisfaction scores than nonbusinessmen as shown in Table 2.

Table 1.--(b) Analysis of variance of dissatisfaction scores for four categories of population classified on the basis business or nonbusiness occupation and prestige. (The four categories are: 1. nonbusiness public; 2. nonbusiness leader; 3. business public; and 4. business leader.)

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares
Treatments	3	1246.988	415.662
Error	344	111575.550	324.347
Total	347	112822.530	325.137

$$F_c^* = 1.282$$

$$F_t(3, 344) > 1.28$$

It is concluded that there is no significant difference in the score of dissatisfaction with community facilities and services for these four population categories. Mean dissatisfaction scores for each category are given in the following table.

<sup>1</sup>See G. W. Snedecor, Statistical Methods (Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State University Press, 1962), p. 174.

\*The notations used are:  $F_c$  = calculated value of F;  $F_t$  = tabulated value of F at the .05<sup>c</sup> level of significance.

Table 2.--Number of Respondents and Mean Dissatisfaction Scores for four categories of the Population represented in the sample.

Category of Population	Mean of Dissatisfaction Score	Number of Respondents
Nonbusiness public	25.3335	223
Nonbusiness leaders	22.7471	51
Business public	20.5145	44
Business leaders	21.1960	30

Income and Dissatisfaction Score.--It was hypothesized that middle income people would be more satisfied (conservative) than people at either income extreme. Results are given on a partial correlation and then an analysis of variance, following the same line of reasoning as in testing the preceding hypothesis.

(a) Partial Correlation between income and dissatisfaction score =  $-.0374$

Critical or tabulated Partial Correlation =  $.107$

It is concluded that there is no significant correlation between level of income and score of dissatisfaction with community facilities and services; but, there is a tendency toward a negative relationship. That is, the dissatisfaction score tends to decrease as the respondents level of income increases.



Table 3.--(b) Table of Analysis of Variance of Dissatisfaction Score for Three Categories of Population Classified on the Basis of Income. (The three categories are high income people, middle income and low income people.)

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares
Treatments	2	699.765	349.882
Error	345	112122.770	324.994
Total	347	112822.535	325.137

$$F_c = 1.077$$

$$1.077 < F_t(2, 345)$$

It is concluded that there is no significant difference between the dissatisfaction scores of respondents of different levels of income. It was mentioned before that there is tendency for negative correlation between these two variables. This tendency is illustrated in the following table.

Table 4.--Number of Respondents and Mean Dissatisfaction Scores for Three Categories of the Population Represented by the sample.

Category of Population	Mean of Dissatisfaction Score	Number of Respondents
Low Income People	25.4389	113
Middle Income People	24.4719	121
High Income People	22.0378	114

Age and Dissatisfaction Score.--It was hypothesized that older people are more satisfied (more conservative) than younger

people. Results are given on a partial correlation.

Partial Correlation between age and dissatisfaction score =  $-.210$

Critical or tabulated partial correlation =  $.107$

It is concluded that there is significant negative correlation between age and dissatisfaction score. Analysis of variance was not run because a significant relationship between the two variables (age and dissatisfaction score) was detected by the multiple regression analysis.

Level of Education and Dissatisfaction Score.--It was hypothesized that there is an inverse relationship between level of achieved education and degree of satisfaction (conservatism) with community facilities and services. Results are given on a partial correlation analysis.

Partial Correlation between education and dissatisfaction score =  $-.021$

Critical or tabulated partial correlation =  $.107$

It is concluded that there is no significant correlation between level of achieved education and dissatisfaction score.

It was proposed that the young and better educated people would tend to have more liberal attitudes (and thus higher dissatisfaction score) than the older and less educated persons. The respondents were placed in one of four categories on the basis of (a) age and (b) level of achieved education. The categories were: relatively older and relatively more educated, relatively older and relatively less educated, relatively

younger and relatively more educated and relatively younger and relatively less educated. Results are given on an analysis of variance.

Table 5.--Table of Analysis of Variance of Dissatisfaction Score for Four Categories of Population Classified in Terms of Age and Education. (The four categories are: 1. younger and lower educated; 2. younger and more educated; 3. older and lower educated; and 4. older and more educated people.)

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares
Treatments	3	4451.868	1483.96
Error	344	108370.670	315.03
Total	347	112822.530	325.13

$$F_c = 4.71$$

$$4.71 > F_t(3, 344)$$

It is concluded that there are significant differences in the dissatisfaction scores of these categories. The following table presents mean dissatisfaction scores for all categories and the number of respondents in each.

Table 6.--Number of Respondents and Mean Dissatisfaction Scores for Four Categories of Population.

Segment of Population	Mean of Dissatisfaction Score	Number of Respondents
Younger and lower educated people	28.8763	102
Younger and more educated people	24.7574	81
Older and lower educated people	20.9959	114
Older and more educated people	19.6812	51

To specify which mean dissatisfaction scores differ significantly an L.S.D. (Least Significant Difference) test was run. The results were:

	Mean of Dissatisfaction Score	Difference between means	L.S.D.
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Younger and lower educated people	28.8763		
Older and more educated people	19.6812	9.1951**	5.966
Younger and lower educated people	28.8763		
Older and lower educated people	20.9959	7.7804**	4.729
Younger and lower educated people	28.8763		
Younger and more educated people	24.7574	4.1189*	5.166
Younger and more educated people	24.7574		
Older and more educated people	19.6812	5.0762*	6.213

It is concluded that younger and lower educated people are significantly more dissatisfied than older and more educated people, younger and lower educated people are significantly more dissatisfied than older and lower educated people, there is no significant difference between mean dissatisfaction scores of younger lower educated and younger more educated people, and finally, there is no significant difference between mean dissatisfaction scores of younger more educated and older more educated

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\*\*Significant difference between means.

\*Nonsignificant difference between means.



people.

Sex and Dissatisfaction Score.--It was hypothesized that males are more dissatisfied with community facilities and services than females. Results are given on an analysis of variance.

Table 7.--Table of Analysis of Variance of Dissatisfaction Score for Two Categories of Population (males and females).

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares
Treatments	1	29.72	29.72
Error	346	112792.81	325.99
Total	347	112822.53	325.14

$$F_c = .091$$

$$.091 < F_t(1, 346)$$

It is concluded that there is no significant difference between dissatisfaction score of males and females. Mean dissatisfaction scores for each category are presented in the following table.

