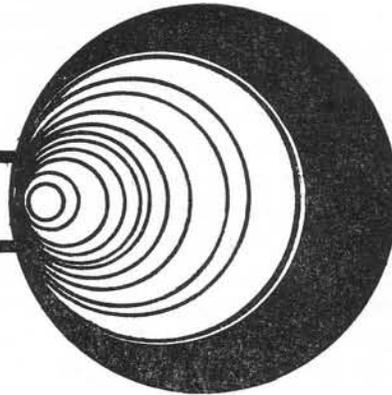


## Research in Brief



*Planning and Organizing Programmes in Adult Education.* Berry H. Durston, ed. Armidale, New South Wales: New England University, 1969. [Order number: ED 042 997. Price: MF 65¢, HC \$3.29.]\*

These papers cover planning, organization, and administration of programs conducted by the Department of University Extension of the University of New England in New South Wales. They're concerned primarily with rural extension. The first paper reviews elements of program planning and program implementation. The second evaluates an extension program by applying a model of the program planning process developed by Patrick Boyle.

Papers three and four describe in detail the planning and organizing of nonresidential and residential schools for adults, with emphasis on the challenge these techniques hold for the adult educator.

The fifth paper is a reappraisal of the place of the arts in the educa-

tion of adults. The sixth paper stresses the importance of thorough program planning and draws some implications of the present monograph for the adult educator.

J. P. Leagans

*A Rationale and Role for Independent Study in Higher Education.* William Joseph Driscoll. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, 1970. [Available from: University Microfilms, 300 N. Zeeb Rd., Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106. Order number: 70-11,719. Price: MF \$3.00, Xerox \$7.60.]

This study focused on developing a rationale for special degree programs to improve access to higher education, and on determining a role for such programs. In an effort to learn if restrictive limitations exist in degree programs, information was obtained from the bulletin of the institution in each state that enrolled the largest number of part-time students. A review

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This section is prepared by the editors in cooperation with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education.

was also made of past institutional response to the needs of part-time students through extension and evening divisions.

Next came an examination of innovative programs for part-time students in the United States and in the Soviet Union, South Africa, and Great Britain. Finally, a three-point rationale using the economic, philosophical, and education bases of an independent study degree program was constructed, and a program outline suggested.

It was recommended that institutions eliminate administrative and academic restrictions that discriminate against part-time students ( $\frac{1}{3}$  of the total student population), and that independent study programs be created for students who either can't be accommodated in existing degree programs or can't commit themselves to full-time study.

J. P. Leagans

"Communication Fidelity Between Farm Management Technicians and Rice Farmers in the Philippines." Tito E. Contado. Ph.D. dissertation, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, 1969.

What is the fidelity of communication between Extension agents and their clients? What factors are associated with different levels of communication fidelity when Extension agents are the source and their clients the receivers? These were major questions this research was designed to answer.

The study was conducted in the Philippines, on the island of Leyte. Respondents consisted of a carefully selected sample including 40 farm management technicians (FMT) and 240 male rice farmers (clients). Data were collected through personal interviews using a structured schedule.

The theoretical foundation of the study is a twofold proposition that communication fidelity is primarily determined by: (1) the behavior of the communicator and his audience during the communication act and (2) the nature of the social-psychological climate developed in the process. On this basis, selected perceptual variables related to interpersonal relations were investigated in relation to communication fidelity. Operationally, fidelity of communication was viewed as the ratio of the accountable communication responses (decoded messages) to the communication input (encoded messages) and represented by the equation:

$$\text{Fidelity (F)} = \frac{\text{decoded messages}}{\text{encoded messages}}$$

The FMTs' communication input was measured against a farmers' response index in each of 13 operational units in rice production:

1. Fertilizing rice.
2. Pest and disease control.
3. Land preparation.
4. Care of seedlings.
5. Irrigation and drainage.
6. Planting rice seedlings.
7. Rice varieties.

8. Seed treatment.
9. Seed selection.
10. Seedbed preparation.
11. Weed control.
12. Harvesting.
13. Soil treatment.

Distinction was made between the fidelity of technical information flowing to farmers indiscriminately from various sources of mass communication and that coming directly from FMTs; the first was called "gross fidelity" and the second "net fidelity." The net fidelity median (44%) was used to classify FMTs into high and low fidelity groups.

Through multiple regression analyses the data indicated that about 74 percent of the variations in communication fidelity between the FMTs and rice farmers can be accounted for by 5 qualitative variables out of 25 that were investigated: (1) level of communication performance of the FMT as perceived by farmers, (2) motivation of farmers to seek information and learn new practices, (3) expectation fulfillment by the FMT as perceived by farmers, (4) FMTs education (years of school completed), and (5) FMTs technical competence.

