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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Developmental Tasks Among Alberta Rural Youth and Their Implications for 4-H
Programming

(C)

by
Brian Archie Maitland

.A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF Master of Science

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Supervisor

octobre 6, 1981

Abstract

This research investigates the developmental goals and tasks of rural Alberta youth, using the membership of the Alberta 4-H organization as a sampling population. The conceptual model of developmental tasks created by R. J. Havighurst in the early 1950's is used to develop a 42 item questionnaire to quantify the perceptions of 4-H members and their parents on the presence, importance, and timing of achievement of individual developmental goals of the members. Aggregated into groups, the goal – item responses form the data base for the description and analysis of nine developmental tasks as perceived by the research population.

Perceptions of the youth sample regarding their own developmental tasks are contrasted with those of their parents. Similarly, tests of association between task perceptions and a number of socioeconomic attributes are carried out for both youth and their parents. With an emphasis on the potential applicability of the results to 4-H programming specifically, and rural youth programming in general, perceptions of the importance of of a number of aspects of the Alberta 4-H member's experience are tested for both groups.

The results generally validate Havighurst's model of youth development, although several of his tasks are divided into sequential components, and segments of two of the tasks appear to be rather irrelevant to the rural Alberta population. The most important tasks involve occupational preparation, emplional autonomy, and preparation for marriage and family life, with importance generally depending on the perceived proximity of the social consequences of task accomplishment in terms of timing, the percieved personal and social immediacy of the effects of task accomplishment appear to determine the accomplishment of the tasks, with occupational preparation being completed latest of the nine tasks:

Parents and their children tend to agree on the rank priorities among the most important and least important tasks, with disagreement largely limited to those tasks of intermediate importance for both groups. It is speculated that great perceived importance of any task for either a youth or his parents would prompt the seeking out of discussion and interaction between the two regarding that task, which in turn would lead to a greater probability for the creation of shared perceptions.

While youth and their parents tend to generally agree on the relative timing of accomplishment among the nine tasks, parents percieve every task to be accomplished somewhat later than do their children. This differential could either be due to as more realistic perception on the part of the parents, based on their own experience, or to a very real change in the timing of the tasks over the last generation. Quite probably both factors share in the causation underlying the generalized finding.

Among the socioeconomic attributes included in this research, only the age and sex of the youth respondents are found to exhibit patterned or general associations with the task perceptions of youth or parents. Parents more than their children link age with the timing of task accomplishment, while youth more than their parents perceive differential task importance based on their sex.

Overall, this study offers an initial investigation of developmental stage of rural youth, uncovering a number of relationships and items of data worthy of parameters directed and detailed further research. Specific policy recommendates toward the Alberta 4-H organization, with possible applicability souther current development agencies and youth programming in general.

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The insight and feedback of Drs. J. J. Mitchell and T. A. Petersen in the finalization of this thesis have been very helpful and greatly appreciated. Dr. Dhara Gill has been marvellous in his role as advisor, mentor, and occasional task—master from the inception of the research through to its completion.

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I. The Problem and Its Significance

Among the many areas of human contemplation and scientific endeavour, more effort has been expended on one general theme than any other. That theme is the study of man himself. The list of scientific disciplines devoted to the study of man's various attributes is impressive. Anthropology, economics, demography, history, linguistics, medicine, philosophy, psychology, and sociology are among that list, which becomes truly immense if all the subdisciplinary specialities and interdisciplinary permutations are considered.

The effort expended in all these disciplines, as in all science, is in an attempt to discover generalities, to answer broad questions, like What is man? and How can we understand man? (Agnew and Pike, 1969:4-13). Among hundreds of more specific questions that have been asked and researched toward such ends, one which has been the focus for much contemplation is What is the nature of man's growth and change from birth to death? The subdiscipline of developmental psychology attempts to answer all or part of this question.

Even within developmental psychology, of course, investigators have derived a variety of cognitive frameworks by which to understand their subject matter. Piaget, Kohlberg, Erikson, and Allport are among the well-known researchers and theoreticians who have contributed their unique, but largely complementary, points of view on human development. They each have conceptualized some form of developmental stages through which a human individual passes through the course of his lifetime. Such a concept is the many very primitive or ancient social orders recognized the idea of life stages, if only in the distinction between adult and pre-adult. It is with some of the more modern writers and investigator however, that the concept comes to be understood in terms of specific, explicitly detailed characteristics, such that eight or more life stages may be logically identified.

One relatively recently recognized life stage is that of youth or adolescence. G. S. Hall's classic Adolescence (1904) was perhaps the beginning of the widespread popularization of adolescence as a distinctive stage of life (Keniston, 1975). Indeed, it is probable that only our industrialized and post-industrialized social order has allowed such an extended transition between childhood and adulthood to develop, along with the associated extension of formal educational practices over the last century (Flacks, 1971;

"Hill et al., 1976; Konopka, 1977:96).

Youth, as a concept and as a grouping of individuals, has, in the twentieth century, become the focus for tremendous public thought and activity. Whatever the specific objectives for any such efforts, the underlying societal reason may be that "the future of any society depends on how well it prepares its young people to make the decisions and carry out the responsibilities of mature citizenship. The task challenges the best educational efforts of the entire society" (Banning, 1970:22). The fact that our North American society has recognized this challenge is evident in its early legislation regarding compulsory education, and in the great array of publicly or privately supported agencies and program directed solely, or in part, toward a clientele of youth. In the City of Edmonton alone there are over 25 private organizations whose sole or major clientele is youth, with many more which deal with youth among other groups as well. This does not include the many provincial or federal government agencies. Indicative of the extent of public interest and involvement is the creation in Alberta in 1968 of a complete Department of Youth Moreover, interest in studying youth is not limited to the industrialized Western world. From the U.S.S.R. to Central Europe to the Caribbean, research efforts have been devoted toward being able to better understand youth, and thus to work with them more effectively (Slependov and Knyazev, 1976; Rubin and Zavalloni, 1969; Schwarzweller, 1968).

An assumption underlying most of this research is that, to understand youth, it is necessary to discover whatever it is that is unique about youth as a stage of life. Furthermore, to work with youth, one must recognize and deal with such uniqueness(es). "Adolescents are not just pre-adults, pre-parents, pre-workers, but human beings at an important stage in their life, with experiences peculiar to it"(Konopka, 1977:97). An understanding of the characteristics of youth as a developmental stage has thus become crucial to society.

Regardless of the specific aspect of human existence to be considered (ie. Piaget and Kohlberg look at moral judgement; Allport and Erikson consider personality) two of the underlying principles of development are that it "tends to be sequential, with each added increment based on earlier ones", and that "individuals may be expected to be at work on developmental tasks appropriate to their stage of

development"(Duvall, 1977: 167). Any understanding of youth may therefore be facilitated by a recognition of previous developmental achievements plus a realization of the developmental tasks with which youth will most likely concern themselves, as they progress through the life stage.

While Piaget, Kohlberg, Erikson, and Allport, among others, have contributed greatly to our theoretical understanding of the psychological processes and transitions accompanying an individual's progression through the stages of his life, many of their concepts are very difficult to operationalize and test empirically. One writer who has attempted to view development more in terms of concrete behaviors than in motivations is R. J. Havighurst. He presented a subsequently very popular statement in 1953 on the specific behavioral characteristics of six life stages in terms of *Developmental Tasks*. Havighurst's developmental tasks indicate the skills, knowledge and attitudes to be achieved in each life stage before the transition to the next stage. His tasks are relatively concrete in nature (ie. 'Preparing for an economic career') and concommitantly are somewhat more easily operationalizable.

The three decades from the early 1950's to the early 1980's have been times of tumultuous social change, especially in the youth component of society in North America and much of the Western world. Youth have increasingly come to see themselves as a misunderstood social group, and those in the adult component have been increasingly perplexed by their own inability to successfully interact with youth. Out of this twofold sense of the uniqueness of youth as a part of society have grown the many manifestations of the 'youth culture': beatniks, flower children, youth radicals, and young cynics. Perhaps it is more crucial than ever before for adult society to reach an understanding with and about youth.

With such major recent changes in youth's internal and societal definition, it is possible, if not probable, that Havighurst's developmental tasks for youth, set forth in the early 1950's, have lost some of their relevance and applicability. If developmental tasks are indeed a fruitful mechanism by which to understand youth, then there should be significant utility in attempting to redefine them in the contemporary situation. This, then,

For example, Erikson has key concepts of autonomy, guilt, industry, identity, intimacy, mistrust, etc. Kohlberg uses a variety of orientations': obedience, naive egoism, social order maintenance, contractual, principled, etc. Operationalizing such concepts virtually demands second—or third—order proxies, which may have questionable validity.

is the general underlying problem to be addressed in this research project: What are the developmental tasks of contemporary youth?

It may well be expected that developmental tasks will differ between various subgroupings of the overall youth population. Havighurst himself recognizes variations in task definition timing and importance between lower, middle, and upper class youth (1974). Other studies look at race differences, age groupings, sex differences, and similarly categorized parameters, all recognizing that "it is misleading to regard all adolescents as belonging to the same homogeneous group" (Anderson, 1974:36).

For the field of rural sociology, one categorization of youth has had tremendous impact on the discipline's approach to dealing with, and studying, youth. Sociological literature is replete with studies dichotomizing youth as rural or urban. The emphasis is generally on identifying and describing global differences in terms of personality, attitudes or behaviors between rural and urban youth, as internally homogeneous but mutually exclusive groupings. However valid or meaningful any such differences have been in the past, research through the past two decades has cast doubt on their contemporary validity, with a number of writers failing to find significant rural-urban differences for a number of variables (Brittain, 1969; Gaier, 1969; Gross and Weedin, 1974; Reddon, 1980; Schwarzweller, 1968; Kuvlesky, 1977). There is growing evidence to support Kuvlesky's assertion that "the great diversity existing among and within subgroupings of the rural youth is a much more important and significant object of study than a focus on rural-urban differences"(1977). It is this internal diversity within the population of rural youth toward which this present research study is directed. It attempts to identify the developmental tasks of rural youth as a population, recognizing the potential for internal subgroupings to emerge along a variety of socioeconomic parameters. Testing for the existence of such internal diversity is integral to the research design.

To define the developmental tasks of rural youth one must, however, look beyond the rural youth population itself. Developmental tasks have two locations from which their definition and impetus emerge. The first lies within the individual himself, in which biological maturation and personal aspirations combine into a powerful developmental incentive. Secondly, there is a strong societal influence on most tasks, determining their

timing and content, and operating as expectations transmitted to and placed upon the individual from outside himself. Such a dual foundation necessitates that subjects for the investigation of rural adolescent developmental tasks be drawn from two populations: rural youth themselves, and their societal environment.

A major influence within this environment is that which exists in the home, largely determined by parental influence. This influence begins at birth and is present in some form and to some degree at least until the youth or young adult begins to live away from the home itself. Even then, there may be a continued influence, and almost certainly there are long-lasting effects of previous at-home parental guidance and pressure. It is apparent, therefore, that gaining insight into parental perceptions of youth's goals and tasks is an important aspect in the overall determination of developmental tasks.. Additionally, the inclusion of parents in this research is important if only "to get parents involved, with youth, in thinking about life plans, career lines and educational needs" (Kuvlesky, 1977:25).

The goals and tasks of rural youth are undoubtedly interesting from an academic point of view alone, providing a challenging focus for research. However, such developmental tasks also carry rather direct implications to the operational field of rural youth programming, due to their underlying definition in pragmatic, behavior-linked outcomes. Therefore, this research study includes the additional objective of providing interpretations and implications of its empirical findings for those agencies and institutions which contact and impact upon rural youth. Notable among these, in Alberta and elsewhere, is the 4-H organization. It brings rural youth together in local project-based groups, with its overall emphasis focused on personal and social development Dealing with young people from age 10 to 21 from throughout the province and from a great variety of socioeconomic backgrounds, the Alberta 4-H program should certainly benefit from indications of the presence, sequence, and importance of goals and tasks of rural youth. The research conclusions will be indicative of the need to either redirect or reaffirm the program policies of the 4-H organization. To the extent that the 4-H program and clientele are similar to those of other rural youth agencies, the findings and conclusions will be generalizable and worthy of examination by a variety of programmers and those setting agency policy.

A

In general terms, then, this research study is designed to determine the current developmental tasks of rural youth, as defined by rural Alberta young people and their parents. Additionally, these will be interpreted so as to offer program and policy implications for agencies with a rural youth clientele, with a specific focus on the Alberta 4-H organization as one such agency.

II. Concepts Related to the Research Problem:

A Review of the Literature

A. Youth as a Stage in Human Development

The Concept of Youth: Three Approaches

Youth, or adolescence, is largely a twentieth century concept (Keniston, 1975; Hill et al., 1976; Flacks, 1971). Only with the advent of industrialization could a society afford the luxury of allowing the individual's assumption of adult roles and responsibilities to be delayed until he was well into his late teens or early twenties. Indeed, it may be that industrialization itself created the need, as well as the opportunity, for such an extension of pre-adult socialization. "As the primitive society uses the period of puberty as a period of special preparation of boys and girls for adult life, so the modern society uses the longer period of adolescence for the preparation of adolescents to meet the special requirements of adulthood in a modern technological society" (Desjarlais and Rackauskas, 1975:14).

There are a variety of criteria being used to identify youth as a unique category within society. Three basic approaches dominate the integrative (UNESCO, 1969:5-6).

One frequent approach, for research purposes, is to define youth as an age group, from a presumed average age for the beginning (or sometimes the end) of the pubertal stage to an arbitrary age in the early to mid twenties. Some writers further separate adolescence from youth along similar age boundaries. Flacks (1971) has defined children as those under 13 years of age, adolescents as those from 13 to 16, and youth as those over 16 but not yet in adult role/status postions. Keniston (1975) chooses similar definitions. Hill et al. (1975) categorize the entire period from puberty to adulthood as adolescence, while Powell (1972), in describing the same period, uses youth, and 'adolescence' interchangeably. Obviously there is inconsistency among the uses to which age categorizations are put. Furthermore, such arbitrary divisions, while of operational utility, cannot take into account the substantial individual and subgroup developmental differences within any one society, or between societies (UNESCO, 1969;5; Havighurst, 1972;52).

A second means by which youth has been defined is that of a list of characteristics, all of which must be fulfilled by any individual to be included in the youth category. These characteristics tend to be set out as deficiencies, rather than as positive attributes: youth are defined in terms of what they are not, rather than what they are. Powell (1972:2), in addition to the age criteria, employs such a schematic tool when he categorizes youth as unmarried, not economically independent, not emancipated from parents, and with incomplete [formal] educational, emotional, and intellectual development. Similarly, this may be seen as the way in which Havighurst defines adolescents: those individuals who have substantially completed the developmental tasks of childhood, but have not yet completed the pre-adult tasks. This type of definition is conceptually appealing, but, with the gradual rather than abrupt youth-to-adult transformation, is rather difficult to apply empirically. Additionally, classification problems inevitably emerge when dealing with individuals possessing some, but not all, of the characteristics.

A third, and less common, definition of youth approaches it as a state of mind, and is typified by Suchodolski's statement that "youth is there when life seems worth, living; where urgent messages are more important than dogmatic answers; where facts and events free sentiments with a new freshness" (1970:404). While recognizing that there is something qualitatively unique about youth as a stage of life, such a mentalistic definition is again of little operational utility. It would necessitate, for example, moment by moment tallying of the content of the youth category, with individuals entering, leaving or re-entering the category solely on the basis of their immediate cognitive and affective orientation to life. Perhaps this conceptualization should be better used in the context of 'youthful thinking' rather than 'youth' itself.

Common Characteristics of the Youth Life Stage

It has become obvious that, "in practice, the social, economic and psychological situations of the young differ so greatly that it is extremely difficult to formulate any general and comprehensive definition of the concept of youth" (UNESCO, 1976:6). There are, however, certain commonalities among the approaches to the definition (perhaps excepting the rather unique state-of-mind approach). While youth is generally seen as having a biological change as a point of beginning (either the onset or the end of puberty),

the point of completion is determined by the sociocultural factors of adulthood. In essence, "puberty is a biological fact, but youth is a social one" (Flacks, 1971:9).

Many writers adopt this differential approach to the two boundaries to their youth or adolescence categories (Keniston, 1975; Flacks, 1971; Panel on Youth, 1972; Hill et al., 1976; Powell, 1972; Havighurst, 1972). At any rate, their conceptual frameworks all assume that youth is not the end of development, and is not limited merely to an arbitrary demographic category, an age range, or the adoption of youthful behavior, (Keniston, 1975:20–23).

A second major congruence within the literature on youth and adolescence is the actual acceptance of either or both concepts as a unique and bounded stage in the life of an individual. Youth is seen to possess its own unique set of basic socio-psychological characteristics, which are generally found to some degree in those individuals within the category. As noted, however, these characteristics are often unsuitable as indicators for a direct inductive definition of youth — they are difficult to isolate and measure, occur in individuals to widely varying degrées, and change markedly through time as individuals develop and mature toward adulthood. Nonetheless, the characteristics ascribed to youth in the literature do have some meaning and impact on the youth concept, and are worthy of consideration in this discussion.

Among all the facets of youth or adolescence, it has become widely recognized that perhaps the most crucial and basic characteristic is that of an overriding search for personal identity. While the notion of identity is by no means new, or even modern, it has been integrated into the conceptualization of human development most successfully by Erik Erikson, whose emphasis is described as follows:

World views become crirical at adolescence, he believes, when youth enters a psychological 'moratorium' which Erikson describes as a hiatus between childhood and adulthood that allows the boundaries of the self to expand and include wider identities taken from the surrounding culture....The 'strong' emerge from their moratoria with an enlarged sense of self, ready to assume the sexual and other roles that go with adulthood. The 'weak', particularly in times of profound cultural upheavel, become confused in their identities and either withdraw in isolation or abandon themselves to a mob identity.

Newsweek Magazine, 1970:85.

Erikson sees the issue of identity versus identity-confusion as the fundamental theme and focal crisis of adolescence, with each individual utilizing the experiences of childhood as the basic raw material with which to shape a new, and qualitatively different,

orientation toward himself and his world. The impact of Erikson's writings on youth within the field of human development is apparent in the subsequent adoption of his 'identity-crisis' orientation by many other writers:

To the adolescent, this [self concept] is one of life's most burning issues.
(Ostrander and Snyder, 1970:27)

One of the central problems of adolescence is the development of identity.

(Hill et al., 1976:246)

The experience of increased self-consciousness is vital. Adolescence is the time when one begins to search for defining oneself as different from those with whom one has been close.

(Konopka, 1977:97)

It is the general expansion of self, occurring through, adolescence as a long-term and many-faceted metamorphosis, which initiates or stimulates most of the secondary attributes of youth. Many of these attributes are the more socially visible ones -- those which easily come to mind when one is asked to visualize an adolescent or youth. In categorizing these characteristics, Wall (1977) has identified five 'selves' of youth, each of which undergoes some transformation or development toward adulthood. Each encompassing a number of specific features of youth, these are the Physical, Sexual, Vocational, Social and Philosophical Selves. These 'selves' individually are complexes of a variety of related features, resulting from the interplay between maturation and environmental factors. Thus each 'self' is continually pressured toward change, as the adolescent's mentality and biology mature, and as new experiences and opportunities confront him. There is a constant and generalized, but not necessarily linear, qualitative transformation of the child toward the adult. "The psychological task following the disruption created by the onset of puberty, thus the task of the second phase of adolescence, is a realignment of the component parts of the psychic structure in preparation for adulthood" (Josselyn, 1975: 27). Four major aspects of this realignment or transformation have been enumerated by Keniston (1975: 14-20):

The integration of the self with society.
 A youth not only discovers who and what he is, but also where and how he fits into the complex social order of the world of his future adulthood.

- The development of interpersonal maturity.
 - A youth learns to deal with others as respected equals, especially in relationships with older adults. Additionally, the potential for, and adoption of, personal and sexual intimacy is developed.
- 3. The reaching of a moral 'peak' of judgement.
 An older youth (or younger adult) reaches his greatest potential for determination of morality in a relativistic, but moral manner. He can orient himself to the dominant social and cultural order, but can also mentally step outside that order for evaluative contemplation.
- A youth emerges from adolescence with more immediate knowledge about himself and his short-term future plans than at any other time in his life. Of course, this knowledge is not immutable and both the self-concept and plans will likely change over time.

Youth as a life stage is thus a period of marked enlargement and reorientation of an individual's personality and store of knowledge, skills and attitudes. The rapid pace and tremendous scope of the child-to-adult transition lead inevitably to the existence of the major socio-psychological attributes of youth in our society. In a distillation of a large amount of literature, the Panel on Youth (1972) has compiled a short list of these attributes:

- 1. A high level of cognitive ability and ease of learning.
- 2. An urge toward, and behavior facilitating vocational selection and preparation.
- 3. An increased sense of independence and autonomy.
- -4. A strong attachment to peer reference group(s).
- 5. An increasingly mature personality integration (sense of identity).

As both products and progenitors of the multitudinous internal and external forces perceived by youth, these attributes are inextricably linked to the developmental needs of youth and the tasks they face.

Youth in the Rural Alberta Context

As individuals, with developing personalities and at least a partially defined social status between children and adults, youth in rural Alberta are, in global terms, little different from youth elsewhere in the Western civilization. Their life issues revolve around the expansion of their childhood selves toward new and autonomous adult identities. They are keenly involved and interested in vocational preparation and social experimentation. In short, they face many of the same problems and issues of development as youth in other provinces or countries.

montage of elements and factors which influence their lives. There is a simultaneous boom in some sectors of the provincial economy with marked decline in others. Jobs are readily available, but only for the highly skilled. Long-time residents claim that the social fabric of their communities is being rent assunder by tremendous social, economic, and cultural changes that have taken place over the period of the last generation. In the midst of this, Alberta's youth, and rural youth particularly, are attempting to find their way toward adulthood and adult roles for which the traditional definitions just do not fit.

The history of rural Alberta has been that of an agricultural hinterland growing over the course of about a century as a tremendously productive food resource for urban markets near and far. Such development called for massive local labour inputs in its early stages. Twentieth—century mechanization and more recently, automation have drastically reduced the basic manpower requirements on the farm, and changed the need for relatively unskilled labour to that for highly trained technical proficiency. It is no longer enough for a son to simply plan to follow his father into farming. Fewer farmers are being required to work the available land and those who wish to be successful are virtually forced to continue their education after high school.

One outcome of all this is that most rural Alberta youth, for reasons of education or employment or both, are faced with the necessity for at least temporary migration to urban centres. Even this trend, however, is neither universal nor unchanging. The increasing incidence of rural industrial development, and the continued expansion of the extraction industries across the province, are providing options for rural youth for local employment that were nonexistant a few decades ago.

The industrial and economic situation of Alberta relative to other areas of Canada has produced another phenomenon affecting its rural youth. Immigration is a significant factor in the province's population boom. The direct effects are largely felt in the existing urban centres, but recent evidence points to a spillover effect involving population increases in nearby formerly rural agricultural areas (Hornbrook, 1981). The acreage and small-holdings boom around almost all major towns and cities is one visible result.

Immigration, coupled with the contemporary ease of transportation and communication, and the proliferation of access to media (especially television), has brought rural Alberta youth into direct contact with social and cultural elements not to be found a generation previous. Attitudes, values and behaviors are becoming far more cosmopolitan as the inevitable result of decreasing rural isolation. Role models for rural youth are found far beyond the rural agricultural setting.

Alberta youth is a great diversification of life choices which they face. Increased environmental complexity undoubtedly leads to more difficult decision making. As options for rural youth widen, their cookie of goals similarly expands. For those individuals and agencies working with rural youth and attempting to help them make the decisions and choices on their individual paths of development, a recognition of the complexity of the environment in which the clientele exists is a necessity. Similarly, effective programming efforts must rely to some degree on a knowledge of the elements of such developmental paths, and the goals and tasks that are created, faced and achieved along the way to adulthood.

B. Facets of Youth Development

The literature on youth development, whether from an educational, sociological, or psychological perspective, is replete with assertions and lists of key elements or facets of youth which develop, or are developed, before adulthood. While there may not be open disagreement among the various writers, their individual tendencies are to accentuate a selected few elements as important while ignoring or deemphasizing others. Despite this limitation, it is possible to derive a composite list of those facets of youth

development considered important by several independent writers. As all writers do not consistently use the same words to describe the concepts they discuss, the following remarks are intended to explain the specific concepts and contexts identified under each facet heading.

Autonomy

The "achievement of independence from parental control" (Crow and Crow, 1956:42) is a fairly common theme in much of the youth development literature. Designals and Rackauskas (1975:249) write of each youth's need to "achieve an appropriate degree of independence from his/her family". Gulian (1970), Havighurst (1974a), Konopka (1977), Josselyn (1961), Lucas and Horrocks (1960), and the Panel on Youth (1972) all view autonomy as a broader social concept not only embracing independence from one's parents and home, but also including a developing sense of emotional independence from, and equality to, other adults and authority figures in general. The development of unencumbered and equally unprotected, decision—making ability, is at the core of both these conceptualizations of autonomy.

Career Development

Youth as a life stage is widely recognized as being a period of preparation and planning for productive careers in a society's economic sector. Banning (1970), Boocock (1974), Coombs et al. (1973), Crow and Crow (1956), Josselyn (1961), and the Panel on Youth (1972) all agree that vocational preparation and selection is an important element in the lives of most youth, and that opportunities to plan careers and participate in work situations are a major responsibility of society. Havighurst (1953) separates the selection of and preparation for a career from the achievement of assured economic independence, although the association is so close that in later writings (1974a) these elements appear as a single task. Allport (1961:126) sees the selection of an occupation in the modern Western society as "the core of the identity problem for the adolescent", acknowledging the vast strength of the link between occupation, life goals, and one's sense of personal identity.

Civic Participation

Two related concepts appear in the literature with respect to youth's participation in the civic and political affairs of society. These are the attainment of knowledge about

political and administrative matters, and the development of positive attitudes toward participation in such matters. Banning (1970), Crow and Crow (1956), Havighurst (1953), and the Panel on Youth (1972) recognize both of these aspects, while other writers are more narrowly directed in their approach. Boocock (1974:107) notes youth's search for opportunities to "make a substantial contribution to adult society", while Coombs et al. (1973:14) describe the minimum learning needs of youth as including the development of functional knowledge and skills for civic participation.

Equilibrium

The concept of equilibrium as used here is largely a psychological one. Allport (1961), a classical developmental psychologist and theoretician, sees the entire being of an adolescent or an adult set upon a foundation of 'propriate striving'. This involves a continuous attempt to integrate all previous aspects of personality into a form which maintains and maximizes unity. In addition, a strong future orientation emerges, which is also incorporated into the personality in balance with other aspects. "the important point is that in adolescence long range purposes and distant goals add a new dimension to the sense of selfhood" (Allport, 1961: 126). With less description and discussion, Horrock's (1965) similarly sees the attainment of both physical and psychological equilibrium as one of the fundamental needs of adolescents.

Trust

Trust is the initial major aspect of personality to emerge in infancy, in Erikson's (1980) epigenetic theory. In adolescence, the issue surrounding trust becomes one of temporal satisfaction — the creation of a conviction that the future will be worthwhile even if not perfect. Such a realization goes beyond the mere willingness to delay gratification; it implies the development of motivation toward actual investment in the future.

Family Orientation

In a similar fashion to the concept of 'civic participation', the development in adolescents of a positive orientation to involvement with future families of their own has the dual aspects of gaining functional knowledge and skills for raising a family and operating a household (Coombs et al., 1973:14), and the development of positive attitudes toward marriage and parenthood. Few writers specifically differentiate between the two

aspects of knowledge/skills and attitudes. They speak of "wise mate choice and marital and parental success" (Crow and Crow, 1956:42), or simply of preparation of identity as marital partner and parent (Josselyn, 1961). Havighurst, however, does detail the dual tasks of developing positive attitudes and getting appropriate knowledge (1974a:59), noting the great variability of attitudes among adolescents and the necessity for more formalized educational efforts regarding marriage and family life.

The issue of the development of a psycho-social identity in adolescence has been the subject for much academic and popular literature over the last several decades, so much so that Erikson's 'identity crisis' of adolescence has become entrenched in the general North American vocabulary. The development of a solid sense of personal ego identity is indeed the focus, or pivotal crisis, of development in Erikson's theoretical framework. All other aspects contribute their subsidiary effects toward the emerging identity, which "bridges the early childhood stages, when the body and parent images were given their specific meanings, and the later stages, when a variety of social roles becomes available and increasingly coercive" ((Erikson, 1980:96). Allport's (1960) 'equilibrium', previously discussed, closely parallels this identity formation, with the past experiences and sense of future potentials becoming integrated into a balanced holistic personality during the period of adolescence.

Many writers have alluded to the key aspect of identity development in adolescents. Cohen (1972) sees the identity of a youth growing out of the outcomes of continual experiential tests of his environment. Designals and Rackauskas (1975), Horrocks (1965) and Josselyn (1961) all point out the struggle and preoccupation of youth with defining, or redefining, their self-concepts and identities. Keniston (1975), following Piagetian theory of intellectual development, characterizes youth as the life stage in which occurs the peak of self-discovery and self-realization. The self-concept is seen as "one of life's most burning issues" for the adolescent by Ostrander and Lewis (1970:72), while the Panel on Youth (1972) ascribes to youth an increasingly mature personality integration, or sense of identity. For Havighurst, (1975:87), "the central objective of a society for its youth is that they should achieve a sense of identity and self-esteem".

Ideology

The values which grow through adolescence determine each individual's attitudes and behavior in adulthood, and thus constitute an important area of focus for youth programming. Banning (1970:4-5) acknowledges that, in addition to meeting the personal developmental needs of youth, such programming "must also be determined by the expectations of society", and lead to the development of "democratic ways of thinking, feeling and acting in relation to others". Coombs et al. (1973:14) similarly see the need to instill in youth positive attitudes toward cooperation, development and learning. Desjarlais and Rackauskas (1975: 249) recognize the relevance of the demands of society to youth development, stating that the adolescent must "make some basic decisions fundamental to fulfilling adult responsibilities to other-oriented values". Frikson (1980: 157) gives ideology the role of a social institution which offers youth an orientation to the future, an opportunity for uniformity and collective experimentation, an invitation to non-familial ideals, and an introduction to the realities of the adult world and its roles. Gulian (1970) and Josselyn (1961) both affirm that youth internalize strong values which create a massive push to actively take part in shaping and defining the world of their future adulthood. Konopka (1977:97) describes this process as one in which "exposure [to new value systems] changes into ... a new committment. ... New thinking and a new view of the world are developing". Conformity with adult expectations (Lucas and Horrocks, 1960; Havighurst, 1965) and integration of self with society (Keniston, 1975) are other writers' allusions to the place of ideology in the youth transformation. Havighurst (1974a:69) separates the development of an ideology -- the aquisition of a set of values and an ethical system -- into the two sequential components of gaining information and understanding of existing sets of values, and determining one's own set of behavior-linked values and beliefs.

Learning

The scope of the concept 'learning' is so vast that it may be said that almost all of youth development results from some form of learning, formal or otherwise. Some writers, however, attempt to specify the forms and degrees of learning most relevant to adolescence. Banning (1970) mentions the ability and willingness to apply knowledge, receptivity to new ideas and experiences, and desire for lifelong learning as elements of

learning to be developed during adolescence. Brunswick (1980) emphasizes the need for expansion in all areas of life during adolescence, including general knowledge and competency. In testing traditional wisdom in their environment, youth are really expressing their "desire for meaning in education and occupation" (Cohen, 1972:453). For Coombs et al. (1973:14), learning implies the generation of a scientific outlook, an understanding of natural phenomena, functional literacy/ numeracy, and a positive attitude toward further learning. Havighurst (1974a, 1975) and the Panel on Youth (1972) include the element of learning in most of the tasks they identify: school achievement, the gaining of cognitive and non-cognitive skills, and developing capabilities as an economic and sociocultural consumer.

Physical Development

Perhaps because puberty and physical maturation are such pervasive and obvious elements of adolescent development, few writers devote to them more than superficial and cursory consideration. It is largely assumed that physical development will occur regardless of effort or intervention, and that it is thus unnecessary to view this aspect of development as variable or malleable. There is, of course, general recognition of youth's tremendous preoccupation with physical condition and growth, and the role this plays in shaping other tasks or objectives, especially those surrounding sexual development. Havighurst (1953, 1974a) separates physical from sexual development, indicating the necessity for adolescents to come to accept their unique physiques and to learn to use their increasingly adult physical development effectively. Horrocks (1965) similarly mentions the fundamental need for adolescents to regain conscious physical control and equilibrium following the upheaval of puberty.

Responsibility and Competence

Most youth literature recognizes the need for adolescents to gain experiences which provide them with a sense of success, competence and responsibility. Banning (1970:4-5) states that youth need opportunities to "build patterns of purposeful use of time" coupled with "leadership competencies" to enable them to deal cooperatively and successfully with others. Boocock (1974) points out that youth are constantly looking for ways to significantly contribute to society. Brunswick (1980:450) is very specific that adolescence "is a stage in the life span characterized by expanding needs for growth in

expanding needs". Through youths' defining themselves by the degree of success with which they test their environment, Cohen (1972:456) suggests that "the power young people are striving for is the 'ability to experience'", and that such testing experiences are a crucial part of any youth development scheme.

Gulian (1970:235–236) concurs with such a statement, remarking that the sense of responsibility instilled through group experiences leads youth to assume "clear sightedly and sincerely its share of responsibility in the creation of a better world". Horrocks' (1965) concept of 'self-assertion', as a fundamental need of adolescents to attempt to manipulate their environment and take responsibility for the outcomes, is similarly enhanced through peer group association.

Gaining functional skills and positive attitudes for daily living are seen by Coombs et al. (1973) as key aspects of the minimum learning needs for youth in any society. Similarly, the anticipation of achievement is an integral element of the positively oriented adolescent postulated by Erikson (1980: 155–156), who suggests that well-defined apprenticeship-style experiences, both work- and non-work related, are society's means of ensuring potentially positive outcomes for the youth involved. Havighurst (1974a) provides indications of several task elements in this area: the assumption of social obligations and responsibilities, involvement in projects or causes, increased awareness of human needs and the motivation to help others. Lucas and Horrocks (1960) provide one of the few explicit statements of the close link in Western society between an adolescents general sense of competence and his/her success and achievement in school and life in general.