Table 8.--Number of Respondents and Mean Dissatisfaction Scores for Two Categories of Population, Males and Females.

Category of Population	Mean of Dissatisfaction Score	Number of Respondents
Males	24.0716	322
Females	22.9600	26

Place of Residence and Dissatisfaction Score.--It was hypothesized that open country and town residents do not differ significantly in their degree of satisfaction (conservatism). Results are given on an analysis of variance.

Table 9.--Table of Analysis of Variance of Dissatisfaction Score for Two Categories of Population (open country and town residents).

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares
Treatments	1	191.59	191.59
Error	265	91472.28	345.18
Total	267	91663.87	344.60

$$F_c = .555$$

$$.555 < F_t(1, 256)$$

It is concluded that there is no significant difference between dissatisfaction score of town households and open country dwellers. Mean dissatisfaction scores for each category are presented in the following table.

Table 10.--Mean Dissatisfaction Scores and Number of Respondents of Two Categories of Population.

Category of Population	Mean of Dissatisfaction Score	Number of Respondents
Town households	24.0932	209
Open Country dwellers	26.1474	58

Length of Residence in Community and Dissatisfaction

Score.--It was hypothesized that there is a positive correlation between length of residence in the community and degree of satisfaction (conservatism). Results are given on a partial correlation.

Partial Correlation between length of residence and dissatisfaction score =  $-.085$

Critical or tabulated partial correlation =  $.107$

It is concluded that there is no significant correlation between length of residence in community and dissatisfaction score, but there is a tendency for a negative correlation.

Testing Rank Order Correlation of the Inadequacy  
of Community Facilities and Services as Viewed  
by Different Segments of Population

The results of this section will be presented in a way to indicate how leaders and the public samples rank different community facilities according to inadequacy, how different selected segments of population do so within a given geographical area of Kansas, and how the same selected segments of population do so in the two different areas of the state. In each instance, the relevant hypothesis is presented, then the results of the test, and finally, a conclusion concerning support or rejection.

It was hypothesized that there is a negative correlation between leader's and public's views of the inadequacy of community facilities and services.

Table 11.--Spearman's Rank Order Correlation, Relationship between Leader's and Public's View to the Inadequacy of 16 Community Facilities and Services.

Community Facility or Service	Ranking of the Inadequacy of Comm. Facil. and Serv.		d	d <sup>2</sup>
	For Leaders	For Public		
Community beautification	4.00	6.00	-2.00	4.00
Water for industrial use	13.00	12.50	.50	.25
Streets and roads	10.50	5.00	5.50	30.25
Police protection	14.00	9.00	5.00	25.00
Fire protection	13.00	10.00	3.00	9.00
Welfare services	8.00	14.00	-6.00	36.00
Medical care	6.00	4.00	2.00	4.00
School facilities	10.50	11.00	-.50	.25
Library facilities	5.00	8.00	-3.00	9.00
Commercial recreation	7.00	3.00	4.00	16.00
Swimming facilities	9.00	7.00	2.00	4.00
Recreation for teenagers	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Youth organizations	16.00	15.00	1.00	1.00
Zoning regulations	3.00	12.50	-9.50	90.25
Extension programs	15.00	16.00	-1.00	1.00
Employment opportunities	1.00	2.00	-1.00	1.00

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

$$r_s = 0.6588^*$$

There is substantial positive correlation between leader's and public's views as to the relative degree of inadequacy of the various community facilities and services which were studied. Since a negative correlation was expected, the hypothesis is rejected.

It was hypothesized that there is a positive correlation

\*Low correlation (.2 to .4), Substantial correlation (.4 to .7), High correlation (.7 and over).



between the views of town households and those of open country dwellers as to the inadequacy of community facilities and services.

Table 12.--Spearman's Rank Order Correlation, Relationship between Town Households and Open Country Dwellers' Views to the Inadequacy of 16 Community Facilities and Services in Northwest Kansas Area.

Community Facility or Service	Ranking of the Inadequacy of Comm. Facil. and Serv.		d	d <sup>2</sup>
	Town House- holds	Open Country Dwellers		
Community beautification	4.50	5.50	-1.00	1.00
Water for industrial use	13.00	11.50	1.50	2.25
Streets and roads	6.00	3.50	2.50	6.25
Police protection	8.00	10.00	-2.00	4.00
Fire protection	11.50	7.00	4.50	20.25
Welfare services	11.50	14.50	-3.00	9.00
Medical care	4.50	5.50	-1.00	1.00
School facilities	14.00	8.50	5.50	30.25
Library facilities	7.00	11.50	-4.50	20.25
Commercial recreation	3.00	3.50	-.50	.25
Swimming facilities	10.00	8.50	1.50	2.25
Recreation for teenagers	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Youth organizations	16.00	14.50	1.50	2.25
Zoning regulations	9.00	13.00	-4.00	16.00
Extension programs	15.00	16.00	-1.00	1.00
Employment opportunities	1.00	2.00	-1.00	1.00

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

$$r_s = .8265$$

There is high positive correlation between the views of town households and those of open country dwellers in Northwest Kansas as to the relative degree of inadequacy of the community facilities and services enumerated. These data support the

hypothesis.

A second test of the preceding hypothesis is presented in the following table.

Table 13.--Spearman's Rank Order Correlation, Relationship between the Views of Town Households and those of Open Country Dwellers to the Inadequacy of Community Facilities and Services in Southwest Kansas Area.

Community Facility or Service	Ranking of the Inadequacy of Comm. Facil. and Serv.		d	d <sup>2</sup>
	Town House- holds	Open Country Dwellers		
Community beautification	8.00	5.50	2.50	6.25
Water for Industrial use	11.50	12.00	-.50	.25
Streets and roads	4.00	5.50	-1.50	2.25
Police protection	9.00	11.00	-2.00	4.00
Fire protection	10.00	7.25	2.75	7.56
Welfare services	11.50	14.33	-2.83	8.01
Medical care	5.00	4.00	1.00	1.00
School facilities	13.00	7.25	5.75	33.06
Library facilities	7.00	7.25	-.25	.06
Commercial recreation	1.50	2.00	-.50	.25
Swimming facilities	6.00	7.25	-1.25	1.56
Recreation for teenagers	1.50	1.00	.50	.25
Youth organizations	15.00	14.33	.67	.45
Zoning regulations	14.00	13.00	1.00	1.00
Extension programs	16.00	14.33	1.67	2.79
Employment opportunities	3.00	3.00	.00	.00

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

$$r_s = .8990$$

There is a high positive correlation between the views of town households and those of open country dwellers of Southwest Kansas as to the relative inadequacy of community facilities and services. This test also supports the hypothesis and it is

therefore, accepted.