Although each of these variables is critical, the importance of the FMT as a communicator predominates (his communication performance accounted for about 48% of the variations in communication fidelity). His education, technical competence, and communication skills correlated positively with communication fidelity; thus, they're

primary factors that help him perform at an effective level. No particular biographical variable was found to be significantly associated with communication fidelity.

Since FMTs communicate with farmers both directly and indirectly, gross fidelity can be a major indicator of the extent of their success as extension agents. The decoding skill of receivers as a critical variable related to communication fidelity was confirmed, as was motivation of farmers to learn about and try new practices and actual involvement of farmers in seeking new information. In addition, positive perceptual variables related to interpersonal relations, such as congruent expectations and expectation fulfillment, were found to be critical to effective communication. For example, as the congruency of farmers' expectations and FMTs' perceptions of such expectations increased, communication fidelity increased. Success of the communication process, therefore, isn't dependent only on the communicator and the communication receiver, but on a favorable perceptual social-psychological climate.

Since communication fidelity is a product of a complex set of components, interrelated in a "right" combination, and isn't a product of one component exclusively, there's no single solution to the problem of communicating technical know-how to farmers at high fidelity levels. No matter how much education, technical knowledge, and skill the FMT has, his efforts to achieve effective communication of agricultural

technology won't be successful when he deals with farmers who don't have the motivation to learn new practices, or the communication ability necessary to understand the messages received.

Conversely, although farmers may be motivated to learn about new practices and able to understand related information, if the FMT doesn't have the educational level and technical competence necessary to make him a reliable source of assistance, effective communication won't be achieved. Furthermore, when these two essential conditions are present, but the social-psychological climate isn't satisfactory to farmers, effective communication won't be achieved.

Use of the concept "communication fidelity" as a measure of communication effectiveness of extension educators offers at least three important values: (1) focus on the concept helps develop a deeper understanding and consciousness of the role of this central element of communication in the extension educational process; (2) as an index of the agents' communication efficiency, fidelity appears to be central; and (3) as a research focus, communication fidelity, treated as a dependent variable, is highly promising for much wider investigation than was possible in this study.

J. P. Leagans

*The Agricultural Ladder After Nine Years.* Helen C. Abell. Waterloo, Ontario: University

of Waterloo, School of Urban and Regional Planning, 1971.

### Summary

The traditional goal of perpetuating the family farm by youth becoming independent farm operators has been replaced for most youth in favor of self-selected occupations within the nonfarm sector of the economy.

However, about 40 percent of the adult sons of a sample of Ontario farm families, studied first in 1959 and again in 1968, were reported at the first time-period as being occupied either full-time in farming or in a combination of farming and nonfarm work. Most of these (about 4 out of 5) were reported as not expecting to make any future occupational changes.

These farmers' sons, whose age and educational level in 1959 averaged 29 years and 9.2 grades, were involved in the process of fulfilling the traditional expectations and ideal of achieving the status of self-employed farmers as they climbed the so-called "agricultural ladder."

This report focuses on these "farming sons" in terms of their retention or movement "up," "down," or "off" this ladder over the nine-year period.

Conceptually the top or first rung of this hypothetical ladder represents the desired status of self-employed farm operator, the second rung represents the status of paid farm worker, the third rung is characterized by farming in combination

with nonfarm employment, and the fourth or beginning rung is that of unpaid worker on the family farm where the father is in charge.

Based on this concept of fulfilling role expectations by progression up the ladder, the empirical data provided clear evidence that the concept had been internalized by the 64 men whose occupational status was traced over the 9-year period. Specifically, the proportion of men at the top rung (self-employed farmers) had increased; there was a decrease in the proportion at the third and second rungs and complete movement from the beginning one. For one-sixth of the men, some at each rung of the ladder in 1959, the years had brought them out of agriculture and into nonfarm occupations.

As anticipated, in view of the underlying theory, retention ratios were greatest at the top rung (85 of 100) and progressively lower at each of the others—29 of 100 at the second rung, 14 of 100 at the third rung, and nil at the beginning rung.

Thus, slightly more than half (55%) made no occupational change over the 9 years and as expected this stability was concentrated among those who were at the top rung in 1959 (45%), with some (8%) at the second rung, a few (2%) at the third, and none at the fourth.

For those who made an occupational change, it was those formerly at the fourth and third rungs who tended to achieve the desired goal of self-employed farmer. For

those formerly at the second rung, the shift into nonfarm occupations was the predominant change. Those at the top rung tended to remain. However, a few shifted to the third rung by taking on nonfarm employment in addition to their farming occupation, even fewer left for nonfarm employment per se, and none moved into the status of becoming paid farm workers.