Role Experimentation and Creativity

The expansion of needs and opportunities for group interaction and responsibilities in adolescence creates parallel needs and opportunities for youth to demonstrate creativity and flexibility in the behaviors and roles they adopt. Banning (1970), Brunswick (1980) and Cohen (1972) include the concepts of creativity and experimentation in their discussions of youth needs and the youth 'culture'. Erikson (1980) sees role experimentation as the positive outcome of youths' adoption of initiative in the face of complex opportunities in their environment, while Konopka (1977:97) is

similarly explicit that "all of these experiences [of youth] flow together into an intensive need for experimentation". Ostrander and Lewis (1970) concur, with the added proviso that it is up to those working with youth to provide the experiential environment suitable for exploration and experimentation by those youth in the formation of their self-concepts.

Self-Certainty and Esteem

"Self-esteem plays a major role in the development of a positive self-concept in adolescence" (Desjarlais and Rackauskas, 1975:335). Indeed, self-certainty is seen by Erikson (1980) to be an extension of the growing sense of autonomy that develops over the adolescent life stage. Youth not only come to sense their own unique individuality and independence, but they also come to value what they see in themselves and to depend on themselves for appropriate decisions. Havighurst (1975) and the Panel on Youth (1972) place self-esteem along with identity as centrally important achievements of youth toward which society should assist them however possible. Along with Lucas and Horrocks (1960), Havighurst also recognizes that self-esteem receives much causal input from the general sense of recognition and acceptance that comes from positive social experiences (1965:43). Horrocks (1965), among a host of others (Anderson, 1974; Hill et al., 1976; Josselyn, 1961; Ostrander and Snyder, 1970; Otto, 1975, 1976; Sherif and Sherif, 1964; and Wu, 1968), points out the tremendous impact and importance of peer groups and peer relations in the development of the adolescent self-concept and perceptions of self-worth and achievement.

Sexual Identity and Love

While it is obvious that sexual maturity, in the biological sense, is achieved in adolescence, the psychosocial aspects of sexuality are equally important considerations in youth development. Crow and Crow (1956) see heterosexual adjustment as the precursor to wise mate choice and ultimate parental success. Designalis and Rackauskas (1975:249,333) mention the need for each individual to "adjust to his/her sexual maturation" and indicate that the pace and path of this adjustment is often linked to the heightened emotionality experienced by many youths. The development of a strong sexual identity is seen by Erikson (1980) as a necessary precondition to the adult development of the capacity for psychosocial intimacy. Gulian (1970) discusses the major

importance of love to youth in several cultures, while Havighurst (1974a) separates love, and experience in loving and being loved, from the achievement of a heterosexual social role, as two unique but related tasks. Josselyn (1961) generalizes this element of development as the preparation of one's identity as a marriage partner and parent, assuming the influence of sexual preparation, while Konopka (1977: 97) is more explicit: "Biologically, the need for sexual outlet is great". Such outlet, as Erikson (1980: 157) suggests, is often channelled by social institutions and prevailing norms into a "prolongation of the psychosexual moratorium", such that values, committments, and/or behaviors associated with adult sexual activity are limited during adolescence. Lucas and Horrocks (1960), from several specific elements of youth needs, abstract as one of their major need clusters that of heterosexual affection and attention.

Social Integration

The "integration of self with society" (Keniston, 1975: 14) is perhaps the most generalized of all the facets of youth development considered here. It includes and combines aspects of several other facets, but is important enough in the literature to warrant separate categorization. It involves the creation of other-oriented values (Desjarlais and Rackauskas, 1975: 249) and a willingness to place oneself in the framework of society's adult productive network (Banning, 1970: 5). Gulian (1970) and Erikson (1980) both see personality resting at least partially on a sense of one's place in society and on the development of "common characteristics rather that iodiosyncracies" (Gulian, 1970:238). Havighurst's (1974a:75) "achieving of socially responsible behavior" involves elements of ideology, or values, but stresses the rationalization of one's own ideology with that of society. Josselyn (1961) specifically makes a point of the problem youth must overcome in defining an adult self and the place of that self in a larger adult society. The Panel on Youth (1972:4-5) separates as a class those objectives for youth which are other-directed, and include in this class social experience, responsibility, and an orientation toward interdependent activity for collective goals. Together these determine the integration of personal values and behavior with societal standards and objectives.

The fifteen general facets of youth development abstracted from the literature are tabulated in Figure I. Those authours who, in the selected works, include each element in their discussions are indicated, making apparent the wide range of universality of acceptance of the concepts. The tabular margin serves as a numerical indicator of the relative comprehensiveness of the authors.

It is noteworth, that Havighurst, whose developmental tasks form the conceptual framework for this research study, includes 12 out of the 15 youth development facets in his works. Admittedly, more of his works are included than for other authors. The conclusion remains valid, however, that his conceptualization of youth development is as much or more complete in terms of the elements discussed than any other author indicated. The comprehensive nature of his work thus provides a sound base upon which to develop empirical research.

C. Developmental Tasks

Definition and Origins

An understanding of the concept of developmental tasks is obviously necessary before any attempt is planned to assess them. Havighurst explicitly defines a developmental task as:

...a task which arises at or about a certain time in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success in later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks.

Havighurst, 1972:2

Developmental tasks are thus personal and internalized jobs to be done by each individual along his path of development.

The sources for, and the origins of, developmental tasks are threefold. From the above definition, two of these are apparent: 1) the individual and 2) his society. The concept "assumes an active learner interacting with an active social environment" (Havighurst, 1974a:vi). A compromise position is chosen for this concept in the nature—versus—nurture controversy: both nature and nurture are assumed to have an effect on development.

Certainly there is explicit adoption of the notion that biological maturation in itself creates demands for action and sets out the major components for some tasks. The

		- 33
Figure I - Facets o	Youth Development	

Facets of Youth Development Considered by:	Autonomy	Career Development	Civic Participation	Equilibrium ,	Trust	Family Orientation	Identity	Ideology	Learning	Physical Ability	Responsibility	Sxperimentation	Self-rertainty	Sexual Identity	Social Interaction	Number of Facets
Allport, G. W. (1961)	1 **	0		0			0									3
Banning, J. W. (1970)	V q	0	0		7	,	,	0	0		0	0			0	7
lume, G. T. (1973)		0						1								1
300COCk, S. P. (1974)			0				•				0				•	2
Brunswick, A. F. (1980)						•			0		0	О				3
Cohen, B. D. (1972)		,				•	0		0		0	0				4
Coombs, P. H. (1973) • et al.		0	0			0		0	0		0		.,			6
Crow, L. D. and (1956) Crow, A.	0	0	٥ ،			0								0	,	5
Desjarlais, L.& (1975) Rackauskas, J.	0	•					0	0					0	ó	o	6
Erikson, E. H. (1980)					0		0	0		`	0	0	0	0	0	8
Gulian, C. I. (1970)	0							0			0			0	٥	5
Havighurst, R. J. (1953,1965,1974a)	0,	0	o			0	0	0	0	0	,o		0	0	0	12
Horrocks, J. E. (1965)				0			0			0	o		10			5
Josselyn, I, M. (1961)	0	0				0	0	0						0	0	7
Keniston, K. (1975)							0	0	•		ij		0	- -,	0	4
Konopka, G. (1977)	0		-					0		· .		o	•	0		4
Lucas, C. M. & (1960) Horrocks, J. E.	0			Ŀ				0			0		o	0		5
Ostrander, E. R. & (1970) Snyder, L. H.							0	0				0		\		4
Panel on Youth (1972)	0	0	0	Ţ.,			o		0				0		0	7
Number of Writers:	8	8	6	2	1	4	10	11	6	2	10	6	7	8	- 8	

human body does not simply *grow* during a lifetime. It changes *qualitatively*. The early development of the nervous system, the onset of puberty, and the process of aging all change the capacity of the individual to undertake certain behaviors not associated with basic size changes. At the very least such that the processes set the stage for the developmental tasks to be mastered throughout one's life.

Societal factors similarly play a crucial part in apacitying tasks in any life stage. The specification takes the form of norms, sanctions, and explicit or implicit expectations for behavior which are placed upon each individual by his society. "Society (in the form of peers, associates, parents, teachers, and all the 'significant others' in his life) expects and often exerts pressure on the person to conform to the prescribed ways of behaving within a given culture. These expectations and pressures emerge at times believed appropriate in the culture for the individual to function in the roles and statuses assigned to him" (Duvall, 1977: 168) The tasks for which society exerts significant control on the time and/or content of behavior are numerous and occur throughout each individual's lifespan — from learning to walk and talk to adjusting to old age and retirement.

As cultures differ, so do developmental tasks. Each culture sets its own developmental tasks in terms of content, timing and sequence. In fact, such tasks may vary within any nation or region in which there are multiple cultural influences present (Duvall, 1977:169). Similarly, as any culture changes over time, its developmental tasks will parallel the change. As dominant values and norms are altered, the cultural cues toward the definition of tasks are revised. Old tasks may be eliminated, new ones added, or, at the very least, the relative priorities among tasks will shift about.²

The third element in the origin of developmental tasks derives from the combined effects of the first two, resting in the values and aspirations of the individual. The tasks which society sets for an individual often become personally valued by that individual and are incorporated into his array of personal goals and aspirations. If he finds himself at an appropriate stage in his maturation to successfully accomplish such a task, he is personally gratified, as well as enjoying commendation from those around him. Such

²In this assertion lies the rationale for a review and redefinition of Havighurst's developmental tasks to reflect the contemporary culture, assuming that it is different from the culture that he saw in the 1950's.

personal and internal motivation toward accepting, attempting and ultimately achieving developmental tasks undoubtedly is influential throughout most life stages beyond early infancy.

A developmental task, therefore, may be seen as immediately motivated from within the individual, although it is often defined or directed in terms of sociocultural norms and expectations. Biological maturation provides the setting of cumulative competencies for achievement.³ A developmental task is thus very much internalized by the individual. "It is a growth responsibility that the individual assumes for his own development as he adapts himself to his life situation" (Duvall, 1977; 169).

Needs and Interests as Related to Developmental Tasks

Needs

The concept of needs is pervasive in the literature of programming in education and extension. There has been a widespread adoption of some of the basic premises upon which John Dewey's learner-centred 'progressive education' is based. Professionals in a variety of helping occupations recognize the importance of clientels needs in their programming plans:

The identification of such needs is the all-important first step in program development.

Atwood and Ellis, 1971:210

Thus needs assessment is not an end in itself, but an integral part of program planning.

Campbell, 1980:5

Needs assessment is the critical first step in educational planning and accomplishment.

Kaufman and English, 1979:203

³The biological component is unique in that it incorporates certain imperative prerequisites through time. Social and personal factors may delay the acceptance and achievement of a task for which an individual is biologically capable, but such factors cannot force premature achievement in a biologically unready individual.

The element of needs, therefore, becomes a central concern in rural programming.

Leagans, 1964: 1

The ability of the Extension Service to capitalize on the needs of developmental tasks of youth will determine the success of the 4-H Youth Education programs of the future.

Banning, 1970:3

It is ironic, with such an affirmation of the perceived importance of needs in program planning, that neither theorists nor practitioners have developed a common and comprehensive understanding of the concept. Atwood and Ellis (1971), from an extensive review of literature, list a variety of elements or uses of needs as a concept, the serving of objectives, meeting of necessities, deficiencies or obligations, maintaining of health, and fulfilling of innate drives. They further list a number of special uses of the concept real needs, basic needs, educational needs, real educational needs, felt needs, and symptomatic needs. If such lists are at all indicative of the diversity of emphasis in, and use for, the concept of needs, then it is very obvious that unanimity among researchers and programmers is rather lacking.

One definition of needs, somewhat widely accepted, is that adopted by J. P. Leagans, who asserts that "people's needs may be defined as the differences' between what is, what could be, and what ought to be" (1964:2). Diagramatically, his approach may be represented as in Figure II. The value of such a definition lies in its relative universality. The 'gap' (or need) may be seen as a deficiency, vacancy, requirement, obligation, or urgency: it is not limited to any single interpretation, and so is applicable to a variety of situations.

Leagans' 'gap' approach to needs, as well as fitting a variety of circumstances, allows for some degree of relative comparison of importance among a set of needs. "The nature and extent of needs depend upon the nature and extent of the imbalance (between an individual and the external forces in his environment)" (Leagans, 1964,2-3). If some means can be devised to measure and quantify the 'gaps', then comparison of these measurements will yield data on the relative importance of each need compared to the others. "The wider the gap, the

Figure II
The Concept of Need
What Ought To Be

Desirable (Valued) Situation

Gap

Need

What is

Present Situation

greater the problem [or need], when the subject is assumed to be important..."(1964:3).

The methodological problems involved in measuring needs have given rise to the specialization of *needs assessment*, which has been defined as "a formal process which determines the gaps between current outputs and outcomes and required or desired outcomes or outputs..." (Kaufman and English, 1979:8). This definition derives from the point of view of the formal education system, but retains the basic 'gap' orientation of Leagans' more generalized view of needs. Three partner groups in the education process are identified within this model for the purposes of needs assessment learners, implementers (the school system), and the society (or community). Representatives of these groups are asked to specify, in terms of actual outcomes, the current situation for each of the groups, as well as the desired situation, in sectors related to the activity of the school system. Their responses are charted in a format similar to that portrayed in Figure III, with the desired outcomes becoming objectives for action or change.

The process of needs assessment, using this model, continues through a stage of intergroup discussion and clarification of the stated outcomes, which come to be defined in terms of criteria based on social survival and contribution. The needs are then fairly easily derived from the differences observed between the 'What Is' and 'What Should Be' outcomes.

A major consideration in this model is the necessity to consider external, reality-based data on survival and contribution criteria for learner outcomes in

⁴ This is the 'Alpha-type' assessment of Kaufman and English, considered by them to be the ideal from which all other types derive.

Figure III

Ä Needs Assessment Matrix

What is (outcomes)

What Should Be (outcomes)

Learners Implementers Society

Kaufman and English, 1979: 192

addition to personal values and aspirations. The perceived or 'felt' needs identified by the partner groups must be sifted through and justified by a filter of external reality data (Kaufman and English, 1979: 200-277). Thus a potential for bias from the partner groups may be diminished or eliminated.

Unfortunately, as Kaufman and English admit (1977:201), "our current tendency [is] to be preoccupied by deductive approaches to needs assessment and educational planning", in which goals, objectives, and even basic needs or need categories are accepted and merely priorized. This means "that we will just continue that which is now going on, or only find more efficient ways and means to do what it is we are already accomplishing" (1977:73). This tendency toward deduction and avoiding creative induction is confirmed in one review of needs assessment literature, in which it is concluded that standards or valued states of affairs are generally taken for granted, that needs tend to be measured through the philosophy of the sponsoring agencies, and that needs assessment usually favours adjustment rather than creativity (Monette, 1977).

The shortcomings of such approaches to needs assessment lie in their inability to deal with significant basic changes in the fabric and structure of the social environment. There is little recognition that "educational needs are socially determined, and are thus changeable and mutable"; "needs change in response to a changing world" (Kaufman and English, 1979:28,201). The validity and utility of goals and methods of the agencies involved in needs assessment processes are assumed and unquestioned.

interests

Related closely to the concept of needs is that of interests: A well-stated definition is given by Leagans (b: 10): "Interest is the state of mind in which an individual is disposed to act in certain ways for the attainment of an object which he sees as offering value or satisfaction to him". Interests thus contain elements of conscious realization, specific ends and chosen means. There is an implicit inclusion of the 'gap' element discussed with needs. An individual's interest is his conscious recognition of a preferred state combined with a search for, and employment of, behaviors (means) which he believes will help him to reach that state.

Dewey (1958:91), in his classic <u>Democracy and Education</u>, similarly recognizes the relationship between interests, means, and ends. "The word interest suggests, etymologically, what is *between* — that which connects two things otherwise distant ... To be means for achieving of present tendencies, to be 'between' the agent and his end, to be of interest, are different names for the same' thing".

Interests may therefore be seen as the behavioral counterpartite the concept of 'felt needs' --"something [consciously] regarded as necessary by the person or persons concerned -- conscious desires or surface indicators" (Atwood and Ellis, 1971: 212).

Interests and felt needs are generally recognized as being crucial to any formal or nonformal educational activity. Leagans (1964;b), Monette(1977), Atwood and Ellis (1971), James (1956), and Tasaka (1978) all explicitly or tacitly agree that, "regardless of the classification used to study needs, it should be recognized that in a free society all needs must become 'felt' before they can serve as motivating forces" (Leagans, 1964:6). People will only respond to programming efforts and will only learn in educational endeavours if they are interested, that is, if they perceive the activity as something which will assist them toward a personal goal. "Interest represents an inner-urge for the attainment of an object or an idea viewed as useful to the individual" (Leagans, b:6):

Conversely, it is also widely recognized that interests or felt needs are, in themselves, insufficient indicators of direction for helping or educating

(Monette, 1977:125; Leagans, 1964:1,6: Leagans,b:3,10). A major problem in objective—setting for such programming is that of rationalizing the olientele's interests or expressed needs, the agency's 'given' program goals, and the professional's sense of the 'real' needs (Leagans, 1964,b). The actual process of this rationalization is only generally and indirectly described in much of the literature. It basically relies on a process of progressive approximation through repeated contacts and discussions between and among a variety of professionals, clients, and agency personnel (Kaufman and English, 1979; Leagans, 1964,b). The desired result of this process is a common understanding of the clientele's real needs, which have become perceived, or felt, by all concerned, and upon which the agency and its professionals will base programming objectives. Of course, a sense of tradition, any vested interests, or unwillingness or inability to adapt, in any or all of the groups and parties involved will decrease the degree to which such a desired result is actually achieved.

Needs, Interests, and Developmental Tasks

Needs, interests, and developmental tasks encompass common components.

Needs and interests motivate: an individual searches for the gratification of current needs (Maslow, 1970; Dewey, 1958). Developmental tasks have similarly been seen to create a personal and internal impetus for action in individuals; they create internalized goals based on societal and individual expectations and capabilities.

Second, and related to motivation, is the common characteristic of internal, as opposed to completely environmental, compulsion toward developmental action. All three concepts rest on the assumption that there is a "... positive growth tendency in the [human] organism which, from within, drives it to fuller development" (Maslow, 1970:68). The physical and social environments certainly have significant influence on the direction, timing and urgency of needs, interests, and developmental tasks. Such influence, however, must become internalized. A consciously recognized, personally defined goal must be established before need gratification, the following of an interest, or the accomplishment of a developmental tasks may be undertaken. The ultimate impetus for action comes

from within the individual, regardless of any earlier external influence.

While the three concepts have similarities, they are not identical. Tasks may be seen as more general, each implying a broad goal covering a number of sub-objectives. Needs, on the other hand, tend to be rather specific. Each need exists because of a very specific imbalance between the current and desired states of an individual. Similarly, interests are each specific to a certain combination, or set of initial states, available means, and desired ends. In fact, it may be reasonable to regard a developmental task as a growth responsibility toward a broad goal, comprising a number of sub-objectives, each of which has its own associated need(s) and interest(s), depending on the current state of the individual. This association has been recognized to some extent by other writers:

Individuals, groups, or institutions have certain tasks to be accomplished. These frequently produce needs.

Atwood and Ellis, 1971:244

Educational needs are those *needs* which must be fulfilled so that the individual can perform the *tasks* of her role.

Tasaka, 1978:25

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There is another way in which developmental tasks are more general than needs and interests, and of wider applicability. Needs and interests are very much individual phenomena, relying for their reality on the base of each individual's perceived current state. The gaps associated with needs and interests can only be identified by reference to such personally defined current states, even though there may be commonality in the definitions of desired or ideal states. The choice of means by which to pursue interests is likewise a very individual decision. Admittedly, because large numbers of individuals in a society are exposed to common experiences, some similarity between individuals is inevitable. There will nonetheless remain significant individual differences in need structures (Weis et al., 1964:4) and interest perceptions.

The specific developmental tasks of youth, for example, along with some of their sub-objectives, are enumerated in Figure IV.

Developmental tasks, on the other hand, are less limited to individualistic definition. If stated in terms of objectives to be reached, of skills, knowledge and attitudes to be acquired over each stage in the lives of the individuals in a society, developmental tasks can have common meaning and utility throughout a society, or at the very least throughout the large subcultural divisions within a society.

Rather than requiring a dual basis for definition (current state plus desired state), developmental tasks are defined with a single reference criterion — expected behavioral accomplishments. Individual aspirations certainly affect the specific motivational strengths and priorities of a set of tasks, but the larger societal influences on the definitions are unlikely to be significantly altered. In essence, the various sub-objectives under any developmental task may be differentially defined and ordered among a group of individuals in the same life stage, but the basic task itself will have similar meaning and impact for all those individuals.

A similar difference in generalizability between needs, interests and developmental tasks lies in their respective value bases. It is consistently emphasized in the literature that needs may only realistically and functionally be measured in reference to the value orientation of the agency doing the needs assessment, or for which it is being done (Atwood and Ellis, 1971; Monette, 1977; Kaufman and English, 1979; Campbell, 1980). A needs assessment process has utility only if it determines needs in areas upon which the agency (government, community league, etal may have some impact.

While needs are institutionally based and largely used as a basis for programming in the non-formal educational field, interests hold a similar focal position for programming in the formal education system. Dewey recognizes the place of interests in education by emphasizing that the only way in which education is to be effective is by equating the skills and subject matter covered by the teacher with endpoints in development which are desirable for and desired by the students. Such reference necessarily means that students will be *interested* in the material. "The function of this material in engaging activity and carrying it on consistently is its interest" (Dewey, 1958:91). Interests thus link the present powers

of the student with the distant aim of the teacher. As with needs, a strong association exists between interest and institutional goals and policies.

Two value orientations operate in the genesis of developmental tasks—that of the overall society, and that of the individual. As previously stated, individual influences undoubtedly operate in structuring the sub-objectives within the major tasks, but it is more the societal level which influences the definition of the tasks themselves. The values reflected in developmental tasks are therefore those of a society (or subgroup within society) itself. They are not limited by the orientation of any one individual, agency, or institution within society, but are broadly generalizable for at least a significant portion of the society as a whole.

Developmental tasks are broader in scope than either interests or needs, having meaning and utility throughout a major segment of a society, and being defined in terms of the norms and values operating within that society. Furthermore, developmental tasks are stated as expected cognitive and behavioral accomplishments. They are thus far more easily transformed into objective and operational statements than are needs or interests, which necessitate a recognition of a 'gap' before any definition of action goals may be attempted. For the individuals involved, as well as the researcher, developmental tasks are more readily stated and grasped, providing easily identifiable goals for action. This is the major reason for this researcher's choice of developmental tasks over interests or needs as the basic dependent variable for this study. Other reasons include 1) the avoidance of the inherent conceptual ambiguity among needs, felt needs, interests, desires and wants, and 2) the utility of Havighurst's clear and definitive discussion of developmental tasks as a basis for discussion, investigation, and interpretation.

Developmental Tasks of Youth

Havighurst's statements of the developmental tasks faced throughout sequential life stages (1953,1974a) are concise and succinct, providing clear indications of major aspects of each task and, for some life stages, descriptions of how the tasks are accomplished by various segments of society.

Nine major developmental tasks for adolescents may be abstracted from his material. As has been previously discussed (refer to pp.35–38), developmental tasks are determined by biological maturation, sociocultural influence, and individual values and aspirations, usually in concert. While there is often external social influence on the timing and content of a task, the actual adoption and accomplishment of the task is largely internal and individual. Upon its adoption by an individual, the task becomes a set of personal goals, and it is these goals which transform the task into behavioral and cognitive effort. Thus, the adoption of a task is signalled by the assumption of those goals associated with it.

While the developmental tasks set out by Havighurst are themselves relatively clear and straightforward, the following discussion is intended to elaborate on their content and their interrelationships with the personal goals.

Task One -- Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.

Puberty and biological growth/ maturation are pervasive elements of adolescence. Not only must youth adjust physically to their changing physique; they must also develop pride, or at least acceptance, of such a change and its result. There are thus three major elements of this task.

Most obvious is the need to continually readjust psychomotor coordination to be able to effectively make use of a changing skeletal frame and musculature. Typically this need is dealt with through attempts to regain and increase skills and capabilities in physical sports and active games. Still in the physical realm, there is a need for youth to continue to gain knowledge and practice in caring for their bodies to assure health and successful development. The third element of this task is psychological in nature, involving the need to develop positive attitudes toward one's own maturation, coming to accept and be pleased with an evolving physique, and doing what one can to promote physical development toward a personally pleasing end product. It is with this element, and its accompanying uncertainties, that many youth are often preoccupied and concerned.

Task Two -- Achieving a satisfying and acceptable masculine or feminine social role.

The definition of an acceptable adult role for a man or a woman has become less clear over the last several decades, with traditional roles opening to both sexes, and some of the sex-linked role boundaries becoming blurred or obscure. This task has therefore become much more difficult as the choices have multiplied.

The crucial element remains, however, that of developing in adolescence a personal masculine/feminine adult ego ideal toward which to direct one's development. This element may be prolonged into young adulthood, with much role experimentation occurring through the period of youth. Once such an ideal begins to be even vaguely defined, however, an additional task element emerges -- that of learning and anticipating a behavioral and developmental route toward that ideal. Each youth must address himself to the problem: "If I want to be like that as an adult, what need I do to become just like that?" The choices of ideals and developmental paths are numerous, and increasingly so as sex-linked role differences diminish. An important element of this task is therefore to learn the extent of the range of options in order to create one's personal composite behavioral ideal and route. This is in itself a multi-stage sub-task, beginning with the acquisition of knowledge about acceptable adolescent roles and behaviors. These concepts are then extended to the adult situation and appropriate developmental links are noted. In essence, one learns, and hopefully comes to accept, a role as a boy or a girl before learning and planning toward, a role as a man or a woman.

Task Three -- Achieving new and more mature relations with one's age mates.

Here youth face a multi-faceted task, involving learning cooperative group skills, acceptance among peers, appropriate heterosexual interpersonal behavior, and the beginnings of other-oriented attitudes.

Peer groups have tremendous influence on youth development, and becoming accepted in a group of age-mates is important to most adolescents, and very important for their interpersonal development. Many skills, attitudes and behaviors grow out of peer group experiences. Adolescence is the life stage when

heterosexual contact and social experience become critical in establishing patterns of behavior in dating and initial experiences in loving and being loved that will eventually determine adult success in marriage and parenthood. The behavior patterns develop through early experience in adolescent heterosexual groups and later involvement in more socially intimate dating pairs.

Accompanying this growing skill in dealing successfully with members of the opposite sex is the broader impact of group involvement. Leadership and followership skills, self-sublimation in working toward common goals, decision-making and problem-solving abilities are all developed through such involvement. These are all essential for successful adulthood in a culture determined largely by highly specialized social interaction.

Task Four -- Achieving emotional independence from parents and other adults.

Within this task lies perhaps the greatest well-spring of potential alienation

between adolescents and their parents. Independence is a necessary attribute to develop in youth, but the regulation of the expanding boundaries of youthful autonomy is an ill-defined and demanding task for families. The ultimate goal is the emergence of a young adult with the knowledge and confidence to make personal decisions, yet retaining a sense of respect and interdependence with other adults, including parents.

Such a goal is only reached through experimentation with independence, gradually building in the youth a growing confidence in his ability to successfully make larger and more important decisions. In many families, it is the choice of the decisions for which the adolescent assumes responsibility that is the focus for conflict. Fortunately, it appears that in most cases the conflict, and its resulting loss of mutual respect between adolescent and parent, is resolved or diminished markedly by late youth or early adulthood, allowing the desired sense of autonomous equality to emerge.

Task Five -- Selecting and preparing for an occupation and an economic career.

Closely related in Western society to emotional independence is economic independence, and related to sense of identity is occupation. Due to these interrelationships, the pursuit of an occupation and the beginning of a career assume great importance for most youth. In fact, it may be argued that, sociologically, the essence of the youth life stage lies in its role as a moratorium before the adoption of adult life roles after childhood is physically over. The actual adoption of an adult economic role is traded for an extended period of training and preparation for the later assumption of this aspect of adulthood.

This task for youth thus revolves around the selection of and preparation for an occupation. Selection is often not completed until well into adulthood, although general areas of interest and capability are certainly identified in adolescence. The broad spectrum of career options in a highly specialized society adds an element of interest and challenge for youth, as well as an indication of a significant point for potentially positive intervention and assistance on the part of youth oriented institutions. The matching of interest, capability and opportunity is a major step along the path of career preparation, leading to an increasingly focused definition of areas of emphasis for education, training and job experience. This definition is not immutable, and changes with the recognition of new interests and the creation of new opportunities. A similar, if shorter, process occurs at any point of significant occupation or career changes later in adulthood, but the experiences gained through adolescence retain their major impact on the direction, and success, of the adult productive and economic career.

Task Six -- Preparing for marriage and family life.

If marriage and the raising of a family are seen as major roles for most adults, then preparation for such roles should be of great importance during adolescence. Again there are the dual task elements of developing positive attitudes and gaining knowledge.

The first of these elements derives from the very experience of growing up in a positive family environment, coming to value such an environment and its

attendant privileges and responsibilities. The attitudes developed through such experience are, of course, tempered by the overall societal ideology surrounding the marriage and family institutions, which have certainly been changing over the past few decades. Nonethelass, there remains the task for most youth to anticipate positively an adult role in some future family situation, although the timing and structure of such a situation may not be 'traditional' in nature.

The aquisition of knowledge regarding marriage, family and home management is at least partially fulfilled through the same adolescent experience with family life. In addition, formal institutions of education are increasingly recognizing and attempting to meet a perceived need for course offerings in marriage, family relations, and homemaking. The knowledge gained during adolescence is still likely to be incomplete, so this is one task element which itself remains somewhat incomplete well into young adulthood. Generally, however, youth gain enough knowledge to at least make some preliminary decisions regarding their future as a marriage partner and parent.

The quality of such decisions rests upon the quality and quantity of knowledge obtained, so the decisions are typically tentative in nature, becoming firmer with time, and perhaps altered as new knowledge is gained and attitudes continue to develop. Of early importance are decisions on the timing of assumption of adult family roles, depending on educational and career plans or desires. Western society offers a variety of options to young adults of marriageable age, and the choice among these is often dependent on planning and experiences occurring throughout the later years of adolescence.

Strongly linked to the tasks of sex-role development and social maturation is the element of experiencing the growth, through the youth life stage, of interpersonal relationships characterized by increasingly complete and positive emotional attatchments. Basically, this element involves learning how to love and be loved in a mature, adult sense, and experiencing satisfaction in such relationships. From childish infatuation through dating and on to Western society's complex and ambiguous courtship practices, relationships develop through adolescence leading most youth toward adult marriage roles. The increasing capacity for interpersonal

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intimacy through such experiences is crucial to subsequent success as a marriage partner.

Task Seven -- Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system: developing an ideology.

The attainment of a personal guide for behavior in the form of values and standards is central to the development of adolescent identity. One's values determine one's view of the world, both in ideal form and in reality, as well as largely determining one's response to that world. In adolescence, one questions and challenges the 'given' adult views which were accepted without reservation throughout childhood, searching out new alternatives and ultimately settling upon a set of values which best fit one's own perceptions. There is a two-stage cognitive process here. First the adolescent tries to learn about the range of values and ethical views that exist, and may tentatively adopt these sequentially for short terms, experimenting with personal and social reactions. Following the bulk of this exploratory endeavour, which continues in diminished form into adulthood, a composite 'best-fit' set of values emerges, which are adopted on a more permanent basis, although revisions are still probable. A complex balance is attempted between personal ideals, societal norms and tolerances, and a dominant but adaptive view of reality. The balance provides an orientation for one's sense of identity and purpose in life, and guides one's behavior.

Task Eight — Desiring and achieving socially responsible beh

Parallelling the growth of a personal ideology is the rationalization of that ideology with society — one aspect of the balance mentioned above. Personal ideology and social ideology are virtually inseparable. The important distinction lies in the latter's inclusion of the links between personal views, individual behaviors and societal reaction. What one does, thinks or says in solitude is the result of personal ideology, while public behavior requires the additive effect of social ideology.

Adolescents thus must go through the process of assimilation —they must learn and prepare to take part in society in positive ways if they are to be socially

successful in adulthood. Their individual ideologies must be reconciled with the norms, standards and values of their social environment. This is not a process of total personal sublimation — the differences or conflicts between individual ideologies and societal norms are what ultimately cause the evolution and development of society. What is required/is a recognition of such differences, as well as similarities, and a willingness and responsibility to accept and understand societal norms even while attempting to change them. The outcome of such a recognition is a growing sense of responsibility to and, for society — a growth of other-oriented values in harmony with and complementing one's personally oriented ideology.

The growing social responsibility of youth is translated into commitment to action. Such action may be either positive or negative from the society's viewpoint, depending on available alternatives. Adolescents do desire some input in shaping the structure of their future adult society, so allowance and encouragement from adults to initiate and undertake positive action may help to prevent the frustration that leads to negative action. In either case a part of this task for most youth involves the behavioral demnonstration as well as the mental and emotional commitment to contribute to their society.

Task Nine -- Developing the skills and sensitivities necessary for civic competence.

In a democracy, the distinction between social responsibility and civic competence is very finely defined. Civic competence may be said to include a sense of the major routes by which one may develop and demonstrate social responsibility. The aquisition of knowledge about the legal, political, economic and social institutions is thus a key element in this task, leading to a realization of the purpose for such institutions and their potential for bettering society.

In addition to such knowledge about the existence and purpose of institutions, youth must gain the abilities necessary to become involved in organized endeavours. A significant ability is that of communication — speaking and writing to exchange ideas and information. Because many organizations are goal—directed and problem—oriented, there is the need to develop a generalized ability to identify,

define and solve the complex problems of large and small groups.

The combination of knowledge, skills and a developing social responsibility leads adolescents to become more aware of human and social needs or problems, and more motivated to attempt action to meet needs or alleviate problems. Involvement in other-oriented projects and organized activity is the final expression of well-developed civic competence, which may not appear until well into adulthood when greater opportunities for such involvement are evident.