It was hypothesized that the same segments of population residing in different geographical areas will have positively correlated views to the inadequacy of their community facilities and services.

Table 14.--Spearman's Rank Order Correlation, Relationship between the Views of Leaders of Southwest and those of Northwest Kansas to the Inadequacy of Community Facilities and Services in Northwest and Southwest Kansas.

Community Facility or Service	Ranking of the Inadequacy of Comm. Facil. and Serv.		d	d <sup>2</sup>
	Southwest	Northwest		
	Leaders	Leaders		
Community beautification	4.00	3.00	1.00	1.00
Water for industrial use	14.50	7.00	7.50	56.25
Streets and roads	12.00	8.33	3.67	13.47
Police protection	11.00	13.50	-2.50	6.25
Fire protection	13.00	11.00	2.00	4.00
Welfare services	9.00	8.33	.67	.45
Medical care	5.00	6.00	-1.00	1.00
School facilities	10.00	12.00	-2.00	4.00
Library facilities	7.50	5.00	2.50	6.25
Commercial recreation	6.00	8.33	-2.33	5.43
Swimming facilities	7.50	15.00	-7.50	56.25
Recreation for teenagers	1.00	4.00	-3.00	9.00
Youth organizations	14.50	16.00	-1.50	2.25
Zoning regulations	3.00	2.00	1.00	1.00
Extension programs	16.00	13.50	2.50	6.25
Employment opportunities	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

$$r_s = .7443$$

There is a high positive correlation between the views of leaders of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas

areas as to the relative inadequacy of community facilities and services. This test supports the hypothesis.

A second test of the preceding hypothesis for the open country residents is presented in the following table.

Table 15.--Spearman's Rank Order Correlation, Relationship between the Views of Open Country Dwellers of Southwest and those of Northwest Kansas Areas to the Inadequacy of Community Facilities and Services.

Community Facility or Service	Ranking of the Inadequacy of Comm. Facil. and Serv.		d	d <sup>2</sup>
	Open Coun- try dwellers of South- west	Open Coun- try dwellers of North- west		
Community beautification	5.50	5.50	0.00	.00
Water for industrial use	12.00	11.50	.50	.25
Streets and roads	5.50	3.50	2.00	4.00
Police protection	11.00	10.00	1.00	1.00
Fire protection	7.25	7.25	.25	.06
Welfare services	14.33	14.50	-.17	.03
Medical care	4.00	5.50	-1.50	2.25
School facilities	7.25	8.50	-1.25	1.56
Library facilities	7.25	11.50	-4.25	18.06
Commercial recreation	2.00	3.50	-1.50	2.25
Swimming facilities	7.25	8.50	-1.25	1.56
Recreation for teenagers	1.00	1.00	.00	.00
Youth organizations	14.33	14.50	-.17	.03
Zoning regulations	13.00	13.00	.00	.00
Extension programs	14.33	16.00	-1.67	2.79
Employment opportunities	3.00	2.00	1.00	1.00

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

$$r_s = .9488$$

There is a high positive correlation between the views of open country dwellers of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas



as to the relative inadequacy of their community facilities and services. The hypothesis is again supported.

A third test of the hypothesis is presented for the town household category in the following table.

Table 16.--Spearman's Rank Order Correlation, Relationship between the Views of Town Households of Southwest and those of Northwest Kansas Areas to the Inadequacy of Community Facilities and Services.

Community Facility or Service	Ranking of the Inadequacy of Comm. Facil. and Serv.		d	d <sup>2</sup>
	Town house-	Town house-		
	holds of Southwest	holds of Northwest		
Community beautification	8.00	4.50	3.50	12.25
Water for industrial use	11.50	13.00	-1.50	2.25
Streets and roads	4.00	6.00	-2.00	4.00
Police protection	9.00	8.00	1.00	1.00
Fire protection	10.00	11.50	-1.50	2.25
Welfare services	11.50	11.50	.00	.00
Medical care	5.00	4.50	.50	.25
School facilities	13.00	14.00	-1.00	1.00
Library facilities	7.00	7.00	.00	.00
Commercial recreation	1.50	3.00	-1.50	2.25
Swimming facilities	6.00	10.00	-4.00	16.00
Recreation for teenagers	1.50	2.00	-.50	.25
Youth organizations	15.00	16.00	-1.00	1.00
Zoning regulations	14.00	9.00	5.00	25.00
Extension programs	16.00	15.00	1.00	1.00
Employment opportunities	3.00	1.00	2.00	4.00

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2-1)}$$

$$r_s = .8934$$

There is a high positive correlation between the views of town households of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas areas as to the relative inadequacy of their community facilities and

services. Since the hypothesis was supported in all tests, it is accepted.

The results presented in the following table indicate how different selected segments of population vary in their evaluation of the inadequacy of each of 16 selected community facilities and services. The figures stated in the table represent the percentage of the inadequate votes which each community facility or service received of the total inadequate votes on all facilities and services by the stipulated segment of the population. If the people viewed all 16 items with similar evaluations of the degree of inadequacy, the expected percentage for every community facility or service would be  $100/16$  or 6.25.

#### Community Knowledge and Selected Socio-Economic Variables

The following results indicate how and to what extent different population groups differ with regard to their degree of knowledge or ignorance about the existing state of affairs in their communities. The method used for obtaining these results was explained in the methodological chapter. The findings will be related to the following socio-economic variables: area, prestige, sex, age, length of residence in community, education and total family income.

I. Area.--It was hypothesized that the same segments of population residing in different areas have significantly different degrees of knowledge and ignorance about their community facilities and services. Two tests of this hypothesis are



presented in the following two tables.

Table 18.--Knowledge and Ignorance of Leaders of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Area Leaders	Knowledge	Ignorance
Leaders of Northwest Kansas	762	6
Leaders of Southwest Kansas	632	8

$$\chi^2 = .7782^*$$

There is no significant difference between the extent of knowledge and ignorance of Northwest Kansas leaders and that of Southwest Kansas leaders regarding their community facilities and services. Therefore, the hypothesis is not supported.

