

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

**ProQuest Information and Learning
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
800-521-0600**

UMI[®]

**TO BELONG OR NOT TO BELONG:
THE DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN YOUTH WHO STAYED ENROLLED AND
WHO DROPPED OUT OF A YOUTH DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM**

by

Lisa Annette Lauxman

Copyright © Lisa Annette Lauxman 2002

**A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of**

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In the Graduate College

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA
2002**

UMI Number: 3050362

**Copyright 2002 by
Lauxman, Lisa Annette**

All rights reserved.

UMI[®]

UMI Microform 3050362

**Copyright 2002 by ProQuest Information and Learning Company.
All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.**

**ProQuest Information and Learning Company
300 North Zeeb Road
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346**

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA ©
GRADUATE COLLEGE

As members of the Final Examination Committee, we certify that we have

read the dissertation prepared by Lisa Annette Lauxman

entitled To Belong or Not To Belong: The Differences Between Youth

Who Stayed Enrolled and Who Dropped Out of a Youth

Development Program

and recommend that it be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation

requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Jerome V. D'Agostino

Dr. Jerome V. D'Agostino

4/09/02
Date

Glenda S. Wilkes

Dr. Glenda S. Wilkes

4/09/02
Date

Janice L. Streitmatter

Dr. Janice L. Streitmatter

4/9/02
Date

Lee Sechrest

Dr. Lee Sechrest

4/09/02
Date

Date

Final approval and acceptance of this dissertation is contingent upon the candidate's submission of the final copy of the dissertation to the Graduate College.

I hereby certify that I have read this dissertation prepared under my direction and recommend that it be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement.

Jerome V. D'Agostino

Dissertation Director

Dr. Jerome V. D'Agostino

4/24/02
Date

STATEMENT BY AUTHOR

This dissertation has been submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for an advanced degree at The University of Arizona and is deposited in the University Library to be made available to borrowers under rules of the Library.

Brief quotations from this dissertation are allowable without special permission, provided that accurate acknowledgment of source is made. Requests for permission for extended quotation from or reproduction of this manuscript in whole or in part may be granted by the copyright holder.

SIGNED: _____

Gisa Annette Laukman

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I want to acknowledge the faculty members who supported me in this endeavor. It's been a long journey and they certainly deserve credit for motivating, listening, and encouraging me. I wish to thank explicitly the committee members, Jerry, Glenda, Jan, and Lee as well as those who served along the way, Rosemary and A.J.

Thanks to Jerry for directing me through the statistical paths and serving as chair. I will certainly remember Glenda who listened, put things in perspective, and certainly kept my spirits going with words of encouragement. Thanks to Jan for stepping in and being a supportive committee member. Thanks to Lee, who certainly added immensely to my knowledge regarding methodology and evaluation, while providing that Kansas connection.

Others in the Educational Psychology Department who traversed the path with me include Darrell who truly put things in perspective with phrases like "just get it done." And, I'll not forget Sarah's assistance as I tried to put my personal life and professional life together. Through it all, there was Karoleen who answered questions, made sure paperwork was processed, and truly added those words of encouragement. Many thanks to you all!

Then, there are the wonderful colleagues at both Pima County Extension and the State 4-H Office who have been there for me --- Cynthia, Curt, Julie, Janet, Joanie, Sandra, Margaret, Shirley Jo, Allyson, Alexandria, Teresa, Erin, Jennifer, and my boss, Bill. A special word of thanks to Bill who allowed me time and resources to conduct this study.

And, those personal cheerleaders, my sons, Jacob and Tim, who through the past decade, have supported their mom's endeavor putting up with fast food meals, slightly irritable responses, and who offered those immeasurable means of support — hugs and kisses.

Finally to Joe, my best friend, and champion, who truly understands what this means to me and who has been there--- smack 'n' squeeze!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS	5
LIST OF TABLES	10
ABSTRACT	11
CHAPTER 1: THE PROBLEM	13
Introduction	13
Statement of the Problem	14
Background of the Problem	16
Brief 4-H Youth Development History	16
4-H Youth Development Philosophy	18
Description of a “Typical” 4-H club	19
Conceptual Assumptions of 4-H Youth Development	20
4-H Volunteer Training- Youth Development or “Ages ‘n’ Stages” .	20
Youth Leadership Development	22
Theoretical Perspective	23
Erikson’s Stage IV: The Crisis of Industry vs. Inferiority	23
Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development	25
Gilligan’s Theory of Gender Differences or “Justice vs Caring” ...	29
Importance of Study	31
4-H Impact Assessment Studies	31
Arizona 4-H Impact Assessment	32

TABLE OF CONTENTS—Continued

Organizational Questions	34
Research Questions	35
Definitions of Terms	37
Scope and Delimitation of Study	37
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	38
Purpose of the Review	38
Theoretical Framework	38
Erikson’s Psychosocial Theory	39
Vygotsky’s Theory of Development	42
Discussion about Erikson and Vygotsky	45
Gilligan’s Theory of Gender Development	47
Youth Leadership	52
Leadership Instruments	53
Leadership Scales for Youth	55
Situationist vs. Trait Approach to Leadership	57
Personality Characteristics	57
Parental Influence	58
Relationship Between Leadership and Self-esteem	60
Leadership Emotes Rational Behavior	61
Perceptual Differences Between Youth and Adult Leaders	62

TABLE OF CONTENTS— Continued

Programs to Develop Adolescent Leadership	63
Leader-Member Approach	63
Three-State Model of Instruction to Youth Leadership Training ..	65
Transformational and Transactional	65
Training for Leadership Skills: Experience, Timing, and Mentoring	67
Background Data Constructs as Predictors of Leadership Behavior	68
Group Behavior	68
Adolescent's Peer Relations within Group	70
Leaders and Group Interaction	71
Group Dynamics	72
Group's valence	73
Conditions that decrease the group's valence	74
Leadership and Group Performance	75
4-H and Related Youth Development Organizational Studies	76
Adolescent Needs from Youth Organizational Studies	76
4-H Related Research	79
Alumni study	79
The national 4-H impact assessment study	80
4-H theses and dissertations	82
Summary of Literature Review	86

TABLE OF CONTENTS—Continued

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	88
Overview	88
Introduction and Background Information	88
Research Methodology	89
Research Design	89
Variables	89
Participants	90
Instrumentation	91
Data Collection	92
Sampling	92
Procedure	92
Data Processing & Analyses	93
Methods of analyses	93
Assumptions	93
Limitations	94
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS, ANALYSES, AND EVALUATION	95
Overview	95
Research Questions: Differences Between Group, Gender, and Grade ...	95
Qualitative Responses	105

TABLE OF CONTENTS---Continued

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	108
Purpose of the Study	108
Summary of the Study Procedure	108
Summary of Findings	109
Discussion	109
Conclusions	113
Recommendations	114
APPENDIX	117
Appendix A: Survey	117
Survey Instrument	118
Appendix B: Human Subjects Approval	125
Human Subjects Permission letters	125
REFERENCES	128

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Total 4-H Enrollment 1998-99 by Grade	14
Table 2. Total 4-H Enrollment 1999-2000 by Grade	15
Table 3. Critical Elements and Outcomes for 4-H Youth Development	33
Table 4. Analysis of Variance for Groups	96
Table 5. Group Means of the Six Factors	98
Table 6. Group and Gender Means	99
Table 7. Differences between Gender <i>t</i>-Tests	100
Table 8. An Analysis of Variance Between Females	102
Table 9. Analysis of Variance for Difference between Males	103
Table 10. Analysis of Variance for Grade	104
Table 11. Checklist Responses for Those Who Dropped Out	106
Table 12. Other Reasons Listed By Participants for Dropping Out	107

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences between 5th to 8th grade youth who stayed enrolled and those youth who dropped out of the Pima County Extension 4-H Youth Development Program. Youth who dropped out were surveyed with the National 4-H Impact Assessment Survey. The survey examined eight critical elements of positive youth development and asked the additional question why they dropped out. The research questions sought to find if there was a difference between 5th to 8th grade youth who stayed enrolled and those who dropped out of the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program. What perceptual differences were there between the genders and between the groups, stayed enrolled and dropped out? Were there differences amongst the grade levels of this study?

The theoretical foundation for this research study centered on Erikson's psychosocial stage theory and crises, Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development, and Gilligan's theory on gender development.

It was found that there were differences between grade level, gender, and group (those who stayed enrolled versus those who dropped out). Amongst female respondents, significant factors were "Feelings about 4-H", "Learning in 4-H", "Helping Others", "Planning and Decision-Making in 4-H", and "Belonging in 4-H". For male respondents, there were no conclusive patterns for the factors between the two groups. Significant factors for grade level were: "Adults in 4-H", "Learning in 4-H", "Helping Others", and

“Planning and Decision Making in 4-H”. The significant factors for grade level were “Belonging in 4-H” nor “Feelings About 4-H”.

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Leaders have the ability to “think for themselves, communicate their thoughts and feelings to others, and help others understand and act on their own beliefs; they influence others in ethical and socially responsible ways.... Being a leader means trusting one’s instincts when doing leadership tasks and being a leader” (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Society as we know it functions through the contributions personally and professionally of leaders. If youth are to be regarded as the “leaders of “tomorrow”, then it is important to ask, “how does today’s youth become those leaders for tomorrow?” With a nearly 100 year old history, 60 some million alumni, and a current enrollment of 6 million youth, the Cooperative Extension 4-H Youth Development Program is a non-formal, experiential, youth development program based on “hands-on” learning with a motto of “Making the Best Better”. Leadership development is considered by the 4-H Youth Development Program to be one of the significant outcomes for youth that participate in the 4-H youth development program. Adult volunteers serve as role models for those youth to become leaders.

Within the 4-H Youth development program, the development of youth leaders hinges on the interaction between youth and adult volunteers. The 4-H Youth Development Program is open to youth between the ages of 5 to 19 years old, yet the bulk of the 4-H members typically are found in the ages of 9 to 12 year olds.

Statement of the Problem

A trend exists within the 4-H Youth Development Program that reflects a sharp decline in membership occurring as youth transition from 5th to 6th grade and from 8th to 9th grade. The bulk of the 4-H club membership occurs with youth joining the 4-H club program between 9 and 12 years old. As indicated in Tables 1 and 2, this dropout trend occurs within the national, the state, and the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program. Data is taken from the respective ES-237 report form (USDA, 1998, 2000) that is sent from each state at the close of each program year.

Table 1

Total 4-H Enrollment 1998-99 by Grade

1998-99 Program Year	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	8 th	9 th
National	796,363	957,044	956,413	662,345	430,223	353,078	242,992
Arizona	5,294	6,416	6,539	5,679	4,101	4,118	3,999
Pima County	2,023	2,344	773	661	663	529	515

Table 2

Total 4-H Enrollment 1999-2000 by Grade

1999- 2000 Program Year	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	8 th	9 th
National	786,289	1,010,199	886,600	651,270	453,017	406,529	276,209
Arizona	8,339	7,518	5,770	6,035	5,979	5,558	2,162
Pima County	801	887	932	646	434	401	255

The transition points between 5th to 6th grade and between 8th to 9th grade represent for most youth the changes that occur as they move grade level wise from elementary to middle school (or junior high school) and from middle school (or junior high) to high school.

There is a significant dropout rate during the grades of 5th to 8th grade within the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program. There were 646 youth between 5th to 8th grade enrolled in 4-H clubs in the 1999-2000 4-H Youth Development Program year. In the following year, 227 of these youth did not re-enroll though the total youth enrollment was 565 for 5th to 8th grade youth. This dropout rate raises the question of whether the 4-H Youth Development Program relates to the developmental needs of youth as they transition through adolescence, particularly between 5th to 8th grade. Do the methods of the 4-H Youth Development Program relate to the developmental needs of youth leadership? Are there differences between the youth that stayed enrolled between 5th to

8th grade from the youth that dropped-out between 5th to 8th grade? Do the youth that stay enrolled have a stronger adult-youth interaction? Are organizational changes needed to encourage youth to stay enrolled?

The reasons for the youth dropout have not been fully explored. No one has addressed these questions for this population of those who have dropped out. Some anecdotal reasons have been suggested for youth dropping out. Some of these reasons are no longer interested, friends not involved, time and resources are limited, parents would not take them, change of interests, discovered the opposite sex. The dropout rate suggests there is a fundamental cause that results in nearly one-third of the youth in the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program to dropout between these grade levels. To address these questions, this study seeks to examine whether or not differences exist between those youth who were enrolled between the 5th and 8th grade for the 1999-2000 4-H Youth Development Program year, and youth who did not re-enroll for the 2000-2001 4-H Youth Development Program year.

Background of the Problem

Brief 4-H Youth Development History

The 4-H Youth Development Program of the Cooperative Extension System is the largest youth development program in the United States with a 100 year-old history, over 60 million alumni of the 4-H Youth Development Program with a current enrollment of 6

million youth. Anecdotal reports by participants, parents, and leaders consistently indicate significant educational benefits which extend throughout their life span. The 4-H Youth Development Program is a non-formal, experiential, youth development program based upon "hands-on" learning with a motto of "Making the Best Better". Leadership development is considered to be one of the significant outcomes for youth and adults who participate in the 4-H Youth Development Program.

The 4-H Youth Development Program celebrates its Centennial in 2002. The roots of the 4-H Youth Development Program began at the turn of the century with no one particular beginning. When 4-H was founded, the program embodied those idealistic qualities that characterized the movement of agriculture across the continent. While 4-H had diverse origins, a central theme emerged that utilized educational institutions to train and educate young people in the best techniques available for successful agriculture. The concepts of learn by doing and applied education were evident from the very beginning of the 4-H movement. Corn clubs and canning clubs were started by public school educators. Club work was formalized in 1919 to build the beginnings of a uniform club movement. In the 1970s, the 4-H Youth Development Program reached into the urban areas with various delivery modes and now has a 4-H enrollment equally serving both rural and urban areas (Wessel, 1982). The 4-H Youth Development Program, through volunteers, teaches skills to youth on various topics. The 4-H Youth Development

Program has a positive image though a common perception is that the program is for rural youth.

4-H Youth Development Philosophy

The 4-H Youth Development Program emphasizes life skills. As mentioned in the Arizona 4-H Volunteer Handbook, “4-H uses learning-by-doing projects, meetings, community services, and a variety of educational programs to teach five basic life skills:

- To Build Self-Confidence
- To Learn to Make Decisions
- To Develop an Inquiring Mind
- To Relate to Others
- To Develop Concern for the Community” (Lauxman, 2001).

The Arizona 4-H Youth Development program has as its mission statement: “The *mission* of Arizona 4-H Youth Development is to provide educational opportunities for youth to become capable and contributing members of a global society”. The handbook further states “in support of this mission, we will: provide formal and non-formal community-focused experiential learning, develop skills that benefit youth throughout life, project work, personal development opportunities, leadership and citizenship, foster leadership and volunteerism in youth and adults” (Lauxman, 2001).

Teaching leadership is considered an important component to the 4-H Youth Development Program as it is mentioned twice in the mission statement. The experiential learning model or “learn-by-doing” is utilized as the process by which youth are to acquire these skills. The experiential learning model includes the cycle of the key

components of doing, sharing, reflecting, applying, and generalizing. Youth learn these skills with the guidance or mentoring of adult 4-H volunteer leaders who have been through training and have skills in a specific subject matter.

Description of a "Typical" 4-H Club

Most 4-H clubs in the Arizona 4-H Youth Development Program operate with one or two key organizational volunteer leaders and several volunteer project leaders. The project leaders teach skills via a project. The club may meet for an hour to an hour and a half as an entire club once a month with a meeting covering business items and programs. The elected officers of the club along with the organizational leader run the club. The number in attendance may vary from one to ninety though most clubs have a membership of around thirty. Besides the elected positions, 4-H'ers may serve as a committee members or committee chairs at the club level.

The majority of the experiential learning takes place at the project meeting. The project meetings usually meet as frequently as once a week though some may only meet once the entire 4-H program year. The volunteer leader determines the frequency of meeting. The project meetings teach more in-depth knowledge, develop skills, and can usually last from one to two hours depending upon the project. The attendance for the project meeting may range from one to as large as forty in number. Youth, ranging in age from 9 to 19, participate in these project meetings though the number of projects offered is dependent upon the number of leaders available (Lauxman, 2002, in progress).

Conceptual Assumptions of 4-H Youth Development

4-H Volunteer Training - Youth Development or “Ages ‘n’ Stages”

The curriculum for the 4-H Youth Development Program contains information on the developmental needs of youth at various ages or “stages” of maturation. For example, in the Kansas 4-H Leadership Notebook (Burns, 1992), a volunteer leader manual, it emphasizes that “the ages of 9, 10, 11, are anything but still and quiet”. Activities for this age group should be geared toward “hands-on-involvement with objects ... as children are beginning to think logically and symbolically, and to begin to understand abstract ideas” (Karns & Mayers-Wallis, 1988). The manual’s emphasis for the volunteer leader’s role is that “these children look to the adult for approval and follow rules primarily out of respect for the adult” (Karns & Myers-Wallis, 1988). The manual stresses that this is the “age of joiners and they like to be in organized groups of others similar to themselves” (Karns & Myers-Wallis, 1988). The curriculum informs the volunteer leader that “as the youth mature, they are ready to take responsibility for their actions” so it’s emphasized that giving these youth the opportunity to make decisions should be encouraged (Karns & Myers-Wallis, 1988). The manual stresses that the leader’s role then “should move from dictating directions to giving reassurance and support for members’ decisions” (Karns & Myers-Wallis, 1988).