The developmental tasks of youth outlined by Havighurst provide a comprehensive description of the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be developed during the post-childhood, pre-adulthood life stage in Western society. Their successful achievement greatly increases the probability of success at later tasks of adulthood, while failure or significant delay in their completion prejudices adult task achievement and leads to personal unhappiness and societal disapproval. The individual adolescent assumes responsibility for a developmental task by setting specific personal goals related to its achievement, and gains personal satisfaction from reaching these goals, as well as societal approval for completion of the task.

Specification of Goals and Tasks for Youth

Figure IV illustrates the relationship between specific personal goals for youth and the developmental tasks under which they are subsumed. The Developmental Tasks and Goal Statements shown here are derived directly from Havighurst's (1974a).

Developmental Tasks and Education and from Duvall's (1977) Marriage and Family.

Development. The third column in Figure IV, Questionnaire I tems, directly parallels the Goal Statements, restating them in first-person form and in words suitable for the youth population toward which this study is directed. Further discussion of the derivation of these items, and the use to which they are put in this study, is found in Chapter III.

Developmental Tasks and Goals for Youth

Developmental Tasks

bofy effectively. One -- Accepting one's physique and using the

Goal Statements

1.To develop a personally pleasing physique

- 2. To become skillful in physical activities

Questionnaire Items

1. To have a body which pleases me

- 2. To have skill in sports and active games
 - 3.a. To learn how to take care of my body
- b, To do all the things which wall keep my body healthy,
 - 3. To know and practice ways to care for one's body

 1. To develop a masculine or feminine personal adult goal model

1. To know what kind of man or woman i wish to become

2. To anticipate what will be involved in becoming a man or a woman

Two - Achieving a satisfying and acceptable masculine or feminine social role.

- range of acceptable adult and adolescent sex role behaviors 3. To know and accept the
- 2. To learn what I have to do to become the kind of man or woman I want
- 3. To learn what actions are accepted for a man or woman
- b. To learn what actions are accepted for a boy or gird

Developmental Tasks

Three -- Achleving new and more mature relations with



Goal Statements

- 1. To become an accepted peer group member
- 2. To make friends with age-mates of both sexes
- 3. To get dates and become comfortable in dating situations
- 4. To get experience in loving and being loved
- 5. To learn how to get a along with a variety of age-mates in a variety of situations
- 6. To develop skill in ing conflicts or
- become free of child-th espendence upon one's parents

 To develop mature

Four -- Achieving emotional independence from parents and other adults

2. To develop mature affection for one's parents

Questionnaire Items

- To join a close group of friends about my own age
- 2. To make friends with both boys and girls
- 3.a. To get daths
- b. To be at ease when on a date
- 4. To lowe, and be lowed
- 5. To learn to work together with others my own age
- 6. To learn how to solve problems and make decisions in a group of people my own age
- 1. Not to be dependent on my parents for most things in my life

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(continued) Four

preparing for an occupa-Five -- Selecting and tion and an economic

Goal Statements

- autonomous, making decisions and running one's life 3. To learn how to be
- and interdependence with
- 1. To gain knowledge about possible fields of work
- 2. To choose an occupation in line with one's interests, abilities and opportunities
- interests, abilities, and 3. To discover one's opportunities
- 4. To prepare oneself to get and hold a position through work in possible 5. To gain experience future eccupational

Questionnaire Items

- 3. To learn how to make most of the decisions to run my life |
- . To develop mutual respect 4. To learn to respect adults and have them respect me
- 1. To learn about jobs and kinds of work I may be to do
- 2. To choose a kind of work I can do and I would like
- 3. To find out what kinds of work I would like to do and am able to do
- 4.a. To learn how to get a job
- b. To learn how to do the job I choose
- To work in some jobs I

Developmental Tasks
Six -- Preparing for
marriage and family
life.

Goal, Statements 1. To enjoy the responsibilities and privileges of family life

2. To acquire knowledge about marriage, homemaking and family life

3. To develop mutually satisfying relationships with loved ones

4. To make decisions re-garding the timing of marriage, completion of one's education, and other demands on a young adult

1. To determine one's own set of values as a guide to behavior

Seven -- Acquiring a set of values and an ethical

system -- developing an ideology.

ideology.

2. To acquire information and understanding of other sets of values

Questionnaire Items
1.a. To enjoy being a part
of my family

b. To enjoy helping others in my family

2. To learn about getting married, having a home, and family lite

3. To be pleased in lowing and being loved by someone

4. To deci

1. To decide what is right and what is wrong for the way I want to be

2. To learn what others think is right and wrong

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Eight -- Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.

Goal Statements

- 1. To rationalize one's own set of values with that of one's culture
- 2. To implement ideals and standards in one's
- 3. To assume social obligations and responsibilities
- expend energy for the good of one's community or country 4. To assume tasks and
- law, government, economics, politics and society in one's environment 1. To gain knowledge of

Nine -- Developing the skills and sensitivities

2. To become aware of human needs

necessary for civic

3. To become motivated to help others attain their goals

Overtionalse Items

- 1. To learn to act in a way that will please both me and those around me
- 2. To decide what I want to do with my life, and how I am going to do it
 - 3. To help others around me
- 4. To do things that will help my home, my town, or my country.

 1. To learn about the way in which my country works

 2. To learn what people need
- 3. To help others do what they really want to do with their lives

	*			
Ouestionnaire Items	4. To learn how to help people get along with each other	5. To learn how to make people understand what I want to tell them	6. To help others even if it does not help me	1977) and st (1974a).
Goal Statements	4. To acquire problem- solving methods for dealing with modern social problems	5. To gain ability to communicate competently	6. To become involved-in causes or projects outh side oneself	Adapted from Duvall (1977) and Havighurst (1974a)
Developmental Tasks	Wine (continued)			

III. Sources and Procedures for Collection of Data

A. Research Objectives and Questions

Based upon the rationale and significance for this research as discussed in Chapter I, and in light of the concepts enumerated in Chapter II, the objectives for this study fall into three major categories.

First, there is an exploration and basic gathering of information. What are the developmental tasks of rural Alberta youth? What are the priorities among these tasks? Are there significant diversities among rural Alberta youth regarding their developmental tasks? If so, are there any socioeconomic correlates for defining rural youth subpopulations based on their task perceptions?

A second set of research questions are based on the objective of testing Havighurst's model for developmental tasks. Is his list of tasks and goals for youth alid in contemporary rural Alberta? What are the necessary additions, deletions or modifications to that list to increase such validity?

The third major objective is that of applying the findings regarding developmental tasks of rural Alberta youth to a concrete programming situation. What are the implications of the results and their interpretations for rural youth programming? What policy recommendations arise for a rural youth program agency? Specifically, the Alberta 4-H organization is used as an example of one such agency, and recommendations specific to its program are to be developed out of this research.

B. The Research Populations

Operationalizing "Rural Youth"

To study rural youth, it is essential that one has a clear operational definition indicating the boundaries of that population. There are two concepts included in the definition rural and 'youth'.

Defining 'rural' has been an ongoing problem for the field of sociology, and rural sociology in particular. There is no one single element by which clear 'rural' and 'urban' distinctions may be made. Smith and Zopf (1970:23-34) list nine parameters of rurality. occupation, community size, population density, environment, social differentiation,

stratification, interaction and solidarity. Writers have individually chosen to use various single and combined indicators depending on their purposes and information availability. Schwarzweller (1968) uses community size and occupational structure to indicate rurality, while Tasaka (1978) uses population density alone. Hornbrook (1981) reviews some of the current practices, noting the Canada Census definition of rural as open country or communities with less than 1000 population. The comparable United States Census value is 2500. In his own establishment of rural, resource, and urban regions of Alberta, ___ Hornbrook uses occupational structure alone. For part of his analysis, he relies on the increasingly popular metropolitan - nonmetropolitan dichotomous classification, which assigns metropolitan status to any "main labour force market area of a continuous built-up area having 100,000 or more population" (Statistics Canada, 1976). In Alberta, two such areas exist the City of Calgary, and the City of Edmonton with adjacent County of Strathcona and M.D. of Sturgeon. Such a classification acknowledges the ever decreasing objective differences between what have traditionally been thought of as rural and urban, and assumes that major socioeconomic effects of urban population accumulation occur only with very large centres.

It is apparent that rurality is not a well-defined concept in the literature. There is increasing evidence that any definition which insists on a sharp numerical, or even conceptual boundary between 'urban' and 'rural' is less than adequate. Rural/urban is not a dichotomy. Rather, rurality is a dimension along a continuum with ideal-type endpoints. One may meaningfully speak of 'more rural' or 'less urban', while it is conceptually misleading or meaningless to speak of 'rural' as a sharply bounded class.

The approach adopted in this study results from a combination of two of the conceptual parameters. First, following the basic premise of the metropolitan — nonmetropolitan classification, it is recognized that the cities of Edmonton and Calgary are significantly more urban than the vast majority of the rest of Alberta. The objectives of the study are limited to those youth assigned a meaningful degree of rurality, so it is reasonable to exclude from consideration youth from these two major 'urban' centres. Secondly, due to the continuous rather than dichotomous nature of rurality, an attempt is made to assess one aspect through the dimension of community size. As stated, community size has been used by some writers to dichotomize rural and urban; this

approach has been somewhat problematic. In an assessment of rurality in a continuous, non-dichotomous fashion, however, its use may be more justifiable. Admittedly it is incomplete, measuring one among several aspects of rurality. Operationally, however, community size is easily established through existing data sources, and is easily and virtually universally understood by any who may benefit from this research. For this research study, therefore, 'rural' is defined as all areas of Alberta other than the cities of Edmonton and Calgary.

The definition of 'youth' is similarly inconsistent, with a variety of approaches being adopted throughout the literature (refer to Chapter II). The summary recommendation from a report by UNESCO (1969:6) is pertinent here: "It is extremely difficult to formulate any general and comprehensive definition of the concept of youth. Those concerned with human and social problems of this order will therefore do better to keep cautiously to terms capable of a accommodating a considerable range of variation. It is for this reason that a pragmatic definition of 'the young' as those to whom a society assigns that status is sometimes accepted as a compromise". For this study, that operational approach is adopted. In the Alberta society, 'the young' are those toward whom are directed a variety of youth development institutions, including the school and a host of private and public agencies which see their focal clientele as youth. For this study, 'youth' is thus initially operationalized as the clientele of one or more recognized youth development agencies or institutions.

The most obvious institution dealing with youth throughout all of Alberta is the provincially administered formal school system. In selecting a research sample, it was therefore initially planned to make use of the public school system as the basic framework for contacts. Two major constraints make this alternative unattractive. First, school attendance is universal only to age 16 in Alberta, with a small but recognizable minority leaving the school system after this age. The youth stage of life certainly extends past age 16, so any sample drawn through the school system necessarily creates misrepresentation of such a minority. Secondly, and more pragmatically, access to the school system for research purposes is extremely difficult and time consuming, involving representation to many bureaucratic levels, and a mass of documentation. This time factor proved to be the major constraint mitigating against the use of the school system

as a sampling framework.

The agency-oriented aspect of this study directed attention next to the use of the 4-H clientele itself as a research population. Several attractions became apparent

- 1. easy access to membership files
- 2. widespread geographic distribution of 4-H membership in Alberta
- Congruence of membership distribution with the chosen aspects of rurality the membership is exclusive of residents of Edmonton or Calgary, yet includes residents of all sizes of other communities
- 4. Inclusion within the membership of an age range covering all or most of the socially accepted concept of youth -- age 10 to 21 years

Sampling from the 4-H population along would, however, lead to some research problems:

- 1. Generalizability would be seriously reduced.

 Sampling techniques could allow safe generalization to the 4-H population, but only very tentative generalization to the rural youth population as a whole.
- The 4-H population diminishes past about age 16 to 17.
 This would lead to the same problem as school dropouts, with the probability existing of systematic differences between 4-H dropouts and remaining members. Without careful extension of the research design to determine any such differences, reliability is again somewhat compromised.

In the end, the decision was made to use the 4-H membership as the research population, with a dual reason. First, this researcher's professional involvement and personal interest has been in the Alberta 4-H organization for several years. An objective for this study is to provide policy recommendations for rural youth programming, with 4-H as the major focus. Thus the results, conclusions, and implications of this research, if directed toward 4-H, will have great personal professional significance.

Second, and growing out of the first, is the element of access. Through professional association and the interests of others in the Alberta 4-H organization, membership files could be made available for the purposes of this study, making sample selection a much less cumbersome task than would be the case if the school system was approached for access to school or student lists. Thus, finally, the research population of rural youth was delimited to Alberta 4-H members, as listed in the 1980-1981 membership files of the 4-H Branch of Alberta Agriculture.

The Societal Environment

As suggested in the discussion in Chapter II (see pp. 36 – 39), the genesis of developmental tasks of rural Alberta youth involves not only the youth themselves, but also the external influence of the elements of their societal environment. For this study, therefore, some indicator is necessary to reflect the societal environment of 4-H members.

A major element in the environment of youth is the home setting. While some evidence suggests that the place of a child among his siblings (ie. youngest, oldest) has some effect on his aspirations (Los, 1977), there is agreement among a large number of writers that parental influence is a major determinant of values, beliefs, and behaviors among many youth (Brittain, 1969; Desjarlais and Rackauskas, 1975; Gregory and Lionberger, 1968; Lindstrom, 1964; Los, 1971; McLeish, 1972; Schwarzweller and Lyson, 1974). In fact, "studies have show that there is an overlap in the values of parents and peer groups, and because of this the adolescent will often retain the moral and social values and beliefs of his parents" (Desjarlais and Rackauskas, 1975; 335).

Due to this observation that parental influence is a significant social and moral force in the environment of youth, the parents of 4-H members were chosen as a population to represent the societal element in the determination of developmental tasks of these members. Admittedly, other elements in the environment of youth are included in the overall external influence on task definition and timing. Parents remain a significant element, however, and perhaps even the *most* significant one, with the great majority of rural youth living most of their years, at least until about age 18, at home and under some degree of control or supervision by their parents.

In further operationalizing this element of parental influence, the question arose of whether both parents needed to be included. Intuitively, and from personal experience with rural families, one parent may be expected to possess a greater influence on a child than the other parent. This differential influence is not in the same direction for all families, nor even among all the children in one family. The differential is not necessarily sex—linked —— girls are not always more strongly influenced by their mothers, nor boys by their fathers. The observation remains simply that, for issues of values, beliefs or goals, each child tends to seek out one parent over the other one for consultation, and it is this parent which more strongly influences the development of the child.

With this in mind, the operationalization of the societal influence on 4 H members was completed. The population representing this influence was defined as one parent of each individual in the 4-H member population, with that parent independently selected by each member.

The Unit of Analysis

The assumption of two research populations — 4-H members and one of each, of their parents — created a potential problem of focus for the study. Was it to look at 4-H members, 4-H parents, 4-H families, or some combination of these? A review of the research objectives effectively answered such a question it was the developmental tasks of rural youth upon which the study focused. Thus, it was the 4-H members which constituted the focal population, with the individual member being the basic unit of analysis. The parents provided a second population by which to reinforce and help define the tasks of the members.

The question of ambiguous focus again arose during the determination of the sampling procedure. Contacts as desired with 4-H members, but also with one of each of their parents. In the interests of maximum sample coverage, it was deemed desirable to include only one 4-H member from families in which several of the children were members. Thus, if a member was to be included in the sample, any of his/her siblings would not be eligible for inclusion. Did this not, in effect, imply sampling of 4-H

A certain amount of deliberation and consultation concluded with the realization that sampling was indeed to be done from a population of 4-H families, but that this did not negate or comprehitise the basic focus on 4-H members. The family sampling framework was merely an intermediate tool through which to come into contact with 4-H members and one of each of their parents. This proved to be an essential cognitive realization to bridge the gap between the sampling techniques and the underlying research design and emphasis.

C. Sampling Procedures The Sampling Framework

The basic source for sample listings was the 1980-1981 4-H club membership files of the 4-H Branch of Alberta Agriculture. These files were organized alphabetically within stratifications of 4-H project and region, with an individual listing of members within each of the 542 clubs in the province.

This study was designed using the concept of rural as a continuum (see pp.), with community size as one parameter of that continuum. If community size was to be an important variable in the study, it became apparent that the sampling procedure must ensure representation from the range of community sizes. This could be arranged through proportionate stratified sampling, with the strata defined by community size-categories.

From the "Official Population List" (Alberta Municipal Affairs, 1980), It was observed that there was an inverse relationship between the number of communities in each size range and the size of the communities themselves. That is, fewer communities were listed with larger populations than smaller populations. It was therefore determined that, to create a sample stratification in which a manageable number of communities occupied each strata, it would be necessary to have narrower ranges on the smaller size strata than on the larger size strata. Thus six unequal strata were established: 1) unincorporated or less than 500 population, 2) 500 to 999, 3) 1000 to 1999, 4) 2000 to 3499, 5) 3500 to 4999, and 6) 5000 population or greater.

The next step in psoducing a sampling framework was to assign the 4-H members to their respective strate on the size of their home communities. 4-H clubs in

An added bonus of assignment of members to strata by club was that the club membership lists themselves could be used directly in the framework, without the necessity to tediously create a separate list member by member.

Finally, then, the sampling framework took the form of six groups of 4-H club membership lists. Each group included those 4-H clubs whose central communities fell into the community size range assigned to that group. Before the actual sample selection was made, 53 4-H clubs which had very recently been surveyed via questionnaires regarding perceptions and evaluations of various aspects of the 4-H program and the members' and leaders' use of leisure time. This survey was done through the Planning and Research Secretariat of Alberta Agriculture as part of a general assessment of the effectiveness of the 4-H program in Alberta. Through liason with the staff of that study as well as the 4-H Branch staff, it was decided that there was potential for negative reaction on the part of that survey's respondents if they were to be contacted again for this research study. The decision was made to negate the potential conflict by deleting those clubs from the sampling

framework. As the clubs in question had been initially selected for the other survey simple random sampling of the total 4-H club list, their exclusion from the curricular sampling walnessed would have no detrimental effect on reliability or representativeness. The adjusted framework thus included 489,4-H clubs. Sample Selection

4-H Members

Determining Sample Sizes

Recognizing the potential for negative reaction from 4-H parents if they were to be contacted several times because of several children in 4-H, it was decided to limit the contacts to a maximum of one 4-H member in any family. This decision would also maximize the distribution of the sample over the 4-H population.

However, the sampling framework, based on the 4-H club membership lists was not divided by families. In order to ensure representative sampling from the various community size strata, a method of establishing the number of families in each strata was devised.

From a simple random sample of 30 of the club membership forms, it was calculated that the mean number of families per club was 11.22. This number, multiplied by the known number of clubs in each strata, gave an expected number of families per stratum. The total number of 4-H families in the sampling framework was similarly calculated, in two ways to ensure accuracy in the calculations. First the mean number of families per club (11.22) was multiplied by the total number of clubs (489) to arrive at a total number of families of 5487. Secondly, the sum was taken of the calculated numbers of families in the six strata, which also proved to be 5487, indicating the internal accuracy of the calculation. The results of this series of calculations appear in Table I.

Knowing the number of families expected in each stratum and in total, it was then possible to determine the number of members (which was equal to the number of families) to be selected from the framework for each stratum of the sample.

Considering the number of total families (5487), desired precision of .05, and a confidence level or reliability of 90%, the minimum sample size was found to be

Table 1
Sampling Framework

Community Size Strata	Number of 4-H Clubs	Supected Families	Proportion of	Expected Sample
<500 500-999	268 57	3007	Families	216
1000-1999 2000-3499 3500-4999	57 53 27 46	640 595 303 516	.12 .11 .06	48 44 24
5000	38 N=489	426 N=5487	.09 .08	24 36 32 n=400

257, in Tables for Determining Sample Size and Sample Error (Portman et al., 1975).

The confidence level of 90% is a measure of the desired reliability for the research. That is, the proportion of the time that the research results might not in fact be expected to reflect the actual situation will be restricted to 10% or less. Precision of .05 implies that there is less than a 5% chance of error in representativeness of the sample to the total research population. Realizing that not every initial contact with 4-H members and their parents would yield information, the size of the total sample was arbitrarily increased to 400, in order to enhance the probability of receiving at least 257 useful responses.

To ensure that any family's chances of selection to the sample were proportionate to the size of its stratum, the proportion of total families to be found in each stratum was calculated. These proportions, multiplied by the total desired sample size of 400, yielded the number of families to be selected within the strata. The final columns of Table I indicate these proportions and resultant expected sample sizes.

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An Example of the Sampling Calculations

To clarify the procedure used to determine the stratified sample sizes, consider the case of the first and largest stratum — those communities unincorporated or under 500 population:

**Mumber of 4-H Clubs in Stratum = 268 (A)

projected Number of Families per Club = 11.22 (B)

(A) X (B) = Number of Families in Stratum 268 X 11.22 = 3007 (C)

Total Number of Families in Research Population = 5487 (D)

(C) / (D) = Proportion of Total Families in This Stratum 3007 / 5487 = 354 (E)

Desired Total Sample Size = 400 (F)

(E) X (F) = Desired Stratum Sample Size .54 X 400 = 216

Selection of the 4-H Member Sample

computer-generated random number lists were obtained, one for each stratum, with the number of indicated sample families per stratum randomly assigned from the total number of families per stratum. For the first stratum, for example, 216 numbers were randomly listed between 1 and 3007 (see above example).

The families within the club membership forms of the sampling framework were not individually numbered, however, so the actual selection of particular families became a rather tedious process of manually counting through the lists of each stratum by family. As the count reached each of the randomly generated numbers on the computer list, that family was selected into the sample.

Due to the inherent error associated with using a mean number of families per club (11.22) in the sampling calculations, the actual numbers of families in each of the strata proved to be somewhat different from the expected number. The sample sizes were adjusted accordingly, with larger than expected strata receiving a larger than planned number of sample assignments. Adjustments were made by adding to or deleting from the random number lists to coincide with the actual number of families found in the strata. The differences encountered, and the sample

adjustments made, are indicated in Table 2. Fewer than expected total families were encountered, so the total sample size decreased, finally numbering 388 rather than the expected 400. This total remained well above that required for 90% confidence.

One further task remained in the 4-H member sample selection. From thelist of families, a list comprised of one 4-H member from each of those families
needed to be developed. It was at this point that the focus of the research returned
from the sampling vehicle of the family to the 4-H member himself. For those
selected families with only one child in 4-H, the transfer was direct and obvious.
When several siblings were in a 4-H club, however, the additional step of randomly
selecting one from their number was performed. The simple but effective method
of rolling dice was used for this last level of random selection.

The end result of the process of sampling 4-H members was a group of six lists of 4-H members (one for each stratum) and their mailing addresses, totalling 388 in number.

4-H Parents

The research design required no additional pre-selection of parents. The research population comprised one parent of each 4-H member in Alberta, so the sample population became directly parallel to the 4-H member sample. Each selected member was to be allowed to select one of his parents, so contact with the parents would necessarily be made through the member sample. In essence, the one sample list of members would suffice to contact both sample populations.

Sample Accuracy

To verify that the sampling procedure outlined produced a representative and adequate sample, the following points should be considered:

- 1. The research population was specified as Alberta 4-H members, which follows very closely the chosen definition of rural youth, being non-metropolitan in coverage and including a large number (over 8500) of young people who are the clientele of a recognized youth development agency.
- 2. The population of 4-H members in Alberta was known, listable and finitely bounded.

Table 2
Actual Sample Drawn for the Study

Community Size Strata	Expected Families (Table 1)	Expected Sample (Table 1)	Actual Families	Actual Sample	Variation <u>from</u> Expected
<500 500-999 1000-1999	3007 640 595	216 48.8 44	2827 544 533	209 43 39	-7 -5 -5
2000-3499	303	24	298	22	-2
3500-4999	516	36	560	*41	+5
5000	426	. 32	432	34	+2
	N=5487	n=400	N=5194	n=388	-12

available official lists Errors in these lists could be expected to be small, and would have been detectable only through a complete census of all members in all 4-H clubs in the province.

- 3. An adequate total sample size was drawn to establish a confidence level of at least 90%.
- 4. The stratification in terms of community size ensured representation from a broad spectrum of 4-H members throughout the non-metropolitan section of the rural-urban continuum. Proportionate random sampling techniques within the stratification led to the total sample being a close representation of the community size configuration of the 4-H member population.

D. Methods for Collection of Information

Extensive reading culminated in the literature review appearing in Chapter II. It was through this reading that concepts regarding youth, youth development, needs and interests were clarified and their interrelationships established. Most importantly, the literature introduced the work of Havighurst with developmental tasks. Further

investigation of his work and conceptual framework led to the final decision to adopt developmental tasks as the means by which to focus this research on youth development.

During and after the literature review process, a number of discussions with various authorities on human development, needs assessment, and research methods and design took place. These resulted in further clarification of the concepts surrounding the research, as well as offering insight into potential directions by which to empirically deal with these concepts.

Once the decision was made to attempt to identify developmental tasks of youth, it became necessary to create an appropriate and valid procedure for doing so. A return to Havighurst's own material revealed that his framework of developmental tasks was largely based on theoretical and conceptual level considerations. After this basic framework was developed, limited testing was done with intensive longitudinal study of relatively small numbers of children and youth in various locales. Study methods were basically observational, involving post-interpretation of the exhibited behavior of subjects. Such methods could suffice to show the utility of the developmental task listings, and to assign subjects to positions within the overall sequence of the given tasks. For the purpose of this research study on Alberta 4-H members, however, the methods were considered too cumbersome and time-consuming, involving intensive long-term work with relatively few subjects rather than extensive contact with a large group of subjects. Just such extensive contact was deemed necessary to safely generalize information from this study to the total 4-H population and perhaps beyond. Two empirical methods were known to provide extensive coverage by survey of large groups of subjects -- interview and questionnaire (Babbie, 1973: 31-50).

The interview was a very attractive alternative, due to the potential for clarification of misunderstandings and the element of personal and rapport in dealing with subject matter that was essentially personal in nature. However, the interviewing of a large sample of 4-H members across Alberta and one of each of their parents was seen to be far too time-consuming and expensive, necessitating much travel and the hiring of a large group of interviewers. Of course, these problems could have been reduced, but not eliminated, through restructuring the sampling procedures to some form of area or cluster sampling rather than broad coverage. Nonetheless, constraints would remain in

gaining access to the desired subjects, because the available sampling lists offered only mailing addresses and not residence locations. Expense and time would similarly remain as constraints of the interview procedure. Thus it was decided to look seriously at the option of a self-administered mailed questionnaire procedure.

The disadvantages of the mailed questionnaire were seen to be exactly the converse of the advantages of the interview. There would be no opportunity to deal with misunderstandings of the respondents, and the questionnaire tool was definitely impersonal. Even more than the interview technique, mailed questionnaires would incorporate the element of self-selection, with the researcher holding little effective control over just which individuals in the sample would choose to respond or not to respond.

The advantages of the mailed questionnaire procedure lay largely in its practicality for easily contacting a large sample. In this case, mailing addresses were available directly through the sampling lists, and each address would suffice to contact both a 4-H member and a parent without having to prearrange any appointments. There was no need to hire a large staff, because the tasks involved in this procedure were few: questionnaire design and construction, printing, collating and mailing. In fact, the only staff input into the mechanics of this procedure, other than that of the researcher, were that of a data entry technician who transformed the constructed questioonnaire into a computer input suitable for large-scale computer-based printing, and one additional person assisting with collating.

The crucial question, after it was decided that a mailed questionnaire would make a practical research tool, was how such a tool could be designed to provide valid data on the variables associated with the research problem. The search for a solution to this question occupied much time and consultation with authorities and, along with the decisions regarding basic research questions, was the pivotal process upon which the entire outcome of the research study was to rest.

E. Questionnaire Design

The Nature of the Dependent Variables

As previously discussed, developmental tasks are measureable indirectly. Tasks become translated within the individual into personal goals, and it is these goals which serve as indicators of the assumption of elements of specific developmental tasks.

A major element of data therefore relates to personal goals identified by individual subjects. The dual input into the origins of developmental tasks—individual and societal—necessitate the extension of data into some area representing the societal expectations placed upon the individual, influencing their definition of the tasks and resultant goals. For this study of the developmental tasks of Alberta 4-H members, the societal influence is represented through questionning of their parents.

The determination of whether or not the goals indicative of a certain developemental task are held by a youth is enough to identify his assumption of the task, and its reality and validity for him. Such information, however, is limited in its potential for analytical interpretation. To determine the differences in force or prominence among a variety of identified goals, or their indicated tasks, another dimension of the question must be addressed. This involves a subjective assessment on the part of each youth of the importance he places on each goal. By aggregating the assessments for all the goals related to a single task, an indication of overall perceived importance of that task is established.

In addition to the presence and importance of each goal, it is important to discover its temporal nature — when it was or is expected to be reached.

Developmental theory suggests that young adolescents will likely view many tasks as long—term in nature, to be accomplished several years in the future, while older youth will consider more of the goals already reached and thus more tasks as already accomplished. In a similar way to both the presence and importance of goals, the temporal aspects of related goals may be aggregated to gain an indication of the overall temporal nature of the related developmental task.

While rural youth may be questioned directly about the presence, importance and timing of the goals they have set for themselves, the societal influence on their developmental tasks, as measured through their parents, is testable somewhat more

regarding the goals and tasks of youth, which are transmitted as expectations placed upon their children. Thus parents may be questioned about what they perceive should be the goals of their children, as well as associated perceptions of importance and timing. Such valuations provide an equitable basis for comparison and contrast with the assessments by youth themselves.

Pursuant to the preceding considerations, the conceptual level dependent variable for this research is the set of developmental tasks assumed by each youth and his parent. Each task is analyzed through a set of personal development goals, derived from the literature on developmental tasks, largely Havighurst (1953, 1974a) and Duvall (1977). (Refer to Figure IV, pp. .)

Dependent Variables: Questionnaire Items

Thirty-seven individual goals, subsumed under nine developmental tasks, were derived from the literature. Because the sample of 4-H members ranged in age from 10 to 21 years, it was necessary to develop for the questionnaire one or more statement(s) for each goal which would appear in a form and a vocabulary clearly understandable to respondents throughout such an age range. The final product, after many drafts and a pretest, was a list of 42 goal statements, which appear in the third column of Figure IV. Undoubtedly there are imperfections remaining in the phrasing of the goal statements. Recognizing the difficulty of making each statement simple enough for a ten-year-old to understand, yet not so simple as to be offensive to an eighteen- or twenty-year-old, and of ensuring that each statement was largely unambiguous, it was simply decided that at some point the list would have to be considered adequate. This point came after a successful pretest of 12 4-H members from age 10 to 16, of whom none indicated any problems with understanding the goal statements or of reacting negatively to them.

The research design necessitated receiving a parallel response from parents to the same list of 42 goals, to represent the influence of the societal environment on the developmental tasks of the 4-H member respondents. The list of goal statements was thus reworded in the third person for the parents' copy of the questionnaire, basically replacing "I" with "your child" and "me" with "him/her". The two copies of the

questionnaire, one for the 4-H member, and the other for a parent, appear in Appendix II.

For each goal statement, the information required from each respondent included an indication of whether or not the statement does indeed represent a perceived goal for him or his child and, if so, how important the goal was and when it was expected to be reached. The initial draft of a format intended to capture such information appears in Figure V.

A variety of problems arose in attempting to use that format in an initial test on a small group of adults and youth. The check-off system to indicate that a goal statement was not perceived as a goal by the respondent (Column D) proved quite adequate, and no problems were encountered with it. The other three columns, however, were as a group rather difficult for the test respondents to understand and use. The basic problem appeared to be that they were being asked to consider two dimensions of a goal at the same time — timing and importance — and respond to these two dimensions on importance scales embedded in a timing scale. The timing scale was not even unidirectional, visually going from near future (Column A) to distant future (Column B) to the past (Column C).

appeared when attempting to code and quantify the responses. The line scales of importance (Columns A and B) provided ambiguous information which was very difficult to code even using a clear overlay with the scale line subdivided and numbered. For example, in the illustration below it would be a very subjective choice between coding the response as a "4" or a "5".

1 2 3 4 X 5

A coarser scale, using less than five divisions, could have alleviated the problem, but would have too greatly limited the statistical variability of the responses.

The result of the initial test was the redrafting of the item format into a patternwhich was to prove much superior from the points of view of both the respondent and the researcher. This format was used in the final questionnaires. For clarification in this

Figure V - Preliminary Questionnaire Format

	A.	1000 THE SECURITY SEC	B. BEFORE		C. Already REACHED	ö
	WITHIN TWO YEARS		BECOMING AN ADUL!	U. I	IHIS GUAL	NOI A GUAL
	Very Very Unimportant Important		Very Unimportant	Very Important		
	Very Very Unimportant Important		Very Unimportant	Very Important	П	П
•	Very Very Unimportant Important		Very Unimportant	Very Important		
The second secon	Very Very Unimportant Emportant		Very Unimportant	, Very Important		ď°
81 s. 1	Very Very Unimportant Important		Very Unimportant	Very Important		
	Very Very Unimportant Important		Very Unimportant	Very Important		
	,	-				

discussion and comparison with the initial draft format, part of the questionnaire is reproduced in Figure VI.

goal was retained in Columns. For the alternative response to each item, if it was seen as a goal, the dimensions of time and importance were separated into two columns.

The timing response in Sourn A remained as a three - category scale (pagt, near future, and distant future). By all three categories being juxtaposed in a single unitdimensional scale, the element of timing which the respondent was asked to consider became much more clear. Rather than choosing one of three large columns, as was the case with the first draft, the respondent was asked only to choose one of three categories clearly titled within a single column.

The importance response was directed to Column B, containing a five - point scale in which each category was unique and discrete. The use of discrete categories alleviated the problem of ambiguity which resulted from the continuous scales of the first draft. The categories were numbered from 1 to 5, offering the respondent an intuitive sense of the ordinality of the scale with the dimension of importance increasing with higher numbers.

To reinforce this cognitive ordering, the endpoints of the scale were labelled "Slightly Important" and "Very Important". This again was a change from the first draft, which had scales ranging from "Very Unimportant" to "Very Important". This change resulted from the realization that any response in this column would necessarily indicate that the goal was perceived, and carried some degree of importance. The importance scale thus becomes unidirectional to match the concept of importance itself, recognizing that there was no negative side to importance, nor any neutral value. Importance was either to be seen, if only as "Slightly Important", or it was not to exist at all, in which case the item would be "Not A Goal". The endpoints of the scale, rather than being polar opposites, thus became minimal and maximal indications of some perceived degree of importance.