Table 19.--Knowledge and Ignorance of Publics of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Area Publics	Knowledge	Ignorance
Publics of Northwest Kansas	2159	193
Publics of Southwest Kansas	2247	329

$$\chi^2 = 28.062^{**}$$

There is a significant difference between the extent of knowledge

\*Nonsignificant

\*\*Significant  $P < .001$



and ignorance of Northwest Kansas publics and that of Southwest Kansas publics regarding their community facilities and services. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported.

No clear conclusion may be reached. It appears that some segments of populations differ from area to area with respect to crystallization of attitudes whereas other segments of the same populations do not.

II. Prestige and Community Knowledge.--It was proposed that leaders have significantly more knowledge about the condition of their community facilities and services than the general public residing in the same community.

Table 20.--Knowledge and Ignorance of Leaders and Publics of the Sample about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Prestige	Knowledge	Ignorance
Leaders	1394	14
Publics	4406	522

$$x^2 = 129.786^{***}$$

Leaders, in this test, are significantly more knowledgeable about the condition of their community facilities and services than publics. The hypothesis is, therefore, accepted.

III. Sex and Community Knowledge.--It was hypothesized that males have higher degree of knowledge about their community

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\*\*\*Significant  $P < .001$

facilities and services than females.

Table 21.--Knowledge and Ignorance of the Sample's Males and Females about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Sex	Knowledge	Ignorance
Males	3919	417
Females	487	105

$$x^2 = 36.257^{***}$$

Males, in this test, have a significantly higher degree of knowledge about community facilities than females. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

IV. Age and Community Knowledge.--It was expected that older people would have higher degree of knowledge about community facilities and services than younger people.

Table 22.--Knowledge and Ignorance of Younger People and Older People about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Age	Knowledge	Ignorance
People 20-49 years of age	2343	281
People 50 years of age and over	2059	245

$$x^2 = .006^*$$

\*Nonsignificant

\*\*Significant P < .001

There is, in this instance, no significant difference between the extent of knowledge and ignorance of older and younger people. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

V. Length of Residence and Community Knowledge.--It was hypothesized that long-term residents in communities have a higher degree of knowledge about their community facilities and services than short-term residents.

Table 23.--Knowledge and Ignorance of the people of Shorter and those of Longer Length of Residence in Community about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Length of Residence	Knowledge	Ignorance
People living < 10 years in Community	1278	193
People living 10 years and over	3127	329

$$\chi^2 = 14.121^{**}$$

Long-term residents in communities have a significantly higher degree of knowledge about their community facilities and services than short-term residents. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

VI. Education and Community Knowledge.--It was hypothesized that people of higher educational levels have more knowledge about their community facilities and services than those of lower educational levels.

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\*\*Significant P < .001

Table 24.--Knowledge and Ignorance of Lower and Higher Educated People about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Education	Knowledge	Ignorance
People of 0-12 years of Formal Full Time Education	3140	412
People 13 years and over	1221	107

$$x^2 = 12.756^{**}$$

Relatively higher educated people are significantly more knowledgeable about their community facilities and services than those of relatively lower educational levels. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported.

VII. Income and Community Knowledge.--It was hypothesized that people of higher family incomes have a higher degree of community knowledge than those of lower family incomes.

Table 25.--Knowledge and Ignorance of Lower and those of Higher Income People about the Condition of 16 Selected Community Facilities and Services.

Income	Knowledge	Ignorance
People <\$6500 income	2081	271
People of \$6500 and more	1759	161

$$x^2 = 11.441^{**}$$

\*\*Significant  $P < .001$



People of relatively higher family incomes have a significantly higher degree of knowledge about their community facilities and services than those of relatively lower family incomes. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

#### Other Findings

The following table presents the mean and variance of some of the variables used in this research. These figures represent statistics of the whole sample including leaders, town households, and open country dwellers of the two Kansas areas used in the present study.

Table 26.--Mean and Variance of Some of the Variables Used in this Study.

Variables	Mean	Variance
Age	49.16	216.82
Education	11.93	12.16
Length of Residence	18.59	238.96
Income	13867.00	362644.04
Dissatisfaction Score	23.99	325.13

The following table presents some other partial correlation of other combinations of variables other than those mentioned before.

Table 27.--Other Correlations.

Combinations of Variables	Partial Correlation	Significancy
Age and education	- .333	Significant correl.
Age and Length of residence	+ .466	Significant correl.
Age and income	+ .095	ns. correlation
Education and Length of residence	+ .107	Significant correl.
Education and income	+ .164	Significant correl.
Length of residence and income	+ .416	Significant correl.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION AND THEORETICAL CONCLUSIONS

This chapter is organized into three main sections: (1) a discussion of results, (2) a discussion of the theoretical implications of the findings, and (3) a summary and conclusions. An attempt is made, in the first section, to highlight the results and present them in a conclusive pattern. The second section represents a shift from the specific to the general. In other words, this portion seeks to relate the findings of this study to others concerned with a similar or the same problem and to draw together information from which we may be able to formulate a more adequate theory of conservatism-liberalism. A summary of this research is presented in the third section.

#### Discussion of the Results

Of the variables designed into the study, age and conservatism were most closely associated. That is, age seems to be most adequate of all the factors considered to explain variations in conservatism. Restlessness, discontent and change are characteristics of youth but gradually decrease with advancing years. Greater age brings reluctance to try innovations and experiments. The habitual ways have become firmly established; security rather than change has become highly valued; the energy to create

and plan has diminished.

Research conducted some years in the past indicated that younger people were characterized by a higher degree of liberalism than the relatively older. This study supports the same finding. There was a significant negative correlation between age and community dissatisfaction. Considering the fact that the relatively younger people of the past are the relatively older of the present, we may be able to suggest that conservatism develops and intensifies with the advancement of years. Time brings a constant shifting of the total area of social issues and controversies. The old saying that the liberals of one generation are the conservatives of the next has an element of truth.

It was found that the relatively younger and relatively less educated people were the most dissatisfied (most liberal) with community facilities and services. Among the more educated people of this study, the relatively older and the relatively younger were not significantly different in their degrees of dissatisfaction (liberalism), but among the relatively less educated people the relatively younger and the relatively older were significantly different. This finding suggests that conservatism increases and intensifies with the advancement of age only among those relatively lacking educational advantages. The relatively well educated apparently do not manifest this basic change in attitudes as they grow older. While this study was not designed to explore this phenomenon, we might speculate that



the well-educated, in the main, have middle-class family backgrounds which foster early formation and persistence of conservative attitudes (i.e., acceptance of things as they are). This is the same line of reasoning as expressed by Riesman.<sup>1</sup> The significant change toward conservatism among the relatively less educated might be explained by increasing resignation in situations of frustrated achievement.