As youth transition to the ages of 12, 13, and 14, physical development varies unevenly with growth spurts occurring and girls maturing before boys. This results in

social discomfort with these differential rates of maturation. The volunteer leaders are encouraged to note that “these young teens are moving from concrete to more abstract thinking. Playing with ideas becomes fascinating and ready-made solutions are often rejected in favor of finding their own solutions” (Karns & Myers-Wallis, 1988). In this curriculum, in bold type, it says “**Leaders who provide supervision without interference will have a great influence on these 4-H’ers**”. A tip to assist volunteers who work with this age group is the suggestion that “small groups provide the best opportunity for young teens to test ideas with justice and equality becoming important issues” (Karns & Myers-Wallis, 1988). A common complaint of this age level is “It’s not fair!” These youth enjoy participating in activities away from home because this age group seeks independence. Youth place more value on the opinions of their peers than their parents or other adults. Group experiences provide opportunities for socialization and close friendships develop. As youth progress through puberty, emotions roller coaster and these young teens begin to test values and seek adults who are accepting and who are more willing to talk about values and morals. Another key suggestion for adult volunteers is that “adults can help youth by providing self-knowledge and self-discovery activities” (Karns & Myers-Wallis, 1988). These young teens want to be part of something important and that provides opportunity to develop responsibility.

Youth Leadership Development

“Buzzwords” seem to fill the air when one begins a discussion of youth leadership, youth leadership development, and being a youth leader. There are some common threads found in most discussions concerning leadership development particularly with youth. First of all, leadership does not occur in a vacuum, nor does it happen by reading about leadership. It is an active process, an act of “doing” with others. Leadership has at its core relationships and group dynamics. It requires communication skills, group process skills, has possible stages of development, and is generally situational. Generally, a plan or organizational process with decisions being made evolves within the group structure so that leadership is observed. Achievement of a goal is usually the end product for the group and signifies that leadership has been “achieved” or is successful. According to van Linden and Fertman (1998), “... leadership is a personal and developmental process. This development takes place over time, throughout a person’s life.” Framing leadership development for adolescents becomes a developmental process.

Leadership skills may be transactional or transformative. Transactional leadership skills focus on the skills of leadership, while transformational leadership skills are “being a leader”. In the model proposed by van Linden and Fertman (1998), they offer a balance of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics:

Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
Values the participation and contribution of others	Values problem and solution identification
Takes all viewpoints and advice into account before making a decision	Makes decisions — even if everyone has not been heard—in order to move forward
Considers individuals within their contexts and situation	Uses standards and principles as guides in decision - making
Uses individuals to test decisions	Develops the self to be a better decision maker for the group
Develops the self first to be a better contributor to the group	Gets things done
Learns from experience to generalize to “real life”	Recognizes the importance of the product
Shares leadership (group power)	Takes charge (personal power)

Van Linden and Fertman describe in their model three stages for adolescent leadership development. The first stage is awareness, the second stage is interaction, and the third stage is mastery (van Linden & Fertman, 1998, pp. 18-19).

Theoretical Perspective

Erikson's Stage IV: The Crisis of Industry vs. Inferiority

Erik Erikson's psychosocial stage theory of development is based upon resolving a crisis, which is some sort of challenge that a person must face in that stage. Erikson's stage theory has eight developmental stages. The Oral-Sensory (stage I) covers from birth to 12 to 18 months of age and involves the basic conflict of Trust vs. Mistrust. The Muscular-Anal (stage II) handles the conflict of Autonomy vs. Shame/Doubt and occurs

from 18 months to 3 years. The Locomotor (stage III) ranges from 3 to 6 years and resolves the conflict of Initiative vs. Guilt. Latency (stage IV) ranges from ages 6 to 12 and overcomes the crisis of Industry vs. Inferiority. Adolescence (stage V) covers ages 12 to 18 with the basic conflict of Identity vs. Identity Confusion. Young Adulthood (stage VI) ranges from ages 19 to 40 years and the basic conflict involves Intimacy and Isolation. Erikson extends his stage theory to cover Middle Adulthood (stage VII) from ages 40 to 65 with the conflict of Generativity vs. Stagnation, and a final stage, Maturity (stage VIII) from 65 to death with the basic conflict of Ego Integrity vs. Despair (Erikson, 1968, p. 94).

The crisis of Industry vs. Inferiority is supposed to occur in stage IV from approximately the ages of 6 to 12. The conflict for the child to deal with is the demand to learn new skills or risk a sense of inferiority, failure and incompetence. After the child masters the conflict of Latency (stage IV), then, they move into what Erikson labeled Adolescence (stage V) with the crisis to be resolved of "Identity vs. Identity Confusion" (Thomas, 1996). This developmental stage occurs during the ages of 12 to 18. These two stages of Erikson's theory are about the youth in the 4-H Youth Development Program.

The 4-H Youth Development Program is quite strong in the teaching of skills. 4-H seems to provide an outlet for resolving the conflict or the crisis of Industry vs. Inferiority as youth acquires skills through project work. The majority of the 4-H membership is from ages 9 to 12 years old. It's that ability to say "I did it" that shines on

most youths' faces as you see the final products at the county fair. It would appear that the drop out rate between 5th to 8th grade within the 4-H Youth Development Program occurs at the transition from Erikson's stage IV to stage V. Erikson's developmental theory would suggest that youth at this level are not being provided with experiences to overcome the identity conflict so that the youth can effectively create and assess themselves. Programming to allow for that opportunity to explore one's identity in the context with others must be provided for youth to continue to resolve that psychosocial crisis.

Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development

Vygotsky's developmental theory's central tenet is the problem of learning, the development of the mind, and their interrelationship according to Karpov and Bransford (1995). These authors interpret Vygotsky's central tenet as "the child's mind develops in the course of acquisition of social experience" (Karpov & Bransford, 1995). These experiences are presented to the child in the form of "social psychological tools, language, mnemonic techniques, formulae, concepts, symbols, signs These tools are presented to the child by an adult or by more capable peers in the course of their joint activity" (Karpov & Bransford, 1995). This central tenet of Vygotsky's theory involves the transformation of an interpersonal (social) process to an intrapersonal one with stages of internalization and the role of the experienced learner or mentor. This is the focus of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (zoped) according to John-Steiner &

Souberman (1978). The stages of internalization involve the development of conceptual thought, the mode of organizing one's environment by abstracting and labeling one's environment. Tools such as speech, memory, and thought develop the structures and functions of conceptual thought. Thomas (1996) interprets Vygotsky's zone of proximal development as the distance between the actual level of development, as determined by independent problem solving, and the level of potential development, as determined through problem solving with adult guidance or in collaboration with a more capable peer. At first, the "abilities" lie outside the youth's control in the perception of others and are intermental, and as the abilities become apparent to the youth, they then become intramental. The role of the adult volunteer or older youth in the 4-H Youth Development Program is that of the "experienced" learner. A role that the volunteer leader needs to evolve with the youth as they gain in leadership. The volunteer, adult or older youth, can serve as a role model, a mentor, or a guide to help the youth develop leadership skills.

Vygotsky melds Marxism with core concepts of the dialectical exchanges, activity generating thought, and development occurring as a historical process within a cultural context. These dialectical exchanges are composed of components, *thesis* or an assertion being confronted with an *antithesis* (its opposite) which resolves into revised conclusion or *synthesis*. Thomas (1996) interprets Vygotsky's dialectical exchanges as the children going about their activities (thesis), and then, when the children find the activities don't

always work (antithesis), the children devise new problem-solving ways to satisfy the conditions (synthesis).

Mastery of skills is one of the important processes of the 4-H Youth Development Program for youth ages 5 to 12 years. As an organization, the Program emphasizes skill development. From a theoretical perspective, the 4-H Youth Development Program provides activities that may stimulate thought and generate dialectical experiences as described by Vygotsky's assumptions (Thomas, 1996). It seems that the 4-H Youth Development Program has built upon Vygotsky's framework (John-Steiner & Soubberman, 1978) where the inter-personal is transformed into an intra-personal skill, and the mediating mechanism for 4-H is a volunteer, generally an adult or older teen. The zone of proximal development is apparent in the skill development for youth ages 9 to 12 as they learn and develop through 4-H projects with their project leaders.

There is a need to train volunteers that youth need mentoring. The youth need guidance to help them problem-solve. In a conversation with a 4-H volunteer, concern was expressed that youth would be hurt if they failed at something. Yet, it's in failure that youth learn as long as they have that mentor or a volunteer leader to determine what went wrong. From Vygotsky's perspective, this transformation from inter-mental to intra-mental reflects the role of the volunteer leader. The volunteer leader's role transitions from actively assisting a child to learn a skill to the side by side role of

coaching and answering questions to, finally, a position of “hands-off” where the volunteer leader is present and the child is actively performing the skill.

Through the various projects, the 4-H Youth Development Program, as an organization, appears to provide opportunities to master skills. 4-H projects seem to be developmentally appropriate to learn concrete tasks such as grooming a horse, baking a cake, or building a rocket.

According to Erikson’s developmental theory, it seems that, organizationally, 4-H has created through the 4-H projects the skill development avenues for youth to resolve the crisis associated with Erikson’s stage IV and the conflict, Industry vs. Inferiority. If we look at the developmental framework of Erikson, the youth between the ages primarily of 9 to 12 are actively involved in the stage of industry where they concretely are acquiring the ability to master something and prove that they are capable of becoming adult-like. This stage describes the experiential learning model where youth go through the cycle of do, share, apply, and generalize. However, if adult leaders are not willing to allow youth to assume roles of leadership, then it appears that the crisis reflected in Erikson’s Stage V or Identity vs. Identity Diffusion may not be resolved. Youth do not transition into a leadership role and get stuck learning only skills. It’s in this transitional period of around age 13 that youth may drop out of the 4-H program. Youth who have learned the skill are ready to perform the skill, to teach others and to serve as leaders. A point of contention emerges however when the adult leaders who are confident in

teaching a skill are reluctant to allow youth to lead. This conflict between the youth and volunteer may provide a reason for the youth to dropout.

Gilligan's Theory of Gender Differences or "Justice vs. Caring"

Gilligan's theoretical framework deals with the female "voice" and has attempted to bring out that voice with regards to developmental theories. Gilligan contends that most human development models are based upon the developmental stages of male children (Gilligan, 1979). She (1979) particularly notes that Erikson's psychosocial stage development theory fosters separation or individuation throughout the life cycle except in the Oral-Sensory (stage I) where the conflict to be overcome is Trust vs. Mistrust. This first crisis reflects a relational issue and only again appears as a relational issue in Young Adulthood (stage VI) where the issue to be resolved is of Intimacy vs. Isolation. The intervening stages between Oral-Sensory (stage I) and Young Adulthood (stage VI) promote the need to achieve separation and individuation. This lends itself to the concept of autonomy and independence but doesn't reflect the relational side of development.

Gilligan (1979) argues that girls are only reflected in the shadow of the developmental stage theories of Piaget and Erikson who noted differences between the sexes, yet, proceeded to develop theories solely based upon the male's developmental role. Gilligan (1979) cites studies conducted by Lever of children's peer play groups to outline the differences between the sexes. Gilligan lists in the book, *In A Different Voice*, (1993, p. 9) the observed differences based on sex. Boys play out of doors more often

than girls do. Boys play more often in large and age-heterogeneous groups and they play competitive games more often. Their games last longer than girls' games, and when conflict erupts, squabbles are argued vociferously, yet resolved. Girls however, tended to end the game when conflict erupted. Gilligan interprets these differences as the different approaches by genders in resolving moral dilemmas.

The concept of justice vs. caring originates from Gilligan and Murphy's (1980) reconstruction of Kohlberg's theory on moral development. Gilligan and Murphy provide an alternative concept of postconventional moral development that fits better the existing data than Kohlberg's higher stage description. It is through the real-life experiences of responsibility and irreversible choice, which represent relational issues in regards to moral development. These experiences bring out the appreciation for shades of gray and less absolutistic judgment that define the cognitive shift for Gilligan (1980). When Gilligan examined Kohlberg's theory of moral development, she found that another interpretation was necessary to explain developmental differences observed between males and females. Kohlberg approached moral development from a justice concept with logic and rules. Gilligan introduced the concept of caring to explain the female moral developmental differences observed where relational issues defined how moral issues were resolved.

The 4-H Youth Development Program is a co-educational organization where both boys and girls participate in groups together. There possibly may be differences

observed between the groups who stayed enrolled and those who dropped out based upon gender with the majority of the youth enrolled between the ages of 9 to 12 being females.

The gender differences may impact programming and structure of the club or group activities. Gender developmental differences may need to be reflected in the training of volunteer leaders for the 4-H Youth Development Program.

Importance of Study

4-H Impact Assessment Studies

Given the ties to the land-grant institutions and the research-based focus with application, numerous 4-H studies have been conducted. Most of the studies reflect a “warm fuzzy” or “feel good” assessment of the 4-H Youth Development Program. In particular, a retrospective Alumni Study in 1983 confirmed the value of the program. The study consisted of a telephone survey so the procedures and metrics were not easily transferable (Ladwig, H., 1983). A similar study was conducted in Canada measuring the success of 4-H, the impacts on members and families, and alumni (Collins, J. F. & Associates, 1997).

In 1994, the National 4-H Strategic Design Team (N-4HSDT) created a National 4-H Outcomes Task Force whose recommendations formed the basis for the National Impact Assessment Project. A proposal for \$20,000 seed money was submitted by Dr. William L. Peterson, then chair of the N-4HSDT, to Dr. Alma Hobbs, Deputy

Administrator for Families, 4-H and Nutrition (F4-HN), that began the National 4-H Impact Assessment Project (N4-HIAP). Additional resources were pledged by thirty states as well as an additional \$45,000 from F4-HN to conduct the assessment.

The initial christening of the project started in December 1997 with 45 land-grant university faculty members from 23 different states meeting in Tucson. Sub-groups were formed to design the survey instrument and methodology, and define the critical elements. Pilot testing was completed by May 1999. The national data collection ran from the spring of 1999 until early March 2000. Target groups of youth, fourth to twelfth grade, completed surveys about their 4-H experiences. The target groups represented the four different delivery modes: 4-H clubs, 4-H school enrichment, 4-H special interest, and 4-H after-school programs. The surveys were administered through a facilitation process (Peterson, W., 1999).

The Arizona 4-H Youth Development Program replicated the National 4-H Impact Assessment for the 1999-2000 4-H Youth Development Program year. Preliminary results support the findings of the national study. Both of these impact studies provide baseline data on youth that were enrolled.

Arizona 4-H Impact Assessment Study

The Arizona 4-H Youth Development Program replicated the National 4-H Impact Assessment by surveying youth enrolled in 4-H between the grades of 4th to 12th grades and adults. This assessment survey examined youth's perceptions of eight

elements critical to youth development that emerged from the research question “What positive outcomes in youth, adults, and communities result from the presence of critical elements in a 4-H experience?” A list of the identified critical elements and outcomes of the 4-H experience is found in Table 3.

Table 3

Critical Elements and Outcomes for 4-H Youth Development

CRITICAL ELEMENTS	OUTCOMES
1) Positive relationship with a caring adult	Relationships, Communication, Social/Environmental navigation
2) Safe environment: physically & emotionally	Personal Safety, Conflict Resolution
3) Opportunity for Mastery	Goal Setting & Planning, Subject matter skills & knowledge
4) Opportunity for Value & Practice Service for Others	Social Responsibility for Others (leadership, community service), Valuing Diversity
5) Opportunity for self-determination	Decision Making, Social/Environmental navigation
6) An inclusive environment	Valuing Diversity, Relationships, Communication
7) Engagement in Learning	Problem Solving, Critical Thinking
8) Opportunity to see oneself as an active participant in the future	

Organizational Questions

With this variation in youths' ages, experiences, and needs, it raises the question if this out-of-school youth development program most effectively models youths' developmental needs. And, given the transitional nature of the youth from 12 years to 14 years old who are no longer as dependent on adult approval, there may be subtle reasons for youth to dropout especially if they no longer mesh with the volunteer leader's style. It would be quite easy then to develop time conflicts for attending and just slide away or not re-enroll in 4-H particularly if you were not compatible with the adult volunteer. This suggests that the role of the adult volunteer is quite critical to the transitional needs of youth as they progress through the 4-H Youth Development Program. There would appear to be a need to re-structure the leadership training for volunteers, or recruit leaders specifically for those pre-teen to teen years to emphasize the specific needs of these youth. Activities and events might possibly need to be structured to allow for a small group experience with a heavy social emphasis. One question that could be asked is "Does belonging or not belonging hinge on the adult volunteer relationship with the youth"?

Search Institute's (Scales, Benson, Leffert, and Blyth , 2000) recent research suggests that youth need to have a significant relationship with a minimum of two up to seven adults besides their parents to positively develop and the relationship is seen as a preventive risk factor. If this relationship is one that remains fixed upon the transferal of

skill development and not one that allows youth to stretch themselves with ideas, values, morals, and social experiences, then it is possible that youth would seek to find those adults elsewhere. For those who stay, then they might have found a relationship that allows them to interact appropriately for their developmental needs.

Programmatically, the structure of a club that stretches from the ages of nine to nineteen may not be the most effective incubator for leadership development and life skills. Youth will seek out those arenas where they feel acceptance, that sense of belonging, and where they can excel, as they need to develop a sense of self-confidence that moves beyond just skill acquisition. Studies have been done that have examined how to recruit or retain 4-H members and, 4-H has asked alumni and present members how they feel about 4-H, yet, a survey of those who dropped out to ask why they drop out has not been done.

Research Questions

Developmentally, youth, as they transition through the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program, need a program that reflects their needs and a program that changes to meet those needs. It is anticipated that this change in needs will be reflected in the difference between those youth that continue to stay enrolled with those that choose to drop out. One possible reason for youth that drop out may be that Pima County adult leaders' approach toward youth leadership does not fit with the youth's changing view of

self. Youth may cite a need for a shift in the leadership opportunities and relationship with adults. Additionally, youth may say that their peer group does not value being involved in 4-H.

Programmatic changes for the 4-H Youth Development Program may be suggested through this study. The study in Pima County may serve as a tool to revise the program to adequately fit the developmental needs of youth between 5th to 8th grades and address the necessary programmatic changes. This study may further demonstrate a need for a restructured volunteer leader training to enhance volunteers' skills as they work with youth of these grades and to allow for a progression of leadership levels as in the youth leadership model of van Linden and Fertman.