In the actual operation of the revised questionnaire, a respondent would read a goal statement and first decide whether or not it was a goal for him for should have been a goal for his child). If not a goal, Column C was checked and the respondent continued

	COLUMN A	TA NEWS		Money Re	S.				
	I WILL REACH THIS GO REACHED WITHIN AF THIS 2 YEARS YI GOAL	SE ZE	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	SECULIA SECULIA SECULIA					, O.
			, m		•	0	•	•	,
To thow when kind of man or stone with the become			•		•	m	•		100 mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/mg/m
To drop a glora and a line of the control of the co	7		•	-		Ġ.	•		
		i.	·_ ·	÷				i C	
			n a		*		*	•	
Properties of my			•		•	o o	*		
To so the result and				(a) :-		•			
Section of the way that will be way that will be well the			~~~;		N		•	p	
Service spout the way my	· -	•	'n			ø	•	•	
the second skill in sports second sec	- <	a	· (•)	-	Ŋ	1	4		4

on to the next item. If the statement did represent a goal, the respondent would be determine whether he had already conclude the goal, or anticipated resplaint it things thou term or long term in Column A, and then easign a degree of importance to it in Column B.

The aggregation of the sets of responses on all goal statements subsumed under a developmental task allowed a composite indication of the presence, timing and importance of that task to be developed in addition, specific anomalies among the goals themselves could be identified and examined.

The data collected through the above process was seen as sufficient to describe and differentiate and appropriate tasks of the research population. To make such information more in the second attribute variables were included in the analytical framework. These variables provided scope for determination of subpopulation correlates with major diversities among responses to the goal statements and developmental tasks. The independent variables include the following:

Age

The Attribute Variables

Developmental tasks are linked to maturation, so age of the adolescent respondent was obviously important. Developmental theory suggests that increasing age is associated with the assumption of more goals and tasks of the adolescent life stage, as well as a greater sense of the short term nature, or even previous completion, of these tasks. The potential age range of the sample population of 4-H members was basically 10 to 21 years, the official organizational age limitations. Sampling procedures attempted to minimize inclusion of any unnoficial "peawee" members 9 years or younger. Categories for analytical purposes were 12 years or younger, 13 to 15 years, and 16 years or older.

Sex

Many developmental tasks are sex-linked: family life preparation, career preparation, career preparation; physical and preparation; physical and payono-social maturity of girls over boys may have an affect on the assumption.

and importance of goals.

Family Structure

There is an increasing incidence of single-parent families in modern success, and this phenomenon is no longer largely restricted to urban populations. Many of the effects of the absence of one parent on the development of youth are untested, but there may well be a significant influence on values, aspirations, personal goals and perceived developmental tasks, both from the point of view of the youth and the remaining parent. Categories for this variable included the presence of both parents, the father only, the mother only, and a residual.

Residence

If rurality is to be treated as a continuum, then it becomes the that some means to classify points along that continuum is necessary. With this variable, one of the measures of rurality is presented, being indicated by residence on a farm, on an acreage, on in a village, town or city.

Community Size

A second classification along the rurality continuum is that of the population size of one's home community. Two aspects of this variable influenced the selection of category limits: a workable numerical intra-class range between minimum and maximum, and the relative population proportions within each class range. Six non-equidistant class ranges of population were used less than 500, 500 to 999, 1000 to 1999, 2000 to 3499, 3500 to 4999, and 5000 or greater.

Region

The inclusion of this variable rests upon the possibility that society does in fact vary from one geographical area of the province to another. Thus the societal imperatives for developmental tasks would similarly vary. Of course, societal differences by geography could well be reflectives of state variables, with geography being incidentable only intervening in the relationship. For example, then

are certainly religio-cultural variations present throughout Albertic East - European heritage in the northeast, French - Canadian throughout the north, Mormonism in the south, and so on While any significant findings related to geographic location could not specify any such underlying relationships, they could indicate a need for further in-depth research, and offer pragmatic direction to youth programming efforts.

Parent Education

The level of education of a youth's parents is likely to have an effect on his developmental tasks and goals in two ways. First, increased education may be related to a broader more cosmopolitan world view on the part of the parents, which in turn will be reflected in the pressures and developmental expectations they place on the child. Secondly, by transfer of ideas and knowledge from parent to child, the adolescent's personal world view and aspirations may be altered, affecting the values and goals he chooses in any event; aspirations and goals of children and youth are known to be related to parental education (Blackburn et al., 1975; Lindstrom, 1964; Los, 1971; Schwarzweller, 1967). The level of education of the respondent's parents in this study is the mean of both parents' placing on a six-point scale from no formal education to university level experience.

Number of Children in Family,

This variable may be differentially related to the task responses of adolescents versus their parents. For youth, the number of siblings may well affect the sense of responsibility and group interaction skills. For the parents, the number of children may be related to the type and magnitude of subjectations placed upon individual children, and the perceived importance of soo an adigration and cooperation.

Sex of Parent Respondent

In a similar fashion to the way if which a youth's sex is expected to affect the importance, timing and even the presence of some developmental goals, the sex of the parent respondent is likely to have impact on the value judgements he/she places on possible goals for his/her child, in effect, this variable is included under the assumption that sex role differences in adulthood are reflected in the expectations and aspirations a parent has for his/her child.

School Grade

Effects from this variable parallel those from "age", but it provides an internal reliability check, as well as another measure of maturation which is easily understood by most people. Additionally, any anomalous age-grade responses are indicative of cases for closer examination of apparently complex relationships. For analysis, this variable is categorized into four categories: elementary, junior high, senior high, and post-secondary.

Student Status

This variable comes into effect largely later in adolescence. With compulsory education until age 16 in Alberta, younger youth are almost universally students. Youth over 16 years, however, may choose non-student status, and such a choice may be reflected in a distinctive pattern of responses to the goal statements. Any such patterning is of definite import to youth oriented programs and agencies.

Years in 4-H

Because a major objective for this research is directed toward youth programming, and the 4-H control specifically, this variable is included to provide an indication of the effect of differing relative. H tenures on perceptions of developmental tasks. Although the sample is limited to 4-H hembers, the years of experience with the program varies widely and is not directly parallelled by age. Thus some indication of the effect of 4-H tenure independently of age is possible, and provides directly relevant data for 4-H policy determination. Again, categories of two-year intervals to a maximum of "7 or more" are created for analysis.

4-H Club Type

For similar reasons, the effects of 4-H project affiliation on goal responses is tested, to determine whether such responses vary systematically among youth who are attracted specifically to any of the variety of available 4-H projects. Of course, not all projects are available in an organized club in every community. Nonetheless, the distribution of availability is largely unpatterned other than on a broad geographical basis, and many communities do have more than one 4-H project organized.

An additional compounding factor here is the traditional sex stereotyping influence on choice of project. For example, clothing projects are typically viewed as suitable for girls only, while automotives or woodworking are largely perceived as limited to male membership. Significant effects of this variable are thus only guardedly amenable to interpretation with suitable cautions, and are certainly indicative of the need for further directed research.

For categorization, the five 4-H projects with the greatest enrollment, along with a residual category, are utilized.

In the layout of the questionnaire itself, most of the questions dealing with these attribute variables are placed in Part I of the copy directed toward the 4-H members. Those questions for which there is reasonable doubt that the members would have the desired information, or for which it is more sensible to direct the question to the parents; are set into Part I of the parents copy to be involved here are 'number of children', 'sex of the parent results amily structure', and 'parental education'.

Perceptions of 4-H Programming

A major objective for this study is to develop policy recommendations for the Alberta 4-H organization. To increase the effectiveness and explicitness of the recommendations, the second section of the questionnaire is devoted to questions designed to setablish the relative priorities, in terms of importance, placed on various

aspects of 4-H programming by the respondents. Figure VII reproduces these quastions from the actual questionnaires.

Two basic groups of questions are included, to generate information onperceptions of two somewhat different aspects of 4-H programming. First, there is the
aspect of the relative importance among broad and generalized areas of emphasis in the
program. These are not specific activities, but rather are more expansive elements of the
overall program, toward each of which might be directed a variety of events, semistate or
other activities.

The second group of questions are directed toward importance ratings of more specific types of visible activities and events in the Alberta 4-H program. Each item indicates a category of similar events, either in content, scope or both. The items included in the two groups of questions are derived targely from the researcher's personal experience with the program, in conjunction with reference to the stated abjectives for the organization (Alberta Agriculture, 1980). Two additional blank items are included in each group to allow the respondent to create his own items if he feels the provided list is incomplete.

A five-point discretely categorized importance scale provides the framework for the response to each item. In this section the lower endpoint is titled not important, to allow a respondent to indicate that he feels the given item carries no real value at all within the H program. This is necessary due to the instruction to the respondent to respond to each of the items, rather than just responding when he perceives some degree of importance for an item.

The guestions in this section are initially worded rather simply, with easily, understood directions, so they are used identically in both the member and parent copies of the questionnaire.

F. Questionnaire Testing and Administration Pretest

The revised format for the questionnaire was subjected to a small-scale but complete pretest. A single 4-H'club, from which it was determined no member was included in the research sample, was selected for the pretest. The selection of the club

9 Below are listed some areas of emphasis in 4*-H. Beside each one; circle the number that shows how important you feel that area should be in the 4-H-program. The higher the number; the more importance it shows.

	Not⊚ Important: "	Very Important
Project Training - members	3 1 2 3	4 5
Project Training - adults:	3	4 5
Public Speaking and Communications: * members	-2 3	4 5
Public Speaking and Communications - adults	1 2 3	4 5
Leadership Training - members	1 2 3	4 5
Leaderahip Training - adults		\$ 5
Citizenship Training	1 .2 3	4. 5.
Social Experience	1 2 3	4 5
Other:	_ 1 2 3	4 5,01
Other:	1. 2 . 3	4 5

10. Below are listed some events and activities in 4-H. Beside each one, circle the number that shows how important you feel it should be in the 4-H program.

The higher the number, the measurements it shows

Nort significant		Very Important
Project Meetings and Workshops	2 3 2	5
_Tours	. 2 3	1 5
Achievement Days 1	, 23	.5
Public Speaking Workshops 1	- 2 3 🕭 🗀	1 5
Public Speaking Contests 1	2 3	5
Exchanges 1	2 · •,, 3 · ·	1
Social Events 1	2 / 3	5
Regional Summer Camps 1	2 3	4
Provincial Members Camps 1	2 3	4 5
Leader's Werkshops	2 3	5
Other:	2 3 2 3	5 1 5

was based on its location at a reasonably short distance for delivery and pick-up of the questionnaires, the willingness of the club leader to assist with the pretest, an adequate number of families in the club, the age range of its members, and its holding club meetings at a suitable time for the pretest. In fact, it was the fourth club contacted which satisfactorily satisfied all of these conditions.

In order to approximately simulate the actual response conditions, yet to avoid unnecessary delay, it was decided that the researcher would not personally supervise the completion of the questionnaires. Rather, they would be distributed to the 4-H members at one club meeting, completed at home, and collected at the following meeting two weeks later. Distribution and collection was done by the club leader, who instructed the members and parents to note any items or instructions with which they had difficulty in understanding or completing. After collection; the researcher met with the club leader to examine the returns and discuss the parents' and members' reactions.

Twelve sets of questionnaires (member and parent) were completed, with the members ranging in age from 10 to 16. There were apparently no serious problems encountered in completing the questionnaires, although in several cases the younger members asked their parent(s) to confirm their understanding of the items or instructions. As this sort of parent-member collaboration was deemed non-problematic in terms of potential bias in the responses, the covering letter to the parents was altered to specifically solicit parental aid in ensuring member comprehension of instructions and questions. A strongly worded request was added that the actual responses not be discussed between member and parent until after the respective copies of the questionnaire had been completed. The final draw of the covering letters appears with the questionnaires in Appendix II.

The results of the pretest basically confirmed that the revised format of the questionnaire was acceptable and understandable to the respondents, that it provided unambiguous codable information, and that it was exhaustive in terms of the goals percieved by 4-H members and their parents. Other than minor changes in the spacing of the items and the wording of the covering letters, no alterations to the questionnaire format were deemed necessary between the pretest and the full-scale administration.

Administrative Procedures

Following the pretest; the questionnaires and covering letters were printed in quantity. Also at this time a computer-generated set of mailing labels was obtained, with one additional set in anticipation of a follow-up mailing.

The package mailed to each 4-H member in the sample included one copy of the member's form of the questionnaire and one copy of the parent's form, each with its covering letter, along with a stamped and addressed return envelope, all of which were in one large envelope on which was affixed the mailing label and postage. Both copies of the questionnaire were to be returned in the same envelope, to allow for the matching of parent and member rexponses.

Each package was sent to the 4-H member himself. In the member's covering letter, he was instructed to give the parent's copy, with its attatched letter, to one of his parents, the choice of which was his. Both covering letters explained the purpose and importance of the study, and urged non-collaboration between member and parent in completing the questions. After displetion, both copies were to be folded and returned in the envelope provided.

Two weeks after the questionnaire packages were mailed, a one-page follow-up letter was sent to the entire sample, addressed to the 4-H member but directed to the member and parents together. (See Appendix III)

Of the 388 initial packages, nine were returned undelivered and two were returned from 4-H families who declined to participate. With these deletions, the potential sample numbered 377.

Three weeks after the follow-up letter was mailed, atotal of 129 returns had been received, for a response of 34.2%. While a larger response would have been desirable, this total was considered acceptable, especially in light of the coincidental onset of the time of heavy spring farm work and year-end school activity, both of which would tend to reduce the time and/or willingness of potential respondents to complete and return the questionnaires.

Suggested Procedural Alterations

In retrospect, three alterations to the data collection procedure are apparent which would have potentially improved the number of responses and the confidence in their reliability.

The first change would be a simple format change in the questionnaire from printing on both sides of each page to printing on one side only. Two responses contained at least one fully blank side, quite obviously due to the respondent simply turning past it as the questions were completed. Additionally, the issue arises of whether the questionnaire, with printing on both sides, might not have appeared too complex for some of the potential respondents to even attempt to complete it. One sided printing could have relieved this apparent complexity, although adding to the apparent length by increasing the number of pages. The addition of page would also have increased printing and mailing costs.

Secondly, anticipation of the detrimental effects of spring farm work and school year-end activity would have led to either an alteration of the scheduling of the mailouts or an increase in the size of the initial mailout. Either of these options could have the effect of increasing the total number of responses.

Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly, some mechanism was necessary by which any systematic bias in non-response could be tested. By assuring absolute anonymity of response, there remained no means to identify either respondents are non-respondents from the sample list. Had such dentification been possible, direct contact with a sub-sample of the non-respondents could have led to an assessment of whether or not the initial respondents were indeed representative of the whole sample and thus of the population under study. Without such assessments, only limited conclusions of representativeness may be made, based on comparison of respondent characteristics with known population parameters. Of course, any mechanism to identify respondents darries its own risks. If known to the respondents, it may well reduce the response rate even further. If hidden from them, the researcher faces a definite expical problem.

G. Reliability and Validity of Empirical Data

As discussed, the external reliability of the data from the questionnaires may be somewhat uncertain, due to the inherent inability to test for systematic response bias. However, as the discussion of the socioeconomic characteristics of the sample will indicate (see Chapter V), there are certain congruencies between the sample data and known population data. Thus, the external reliability, while remaining essentially uncertain, may be assumed to be within acceptable limits.

Internal reliability of the questionnaire data is somewhat more directly testable. Comparisons of the responses between similar items can generally identify those individuals who completed the questionnaires by random or patterned responses. In this study, in which respondents were asked questions about subject matter with which they were largely familiar and knowledgeable, or in which they had some personal interest, irrational of frivolous responses should have been few. In fact, no such responses were detected. The comparisons were made between similar items in each of the three sections of the questionnaire for both the members and parents.

Validity of the data is a much more difficult condition to evaluate, involving an assessment of whether the questionnaire items did indeed represent the variables and concepts as intended. The socioeconomic data is rather straightforward, with very direct links between the questionnaire items and the variables themselves. Similarly, the section on perceptions of the importance of aspects of 4-H programming is largely non-problematic. Potentially invalid responses could occur in this section if the respondents misinterpreted the items or in fact were not knowledgeable about some of the items. Again in retrospect, the inclusion of a residual category for a "Don't Know" response could have perhaps made the validity of this section more certain. In most cases, nowever, the items were broad enough and clear enough that virtually any 4-H member or parent would recognize them as existing or potential aspects of their 4-H experience. There was certainly no indication from the pretest or from the actual responses of any problems in this regard.

It is in the crucial third section of the questionnaire, dealing with the goals of 4-H members, that the ascription of validity becomes least definite. Due to the lack of parallel research or literature using these or other goals as means to identify and assess

developmental tasks, the approach adopted in this study cannot depend on precedent to support claims of validity. Such claims must rest largely on the procedure by which the questionneire items were developed, directly from the works of Havistant (1953, 1974a) and Duvall (1932). While the translation from their somewhat academic statements into language atom suitable for the sample could introduce some ambiguity, lack of clarity or even misquested, the rather extensive consultation that took place during that translation process should have minimized any such problems. It is therefore suggested that the third section of the questionnaire does indeed adequately reflect parameters of the goals of youth, and that these goals in turn comprise a reasonable and valid basis for the investigation and discussion of their developmental tasks. This is not to imply that the items in the questionnaire are without imperfections, but rather that, in general, they solicit responses as they were intended and provide the information desired.

IV. Procedures for Analysis and Interpretation of Data

A. Introduction

Before any decisions regarding the scrutiny and interpretation of data may be made, it is necessary to give summary consideration to the types of information present, and the uses to which they are put.

For this study, the mass of information gathered from the literature on youth, needs, youth development and developmental tasks has largely been used to clarify and support the focus and objectives of the research. Additionally, the basic content of the questionnaire derives directly from such literature.

Methodological literature similarly has had impact on the format of the questionnaire, and has been taken into consideration in the finalization of administrative and analytical procedures. Of the many options presented in this literature, the selected ones have largely been supported to reference to the nature of specific elements of the study, while the actual selection has been facilitated by numerous consultations with available authorities in this field.

Records and data from the provincial government Departments of Municipal

Affairs and Agriculture have been employed in designing and verifying the samples, and
further in analytical comparison with questionnaire data received.

The major focus of the study—the empirical investigation of the developmental tasks of Alberta 4—H members—has been approached through the use of a questionnaire. The questionnaire is subdivided into three sections, each of which provides specific types of data suitable for various statistical analytical procedures. The rest of this chapter provides discussions on the nature of the data derived from the questionnaire sections, their analytical purposes, and the selected statistical measures.

B. Relationships Tested

The three major sections of the questionnaire involve questions on socioeconomic attributes, perceptions of 4-H programming, and the goals of the 4-H members. While a large part of the data analysis and discussion is devoted to describing in detail the patterns of response to these questions and groups of questions, an

important element of the study is the determination of relationships between and among a variety of the responses. The relationships to be tested are outlined in Figure VIII.

There are in essence two separate but related directions in which relationships are tested among the variables. The first of these involves those relationships between the entire group of socieconomic attributes and the perceptions of both 4-H members and parents of the importance and timing of developmental tasks for the members, as well as the presence of goals within those tasks. The purpose of these tests is to attempt to define existing subgroups within the sample populations, based on their attributes and task perceptions. The knowledge of such subgroups could have significant impact on the design and delivery of 4-H and similar rural youth programs.

The second direction for testing involves relationships between direct 4-H membership attributes and the perceptions of members and parents of the importance of various elements of 4-H programming. Due to the study's direction toward 4-H as an organization, implications and recommendations specific to 4-H are desirable outcomes. Thus a detailed investigation of the 4-H membership correlations with differential perceptions of the 4-H program is intended to provide very specific and directed information from which to draw such conclusions.

Of course, the variety and the scope of the variables indicated in Figure VIII create the potential for the testing of numerous relationships not included in this study. Rather than attempting a comprehensive and exhaustive study at this time, this research effort is entended to provide an initial base of information from which to assess the current developmental tasks of Alberta 4–H members and other rural youth, as well as to provide some basic recommendations to the Alberta 4–H organization. Further research, making use of the data from this study or extending it, and with knowledge of the utility of the questionnaire design used here, may well add much to any understandings derived from this research, and certainly should offer on detailed, in-depth investigations of many of the basic relationships uncovered here.

Within the scope of this study, however, a discussion of the analytical tools employed to reach conclusions from the raw data provides a base upon which to set the findings and conclusions themselves.

Figure VIII Relationships To Be Tested

Importance of 4-H Areas of Emphasis

Importance of 4-H Activities & Events

Years in 4-H
4-H Club Type

Age

Sex (member)

Place of Residence

Region

Student Status

Grade -

Number of Children

Sex (parent)

Family Structure

Parent Education

Developmental Tasks

(as perceived by members and their parents)

- Importance
- '- Timing
- Presence of Goals

C. Statistical Procedures

Socioeconomic Attributes

With one exception, all socioeconomic and attribute questionnaire items are treated as individual variables. The exception is in mother's and father's education responses, which are collapsed for statistical analysis into a unified parental education variable taking the value of the mean of the two responses. The levels of measurement for all these independent variables, which partially determine the appropriateness of various statistical tests, are presented in Table 3.

While more of the variables (i.e. age, grade, community size) could be dealt with as interval data, categorization into unequal but ordered categories necessitated their being analyzed as ordinal data.

The proportionate response frequencies for the various categories of the attribute variables constitute the bulk of the descriptive discussion. For appropriate variables (i.e. age, number of children, etc.) a measure of central tendency, the arithmetic mean of the frequency distribution, provides a single numerical index to summarize the findings. As these findings essentially constitute a description of the sample characteristics, comparisons with known characteristics of the overall 4-H member population for some of the variables provides a means of assessing the representativeness of this sample, and thus the reliability of the information generated in the study.

Perceptions of 4-H Programming

The descriptive information desired regarding the perceptions of the importance of elements of 4-H program is basically of two types. First, within each of the sample populations of 4-H members and their parents, the absolute importance of each element, along with the relative priorities among the elements, provides information by which the impact and relevance of the programming may be assessed. Second, information of value in the promotion and direction of the various program elements rests in the comparison between the two sample populations. If 4-H members and their parents, as groups, differ in their ascriptions of absolute or relative importance among the aspects of 4-H programming, then implications appear for the emphasis, and the direction of emphasis,

Table 3

Levels of Measurement: Attribute Variables

Nominal Ordinal Interval

Sex Age Years in 4-H
Place of Residence Community Size Number of Children
Region Grade
Student Status Parent Education
4-H Club Type
Family Structure

in promoting and explaining these aspects to the two populations.

With the importance here of comparison between the perceived importance of the various aspects of 4-H, and between these perceptions from the two sample groups, simple frequency distributions are insufficient and too cumbersome to serve as comparative tools. For these variables, therefore, a measure of central tendency of the response distribution is used as a standard index for comparative purposes. Choices for this measure include the median, the mode and the mean. The median, or middle category in the range of responses, is of-very limited use when a maximum of five response categories are available. Similarly the mode, or most common response, provides only a very gross index of the distribution. The mean, however, is not numerically limited to the integer category values, and is thus capable of exhibiting a much finer and more precise value, providing a more adequate basis for comparison.

The validity of calculating the mean of an essentially ordinal variable is somewhat controversial in statistical theory and practice. However, Labovitz (1970,1972) very convincingly presents empirical examples of the assignment of interval values to ordinal scales, with subsequent correlational analysis. His conclusions are that the treatment of ordinal scales as interval does result in negligible error if category values are assigned in keeping with the monotonic nature of the ordinality and if such values are neither highly skewed nor artificially dichotomous. Also, error increases with scales which have very large numbers of categories.

For the index computations considered in this study, the category values are assigned in monotonic order, are equidistant, unskewed and non-dichotomous. Thus, if

Labovitz' arguments are accepted, limited treatment of the ordinal scales as interval is valid and justifiable. Thus, the use of the arithmetic mean as an index is deemed to be as acceptable as any alternative descriptive technique, and is more easily and intuitively understood, as well as more meaningful. The use of means also allows direct comparisons between the variables, opening the way for further analysis.

On the basis of these arguments, the mean importance rating for each of the elements and activities of the 4-H program is used as the index by which to make comparisons between the elements and between the sample populations.

Developmental Tasks

Task Indices

The responses to the 42 goal statement items, from 4-H members and parents, constitute the data base for the variables dealing with developmental task elements. Each statement involves a response on three sub-items corresponding to Columns A, B, and C in the questionnaire. In effect, each statement represents three variables associated with a single goal: timing, importance, and goal/ no goal status. Timing and importance are scaled ordinal variables, while goal/no goal status is a dichotomy.

With the completed questionnaires from a member and his parent treated as one composite "response", at the basic input level there are two hundred fifty two variables in this section (42 goal statements X 3 variables each X 2 sample groups). Responses to these goal statement variables are summarized in Appendix I, but are not individually used for analysis.

While individual goal statement data could provide information and insight, it must be remembered that the overall focus of this research is on the larger developmental tasks of rural Alberta youth. Each goal statement is presented independently to the respondents, but in reality represents one sub-goal among a group of others. Together, these comprise the elements of a developmental task. To deal with the data in terms of developmental tasks therefore necessitates the recombination and aggregation of a group of goal statement responses.

As previously indicated in Figure IV, from two to seven goal statements represent each of the nine adolescent developmental tasks. For each task, it is necessary to aggregate the responses from its constituent group of goal statements for the three variables—timing, importance and goal/ no goal status. Each task may thus be analyzed by a single index on each of those three variables.

The Timing Index

The timing index for each task is constructed by summing the values of the constituent goal statement timing responses for each respondent, and dividing this total by the number of statements involved. Missing responses, assigned a value of zero, are excluded from this computation, with the denominator adjusted accordingly, to avoid confounding the index. The timing index thus derived may be treated as a limited continuous variable, varying between the values of "1" and "3"; with lower values indicating a greater proportion of constituent goals seen as already completed, and higher values indicating a greater proportion with expected completion further in the future. An index value of "1" would mean all goals are perceived as already reached, while a "3" value would mean all goals are expected to be reached after more than two years. In essence the timing index for each developmental task provides a numberical indication of the perceived earliness or lateness of anticipated accomplishment of the task as a whole. Separate indexes are calculated for members and for parents, to facilitate intergroup comparisons.

Reduced to essentials, the calculation process is one of determining the mean of the timing responses for the constituent goal statements of each task. The rationale for the use of the mean with essentially ordinal data has been discussed previously (see pp.).

Without negating the validity of Labovitz' arguments, but realizing their controversial nature, the calculation of indices through the use of means is the extent of non-ordinal treatment of the data. Further analysis uses non-parametric techniques suitable to nominal and ordinal data, thus erring, if at all, in the direction of statistical conservatism.

The Importance Index

The index for importance for each of the nine developmental tasks is constructed through the same process as for the timing index, summing the non-zero importance responses for the constituent goal statements, and dividing by the number of those responses. The range in this case is between "1" and "5", with a low value indicating less importance assigned to a task than a high value.

The Goal/No Goal Index

The aggregation of the goal no goal responses requires different treatment due to the dichotomous nature of the input variable. The arithmetic mean is of limited use due to its restricted range from 0 to 1, with a value of 0 indicating all statements are considered goals and a value of 1 indicating no statements are seen as goals. Assummary of task indicas using this method appears in Table 30.

easily understood. In the case of the goal no goal responses the form of summation is that of the case of the goal no goal responses the form of member respondent for each developmental task. For comparative purposes, the sum is placed in a fractional proportion of the number of goal statements constituting the overall task. These proportions are the ones used for descriptive purposes in the discussion and interpretation of the data, while the indices produced by the use of the means calculation provide the basis for analysis of relationships.

Analysis of Relationships

To move from the area of basic description of individual variable frequencies and interpretive comparisons between like variables, requires a statistical shift into some form of multivariate analysis. For parametric interval data the common standard is Pearson's product—moment coefficient of correlation r. However, to deal with non-parametric ordinal and nominal data, other statistical measures of association are necessarily put to use.

By treating all the developmental task variables (timing, importance and no-goal proportions) as ordinal, a minimum of standardization of statistical testing is established. However, as noted in Table 3 earlier in this Chapter, the independent variables are not similar in terms of level of measurement. While they could all be transformed to nominal level, the resultant loss of information could hardly be justified. However, by treating 'years in 4-H' and 'number of children' as ordinal variables, little information is lost and only two levels of measurement are left for analysis: nominal and ordinal

One aspect of the multivariate analysis of this study involves measuring the association between the set of independent attribute variables and the set of dependent developmental task variables. As the independent variables are themselves of two types — nominal and ordinal — two different measures of association are indicated.

For relationships between two ordinal measures, a measure of association which is closely analogous to Pearson's r is Kendall's rank-order coefficient tau (). Tau varies from -1 to +1, with large absolute values indicating strong correlations. For all tests of association in this study using the ordinal independent variables, the tau statistic is used.

For relationships between ordinal dependent variables and nominal multi-category independent variables, the Kruskal-Walfis test of association provides an appropriate statistical methodology. For large samples (n 15), this test modifies the chi-square statistic to measure whether or not the variable distribution are groups, or nominal categories, are different. The Kruskal-Wallis test is used for provides in this statistic involves nominal independent variables.

A third type of relationship to be tested in this research is that between the developmental task response patterns of 4-H members and their parents, as two distinct population groups. The dependent variable in such a relationship remains the task indices, but the independent variable is actually a dichotomous nominal variable with categories of 'parent' or 'member'. In this case, the Wilcoxon matchedpairs signed ranks test becomes appropriate, adapting the Z-statistic, for sample sizes over 30, to test the similarity of ordinal distribution characteristics between two sample groups.

For the analysis of relationships of the two 4-H membership attribute variables with the 4-H programming importance rating, similar measures of association are employed. Recognizing that the importance ratings are ordinal in nature, the choice of

statistic depends on the attribute variables. If "years in 4-H" is treated as ordinal, then Kendall's *tau* becomes appropriate. '4-H club type', however, is nominal, so the chosen measure is again the Kruskal-Wallis test.

For all tests of association, some measure of the significance (likelihood of error) must accompany the statistic before interpretation becomes meaningful. In this study, the commonly used chi-square test of significance is employed, with the .05 level of significance chosen as a basis for determining the existence of relationships. Thus any relationships exhibiting significance levels of greater than .05 are treated as non-relationships in the discussion, under the assertion that a probability of error in excess of 5% is unacceptable in any established relationship.

(For the statistical tests mentioned in the preceding discussion, clear explanations, rationales and examples are presented in Mason (1978), Nie et al. (1970), Hull and Nie (1979) and Meddis (1975).)

Inferential Interpretation

The description of variable frequencies and bivariate relationships can certainly increase the store of factual knowledge surrounding the subject items, but cannot remain as the totality of any research effort.

The gathering of data in this research study is therefore designed to provide an empirical basis, supported by other studies and theoritical considerations, by which to develop conclusions regarding the developmental tasks of rural Alberta youth, and from these to determine implications for rural youth programming. The focus on the 4-H organization is partially an end in itself, but is also partially directed toward a broader generalization to rural youth.

With this in mind, the relationships found and, equally, those *not* found in the data underly the conclusions and implications to be drawn. Any suggested relationship has meaning beyond the mere fact, and it is this meaning which is dealt with in the way of conclusions or, occasionally, speculations which provide impetus for further research endeavours.

While many of the individual conclusions are included within the discussions of the data results, they also appear in summary form in Chapter IX following these

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discussions, as do the resultant implications for 4-H programming.

V. Results and Discussion: Socioeconomic Attributes

The characteristics of the sample for this study may, in themselves, provide the basis for direct implications for 4-H policy. Additionally, they create a background image of the people whose perceptions are discussed in sections to follow. The correlations between these characteristics and perceptions then form the underlying data for most of the policy implications.

Where population data exists, the sample characteristics are compared with those of the overall 4-H membership in Alberta. From this comparison is gained a sense of the representativeness of the sample and the reliability of the generalizations. All 4-H population data is derived from Alberta Agriculure's "4-H Clubs in Alberta. Statistical Information for the Year 1980-81"(1981).

A. Age and Sex

Table 4 portrays the age/sex composition of the youth respondents. Almost two thirds of the sample are female. The age structure is essentially similar between the sexes, with almost half the respondents between ages 14 and 16, and about one quarter in each of the older (>16) and younger (10-13) age groups. The mean age is 14.75 years.

In comparison to the Alberta 4-H population, the sample is slightly overrepresented with females, although the population does itself have significantly larger female than male memberships. The basic sex structures of the sample and the population are thus largely similar.

In the age distribution, however, several striking dissimilarities appear. The sample is definitely underrepresented with the younger age category and overrepresented with the older group. Mid- and upper-age groups of females are most seriously overrepresented.

The age misrepresentation could have several possible explanations. Older 4-H members are perhaps more interested in the subject matter of this survey. As already mentioned, the format of the questionnaire, with two-sided printing and relatively small type characters, could be somewhat daunting to younger 4-H members, with either themselves or their parents deciding it would be too difficult for them to complete. In any case, the differences appear to be too large to dismiss as a normal random selection

Table 4
Age and Sex of Respondents

^	-	\sim

		Male	Fem	Female			
AGE	Sample	Alberta	Sample	Alberta	Sample	Alberta	
10-13	11.7% (15)	22.1%	18.0% (23)	32.9%	29.7%	55.0%	
14-16	14.8% (1 9)	14.9%	31.3% (40)	19.1%	46.1%	34.0%	
>16 \	8.6% (1.1)	4.9%	15.6% (20)	6.1%	24.2%	110%	
	35.1% (n=45)	41.9% (N=4067)	64.9% (n=83)	58.1% (N=5652)	100% \((n=128)	100% (N=9719)	٨
					,		

error.

For analytical purposes, age is a much-used variable in this study. The sample variation from the population is largely non-problematic in those tests in which age itself is one of the variables, because categorical age divisions are made. However, a number of independent variables (i.e. grade, years in 4-H, student status) may well be themselves influenced by age. To minimize any bias resulting from age misrepresentation, tests involving such variables are conducted with a parallel test for the age variable.