The question arises as to differences in community perspectives. We anticipated that persons occupying such qualitatively differing positions in society as reputational leaders and average citizens would evaluate their communities very differently as respects their adequacy. Contrary to the expectation, the results indicate a high degree of consensus among these two population categories in terms of how they view their community facilities and services. Few of the 16 community services were viewed differently by them. A comment or two on these minor differences is merited. We note that leaders ranked "welfare services" eighth "inadequate", whereas the publics ranked it the fourteenth. This finding was unexpected. It may seem reasonable to propose that publics are more concerned about welfare services than leaders. They would, therefore, be expected to be more critical of its deficiencies than leaders. Leaders ranked "commercial recreation" as the seventh "inadequate" community facility whereas publics ranked it the third.

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<sup>1</sup>David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1960).

This is a quite expected result because leaders, by virtue of their identification with the higher social classes, tend to have more private recreation resources.

Socio-economic variables considered in this study (status in terms of leader or public, education, income, length of residence in the community, age, geographical area, and sex) accounted significantly for the variations in respondents' extent of knowledge about the condition of their community facilities and services. Level of knowledge is affected by these variables because they influence the individual's position in the community, his role, his goals, and his behavior based on social role expectation and standards of acceptability. Moreover, a person's position in the community may be expected to extend or constrict his contacts and thus his opportunities to gain knowledge. Other findings, in this research, are theoretically implicated in the following section.

#### Theoretical Implications of the Findings

It was mentioned that the purpose of this section is to relate the findings of this study to others concerned with a similar or the same problem and construct a body of information from which we may be able to formulate a more adequate theory of liberalism-conservatism. The discussion of this section will be presented in four parts: (1) socio-economic variables and liberal-conservative attitudes toward social change, (2) consensus among population categories upon the inadequacy of the social

system, (3) community knowledge and socio-economic variables, and (4) theoretical discussion of other findings.

Socio-economic variables and liberal-conservative attitudes toward social change.--Contemporary social scientists are divided into two schools of thought concerning the determinants of liberal-conservative attitudes of individuals toward social change. The first school contends that socio-economic variables determine the degree of attitude conservatism. Sex, age, education, income, occupation, place of residence, and prestige, among others, represent these variables. The second school believes that conservatives are not restricted to any social class or any economic occupation or any level of formal education. Conservatism, liberalism and radicalism are states of mind, not of the pocketbook.

The findings of this study tend to support the first school of thought. Age was definitely associated with liberalism-conservatism and there were tendencies for the others to be so associated. No experimental attempt has been done to test the second theory. However, the author does not believe that conservatism, liberalism and radicalism are merely states of mind unassociated with the individual's social circumstances as Russell Kirk contends. The individual is not, of course, born with a conservative mind or a liberal one. The only way to explain the development of such a state of mind is in terms of one's experiences in the social order. If one's relationships produce social esteem and other rewards, the person will support the social order and deem conservatism honorable. He will

attempt to transfer this attitude of support to his descendents, through the process of socialization, and through encouraging identification with supportive reference groups, group affiliations and socially esteemed superiors. In any case, these processes, among others, are determinants for the crystallization of conservative or liberal attitudes within the individual's system of cognitions.

Dealing with the first theory -- concerned with the association of socio-economic variables with liberal-conservative attitudes -- the findings do not seem to provide definitive experimental support for Palmier's theory on "The Impermanence of Power". Palmier asserts that the "directors", represented by leaders in this study, will attempt to maintain the status quo and their relative autonomy; we here assume that they are more satisfied than other people with things as they are and wish to maintain them as they are. Thus, they will be characterized by a higher degree of conservatism than other people, the "directed". Irwin Sanders, C. Wright Mills, Sweedlun and Crawford, and others cited in the review of the literature were found in general support of this view. The natural arrangements of society, these authors hold, lead to the development of conservatism in privileged persons and members of society who derive benefits from the status quo resist change. The results, in this study, display a slight but consistent tendency in support of this view, but they were not statistically decisive.

McClosky and Back found conservatism associated with low



levels of education and presumably low levels of income, while Mayor, Mills, Lystad, Sweedlun and Crawford found liberalism associated with low levels of income and occupation. The results of this research tend to support the findings of the second group of researchers.

Other researchers have associated conservatism with neither social extreme, but with the middle class. Thus, Riesman<sup>1</sup> has associated extreme conformity with the middle class in The Lonely Crowd, Whyte<sup>2</sup> with middle-level strivers in The Organization Man, and Miller<sup>3</sup> with the same in the Death of A Salesman. Wolfgang<sup>4</sup> does not accept these views. To him, adherence to middle class values is not the same as "overadjustment," "Philistinism," or mediocrity." In spite of the fact that this study does not provide definite support for either point of view, the findings do indicate that the middle class is not the most highly satisfied (conservative) group and thus does not represent the most extreme conformists among the population.

The findings of most researchers concerned with socio-economic variables and liberal conservative attitudes mentioned in

<sup>1</sup>Riesman, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup>William H. Whyte, The Organization Man (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1956).

<sup>3</sup>Arthur Miller, Death of A Salesman (New York: Viking Press, 1949).

<sup>4</sup>Marvin E. Wolfgang, "Conformity and the Middle Class," Sociology and Social Research, 43 (July-August, 1959), pp. 432-438.

the second chapter indicated that age is an important factor in determining the individual's degree of conservatism. They pointed out that liberal attitudes are associated with relatively younger people and conservative attitudes with the relatively older. The results of this paper provided definite support for their conclusion. The highest degree of liberalism was found among the relatively younger and less educated persons.

A considerable number of studies have concluded that females tend to accept the traditional role of femininity, and are thus characterized by a high degree of conformity, submissiveness and persuasibility. The author proposed that satisfaction with the existing social order is a social characteristic that is congruent with the social-psychological traits of the contemporary American female. The same researchers pointed out that the typical masculine role tends to place more stress on the ideals of self-sufficiency, self-assertion, and independence of thought. Satisfaction with the way things are seems to be positively related to these feminine characteristics and negatively related to the male characteristics. The findings of this study do not offer decisive support for this prediction. Males and females were found to be nearly equally satisfied with the existing social order. Increasingly female employment, equalitarian system of family, increasing urbanization, dynamic social change, new definitions of the feminine role and the increasing acceptance of that new role by the American male, among others, are probable factors contributing to the disappearance of the

traditional passively accepting role of femininity.