The following research questions were examined. One, is there a difference between 5th to 8th grade youth who stayed enrolled and those who dropped out of the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program? Two, what perceptual differences are there between the genders and between the groups, stayed enrolled and dropped out? Three, are there differences amongst the grade levels of this study?

When examining the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program, additional questions regarding programming need to be asked such as what activities or events would enhance enrollment retention? Do youth-adult partnerships foster this observed dropout? Are adult leaders providing the opportunities for youth to transition to

leadership? What are roles that youth need to experience to be a leader? Does the organizational structure meet the developmental needs of youth in middle school?

Definition of Terms

4-H or 4-H Youth Development: the youth development program of the Cooperative Extension System

4-H'er or 4-H member: any youth between the ages of 5 to 19 who has been or is currently enrolled in the youth development program of the Cooperative Extension System. The younger age group of 5 to 8 years old is called "CloverKids" in the Arizona 4-H Youth Development Program.

4-H Volunteer: An adult or older youth who serves as a mentor or guide to 4-H'ers.

Club: A group of youth and adults who meet periodically in either a community club or a project club format. The group size may vary as may the leadership roles and responsibilities.

Scope and Delimitation of Study

The study relied on enrolled and formerly enrolled Pima County Extension 4-H Youth Development Program members to self-report their demographic characteristics. The subjects' responses on 4-H Youth Development Program reflected their perceived involvement for the time period as 5th to 8th graders for those who stayed enrolled and for those who dropped out, they were 6th to 9th graders when the data was collected.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this review of literature, there will be an examination of theoretical concepts, an examination of youth leadership studies, and related 4-H Youth Development studies. Since 4-H leadership evolves from participation in a group, studies of groups will also be examined.

Purpose of the Review

The purpose of the review is provide a relevant discussion of pertinent literature and studies with regards to the research hypotheses. This review examines the literature surrounding youth leadership through an organizational model. The review serves to create parameters for the examination of the research questions related to the developmental needs of middle school age youth in the 4-H Youth Development Program. From the conceptual framework to previous studies, the literature review sets the stage for the present study.

Theoretical Framework

Three theoretical frameworks lay the foundation for the research questions, which this study of the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program examines. Erikson's stage development theory provides the programmatic emphasis of skill development

while Vygotsky describes the process of acquiring the skill through a mediating mechanism. Gilligan stresses the importance of (female) voice in the developmental differences between gender, which may provide the explanation of why there is observed differences between the two groups.

Erikson's Psychosocial Theory

Erikson's psychosocial theory is a refinement of Freud's theory of personality development (Thomas, 1996, p. 136). Erikson's emphasis is on the development of the healthy personality through a series of determined psychosocial stages, in which the individual solves some specified identity crisis at each psychosocial stage of growth. It is in the mastery of the environment that one is able to perceive the world and self correctly (Erikson, 1968, p. 92). According to Erikson, crisis is used in a developmental sense as a "turning point, a crucial period of increased vulnerability and heightened potential..." (Erikson, 1968, p.96). He says the ego identity has two aspects, an internal one, where a person recognizes his or her own unified "selfsameness and continuity in time" (Erikson, 1959, p. 23). The second or outer focused aspect is where a person recognizes and identifies with the ideals and essential patterns of their culture (Erikson, 1968, p. 104). Two of these stages, IV and V, of Erikson's psychosocial developmental stage theory pertain to the middle school years of 5th to 8th grades. Stage IV's basic conflict is Industry vs. Inferiority which in Erikson's theory is when the children's desire is to earn

recognition by producing something, to gain the satisfaction of completing work by perseverance (Thomas, 1996 p. 142).

Thomas (1996, p. 143) suggests based on Erikson's theory that "if adults pose tasks for children that they can accomplish and that the children recognize as interesting and worthy, and if the adults furnish guidance needed for completing the tasks, then children have a better chance to come through Erikson's Latency Stage with a sound sense of industry." This fits perfectly with the 4-H Youth Development Program's emphasis on experiential learning or "learn by doing" and with the 4-H motto, "To Make the Best Better". Most 4-H activities are task-related and involve learning how to do a task such as measuring ingredients to bake a cake or caring for a rabbit. If the adult volunteer provides support, rewards and praises a child, then they are encouraging industry. However, if the volunteer leader rebuffs, derides or ignores children's efforts, they strengthen feelings of inferiority (Vander Zanden, 1993, p. 41).

Of all the growth stages, Erikson focuses the greatest attention in his theory on stage V with the conflict of Identity versus Identity Diffusion that leads to the onset of adolescence. Erikson labels the crisis as one of role confusion or identity diffusion where youth do not know who they are to themselves or to others (Thomas, 1996, p. 143). In search of themselves in this stage, they are frequently intolerant of others outside their clique and often come into conflict with parents, siblings, and others. It's at this level, that the pseudo-species that Erikson speaks of emerges (1977, pp 76-77). Labels such as

“baby-boomer”, “gen x’er”, and the “y” generation are used to frame a group creating a sense of irreversible differences between one’s own group and other groups (Erikson, 1977, pp. 76-77). Erikson argues that the key to resolving the crisis of identity versus identity diffusion lies within the adolescent’s interactions with others (Erikson, 1968). Thus, identity development is pulling together the *part identifications*. These part identifications are those identifications that a child forms over the years with parents, siblings, teachers and other significant role models. These role models possess certain qualities that the child sees as desirable - power, privilege, nurturance and affection, and rewards (Steinberg, 1989, pp. 250-251). Erikson says “Children at different stages of their development identify with those part aspects of people by which they themselves are most immediately affected, whether in reality or fantasy (Erikson, 1968, p. 158). Within the 4-H Youth Development Program, the identification with a volunteer leader would be part identification. The volunteer leader may be nurturing and a source of rewards for the child to be able to identify with. If these were not present, then, conflict would be inevitable, particularly as a child enters adolescence as the youth is moving toward the separate identity development stage.

Erikson’s stage IV describes a foundation for the skill acquisition for those 4-H’ers ages 9 to 12. In this industry development stage, youth are acquiring skills, where they learn how to do something with a volunteer leader guiding them in that process. If they are compatible and comfortable with the volunteer leader, then they develop part

identification, which in turn helps them transition to their own identity. However, if conflict is evident, and the youth does not receive nurturing, or feels there is no reward evident, then as the youth move into the crisis of stage V, the struggle for identity puts them in a juxtaposition with the volunteer. Conflict may ensue or be simmering at the surface so that the youth drops out of the club or the project group. Erikson's stages IV and V developmentally provide the programmatic framework for the 4-H Youth Development program; however, they are only part of the foundation.

Vygotsky's Theory of Development

Vygotsky's writings emphasize a socio-historical framework for child development, which are not evident in other developmental theories. A culture's historical background is important to frame as a reference for a child's developments as well as the innate factors such as inherited intelligence or mental abilities. Vygotsky's theory of development also pictures children engaging in activities, and from this engagement, constructing the contents of their mind. He applies the dialectical formula to child development, which is composed of three components, thesis or an assertion being confronted with an antithesis (its opposite) which resolves into revised conclusion or synthesis. He sees children going about their activities (thesis), and then, when the children find the activities don't always work (antithesis), the children devise new problem-solving ways to satisfy the conditions (synthesis) (Thomas, 1996, pp. 272-273). Vygotsky melds Marxism with these three core concepts of the dialectical exchanges,

activity generating thought, and development occurring as a historical process within a cultural context (Thomas, 1996, pp. 272-273). Thomas suggests that Vygotsky's theoretical synthesis of these Marxist core concepts led Vygotsky to a theory of development that has children engaging in activities, and from this engagement, constructing the contents of their minds. Thus, action creates or generates thought and mental development is the process of the children's internalizing the results of their transactions (Thomas, 1996, p. 272). Vygotsky adopted the historical process within a cultural context when he formulated his model based upon understanding the environments that children inhabit from a culture's historical background. Vygotsky incorporated the dialectical exchange of Marx into his theory by proposing that a child develops through the conflict and resolution of dialectical exchanges which the child internalizes to approach the next set of life's activities (Thomas, 1996, pp. 272-273).

Vygotsky's theory is based upon the crucial role of activity played at each stage of development. An *activity* is defined as being a "person's goal-oriented, genuinely industrious reaction with the world, with the product of this activity becoming transformed in the structure of the person's intellect" (Thomas, 1996, p. 288). The theory's basis, then, is that there is a hierarchy of types of activities with a dominant or *leading activity*. These leading activities provide a change in the person's perception of life and signify a transition from one stage to the next. These successive leading activities then become a series of developmental stages (Thomas, 1996, p. 289).

Vygotsky's successive leading activities became a series of developmental stages. The series of stages include six levels:

- 1) Intuitive and emotional contact between child and adults (birth to age 1)**
- 2) Object-manipulation activity (early preschool years, ages one to three)**
- 3) Game-playing activity (later preschool years, ages three to seven)**
- 4) Learning activity (elementary school years, ages seven to eleven)**
- 5) Social-communication activity (early adolescence, ages eleven to fifteen)**
- 6) Vocational-learning activity (early adolescence, ages fifteen to seventeen)**

These learning activities transition from one stage to another with cycles of stability intermingled with crises (Thomas, 1996, pp. 288-9)

These six developmental stages bear some similarity to Erikson's stages such that the number 4 stage is labeled "Learning activity" and encompasses the elementary school years, ages seven to eleven, and the number 5 stage is named "Social-communications activity" for early adolescence, ages eleven to fifteen. In stage number 4, children develop theoretical approaches to the world of things that necessitate them considering laws of reality, moving from concrete to more abstract thought processes. In stage 5, adolescents gain skills by types of communication needed for solving life's problems, understanding other people's motives, and in submitting consciously to group norms (Thomas, 1996, p. 289).

Vygotsky's zone of proximal development assesses learning readiness with an adult observing and noting a child's ability to move from an inter-mental state of readiness to an intra-mental state. The "zone is the distance between the actual learning development as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Thomas, 1996) So, this transition of learning from inter-mental to intra-mental is the zone of proximal development. A mediating mechanism helps with the transformation to the zone and an adult may be the mediating mechanism for learning. This is the role of the adult volunteer leader within the 4-H Program as a youth learns skills. In the early acquisition of skills, it is necessary for a leader to be more involved with a child and yet, as the child acquires the skill, the leader needs to observe and assess if the child is ready to move to another learning activity. The experiential learning model of do, share, apply, and generalize shares Vygotsky's assumptions of activity generating thought.

Discussion About Erikson and Vygotsky

Erikson and Vygotsky both offer a conceptual framework for the experiential learning that takes place within the 4-H Youth Development Program at their respective stages, 4 and IV. Here, mastery and skill development are taking place. Youth acquire a sense of competency, and, depending upon the style of the adult, they achieve "industry" according to Erikson. Vygotsky 's theory contends that youth at stage 4 are dealing with

the world of things and moving from concrete to abstract. They would be learning how to use things and acquire skills. It appears though that an adult is a necessary ingredient for youth to move through these two stages, IV and 4. As one examines the respective stages, 5 and V, Vygotsky outlines how important the social connection through language is for learning about one's self in the context of one's culture and history. Erikson suggests that, as one tries on an identity, youth must help one another during these years of confusion and of unclear occupational direction by clustering together, by stereotyping themselves in clothes and speech, in their ideals, and in their idols, and enemies (Thomas, p. 143). It is the importance of group that is emphasized through this identity development stage. Erikson and Vygotsky both provide framework for the 4-H Youth Development Program's organizational structure.

There is a strong relational or connectional component to the 4-H Youth Development Program with the co-educational groups, which is neither described nor explained through Erikson nor Vygotsky. Both of them truly reflect the autonomy and accomplishment of the individual. In fact, Erikson's theory is based upon clearly the male child's perceived need for separation and individuation (Gilligan, 1993, p. 12). His stages reflect crises that emphasize separation and individuation at the expense of connectedness. The only exception is found in stage I where Trust vs. Mistrust is the crisis and the developmental anchor for that stage is that of a relationship. However, the

intervening Erikson's stages emphasize autonomy and individuality so that even identity is developed and resolved before stage VI with the crisis of Intimacy vs. Isolation.

Gilligan's Theory of Gender Development

Gilligan's studies with regards to gender and age fill in the conceptual gap left by Erikson. She contends that the problem of interpretation that shadows the understanding of women's development arises from the differences observed in their experience of relationships (Gilligan, p. 24). In her study, two sixth graders are presented with the scenario of Heinz who has a sick wife. Heinz attempts to get the needed drug from the druggist. Heinz is faced with the dilemma whether to steal or not to save his wife's life. The two children see this dilemma from two very different moral problems. The boy sees a conflict between life and property that can be resolved by logical deduction, while the girl sees a human relationship that must be "mended with its own thread" (Gilligan, p. 31). These two youth mediate their decision in different ways—he, impersonally through the systems of logic and law, while she, personally through communication in relationship (Gilligan, p. 29). An eight-year-old boy-girl pair in which they are asked to resolve a conflict with a friend presents another contrasting view of relationships. The boy creates an image of hierarchy while the girl creates a network of relationships when asked what was the right thing to do about the friend (Gilligan, p. 33).

The concept of justice vs. caring originates from Gilligan and Murphy's (1980) reconstruction of Kohlberg's theory on moral development. They provide an alternative conception of postconventional moral development that fits better the existing data than Kohlberg's higher stage description. It is through the real-life experiences of responsibility and irreversible choice that is seen by late adolescents and adults that brought out the appreciation for shades of gray and less absolutistic judgment that defines the cognitive shift for Gilligan (1980). Gilligan notes that Kohlberg's research on moral development assumes the "child to be male" and that it is as though "females simply do not exist" in the development of his theory (Gilligan, 1979, p. 441). It is in the arena of "conflicting responsibility" rather than "competing rights" that Gilligan asserts that women's categories of thinking of moral development diverges from the outline described by Kohlberg (Gilligan, 1979, p. 442). The concern for caring develops through a structural progression of "increasing differentiation and integration" that "characterizes the understanding of relationships". At the same time, the "concept of fairness also delineates the progressive differentiation and balancing of individual rights" (Gilligan, 1979, p. 442). It seems quite simplistic then to say that boys develop morally along the fairness or justice mode while girls evolve relationally toward a moral sense of caring. The 4-H Youth Development Program has rules and regulations for projects and exhibiting at the fair. There are project standards for levels of excellence. Boys may find that these rules and regulations and standards of excellence fit their mode of justice and

fairness while girls may find themselves in a dilemma as they seek to resolve relational aspects within the club or group.

Brown and Gilligan (1992) examine this relational crisis in girls' development through their team study of the Laurel School for girls in Cleveland, Ohio. They spent four years examining the series of disconnections or disassociations as girls entered adolescence. This crossroads between girls and women is one of relational and developmental loss of voice. Voice is defined as "one's ear to the harmonics of relationship" (Brown & Gilligan, 1992, p. 21). Voice is composed of four questions: "(1) who is speaking? (2) In what body? (3) telling what story about relationship from whose perspective or from what vantagepoint? (4) in what societal and cultural frameworks?" (Brown & Gilligan, 1992, p. 21). The voices of girls who are "whistle blowers" on relational violations subtly change to the vision of the "perfect" girl who is nice and kind (Brown & Gilligan, 1992, p. 56). The discrepancy in what they know and yet what they actually say is hard to acknowledge when striving to make and maintain friendships. The phrase "I don't know" holds significance as a way of disconnecting from the strong feelings one must hide to maintain these relationships. One girl phrases it "you just sort of forget your mind" (Brown & Gilligan, 1992, p. 138). The study pursues the transition from girlhood to adolescence and certainly emphasizes the differences in development between girls and boys.

Horst (1995) indicates that other authors have agreed with Gilligan's assessment (1982) that Erikson's theory of development with regards to identity development does not adequately address the experience of women. According to Horst (1995), nearly two decades before Gilligan's work appeared; Douvan and Addelson conducted a national study of adolescents and concluded that identity formation differs substantially between boys and girls. Horst (1995) however argues that Erikson's relational aspects have been shrouded by the work of others that misread his multiple levels of meaning inherent in Erikson's use of the term identity and intimacy. She suggests that we need to balance the dialectical and epigenetic nature of Erikson's theory with approaches that responsibly account for sex differences (Horst, 1995).

Sayers (1997) examines boys as well as girls in early adolescence noting that the boys desire to become sports, film or rock stars where the identity as a sports hero severs the boys from a "desire for connection with others". She contends that in such dreams, boys know nothing of the gap between reality and the illusions of "idealizing themselves in place of the heroes they seek to rival and outwit. They are ill placed to deal with today's crisis of identity and masculinity" (Sayers, 1997, p. 73). She reports though, through her own study with boys and girls, like the girls studied by Brown and Gilligan at Laurel School (1992), the girls were similarly "mindful of their desires and vicissitudes."

These gender differences would impact how boys and girls perceive the club and the organizational structure of the 4-H Youth Development Program. Within Erikson's

context of transition from industry where youth are competent and capable and seen as proficient at adult-like tasks to the identity stage, it would appear that the 4-H Youth Development Program satisfies boys' need for separation and individuation with the emphasis on individual learning and mastery. Yet, because the program takes place in the context of a group, a supposedly connected structure, the impact on girls would be perceptually different with their developmental need for connectedness and network of relationships. Their need for caring and compassion would come at the expense of this need for mastery and sense of competency. There is also the conflicting nature with rules and regulations within the context of a group setting. An issue that involves someone's interpretation of an action may draw gender lines with boys seeing "black and white" while girls might see how hurt someone would be if the rule was applied without consideration for exceptions or the circumstances. If the organization appears to value rules and logic over the connections of the individual to the group, then possibly, girls would feel they must leave to resolve the conflict between the competing responsibility and conflicting relationships that Gilligan addresses in her gender theory.