The age and sex distributions of the 4-H membership are of obvious importance to the type and level of programming to be offered in the organization. Policy implications may be derived very directly from this data. Sample and population data agree that membership diminishes sharply after age 16, indicating that the 4-H organization either should direct the great majority of its programming effort toward members 15 or younger, or should redesign some elements of its program to appeal directly to those 16 or older. The age of 15 or 16 years is well-recognized as a major milestone or turning point in the developmental psychology of youth. It may well be, therefore, that the 4-H organization should offer two different, separate, and only partially sequential programs—one for youth from 10 to 15 years old, and one for

those 16 or older. While the data suggest the potential utility of such a division, more than mere facts will necessarily have a part to play in the decision. Tradition, vested interest in current emphasis, future plans and quasi-political considerations will all have some impact in the decision-making process by 4-H policy makers

B. Residence Location

Table 5 indicates that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (>80%) live on farms, with the remainder almost equally, split between acreage dwellers and those from a village, town or city.

The sample distribution on this variable almost exactly parallels that of the 4-H population, although the sample slightly overrepresents village, town or city residents. Such a difference is slight, and the sample to population representativeness in this case is well within acceptable limits.

The proportionate residence locations of 4-H members largely reflects the history of the program and its traditional rural farm base. In recent years the 4-H organization has put much effort into diversifying the program beyond the farm population, although the data suggests results have been of only limited success. The decision facing the organization now is whether to continue its efforts to increase its non-farm membership, which is, in effect, an attempt to parallel the overall provincial population trend of a decreasing proportionate farm population. The alternative is to decide that 4-H as a program will be aimed basically toward a farm membership, with the corollary that organizational emphasis should therefore be directed toward projects and activities of special significance to farm youth. Mere facts cannot direct this decision—it must be left to the larger considerations of the 4-H organization's policy makers themselves.

C. Size of Home Community

The size of home community for the respondents varies greatly, although, as

Table 6 indicates, almost three quarters of the sample live in or near communities of less
than 2000 population. Only II% live in or near larger communities with populations over

5000.

Table 5
Residence Location

Res	sidence	de de		mple Jency		%	Alberta 4-H (%)
Far Acı Vill	m reage age/Town/	City		105 10 13		<i>4</i> (.8).1	84.2 8.5 7.3
			<u> </u>	=129	100	ī %.	100%

Table 6
Population of Home Communities

Population		Frequency	%	Cumulative %
<500 500-999 1000-1999		53 24 16	42.1 19.0 12.7	42 1 61.1 73.8,
2000-3499		8	6.3	80.1
3500-4999	٥	11	8.7	88.8
5000		14	11.2	100.0
		n=126	100%	

Missing Responses=3

With the relatively small home community sizes of most 4-H members, and thus limited local membership potential, large 4-H clubs are generally going to appear only when members from several small communities are willing and able to congregate at some central community. In fact, this is the general pattern of most 4-H clubs in Alberta, with the exception of those drawing local members almost exclusively from a single large community.

Again the 4-H organization must choose whether to pursue membership in currently minority elements—in this case communities over 5000 population. With the very large proportion of Alberta communities with populations less than 5000 (almost 91% of incorporated communities (Alberta Municipal Affairs, 1980)), it would seem that this may be unnecessary as an operational policy. The existing 4-H club format is well adapted to the situation of smaller communities, and these communities themselves hold much existing potential for membership growth. Of course, large urban centres offer their own potential for program growth, with almost 62% of Alberta's population living in centres with populations over 10,000 (Alberta Municipal Affairs, 1980).

D. Regional Distribution

The regional geographical distribution of the sample is shown in Figure IX. The sample is quite representative of the 4-H population on this parameter, with large proportions of membership in Barrhead, Calgary and Vermilion regions, and the smallest proportion in Grande Prairie region. No one region is significantly misrepresented.

Depending on the decision made regarding the future scope of Alberta 4+H in terms of its farm, rural non-farm or small-town clientele, the regional distribution figures, compared to the overall regional populations of the selected potential clientele, can indicate to 4-H policy-makers those regions in which the most potential for expansion exists. By maintaining such a comparison on a longitudinal basis, the effectiveness of promotion and recruitment activities can be assessed and compared between the regions.

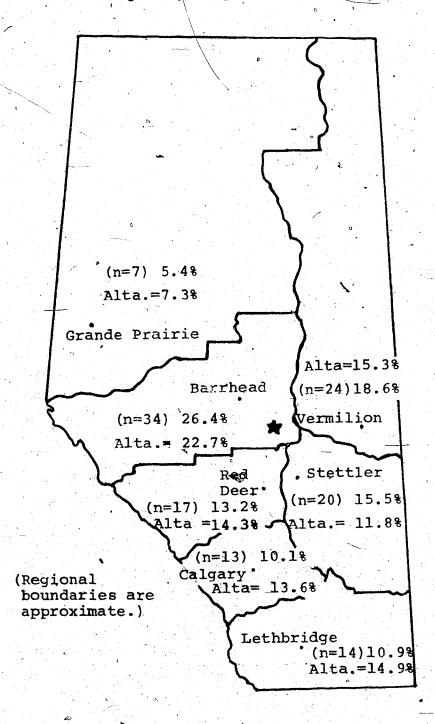
E. Student Status and Grade

The great majority of the sampled youth (92.2%) are full-time students in formal institutions of education. The distribution by grade, as shown in Table 7, parallels the age distribution, with three quarters of the respondents having most recently completed one of grades 7 to 12. (This would approximately correspond to the age range of 14 to 18.)

The very high proportion of 4-H members who are students between Grades 1 and 12 should indicate to the 4-H organization that both it and the public/separate school systems are basically dealing with youth in the same age range. Tremendous potential for

Figure IX

Regional Sample Distribution



('Alta.' percentages indicate the provincial 4-H membership proportions for the regions.)

Table 7
School Grades Completed

Completed Grade		Frequency	/	%
1 to 6 7 to 9 10 to 12 Post Secondary	1	33 46 47 3		 25.6 35.7 36.4 2.3
		n=129		100.0

cooperative effort is thus revealed. The school system, with its far more extensive and exhaustive coverage of the population in that age range, is an ideal potential resource for 4-H promotion and recruitment. Conversely, the 4-H program can offer to the school program the potential for a wide variety of less formal after-hours enrichment activities. The sharing of personnel and material resources could be very extensive, and could reduce costs for both agencies. At any rate, it is certain that the 4-H organization should eliminate or minimize any tendency it might have to offer programs or activities redundant to school programming. The compulsory nature of school attendance can only make 4-H the loser in any instances of duplication.

F. Years of 4-H Membership

The number of years of 4-H membership similarly parallels the age distribution. As indicated in Table 8, one quarter of the sample have 2 years or less of 4-H membership, and less than 10% have more than 6 years. The mean years of membership is 4.3.

The differences between the sample and population distributions is as dramatic on this variable as it is with age. First year members are greatly underrepresented in the sample, with all other membership categories, especially 4th to 9th years, being overrepresented. Similar possible reasons present themselves in this case as with age. More experienced members, with a greater time commitment, and perhaps vested interest, in the 4-H program may be more motivated to respond to the questionnaire than

Table 8
Years of 4-H Membership

C. The			×		
Years in 4-H	Frequency	Sample %	Alberta 4-H %	Cumulative Sample %	Cumulative Alberta %
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	3 29 24 21 14 13 12 8	2.3 22.7 18.8 16.4 10.9 10.2 9.4 6.2 3.1	40.7 19.2, 3 12.8 9.7 7.0 5.1 3.4 1.4 0.7	2.3 25.0 43.8 60.2 71.1 81.3 90.7 96.9 100.0	6 40.7 59.9 72.7 82.4 89.4 94.5 97.9 99.3 100.0
	n=128 ,	100%	100%		

Missing Responses=1

ones with little experience. As will be seen, age is strongly correlated with number of years in 4-H, so less experienced members, being younger, may also perceive the questionnaire as too difficult to complete.

In spite of the sample—to population differences in distribution of 4–H experience, both the sample and population data agree that a great majority of 4–H members have relatively little experience with the program, and that few members remain in the program for more than 3 or 4 years. Similar figures have been brought to the attention of the Alberta 4–H organization for several years. The reaction has been an operational policy of attempting to entice existing 4–H members into remaining in the organization longer. Special activities and awards are designed for older and/or more experienced members. The data indicates that these efforts have largely been in vain.

An alternative approach to dealing with the information would be basic acceptance of the fact that, with the existing 4-H program, the organization can expect to be in contact with its members for only about 3 or 4 years. It remains then to design the program in such a way that the maximum benefit to the members can take place within that time span. The existing excellent events for older and more experienced members can be redesigned or replaced with activities more suited to younger members with fewer years in the program. To maintain contact with those members who do remain

in 4-H for over 4 years, and to extend the benefits of the organization to a wider clientele group, a second and separate 4-H program may be designed for older youth, with a minimum age of about 15. This parallels and supports the recommendation based on the age data, slightly modifying the age division between the existing and proposed new 4-H programs.

G. 4-H Project Membership

A wide range is evident in the type of 4-H projects with which the sampled youth are involved. Over 90% are members of only one project group, and fully half of these are in the beef project, as shown in Table 9.

The project distributions are largely congruent between the study sample and the 4-H population. The 4-H Branch data do not differentiate between membership in a multi-project club versus membership in more than one club, and with that consideration the sample-to-population match becomes very close indeed.

The traditional 4-H projects of beef and clothing retain large proportionate memberships, with the recent rapid growth in popularity of the light horse project reflected in its large membership as well. With the other single projects (over 25 in number), multi-projects, and multiple club memberships together constituting less than one third of the total membership, it is clear that 4-H project popularity is far from evenly distributed.

In terms of projects to be offerred in the program, the 4-H organization must, make a choice between two basic approaches:

- Offering a limited number of available projects (probably less than 10) toward which all the staff and material resources may be directed, and chosen on the basis of current popularity.
- 2. Maintaining a diverse offering of projects.

The first option would allow very high quality projects to be developed and supported through a concentration of efforts and resources. Selection on the basis of current popularity, however, would largely limit the program to a rural farm orientation which could be in opposition to the policies developed from some of the previous recommendations. Similarly, it would be difficult to assess future changes in the interests.

Table 9
Respondents' 4-H Project Membership

Project Type	Frequency	%	Alberta
Light Horse Dairy Beef Clothing Other Single Project Multi-Project >1 4-H Club	20 5 58 13 8 13 12	15.5 3.9 45.0 10.1 6.2 10.1 9.2	15.8 2.8 41.9 7.6 7.8 24.1
	n=129	100%	100%

of the clientele which could indicate the need to redirect project emphasis into new areas.

The second option would spread available resources over a larger number of projects, probably resulting in somewhat less quality or quantity of material and staff support for any one project. In addition, maintenance of inventory materials for a large number of projects would be costly, and there would be a tendency to neglect development and updating of non-popular projects with the result that, even when interests would emerge, project materials would be unsuitable or of poor quality. This second option would therefore be viable only if extensive project promotion was undertaken in sectors of the Alberta population other than the current 4-H clientele. A majority of 4-H members are involved in only one project and likely have significant vested interest and invested resources in that project. Thus the current clientele would be unlikely to support a large scale project diversification, and the organization would necessarily have to seek new members to become involved in some of the currently less popular projects.

A compromise between the two options is perhaps possible. By eliminating those project possibilities which, after careful scrutiny, have little or no current membership or projected short-term membership potential, some resources could be onannelled toward increased promotion and support for the currently marginal projects. These projects would be those for which significant membership potential would be forseen in new

clientele sectors. Existing popular projects could be maintained with existing resources and support. Under such an arrangement, new projects would be developed basically on a demand basis, and regular membership/interest reviews would indicate needs to reassign or adjust staff and material support among the project inventory.

H. Family Size and Structure

Of the families represented in the sample, Table 10 discoses the range in the number of children, with a mean of 3.7 children per family. Almost 90% of the families have 5 children or less.

Virtually all the families (95%) have both parents present. Conceivably, this response could be biased by single parents being less willing to complete and return the questionnaire. However, based on the researcher's experience with Alberta 4-H families. in three of the seven regions, it is much more likely that 95% is indeed a close representation of the proportion of two-parent 4-H families in the population.

Again, an observation by the researcher is that one child from a family becoming involved in 4-H is often soon accompanied by others in that family as they reach the 4-H membership age. If, as the data suggests, the majority of 4-H families have from 2 to 5 children, the attraction of any one member into the 4-H program is likely to have something of a multiplier effect within a few years. This observation in itself is a strong indicator for the value of increased 4-H promotion outside the existing membership.

I. Parent Sex and Education

Over three quarters (77.5%) of the parental responses are from mothers. (The choice of parent was intentionally not specified in the instructions.) This proportion is possibly due to the effect of a variety of factors: greater availability of time for questionnaire completion by mothers versus fathers on the farm, greater interest in development of children by mothers over fathers, greater affinity of the sample's majority of girls for their mothers over their fathers, or an interaction among these factors. In any case, the reasons are not specifically important for this research. A total of 22 fathers are included in the parental responses, providing an adequate base for analysis.

responses=1

Table 10

Number of Children in Families

Number of Children	Frequency	%		Cumulative %
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	8 24 28 33 21 5 6 2	6.3 18.8 21.9 25.8 16.4 3.9 4,7 1.6 0.6		6.3 25.1 47.0 72.8 89.2 93.1 97.8 99.4 100.0
	n=128	100%	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	* •

Missing Responses=1

Table 11
Educational Levels of Parents

	Fath	er		Mother
Final Educational Level	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
No Formal Education	1	0.8	0	0.0
Grades 1 to 6	2	1.6	1	0.8
Grades 7 to 9	45	36.9	12	9.4
Grades 10 to 12	36	29.5	62	48.4
Technical/ Vocational	31	25.4	• 22	17.2
University	7	5.8	31	24.2
	n=122	100%	n=128	100%
	- Mis	ssing	Mis	sing

Table 1.1 offers a comparison of levels of education between fathers and mothers in the sampled families. Mothers tend to be more highly educated than fathers,

with proportionately four times as many mothers as fathers having some university education. Similarly, the proportion of fathers with less than Grade 10 education is almost 4 times that of mothers. Intuitively, in the past, males may have left the educational system earlier than females, probably, for this sample, to begin farming, and leaving a much smaller proportion of the male population to continue to higher levels of formal education. Such findings and conclusions can be found in the existing literature in the field of rural sociology, in which farmers have quite consistently been found to be less educated than their wives.

For the 4-H program, the differential mother-father education levels has implications for promotion, project support, and adult leadership training. A group of fathers and/or male 4-H leaders seeking information on any project will likely be less educated than a group of interested mothers and/or female leaders Of course, it must be remembered that less education is not necessarily equivalent to less knowledge!

Essentially, these findings suggest that information, training experiences and project materials directed toward fathers may have to be in a different format, use a different vocabulary, or adopt a different approach to that directed toward mothers. The 4-H organization should remain cognizant of the need to consider such differences in the design and implementation of activities and support efforts aimed toward the adults involved in 4-H.

VI. Results and Discussion: Developmental Tasks

The major objective of this study is to identify and describe the developmental tasks of rural Alberta youth, using the 4-H membership as the sampling population. The 4-H members and their parents who took part in the study responded to statements of posible youth goals which, in groups, form the underlying structure for assessment of the developmental tasks. The goal statement responses, as well as the calculated indices for the developmental task, are all informative, and are included in tabular form in the following discussions: Similarly, within the scope of each of the nine developmental tasks of youth, relationships with the socioeconomic attributes of the respondents are also discussed.

To avoid repetitive lengthy phrasing, and to provide a textual means of describing the data, the following descriptors are used to identify rating levels of timing and importance:

TIMING

Already reached the goal

Within two years

After more than two years

past accomplishments

short term future

long term future

IMPORTANCE

Rating of 1 or 2

Rating of 3 or above

Rating of 4 or 5

Rating of 5

low importance

importance

high importance

very high importance

A. Task One -- Accepting One's Physique and Using the Body Effectively Description

Basic congruence exists between the member and parent timing responses for Task One, with over 70% perceiving themselves (or their child) as having already reached the set of goals comprising this task. No members see this as a long term task,

contrasting with a small minor ty (<4%) of parents.

There is a significant relationship between member and parent ascriptions of importance = 172, p=.03). Well over 65% of parents and 75% of members rate this task as highly important. Mean responses are members: 4.225 and parents: 4.039.

Somewhat more members than parents find one or two of the four goal statements of this task not to be goals, although over 80% of both groups see all four statements as goals.

Of the goals within this task, the one considered least important by 4-H members and parents, and also the one teached earliest, is that of gaining skill in sports and active games. As well, this goal is the one for this task which is most often rejected by members (see Table 12). The demonstration of physical skill is apparently the least prominent of the elements of this task, and can be dealt with fairly early in the youth life stage.

The only marked member-parent difference in goal perceptions lies in the importance of a personally pleasing body image, which is much greater for members than their parents. Youth generally find personal appearance and physique to be a crucial element in their evolving self—concept, while their parents, perhaps recognizing the transient nature of the importance of appearance, reduce their emphasis on this goal for their children.

The four goals of this lask are each accepted by well over 90% of the members and parents, and this task as a whole may be considered to be generally accepted.

Task One, dealing with physical development, skills, and the care of one's body, is understandably important to you'th and their parents. Today's society is exceedingly physically oriented, with external personal appearance being a major component in the media advertising industry, and likely a significant preoccupation for many individuals. Youth may be particularly susceptible to the external compulsion for beautiful bodies. Their self-concepts are undergoing a continuous revision and reaffirmation. With such a large part of the external definition of each individual being so strongly linked to physical appearance, it is little wonder that the search for identity induces in youth a strong sense of importance for this task.

Table 12 *

Task One
Goal Statement Responses

	Timing Ind	ex	importance index		"Not a Goal" Responses	
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
To have a body which pleases me	1.75	1.76	4.02	3.50	6	6
To have some skill in sports and active games	1.21	, 1.32	3.74	3. 3 7	8	
To learn how to take care of my body	1.36	1.34	4.08	4.33	4	2
To do all the things which will make my body healthy	1.54	1.48	4.10	4 05	7	5

The timing responses indicate that, even with the importance of this task, it is one which is accomplished relatively early in the youth life stage. In this sample, with a mean age of less than 15, over 70% of members, and their parents, feel they have already achieved a satisfactory state of physical appearance and skill. Thus this task is quite important for most youth, but only until they reach the age of about 16. Parents view the task largely in a similar manner.

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

The importance of the task is related to the sex of the member, with over 83% of the female members assigning high importance rating compared to less than 70% of the males. Physical appearance, skill and care, while rather important for youth as a whole, are of greater concern for girls than boys.

For parents, the timing of this task, along with all the other tasks, is associated with the age of the member and those variables closely related to age -- grade, student status, and years of 4-H membership. This is to be expected, with the parents of older

Table 13
Task One Summary

Aspect	ect Category		Frequency		% >	
		Member	Parent	Member	Parent	
Timing	Already reached this goal	91	88	72.8	70.4	
,	Reach within 2 years	34	33	27.2	26.4	
	Reach after <2 years	0	4	0	3.2	
	Missing responses	4	4		.	
Importance	Slightly Important	1 .	o 1	0.8	8.0	
	important 2	• 4	9	3.1	7.0	
	3	24	32	18.6	24.8	
•	4	78	75	60,5	58.1	
	Very Important	22	12	17.0	9.3	
	Missing responses	0	0			
"Not a Goal"	0/4	106	116	82.2	89.9	
Proportion	1/4	21	🌳 ₉	16.3	7.0	
	2/4	2	4	1.6	3.1	

members seeing them as having already reached more of the goals than parents of a younger members. The somewhat surprising finding is that such age differences are not apparent to the members themselves. That is, older members do not see themselves as having accomplished significantly more of the goals than do younger members. Only for parents, but not for members, does the members' ages affect perceptions of Task One's timing.

Parental perceptions of the timing of this task varies with the sex of the parent respondent. Less than 60% of fathers, but almost 75% of mothers, see their child as having accomplished this task in the past. Additionally, the range of timing responses is greater for mothers than fathers, with over 4% of mothers seeing this as a long term task, while no fathers take such a view. Thus, mothers generally see this task as being accomplished earlier than do fathers, although there is greater variability among the timing perceptions of mothers than fathers. Such a conclusion is open to speculative interpretations, one of which is that mothers may be basing their timing perceptions on their own personal physical development in the past which, as females, would tend to be faster and completed earlier than that of fathers.

Place of residence is also related to parental perceptions of Task One in terms of importance. The task is seen as increasingly important by parents from, respectively, acreages, farms and villages, towns or cities. A possible explanation for the relatively low importance rating by parents from acreages could lie in a desire for their children to be influenced neither by the rugged 'rural' stereotype nor by a perceived urban preoccupation with physical appearance, while these very stereotypes could be operational for farm and more urban parents. This study cannot verify such an explanation, which may be more fruitfully tested in further research.

B_Task Two -- Achieving a satisfying and acceptable masculine or feminine social role

Description

Member and parent responses on the timing element of Task Two are strongly related 1 = .269, sig = .003), with less than 30% of both groups seeing the constituent goals already reached, and over 60% anticipating the goals being reached within two years. A

notable minority (5-10%) of both groups see this as a more long term task.

Similar congruence (=.235, sig.=.003) exists between member and parent, importance ascriptions. Well over 60% of both groups rate this task as highly important, with over 90% assigning meaningful importance. There is a tendency, however, for parents to rate this task somewhat more important than members, with the means being members: 3.909 and parents: 4.175.

Over 15% of members and 10% of parents find one or more of the four goal statements associated with this task not to be goals for them or their child. Again, however, well over 80% of both groups see all four statements as goals, and virtually all respondents see two or more of the statements as valid goals. The two statements which are most often seen as non-goals are "To learn what actions are accepted for a man or a woman" and – "To learn what actions are accepted for a boy or a girl" (see Table 14).

It is worthy of note that, while the development of a sex-role model and the gaining of knowledge and experience suitable to approaching such a model are seen as goals by virtually all parents and members, there is a notable proportion (7-12%) of each group for which gaining knowledge of the acceptable range of adolescent and adult sex-role behaviors is not a goal. It may be that the range of acceptability is currently so wide that knowledge of the limits is seen as rather unnecessary. Alternatively, perhaps indications of the limits are so pervasive as one matures through childhood and adolescence that there is really no need perceived to set personal goals in this regard. In any case, further investigation of this aspect of youth development is indicated.

The task of developing an appropriate social role by gender is moderately important for youth, but is seen as somewhat more important by their parents. The difference may be rooted in the growing congruence between masculine and feminine roles. Such a weakening of role differences is likely more readily appreciated by youth than by their parents, whose mores and values developed from the society of several decades ago.

Today's youth have witnessed such phenomena as sex-change operations, the public and publicized visibility of homosexual subcultures and the tremendous expansion of media use of sex and sexuality in advertising and entertainment. 'Women's Lib' and 'Gay Rights' are examples of recent movements which have led this society, and especially its

Table 14

Task Two

Goal Statement Responses

	Timing Ind	ex	Importar Index	1CB	"Not a	
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
To know what kind of man or woman I wish to become	2.27	2.19	3.91	4.03	4	2
To learn what I have to do to become the man or woman I want	1.97	2.32	3.47	4.14	6	0
To learn what actions are accepted for a man or a woman	1.64	1.75	3.42	3.71	15	12
To learn what actions are accepted for a boy or a girl	1.29	1.39	3.41	3.75	13	10

youth, toward a redefinition of sex role boundaries. The effects of the 'anything goes' morality of the 1960's, in conjunction with some of these newer social movements, leave youth with a sense that the selection of a sex role, while of some importance, does not rely on any rigidly defined social standards or boundaries, but draws from a variety of intermingled options.

For both members and parents, this is a task to be accomplished later rather than earlier in adolescence. The discovery and adoption of personal role patterns is a relatively long-term task, requiring extensive experience and exposure to potential role modelling influences. Experimentation with options is a time consuming but indispensable process throughout much of the youth life stage. It is only in the latter part of that stage that individuals find themselves possessed of enough experience and knowledge to feel they have adequately determined the major facets of their present and future social and sex roles.

Table 15
Task Two Summary

Aspect	Category	Frequency		%		
		Member	Parent	Member	Parent	
Timing	Already reached this goal	35	34	28.2	27.6	
	Reach within 2 years	. 82	77	66.1	62.6	
	Reach after <2 years	7	12	5.7	9.8	
	Missing responses	5	6			
Importance	Slightly Important	3	2	2.4	1.6	
	3	9 33	2 30	7.1 26.0	1.6 23.2	
	4	69	76	54.3	58.9	
	Very Important	13	19	10.2	14.7	
	Missing responses	2	0		•	
"Not a Goal"	0/4	108	114	83.7	88.4	
Proportion	1/4	9	6	7.0	4.7	
	2/4	-9	9	7.0	7.0	
	3/4	1 -	О.	0.8	0	
	4/4	2	0	1.6	0	

Youth program agencies can incorporate the options of their clientele for this task into their programming by providing opportunities for discovery and discussion of the issues surrounding adolescent and adult sex-roles.

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

The age of the 4-H members is related to the timing perceptions for this task of both parents and the members themselves. Older members see themselves as further advanced in the achievement of a satisfying sexual and social role than do younger ones, with parental perceptions following the same pattern. This is the expected finding for all the tasks — it is those tasks for which this is not the pattern that unique interpretations need to be found. Similarly, the age-correlated attributes of student status, grade and years of 4-H membership show relationships to timing perceptions of Task Two, although for members only the grade association is statistically significant.

The sex of the members is not related to either the timing or importance of this task, for either members or parents, indicating that social and sexual role development is a very similar task for both male and female youth.

Member timing perceptions are related, however, to the place of residence of those members. Markedly different timing response patterns are seen between the three residence groups. Of the farm youth, over 25% feel they have accomplished this task, almost 70% see accomplishment within two years, and less than 5% see this as a larger-term task. For the urban (village, town or city) members, equally sized groups of over 45% each see goal accomplishment in the past or near future, with less than 8% perceiving a long-term nature of this task. Members living on acreages largely see this as a future-oriented task, with over 66% anticipating accomplishment in less than two years and over 22% in more than two years, while less than 12% feel they have already reached the goals. The task of exploring and establishing an acceptable masculine or feminine social role is seen as being accomplished earliest in adolescence by members from farms and latest by acreage dwellers. It must be remembered, however, in this and the following discussions, that small sample sizes for the acreage (n=10) and village, town or city (n=13) categories preclude complete confidence in broad generalization of these findings.

The later perceived achievement of a satisfactory sexual social role by members from acreages may derive from their somewhat cosmopolitan environment. Exposed to the models and standards from both the farm and urban populations, they may in fact perceive a larger choice of role options than either of the other two groups, who each tend more to see only their own close environment. Alternatively, members on acreages may take an extended period of time to resolve a perceived conflict in role choices between what they see in their neighbouring farm and urban environments.

The early perceived achievement of this task by farm members may also be directly attributed to their environment, which remains somewhat traditional in terms of social and sexual standards and models. While this is certainly a diminishing characteristic, there yet remains in the rural farm community rather well-defined traditional male and female role standards. However, because this entire residence relationship to Task Two is not parallelled in the parent perceptions, one may speculate that parents themselves are attempting to limit the impact of traditional standards on their children, and that it is largely the members' perceptions of traditionalism that lead them to earlier role establishment.

The importance of the task of acceptable sex role development is unrelated to any of the other socioe conomic attributes for either 4-H members or their parents. The relative similarity between the importance perceptions of members and parents, coupled with this lack of attribute-linked variation, suggests that this task is well-recognized throughout rural Alberta, commonly acknowledged and accepted as having some degree of importance by youth as well as throughout their societal environment.

C. Task Three -- Achieving new and more mature relations with one's age mates Description

Marked differences are apparent in the timing responses to this task between members and their parents. While neither group perceives this task as one to be accomplished after any more than two years, 20% more members than parents feel they have already reached the constituent goals. Over twice as many parents as members see this as a task still to be accomplished, within two years.

Over 95% of both members and parents rate Task Three as important. However, somewhat more members than parents ascribe to this task the higher levels of importance. There is a slight difference between the means of members: 4.188 and parents: 4.039.

Over 75% of members and parents see all seven of this task's goal statements as personal goals, while less than 4% of both groups rate more than two statements non-goals. The two statements most often seen not as goals are "To get dates" and "To be at ease when I am on a date".

Dating as such is apparently the least important aspect of Task Three to both members and their parents. Their emphasis is placed more on the goal of interpersonal emotional maturity and the development of experience in heterosexual friendships.

This Task involves a variety of related goals dealing with acceptance in a group of friends, group skills, heterosexual friendship, and successful dating. It is considered quite important by both members and parents, but slightly more so by members. Throughout adolescence, peer groups are exceedingly influential vehicles for social and personal development. Through peer group involvement, youth learn social skills necessary for successful adulthood, and receive a large part of the input into their self-concept. This importance is transferred to the individual through a keenly sensed need to belong and be accepted.

Part of being accepted as an adolescent today involves not just making friends, but making friends with members of both sexes. Heterosexual friendship is being expected of youth by their peers at a younger age than for many decades. The transition is soon made from being part of a heterosexual friendship group to a dating pair, and success in both these social activities is very important for youth.

While parents realize and accept the importance of peer group involvement and heterosexual friendship, they may be uneasy at the 'early' age at which pressure toward dating and other socially sophisticated activity appears. This uneasiness would at least partially account for the parent-member difference in the timing for this task, although parents do apparently realize that the accomplishment of this set of goals should not be delayed too long into later adolescence. Similarly, youth tend to emphasize the importance of the elements of this task more than their parents, if for no other reason

Table 16

Task Three
Goal Statement Responses

			Importar Index	Importance Index		"Not a Goal" Responses	
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	
To join a close group of friends my own age	1.17	1.22	3.84	3.46	7	9	
To make friends with both boys and girls	1.19	1.29	4.36	4.26	1	1	
To get dates	1.50	1.53	3.57	3.43	14	25	
To love and be loved	1.50	1.36	4.19	4.19	4	5	
To learn to work together with other people my own age	1.21	1.36	3.98	4.21	1	0	
To learn how to solve problems in a group of people my own age	1.43	1.81	3.33	3.60	13	>> ₅	
To be at ease when I am on a date	1.56	1.70	3.66 ,	3.23	11	18	

than that they are more immediately and personally involved in the burning issues of peer acceptance and friendship with both sexes.

The number of "Not a Goal" responses to the two statements regarding dating, from both parents and members, is at first glance rather surprising in light of the importance of this task as a whole. Upon reflection, however, the very universality of opportunities for most youth today to enjoy heterosexual contact and friendship may create for some youth, and their parents, the lack of a perceived need to set a personal goal in this regard. Additionally, there is a recognized minority of youth who turn their attention elsewhere than on dating, occupying their time with other interests and pursuits, enjoying group experiences, but delaying dating experiences into very late youth or early

Table 17
Task Three Summary

Aspect	Category	Frequ	ency	%	%		
•		Member	Parent	Member	Parent		
Timing	Already reached this goal	109	85	85.8	69.1		
	Reach within 2 years	18	38	14.2	30.9		
	Reach after <2 years	0	Ð,	0	0		
	Missing responses	2	6	۵	•		
Importance	Slightly	o	0	0	0		
•	Important	5	. 4	3.9	3.1		
	3	27	39 .	20.9	30.2		
•	4	85	80	65.9	62.0		
•	Very Important	12	. 6	9.3	4.7		
	Missing responses	0	0				
"Not a Goal"	0/7	100	99	77.5	76.4		
Proportion	1/7	14	19	10.9	14.7		
	2/7	10	8	7.8	6.2		
	3/7	3	2	2.3	1.6		
	4/7	2	1	1.6	0.8 \$		

adulthood.

While learning to coexist in a group setting and developing heterosexual friendship patterns are both considered very important by parents and members, they are also seen to be accomplished much earlier in adolescence than other goals of this task. It is with some of the higher level social skills that youth and their parents associate longer terms, recognizing the requirement for extensive experimentation and experience to develop the skills and attitudes to reach these goals. Interestingly, the highest level of importance in Task Three is assigned by both members and parents to the goal of loving and being loved, which is in reality the essence and crux of the entire task.

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

A similar relationship of the member and parent timing perceptions with age and age correlates is found with this task as with Task Two. Older members are closer to perceived accomplishment than younger members.

This task of maturity in age relations exhibits greater importance for female members than males, with 80% of females but less than 70% of the males assigning high importance. Girls see peer group relationships, heterosexual friendships and dating as more crucial to their development during youth than do boys. One rationale for this observation is that males in Western society can successfully and acceptably remain individualistic far longer and more easily than females. Boys can exempt themselves from the dating situation with less social stigma from their peers than girls. Indeed, it is far more common for males to reach young adulthood with little or no experience in dating or even close heterosexual friendships than for females. For girls, then, this whole task assumes rather more prominence and is of greater concern to them than it is for boys.

Unlike youth themselves, parents do not relate the importance of Task Three to the sex of their children. Maturity in age relations is as important in their view for their sons as for their daughters. However, the task is differentially important to mothers and fathers. While over 70% of mothers rate it as highly important, only 40% of fathers do likewise. This task is markedly more important to mothers than fathers. It may be speculated that it is the mothers who, of the two parents, are more aware of the need for their children to develop social competence to ensure adult success and happiness.

Fathers, on the other hand, may be more oriented toward the development of skills and occupational potential.

Such an interpretation, however, appears to be contradicted by the presence of a relationship between parental importance ratings for Task Three and the level of parental education. All of the low education parents (Grades 1–6) assign high importance, compared to only 71% of middle education parents (Grade 7–12) and less than 54% of higher education parents (postsecondary), of whom none assign the highest importance vating of 5. Conversely, fewer lower education than higher education parents opt for the low importance ratings. It is very clear that the development of mature interpersonal peer relations and heterosexual friendships in adolescence is a much more important task for parents with low education than for those with higher education. Parents with higher education apparently look more to other tasks by which their children may equip themselves to be successful adults, while parents with low education perceive peer relations as a very important vehicle for adolescent development.