Farmers were viewed by Russell Kirk and other researchers as the tradition-fostering representatives of the American culture. In the first and second chapter, however, a number of studies were cited which indicated that farmers had started to adopt new modern ways of agriculture and to accept drastic changes in old ways of life. They had even started to organize as a pressure group to solve the farm problem according to their interests; also, they had begun to adapt to governmental programs for agriculture following the great depression of the 1930's. The findings of this study provide evidence that the open country dwellers in contemporary America are not the representatives of conservatism we often assume.

Length of residence in the community tended to be positively related to degree of satisfaction with the existing state of affairs. People with relatively longer periods of residence in the community tended to be more satisfied with the existing order than the shorter term residents. We might introduce the concept of the stranger to explain this. The stranger is, hypothetically, the most extreme case of a short-term resident. He is likely to lack the emotional ties and close social relationships of the older resident which cloud objectivity. Thus, he feels free to be more critical of the system to an outside observer. To a lesser extent, this may hold for all relatively short-term residents. Further comments on this point are made in connection with other findings later in this discussion.

Consensus Among Population Categories Upon the Inadequacy of the Social System.--The findings of this study indicate that there is substantial positive correlation between leaders and public's views of the social order. These findings provide additional evidence in support of the situational approach to leadership. The situational leadership theory perceives the leader as developing out of a group need. He fulfills the role that may be necessary in the realization of a task. Current research is helping to clarify the kind of interaction between a particular person and a particular situation which constitutes leadership. The present tendency is to analyze the leader as the product of the group.

One can scarcely overlook the factor of individual motivation on the part of the leader. It appears that, for most people, dominance and leadership are normal desires but only within moderation. This was illustrated before in the slight conservatism of leaders.

Thus, the leader's role in a group is an interaction relationship between an individual's motives and the desires of the members of his group. How the leader acts depends on his own personality needs and the needs, attitudes and interests of his followers, always within a framework furnished by group norms. The findings of this research indicate that leaders have "membership character" in the group. They cannot be outsiders; they must be regarded as persons who have "the pattern of attitudes and reaction tendencies common to the group," they must symbolize



psychologically the ideals of all the members of the group.

This study has sought information regarding the degree of concensus about the condition of the existing social order that prevails among and between various population segments. It does not provide a sufficient answer, but it does provide two identical tests in two different areas of Kansas for the congruency of attitudes of two general segments of population, town households and open country dwellers.

It was found that there is definite positive correlation between the views of town households and those of open country dwellers as to the condition of the existing social order. It is known that complete crystallization of public opinion and attitudes depends on many factors, some of them individual, and some of them subcultural, such as age, sex, social class, and related variables like education, intelligence and occupation. But, in complex modern societies, the quality and the development of public opinion and attitudes also depends on the mass media: the press, radio, television, and motion pictures. The tables mentioned in chapter III illustrate that the town households and open country dwellers differ in their socio-economic structure concerning the factors mentioned above. In spite of this phenomenon, there still is a marked concensus and congruency between the attitudes of these two population segments. This finding may indicate that the effect of mass media on the formation of public opinions and attitudes is more important in relation to socio-economic variables than we believed a few years

ago. In a complex mass society, such as the United States, mass media function to increase consensus and cohesion around widely accepted norms and attitudes. However, the mass media are only one possible explanation. It may be contended that consolidated schooling is producing a standardized socialization process which results in widely circulated perspectives. In any event, mass influences function and operate to incorporate persons into a larger national culture and a social system.

The study has focused on the views which the same population segments residing in different geographical areas have of the existing social order. The attitudes of three different population segments -- leaders, town households, and open country dwellers -- in Northwest Kansas were tested against those of Southwest Kansas. The results of the three cases indicated that there is a definite positive correlation between their attitudes. It seems that the effect of mass media mentioned before may be operating in this situation. If two persons occupy similar positions in the social order, they will tend to have similar perspectives on their communities regardless of the particular communities they come from. This will certainly apply at least within a given regional subculture. This again provides evidence of the transcending importance of social position in shaping perspectives -- that is, one's attitudes of what is satisfying and what is dissatisfying in the environment.

#### Community Knowledge and Selected Socio-Economic Variables.--

The study inquires into the levels of knowledge the same segments

of population residing in differing geographical areas have. It was found that there are significant differences between the levels of knowledge of certain segments of population residing in different areas, but not between other paired segments. The differences between the level of knowledge for leaders of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas were found to be nonsignificant, whereas the levels of knowledge of the publics on Northwest and Southwest Kansas were found to be significantly different. The public in the Northwest area of the state had the higher level of knowledge about its communities. We may conclude that certain geographical areas or certain communities are more visible to their inhabitants than others. This may be attributed to demographic and ecological factors: size of area or community, characteristics of the population, degree of urbanization, main function of the community, etc. Effect of characteristics of the population or its demographic composition is, to some extent, illustrated in this study. As indicated in the tables of chapter III, leaders were found to be drastically different from the public in terms of their demographic composition. This difference may be one reason, among others, for the nonsignificant differences between the leader's level of knowledge in the two areas and the significant differences between those of the Northwest and Southwest publics.

Leaders in this study were found to be more knowledgeable about their community affairs than publics. This difference can be attributed to the major differences between leaders' socio-

economic characteristics and those of publics. Moreover, the leadership role with its broad contacts and generally high level of organizational participation apparently provides leaders with the opportunity to attain higher levels of community knowledge.

In terms of sex, it was found that males were significantly more knowledgeable about their community affairs than females. This may be explained, in part, by the more limited participation of women in work roles and the extended contacts these imply. Females, today, represent over half of the total population but only about one-third of the labor force of the United States. An additional factor may be the higher degree of organizational participation men tend to have as compared to women.

It was found that there was a definite positive correlation between length of residence, education and income on the one hand and level of community knowledge on the other. These findings support the position taken by Gresham Sykes as reviewed in the second chapter.