These three theoretical frameworks, Erikson, Vygotsky, Gilligan, holistically provide the foundational components for the present study. Erikson examines the overall developmental needs while Vygotsky provides the mediating mechanism and zone of proximal develop for learning skills. Gilligan argues the necessity of examining gender

differences through the developmental transition of Erikson's stages. Together all three provide an appropriate framework for the research questions.

Youth Leadership

Assumptions or common threads that have been found with 4-H youth leadership development include leadership is a process, an act of "doing" with others. Leadership has relationships and group dynamics. Communication and group process skills are important. Anyone can be a leader, and it depends on the situation. Usually there is a plan with decisions being made in a group setting, so that leadership is observable. Achievement of a goal is usually the end product for the group, and signifies that leadership has been "achieved."

The study of youth leadership typically follows adult leadership models, which often equate leadership to management (Bass, 1990). Studies of youth leadership also follow adult-based theories (Oakland, T., Falkenberg, & Oakland, C., 1996) and attempt to identify traits (Karnes, & D'Illio, 1990), personality (Karnes, & D'Illio, 1989), parents (D'Illio, & Karnes, 1992, and Karnes, & McGinnis, 1994), residence (Abel, & Karnes, 1993), interpersonal skills (Karnes, Deason, & D'Illio, 1993), cognitive (Morris, 1991, 1992, 1993) and creative abilities as leaders (Chauvin, & Karnes, 1983).

From a historical perspective, one was "born to rule". Power, status, wealth, and gender have also been categories that have defined leadership. Leadership has also been

defined by personal characteristics. Various studies are examined in regard to adolescent leadership. Most of them attempt to define the qualifications for leadership. Others address some of these questions with regard to adolescents such as how does one go about “making” an adolescent a leader? How does one define who will be a leader? Do personality characteristics help determine leadership? Is leadership something that can be taught? What factors influence leadership? Are there differences between adult and adolescent leaders? Research of leadership potential for high school students appears to have really “taken off” when the United States Office of Education defined gifted and talented as being: “... youth who are identified at preschool, elementary, or secondary level as possessing demonstrated or potential abilities that give evidence of high performance capability in areas such as... leadership ability”(Chauvin & Karnes, 1983).

Leadership Instruments

Researchers Chauvin and Karnes (1983) utilized the High School Personality Questionnaire to develop a leadership profile based on identified adult leader factors such as intelligence, enthusiasm, conscientiousness, self-sufficiency, and self-control. Another instrument, the Leadership Skills Inventory, a self-reporting instrument, weighs nine areas for leadership development: fundamentals of leadership, written and speech communication, values clarification, planning, problem solving, group dynamics, personal development, and decision-making (Karnes & D’Ilio, 1990). The Leadership Skills Inventory is intended to measure perceived strengths and weaknesses of student

leaders' concepts and skills and help determine curriculum. Yet, another instrument named the Khatena-Morse Multitalent Perception Inventory was developed to identify leadership from a co-related, multitalent approach of music, art, creative talent, and leadership. The instrument examines creative characteristics, thinking, and production and is based on subject's responses to questions on a questionnaire (Khatena & Morse, 1987). Four subscales of the California Psychological Inventory were examined for reliability and validity with an examination of the leadership subscale included. These subscales were also being considered a possible leadership identification instrument. The leadership subscales examine characteristics inclusive of responsibility, self-confidence, popularity, cooperativeness, social participation, adaptability, dominance, and verbal ability (O'Brien, 1991). The Leadership Strengths Profile as used by Riley and Karnes (1994) was developed by Ellis and has eight cluster scales. These eight clusters are:

- I. Enjoys group activities
- II. Key individual in group activities
- III. High level participator in group activities
- IV. Journalistic cluster which looks at a combination of written and oral communication abilities
- V. Sympathetic, a cluster that examines interest in and tolerance for others
- VI. Courageous, the cluster that looks at courage and risk-taking
- VII. Conscientious, the cluster which looks at one's responsibility and dedication

VIII. Self-confident cluster which examines the feeling of confidence in comparison with peers and adults (Riley & Karnes, 1994).

Another instrument, the Leadership Traits Inventory, lists nine leadership traits: Consistency, Flexibility, Creativity, Knowledge or Skills, Sense of Purpose, Compassion, Clear Priorities, Integrity, and Good Listening (Morris, 1991).

Leadership Scales for Youth

Oakland, Falkenberg, and Oakland (1996) reviewed leadership measures for children, youth and adults in the context of current leadership theories and with psychometric standards for use. Eleven measures were examined with some of the measures exclusively measuring leadership while others assess broader qualities. Their review includes three sections: scales specifically designed to assess leadership in children and youth, scales measuring more general qualities that included leadership subscales for children and youth, and scales measuring adult leadership. The review includes information on the type of leadership measure, the intended use or purpose of the scale and the scale's psychometric properties.

Tests for children and youth on leadership include the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE) which measures decision-making patterns or social climate created by someone in a leadership position. Karnes & Chauvin's Leadership Skill Inventory (1985) is an inventory designed to assess leadership of youth between grades 4 through 12. Nine dimensions are measured.

The Eby Gifted Behavior Index is a rating scale and checklist that assesses gifted behavior in six talent areas. The Gifted and Talented Screening Form (GTSF) is a scale for youth from kindergarten to 9th grade which has six content areas, each having four items. The Gifted Evaluation Scale (GES) was designed to screen for giftedness as consistent with the definition of giftedness in Public Law 95-561 and includes a 10-item leadership subscale. The Scales for Rating the Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students (SRBCSS) is a 95-item test with 10 subscales, one of which assesses leadership characteristics. It would appear from this review that there is an unmet need for assessment for children. Measures typically assess qualities of giftedness and typically include one subscale for leadership. The scales appear to measure leadership as a trait while most current leadership theories have moved away from the trait theory.

The Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS) was developed by Dormody, Seevers, and Clason (1992) as a means to provide youth organization leaders and others concerned with youth development with an evaluation and research tool for measuring leadership life skill development. The YLLSDS may be used as a formative as well as summative evaluation tool and could be used to compare leadership life skill development between youth organization members and non-members (Dormody et al, 1992).

Situationist vs. Trait Approach to Leadership

These varied instruments of leadership assessment attempt to define “who is a leader” as though leadership is a static, “one-stop” characteristic. However, in defining a leadership profile, one must balance the situationist approach and the trait approach to leadership prediction. The trait approach tends to act as though a personality trait acts solely to define leadership while the situationist approach looks at the environmental situation (Chauvin & Karnes, 1983).

Personality Characteristics

In a study by Karnes and D'Ilio (1989), student leaders were administered the High School Personality Questionnaire to measure personality characteristics. Significant differences were found between girls and boys with girls scoring higher on emotional stability, dominance and on independence, which is a secondary factor. In the Leadership Potential Score, both sexes scored in the high average range with no significant difference noted. In a later study, also by Karnes and D'Ilio (1990), they examined the correlation between personality and leadership concepts and skills. They again administered the High School Personality Questionnaire as well as the Leadership Skills Inventory. Both instruments are self-reporting. In this study, significant differences were found with girls scoring higher on the Values Clarification subscale of the Leadership Skill Inventory and again, significant differences were noted on the High School Personality Questionnaire factors of Emotional Stability, Dominance, and Independence. Correlation between the

two mentioned instruments found the Warmth factor correlated with skills such as written and speech communication, group dynamics, personal development and planning. The Emotional stability factor correlated with all Leadership Skills. The Dominance factor correlated with speech communication, decision-making, problem-solving, personal development, and planning skills. The Sensitivity factor correlated with written communication, personal development and planning skills. The Self-discipline factor correlated with decision-making, personal development, and planning skills.

Interestingly, negative correlations were found with personality factors of apprehension, anxiety, and accident proneness with almost all of the leadership skills (Karnes & D'Ilio, 1990). Though relationships were found between personality and leadership from this study, one must ponder whether it is the personality factors which assist in the skill development that then enhances the personality which in turn develops even further the leadership skills. This spiral or circular effect may reflect a need to “balance” nature and nurture in leadership development. There may be a biological “edge” in defining leadership related to personality characteristics, but it is with skill development that leadership is enhanced.

Parental Influence

Parents, their parenting style, and their perception of their youth are research factors that have also been examined in adolescent's leadership. Whorton and Karnes (1992) administered the Parent Leadership Style instrument of Hershey and Blanchard to

assess parents' behavior in leadership style and adaptability. This instrument examines four styles of leadership: "telling" defined as one-way communication where the parent defines the role of the youth with specific directions; "selling" where parents develop two-way communication and encourage the youth to key into the decision that the parent feels ought to be made; "participating" where the parent and youth share communication and the youth contributes to the problem solving; "delegating" where the parent may still define the problem but the youth is the decision maker (Whorton & Karnes, 1992). The styles of "selling" and "participating" were most frequently perceived from parent's self-ratings and their youth's ratings of parents. The style of "delegating", however, according to Hershey and Blanchard, is the one with the highest probability of being effective with youth that are willing to assume responsibility for decision making.

Another important aspect of leadership is social skills. Parents play an important role in the development and maintenance of social competency perceptions. D'Ilio & Karnes (1992) observed perceptual differences when parents and youth were given the Social Performance Survey Schedule. Youth in leadership positions perceived themselves significantly more positively in social behaviors than did their parents. When taken separately, mothers perceive youth higher than fathers as exhibiting more positive social behaviors do. However, mothers did not match youth's perception as well as fathers do in negative perceptions (D'Ilio & Karnes, 1992). This study opens the door for examining more thoroughly the social competency and behaviors of adolescent leaders.

Relationship Between Leadership and Self-esteem

Adolescent leadership behavior may be a positive sign of intellectual and social adjustment. The relationship between leadership behavior and self-esteem, locus of control, family structure, and career goals has been investigated. Two groups, one with leaders, the other, non-leaders, were given questionnaires that asked questions regarding family income, birth order, family structure, career goals, and included a locus-of-control subscale and Rosenberg's self-esteem scale. The results indicated that those who exhibit leadership are higher in internal locus of control, have supportive two-parent families, and have higher career goals. The only hypothesis not supported was the one regarding self-esteem, though self-esteem was correlated with higher career goals (McCullough, Ashbridge, & Pegg, 1994). The findings may not offer an appropriate measure of self-esteem with adolescents, according to the authors, and perhaps a more specific scale ought to be used that utilizes an indirect approach to self-esteem. They also felt that family conflict versus family structure should be further examined and proposed that a longitudinal study be done to assess whether high career goals were actually achieved in those exhibiting leadership behavior.

Another study analyzed leadership in adolescents for correlation with self-actualization (Karnes, Deason, & D'Ilio, 1993). Student leaders were given the Leadership Skills Inventory and the Reflections of Self by Youth (ROSY). The findings suggest association with various leadership skills and self-actualization, but the authors

did indicate that further studies were needed. Marcia's work on identity development along with these studies according to the authors (Karnes, Deason, & D'Ilio, 1993) might yield interesting correlations between identity and leadership skill development.

Leadership Emotes Rational Behavior

Another aspect of adolescent leaders that's been explored is that they exhibit rational behavior that is considered a positive sign of personal adjustment. "The rational emotive theory proposes that rational thinking leads to emotional adjustment, while irrational thinking leads to emotional disturbance" (Ellis, 1962,1990 as cited by Morris, 1992). Researcher Morris (1992) studied the psychological health, future beliefs, temporal perspectives, and demographic characteristics of adolescent leaders. The students were given the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory to determine degree of emotional stability and the Temporal Perspective Technique as well as a Future Beliefs Inventory. The study's findings revealed that adolescent leaders differ from other students as they strongly believe in being prepared for the future and dealing with change (Morris, 1992). They seek long-range goals and are able to delay gratification which supports Rappaport's study on ego identity achievement based on Marcia's work. Morris (1992) found that these findings supported Rappaport's previous findings of students who are identity achieved and foreclosed having future time perspectives. These adolescent leaders also identified with risk-taking behavior. Morris advocates rational emotive education to "...teach students rational and logical approaches to everyday and future situations"

(Morris, 1992). Again, it appears that personality characteristics and leadership skills may be intertwined.

Perceptual Difference Between Youth and Adult Leaders

Do adolescents and adult leaders have the same perception of leadership traits? Differences were noted in two studies conducted by Morris. The first study compared adult and adolescent leaders rank order of the Leadership Traits Inventory. Both adults and adolescents highly value integrity and knowledge or skills. Adults, however, value consistency and flexibility which suggests a more practical, rational approach to problem solving. Adolescents, on the other hand, valued highly creativity, which could be seen as youth's "idealism" being reflected. Gender differences were significant and more differences were found between female adults and adolescent subjects. If one looks at leadership theory, the differences noted by adolescents and adults might be explained by age and stage of development (Morris, 1991).

To explain the gender differences, the second study looked at the valued leadership traits and irrational thinking between female adult leaders and adolescents. Again, the rank-order of the Leadership Traits Inventory was conducted with the addition of the Irrational Beliefs Test. Significant differences were noted on irrational beliefs, as adolescents tended to espouse more irrational beliefs than adults do. Specific subscales were High Self-expectations, Blame Proneness, and Anxious Over concern about the Future. These findings indicate that the adolescent female leaders are more concerned

about being successful, more prone to blame self and others, and more worried about their future than the adult female leaders (Morris, p. 566, 1993). Morris suggests that a developmental progression explanation from adolescent to adult on irrationality is supported from these studies (Morris, 1993).

Roach, Wyman, Brokkes, Chavez, Heath, Valdes (1999) reported results from a decade-long study in underserved and at-risk communities of young people identified and promoted as leaders within out-of-school youth organizations. They make the point that youth leadership models should not be based upon the individualistic, adult models which tend to deal with management as well as leadership skills and with who is a leader rather than how leadership happens. Some key points that are made from the study is that those groups who viewed youth as resources, who help youth transition through a long-term project and all the stages from preparing to performing, and who deal with goals with a group orientation are viewed as effective learning organizations that put youth in positions of accountability, responsibility, and decision-making. The groups focus may be on athletics, arts, or community service.

Programs to Develop Adolescent Leadership Development

Leader-Member Approach

Hohmann, Hawker, and Hohmann (1982) approached leadership development from a leader-member approach where youth in a workshop format were able to be in

groups, static and variable groups, to experience different tasks. The strategies for the group development as leaders included:

- 1. Every group is active**
- 2. Every groups has a purpose**
- 3. Every group is cooperative**
- 4. Removing distractions such as leaving behind the “teenage culture”**
- 5. Forging a community**
- 6. Structuring groups**
- 7. Providing choices**
- 8. Staff selection**

The staff served as role models; the groups fostered individual self-confidence; groups permitted mistakes; cooperative groups supported outreach rather than exclusiveness; many groups call for many leaders. This program allowed for adolescents to try out roles and the group development strategies spoke to the issues of identity consolidation (Hohmann, Hawker, & Hohmann, 1982).

In another study by Hensel and Franklin (1988), they examined the “emergent leadership” skill, which was defined as “leadership that develops spontaneously through group interaction”. The program attempted to balance the emotional specialists who were concerned with the needs of the members versus the task specialist who were concerned

with attaining the goals of the group. The program incorporated decision-making and problem-solving skills (Hensel & Franklin, 1988).

Three-Stage Model of Instruction to Youth Leadership Training

Basing the model on Fielder's contingency theory of leadership, Hynes, Feldhusen and Richardson (1978) youth leadership-training model has three stages that provide training to teach students to be better leaders. After the first stage, results showed that those students who studied the training materials knew more about leadership than students in a control group. However, knowledge did not translate to behavioral and attitude changes, so it was concluded that training must incorporate behavioral and attitudinal change as well as increase in knowledge for youth leadership development to occur.

Transformational and Transactional

Wofford, Goodwin, and Whittington (1998) in their field study said that the "development of transformational leaders in organizations should be a priority. Because scripts that guide behavior and expectations are relatively robust to change, the building of transformational leadership cognition should begin early". Development programs intended to change leader behavior should emphasize the kinds of instructional approaches that call for the behavioral manifestations of leadership scripts while providing feedback to indicate which ones are effective and ineffective(Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington,1998). They offered recommendations such as on-the-job

training and mentoring as practical approaches for successful leadership development. Of particular importance, though was the impact of mentors who provide an inspiring vision, challenging developmental goals, guidance, and personal feedback, thus modeling transformational leadership themselves (Wofford et al, 1998). The authors said (1998) that cognitive constructs basically affect the leaders' behavior. To summarize their model, transformational leadership cognitive schemata and scripts need to be developed early on and with the aid of a mentor.

In a transformational leadership study done by Zacharatos, Barling, and Kelloway, (2000), they examined youth's transformational leadership behavior if they perceived their parents as exhibiting transformational leadership behavior. The authors created a path model with the youth's self-report, a peer's report ranging from 1 to 5, and their coaches' report since all youth represented athletic teams. Limitations of this study pertained to the sample size, the basis on perceptions, and the possible multi-collinearity of the mother and father's perceptions. The authors reported that this study's results extend previous research in the area of leadership specifically that adolescents perceive the extent to which their fathers use behaviors consistent when interacting with them, and in turn the youth use these with interacting with their peers. Secondly, this study exhibits that transformational leadership behaviors are not only manifested by adults, but by adolescents as well. And, thirdly, if these behaviors are relatively stable, then,

transformational leadership behaviors that exist during adolescence may have critical implications for later leadership (Zacharatos, Barling, and Kelloway, 2000).

Training for Leadership Skills: Experience, Timing, and Mentoring

Mumford, Marks, Conelly, Zaccaro, and Reiter-Palmon (2000) worked with a sample of Army leaders at various levels that came up with findings that suggest that leadership knowledge and skills increase as a function of experience and that increases in skill levels occur across organizational levels. What they found was that development occurs in a progressive, systematic fashion and those leaders must initially acquire basic concepts and principles. Then, they may apply and begin to develop creative problem-solving skills, which are then subsequently integrated with the practical demands of implementing problem solving within an organizational system. Though this study was done with the Army, it's quite possible to make leaps to working with organizations that develop leaders. The study further pointed out that the outcome of assignments and the feature of assignments contributed to skills depending upon the nature of the skills that were relevant at that point in time of the officer's careers. It was critical then to design tasks to fit the skills being learned and another key point in the study was the use of a mentor. Taking the leap that youth also must develop progressively through the organization, then the point would be that youth need experiences, training and mentoring to learn these skills.