With mothers generally being more highly educated than fathers, one would expect from the above conclusion that mothers would attach less importance to this task than fathers. As has been observed, this is exactly opposite to the findings. The apparent contradiction may occur because the sex differences in perceived importance are large enough between parents to overshadow the educational differences, although confirmation of such an interpretation remains to be found in further research.

D. Task Four - Achieving Emotional Independence from Parents and Other Adults Description

Again in this task, notably more (27%) members than parents perceive themselves as having already reached the goals. While over 50% of the parents view this as a task for their child yet to accomplish, only 35% of the members see it thus, and no members see it as a long term task.

Task Four is very important for both members and parents, with only slight relative differences in the importance ratings. Well over 80% of both groups have high importance ratings. The means are very similar for members: 4.406 and parents: 4.437.

Ninety percent of both groups perceived all four goal statements as existing personal goals, with no respondents seeing less than two of the statements as goals.

Each of the goals of Task Four are accepted by almost all members and parents. Two groups of two goals each appear in terms of the timing of accomplishment. The goals dealing with youth's emotional reaction to parents and adults are perceived to be reached much earlier than the goals of actual autonomy and independence from parents.

From the point of view of both youth and their parents this task has two sequential stages. First, youth must come to like, accept and respect their parents and other adults, even while still largely dependent on them. Upon that emotional and attitudinal base, youth can then develop the skills and experience necessary to become autonomous in their decision—making.

This conclusion indicates that neither youth nor their parents generally see independence being achieved through rebellion. The process is much less abrupt and more extensive and developmental. The potential remains, however, for intra-familial conflict, as indicated by the rather higher importance assigned to the goal of autonomy by members than by their parents.

In the differences between member and parent perceptions of the timing for these same goals of independence, and for the task as a whole, one finds further evidence of the potential for conflict over adolescent autonomy. Far more members consider themselves already independent than do their parents, while parental responses indicate a tendency to see this as a longer—term objective for their children. Parents recognize the need for their children to become autonomous, but are reluctant to withdraw control as early as adolescents might like. On the other hand, youth desire independence, yet still recognize to some extent that autonomy cannot come quickly or easily, without experience and knowledge.

The rapid pace of social change serves only to exacerbate intergenerational conflict, with parents finding themselves uncertain of their understanding of the actual realities of their children, and unsure of how much control to attempt to exert. The obvious tendency is for parents to attempt more control then their children would like, and for the children to attempt to limit or subvert parental control whenever possible. From the data in this research, it is at least evident that there is some dissimilarity

Table 18

Task Four
Goal Statement Responses

• *	Timing Ind	9 X	lmporta Index	nce ⁶	"Not a Respo	Goal" nses
God and military	▶ Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
Not to be dependent on my parents for most thingsin my life	1.98	2.16	3.98	3.88	5	5
like my parents	1.18	1.11	4.36	4.36	5	5
To learn to make most of the decisions to run my life	1.84	2.07	4.25	3.83	2	. 4
To learn to respect adults and have them respect me	1.20	1.32	4.04	4.39	3	1

between youth and parent perceptions of the presence and potential timing for youth's independence. There is no doubt, however, that both groups recognize and agree on the crucial nature of the task for successful completion of the youth life stage.

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

Task Four carries the relationship of age (and age correlates) to timing perceptions of parents and members that is common to most of the developmental tasks.

Additionally, members vary in their perceptions of this task's time of accomplishment depending on their geographical location in the province.

While in none of the regions did any members feel they would take more than two years to accomplish the task, three alternative patterns are apparent among the regions for the relative proportions of past and short-term future timing assignments. The predominant pattern, seen in the Lethbridge, Red Deer, Stettler and Calgary regions, has from 66% to almost 90% of the members feeling they have reached the goals of

Table 19
Task Four Summary

Aspect	Aspect Category Frequency		%		
,	. `	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
Timing	Already reached this goal	81	59	64.8	48.0
	Reach within 2 years	44 ^P	59	35.2	48.0
	Reach after <2 years	0	5	0	4.0
	Missing responses	4	6		N. Carlotte
)		
Importance	Slightly Important	0	1	0	0.8
	2	5	2	3.9	1.6
•	3	14	9	10.8	6.9
	4	77 (84	59.7	65 .1
	Very Important	33	33	25.6	25.6
	Missing responses	. 0	0		73
•	7 · ·		3	#	g or W ^a
"Not a Goal"	0/4	117	116	90.7	89.9
Proportion	1/4	9	11	7.0	4.9
·		· 3	2	2.3	1.6

emotional independence, with the minority remainder seeing task accomplishment within two years. This compares very closely the overall member rating proportions of 65%/35% for the Task as seen in Table 19. A somewhat different pattern is apparent in the Vermilion and Barrhead regions, with a much smaller majority of about 55% perceiving the goals already reached and about 45% anticipating short-term task accomplishment. The truly notable exception to either of these patterns is seen in the Grande Prairie region, with less than 15% of the members perceiving past accomplishment and over 85% looking to the short-term future to reach the goals of this task. While no conclusive causation may be established from this study, one possible explanation for these results lies in the relative timing of historical establishment and past settlement of the regions.

Under the very broad assumption that the agricultural sector of Alberta's society was historically settled generally from the south to the north, one realizes that those southern regions which have longest been settled and established into agriculturally productive communities, exhibit the timing pattern in which a significant majority of the members feel they have reached the goals of emotional independence. In the central and northern regions, however, one approaches geographic areas relatively less historically established and/or on the major remaining agricultural frontiers in Alberta. If one generalizes that the Grande Prairie has the greatest frontier aspect, then the provincial pattern of timing for Task Four becomes meaningful. The basic relation is that greater frontier, aspect of a region is associated with a greater proportion of members viewing emotional independence as a task yet to be accomplished. At present, of course, this is only a very tenuous assertion. Further study is necessary to confirm or disprove its validity, and to determine whether different perceptions of the timing of emotional independence are due to different degrees of external opportunities for independence, or to different degrees of the need to maintain youthful dependence and family solidarity, or to some combination of these and other factors.

Parental perceptions of timing for this task are found to be related to the size of their home communities. The relationship is complex and bi-model in nature, with two parallel patterns of timing ascending with community size. One such pattern operates for smaller communities, less than 2000 in population, with parents from the smallest of

those communities seeing this task as accomplished earlier by their adolescent children than parents from the largest communities in the group. A similar pattern is evidenced by communities over 2000 in population, with the timing of the task being seen as more long term as community size increases. The very abrupt and marked demarcation between the two groups of communities (<2000 and >2000) suggest a very fundamental difference between them. It is certainly worthy of future research to determine whether such a difference exists, and, if so, why it does not emerge for other tasks and for members as well as parents. Once such questions are answered, it may be possible to delve further into the specific ascending timing relationship common to both community size groups for this task of emotional independence. Such a relationship suggests that there may be a factor of residence in larger communities which leads parents to desire retention of control over their adolescent children longer than parents in smaller communities.

Task Four is similar to Task Two in that none of the socioeconomic attributes are related to either member or parent ratings of its importance. Again the obvious conclusion is that there is rather complete and common agreement throughout the youth and parent populations on the very high importance of this task. Such a conclusion could well be anticipated intuitively, for successful adults, emerging from successful development as youths, must be able to make their own decisions for many aspects of their existence, and cannot remain dependent on others for such decisions.

E. Task Five - Selecting and Preparing for an Occupation and Economic Career Description

Less than half as many parents as members see this as a task which is already completed. While the largest portion of both groups (59%-64%) see this as a short term task, notable numbers of both groups perceive a longer term aspect. In this latter category, however, there are four times as many parents as members.

Great importance is attached to Task Five by both groups, with over 80% of members and almost 90% of parents rating it highly important Less than 2% of each group assign it low importance. Means are members: 4.437 and parents: 4.413.

Table 20

Task Five
Goal Statement Responses

	Timing Inde	Timing Index		Importance Index		"Not a Goal" Responses	
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	
To learn about jobs and kinds of work I may be able to do	1.98	2.19	4.32	4.39	0	. 0	
To choose a kind of work I can do and I would like	2.06	2.32	4.37	4.39	3	1	
To find out what kinds of work I would like to do and am able to do	1.93	2.19	4.15	4.12	2	0	
To learn how to get a job	1.86	2.01	4.15	4.02	1	6	
To work in some jobs I might choose as a career	2.00	2.16	4.15	3.81	4	6	
To learn how to do the job I choose	2.10	2.33	4.33	4.41	2	2	

Less than 10% of either members or parents see any of the six goal statements not as goals, with less than 3% of either group rejecting more than one statement.

The most notable impression gained from examining the patterns of responses to individual goals is that of a remarkable congruence between member and parent ratings of both timing and importance. Parents do noticeably see each goal as requiring longer to reach than do their children, but the differences are generally very small. In importance perceptions the two groups are even more similar. Notable also is the fact that not one of the goals is rejected by even 5% of either group. Such generalized agreement is, of course, understandable if one considers the place of job or occupation in an individual's personal and social existence.

Table 21

Task Five Summary

Aspect	Category	Freq	Frequency		%		
		Member	Parent	Member	Parent		
Timing	Already reached this goal	38	18	30.4	14.5		
	Reach within 2 years	79	74	63.2	59.7		
	Reach after <2 years	8	32	6.4	25.8		
	Missing responses	4	5				
Importance	Slightly	. 0	1	0	0.8		
	Important 2	2	0	1.6	0		
	3	20	<u>^</u> 14	15.5	10.9		
	4	76	90	58.9	69.7		
	Very Important	31	24	24.0	18.6		
	Missing responses	0	0				
"Not a Goal"	0/6	124	118	96.1	91.5		
Proportion	1/6	3	8	2.3	6.2		
	2/6	• 0	2	0	1.6		
	3/6	0 ′	1	0	0.8		
	4/6	. 1	0	8.0	• 0		
	<i>o</i> 5/6	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	0	0.8	. 0		

In contemporary Western society, having a job or occupation has two-fold impact on an individual. First, a very large part of one's adult identity is vested in what one does for a living. Second, a job is the ultimate symbol of adult independence. In many ways, the final transition from youth to adulthood may be seen to occur with the assumption of the first permanent job.

Thus it is very much to be expected that both members and parents see this task as one of great importance. Parents want their children to be successful adults, and see success as very much linked to occupational capabilities. Youth view career preparation in a similar light, with the added impetus of a job's contribution to their sense of independence. For youth even more than for their parents, occupational preparation thus assumes tremendous importance.

For more and more youth, getting a job outside the family is not something that waits until adulthood, but is something desirable and available fairly early in adolescence. During summer holidays or after school, young people are taking temporary and part-time work with increasing frequency. Thus, for many youth, occupational preparation assumes an immediate or short-term perspective.

Many parents, as the data indicates, see occupational preparation as a much more long-term task. Two elements probably influence this parental perception. First, parents use their own personal experience as a standard. Certainly, in their youth, out-of-family work largely waited until they were able to leave home and assume full adult responsibilities. Second, parents may look a bit farther in their children's futures of that, with the exception of student part-time and temporary jobs, most modern occupations do require preparation which takes one into very late youth or early adulthood. Youth themselves may be less cognizant of this, or may simply see their current occupational positions as more significant than do their parents.

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

The observation that Task Five is seen as relatively long term by both members and parents is further supported by the very strong relationship between timing perceptions and age. In fact, this is the only task which is significantly related in timing to age and all three age correlates — student status, grade, and years of 4-H membership

-- for both members and parents. The experiences received during one's passage
-through the youth life stage are obviously seen as very important toward occupational
preparation. Older youth far more than younger are perceived as being closer to the
accomplishment of the task.

No attributes other than those related to age are associated with member or parent perceptions of timing for Task Five. The task of occupational preparation is thus seen to take equivalent time to accomplish for all youth of like ages throughout the rural Alberta population.

Similarly, this task is seen as uniformly important throughout the population by members and parents, across the categories of all the socioeconomic attributes with one exception. The pattern of parental importance perceptions yaries with the place of residence.

In this case, farm parents see the task as much more important than those from acreages or villages, towns and cities, with acreage dwellers attaching the least importance of the three groups. The great importance attached to occupational preparation by farm parents may well be a reflection of their perceived lack of information resources and opportunities for their children to explore and ultimately find worthwhile jobs. More urban parents tend to be very aware of the competition for jobs and the relative underemployment in their environment, while parents from acreages may be perceptually isolated from both of these observations, or may in fact realistically have a more optimistic view of their children's occupational opportunities. Acreage dwellers are often more wealthy and more oriented toward mobility than either farm or urban dwellers, so parents from acreages may justifiably expect fewer difficulties for their children in finding jobs and starting careers.

Irrespective of these residence-based differences, however, the task of occupational preparation remains generally one of high importance for youth and parents throughout rural Alberta

F. Task Six - Preparing for Marriage and Family Life.

Description

General agreement exists between member and parent views of the timing for this task, with less than 4% of each group ascribing to it long term completion, and over 50% of each group seeing it as a task to be accomplished in less than two years. There is a definite tendency, however, for parents to perceive an overall longer term aspect, with only 72% as many parents as members feeling that the goals are already reached, and over 15% more parents than members assigning some degree of future completion to the task.

Task Six assumes great importance for both groups, with well over 80% of members and parents rating it highly important. Parents perceive greater importance than members, however, with 25% more parents than members assigning the highest rating of 5, and only half as many parents as members assigning low importance. Mean importance ratings are members: 4.381 and parents: 4.451.

Over 80% of both groups see all five goal statements within this task as goals, with less than 6% of each group seeing more than one statement not as a goal. The two statements which are most often rejected, especially by parents, are "To learn about getting married, having a home, and family life" and "To decide when to finish my education, when to marry and when to do other tasks of a young adult".

Less than half of both members and parents see this task as one which is already substantially accomplished, with a majority of each group feeling the goals will be reached within two years. This is understandable, in that Task Six involves extended experience and enjoyneint of family living, gaining knowledge about adult family roles, and long range decision—making about early adulthood plans. From their own experience, parents may be more aware than their children of the long—term implications of this task, and thus desire them to take full advantage of the experiences and learning of the youth life stage before making any decisions and reaching the goals. More youth than parents feel they have already reached such goals, although it is possible that, in fact, more experience will lead them to modify their attitudes and decisions regarding their future roles as adult family members.

Table 22

Task Six
Goal Statement Responses

	Timing Ind	eχ	importan index	ice	"Not a Respo	Goal" nses
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
To enjoy being a part of my family	1.27	1.21	4.26	4.50	2	1, .
To learn about getting married, having a home, and family life	2.38	2.34	3.76	3.70	8	. 12**
To be pleased in loving and being loved by someone	1.66	1.82	4.03	4.01		9
To decide when to finish my eduction, when to marry, when to do other tasks of a young adult	2.20	2.12	4.01	3.72	8	13.
To enjoy helping others in my family	1.25	1.46	4.15	4.31	6 _	1

From the goal statement responses (Table 22), it becomes apparent that Task Six, in a similar way to Task Four, may almost be seen as two separate tasks with markedly different timings. Two statements are perceived as being accomplished early, are generally very important, and are seen as goals by virtually all respondents. These statements involve immediate elements of current family membership. The three statements of this task that reflect preparation and decision-making for future adult family roles, however, all display basically long term timing responses, somewhat less importance, and are seen as non-goals by up to 10% of the members of the two sample especially by parents. It is these long range goals for which parents are concerned that their children receive the maximum benefit from youth experience before making the decisions that will chart the course of their adulthood. Not surprisingly, among all goals of Task Six it is these three long-term goals which parents see as notably less important

Table 23
Task Six Summary

Aspect	Category	Freque	ency	%	
•		Member	Parent	Member	Parent
Timing	Already reached this goal	59	43	46.8	35.0
	Reach within 2 years	65	76	51.6	6 1.8
	Reach after <2 years	2	4	1.6	3.2
	Missing responses	3	6		
Importance	Slightly Important	0 .	.2	0	1.6
	2	6	1	4.,7	0.8
•	3	15	13	11.6	10.0
	. 4	84	81	65.1	62.8
	Very Important	24	32	₹8.6	24.8
	Missing responses	0	0		
"Not a Goal"	0/5	106	106	82.2	⁴ €2.2
Proportion	1/5	16	15	12.4	1 1.6
	2/5	6	3	4.7	2.3
	3/5	1	5	. 0.8	3.9

than do their children, and which are most often rejected by them as suitable goals for their children. This aspect of the task is apparently one which, for some families, assumes meaning and importance only late in youth or perhaps not even until early adulthood.

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

For parents, Task Six has the commonly found relationship between timing perceptions and age of the 4-H members, along with the three correlates of age. For the members, however, no such age relationship appears. Older members do not feel they have reached significantly more of the goals than do younger members. Taking the task as a whole, such a finding may be a reflection of the division between the two major sections of the task, one carrying ascriptions of long-term accomplishment and one short term accomplishment. Further testing between members' age and their timing rating of each of the individual tasks would be necessary to uncover the inner effects of such a division, and could provide a point of departure for future research.

No additional associations of the timing perceptions of either parents or members with other socioeconomic attributes are evident. Apparently, Task Six is seen as being accomplished at a common time during the youth life stage by youth and parents throughout the rural Alberta population possessing a variety of characteristics.

One might intuitively expect the task of preparing for marriage and family life to be more important for girls than boys. The data indeed support such an expectation. Almost 25% of female members, but less than 9% of male members assign the highest importance rating of 5. Conversely, over 22% of the males but less than 13% of the females see this task as being less than highly important Marriage, and one's future role as an adult family member, does indeed carry significantly more importance for girls than for boys. In rural Alberta, it remains the wife and mother who is given primary responsibility for the internal operation of the home and the family, while the husband's and father's concern is more on external resources. While this family role difference may be changing, rural youth still perceive its existence. It is notable, however, that their parents do not share this differential perception based on the members' sex. It may be that in this case the parents consciously do not want to see their children unthinkingly

enter the traditional role patterns, or perhaps parents more than their children have come to recognize through experience the need for the husband and father to take a more active and equal role in the internal affairs and maintenance of the marriage and the family.

A 4-H member's status as a student or non-student also affects his perceptions of the importance of Task Six, in this case somewhat independently of age. Over 15% of students see the task as less than highly important, while all non-students do assign high importance. The traditionally adult roles of marriage partner and parent are of greater importance for non-students, who have, by their non-student status, signalled assumption of other adult roles, at least in terms of the end of pre-adult education and the start of productive endeavour. Even though the timing for this task is not significantly related to student status, the greater importance attached to it by non-students may indicate that its goals assume more personal and social proximity, rather than temporal immediacy, for this group than for students.

For parents, no tested socioeconomic attributes are related to importance evaluations, indicating that preparation for adult family roles is seen as uniformly important throughout the rural parent population.

G. Task Seven - Acquiring a Set of Values and an Ethical System - Developing an Ideology

Description .

Member and parent perceptions of the timing of this task are closely related (=.253,sig=.003), with 36% to 39% of each group assigning short-term completion and less than 20% viewing this as a long term task. Somewhat more members than parents feel the task is already accomplished, with the reverse relationship existing for the long term timing category.

There are notable differences in the importance ratings between members and parents. While over 95% of each group rate this task as important, almost twice as many parents as members assign very high importance. Means are members: 3.981 and parents: 4.267.

Table 24

Task Seven
Goal Statement Responses

	Timing Ind	ex	Importar Index	nce	"Not a Respo	Goal″. nses
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
To decide what is right and what is wrong for the way I want to be	1.64	1.65	4.08	4.39	3	2
To learn what others think is right and wrong	1.25	1.59	2.89	3.45	25	14

While almost 80% of the members and even more of the parents see both of the statements associated with this task as legitimate goals, over 20% of the members and 12% of the parents reject one statement. The statement most rejected by both groups is "To learn what others think is right is wrong".

Task Seven, dealing with the development of a personal ideology in light of experience and understanding of existing values and value sets, is perceived as moderately important by members and somewhat more so by their parents. While only two statements are used as goals to reflect the accomplishment of this task, these are neither simple goals nor easily reached, involving the mental compilation of extensive experience and education (formal or otherwise) regarding values and value systems. The noticeable difference between member and parent importance ratings may reflect the struggle that today's youth has in creating their personal ideologies from the vast array of visible, and often conflicting, values and ideals. The reaction to this struggle for some youth is an ambivalence to the whole issue. Additionally, youth are still dealing with the lingering vestiges of the 1960's and 1970's 'anything goes' and 'do your own thing' individualistic philosophy. Thus, for some members, there may be a very conscious sense that they are operating under a currently valid set of values which are sufficient for their present existence, leading them to feel they have reached their goal of a personal ideology and do not need to explore further or refer to the values of others. Their

Table 25
Task Seven Summary

Aspect	Category	Freq	uency	%	
n en		Member	Parent	Member	Parent
Timing	Already reached this goal	62	54	50.4	43.9
	Reach within 2 years	47	45	38.2	36.6
	Reach after <2 years	14	24	11.4	19.5
en e	Missing responses	6	6		•
Importance	Slightly	2	2	1.6	1.6
	Important 2	4	. .4 ,,	3.1	3.1
	3	36	17	28.1	13.3
en e	4	59	54	46.1	42.2
•	Very Important	27	51	21.1	39.8
	Missing responses	1	1		•
"Not a Goal"	0/2	102	113	79.1	87.6
Proportion	1/2	26	16	20.2	12.4
4	2/2	1	1	0.8	_0

parents, on the other hand, feel that the realization and adoption of sets of values suitable for adulthood is somewhat further in the future, seeing their children's current ideologies as temporary, incomplete or inadequate.

Inspection of the individual goal responses (Table 24) reveals that it is indeed in the goal of discovering the values of others that members place much less importance than their parents, and reject the goal more often.

For parents as well as members, however, the decision regarding a personal value set is a much more important goal than experience or knowledge of the values of others. There is a strongly individualistic attitude evident in this distinction, and a very definite separation of these two task elements. While intuitively it is obvious that one cannot develop an ideology in isolation from the values of others, some respondents apparently are determined that external influence on value choices should be minimal.

There is some indication, therefore, that Task Seven has become somewhat truncated, and that the perceived need for youth to acquire information and understanding of the ethical systems of others in the task of creating their own ideology is less recognized and seen as less important today than several decades ago.

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

Again age of the members is associated in their parents' view with the timing of the development of an ideology, and again this association is not recognized by the members themselves. While parents see yonger youth as further from task completion than older youth, youth do not see themselves in the same manner. Perhaps this is another reflection of a percent has by today's young people that whatever set of values one is using at the moment to acctory, and that therefore younger youth are as adequately equipped with a large year older youth.

For members, however, the timing of this task *is* associated, perhaps unexpectedly, with their geographical location.

A similar but less obvious relationship appears here as that between timing a perceptions and region of residence within Task Four. Again Grande Prairie region exhibits the highest timing index, with less than 15% of its members seeing the task as already accomplished, while Lethbridge region, with 66% of its members in the same

timing category. has the lowest index. Between these geographic and statistical extremes, however, the results are somewhat mixed, with Calgary region showing an anomalously high proportion of its members perceiving a long term aspect of this task. However, the small category sizes, with regional samples as low as 7, could easily create such anomalies, which would tend to obscure basic relationships. Again, further research is indicated, to show whether or not the 'frontier' nature of a geographical area has any validity as a explanatory factor in the perception by members of the timing of accomplishment of this task.

In terms of importance, for members the relationship of their evaluations to any attributes is limited to that of their sex. Over 25% of the female members, but less than 12% of males, see the task as very highly important Proportionately twice as many males as females rate the task as less than highly important Girls thus see the adoption of a personal set of values and ethics as carrying somewhat greater importance than do boys.

One suspects that again this result may reflect the division between the two goals of this task. It is likely that girls, who have been seen to place higher emphasis on peer group involvement and acceptance, also would see the goal of determining the ethics of those around them to be of higher importance than would boys. As previously discussed, males can acceptably be more individualistic than females, and such a tendency could very well carry over into the task of forming an ideology. Detailed research into specific goals and their relationships with attributes is again indicated.

Task Seven is the only task in which age of the member has any association with importance ratings, in this case those of the parents. Here, the relationship is inverse, with parents of older members seeing the task as less important than parents of younger members. This could be linked to the age relationship with parental timing perceptions. Thus, parents of older youth see their children as being closer to accomplishment of the task than do parents of younger youth, and so feel that these older youth need concern themselves less with the task as a whole. The age relationship here is rather weak, however (=-.1342, p=.037), so inferences and generalizations must be somewhat tentative until further research confirms the results or offers more detailed and specific findings.

H. Task Eight - Desiring and Achieving Socially Responsible Behavior Description

Timing responses for this task by members and parents are generally related

(= 184, sig.=.04). However, over 20% more members than parents feel the goals have already been reached, while the converse is true for future—oriented timing categories.

Member and parent importance ratings are almost congruent (=.248, sig ±.002), with over 80% of both groups seeing the task as highly important, and less than 4% of either group assigning only low importance. The mean ratings are very similar for members: 4.304 and parents: 4.263.

Over 85% of members and almost 95% of parents perceive all four goal statements within this task as goals. Almost 10% of members, however, reject one statement; with the rejected statement most often being "To do things that will help my country, my town or my home".

Task Eight deals with the implementation of personal standards in accord with societal values, and responsible participation in and committment to one's social environment. It is considered rather important by both members and parents, indicating that youth are well aware of their social obligations and that their parents feel this should be so.

The specific goals of this task are split into two groups by the timing responses, especially those of the parent group (Table 26). Statements dealing with the youth's interface with those immediately around him are seen to reflect goals which are achieved much earlier than those represented by statements dealing with more global personal and social obligations. Such a broad concept as responsibility to town and country is in fact the one element rejected by almost 10% of the members, and is seen as much less important by both members and parents than the other goals of this task.

The division within Task Eight reflects the differential importance of those goals with close visible interpersonal impact and those with a more subtle, long term and long range effect. Parents more than their children perceive the importance of the latter, but even parents see the patriotic dedication to home, town, and country to be least important of all. Broad personal goals regarding the direction for one's life are very important to youth and parents alike, although both groups, and especially parents, see the necessity for a lengthy, extended period of experience before the attainment of such

Table 26

Task Eight
Goal Statement Résponses

	Timing Inde	BX	Importan Index	ice'	"Not a Respo	Goal" nses
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
To learn to act in a way that will please me and those around me	1,47	1.52	4.12	4.12	4	2
To decide what I want to do with the rest of my life	2.05	2.43	4.46	4.39	3	0
To help others around me	1.35	1.36	4.11	4.10	4	3
To do things that will help my country, my town or my home	1.81	1.97	3.57	3.67	10	5

goals. The goals of commitment and responsibility to those in one's immediate environment are certainly not unimportant, but are seen to be accomplished relatively earlier in adolescence than the other element of this task.

Relationship with Socioeconomic Attributes

The timing response to Task Eight by parents is associated, in common with all other tasks, with the age of the 4-H members and the three age correlates. For members themselves, however, there is no such association of timing perceptions with age. That is, older members see themselves at about the same level of accomplishment of social responsibility as do younger members. The anamoly of the differential impact of age on task timing perceptions between members and parents, for this task and others, is certainly one outcome of this study that is very worthy of further research.

The perceptions of Task Eight, for members, are associated only with their student or non-student status. In very obvious and definite relationships, both timing and

Table 27
Task Eight Summary

Aspect	Category	Frequ	uency	9	6
		Member	Parent	Member	Parent
Timing	Already reached this goal	63	48	50.8	38.7
	Reach within 2 years	58	67	46.8	54.0
	Reach after <2 years	3	9	2.4	7.3
	Missing responses	5 5	5 A		
Importance	Slightly	- 0	0	0	0.
	Important 2	2	4	1.6	3.1
	3	18	21	14.0	16.3
	4	84	84	65.1	65 .1
	Very Important	25	20	19.3	15.5
	Missing responses	0	0		
"Not a Goal" Proportion	0/4	113	112	87.6	94.6
Froportion	1/4	12	5	9.3	. 3.9
	2/4	3	1	2.3	8.0
	2/4	1	1	0.8	0.8

importance ratings of members vary between the two status categories. Less than 50% of students feel they have already reached the goals of this task, while all of the non-students see this as a past accomplishment. Similarly, while all non-students rate the achievement of socially responsible behavior as highly important, over 16% of students assign it less than high importance.

Social responsibility and the rationalization of one's personal values with those of society, is significantly more important for those youth who have chosen to leave the formal education system than for those who elect to remain students. Non-students similarly see this task in terms of past achievement, while notable numbers of student youth feel they have yet to reach such goals. By leaving school, and presumably attempting to join the permanent labour force, non-students behaviorally have moved closer to the assumption of adulthood than students, who are in more ways still preparing for adulthood. Thus it is to be expected that non-students attach greater importance to the task of assimilating oneself effectively into the adult society, and similarly perceive themselves as having already accomplished this task by their very act of leaving the school system and entering the productive roles of adulthood.

Parents of youth, on the other hand, do not see the same importance differential based on the student status of their children. In fact, parental importance rating for Task Eight are unrelated to any of the socioeconomic attributes. While the timing of the achievement of socially responsible behavior is seen by parents to depend on the ages of their children, they nonetheless see it as uniformly important for all youth throughout the rural Alberta population.

I. Task Nine - Developing the Skills and Sensitivities Necessary for Civic Competence

Description

While less than 5% of members or parents see the accomplishment of this task as more than two years in the future, almost 40% more members than parents view the goals as already reached. Conversely, over 25% more parents than members anticipate accomplishment in the near future.

The importance ratings for members and parents are highly related in Task Nine (=.254, sig.=.002). The task is seen as only moderately important, with over 50% of both groups assigning an importance rating of less than high importance, and less than 5% of either group assigning very high importance. Mean ratings are members: 3.782 and parents: 3.874.

Over 80% of parents, but less than 70% of members, perceive all six goal statements as goals. Over 25% of the members and almost 20% of the parents reject from one to three of the statements. Most often rejected are statements "To learn about the way my country works", "To learn what people need", "To learn how to help people get along with each other", and, "To help others do what they really want with their lives".

Relative to other tasks, Task Nine is given low importance by both members and parents. Dealing with the gaining of macro—and micro—political knowledge, development of helping skills and attitudes, and formal organizational skills, this task reflects a philosophy of personal involvement in and committment to formal processes to maintain and enhance the societal good.

The elements of this task directly involved with identifying and ameliorating human problems are rejected by a notable portion (5–20%) of both groups, especially members. Even for those who accept these as goals, their importance remains rather low. Modern society may be such that any goals involving personal betterment must take precedence over those aimed toward helping others. Similarly, it may be basic to human nature to adopt the philosophy of "Look out for yourself first". This appears to be especially evident for the members, of whom a significant portion (>5%) reject each of the goals of this task, and whose mean importance rating is lower than that of either group for any of the other tasks.

Communications skill, one element of Task Nine, is seen by both groups as its most important constituent goal. Additionally, it is seen to be accomplished relatively earlier than the other goals. This is the goal within the task which is least rejected by either group, although parents accept it more readily than members and assign it greater importance. Two aspects of this goal set it apart from others in the task. First, it is more a goal toward increased personal capability than the others, and thus may be seen as carrying more immediate and personal benefit. Second, the 4-H program has a highly

Table 28

Task Nine

Goal Statement Responses

	Timing Inde	∍x	Importan Index	ce	"Not a Respo	Goal" nses
Goal Statements	Member	Parent	Member	Parent	Member	Parent
To learn about the way my country works	1.77	2.08	3.06	3.55	11	.5
To learn what people	1.74	1.96	3.34	3.54	14	7
To learn how to make people understand what I try to tell them	1.42	1.49	3.73	3.93	7	2
To learn how to help people get along with each other	1.51	1.91	3.56	3.72	11	6
To help others do what they really want to do with their lives	1.70	2.01	2.91	2.85	25	17.
To help others even if it does not help me	1.43	1.62	3.64	3.73	8	6

visible public speaking and communications emphasis, which may lead this sample, through exposure and experience, to evaluate it as a worthy and important goal.

Throughout the goals of Task Nine, consistently more members than parents reject the goal statements or, if accepting them as goals, indicate earlier timing for accomplishment. In most cases, member importance ratings are lower as well. Parents apparently more readily appreciate the value of the goals, but recognize an element of longer term experience and education before such goals may be successfully reached by their children.

Table 29
Task Nine Summary

		\$ ·			
Aspect	Category	Freq	uency	%	
		Member	Parent	Member	Parent
Timing	Already reached this goal	66	40	52.4	32.5
	Reach within 2 years	58、	78	46.0	63.4
	Reach after <2 years	2	5	• 1.6	4.1
	Missing responses	3	6		
					• •
Importance	Slightly	3	1.	2.3	0.8
	Important 2	11.	. 9	× -8.5	.7.0
	3	58	55	45.0	42.6
	4		58	41.1	45.0
•	Very Important	4	6	3.1	4.6
	Missing responses	0	0		•
"Not a Goal"	0/6	90	104	69.8	80.6
Proportion	1/6	20	13	15.5	10.1
	2/6	6	7	4.7	5.4
	3/6	9	4	7.0	3.1
•	4/6	3	1 .	2.3	0.8
	5/6	1	0	0.8	0

Relationships with Socioeconomic Attributes

The familiar pattern of association for timing responses is largely evident, with a surprising exception perental timing perceptions are associated with age of the members, and with the age correlates of grade and years of 4-H membership.

Statistically significant association is missing, however, with student status. Parents do not see non-students as having gained the skills for civic competence to any greater degree than students, even though they do see such a difference between older versus younger youth. Youth's assumption of some of the roles of adulthood, as represented by their choice to leave the education system, is apparently less linked in the view of parents to civic competencies than is their age. This task is seen by parents to involve other characteristics of youth than student or non-student status.

Task Nine is one of the few tasks for which member timing perceptions are unrelated to any socioeconomic attributes. (The only other such tasks are One and Six.)

The gaining of skills for civic competence is apparently seen by youth to occur virtually independently of the influence of environmental impact on the time of accomplishment.

Perhaps youth see this as such an internal and individual task that even within each attribute category significant variation will exist in the timing of accomplishment.

In a similar fashion, parents apparently feel this task is uniformly important across the categories of the tested attributes. No significant relationships appear between parental importance ascriptions and any of the socioeconomic attributes. Civic competence, while not considered very important relative to other tasks, is given moderate importance by parents, and is seen to be a universal task for their children, regardless of external characteristics. Thus, while feeling that youth should concern themselves more with other developmental tasks, parents realize that civic competence is worthy of some attention by rural Alberta youth throughout the population.