In this study, income and education represent two components of the cultural prizes. The significant correlation between income and education suggests that different components of cultural prizes tend to be highly positively associated. In other words, the wealthy tend to be educated and prestigious, and the educated tend to be relatively wealthier and relatively prestigious, and the prestigious tend to be relatively educated and relatively wealthier. It seems to the author that social situations in which these correlations are manifested are generally common and



recurrent.

Other findings.--While conducting research, following the microcosmic approach, social researchers are confronted with some exceptional situations. The case of the stranger is an example that has attracted the attention of a number of sociologists. Theoretically, it stems from an interest in "marginality" demonstrated by sociologists, anthropologists and historians. For example, Teggart<sup>1</sup> pointed out that contact between groups tend to "emancipate the individual in thought and action." Park<sup>2</sup> and Stonequist<sup>3</sup> urged attention to the marginal man as a kind of concentration of the dynamics of culture. More recently, acculturation studies by Scholars and Hallowell,<sup>4</sup> Caudill,<sup>5</sup> and Voget<sup>6</sup> have focussed on the characteristics of marginal individuals. Barnett<sup>7</sup> has incorporated Teggert's ideas into his theory

<sup>1</sup>Frederick F. Teggert, Processes of History (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1918).

<sup>2</sup>Robert E. Park, "Human Migration and the Marginal Man," American Journal of Sociology, 33 (May, 1928), pp. 881-893.

<sup>3</sup>Everett V. Stonequist, The Marginal Man (New York: Scribners, 1937).

<sup>4</sup>I. A. Hallowell, "Ojibwa Personality and Acculturation," in Sol Tax (editor), Acculturation in the Americas (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1952), pp. 105-112.

<sup>5</sup>William Caudill, "Psychological Characteristics of Acculturated Wisconsin Ojibwa Children," American Anthropologist, 51 (July-September, 1949), pp. 409-427.

<sup>6</sup>Fred Voget, "Individual Motivations in the Diffusion of the Wind River Shoshone Sundance to the Crow Indians," American Anthropologist, 50 (October-December, 1948), pp. 634-646.

<sup>7</sup>Hommer Barnett, Innovation (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953).

of innovation. Finally, Simmel<sup>1</sup> focused on the stranger as an important object of study. Although this research was not designed to focus specifically on the stranger, it does provide data on persons who -- like the stranger -- are relative newcomers into a social system and, thus, somewhat socially marginal. We do not suggest that all newcomers are strangers, nor that all who have lived for sometime in a community social system are not strangers. As Havighurst and Neugarten<sup>2</sup> have pointed out, the teacher has traditionally occupied the position of stranger without regard to length of residence in the community. However, we do contend that the stranger and the newcomer in common tend to be somewhat marginal and thus relatively deprived of cultural prizes. Our findings regarding the newcomer thus seem relevant to the case of the marginal man -- including the stranger.

It was found that there is a definite positive correlation between length of residence and income, and the same correlation was found between the first and education. Thus, it appears that longer residence in a social system gives an individual an advantage -- an increased share of the cultural prizes. Everybody may agree that higher education is a means to increased income; this was supported by the significant positive correlation

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<sup>1</sup>G. Simmel, from Soziologie, 1908, Translated in Park & Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924), pp. 322-327.

<sup>2</sup>B. L. Neugarten and R. J. Havighurst, Society and Education (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958).

(.164) between the two variables. However, it may also be viewed, per se, as a cultural prize. This author, by virtue of the findings that there is a strong positive correlation (.416) between length of residence and income, and length of residence and education (.107), wishes to indicate that length of residence in the community is a significant determinant of the individual's share of cultural prizes. We may reason that long term residence involves a high level of experience in and also familiarity with the operating characteristics of the social system. The individual learns how to choose the best from the existing alternatives. In his community, he recognizes the "short cuts" and follows the most efficient means to achieve his goals. This explanation illustrates how the newcomer (including the stranger), by virtue of his short length of residence, may be relatively deprived of the cultural prizes.

#### Summary and Conclusions

This research deals with attitudes of people toward their community facilities and services and is also concerned with the level of knowledge those people have as regards these facilities and services. Comparisons between the attitudes of certain segments of the sampled population (e.g., leaders-followers and town households-open country households) are of major concern in this study.

Attitudes of these population categories toward their communities are expressed in terms of their ratings of 16 facili-

ties and services (as adequate or inadequate). This enables us to infer people's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the existing community. It is assumed that satisfied people are unfavorable to change, and thus, are conservatives. The liberals are those dissatisfied and assumed to be in favor of change as regards community facilities and services.

It was expected that a number of selected socio-economic variables (age, education, income, occupation, sex, prestige, and length of residence in the community) would be related to respondents' satisfaction and dissatisfaction and also to their levels of knowledge about existing community facilities and services.

Before summarizing the findings of this study, it must be indicated that the results of research concerned with conservative-liberal distinction have been characterized by a considerable amount of contradiction. It seems to the author that one of the significant reasons contributing to the lack of consistent results is the employment of differing operational definitions of conservatism and liberalism. Another may be the questionable validity with which early concepts have applied in later research. For example, one may ask the managers of two stores, of whom one is liberal and the other conservative, about using a new machine that will enable him to reduce his labor force by 20 workers. It may be expected that the two managers will accept the new machine. We could reason that the conservative is not concerned about human rights but he will use the



machine to realize more profit; the liberal is concerned about human rights but will accept the machine because of his commitment to innovation and to rational development of the social system. Thus, a considerable amount of research must be done for the purpose of presenting the most adequate method of identifying the conservative and liberal attitudinal orientations. Moreover, the validity of this method has to be subjected to re-test as circumstances change and the appropriateness of the measure becomes questionable.

In summarizing the findings of this research, the socio-economic variables mentioned in this study did not adequately explain the total variation of "dissatisfaction score" (or score of liberalism). However, age was found to be significantly negatively correlated with "dissatisfaction score." The data displayed tendencies supporting most of the proposed hypotheses concerned with people's satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their community facilities and services, but these were not decisive. For example, people occupying business occupations tended to be more satisfied than those occupying nonbusiness occupations; leaders tended to be more satisfied than publics; females tended to be more satisfied than males; higher income people tended to be more satisfied than lower income people; contradictory to expectation, relatively higher educated people tended to be more satisfied than the relatively lower educated. It was expected that there would be no significant difference between the "dissatisfaction scores" of town households and those

of open country households. This hypothesis was supported by the findings. Contradictory to expectation, it was found that there was a significant positive correlation between the views of leaders and those of the publics regarding the inadequacy of community facilities and services; that is, those facilities viewed as the most inadequate by leaders were the same as those viewed most inadequate by the publics, and the least inadequate community facilities and services as viewed by leaders were the same as those so viewed by the publics. The views of town households and open country households were also significantly positively correlated. This result was found in the two areas of Northwest and Southwest Kansas. The views of leaders of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas were significantly positively correlated. The same positive correlation was also found between the views of open country households of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas, and between the views of town households of Northwest and those of Southwest Kansas.