Background Data Constructs as Predictors of Leadership Behavior

Mumford, O'Connor, Clifton, Connelly, and Zaccaro (1993) constructed a measure of adolescent leadership activities and the background data items correlated with the leadership activities. These scales when used to predict men and women's collegiate leadership activities yielded multiple correlations of .26 and .37. The study examined personality characteristics, cognitive capacity, motivational and social skills to predict differential leadership capacity. Understanding the differential characteristics can make performance possible and shape the forces for development through more effective training programs.

Youth leadership has been studied from various angles. Yet, personality, background, and personal characteristics tend to frame the parameters for the studies. What can be gleaned is that leadership is something that can be developed. There are gender differences in some areas depending upon what scale is used to measure leadership. Training models that provide experiences and mentors regardless of the setting aid youth leadership. There is a need for consistent measures and a determination as to what exactly composes leadership for an adolescent.

Group Behavior

The need for belonging, is particularly important with peers, particularly, group members become important social referents for youth as they seek to create a bridge from

childhood dependencies on their parents to a sense of autonomy and connectedness with the social environment. Gavin and Furman (1989) conducted a study on the age differences in adolescents' perceptions of their peer groups. They employed social psychological theories of group formation in which they questioned adolescents about the characteristics of their peer groups. Early adolescents (grades 7-8) and middle adolescents (grades 9-10) reported placing more value on being in a popular group and perceived more group conformity and leadership within their groups than did pre (grades 5-6) - and late (grades 11-12) adolescents. Early and middle adolescents also reported more antagonist interactions and fewer positive interactions with group members and more antagonistic interactions with those not part of their peer groups.

Girls reported having more positive group interactions, were bothered more by negative interactions, and perceived having more permeable group boundaries. Boys on the other hand reported more negative interactions with those outside their group. The sense of belonging gained by being a member of a popular group may bolster a sense of identity and help youth feel more secure in the social arena which is why it is more important for early adolescence as they transition from junior high to high school. Even though the importance of peer groups may not have peaked in the pre-adolescent grades of 5-6, the need to conform is prevalent. This study examined peer groups and not friendships which may have placed an even greater age differential for those in the early to middle adolescent age groups. Conformity, exclusivity, positive interactions, and

scapegoating processes all appear to be salient mechanisms for group operations for adolescents (Gavin & Furman, 1989) and by examining the changes that occur with the individual, there are also changes that occur with the group membership. Group membership is critical then to the development of the 4-H club and with fewer close peers involved, the inability to provide exclusivity and conformity may lead youth to drop out to find other groups that best fit their needs.

Adolescent's Peer Relations Within Groups

Six goals pursued by adolescents in relationship with peers included: Intimacy, Nurturance, Dominance, Leadership, Popularity, and Avoidance (Jarvinene & Nicholls, 1996). The six beliefs about behaviors or circumstances that lead to success in peer relationships were also identified: Being Sincere, Having Status, Being Responsible, Pretending to Care, Entertaining Others, and Being Tough. This study expected to find that beliefs about what is required for successful social relations would vary with social goals and tested this hypothesis by factor analyzing goal and belief scales together. They found that satisfaction in peer relationships would be associated with communal goals and beliefs that represent social interaction as an ends rather than those agentic goals and beliefs about the causes of success that make social transaction a means to an end.

Females tended to be higher as a group on the communal goals than males and were also more satisfied in their social relationships. Males were more highly oriented toward the agentic beliefs as a group and were less satisfied with their social relationships

(Jarvinen & Nicholls, 1996). The gender differences also lend weight to the differences noted by Gilligan as compared to Erikson's theory for adolescents and their peer relationships.

Leaders and Group Interaction

Misumi (1985) said, "Leadership is at the center of any educational activity. Educational excellence can only be brought through the intentional guiding behavior, which constitutes excellent educational leadership.... Basically, educational leadership consists of a relationship between the leader and a group of the led"(Misumi, 1985, pp. 117-8). Educational leadership is a group phenomenon because it involves relations among more than two persons. In Lewin's 1939 study where the three leadership types were studied at that time— democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire – created different "social climates" (Misumi, 1985).

The P M Leadership theory arose out of the studies of social climate. In the P M leadership theory, the "P" stands for performance behavior and is concerned with the concepts of group goal achievement while the "M" stands for Maintenance and emphasizes the socio-emotional side of group maintenance behavior (Misumi, 1985, pp. 10-11). Leadership behavior that prompts and motivates group goal achievement is called P Leadership. M Leadership Behavior is oriented toward promoting and reinforcing the tendency toward self-preservation. Maintenance-oriented behavior is directed toward dispelling excessive tensions that arise in interpersonal relations within a

group or organization. M Leadership Behavior promotes the resolution of conflict and strife, gives encouragement and support, provides an opportunity for minority opinions to be expressed, inspires personal need fulfillment and prompts an acceptance of interdependence among group members (Misumi, 1985, p. 11). This theory of group leadership behavior fits with the presentation of Gilligan's gender differences with the connectional or relational aspect of leadership behavior like the M Leadership Behavior and the P Leadership Behavior representing Erikson's separation and individuation concept for the conflict of Industry vs. Inferiority.

Group Dynamics

In Cartwright and Zander's *Group Dynamics Research and Theory* (1960), they examined Lewin's study with Lippitt, and White which was conducted at the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station between 1937 and 1940. In that study, groups of 10 and 11 year old children were formed to meet regularly over a period of several weeks under the leadership of an adult, who induced different group atmospheres. The various groups were made as similar as possible. They studied the effect of democratic, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles on youth.

Some of the findings they found related to basic assumptions about groups: Groups are inevitable and ubiquitous; groups mobilize powerful forces which produce effects of utmost importance to individuals; and groups may produce both good and bad consequences (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, pp. 34-35). A correct understanding of group

dynamics (obtainable from research) permits the possibility that desirable consequences from groups can be deliberately enhanced. They examined some group dynamics such as group cohesiveness which refers to a phenomena that exists because a person is attracted to a group due to its properties - goal, programs, size, types of organizations, position in the community; needs of person for affiliation, recognition, security, and other things which can be mediated by the group (Cartwright & Zanier, 1960, p. 72). Depending upon the reasons for cohesiveness may lead to different patterns of influence and communication among the members such as positional versus task orientation (Cartwright & Zanier, 1960, p. 77).

Group's valence. According to a study by Kelley, one conclusion drawn was that the more prestige a person has within a group or the more prestige it appears that they might obtain, the more they will be attracted to the group. Valued members are more likely to be attracted to a group than those who have less social worth to the group are. He also found that the effect of high or low self-esteem was much stronger among persons with lower self-esteem than among those with higher self-esteem because members with lower self-esteem seemingly had a stronger need for acceptance by others (as cited by Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 79).

A cooperative vs. competitive relationship is also more attractive. Cooperative groups have more cohesiveness. Heightened interactions may increase the attractiveness that a group has for its members. As the degree of frequency of interaction between 2 or

more persons increase, the degree of their liking for one another will increase and vice versa (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 80). Certain kinds of similarity among members may strengthen the cohesiveness of a group. In another study by Zander and Havelin, they found that people prefer to associate with those close to them in ability than ones that are divergent from them in ability (as cited by Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 81). Events outside the group can also influence its attractiveness. Activities that a group does can increase/decrease the attractiveness. It appears that cohesiveness can be increased in some groups by attacks from the environment and in some groups by disagreeable experiences like the attack on Pearl Harbor or the terrorism attacks of September 11, 2001 (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 82).

Conditions that decrease the group's valence. Valence decreases for a person if the needs that a group has been satisfying are reduced. If the group becomes less suitable as a means of satisfying existing needs or acquires distasteful/unpleasant properties, then the person will leave. They will actually leave only when the forces driving them away from the group are greater than the sum of forces attracting to the group plus the restraining forces against leaving. It is possible to find many groups, which survive only because the members have no strong motivation to leave. If disagreeable demands are placed, fringe members will leave for unwanted demands upon them. If there is disagreement over the way to solve a group problem, it has been observed that people may leave a group because they feel that other members are too dominating or that they

have some other unpleasant characteristics (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, pp 84-85).

Membership in a group may limit the satisfaction a person can receive from activities outside of it. Negative evaluation placed upon membership in a group by people in the surrounding community can also make the group unattractive to its members. Competition among groups for members provides a final reason that members may wish to leave a group (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 86).

Leadership and Group Performance

Lewin, Lippit, and White provide striking evidence that the same group of people will behave in markedly different ways when operating under leaders who behave differently (Cartwright & Zander, 1960). Likert also emphasizes the intimate relationship between leader and group effectiveness (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 488). Fielder on the other hand found that leaders of more effective groups characteristically maintain a greater “psychological distance” between themselves and other people than do leaders of other groups (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 488). Research on the training of leaders also suggests that a more “situational” approach to leadership is required. There is a growing recognition that little improvement in actual leadership behavior can be expected from providing people with a set “rules of leadership” (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p.491). Cartwright & Zander (1960, p. 493) use Cattell’s definition that asserts “any member of a group exerts leadership to the extent that the properties of a group (syntality) are modified by his presence in the group”. According to this view, all group functions

which help the group achieve its desired states are leadership functions. Acts of leadership are then to be found group performance, and each person may display in varying degrees leadership as well as each member may have it regardless of position or office. There are two basic types of group functions: goal achievement and group maintenance. For a member to take the initiative in attempting to serve a group function at least two conditions must appear necessary: he must be aware that a given function is needed and he must feel that he is able to perform it, that he has enough skill to do or that it is safe for him to attempt to do so (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 496).

4-H Clubs that offer the opportunity for both goal achievement and group maintenance would probably have a positive valence and have no problem keeping members, while those clubs with a negative valence would have difficulty maintaining membership.

4-H and Related Youth Development Organizational Studies

Youth-serving organizations typically have been studied in two ways: as an impact assessment or as a tool for identifying commonalities for a positive environment.

Adolescent Needs from Youth Organization Studies

Costello, Toles, Spielberger and Wynn (2000) noted that Pittman and Wright in 1991 identified from their literature review six basic adolescent needs, three of which apply to younger as well as older adolescents - safety and structure, belonging and group

membership, closeness and relationship-, and three which in the authors' opinion are increasingly critical by middle adolescence - self-worth and social contribution, independence and control over one's life, competence and mastery. This development of initiative and sound decision-making ability is critical for the transition to adulthood. Age-appropriate autonomy needs to be fostered and the authors note that organizations with a serious commitment to youth development must "recognize that care and service to youth are not enough. Attention must also be given to fostering the development of self-worth, independent and competence through their involvement in organizational life" (Costello et al, 2000). This ties in with Erikson's and Vygotsky's Stages, IV and 4, as youth must try on those near-adult-like roles under a mentor's guiding presence.

In the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development's Consultation of Evaluation of Youth Development Programs Meeting Summary (1992), they noted that there have been many doctoral dissertations that have evaluated the impact of participation in various aspects of 4-H programs, including long-term impact. These studies have provided general support for the value of participation in 4-H. The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development also supported funding as part of a two year project a report submitted by S.W. Morris and Company (1992) entitled "What Young Adolescents Want and Need From Out-of-School Programs." Focus groups were conducted with 160 youth in 24 focus groups with the participants ranging from 11 to 15 years of age and representing several major racial and ethnic groups around the greater metropolitan

Washington, D.C. area. Two key findings from the focus group reports include many youth would only participate in program with their friends and most youth participate in programs for personal or social benefit. Interestingly, they found that younger boys preferred athletic programs while younger girls were less likely to participate in organized programs. There was a gender separation found with younger boys more likely to prefer same-sex programs especially with their perception that girls are poor athletes (Morris & Co., 1992, p. 13). Girls also tended to favor same-sex programs with younger girls believing that boys were disruptive and they felt self-conscious in the presence of boys. Older girls preferred same-sex as they wanted to discuss subjects related to health and sexuality without the boys present. With regards to adults who run programs, all youth, regardless of age or gender, sought an ideal leader as someone who is “nice, funny, generous, well-organized, a good listener, and a fair and non-discriminatory person” (Morris & Company, 1992, p. 16).

Morris & Company did offer some recommendations for after-school programs for centers, staffing, and programs. Some of the program recommendations included: provide structured yet flexible programs, make programs more accessible, address the serious concerns of today’s adolescents, offer youth an opportunity to “show what they know’, acknowledge and address gender differences, and offer youth and encourage youth not to feel intimidated when learning new skills or developing talents. This focus group

report contains relevant information for 11-to15 year olds and certainly implications for future research needs.

4-H Related Research

Alumni study. In 1987 the Extension Service of the USDA funded a national study of alumni. Phone interviews were conducted for a random sample of 710 farmers who had been 4-H members, 743 who had been members of others organizations, and 309 farmers who had never participated in youth organizations. One finding from this study was that 4-H alumnus and alumni from other youth-serving organizations were more alike than non-participants in race, age, family income, and number of children than those not participating in youth organizations were. A second finding was that 53% of 4-H alumni belonged to other organizations as youth as well. Among these alumni, 4-H rated slightly higher than other organizations in developing knowledge and skills and imparting feelings of self-worth. Other organizations rated higher than 4-H in developing leadership skills (Carnegie, 1992).

Interestingly, participants who joined the earliest stayed in the longest and participants on the average were members of 4-H for four years as compared to six years for other organizations. Participants in 4-H rated contact with other people as the most useful experience they received. Of the 59% of the alumni who dropped out of 4-H, 44.4% did so because 4-H did not meet their interest and 21.3% though the program was for younger kids. Conclusions of the study were that three facts could improve the

growth and impact of 4-H: (1) to enhance the visibility of 4-H, (2) to design programs for older youth, and (3) to offer more opportunities to develop leadership (Carnegie, 1992).

The national 4-H impact assessment study. “What positive outcomes are related to critical elements of the 4-H experience?” was the question asked to construct the instrument for the first ever national 4-H Impact Assessment (Peterson, Gerhard, Hunter, Marek, Phillips, & Titcomb, 2001). Survey questions were designed based upon critical elements found in the youth development literature and positive outcomes conceptually associated with those elements. The assessment process was designed to focus on youth in grades 4 to 12 that participate in the various 4-H delivery modes of clubs, school enrichment, and special interest and after-school programs. Representing the four geographic regions, states were randomly selected and then within each state, counties were randomly selected to participate with representation from rural and urban counties. 2,467 youth were surveyed as well as 471 adults. Overall, feedback from youth and adult respondents revealed that the “4-H Youth Development programs reflect very positively the practical elements that researchers identify as essential to positive growth and development” (Peterson et al, 2001).

Finding differences of age found that younger participants tended to have higher ratings; females tended to report higher ratings, and length of time in the program where the longer a youth reported being in 4-H, the higher the rating. Youth respondents were on the average 11-12 years of age, in the sixth grade, mostly female (59% vs. 41% male),

and white (78%). Of those youth surveyed, on the average most had been in 4-H for about 1-2 years with the range being less than 6 months to over 6 years. Typically, the youth ages 13-14 reported the lowest ratings on all critical elements.

Regarding the relationship with a caring adult, the reports noted in the discussion that “perhaps younger participants value a positive relationship with a caring adult more than do older, more mature youth” (Peterson et al, 2001). Again, the older youth are less likely to be satisfied with the level of involvement for planning and decision making as younger youth. The study notes that this lack of expansion of responsibilities may be because “some volunteer leaders may find it difficult to relinquish their authority to the degree teens would prefer” (Peterson et al, 2001). It was noted that “the 13-14 year-old group is problematic as” apparently many of the 13-14 year-olds in the study were beginning to question 4-H as a satisfying opportunity for learning, for helping others, and as an opportunity for participating in planning and decision making (Peterson et al, 2001).

This adolescent age is when participation in 4-H declines most precipitously. The study notes that other competing opportunities for school-related and other activities open up to them. One reason in the report noted is that “continuing to do in 4-H what they have already done for several years has little appeal. Those who perceive themselves as having succeeded and been recognized in 4-H are more likely to continue their involvement in 4-H” (Peterson et al, 2001). And, finally the report says “youth who make a transition in their 4-H experience at this age into a new, different and wider set of

opportunities (often involving leadership) are very likely to stay in 4-H throughout high school. Retention of 13-14 years olds by helping them make this transition is critically important to strengthening 4-H and deserving of serious attention” (Peterson, et al, 2001).

The critical elements relate to themes such as the Power of Youth (shared leadership and decision making), Access, Equity & Opportunity (diversity issues), Extraordinary Place to Learn (master and opportunities to learn), and Exceptional people and Innovative Practices (volunteerism) (Peterson, et al, 2001).

4-H theses and dissertations. Topics for theses and dissertations can be categorized into areas: 4-H club organizational structures, volunteer leaders, and recruitment and retention of members. Within the first category, dissertations conducted were of an organizational analyses of the 4-H Youth Development Program (Porter, 1951), a study of the effects of type of farm families and the effect 4-H had on the family relations (Foster, 1929), and gender-related club work with the development of girl’s 4-H club work (Jacks, 1947)

Topics that covered volunteer leaders included the factors associated with club volunteers’ performance (Clark, 1950), the status and training of club leaders with regards to tenure (Skelton, 1949), and factors which influence retention of first year 4-H leaders (Boz, 2000).

Retention and recruitment of 4-H members appeared to be the broadest category of studies by masters and dissertation level students and varied with location. States

covered: West Virginia (Meighan, 1997 & Malone, 1969), Oklahoma (Foster, 1999), Georgia (Fain, 1980), Tennessee (Taylor, 1975 & Wedgeworth, 1980), Virginia (Travis, 1980), and Ohio (Thompson, 1998). Specific populations were also studied such as ethnic minority youth in the Ohio program (Bankston, 1992). The incentive system (Forbes, 1988) as well as socio-cultural factors (Dodge, 1957) were studied with regards to retention and recruitment of members. Retention and recruitment appears to be a significant issue for the 4-H Youth Development Program.