For members, only their sex has significant influence on their importance perceptions of this task. Over 50% of the female members but less than 30% of the males evaluate the task highly important. The skills of communication, formal group involvement and political awareness, as a whole, are significantly more important for girls than for boys. This conclusion is in keeping with the more general trend for girls to be more aware and concerned within the whole area of social relationships and group

participation or involvement. Within the specifics of civic competence skills, this generalization is expressed through notably higher importance ratings by girls. Even in a task which would intuitively be expected to be common throughout the population, youth see a sexual differentiation in importance toward girls. Of course, this conclusion must remain within the overall context of the relatively low importance placed on this task as a whole.

J. Summary of Results

Task One

The task of accepting one's physique and using one's body effectively is seen as rather important by youth and their parents, although more so by youth. It is, however, accomplished relatively early by most youth. Girls see the task as somewhat more important than boys. The task is given most importance by parents from villages, towns, or cities and least importance by parents from acreages.

Task One is recognized as valid throughout the rural population with little rejection of any task elements.

Task Two

The achievement of a satisfying and acceptable sex role is also seen as highly important, but somewhat less so by youth than their parents, perhaps because of contemporary relaxation of sex-role boundaries. The overall task is seen by both youth and their parents to be accomplished rather late in the youth life stage.

A major division with Task Two is perceived by the rural population. The decision on a personal adult ideal sex role image is highly important to youth and their parents, and is not made until late in youth. The gaining of knowledge on the range of acceptable youth and adult sex role behaviors is less important, is accomplished earlier, and in fact is rejected as a goal by a notable minority of youth and parents. There is thus an indication that this is not a single task but rather two related and sequential tasks.

Older youth see themselves as much closer to the accomplishment of this task than do younger members. Similarly, youth living on farms feel they accomplish this task earlier than do youth in cities, towns, or villages, while youth on acreages see

accomplishment latest of all.

Task Three

Maturity in peer relations is given high importance by both rural youth and their parents, although youth ascribe somewhat more prominence to the task. Accomplishment occurs quite early in the youth life stage, with parents tending to feel it will take somewhat longer to reach the goals than do their children.

The goals surrounding the actual behavior of dating are seen by both youth and their parents to be less important than other aspects of this task, such as generalized peer acceptance and heterosexual friendships. Dating also occurs later in youth than those other task elements, but the perceptual division is not so great as to conclude that dating is a task in itself. It may well be that dating itself is so pervasive in rural youth's social environment that specific goals in the regard are not seen as necessary.

Task Three is seen as closer to completion by older than younger youth, as well as by their parents. It is a more important goal for girls than for boys, and similarly is seen as more important by mothers than fathers. Parents with lower education place more importance on this task than parents with higher education.

In general Task Three is accepted throughout the rural population as a valid task for the youth within that population.

Task Four

The task of achieving emotional independence from parents and adults is seen as uniformly highly important by rural youth and their parents. It is a task which youth feel they accomplish relatively early, while parents see achievement taking rather longer.

Youth and parents both perceive two major elements within this task. The goals of actual autonomy are less important, and are reached later, than the goals of establishing satisfying emotional rapport with parents and adults. It is in the aspect of autonomy itself that substantial disagreement and potential conflict is found between youth and parents, especially in terms of the timing of youth's independence.

Youth in the northern regions of Alberta see this as a more long-term task than do their more southern counterparts, perhaps related to the relative newness and

historical 'frontier' aspects of the north. Related to the general timing pattern, older youth more than younger youth feel they have already accomplished the task. There is a complex association between community size and parental timing perceptions, with parents of larger communities seeing youth autonomy occurring later than those smaller communities.

In terms of importance, Task Four is uniformly important throughout the rural population, and is seen as a valid task by almost all rural youth and parents.

Task Five

Occupational preparation is highly important for rural youth and their parents, and is the task that is achieved latest in the youth life stage. Even so, youth see it being accomplished notably earlier than do their parents.

The long term nature of this task underlies the finding that, in the perceptions of both youth and their parents, older youth are much closer to achieving the task's goals than are younger youth. Occupational preparation is seen to take uniformly the same amount of time to accomplish for all youth of like ages throughout the rural population.

In most respects, the task is seen as uniformly very important throughout the population. For parents, however, there is less importance vested in the task if they live on acreages than elsewhere, while farm parents perceive the most importance of the residence groups.

Overshadowing these differences, however, is the overall universality of the importance of occupational preparation, which is an accepted developmental task for youth throughout rural Alberta.

Task Six

Great importance is given to preparation for marriage and family life by parents and, to a slightly lesser degree, by youth. Parents see the task extending over a longer term than youth, although for neither group is accomplishment seen to linger into the later years of the youth life stage.

This task is in fact a combination of two separate elements. The first, dealing with a satisfying involvement in one's current family situation, is more important and is

accomplished earlier. The second, which involves preparation for future adult family roles, has a longer term but is seen as less important by both youth and parents, and is not even recognized by some as valid.

Youth see the timing of Task Six in similar ways throughout their population, while parents see older youth as being closer to task completion. Girls find the task more important than do boys, and non-students attach more importance to it than do students. Parental ascriptions of importance are uniform throughout rural Alberta.

Task Seven

The development of an ideology is perceived as rather less important by youth than by their parents although both see it as a more than moderately important task which is accomplished before the later part of the youth life stage.

Youth and parents see the importance and validity of this task lying in the selection of one's own set of values much more than in the discovery and exploration of external ethical systems. The task is thus determined more individualistically than by significant exploration of environmental options.

While parents perceive older youth as closer to completion of Task Seven than younger youth differential timing perceptions for this task among youth themselves are associated only with their geographical location. Again there is a trend toward perceived longer term accomplishment in northern areas of Alberta compared to the southern areas.

The importance of this task is seen as greater by girls than by boys. Parents, however, feel only that younger youth should be more concerned with the development of an ideology than older youth.

Task Seven is somewhat limited in the perceptions throughout rural Alberta to the selection of a personal ideology without the need for reference to external ethical systems. Within this restricted scope, however, it is well recognized as a valid developmental task for youth.

Task Eight

Achieving social responsibility is given relatively high importance by youth and their parents. Youth feel they will accomplish the goals earlier than do their parents, but for both groups the task is one to be completed over a short term in the youth life stage.

The element of patriotic endeavour is the least important one within Task Eight, which is generally divided into two parts. Youth's relationship and social interface with the immediate social environment is a relatively short-term concern for youth and their parents. The development of a more expansive sense of one's future direction and place in society is a more important aspect of the task, and is accomplished somewhat later.

Parents see youth's accomplishment of social responsibility to be more distant for younger youth, while for members differential timing rests on their status as a student or non-student, with students assigning a longer term to task completion. Similarly, students find the task less important than non-students. For parents, this task is uniformly important through the rural population.

With the recognizable division between its two major aspects, Task Eight is generally regarded as valid by rural Alberta youth and their parents.

Task Nine

Youth and parents rate the development of skills for civic competence as only moderately important, although they recognize that it is one of the later youth tasks to be completed.

The most important of its goals for youth and parents is the gaining of skills in communication, which is also seen as the goal first to be reached. Each other goal in Task.

Nine is rejected by a notable number of youth or parents or both.

Older youth are seen by their parents to be closer to accomplishment of this task than are younger youth. Among youth, themselves, however, the timing of the task is seen as uniform throughout rural Alberta.

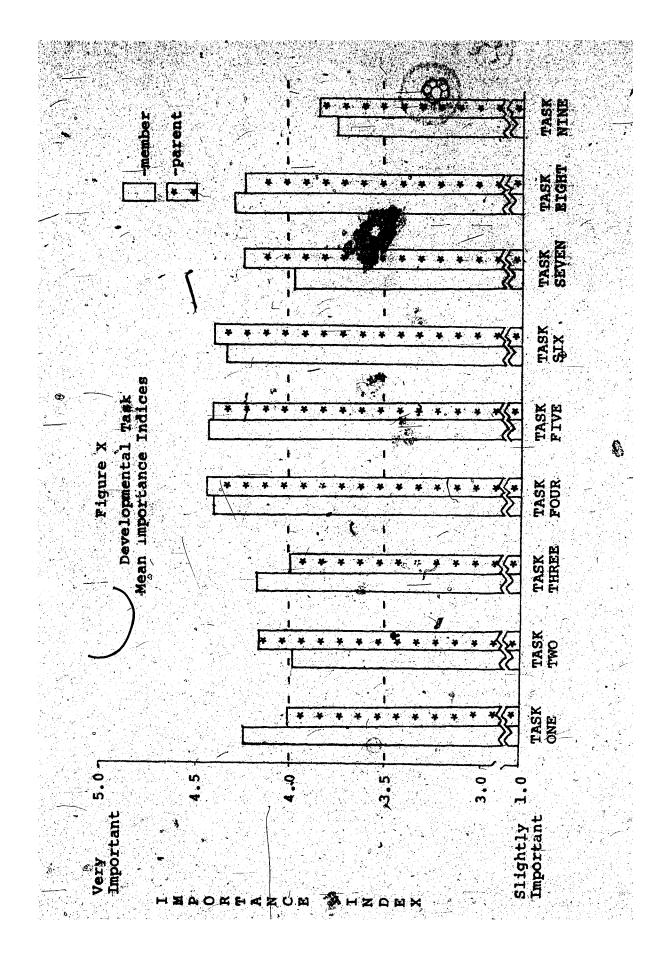
Girls see this task as more important than do boys, while parents perceive common importance throughout the population.

The task of developing civic competence is least important of all the tasks for youth in contemporary rural Alberta. Other than the very specific goal of gaining

communication skills, it is rejected as a task by a notable number of youth and parents, so its current validity is the most questionable among the nine developmental tasks tested in the study.

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VII. Results and Discussion: Comparisons Among Developmental Tasks and Attributes

A Developmental Tasks

When viewing all nine developmental tasks together, several notable comparisons and contrasts become apparent.

Importance

The importance ratings are somewhat mixed and are not separated into well-grouped clusters (see Table 30 and Figure X). One group of three tasks, however, is identifiable as the most important from the points of view of both parents and members. Variations in the internal order within this group are present, but become rather insignificant in light of the very narrow range of the mean importance ratings (4.348 to 4 437; a range of less than .09). These three tasks involve emotional independence from adults, occupational preparation, and the formation of positive adult attitudes and knowledge for marriage and family life.

Here is an apparent demarcation in type between personally proximate and non-proximate goals and tasks. The task of emotional independence, when accomplished, leaves the individual with a firm internal sense of self-worth and autonomy. Coupling this with the outcome of reaching the goals of occupational preparation, the individual further gains external societal verification of his independence and value by aquiring a permanent job and joining the economic sector that is so dominant in Western society. Additionally, however, societal expectations and personal aspirations lead most individuals to enter and continue the institutions of marriage and family, further solidifying their adult identities and creating an acceptable and successful niche for themselves in their immediate social environment.

Thus it is evident that the three adolescent developmental tasks selected as most important by both members and parents are inextricably linked to relatively immediate personal success and identity consolidation early in adulthood. It is the fruits of these tasks upon which the others may add embellishments and round out the adult self, but the foundation of the adult personality lies recognizably within the scope of these three developmental tasks.

Among the other tasks, only one notable distinction is apparent, at the opposite end of the importance ratings. The development of skills and attitudes toward civic competence is rated noticeably less important than all other tasks by both parents and members. In many ways, this task is the most socially distant of all, and this perceived remoteness may be the major factor underlying the low importance rating. There is little immediacy or even objective impact on the individual in today's society of the skills and attitudes involved with civic competence. The constituent goals touch that part of the individual which leans toward altruism, and this is certainly not one of the most highly developed aspects of the modern Western personality. While some degree of importance is attached to the task, it does not compete in the perceptions of youth and parents with the tasks leading to immediate, direct or objectively visible personal betterment.

The differences between member and parent importance ratings are evident in Figure X, and are tested statistically through the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks test. This test is a form of difference of means test, and determines the significance of observed differences between the rank orders of the two groups — members and parents. Tasks One, Two, Three, and Seven produce significantly (p<05) different importance ratings between members and their parents, with the difference for all other tasks statistically insignificant. This test thus confirms the information as presented in tabular form in Table 30, as the mean index differentials are indeed much less for the other five tasks than for those indicated by the test.

It is noteworthy that those tasks for which member and parent importance ratings are basically similar are either the most important group or the least important task. For the group of highly important tasks, it is likely that their very importance in the minds of youth and parents would lead to extensive interplay and discussion between these two groups in defining the tasks and their goals. Indeed, high perceived importance likely leads to great task-oriented interaction between youth and their whole societal environment, with the result that youth and environmental elements find themselves in close congruence regarding the importance of the tasks.

For the least important task -- civic competence -- it is very possible that youth and their parents, by agreeing that it has *some* importance but that it is least important of

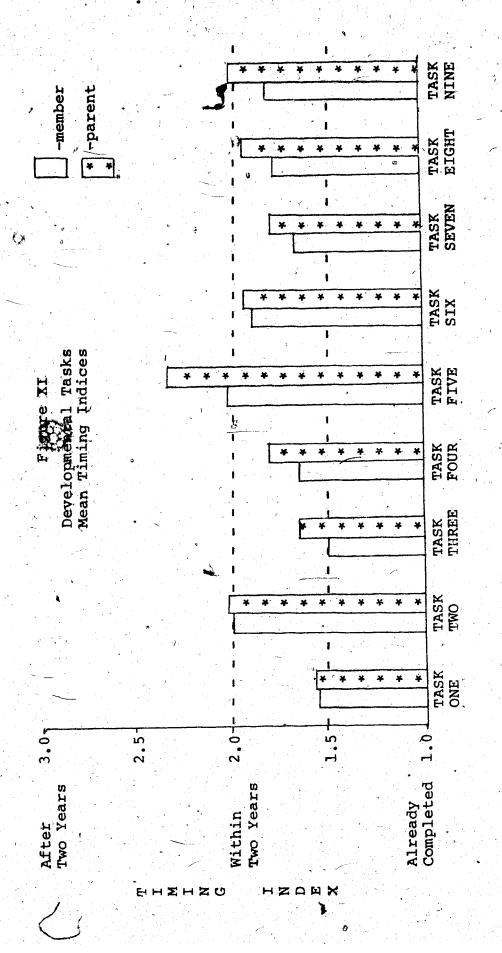
all the tasks, are in fact together recognizing that, in Western society, one cannot exist as an adult without some minimal awareness and competence in civic matters. Conversely, they recognize that it is not essential to become deeply involved in such affairs to enjoy successful adulthood. The common and widespread nature of such attitudes could lead youth and their parents to evaluate this task in a highly similar manner.

In general, then, youth and parents agree on the importance of those developmental tasks they see as very important, possibly due to extensive interaction between youth and their societal environment with respect to those tasks. Only for developmental tasks of lesser importance can either youth or their environment allow themselves the luxury of sustained dissimilarities in task perceptions. If either youth or some element(s) within their environment percieved such tasks as carrying great importance, they would be forced to attempt to initiate such interaction as would ultimately result in shared perceptions.

Timing

In general terms, members and parents are in agreement over the relative timing of the tasks. Four tasks are seen as being accomplished relatively early in the youth life stage. These deal with satisfactory physical development, adequate peer group involvement, emotional autonomy, and ideology. Such tasks are almost all basically individual and internal in nature, while peer group success grows quite directly out of childhood skills and experiences. In any case, this group of tasks involves behaviors and attitudes which are relatively intimate and are immediately evaluated in the adolescent's internal and nearby social environment.

A second group of tasks are rated by both members and parents as slightly more long-term. These include the developemnt of social responsibility and civic competence, the adoption of a satisfactory and acceptable sex-role, and the emergence of positive attitudes toward marriage and family life. The similarity among this set of tasks lies in their relatively extended nature, through either social or temporal distance or both. The degree of accomplishment of the goals of these tasks determines each individual's future social success in less direct, less immediate and more global ways that those of the first group of tasks. The effects of these tasks becomes apparent over the long term through



the individual's ensuing life stages, and it is apparent that both youth and their parents feel that relatively long-term adolescent preparation is necessary for their successful completion.

The one somewhat anomalous task is that of career and occupational preparation, with both members and parents seeing it as a task to be accomplished rather later than any of the others. For members the timing difference between this task and the next most long-tem one, sex-role establishment, is only marginal, while parents perceive a much larger timing differential between these two tasks. There is apparently a recognition by both groups of the crucial role of occupation and job for each individual in modern society. This recognition is reflected by an assumption that longer-term training and preparation will ultimately be beneficial to success with this task. Parents are significantly more cognizant than their children of a relationship between the length of occupational preparation and future career success, and thus emphasize to a greater degree the long term nature of this adolescent task.

It is interesting to note from Table 30 and Figure XI that for every one of the nine tasks, parents assign a more lengthy time for task accomplishment than do their children. One could perhaps attribute this to youthful impatience, or alternatively to parental conservatism and overcompensation. The underlying causes for this phenomenon must await further research, however, before any causation may be ascribed with certainty.

The results of the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks test confirm some of the observations summarized in Table 30 and Figure XI. Significant scores (p<05) for this statistic, indicating a significant difference between parent and member timing ascriptions, appear for Tasks Three, Four, Five, Eight and Nine. Referring back to Figure XI, one easily observes that it is these tasks which do indeed exhibit the greatest mean index differences between members and parents.

Here there is no apparent relationship between member-parent agreement and the timing priorities themselves. On the one hand, Task Five, which has the highest timing index for both sample groups, shows marked dissimilarity between the groups.

Alternately, Tasks Two and Six, both of which exhibit high timing indices, show close congruence of member and parent timing perceptions. For tasks with low timing indices, a similar mix of congruence and non-congruence appears between member and parent

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ratings. There appears to be no explanation for such findings which can be derived from the data at hand. Future research, directed specifically toward timing of developmental tasks, may uncover some of the underlying relationships whose effects appear in this study.

B. Socioeconomic Attributes

Of the many optional formats for the presentation of the varied relationships to be found between the socioeconomic attribute variables and the developmental task responses, clarity is preserved through the individual discussion of each of these variables in turn. A summary of significant relationships appears in Figure XII.

Age

Not unexpectedly, age shows strong relationships with most of the timing indices, for both members and parents. Younger members and their parents see the past/future accomplishment aspect of developmental tasks differently from older members and their parents. In essence, this tends to comfirm that the tasks are indeed sequential, and that development continues throughout adolescence, with significant variation within the span of the youth life stage.

For parents, the age of their children is significantly (p<.05) associated with the timing indices for all nine tasks. The values of *tau* here range from -.1451 to -.4315. The negatively signed values serve to indicate inverse relationships as expected. That is, as members get older, their parents see more of the tasks as already accomplished and fewer to be completed in the long term future.

For members, not all task timing perceptions are significantly associated with age. Only Tasks Two, Three, Four and Five carry age correlations with timing. These tasks involve, respectively, social and sex role development, mature age relations, emotional independence, and occupational preparation, with the latter being most highly related to age. For the other five tasks, the inference of the non-association with age is that older youth see as many of the goals of those tasks in the future as do younger youth, while younger youth feel they have accomplished as many of the goals as do older ones. Of-course, such an inference is completely justifiable only in the case in which no

Figure XII Significant Socioeconomic Attributes

	MEMBERS	Ş	PARENTS	,
	TIMING	IMPORTANCE	TIMING	IMPORTANCE
	Tasks	Tasks	Tasks	Tasks
SOCIDECONOMIC ATTRIBUTES	123456789	123456789	12345/6789	123456789
Age	* * *		* * * * * * *	•
Sex: member		*		
Residence	•			*
Community size			*	
Region	*			The second secon
Student Status	*	*	* * * * *	
Grade	* * *		* * *	
Years In #4-H	*		* * * * * *	***
4-H Club Type	_			
Number of Children		•		
Sex: parent				#
Family Structure				
Parent Education				

* = Significant Relationship (p<.05)

relationship whatsoever is evident. This occurs with none of these five tasks, so one may only conclude that age is less of a factor in youth perceptions of these tasks than for the other four, as well as being less of a factor for youth than for their parents in these five tasks.

The statistical correlation between age and the timing indices of developmental tasks is further supported by the results of the T-test difference of means computations. These require a two-category independent variable, so age is dichotomized into two groups: <16 years and 16 years. Significant differences between the mean timing indices for these two groups are found for members in Tasks Two, Three and Five, and for parents in all tasks excepting Six and Seven. The variation between these results and the measures of association previously reported is due to relative variations in the significance levels, as well as the arbitrary dichotomization used in the T-tests. Those tasks with which age is significantly correlated using the tau statistic, but which are excluded from these T-test results (Task Four for members responses and Tasks Six and Seven for parents responses) are those for which the tau statistic's significance level is greater than 02 but still less than 05. These are, in effect, the least significant of the relationships found, although they remain well within the significance tolerance selected for this research.

Sex

There are differential associations present between sex of the member and his/her importance ratings of the tasks, but no parallel associations with the parents' importance ascriptions. In fact, five of the member importance variables are the only dependent variables with which sex of the member has any significant relationships.

The relationships between five of the task importance indices for male and female members are further confirmed through a T-test difference of means calculation. Tasks One, Three, Six, Seven and Nine exhibit significant differences of means (p<.05) between the importance ratings of male and female members. Similar differences are not found for member importance ratings of the other tasks, nor for any of the parental importance ratings.

As has been indicated, there is a general tendency among with for girls to be more concerned than boys with those tasks which involve elements of peer group acceptance and social awareness and participation. Because of this greater concern, some of the more individualistic tasks, such as physical development and ideology; similarly assume greater importance for girls as intervening tasks toward social acceptance and participation. Carried family life preparation regian more important to girls largely due to the traditional differences between the adult male and female roles in marriage and family maintenance.

The lack of relationship between sex of the member and parental importance ratings or either parent or member timing perceptions indicates that parents see the tasks as very similar in both respects for their daughters as for their sons, and that youth feel that boys will take as long as girls to reach the goals of the tasks.

Other Attributes

As is evident in Figure XII, most of the other socioeconomic attributes are found to be related to isolated task indices of importance or timing in a non-patterned fashion. These relationships have all been discussed within the scope of each of the individual developmental tasks. The notable exceptions are discussed below.

The three attributes of 'student status', 'grade', and 'years of 4-H membership' are all significantly related to age, and tend to exhibit parallel relationships to those of age. This tendency is most notable in the parental task timing perceptions, in which, with one exception, age and all three of these age correlates are significantly related for all tasks. Similar but less extensive parallels are seen in the relationships with member timing perceptions. The matched correlations among age and these three attributes makes it very difficult to assess the effects of the attributes independently. Further statistical analysis, beyond the scope of this study, is necessary to separate the effects of age from those of the three attributes, and would provide more meaningful data from which to derive conclusions and implications.

Another set of socioeconomic attributes exhibit patterned association with developmental task perceptions. These include the type of 4-H club to which the member belongs, the number of children in the family, and the family structure, none of

which are significantly related to any task indices for members or parents. Among the categories used to assess these attributes, all developmental tasks are perceived similarly within the population of youth and their parents. Such findings of what are not important determinants of the tasks are equally useful and notable to those that are important. In searching for implications, one may conclude that approaches to dealing with the perceptions of youth and their parents regarding one or all of the developmental tasks non-related attributes.

With the knowledge of the basic socioeconomic characteristics of the sample and the 4-H population, along with their initial implications for 4-H programming, it is now reasonable to turn to that programming itself, looking at the perceived importance 4-H members and parents place on various of its elements. The relative impact of these elements on the clientale may be indicated, as well as any need for differential emphasis in the promotion or content of the 4-H program in part or as a whole.

Two related areas of data are reported regarding 4-H programming and the importance attatched to it by the 4-h clientele. The first of these involves general areas of emphasis in the Alberta 4-H organization, while the second refers to specific events and activities which derive from such efforts.

A. Arese of 4-H Emphasis

Parents and 4-H members differ somewhat in their perceptions of the relative importance of areas of emphasis in the program. From individual item importance ratings, the calculated relative ranks of eight areas of emphasis for both 4-H members and parents appear in Table 31. The most marked difference lies in the ranking for 'social experience', which is rated by members as second *most* important and by parents as second *least* important. This difference points toward a broader conclusion that emerges from Table 31. Generally, 4-H members attatch the most relative importance to those elements of 4-H programming which carry a broad personal development emphasis (ie. leadership training, social experience). Parents, on the other hand, see the most importance vested in skill oriented elements (ie. public epeaking, project training). The 4-H project itself assumes greater relative importance for the parent than for the member.

These differential member-parent importance ratings may stem from underlying differences in perceived reasons for 4-H involvement. Parents may see 4-H largely as an organization to train their children in the project material and in rather specific personal and social skills. They wish their children to join 4-H primarily to learn these skills.

Members may look at 4-H more as a social organization, joining to be with friends, to make friends, or to become part of a recognized social peer group.

Understandably, then, the social and generalized personal development aspects of 4-H

Table 3

Relative Importance of 4-H Areas of Emphasis (as perceived by 4-H members and parents)

Ares of Emphasis	Rank
	4-H
	Members) Pérents)
	이 기계 전 1시간 경험 보기 되었다. 이 전 1시간 교육 2일 - 기업 전 1시간 기업
Leadership Training (Members)	다 보는 것으로 1 (2012년) 12 년 (2012년) 강조 (2017년) 1일 (2017년) 12 년 (2017년) 1
Social Experience	2
Public Speaking and Communications Training (Members)	3
Project Training (Members)	2
Leadership Training (Adults)	5 3
Citizenship Training	6 5
Project Training (Adults)	7
Public Speaking and Communications Training (Adults)	8 6

are more important to members while skill oriented elements carry more importance for parents.

Both members and parents perceive the member-oriented elements of the program as generally more important than adult-oriented elements, although parents place great importance on leadership training for adults, even over such saining for members. This may not be as anomalous as it seems at first glance, for it is the parents who are more intimately involved with the leadership functions of the clubs. They are understandably concerned with perceived leadership skill shortcomings in themselves and other adults associated with club leadership.

Programming efforts dealing with leadership development and training for adults should thus be publicized and promoted directly to the parents. Attempting this promotion through the members, especially in verbal form, is far less likely to be successful, as such program information will assiste less importance in the minds of the members than other 4-51 information recieved at the same time, and may not finally reach the parents at all lightically, if the information deals with member-oriented elements.

especially social or developmental in nature, promotion to members may be most effective. Skill oriented information, and that dealing with adult leadership development, is best issued directly to the parents themselves.

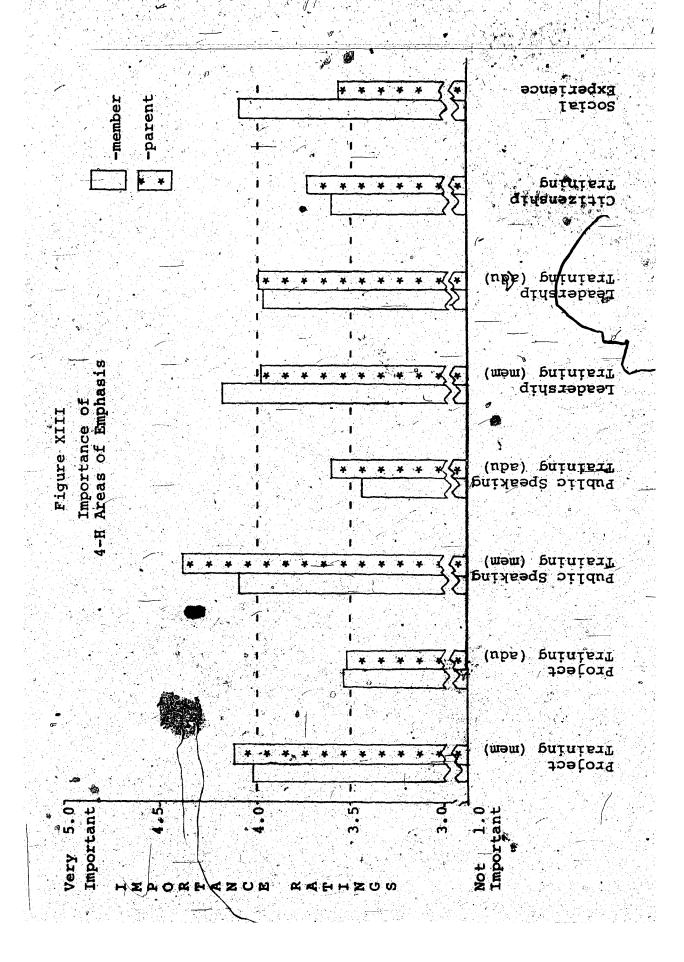
Figure XIII presents the importance ratings diagramatically, highlighting the differences between parent and member ratings on the elements of public speaking and communications for members and adults, leadership training for members and social experience. Little difference between parent and member ratings are evident for project training for adults and members, leadership training for adults and citizenship training. In spite of the differences in *relative* rankings, these elements are seen as similar in absolute importance by 4–H members and their parents.

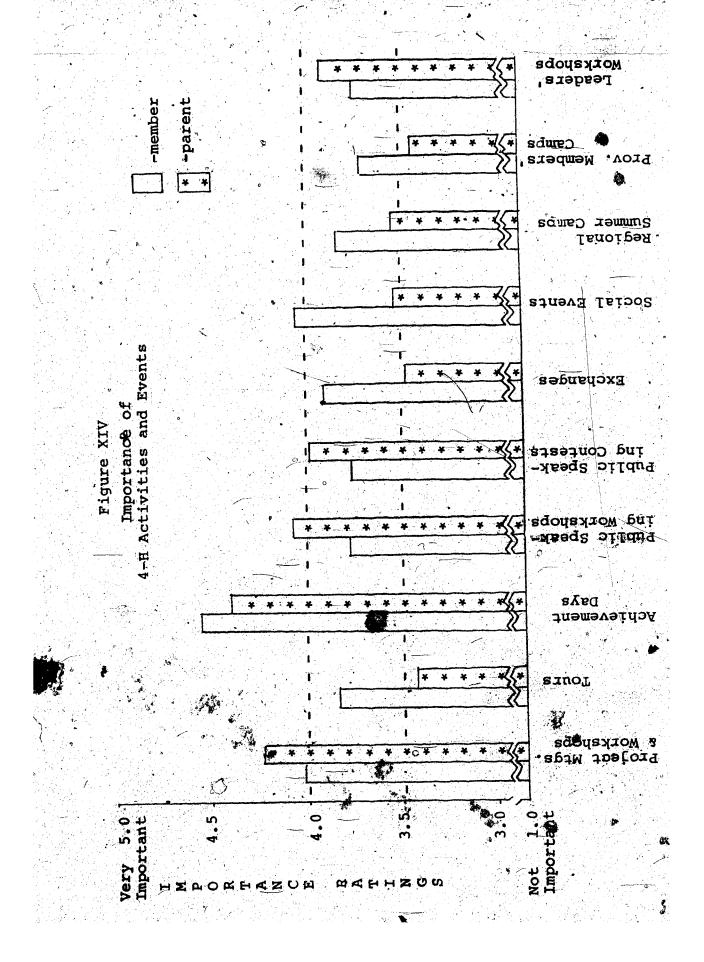
B. 4-H Activities and Events

Relative rankings by importance of specific 4-H activities and events show both striking similarities and marked contrasts between members and parents. As revealed in Table 32, both members and parents place the greatest importance on project achievement days, and both groups see workshops more important than contests in the programming of public speaking events. However, both elements of public speaking rank much higher for parents than for members, relative to other activities. Both groups rank provincial level members' events at or near the least important of all the activities, although such events remain moderately important in absolute terms.

Again is seen the contrast between member and parent rankings of social elements in 4-H. Social events, exchanges and tours assume significantly more importance for members than for their parents. Parental emphasis on adult leadership skills is apparent through the much higher rank asigned to leaders' workshops by parents than by the members.

Figure XIV reconfirms some of these generalized member-parent differences. Activities with significant social and developmental contexts (tours, exchanges, social, event, and regional summer camps) are consistently assigned greater importance by members than by parents. Conversely, skill-oriented activities (project meetings and workshops, public speaking contests and workshops) carry greater perceived importance for parents. The very high importance ratings for achievement days by both





Relative Importance of 4-H Act and Action (as perceived by 4-H member and arents)

Activity or Event	Rank (4-H	Rank (4-H
	Members)	Parents)
Achievement Days	1,	1
Social Events	2	7
Project-Meetings and Workshops	3	2.
Exchanges	4	8
Regional Summer Camps	5	6
Tours	6	10
Public Speaking Workshops		3
Public Speaking Contests	8	•
Leaders Workshops	g	5
Provincial Members Camps and Workshops	10	9

members and parents is also clearly illustrated. The acking members and the whole year's project work in any 4-H club, and the properties to both members and parents is very evident in the data. Obviously, the acceptance will be projected at 4-H clubs by the organization's staff.

Sixteen responder additional categories for areas of emphasis and/or 4-H activities and events the receive as important. These categories are enumerated in Tables 33 and 34. Of those additional categories being mentioned more than once the emphasis tends to be on program elements related to social growth and responsibility, with a secondary emphasis appearing on practical skills related to project work. These two broad directions of emphasis closely parallel the previously discussed major elements of importance to 4-H members and parents.



Additional Categories for 4-H Areas of Emphasis (suggested by member and parent respondents)

Category	Number of Times
	Mentioned
이번째는 이 주가들이 하고 사람이 가장 그는 경기를 들고 있어요.	
Self Improvement/Awareness	2 -
Record Books	2
Responsibility	4 -
Cooperation	1
Competition	1
Judging	Ť.,
Practical Project Work	
Exchange Opportunities	, 1
수 없다는 사람들이 있는데 하게 되는 가 되면 가는 얼마를 하는데 하는데 가게 하는데 되었다.	

Table 34

Additional Categories for 4-H Activities and Events (suggested by member and parent respondents)

Category	Number of Times Mentioned
Čommunity Work	2
Fun Activities	2
Interclub Activities	1 .
Trail Rides	1_

C. Relationships with 4-H Membership Attributes

In addition to the preceding descriptions of 4-H member and parent ascriptions of importance to the various elements of 4-H programming, the research design includes provisions to add further scope for interpretation by examining the associations with the

two variables of 4-H membership attributes.