It was suggested to the author that the sample results of Southwest Kansas were not weighted in this study; it is not possible, of course, to draw general conclusions for areas as a whole on the basis of unweighted results when the sampling was done on a stratified basis at differing levels of representation as explained in chapter III. Such results should be interpreted with caution.

In trying to find a solution for the weighting problem for this sample, it was concluded that if there was no significant

difference between the people of large, medium, and small towns of Southwest Kansas as far as their satisfaction, dissatisfaction and level of knowledge about their community facilities and services were concerned, then, there would be little need to be concerned about the weighting problem. The following Chi-Square test was run to find out whether there were significant differences between the responses of these categories.

Table 28.--Responses on Community Facilities and Services, Town Households of Southwest Kansas, Classified by Size.

Size of Town	Total No.	Facility or Service Adequate		Facility or Service Inadequate		Don't Know		Total Percent
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
		Large town	797	544	68.26	144	18.07	
Medium town	277	183	66.06	50	18.05	44	15.88	99.99
Small town	840	507	60.36	218	25.95	115	13.69	100.00

$$\chi^2 = 18.942^{***}$$

It was found that there were significant differences between the responses of the three segments of the population. Thus, findings must be approached with caution. It is known that larger towns have better community facilities and services; results in this study are as anticipated and suggest that people are realistic about the condition of their community facilities

\*\*\*Significant at .001 level of significance.

and services. This is illustrated by checking the "dissatisfaction score" for each segment in this sample. People residing in small towns had a mean score of 30.06, whereas those residing in medium towns had a mean score of 21.46, and those residing in large towns had a mean score of 20.90.

The socio-economic variables in this study were found to be highly correlated with the levels of community knowledge. Leaders were significantly more knowledgeable about their community facilities and services than followers; long-term residents in the community were significantly more knowledgeable than short-term residents; the relatively higher educated people were more knowledgeable than the relatively lower educated people; the relatively higher income people were more knowledgeable about their community facilities and services than the relatively lower income people. There was no correlation between age and level of knowledge.

Some Further Research Possibilities Suggested by this Study.--Additional research needs to be conducted on the sociological and psychological factors which account for (a) the relatively higher degree of conservatism of younger and more educated people have as compared to the younger and less educated, (b) the change (approaching significance) in degree of conservatism which occurs as relatively higher educated people get older -- that is, the tendency for them to become increasingly conservative, and (c) the significant change in degree of conservatism that occurs as lower educated people get older -- that is, the



pronounced increase in their conservatism.

A considerable number of studies, mentioned in the literature, have indicated that people of different positions in the social system have dissimilar views of the social order. However, the results of this research indicate that there is a high degree of consensus upon the conditions of the social order between such differing categories as leaders and followers. Additional research is needed on factors which homogenize the views various population segments have of the existing social system.

This research does not answer an important question: How closely do the expressed attitudes realistically reflect the state of existing conditions? For example, does the expression "adequate" imply a certain functional level of a service or facility, or does it reflect a low level of expectation such as would be associated with resignation? The study of how closely man's attitudes reflect reality in the social system is a relatively recent area of sociological inquiry.

This research indicated that people belonging to different social classes have significantly different levels of knowledge about the social order. Education, income, prestige -- three indices of social stratification -- were found to be significantly correlated with level of community knowledge. The question of how information about the social order is differentially disseminated to the various social classes -- apparently with a higher degree of efficiency to people in the upper classes -- would be a worthwhile study.

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A STUDY OF SOME FACTORS RELATED TO COMMUNITY  
SATISFACTION AND KNOWLEDGE

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

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The major foci of this research is people's attitudes toward the existing community (specified by satisfaction or dissatisfaction with 16 items) and their level of knowledge (specified by the "don't know" responses in relation to the other responses reflecting definite attitudes on these same items). People are viewed here along a conservative-liberal continuum from those most satisfied with existing community conditions (the conservatives) to those least satisfied with such conditions (the liberals).

We expect selected socio-economic variables to be related to the two dependent variables, degree of dissatisfaction and of community knowledge.

Random samples of town households and open country dwellers in the Northwestern and Southwestern areas of Kansas were interviewed. The top 40-50 reputational leaders, in each area, were also identified and interviewed. Respondents' attitudes toward their community facilities and services and their level of knowledge about them were analyzed in relation to the socio-economic variables.

It was found that the socio-economic variables did not adequately explain the variation of "dissatisfaction score" or score of liberalism of the total sample. Only one -age- was found to be significantly correlated with "dissatisfaction score." But, people holding business occupations tended to be more satisfied than those holding nonbusiness occupations, females more so than males, leaders than publics, relatively



higher income people than relatively lower income people, relatively higher educated people than relatively lower educated people. Open country dwellers were about as satisfied as town households. The views of the following pair segments of the population represented by the samples were found significantly positively correlated: leaders and publics, town households and open country dwellers in the Northwest and Southwest Kansas areas, leaders in the two areas, open country dwellers in both areas, and town households of both areas.

Community knowledge was significantly correlated with a number of socio-economic variables. Leaders were significantly more knowledgeable about their community than followers; males than females; long-term residents than short-term residents; the relatively higher educated people than the relatively lower educated people; and the relatively higher income people than the relatively lower income people. Age was not correlated with level of community knowledge.

These findings may be interpreted as showing that liberal-conservative attitudes and their crystallization are affected by social class and socio-economic characteristics. Liberal-conservative attitudes are not just a state of mind unrelated to an individual's position in the social order. The technique used in this study may not satisfy those who have traditionally specified liberalism-conservatism as including more than an attitude toward the existing community. For example, some scholars have made the processes whereby decisions are reached

the focus of their definitions. Those wishing to maximize democratic participation in the process are defined as liberals from this point of view. However, the present definition, focusing exclusively on the existing situation, is unidimensional and operationally sound.