There have been studies that have examined life skills, leadership, club vibrancy, and youth-adult collaborative partnerships that all shed light on the youth development organizational design. In particular, Miller, Morris, Astroth, and MacNeill's dissertations were reviewed.

The primary purpose of Miller's (1991) study was to examine the self-perceived development of competency, coping and contributory life skills of eighth grade students in Ohio public schools. The objectives of the study were to determine if there were differences in the life skill development of 4-H and non-4-H participants, and to discern which variables could be used to explain the life skills values of the respondents. The research instrument gathered data in five areas: life skill development, demographics, self-esteem, youth club participation and level of 4-H involvement. The study found there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in life skills.

Astroth's "Welcome to the Club: Education Where the Bell Never Rings" (1996)

descriptive research study used both qualitative and quantitative methods to examine the 4-H experience from the participants' perspective. Three counties were randomly selected for the study, and all 4-H club leaders in the counties were administered an inventory to assess their orientation towards working with youth. Five clubs were purposely selected for the study based on leadership styles that were either more control-oriented or more autonomy-oriented. Members in clubs led by autonomy-oriented leaders reported that 4-H was more fun, that they learned more life skills, and were more satisfied with their club experience than members in control-oriented clubs were. Characteristics of effective clubs are outlined based on this research (Astroth, 1999).

In Morris's (1996) study, the purpose was to investigate useful relationships that existed between leadership life skill development of youth and 4-H activity participation among 1993-94 senior Iowa 4-H members. The study looked specifically at youth perceived leadership life skills development, participation and involvement in 4-H leadership activities and selected demographic, organizational, and family variables. A key point from the study confirmed the importance of young people serving in leadership roles as contention for learning leadership life skills. In particular, "activities that were designed to place them in leadership roles such as holding an office, teaching younger members, conducting community service projects and serving on committees were highly ranked"(Morris, 1996, pp. 73-74). Another key point in the study was that through "teaching other members, 4-H'ers learn more about the subject matter as well as gain in

leadership life skills” (Morris, 1996, p. 80). Officer training received a high “no” for participation, yet being an officer was helpful in learning life skills. Serving as a volunteer or superintendent at fair was valued.

From MacNeill’s study (2000, p 3), “leadership can be conceptualized as the combination of ability (skills, talents, knowledge and self-concept) and authority (decision-making power, influence and “voice”). The youth leadership literature deals more often with ability rather than authority. The author contends that without a concurrent examination of authority issues (that is, how young people come to have voice and practice decision-making), one could argue that young people are simply learning *about* leadership, rather than learning leadership. The study’s data showed that each of the organizational levels addressed in the research questions (that is, organizational structures, programmatic activities, and interactions) had a significant impact on the degree of success and/or satisfaction that both youth and adults experienced with their youth-adult partnerships. This suggested that other organizations, looking to establish or improve their youth-adult partnerships, need to address more than simply the programmatic aspects of their work, but also the broader picture of organizational philosophy, policies and practices, and their individual interactions with youth (MacNeill, 2000).

Summary of Literature Review

The literature review examined theoretical concepts of Erikson, Vygotsky and Gilligan. The three theories lay the foundation for the research questions by examining the programmatic aspects related to the developmental transitions youth have from industry to intimacy. The process of learning skills is mediated through the mechanism of adult leaders and the transferal of skills from inter-mental to intra-mental is the zone of proximal development. Yet, gender differences are noted developmentally for youth within the context of groups. Gilligan's work emphasizes the need to be cognizant of these differences and responsibly program and process leadership through appropriate developmental activities. Youth leadership studies reveal a wide range of topics yet with no conclusive measure for youth leadership, and still much of the research being conducted in reference to adult theories particularly with regards to management. Leadership program development with regards to experience, skills, and mentoring suggest that regardless of age, one needs a developmental process from transactional to transformational skills with the aid of a mentor.

Group leadership studies foster the view that group's cohesiveness and valence may be increased or decreased; and, the events or activities surrounding the groups functions will serve to also strengthen or loosen the group's ties to its members.

In the 4-H studies, it appears that a concentration has been conducted with examining the differences between 4-Her's and non-4-Her's as far as life skill

development. The majority of the studies involved the retention and recruitment of 4-H'ers. These studies indicate that there is a need for specific program activities for teens, and leader skill development. Other studies examine club vibrancy and youth-adult partnerships, which serve to enhance the adult relationship with the youth in the club. However, little has been done to address those youth who drop out and how they differ from those who stay enrolled with the 4-H Youth Development Program.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Overview

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether there were differences in youth between 5th to 8th grade who stayed enrolled and those who dropped out of the Pima County Extension 4-H Youth Development Program. The secondary purpose was to examine the reasons that these youth between 5th to 8th grade dropped out of the Pima County Extension 4-H Youth Development Program.

Introduction and Background Information

Arizona's response to the National 4-H Impact Assessment was to replicate the study. A committee facilitated the replication study. In addition to using the youth and adult surveys, a club addendum was developed to address issues more germane to the club delivery mode. This two-page club survey included questions about meetings and leadership structure of the groups, perceptions about projects, skills learned in 4-H (e.g., leadership, making healthy choices, speaking skills), depth of experience and space for specific suggestions to improve their group. The club addendum was developed through focus groups and pilot tested at a club meeting along with the national impact assessment survey. Then, in June 2000, the counties were trained on how to administer the surveys.

Data collection continued till spring 2001. The replication study allowed each county to compare with the state baseline as well as with the national baseline. Arizona had 471 adult respondents from 9 counties and 1209 youth respondents from 11 counties and Big Mac (Maricopa Agricultural Center) participate in the survey.

Research Methodology

This study represented a quasi-experimental design. The study utilized a mail survey for those who dropped out, while those who stayed enrolled were part of the Arizona 4-H Impact Assessment, which was a facilitated survey. The Campbell and Stanley (1966) one-shot case study design was used in conducting the investigation.

Research Design

Variables. Variables that were examined included the six factors created through factor reduction of the instrument. The factor reduction took into consideration missing data by imputing missing data with the mean for the factor. The six factors were considered to be continuous, interval variables and served as the dependent measures. They were named: Adults in 4-H, Feelings About 4-H, Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, Planning and Decision-Making in 4-H, and Belonging in 4-H. Two independent variables were initially analyzed of group and gender. Group was defined as either Stayed Enrolled or Dropped Out. Gender was defined as Male or Female. These two variables were measured as categorical variables. An additional variable of grade was

created by putting the youth into three grade levels of “early” being those in 5th and 6th grade, “middle” being youth in the 7th and 8th grade, and “older” being those youth in 9th and 10th grade. Grade for the youth who dropped out included a range from 6th to 9th grade as the survey was completed a year after those who belonged. Grade was also an independent variable measured as categorical.

Participants. In this study, 258 youth between 5th and 10th grade participated. Females represented 63% of the subjects while 37% were male. The ethnic mix was 74% Caucasian, 8% Hispanic and respectively, 3% were Black and Native American with a total of 9% listed as other. Forty percent of the youth lived on rural farm/non-farm; there were 22% who lived in a town with a population between 2,500 and 49,000 while 38% lived in a city over 50,000. Over half (54%) of the participants had been in 4-H for one to three years with 15% having a tenure of under a year and over a third (32%) had more than 4 years in the 4-H program. One-third (30%) of the participants were 5th and 6th graders; 45% were 7th and 8th graders and 23% were 9th and 10th graders. Over one-third (35%) started 4-H when they were in the 4th grade and 22 % started when they were in 5th grade. Most of their friends were a mix of ethnic background (60%) while 33% had friends who were mostly of the same ethnic background. A significant number, 83%, live with two parents while 6% live with one parent and a step parent, and 11% live with one parent or a guardian.

Instrumentation. A questionnaire (Appendix A) was used to collect data for the study. This assessment survey was developed, pilot tested, and designed for the National 4-H Impact Assessment. There were six sections based upon the eight critical elements: Adults in 4-H, Feelings About 4-H, Learning in 4-H, Planning and Decision Making in 4-H, Helping Others, and Belonging to 4-H. There were between six to nine statements per section that each participant marked either strongly disagree, disagree, agree, or strongly agree. There was a section on program participation as well as a section on which the participant was asked demographic data. Then, for those who dropped out, the same survey with the addition of one question was mailed. The additional question was a checklist where they checked off either yes or no if it was a reason why they did not re-enroll. The participants could also list at least three additional reasons. They were then asked to indicate their top reason for not re-enrolling by putting a # 1 beside that reason. One qualitative response was also included that asked "How did 4-H change your life? Or did it?" In creating the National 4-H Impact Assessment survey, two procedures- Factor Analysis and Cronbach's alpha- were used to select the final items for the attitude scales in the final version of the survey instrument. Factor analysis results were of minimal value in that most items grouped into the first factor indicating that the various aspects of the 4-H program were not mutually exclusive components. Cronbach's alpha is based on the acceptable range for all scales. The number of items in some scales based on the alpha scores was reduced.

Data Collection

Sampling. The study utilized a convenience sampling design though all youth had an opportunity to participate who were in the enrolled or dropped out groups of 5th to 8th graders. The data for the stayed enrolled group came from the data set generated by the Arizona 4-H Impact Assessment. For the initial selection of the participants in the stayed enrolled group, an initial random selection was conducted. Then, it was whoever showed up at the club who participated in the facilitated survey process.

For those who dropped out, everyone who had dropped out from the 4-H Youth Development Program years 2000-2001 was sent the survey and follow up postcards as well as an additional mailing of the survey for non-respondents. All in the targeted population had an equal chance to participate. For those who returned surveys, a random drawing was conducted for three, \$50 awards to solicit their participation.

Procedures. To collect data for the youth that had dropped out, a survey was conducted. Human subjects' approval was received for conducting the survey process. (See Appendix B). 225 youth were mailed a survey in late August 2001. A follow up postcard was sent two weeks later with an additional post card sent two weeks later. Initially, only twenty completed responses were received. Twenty-seven surveys were returned as undeliverable or unable to be forwarded. An amendment was filed with Human Subjects to send the entire survey again with a bright-colored flyer to those for whom no response had thus far been received. This second mailing generated a final total

of 57 completed, useable surveys. There were five surveys returned who said they were never 4-H members, two who said they were still 4-H members, four who declined participation, two who were deceased subjects, and 128 non-respondents. Seven participants returned the survey but failed to include the consent/assent forms. Overall, there was a 25% rate of return for the dropped-out group.

Data Processing & Analyses

Methods of analyses. The data from the study was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequency of responses was examined for both the youth that stayed enrolled as well as those who dropped out. Factor reduction was used to reduce to the six factors for analyses. There appeared to be a primary factor when reducing the responses to one factor for each of the critical element within a section. Independent *t*-tests were performed to examine the means for group and gender. *ANOVA*'s were performed to compare the main effects of group, gender, and the interaction effect. *ANOVA*'s were conducted for grade and gender and grade and group. To further examine the interaction effect, independent *t*-tests were performed between groups and between genders and between grade and gender and grade and group.

Assumptions

Assumptions that were made included the assumption of homogeneity and that the variances were equal between groups.

Limitations

The final sample generated from the population of dropped out is adequate, yet, smaller than desired. This allowed only general analyses between two variables as dividing into three variables resulted in significantly small and non-equivalent cell sizes. Since the sampling was of convenience, it should be noted that motivation to respond or participate in the survey might be an additional factor for either group.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS, ANALYSES, AND EVALUATION

Overview

This chapter examined the data and the findings relative to the study. The findings have been organized around the following research questions. One, is there a difference between 5th to 8th grade youth who stayed enrolled and those who dropped out of the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program? Two, what perceptual differences are there between the genders and between the groups, stayed enrolled and dropped out? Three, are there differences amongst the grade levels of this study? Data was examined for differences between groups, stayed enrolled and dropped out, and between gender as well as for grade level. Interactions for these variables were also analyzed.

Research Questions: Differences Between Group, Gender, and Grade

The null hypothesis is $H_0 : \mu = \mu_{hyp}$ and the alternative hypothesis is : $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_{hyp}$

An *ANOVA* was conducted to compare the means and the variance associated with the groups. The F ratio and significance level is noted in Table 4.

Factors that are significant statistically between the Stayed Enrolled Group and the Dropped -out Group are: Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, Planning and Decision Making in 4-H, and Belonging to 4-H. There was no significance statistically different for the groups on the factors: Adults in 4-H and Feelings about 4-H.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance for Groups

Factors	SV	df	SS	MS	F	Sig.
Adults in 4-H	Total	257	257			
	Between	1	.4	.4	.4	.53
	Within	256	256.6	1.0		
Feelings About 4-H	Total	257	257			
	Between	1	2.04	2.04	2.05	.15
	Within	256	255	1.0		
Learning in 4-H	Total	257	257			
	Between	1	4.9	4.9	4.97*	.03
	Within	256	252.10	.99		
Helping Others	Total	257	257			
	Between	1	4.21	4.21	4.97*	.03
	Within	256	252.79	.99		
Planning and Decision Making in 4-H	Total	257	257			
	Between	1	5.77	5.77	5.88*	.02
	Within	256	251.23	.98		
Belonging in 4-H	Total	257	257			
	Between	1	5.49	5.49	5.59*	.02
	Within	256	2512.51	.98		

F (1,256)

3.84*

6.64**

*p<.05, two-tailed. **p<.01, two-tailed .

The eta squared for the six factors ranged from a .002 to a .02

When comparing the means between the Groups, Stayed Enrolled or Dropped Out, there were differences noted. In Table 5, the overall means for Stayed Enrolled were positive and above the grand mean. However, the Dropped Out group means was negative and below the grand mean. Yet, in Table 6, when the means were compared for group and gender, there were differences between the groups based on gender. The means were positive for the Stayed Enrolled group of females, but, the males in the Stayed Enrolled group had means that were negatively signed and below the grand mean. For the factors, Adults in 4-H and Feelings About 4-H, an indirect relationship existed between the groups and gender with the Dropped Out females and the Stayed Enrolled males having negatively signed means while the Stayed Enrolled females and the Dropped Out males had positively signed means. For all the other factors, Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, Planning and Decision Making in 4-H, and Belonging to 4-H, the only positively signed mean was for the Stayed Enrolled females. The other three groups, Stayed Enrolled males, Dropped out females and Dropped out males had negatively signed means.

Table 5***Group Means of the Six Factors***

Factors	Group	M	SD	SE
Adults in 4-H	Stayed Enrolled	.02	1.01	.07
	Dropped Out	-.07	.98	.13
Feelings about 4-H	Stayed Enrolled	.05	1.00	.07
	Dropped Out	-.17	.98	.13
Learning in 4-H	Stayed Enrolled	.07	1.00	.07
	Dropped Out	-.26	.96	.13
Helping Others	Stayed Enrolled	.07	.98	.07
	Dropped Out	-.24	1.04	.14
Planning and Decision Making in 4-H	Stayed Enrolled	.08	.99	.07
	Dropped Out	-.28	1.0	.13
Belonging in 4-H	Stayed Enrolled	.78	.98	.07
	Dropped Out	-.28	1.03	.14

TABLE 6

Group and Gender Means

Factors	Gender	Group	Mean	SD	N
Adults in 4-H	Female	Stayed Enrolled	.16	1.00	97
		Dropped Out	-.07	.99	97
	Male	Stayed Enrolled	-.18	1.03	61
		Dropped Out	.08	.79	14
Feelings about 4-H	Female	Stayed Enrolled	.15	.94	97
		Dropped Out	-.13	1.05	34
	Male	Stayed Enrolled	-.15	1.06	61
		Dropped Out	.04	.70	14
Learning in 4-H	Female	Stayed Enrolled	.30	.87	97
		Dropped Out	-.21	.91	34
	Male	Stayed Enrolled	-.19	1.09	61
		Dropped Out	-.09	.80	14
Helping Others	Female	Stayed Enrolled	.30	.87	97
		Dropped Out	-.21	.91	34
	Male	Stayed Enrolled	-.19	1.0	61
		Dropped Out	-.09	.80	14
Planning & Decision Making in 4-H	Female	Stayed Enrolled	.23	.87	97
		Dropped Out	-.16	1.00	34
	Male	Stayed Enrolled	-.10	1.05	61
		Dropped Out	-.08	1.01	14
Belonging in 4-H	Female	Stayed Enrolled	.16	.90	97
		Dropped Out	-.25	1.03	34
	Male	Stayed Enrolled	-.06	1.10	61
		Dropped Out	-.16	.74	14

To further examine differences between females and males, independent sample *t*-tests were conducted. Those *t*-test and values of significance were noted in Table 7.

Gender differences were statistically significant at an $\alpha = .05$, $t > |1.96|$ for factors Feelings About 4-H, Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, and Belonging in 4-H. Again, the factor, Adults in 4-H was not statistically significant, nor was the factor, Planning and Decision Making in 4-H.

Table 7

Differences between Gender t-Tests

<i>Factors</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Sig (2-tailed)</i>	<i>Mean Difference</i>
Adults in 4-H	1.52	255	.13	.20
Feelings about 4-H*	2.01	255	.05	.26
Learning in 4-H**	3.23	255	.00	.41
Helping Others **	2.11	255	.04	.27
Planning & Decision Making in 4-H	1.4	255	.16	.18
Belonging in 4-H**	2.58	255	.01	.33

Note: * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed

An *ANOVA* was conducted for females for the groups, Stayed Enrolled and Dropped out. In Table 8, this variability between and within groups by females along with the *F*-test and the significance level was compared. The α was set at .05 level.

There were statistically significant differences between the two groups of females for the factors Feelings about 4-H, Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, Planning and Decision-Making in 4-H, and Belonging in 4-H at the $F= 3.84$, $df= 1, 160$, $p < .05$. There was no statistical significance for the factor of Adults in 4-H for females between the groups.

An *ANOVA* for the males between groups was performed with the results displayed in Table 9. There were no statistically significant factors between the male groups.