Tests of these relationships between the perceived importance of 4-H areas of emphasis, activities and events and 1)the type of 4-H club and 2)the number of years of 4-H membership show surprisingly few significant correlations. In fact, there are no cases of significant relationships (p<05) between the importance ratings and the type of 4-H club.

4-H Club Type

For both members and their parents, there is no systematic link between the type of 4-H project carried by the member and their perceptions of the importance of 4-H programming elements. The member and parent differentiation of importance of skills versus personal growth is general throughout the club types and does not appear more, for example, with beef club members than clothing club members.

One might have hypothesized that members who are attracted to one 4-H project over the others would similarly show a particular priority assignment among the 4-H program elements. This is not in fact the case. Priorizations cross the boundaries of 4-H membership project groups.

For the 4-H organization, it is apparent that the importance and priority of program elements is largely common among the projects. There is no indicated necessity to direct activities or events differentially among the projects, and overall program emphasis can be standardized throughout the range of the clubs and projects.

Years of 4-H Membership

The few relationships between importance ratings and number of years in 4-H are itemized in Table 35. Kendalis tau is the correlational statistic, suitable to ordinal data, and the only relationships reported in the table are those with significance levels <05. Similar tests with age are also included, because of the very strong correlation between age and years in 4-H (r = .6934, p < 001).

Only two relationships appear between years in 4-H and importance ratings, without substantial contribution of the age factor. For both the member ratings of public speaking contests and the parent ratings of the whole area of public speaking and

Table 35

Relationships Between Importance Ratings,
Years in 4-H, and Age

Rated Items		Years in 4-H		Age
Areas of 4-H Emphasis	•	p		P
Public Speaking and Communications (members): member ratings Public Speaking and Communications (members): parent ratings	.2097	.002	2277	.02
4-H Activities and Events	•	in same to the pro- action of supplies		
Public Speaking Workshops: member ratings	2595	.0002	2546	.01
Public Speaking Contests: member ratings	.1526	.03		
Leaders' Workshops: member ratings	1795	.01,	.2731	.006
Achievement Days: parent ratings	- 1355	04	- 1824	.04

communications training for members, greater importance is attatched by and for older members than younger ones. For all other relationships in Table 35, strong age corrections indicate that it may well be merely age, rather than 4-H tenure, which is contributing to the apparent significance of the relationships.

The aspects of public speaking and communications are understandably related to 4-H experience. The program for public speaking education in 4-H is sequential, with the activities for older members becoming increasingly more structured and the contests increasingly large scale. For those members and parents with some interest or involvement in this area, the objective opportunities and rewards are greater for experienced than novice members, leading to greater ascriptions of importance.

It is important for the 4-H organization to note that perceptions of the importance and priority of program elements vary with member experience only within the public speaking program. For all other elements, members with much experience, and their parents, assign similar priorities to members with little experience and their parents. Of course, such a conclusion ignores the age factor, which parallels the extent of 4-H experience.

Even the inclusion of the age correlations, however, leads only to the inclusion of two items of programming other than public speaking with which the 4-H tenure is related. Older, more experienced members attatch greater importance to leaders' workshops, and their parents attatch less importance to achievement days than do younger, less experience members and their parents. There may be a realization with increased 4-H tenure that the 4-H project itself ceases to be the focal point of 4-H involvement, and that the value of membership lies more in the non-project areas which are far more subject to variability in quality under good or bad club leadership.

While these individual relationships are worthy of attention, the basic conclusion remains that; for most elements of 4-H programming with the exception of public speaking, the importance of those elements to 4-H members and their parents is similar regardless of the type of project or years of experience of the member.

IX. Conclusions and implications

A. Conclusions

The following conclusions constitute a summarization and aggregation of the results of this study and their interpretations. For the 4-H organization itself, the research results are directly applicable to the programming and policy-setting process. To the extent that Alberta 4-H members are representative of the general population of rural youth, or even youth in total, the conclusions may be generalized beyond the research population. That such representativeness is not perfect or complete is well recognized by the researcher. It is left to each reader to determine now readily the results and conclusions may be used for consideration of the population(s) or sub-population(s) of youth with which he/she is interested.

Developmental Tasks

- Havighurst's conceptualization of the developmental tasks of youth finds substantial
 acceptance in contemporary rural Alberta; with all nine tasks being perceived as at
 least moderately important.
- 2. The tasks included in this study are indeed temporally developmental in nature with rural youth generally progressively accomplishing more of the tasks as they grow older. Parents have a much stronger perception of this developmental and sequential nature of the tasks than do youth themselves.
- 3. The importance of any developmental task to youth and parents is related to the perceived proximity of the social consequences of accomplishment, with proximate tasks having the greater importance.

4. The overall relative importance of developmental tasks of youth to rural youth and their parents may be summarized as follows:

Most importance

Occupational Preparation
Emotional Autonomy
Marriage/Family Prep.

Intermediate Importance

Social Responsibility
Personal Ideology
Satisfactory Physique
Mature Age Relations
Sex-Role Development

Least Importance

Civic Competence

The expected timing of accomplishment for any developmental task is related to the perceived personal and social immediacy of the effects of its accomplishment, with more immediacy leading to earlier expected accomplishment. Tasks for which accomplishment may not impact on the individual until later in adulthood have later expected accomplishment.

6. The relative perceived timing of accomplishment of developmental tasks of the youth life stage, for rural youth and their parents, may be summarized as follows:

Earliest Timing

Satisfactory Physique
Mature Age Relations
Emotional Autonomy
Personal Ideology

Intermediate Timing

Social Responsibility
Civic Competence
Sex-Role Development
Marriage/Family Prep.

Latest Timing

Occupational Preparation

- 7. Parents see all the tasks as being acomplished somewhat later than do their
- 8. Parents do not link either the timing or the importance of developmental tasks to the sex of their child, while youth themselves perceive some sex-linked differences in task importance. Girls tend to attatch more importance than boys to those tasks involving elements of peer group acceptance and social awareness or participation. Tasks which girls perceive as affecting their social status or success are similarly more highly emphasized by them.
- 9. No socioeconomic correlates other than age and sex of youth are linked to any substantial general trend or pattern of differential perception of developmental tasks by either youth or their parents.

Perceptions of 4-H Programming

- In 4-H programming, members place relatively higher importance on those areas
 dealing with generalized personal development and social interaction. Paranta, on
 the other hand; see the greatest importance in those areas offering direct
 acquisition of skills and knowledge.
- 2. Member-oriented 4-H programming is generally perceived as more important than adult-oriented programming by both members and parents.
- 3. Achievement days and project meetings/workshops are relatively more important than most other 4-H activities and events to members and parents. Provincial members' camps and programs rank hast in importance overall. Generally, then, local club activities are much more important than provincial activities, although no elements of 4-H programming are perceived as anything less than moderately important for both members and parents.
- 4. Both members and parents perceive workshops more important than contests in public speaking programming.
- 5. The type of club or 4-H project in which a member is involved does not affect the member's or his parents' perceptions of the importance of 4-H programming areas or activities.
- 6. Older 4-H members, and more experienced members, along with their parents, generally perceive greater importance in the public speaking program than do younger, less experienced members and their parents.

B. Implications for 4-H and Youth Programming

The following implications, written as recommendations, are directed specifically toward the Alberta 4-H organization. However, in a similar way to the conclusions, generalization of some of these recommendations should be possible to other agencies:

involved in youth or rural youth programming

Implications of Socioeconomic Attributes

- 1. Two major options are available to the 4-H organization to adapt to the age structure of its current clientele;
 - a The existing program should be limited to youth of less than about 15 years of age, or
 - b. Two separate programs should be developed one for 10- to 14-year olds and one for those youth 15 or older. Such programs may generally be sequential in nature, but the latter program should not be restricted to previous participants in the former.
- 2. Two similar options for decision-making arise from the residence location data:
 - a. The 4-H program should be limited to the current large majority of its clientele. farm youth —in which case selected projects may receive greater emphasis and organizational support to appeal directly to this clientele, or
 - b. The 4-H program should continue to diversify its appeal to those youth from acreages and from villages, towns and cities in light of recent population trends (Hornbrook, 1980) which indicate a continued relative decrease in the populations of agricultural areas except those areas in close proximity to urban centres, this second option would seem more conducive to long term viability of the 4-H program. Option 1 would effectively limit the organization to an ever-decreasing potential clientele. Extensive publicity, of both the projects and the program, will be necessary, and such publicity and promotion should extend far beyond the current program clientele for maximum effectiveness.
- 3. The choice of whether or not to actively expand the 4-H program into large population centres depends initially on the outcome of the decision regarding the previous options. If the program is limited to a farm clientele, large centres

obviously do not enter the scene. However, if the diversification option is chosen, potential 4-H clientele may include the entire provincial youth population, or may be restricted to residents of communities with populations below some arbitrary limit. Considerations here include the observations that the existing club-style organization may not be suitable for all sizes of communities, and that the existing public image of 4-H in Alberta remains that of a rural-based organization. Additionally, diversification into very large centres could create a number of highly concentrated, geographically small groups of 4-H clubs and clientele, which could require organizational manpower adjustments. Prior anticipation and preparation for such adjustments is a necessary antecedent for success in any major effort to diversify 4-H into larger population centres.

- The organization should actively seek and support both local-level and organizational-level interaction and cooperation with the school system. Programming should be co-designed to be mutually complementary, and duplication should be avoided. The almost complete inclusion of the 4-H clientele within the school population virtually demands that the 4-H organization solicits the cooperative support of the schools, and offers tremendous, largely untapped, potential for mutual support in terms of staff, materials, programming and promotion.
- 5. The existing 4-H program should be redesigned to offer the maximum benefit to members who remain in the organization for only 3 to 4 years. Rewards for extended membership have largely been inneffective in encouraging the majority of members to remain in the program for any longer than such a period.

In conjunction with the previous recommendation regarding clientele age, the creation of a two-stage 4-H program is strongly supported by the data on membership tenure. Stage One, for members under 15 years of age, would offer intensive, relatively short-term involvement which would benefit those members who would remain with the program for only a few years. Stage Two, for members 15 or older, would allow continued involvement at a higher level of sophistication

for those members wishing to extend their tenure in this type of organization, and could attract new, older youth clientele into the program.

In terms of projects to be offered, again a choice is indicated for future 4-H policy. The data could be seen to justify elimination of the least popular projects and the concentration of 4-H organizational effort into the provision of top quality support and training for those relatively few projects which attract significant membership. These projects are notably some of the more rural farm oriented ones.

The alternative policy is one of diversification, which could be supported through extensive promotional efforts regarding some of the currently less popular projects. Such promotion would have significant effect only if it was directed largely beyond the existing 4-H membership. With a great majority of 4-H members taking only one project, and likely rather dommitted through interest or investment to that one, the potential for diversifying within the existing membership is rather limited. Growth of these other projects will thus have to rely on an influx of new members.

A combination of the preceding two alternative policies forms a viable and attractive third option. Those projects with minimal membership or perceived membership potential would be eliminated (for the moment) from active organizational support, with popular projects retaining existing forms and support services, and the intermediate projects being slated for expansion and given increased promotion and support potential.

Promotion of 4-H as a family program should be extended beyond the existing clientele into new potential clientele population sectors. The entrance of one child into the 4-H program is often followed by entrance of his/her siblings, so promotion and recruitment which reaches youth beyond the current clientele group holds hidden and multiplicative program benefit in terms of membership expansion.

^{8.} Promotional efforts, project support programs, and adult training programs in 4-H

should be designed and implemented in recognition of the somewhat higher educational level of 4-H mothers over fathers. While not every material item or every event need necessarily reflect such a difference, design and implementation staff should remain cognizant of the potential need for variation in the format, vocabulary and presentation of information between items and programs directed to fathers or mothers. Again, it is worth repeating that this educational difference should not be interpreted as a difference in the levels of expertise, knowledge or capability in those matters which impinge on the adults' involvement in 4-H.

Implications of Developmental Task Perceptions

- 9./ 4-H programming should be developed or enhanced which deals with knowledge, skills or attitudes relevant to preparation for job and career, adolescent emotional autonomy and self-sufficiency, and preparation for adult roles in marriage and family life.
- 10. If the development of skills and attitudes conducive to civic competence is retained as one area of emphasis in 4-H programming, substantial effort will need to be directed toward developing in members and parents a sense of the importance of such skills.
- Programming for younger 4-H members should be directed toward physical development, group skills in a heterosexual setting, the development of personal decision-making ability, and the exploration of values and ethics. For older members, the emphasis should shift to the assumption of obligations and extra-personal responsibilities, experimentation and role-taking regarding sexual and social roles, skills for formal group involvement and participation, investigation and discussion of adult family roles, and the gathering of knowledge and experience for future occupational postions.
- 12. Opportunities should be provided, and participation encouraged, for members and their parents to discuss and exchange perceptions regarding the developmental

goals of the members and progress toward reaching those goals. Emphasis on parent-member perceptual disparaties, and the reasons for these, early in any such programs could provide the catalyst for discussions leading to greater understanding of the goals and accomplishments between members and their parents.

Program staff should recognize that female 4-H members are likely to be more interested in and concerned with the social aspects of 4-H events than are male members. Attempts to increase such involvement or force social behavior on the part of the male participants may meet with little success. While opportunities for social interaction, heterosexual or otherwise, should certainly be present in all programming for both male and female members, response to such opportunities should be expected to be greater for females than for males.

Implications of Program Perceptions

- 14. The promotional audience must influence the content of promotion and publicity efforts. For promotion aimed largely toward potential members, content should emphasize those aspects of 4-H which involve group activity, social interaction and generalized personal development. If promotion is aimed toward parents of potential members, more emphasis should be placed on the role of 4-H in skill development and knowledge acquisition, especially in the areas of project training and public speaking.
- 15. Adults and parents in decision-making positions (ie. councils) should be made aware of the possible differences between the perceptions they hold and their members' perceptions of what is important in 4-H programming. The effectiveness of the organization will depend on the development and maintenance of a balance of programming between the skill-oriented activities which appeal to adults, and the socially-oriented activities deemed important by the members.
- 16. For all promotional activity, emphasis should be on member rather than on adult

benefits Promotional effort directed toward existing 4-H families may, however, successfully add some emphasis on adult leadership training.

- 17. Elements of emphasis within the overall 4-H program should be similar for all types of 4-H projects. Individual projects (ie. beef, clothing, woodworking, etc.) do not require differential approaches in terms of the relative prominence of the various aspects and elements of 4-H programming.
- 18. Greater programming directed toward adult leadership training would be well-received by existing 4-H parents, and any such programming should be promoted and publicized directly to the parents rather than through the members.
- 19. Substantial programming effort should be directed toward local level project education and support, and assistance should be offered, maintain or upgrade the quality of 4-H achievement days.
- 20. While existing resource committment to provincial level programs should not necessarily be reduced, it should not assume a position of priority over more localized committment.
- 21. The emphasis within the public speaking and communications element of the overall 4-H program should be on workshops over contests.
- 22. Substantial effort is necessary to generate interest and committment among younger less experienced 4-H members in the public speaking and communications program. Small scale, very localized (ie. district-level) seminars and workshops may be effective in this regard.

C. Concluding Statement

This research study has been intended to provide an initial investigation of the developmental tasks of rural youth in Alberta. It has made use of a previously untested data collection tool which has proven rather useful, although modifications in format have been suggested. The tool — a multi-item, self-administered questionnaire — has produced a data set allowing the developmental tasks of the respondents to be defined and priorized, and has permitted the comparison of like date between youth and their parents. Similarly, correlations between developmental task perceptions and a variety of socioeconomic attributes have been tested and discussed. This general exploration and gathering of data constitutes the core of the research and has met its primary objectives.

The conceptual model for this study, Havighurst's various works on developmental tasks through the life stages, has been tested for validity in the perceptions of the research population. For some of the developmental tasks, specific divisions have appeared, and possible interpretations have been offerred. For others, it has been observed that significant elements of Havighurs's separative population.

From the findings and conclusions regarding the developmental task perceptions and the socioeconomic attributes, along with some very specific data regarding program orientations which were added to the research design, implications for programming in one rural youth organization, Alberta 4–H, have been developed. This constitutes the applied element of the study, which was very important in the initial objectives.

While all of the research objectives have been approached in the study, many of the interpretations have remained esentially tentative. The broad scope of the research, and its somewhat exploratory nature, make detailed investigation and interpretation of many of the findings and relationships impractical or impossible. Much scope for further, more narrowly directed research has been indicated throughout the study. If such research is indeed stimulated through this study, then by one measurement it certainly will be considered successful.

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Appendix I

Goal Statement Responses

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Appendix II

Questionnaires



DEPARTMENT OF RURAL ECONOMY

The University of Alberta Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2H1 Phone: (403) 432-4225



May 11, 1981

Dear 4-H Member:

This package contains two booklets of questions—this one is for you and the other is for one of your parents. Please read this letter and then give the other booklet to one of your parents. (Either parent is o.k.)

The questions are part of a study looking into the goals which are important to young people in Alberta. Your answers are very important. They will help discover directions for future Alberta 4-H programs.

The first section of this poklet has a few questions about your background. These will help me make the best use of the information.

The second section lets you show what your own goals are, and how important they are to you. I do not ask for your name, so please tell me what you really think.

The booklet for one of your parents has almost the same set of questions, to show what he or she feels your goals should be. It is very important that you and your parent fill out your booklets. Please do not fill them out together.

After you and your parent complete the questions, please fold them and return them to me in the envelope provided. Your answers will be of most use to me if you return them to me BEFORE MAY 25, 1981.

Thak you for your help with this study. Your answers will help make the Alberta 4-H program even stronger.

Sincerely,

Brian Maitland

Regional 4-H Specialist (on leave)

poor copy Copie de qualitee inferieuri

4-H Member Survey

	1.	What is your age? years
	2.	What is your sex? (check one) () Male () Female
	3.	Where do you live?
		() Farm () Acreage () Village, Town or City
	4.	What is the name of the Village, Town or City that is in your mailing address? (please print)
,	5.	The 4-H Region in which you live is:
•		(") Lethbridge () Stettler
	•	() Grande Prairie () Calgary
		() Red Deer () Barrhead
		() Vermilion () Don't Know
	6.	Are you a full-time at which
	O .	Are you a full-time student?
		()-Yes () No
		What is the last grade you have completed?
•		() Grade 1 to 6
		() Grade 7 to 9
		() Grade 10 to 12
		() Technical School, College or University
		() Other
	<u>,</u> .	
	/ 	Counting this year, how many years have you been in 4-H?
		years
	8.	The type of 4-H club you are in is:
		() Light Horse () Clothing
		() Dairy () Multi-Project
		() Beef () Other

9. Below are listed some areas of emphasis in 4-H. Beside each one, circle the number that shows how important you feel that area should be in the 4-H program.
The higher the number, the more importance it shows.

	Not Important		***		Very Important
Project Training - members	1 .	2	3	4	· 5
Project Training - adults	1	2	- 3	4	5 "
Public Speaking and Communications - members	1	2	3	4,	5
Public Speaking and Communications – adults	. 1	2	3	A	5
Leadership Training - members	« · · 1	2	3	· 4	5
Leadership Training - adults	1	2	3 .	4	5
Citizenship Training	1	2	3	4	5
Social Experience	1	2	3	4	5,
Other:	1	. 2		4	5
Other:	1 .	2	3	4	, 5

10. Below are listed some events and activities in 4-H. Beside each one, circle the number that shows how important you feel t should be in the 4-H program. The higher the number, the more importance it shows.

	Not Important	•		Very Important
Project Meetings and Workshops	1 2	, 3	4	5
Tours	1 2	3	4	5
Achievement Days	1 . 2	3	4	5
Public Speaking Workshops	1 2	3	4 2	5 °
Public Speaking Contests	1 . 2	,· 3	4	5
Exchanges	1 2	3	4	5
Social Events	1 2	3 、	4	5
Regional Summer Camps	1 (2	3	54	5
Frovincial Members' Camps and Workshops	, 1 2	3	. 4	4 •5
Leader's Workshops	1 2	- 3	4	5
Other:		3_	4	5
Other:	_ 1 2	3	4	5

In COLUMN B, circle the number that shows how important you feel that goal is to you The HIGHER THE NUMBER, the MORE IMPORTANCE it shows. VERY Instructions. On thechext few pages, each statement on the left is a goal you might have now, or sometime in the past or Ô HOW IMPORTANT IS THIS GOAL? woman I wish to become (This shows it is only a little important for you to know what kind of man or woman you wish to become, and that you feel COLUMN B (This shows it is a very important goal to have a body which pleases you within the next two years) $\overline{\mathfrak{Q}}$ In COLUMN A, circle the number that shows when you feel you will reach this goal SLIGHTI_Y IMPORTANT PTER 2 <u></u> I WILL REACH THIS GOAL. COLUMIN A REACHED WITHIN THIS 2 YEARS This part should be fun to do and quick to fill out. If it is NOT A GOAL for you, check COLUMN C. you will reach this goal after more than two years) future. Read each statement, and then: 1. To have a body which pleases me 2. To know what kind of man or YOUR GOALS GOAL STATEMENTS If it IS a goal:

١

NOT A GOAL

COLUMN C

(This shows that you have already reached the goal of joining a group of friends, and that this goal was quite important to you). 3 € 3. To join a close group of friends about my own age

Colonius WTA Google				: T					200	
GOAL? VERY NVESTAME	9	9	, d	(sec	å u	SC .	2	o di	က	ហ
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Solve Strangers	L. To have a body which pleases	2 To brow what kind of man or woman's Woman's Wash to become	3. To join a close group offs. friends about my outsigned.	A. Not to be dependent on my parents for most theta in my ITE	5. To learn about jobs and kinds of work i may be able to do	6. To enjoy being a part of my tarrily	7. To decide what is right and what is wrong for the way-want to be	S. To learn to set in a way that will blasse both me and those fround me	E To learn about the way my country works	101 To Nave steme skill in sports and active games

SLIGHTLY INPORTANT IS SLIGHTLY IN 2 3 3 1 1 2 2 3 1 2 2 3 1 1 2 2 3	COLLIMIN B HOW IMPORTANT IS THIS GOAL? 2 3 4 2 3 4 2 3 4 2 3 4
	이 사용 교통하는 것 때 선생님들은 하시스로 살아왔는데 살아 되었다면 하는 경우 요구를 하는 것은 이미를 하는 것도록

		T.W.H.	COLUMN A				COLUMN B			COLUMN	ဗ
્રે	GOAL STATEMENTS	REACHET THIS GOAL	REACHED WITHIN THIS COAL GOAL	AFTER 2 YEARS	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT		HOW IMPORTANT IS THIS GOAL.	THIS GOA	LZ VERY IMPORTANT	NOT A GOAL	d
a.	To learn to make most of the decisions to run my life		0		•		'n	4	S		
60°	To find out what kinds of work I would like to do and I am able to do								o.		
4.	To be pleased in loving and being loved by someone		٧,	O		7	'n		IS.		
25.	To help others around me		,	m.		. N	C	7	гd		
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27	To love, and be loved		~	~		7	· · ·	4	10		
7 8	To learn to respect adults and have them respect me		7			~	o		ß		
29.	To learn how to get a job		7	en en		N	m.	4	Ŋ		
Ö.	To decide when to finish my education, when to marry, when to do other tasks of a young adult		2	m,		7	0	**************************************	ß		20
e m	To do things that will help my country, my town or my home		~	e.		Ŋ	, m		S		18

	JOS COL	COLUMN A		COLUMN B		COLUMNIC
	I WILL REACH THIS GOAL	THIS GOAL.	NOH	HOW IMPORTANT IS THIS GOAL?	IS GOAL?	NOT A GOAL
GOAL STATEMENTS /	REACHED WITHIN THIS 2 YEARS GOAL	HIIN AFTER 2 ARS YEARS	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT		VERY IMPORTANT	
32. To learn how to help people get along with each other				2	a a	
33. To learn to work together with other people my own age		6		9	'n	
34. To work in some jobs I might choose as a career	7				r L	
35. To help others do what they really want to do with their lives	7	.0		3	A Q	
36. To learn how to solve problems in a group of people my own age		8		3	ŭ.	
37. To help other people even if it does not help me	X	, n		o	Ą Ķ	
38. To do all the things which will keep my body healthy	7	•		o	e.	2
39. To learn what actions are accepted for a boy or a girl	2				(4	
40. To be at ease when I am on a date				Ö	6	2
41. To learn how to do the job!				Ò	•	09

	COLUMN A	COLUMINB	ŏ	COLUMN C
	I WILL REACH THIS GOAL	HOW IMPORTANT IS THIS GOAL?		NOT A GOAL
GOAL STATEMENTS .	REACHED WITHIN AFTER 2 THIS 2 YEARS YEARS GOAL	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT	/ERY PORTANT	
42 To enjoy helping others in my family	2	2 * 3	.	
Thank You for completing the questions				
Please put this booklet, and the one filled out by one of y Mail it back to me BEFORE MAY, 25, 1981.	led out by one of your parents, into the 981.	your parents, into the envelope provided		

Brian Maitland
Department of Rural Economy
Room 5 15
General Services Building
University of Alberta

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL ECONOMY

The University of Alberta Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2H1 Phone: (403) 432-4225



May 11, 1981

Dear 4-H Parent

The enclosed questionnaires are part of a study investigating the goals 4-H members and their parents feel are important for youth. Your response, and your child's, are very important, as the will be used to discover some future directions for the Alberta 4-H program.

This study is being conducted as part of a Master's Thesis at the University of Alberta I am completing a program in Rural Sociology while on leave from the 4-H Branch of Alberta Agriculture, with whom I was Regional 4-H Specialist in Vermilion for 3 1/2 years.

There are two questionnaires enclosed—one for you and one for your child in 4-H, to whom this package was addressed. Each copy has 2 sections—one containing background questions and one asking about your child's personal goals. Please feel free to glance through both copies before your child completes his/hers. You can assist me by making sure your child understands the instructions and the questions, but I ask that you and he/she complete the questionnaires separately. I want to be sure that each parent and child indicates his/her own personal feelings. Of course, you may wish to discuss the questions after the two copies have been completed and eturned in the stamped envelope provided. Please mail the completed questionnaires back to me BEFORE MAY 25, 1981.

Please indicate what you really think in each question. I do not ask for your name or any other kind of identification, to ensure confidentiality.

Thank you for being involved in this study. Your time should be well-rewarded with an even stronger 4-H program in Alberta.

Sincerely,

Brian Maitland

Regional 4-H Specialist (on leave)

4-H Parent Survey

I. BA	ACKGI	ROUND	QUEST	FIONS

1.	How many children are in your family? children	
2.	What is your sex? (check one) () Male () Female	
3.	In this family:	
· •	() Both parents are present	
	() Only the mother is present	
	() Only the father is present	
	() Other:	

4. In this family, the highest level of education reached by each parent is:

	Father (If Present)	Mother (If Present)
No formal schooling		
Grades 1 - 6	()	(*)
Grades 7 - 9	()	
Grades 10 - 12		
* Technical/vocational college		()
University		()
Other		

5. Below are listed some areas of emphasis in 4-H. Beside each one, circle the number that shows how important you feel that area should be in the 4-H program.

The higher the number, the more importance it shows.

	İn	Not portant				Very Important
Project Training - members		۾ 1	2	3	4	• 5
Project Training - adults	: :	1	2	3	4	5
Public Speaking and Communications – members		1	2	3	4	5
Public Speaking and Communications – adults		1	,2		4	5
Leadership Training - members		1	2	3	4	5
Leadership Training - adults		1	2	3	4	5
Citizenship Training		1.	2	3	4	5
Social Experience	,	1 .	2	3	4	5
Other:	`~!\\ .	1	2	3	4.	5
		1	2'	3	4 .	5
				*		*

6. Below are listed some events and activities in 4-H. Beside each one, circle the number that shows how important you feel it should be in the 4-H program.

The higher the number, the more importance it shows.

	Not Important	•			Very Important
Project Meetings and Workshops	1	2	3	4 .	5
Tours	1	2	3	4.	5
Achievement Days	1	2	34	4	5
Public Speaking Workshops	1	2	3	4.	5
Public Speaking Contests	1	2	3	4	5 ,
Exchanges	1.	2	3	4	5
Social Events	i	2	3	4	5
Regional Summer Camps	1	2	3	4	5
Provincial Members' Camps and Workshops	1	2 .	3	4	5
Leader's Workshops	1	2	3	4	5
Other:	1	2	3	4	.5
Other:	1	2	3	4	5

YOUR CHILD'S GOALS
This part should be easy and quick to fill out.

Instructions. On the next few pages, each statement on the left is a goal your child should perhaps have now, or sometime in the past or future. Read each statement, and then:

- If it is NOT A GOAL you feel your child should have, check COLUMN C.
- If it IS a goal:
- In COLUMN A, circle the number that shows when you feel your child will reach this goal.
- In COLUMN B, circle the number that shows how important you feel that goal should be for your child. The HIGHER THE NUMBER, the MORE IMPORTANCE it shows.

NOT A GOAL COLUMN C MPORTANT 3 HOW IMPORTANT IS THIS GOAL? (This shows you feel it is a very important goal to have a body which pleases him/her within the next two years) COLUMN B MPORTANT WILL REACH THIS GOAL: COLUMN A REACHED WITHIN THIS 2 YEARS GOAL 1. To have a body which pleases GOAL STATEMENTS * * * EXAMPLES *

<u></u> 2. To know what kind of man or woman he/she wishes to become

Ithis shows you feel it is only a little important for helshe to know what kind of man or woman helshe wishes to become, and that you feel helshe will reach this goal after more than two years. 3. To join a close group of friends (1) 2 3 (4) 5 (1) about his/her own age (This shows that you feel this goal was quite important).

	COLUMN A	COLUMN A				COLUMN B	<u>)</u>		COLUMN
GOAL STATEMENTS	REACHED WITHIN THIS 2 YEARS GOAL	5	AFTER 2 YEARS	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT		2		VERY PORTANT	A LON
To have a body which pleases	**	2	ຕື		8	m	4	മ	-
To know what kind of man or woman he/she wishes to become		' N	o		~	m	4	າ ເພື່ອ ເຂົ້າ ເຂົາ ເພື່ອ	2
To join a close group of friends about his/her own age		8	° 😙		8	m	4	മ	•
Not to be dependent on his/her parents for most things in his/her life	-	8	m		8		4	മ	
To learn about jobs and kinds of work he/she may be able to do	.	N	m		8	"	4	വ	.
To enjoy being a part of his/her family	5	_ ~~	ю		8	m	4 .	ശ	N .
To decide what is right and what is wrong for the way he/she wants to be		7	m	-	~	"	4	ശ	.
To learn to act in a way that will please both him/her and those around him/her		⁷ V	m		8	m	•	ស. •	
To learn about the way his/her country works		8	M		8	m	4	.	215

			COLUMN A			•	COLUMN B	(a	• • •	COLUMN	ပ Z
7 05	GOAL STATEMENTS	WILL REAC REACHED THIS GOAL	WITHIN YEARS	OAL AFTER 2 YEARS	HC SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT	HOW IN	M PORTANI	HOW IMPORTANT IS THIS GOAL?	JAL? VERY IMPORTANT		30AL
	To learn what he/she has to do to become the man or woman he/she wants	_	8	٠ <u>٠</u>		~	m	4	വ		
7	To make friends with both boys and girls	•••	8	m	5	8	ന	4	ហ		
<u></u>	To like his/her parents		7	'n	· . • · .	7	ო	4	ď	0	
<u> 7</u>	To choose a kind of work he/she gan do and he/she would like		N	m	.	8	m	4	ഹ	:	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
<u>κ</u>	To learn about getting married, having a home, and family life	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	8	m m	-	N	m	4	Ŋ	.	
ල .	To learn what others think is right and wrong		8	ო	,	N	w,	4	ហ		
2	To decide what he/she wants to do with his/her life and how he/she is going to do it		N	ო <i>'</i>	, - ,	7	m	4	ហ	•	
89	To learn what people need	} -	8	m	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	N	്ന	4	വ	.	
0	To learn how to take care of his/her body		7	m	-	%	ო	4	വ	-	216
20.	To learn what actions are accepted for a man or a woman	<u>-</u>	'N	m		7	က	4	យ	<u> </u>	

•	•	•
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34. To work in some jobs he/she might choose as a career	7	m	*		e .	ليوه	•	
35. To help others do what they really want to do with their lives	7	ო	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	7	8	Cars		
36. To learn how to solve problems in a group of people his/her own age	~	m		2	4	ιΩ	C	
37. To help other people even if it does not help him/her	1 2	က		7	6 4	ω \		
38. To do all the things which will keep his/her body healthy	2	ന		2	ю 4	(D	3	
39. To learn what actions are accepted for a boy or a girl	2	m	· ·	7	۵ 4	ഹ	218	*
40. To be at ease when he/she is on a date	. 2	m	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	7	ى 4	ហ		· .

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41. To learn how to do the job he/she chooses	1 2 3	1 2 3 4	2
42. To enjoy helping others in his/her family	1 2 3	1 . 2 . 3	5

Thank You for completing the questions.

Please put this booklet, and the one filled out by your child, into the envelope provided. Mail it back to me BEFORE MAY 25, 1981.

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Brian Maitland
Department of Rural Economy
Room 515
General Services Building
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta

Appendix III Follow - Up Letter

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL ECONOMY

The University of Alberta Edmonton, Alberta ToG 2H1 Phone: (403) 432-4225



Dear 4-H Family:

In the package weeks you should have received a survey package for a study on the goals of rural Alberta youth. This package contained two questionnaires—one for a 4-H member and one for a parent—as well as a stamped return envelope.

If you have not already done so, I urge you to complete the questionnaires and return them to me in the envelope provided. Although I first asked you to respond before May 25, 1981, it is still not too late. Because your response is important, I will continue to include in the study all questionnaires returned to me before June 8th, 1981. Please respond as soon as possible to make sure you have a part in discovering directions for future Alberta 4-H programs.

If you did not receive the initial package, please contact me at the address above. I'll see that you get one as soon as possible.

You may have already completed the questionnaires and returned them to me. If so, I thank you for your interest and attention. Your efforts will help to make the Alberta 4-H program even stronger in the future.

Sincerely,

Brian Maitland

Regional 4-H Specialist

(on leave)

BM/ww