Grade levels were placed into three categories: with "early" as 5th and 6th grade, "middle" the 7th and 8th grade and "older" as the 9th and 10th grades. An *ANOVA* was conducted with the results found in Table 10. Statistical significance was noted for Grade for the factors, Adults in 4-H, Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, and Planning and Decision Making in 4-H. Belonging in 4-H was not statistically significant nor was Feelings About 4-H. Further statistical tests were not conducted as cell sizes became too small for findings to be relevant nor significant so any interaction between grade, gender, and group was unable to be performed.

Table 8***An Analysis of Variance Between Females***

Factors	SV	df	SS	MS	F	Sig.
Adults in 4-H	Total	161	162.72			
	Between	1	1.08	1.08	1.07	.3
	Within	160	161.64	1.01		
Feelings About 4-H *	Total	161	151.22			
	Between	1	4.00	4.00	4.35*	.04
	Within	160	147.221	.92		
Learning in 4-H **	Total	161	130.66			
	Between	1	8.7	8.7	11.41**	.00
	Within	160	121.96	.76		
Helping Others**	Total	161	139.45			
	Between	1	5.58	5.58	6.67**	.01
	Within	160	133.87	.84		
Planning and Decision Making in 4-H**	Total	161	144.64			
	Between	1	6.15	6.15	7.10**	.01
	Within	160	138.49	.87		
Belonging in 4-H**	Total	161	135.38			
	Between	1	11.81	11.81	15.29**	.00
	Within	160	123.58	.77		

F (1,160)

3.84*

6.64**

*p<.05, two-tailed. **p<.01, two-tailed
Eta-squared values ranged from .01 to .09

Table 9

Analysis of Variance of Differences Between Males

Factors	SV	df	SS	MS	F	Sig.
Adults in 4-H	Total	94	91.96			
	Between	1	.02	.02	.02	.89
	Within	93	91.96	.99		
Feelings About 4-H	Total	94	101.27			
	Between	1	.001	.001	.00	.98
	Within	93	101.27	1.09		
Learning in 4-H	Total	94	115.82			
	Between	1	.01	.01	.01	.93
	Within	93	115.81	1.25		
Helping Others	Total	94	113.16			
	Between	1	.29	.29	.24	.63
	Within	93	112.87	1.21		
Planning & Decision Making in 4-H	Total	94	110.4			
	Between	1	.77	.77	.66	.42
	Within	93	109.6	1.18		
Belonging in 4-H	Total	94	114.4			
	Between	1	.18	.18	.15	.70
	Within	93	114.22	1.23		

 F (1,93)

 3.92*

 6.85**

*p<.05, two-tailed. **p<.01, two-tailed

Table 10***Analysis of Variance of Grades by Group***

Factors	SV	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Adults in 4-H	Between Groups	10.22	2	5.11	5.28	.01
	Within Groups	246.78	255	.97		
Feelings About 4-H	Between Groups	3.69	2	1.85	1.86	.16
	Within Groups	253.31	255	.99		
Learning in 4-H	Between Groups	6.09	2	3.04	3.09	.05
	Within Groups	250.91	255	.98		
Helping Others	Between Groups	7.07	2	3.53	3.61	.03
	Within Groups	249.93	255	.98		
Planning & Decision Making in 4-H	Between Groups	15.53	2	7.76	8.20	.00
	Within Groups	241.47	255	.95		
Belonging in 4-H	Between Groups	5.11	2	2.56	2.59	.08
	Within Groups	251.89	255	.99		

Qualitative Responses

The Dropped Out group responded to a checklist of items as to the reason why they dropped out. They were able to also list other reasons not included on the checklist. After indicating either yes or no if that was a reason for dropping out, the participants were to circle the top reason they dropped out. Results are included in Table 11 of the checklist. 47 participants responded by listing other reasons. These other reasons were qualitatively analyzed and examined for common themes. Table 12 reflects the responses of Other Reasons grouped by themes. The number one reason is indicated also by number of responses.

Table 11***Checklist Responses for Those Who Dropped Out***

Reason They Dropped	% who said Yes	% who said No
Not Interested	28	72
Friends did not belong	19	81
Parent would not take me	5	95
Not allowed to do leadership stuff	9	91
Leader did not like me	12	84
Learned all I want to	12	88
4-H is for little kids	4	96
Club not friendly	12	88

Table 12***Other Reasons Listed by Participants for Dropping Out***

<i>Theme</i>	Type of Responses	# of Responses	Top Reason # of responses
Logistical	Time/too busy	30	16
Money/Resources	Money or lack of resources	6	1
Educational	boring/lack of activities	14	6
Relational	Ignored/leader didn't like me/leader pushy/felt left out/no one my age adults were pushy/took over/disorganized	27	10

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the differences that existed between youth who stayed enrolled and those youth who dropped out of the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program. The study examined three hypotheses related to the differences between group, gender, and group and gender.

Summary of the Study Procedures

This quasi-experimental study utilized a one-shot case study. There were two groups, those who stayed enrolled and, those who dropped out. The entire population of dropped out was surveyed with 57 participants returning completed, useable surveys. The stayed enrolled group was 161 youth who were part of Pima County's replicated study of the National 4-H Impact Assessment. Youth between 5th to 8th grades were surveyed to ascertain their responses for comparison. The questionnaire was essentially the same for the two groups with the exception of an additional checklist question for the dropped out-group. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to study the relationship between the participants.

Summary of Findings

There were differences between the groups. Particular factors that were statistically significant between the groups were: Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, Planning and Decision Making in 4-H and Belonging to 4-H. There was no significance found between the groups for the factors of Adults in 4-H or Feelings About 4-H. There were differences between gender with statistically significant factors: Feelings About 4-H, Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, and Belonging in 4-H. The factors, Adults in 4-H nor Planning and Decision Making in 4-H, were not statistically significant for gender. Females from the Dropped Out group had negative means compared to the females from the Stayed Enrolled group. Males from both groups did not have any significant differences on any of the factors and their means were both negative. For grade level with the three categories or “early”(5 to 6th grade), “middle” (7th to 8th grade), and “older” (9th to 10th grade), the factors of Adults in 4-H, Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, and Planning and Decision Making in 4-H were statistically significant. Belonging in 4-H and Feelings about 4-H were not statistically significant for grade and group.

Discussion

The factors that were statistically significant both for group and gender were: Learning in 4-H, Helpings Others, and Belonging to 4-H. Learning in 4-H is a factor that certainly supports Erikson's Industry vs. Inferiority stage as youth who have learned skills may become bored with the repetitious tasks and the lack of new learning. One reason

written by a dropped out study participant, as a filled in response for their dropping out was that 4-H was “boring, very boring, and very, very boring”.

The significance of the factors of Helping Others and Planning and Decision Making in 4-H suggests that youth who are entering middle school and transitioning to high school want or need more autonomy in decision making and are seeking also to make a difference by helping others. They want to move beyond the task of skill development and develop interpersonally. These factors might be influenced by the adult leaders' role. If the leader is restrictive and doesn't allow the youth to make decisions for their group or prescribes all the activities, then certainly 4-H wouldn't hold youths' attention. Youth who do not have much say or control in how or what the club does would have reason to drop out. Comments that reflect youths' reasons for dropping out include “leader or parents wanting to control everything”. With Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, the mediating mechanism of the “experienced learner”, the adult volunteer, may inhibit and not allow the youth to progress on their own so they may internalize the skill. However, there were no significant findings overall for the factor, Adults in 4-H, to reflect youths' dissatisfaction with youth's attitude and working relationship with adults

Gender differences were evident after examining the data. Boys, in general, do not have positive means for the factors regardless of the group they are in. For girls, it does matter which group you are in which is reflected in the differences of their means for

factors such as Learning in 4-H, Helping Others, and Belonging to 4-H. The factor, Feelings About 4-H appeared as a gender difference but, then, did not appear when examining group differences. In neither comparison, for group or gender, did the factor, Adults in 4-H, appear. There was a statistically significant difference between groups for the factor, Planning and Decision Making in 4-H, yet, that factor did not appear as a significant factor for gender.

It would seem that those youth who dropped out were dissatisfied with the planning and decision making they were allowed to do in 4-H. There may be an interaction effect for Feelings About 4-H since it only appeared as a factor when examining group and gender for females. This may reflect how the girls felt after they left 4-H and not be why they left. It is an area for further study. The factor of Belonging emerges with both group and gender. From the checklist and the qualitative responses, relational responses would explain why youth dropped out based on the factor, Belonging to 4-H. They seek a sense of connectedness. If their friends are not involved, and, if the leader doesn't like them or they feel ignored, then they do not stay. They also indicate having someone their own age as important.

Logistics also are a strong reason why youth drop out due to time constraints or they are just too busy. Yet, if one is participating where they do not feel a strong sense of belonging or connectedness, it's quite possible to "become busy" with other, more promising and fulfilling, activities. Females especially may find this as a reason to leave

if they do not have a connection. Males, on the other hand, appear to stay enrolled and have little difference in factors of Belonging to 4-H or Feelings About 4-H. This would certainly confirm the theories of both Erikson (1968) and Gilligan (1979) that stress that males pursue an identity that requires them to be separate and individual. They, however, appear to drop out for the factor, Learning in 4-H. From Cartwright and Zander (1960), the group dynamics may be such that the negative forces are not quite great enough to leave so the group maintains membership. This may offer some explanation as to why there was not significant difference between males. A further study of males of a larger sample size might sift out additional factor differences between groups.

Some youth felt quite compelled to write comments relaying why they felt they had to drop out and these responses usually centered on the adult in charge of the club. Others wrote about the competitiveness of the parents or other adults who detracted from the club. Yet, the factor of Adults in 4-H was neither significant for group or gender. One possible conclusion was the survey did not ask specific questions that would get at responses regarding youth's relationship with adults.

There was a significant difference between grades. Main effects were observed as differences between groups of "early, middle, and older", yet, the sample size was not large enough to pursue differences between grade and gender and between grade and group. Further exploration of grade level by group and gender might provide interaction effects that are significant.

Conclusions

Youths' needs as they transition through the Pima County 4-H Youth Development Program change. This change in needs is reflected in the difference between youth who continue to stay enrolled and those who choose to drop out. The youth cite a need for a shift in the leadership opportunities and sense of belonging. There appears to be little effect of the relationship with adults on whether they belong or drop out. There is definitely a gender difference between boys and girls who stay enrolled and those who drop out. Dissatisfaction was quite apparent for those females who dropped out. Various qualitative reasons are listed though ones related to logistics and relational needs did appear as major reasons for dropping out. This study provides insight into the differences between youth of middle school age who are enrolled and who dropped out. Further studies will need to be conducted to provide the organizational changes necessary to meet the needs of youth as they transition from the concrete learner to the identity development stage. Also, the opportunity for the female voice needs exploration, as over 50% of those dropped out were female.

This study offers the potential to transform the 4-H youth development program. Additional studies of the adult volunteer's role as they work with this age group could provide illumination toward the belonging needs of youth. These studies then might serve as a tool in determining the stage and level of involvement an adult volunteer has with youth. In van Linden and Fertman's model for adolescent leadership, an appropriate

fit for the volunteer could be constructed that has theoretical connections to Vygotsky's zone of proximal development with the adult leader's role transitioning as the youth learns and internalizes the skill.

Recommendations

The 4-H Youth Development Program celebrates 100 years. It is certainly not the program it was at the turn of the century, and hopefully, will not be the same program at the next turn of the century. With the motto, "To Make the Best Better", one would conclude that self-improvement is a task of the 4-H Youth Development Program. Since Pima County is a reflection of the county, state, and national program, recommendations are intended at all levels. Therefore, to truly maintain a research base for the program, it is recommended that the program examines the middle school needs of youth within the program and offer alternative programming choices. These might be in the form of clubs organized solely for the 5th to 8th grade and conducted during or after school hours depending upon site and location.

Furthermore, the program needs to consider offering opportunities for same-sex as well as co-educational programming in the context of projects. Youth would still have the opportunity to socialize but perhaps could divide into groups by gender to perform skill development or to learn new skills such as leadership development. The groups by gender then could interact with their experiences and learn to share their experiences with

each other. This would allow for the identity development of both genders to develop under their apparent differing developmental needs yet still offer the connectedness they all must have to transition to the stage of identity. This opportunity for parallel and connected developmental programming would reflect both the theoretical concepts that Erikson and Gilligan propose. It might also be of interest to observe whether there is an impact on the development of male identity with this type of programming from one of separate and individual to a more connected, relational identity developmental process. The logistical needs presented by youth who are too busy or have too little time suggests that programming for 4-H Youth Development needs to encourage flexibility and creative programming by offering short-term, up to six week experiential learning sessions. These short-term learning sessions would not be such the time commitment as the year-round program. Flexibility for content would also be recommended as youth need an environment that allows for groups to develop cohesiveness around serious topics and not only apparent skill development such as feeding an animal or baking a cake. The skills developed in the context of a group would enhance future leadership experiences. The opportunity to have older youth lead the groups would provide a cross-age or peer mentoring experience and strengthen the connectedness for youth as they transition from middle to high school in the 4-H Youth Development Program. This relational experience, mentoring, could provide the necessary sense of belonging that the females who dropped out need. And, at the same time, provide an opportunity for altruism and

connectedness for the Helping Others factor as well as the Feeling Good about 4-H factor. If the content of the short-term experiential learning offers a skill progression for growth, then youth want will be there as the program and content aren't boring or repetitious. The chance to interact with others will also increase those parts identifications that Erikson (1968) says youth need to integrate for their identity. And, being part of group enhances the compassionate, caring aspect that youth need to develop intimate relationships with others for future relationships. The National 4-H 100th year celebration theme, "The Power of Youth" certainly fits with this study, its results, and recommendations to strengthen and develop youth. Though this study examined only the Pima County Extension 4-H Youth Development Program, there are implications for other levels within the 4-H Youth Development Program. Other youth-serving organizations, private, non-profit, and even faith-based may benefit from examining the needs of youth between 5th to 8th grade. Youth development programs and agencies need to be cognizant of these youth's transitional developmental needs by gender as they develop programs to reach this age group of youth.

APPENDIX A SURVEY



4-H Youth Survey

1

These questions will help us learn what kids thought about 4-H programs. We need your help because YOU have participated in some kind of 4-H activity or program.

Some of the sentences ask about 4-H. Other questions ask you for information about yourself. Please read each question and think about your answer. In all cases we want your truthful, honest responses.

This is NOT a test. There are no right or wrong answers. We want you to tell what you really feel. Your name will not appear on this survey.

If you don't understand a question, please call (520)-621-7131.

Some of the questions will ask you to read a sentence and mark how much you agree or disagree with the sentence.

For example, a sentence could say, "I like to eat pizza." If you like pizza, then you would "Agree" with this sentence. If you REALLY like pizza, you would "Strongly Agree" with this sentence.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like to eat pizza.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Another example sentence might be "I do NOT eat ice cream." If you eat ice cream sometimes, you would "Disagree" with this sentence. If you love ice cream and eat it a lot, you would "Strongly Disagree" with this sentence.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I do NOT eat ice cream.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Again, if you have any questions about anything on this survey, please ask!

Read each statement and mark how much you agree or disagree with the sentence.

When the sentence says "4-H" or "4-H activities" think about all the 4-H activities you have done. If you've only done one program, base your answers on that.

1. **Adults in 4-H.** These sentences ask you about the adults you have met in 4-H. These adults could be county agents, local extension staff, volunteers, or a volunteer parent who leads a 4-H club meeting.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A	Adults in 4-H always listened to what I have to say.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	Adults in 4-H expected me to respect the feelings and property of others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	Adults in 4-H helped me to work with others as a team.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	Adults in 4-H expected too much from me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	Adults in 4-H did NOT see problems from a kid's point of view.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	Adults in 4-H made me feel good about myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G	Adults in 4-H helped me feel that I can make a difference.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
H	Adults in 4-H did NOT include me in big decisions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I	I felt comfortable going to the adults in 4-H for advice.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Feelings about 4-H.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A	In 4-H I felt that it was safe to try new things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	In 4-H I tried new things without worrying about making mistakes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	In 4-H I often felt embarrassed or put-down.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	I felt good during 4-H activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	In 4-H I got to know everyone.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	I felt safe when I do 4-H activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G	In 4-H we could work out our differences peacefully.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
H	People in 4-H were rude.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Learning in 4-H.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A	In 4-H I've learned how to find information about topics that interested me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	In 4-H I explored my own interests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	4-H taught me that I could solve problems on my own.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	I often helped others learn in 4-H.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	4-H rewarded me for being successful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	In 4-H I often tried new or different things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4

4. Helping Others.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A	4-H taught me to help other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	4-H showed me ways to help people in my community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	4-H showed me that volunteering is important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	4-H taught me to be involved in my community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	In 4-H kids helped out in important ways.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	4-H helped me to be a leader.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Planning and Decision Making in 4-H.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A	4-H taught me that I could make my own decisions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	4-H taught me to do things on my own.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	4-H helped me set goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	4-H helped me develop a plan to reach my goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	4-H taught me to be responsible for my actions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	4-H helped me to think through all choices when making a decision.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5

6. Belonging in 4-H.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A	I felt like I belonged in 4-H.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	All kinds of kids were welcome in 4-H.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	Both girls and boys could be leaders in 4-H.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	My best friends were in 4-H.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	In 4-H, both boys and girls treated each other with respect.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	Boys and girls had equal chances to do everything in 4-H.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G	I could count on others in my 4-H group to help me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
H	4-H helped me accept differences in others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I	Other 4-H kids cared about me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

(You're almost done! Just a few more questions!)



6

Questions About You. This information will help us know about the students who filled out this survey. Please fill in your answer or check the box for your response.

8. How old are you? ____ years old
9. What grade will you be in the fall of 2001? ____ Grade in school
10. What grade were you in when you first started 4-H? ____ Grade
11. Are you female or male?
- Female
- Male
12. Which of the following best describes you?
- African American
- Asian American/Pacific Islander
- Caucasian/White
- Native American (Tribe: _____)
- Hispanic
- Other (please specify _____)
13. My friends are:
- Mostly the same ethnic background as me
- Mostly a different ethnic background than me
- A mix of ethnic backgrounds
14. Which one of the following best describes your family (the people you live with)?
- I live with my two parents
- I live with one parent and one stepparent
- Sometimes I live with my mother and sometimes I live with my father
- I live with my grandparents
- I live only with my mother
- I live only with my father
- I live with a guardian, relative or person(s) other than my parents or grandparents
15. How long have you been involved in any 4-H activities or programs?
- Less than 6 months
- 6 months - 1 year
- 1-2 years
- More than 2 years
- More than 4 years
- More than 6 years

16. Where do you live? Check the box of your response. Ask an adult if you are not sure.

- Rural farm
- Rural non-farm (less than 2,500 people)
- Towns (between 2,500--9,999 people)
- Towns (more than 10,000 but less than 50,000 people)
- City over 50,000

17. How did 4-H change your life? Or did it?

18. There are lots of reasons why people do not re-enroll in the 4-H Youth Development program. Please mark "YES" if it is a reason you did not re-enroll or "NO" if it wasn't a reason. You may write in other reasons that are not listed as your reason(s) for not re-enrolling.

YES NO

- I no longer was interested in 4-H.
- My friends did not belong to 4-H.
- My parents would not take me to 4-H.
- I was not allowed to do leadership stuff.
- My leader did not like me.
- I had learned all I wanted to learn about my project(s).
- 4-H is for little kids.
- My 4-H club was not friendly.
- Other reason(s): Please List.
- _____
- _____
- _____

19. Please indicate your top reason for not re-enrolling in 4-H from the list above by putting a # 1 beside that reason.



CONGRATULATIONS! You're all done!
Thank You **VERY** Much for Answering These Questions!!!



APPENDIX B HUMAN SUBJECTS

Human Subjects Protection Program
25 September 2001



1350 N. Vine Avenue
P.O. Box 245137
Tucson, AZ 85724-5137
(520) 626-6721

Lisa Lauxman, Doctoral Student
Advisor: Jerome D'Agostino, Ph.D.
4-H Youth Development, Forbes 315
PO BOX 210036

RE: HSC A01.126 4-H YOUTH DEVELOPMENT BELONGING STUDY

Dear Ms. Lauxman:

We received your 25 September 2001 letter and accompanying recruitment flyer and copies of previously approved study materials for the above referenced project. In order to target individuals who have not responded to initial mailings or for whom notification has been received via the postal service of packet being non-deliverable, the *original recruitment material* has been enhanced with inclusion of a 'brightly' colored flyer and will again be mailed to them with an accompanying stamped self-addressed envelope - and if after one week there is no response, a follow-up postcard will be sent. Approval for these changes is granted effective 25 September 2001.

The Human Subjects Committee (Institutional Review Board) of the University of Arizona has a current assurance of compliance, number M-1233, which is on file with the Department of Health and Human Services and covers this activity.

Approval is granted with the understanding that no further changes or additions will be made either to the procedures followed or to the consent form(s) used (copies of which we have on file) without the knowledge and approval of the Human Subjects Committee and your College or Departmental Review Committee. Any research related physical or psychological harm to any subject must also be reported to each committee.

A university policy requires that all signed subject consent forms be kept in a permanent file in an area designated for that purpose by the Department Head or comparable authority. This will assure their accessibility in the event that university officials require the information and the principal investigator is unavailable for some reason.

Sincerely yours,


David G. Johnson, M.D.
Chairman
Human Subjects Committee

DGJ:rs

cc: Departmental/College Review Committee

Human Subjects Protection Program

9 August 2001

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ARIZONA.
TUCSON ARIZONA

1350 N. Vine Avenue
P.O. Box 245137
Tucson, AZ 85724-5137
(520) 626-6721

Lisa Lauxman, M.A., M.B.A.
Advisor: Jerome D'Agostino, Ph.D.
4-H Youth Development
PO Box 210036

RE HSC A01.126 4-H YOUTH DEVELOPMENT BELONGING STUDY

Dear Ms. Lauxman:

We received your research proposal as cited above. The procedures to be followed in this study pose no more than minimal risk to participating subjects. Regulations issued by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [45 CFR Part 46.110(b)] authorize approval of this type project through the expedited review procedures, with the condition(s) that subjects' anonymity be maintained. Although full Committee review is not required, a brief summary of the project procedures is submitted to the Committee for their endorsement and/or comment, if any, after administrative approval is granted. This project is approved effective 9 August 2001 for a period of one year. *Note: Errors indicated on recruitment letter must be corrected and submitted to IRB for approval prior to use.*

The Human Subjects Committee (Institutional Review Board) of the University of Arizona has a current assurance of compliance, number M-1233, which is on file with the Department of Health and Human Services and covers this activity.

Approval is granted with the understanding that no further changes or additions will be made either to the procedures followed or to the consent form(s) used (copies of which we have on file) without the knowledge and approval of the Human Subjects Committee and your College or Departmental Review Committee. Any research related physical or psychological harm to any subject must also be reported to each committee.

A university policy requires that all signed subject consent forms be kept in a permanent file in an area designated for that purpose by the Department Head or comparable authority. This will assure their accessibility in the event that university officials require the information and the principal investigator is unavailable for some reason.

Sincerely yours,



David G. Johnson, M.D.
Chairman
Human Subjects Committee

DGJ:tl

cc: Departmental/College Review Committee

REFERENCES

- Abel, T., & Karnes, F. A. (1993). Self-perceived strengths in leadership abilities between suburban and rural gifted students using the leadership strengths indicator. *Psychological Reports, 73*, 687-690.
- Abel, T. (1993). Leadership potential and moral development of gifted secondary students: A comparison of suburban and rural youth. *Dissertation Abstracts International (54)*, no. 3, September 1993, p.
- Astroth, K.A. (1996). Welcome to the club: education where the bell never rings. (Doctoral dissertation: Montana State University, 1996). UMI microform: 9633814.
- Bankston, J. (1992). Factors related to recruitment and retention of ethnic minority youth in the Ohio 4-H program. (Doctoral dissertation: Ohio State University, 1992). UMI microform: 38266856.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: theory, research, and managerial applications*. (3rd ed.) New York: The Free Press.
- Brown, L.M. and Gilligan, C. (1992). *Meeting at the crossroads*. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Boz, I. (2000). Factors leading the retention of adult volunteers leaders in the Louisiana Cooperative Extension Service 4-H Program. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge.
- Burn, E. *Kansas 4-H Leadership Curriculum*, (1991). Cooperative Extension Service, Manhattan, KS, MG-1.
- Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (1960). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company
- Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development Consultation of Evaluation of Youth Development Programs Meeting Summary (1992).
- Cartwright, D. and Zanier, A. (1960). *Group Dynamics: research and theory* (2nd ed.). Elmsford, N.Y.: Row, Peterson and Company.
- Chauvin, J. C. and Karnes, F. A. (1983). A leadership profile of secondary gifted students. *Psychological Reports, 53*, 1259-1262.
- Chauvin, J. C. and Karnes, F. A. (1990). Sex-role stereotyping of leadership positions by student leaders. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 70*, 335-338.
- Clark, R. C. (1950) Factors associated with performance of 4-H club leaders. Unpublished dissertation, Iowa State University, Ames.
- Cole, M., John-Steiner, V., Scribner, S., & Souberman, E. (Ed.). (1978) *L.S. Vygotsky Mind in society The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

- Costello, J., Toles, M. Spielberger, J., & Wynn, J. (2000) History, ideology and structure shape the organizations that shape youth. *In Youth Development: issues, challenges, and directions.* (pp. 186-232) Chapin Hall Center for Children, University of Chicago. A publication of Public/Private Ventures.
- D'Ilio, V. R. & Karnes, F. A. (1992). Student leaders and their parents' perceptions of social skills. *Perceptual and Motor Skills* (74), 863-866.
- Dodge, C. R. (1957). Socio-cultural factors related to retention of adolescents in 4-H in selected Wyoming counties. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Wyoming.
- Dormody, T.J., SeEVERS, B.S., and Clason, D.L. (1992). The youth leadership life skills development scale: an evaluation and research tool for youth organizations. Research report 672, New Mexico State University.
- Erikson, E.H. (1968). *Identity: youth and crisis.* New York: W.W. Norton & Company.
- Fain, S. E. (1997). Factors influencing the retention of senior 4-H members in rural Tennessee. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Feldhusen, J.F., & Kennedy, D.M. (1988). Preparing gifted youth for leadership roles in a rapidly changing society. *Roeper Review* (10), 226-229.
- Feldhusen, J.F., & Pleiss, M.K. (1994). Leadership: a synthesis of social skills, creativity, and histrionic ability. *Roeper Review* (16), pp. 293-294.
- Forbes, S.H. Influence of 4-H incentive system on the development and retention of 4-H members. (Doctoral dissertation: Oklahoma State University.) UMI: 35785869.
- Foster, R. G. (1929). Types of farm families and effects of 4-H club work on family relations. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Cornell University.
- Foster, R. M. (1999). Factors associated with the retention of 4-H members in LeFlore County, Oklahoma. Unpublished master's thesis. Oklahoma State University.
- Fiedler, F.E. and Garcia, J.E. (1987). *New approaches to effective leadership.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Gavin, L.A., and Furman, W. (1989). Age differences in adolescents' perceptions of their peer groups. *Developmental Psychology*, 25, 827-834.
- Gilligan, C. (1993). *In a different voice.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
- Hohmann, M., Hawker, D., & Hohmann, C. (1982). Group process and adolescent leadership development. *Adolescence* (27), 613-620.
- Hensel, N., & Franklin, C. (1988), Developing emergent leadership skills in elementary and junior high students. *Roeper Review* (), 33-35.
- Hynes, K., Feldhusen, J.F., & Richardson, W.B. (1978). Application of a three-stage model of instruction to youth leadership training. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, (63). 623-628.
- Jacks, O. (1947). The development of girl's 4-H club work in Texas. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Texas, Austin.

- Jarvinen, D.W., and Nicholls, J.G. (1996). Adolescents' social goals, beliefs about the causes of social success, and satisfaction in peer relations. *Developmental Psychology*, 32, 435-441.
- Karnes, F. A., Deason, D. M., & D'Illio, V. (1993). Leadership skills and self-actualization of school-age children. *Psychological Reports*, 73, 861-862.
- Karnes, F.A., and D'Illio, V. (1990). Sex-role stereotyping of leadership positions by student leaders. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 70, 335-338.
- Karnes, F.A., and D'Illio, V. (1990). Correlations between personality and leadership concepts and skills as measured by the high school personality questionnaire and the leadership skills inventory. *Psychological Reports*, 66, 851-856.
- Karnes, F.A., and D'Illio, V. (1989). Personality characteristics of student leaders. *Psychological Reports*, 64 1125-26.
- Karnes, F.A. and McGinnis, J. C. (1996). Scores on indicators of leadership skills, locus of control, and self-actualization for student leaders in grades 6 to 10. *Psychological Reports*, 78, 1235-1240.
- Karnes, F.A. and McGinnis, J. C. (1994). The effect of self-esteem, family structure, locus of control, and career goals on adolescent leadership behavior. *Adolescence*, 29, 605-611.
- Karnes, F. A., and Meriweather, S. (1989). Developing and implementing a plan for leadership: an integral component for success as a leader. *Roepers Review*, 11, 214-217.
- Karns, J and Myers-Walls, J.A. (Rev. 1996) Ages and stages of child and youth development: a guide for 4-H leaders. *NCR-292 publication*. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University, Cooperative Extension
- Karpov, Y.V. & Bransford, J.D. (1995). L.S. Vygotsky and the doctrine of empirical and theoretical learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 30, (2), 61-66.
- Khatena, J. & Morse, D. T. (1987). Preliminary study of the khatena-morse multitalent perception inventory. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 64, 1187-1190.
- Lauxman, L.A. (2001) *Arizona 4-H Volunteer Leader Handbook* (Arizona 4-H Youth Development Program)
- Lauxman, L.A. (2002) Arizona 4-H Impact Assessment Study (in progress)
- MacNeil, C.A. (2000). Youth-adult collaborative leadership: strategies for fostering ability and authority. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Colorado, 2000). UMI Microform: 9979370
- Malone, B. L. (1969). A study of the 4-H youth drop-out problem in twelve counties in West Virginia. Unpublished master's thesis. West Virginia State University.
- McCullough, P. M., Ashbridge, D. & Pegg, R. (1994). The effect of self-esteem, family structure, locus of control, and career goals on adolescent leadership behavior. *Adolescence*, 29, 605-611.

- Meighan, T. G. (1997). Associated factors in recruitment and retention of 4-H members, as perceived by 4-H club leaders and extension agents in West Virginia. Unpublished master's thesis. West Virginia University.
- Miller, J.P. (1991). Four-H and non-4-H participants' development of competency, coping and contributory life skills. (Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1991). UMI Microform: 9127384.
- Misumi, J. (1985). *The behavioral science of leadership*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Morris, G.B. (1993). Adolescent and adult female leaders: comparisons on measures of valued leadership traits and irrational thinking. *Psychological Reports*, 72, 565-566.
- Morris, G. B. (1992). Adolescent leaders: Rational thinking, future beliefs, temporal perspective and other correlates. *Adolescence*, 27, 173-181.
- Morris, G. B. (1991). Perceptions of leadership traits: Comparison of adolescent and adult school leaders. *Psychological Report*, 69, 723-727.
- Morris, J. C. (1996). Self-perceived youth leadership life skills development among Iowa 4-H members. (Doctoral dissertation, Iowa State University, 1996). UMI Microform: 9620981.
- Morris, S.W. & Company. (1992). *What young adolescents want and need from out-of-school programs*. A focus group report submitted to The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1-72. .
- Mortimer, A. M. ed. (1994). *Consultation on afterschool programs*. The Carnegie Council of Adolescent Development, Washington, D.C. Edited version of presentation made at the Consultation on Afterschool programs, held April 22, 1993, pp. 1-32.
- Mumford, M.D., O'Connor, J., Clifton, T.C., Connelly, M.S., and Zaccaro, S.J. (1993). Background data constructs as predictors of leadership behavior. *Human Performance*, 6, 151-195.
- Mumford, M.D., Marks, M.A., Connelly, M. S., Zaccaro, S.J., & Reiter-Palmon, R. (2000). Development of leadership skills: experience and timing. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 87-111.
- Nichols, M. (1984). Retrospective reports of adolescent leadership roles. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 45, 1694-A.
- Oakland, T., Falkenberg, B.A., and Oakland, C. (1996). Assessment of leadership in children, youth and adults. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 40, 138-146.
- O'Brien, G.E. (1991). Reliability and validity of four subscales of a scale for rating behavioral characteristics of superior students as self-reporting tools. *Psychological Report*, 68, 285-286.

- Penuel, W.R. & Wertsch, J.V. (1995). Vygotsky and identity formation: a sociocultural approach. *Educational Psychologist, 30* (2), 83-92.
- Peterson, W.L., Gerhard, G., Hunter, K., Marek, L., Phillips, C., and Titcomb, A.(2001). *Developing positive youth: prepared & engaged youth serving american communities, national 4-H impact assessment project.*, USDA, pp. 1-42.
- Porter, W. F. Jr., (1951) The 4-H club: an organizational analysis. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Harvard University.
- Riley, T. L. & Karnes, F. A. (1994). A leadership profile of disadvantages youth based on leadership strengths indicator. *Psychological Reports, 74*, 815-818.
- Roach, A. A., Wyman, L.T., Brookes, H., Chavez, C., Heath, S.B., and Valdes, G. (1999). Leadership giftedness: models revisited. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 43*, 13-24.
- Scales, P.C., Benson, P.L, Leffert, N., and Blyth, D.A. (2000). Contribution of developmental assets to the prediction of thriving among adolescents. *Applied Developmental Science, 4*, 1, 27-46.
- Seevers, B.S., Dormody, T. J., & Clason, D.L. (1995). Developing a scale to research and evaluate youth leadership life skills development. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 36* (2), 28-35.
- Skelton, W. E. (1949). The status and training of 4-H club leaders in relation to tenure. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Cornell University.
- Steinberg, L. (1989). *Adolescence*. NY: Knopf
- Taylor, J.D. (1975). Influence of parental characteristics on the retention of senior 4-H club members in Wayne County, Tennessee. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Thomas, R.M. (1996). *Comparing theories of child development*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Thompson, P.L. (1998). Factors related to the retention of Ohio teen 4-H members. Unpublished master's thesis. Ohio State University, Columbus.
- Travis, D.B. (1980). A study of effective programming for the retention of Prince George county teenage 4-H members. Unpublished master's thesis. Virginia State University, Petersburg.
- United States Department of Agriculture. (1998) *Annual 4-H youth development enrollment report*. Cooperative Extension State Research, Education and Extension Service and Land-Grant University Cooperating Extension Service. i-48.
- United States Department of Agriculture. (2000) *Annual 4-H Youth enrollment report 2000 fiscal year*. Cooperative State Research, Education and Extension Service and Land-Grant University Cooperating Extension Service, E1-N48.

- van Linden, J. A., & Fertman, C. I. (1998). *Youth leadership: a guide to understanding leadership development in adolescents*. Jossey-Bass.
- Vander Zanden, J.W. (1993). *Human development* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Wedgeworth, J.W. (1980) Factors influencing the retention of 4-H club members through the seventh grade in Dickson County, Tennessee. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Whorton, J. E. & Karnes, F. A. (1992). Comparison of parents' leadership styles: Perceptions of parents and student leaders. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 74, 1227-1230.
- Wofford, J.C., Goodwin, V.L., and Whittington, J.L. (1998). A field study of a cognitive approach to understanding transformational and transactional leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 9, 55-84.
- Zacharatos, A., Barling, J., and Kelloway, E.K. (2000). Development and effects of transformational leadership in adolescents. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 211-226.