Age doesn't correlate directly with position on nor with progression up each rung of the agriculture ladder. Those on the beginning rung were younger (average 19) and those at the top rung were older (average 33) than the average of 29 years. However, the average for rung two was 24 and for rung three was 30. After 9 years, the average age (reported for 1959 to enable comparison) of those who retained their earlier positions on the ladder was 32 years, for those who progressed "up" 27, for those who went "down" 33, and for those who left agriculture for nonfarm occupations it was 21 years.

While, in general, the older sons remained on the agricultural ladder and the younger ones more often left, another factor, involving the continuation, transition, or replacement of the parental farm family, had a profound effect on the occupational status of these farmers' sons.

It was only among the continuing farm families that the proportion of self-employed farmers had increased over the nine years. The proportion was unchanged for the

transitional families and decreased for the replaced families.

This phenomenon wasn't due to cessation of self-employed farm operation by sons of each family category, but rather to the finding that proportionately more of the sons of both the replaced and the transitional families either went "down" or left the agricultural ladder during the nine-year interval.

### Implications

Several implications arise from this examination of the agricultural ladder as it operated during the 1960s.

First, government action to assist the withdrawal of farm families from agriculture through Farm Consolidation and similar ARDA programs would seem to be an effective inhibitor of future entry into farming by sons of the affected families.

This would seem to be explicit in the finding that upward mobility on the agricultural ladder was characteristic only of adult sons whose parental families remained on their farms (continuing farm families).

Concomitantly, support is given for broadening the scope of Extension offerings to rural boys and men to include education and training of a nonfarm as well as of the traditional farm type.

Secondly, continuing differentials in farm and nonfarm wages and other benefits will make it increasingly difficult to hire and retain experienced farm workers for large-scale, commercial farms.

This is explicit in the finding that proportionately more paid farm workers than self-employed farmers, men combining farming with nonfarm jobs, or unpaid family workers left agriculture for nonfarm employment during the study period.

The need for improvements in farm wages and benefits (such as unemployment insurance, etc.) hasn't been expressed by the workers themselves, by the farm employers, or by farm organizations. However, it's extremely unlikely that this important aspect of agriculture can be neglected indefinitely.

Thirdly, the ideology of the Ontario farmer as a self-employed, "independent" individual persists and operates to restrict movement into the status of farm employee. This was evidenced by the finding that of the few self-employed farm operators who made any change in occupation during the nine-year period, none chose this alternative.

V. McGaugh

"The Study of Some Selected Factors Which Influence the Clothing Buying Patterns of the Teen-Age Boy." Phyllis A. Hockman. Master's thesis, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, 1968.

A study was made of clothing buying habits of 156 boys in 11th grade in a north central rural county of Virginia. The purposes were to determine: who makes the purchases, the source of money used, and the influence of various factors on the selection (mass media, em-

ployment status of mother, shopping companion, number of siblings, and selected individuals such as peer groups).

Data gathered by questionnaire showed that boys bought the majority of their clothing and most of it in a department store. Most of clothing money came from parents, but 20 percent had been earned on part-time jobs. The main source of ideas was obtained by observation of clothes worn by friends; mothers' opinions were second. Boys wanted a shopping companion part of the time, a boy friend or their mother . . . no advice was wanted from a girl friend or father. When buying a shirt, they felt style was more important than color; price more important than store or brand name; and fit was important.

V. McGaugh

"A Comparison of Reputational Techniques for Studying Community Leaders." Carlton R. Sollie. *Rural Sociology*, XXI (September, 1966), 301-309.

When you're trying to identify the leaders in a community, what's best to do: (1) see who has the *reputation* of being a leader or (2) find out what *issues* have been raised in the community and who had a hand in deciding what to do about them? Social scientists have used both methods. Each has its limitations.

But for rural areas, a study by Sollie indicates a fairly simple reputational method may work well.

**Research in Brief**

### Study in Brief

The "issues" approach to identifying community leaders is time-consuming. Also, it turns up only those leaders whose behavior is visible in relation to an issue or event. And it makes a difference when you ask people about the issue and its leaders—you may be too early to identify all of them, or too late for people to remember them.

The main argument against the "reputational" method is that it may leave out an appreciable number of the leaders. Proponents of this argument point to other research findings of people in power positions in communities who aren't generally recognized by the majority of people there as being influential. Sollie felt that this was a negligible danger in small communities. On this assumption, he checked out 4 common reputational methods of identifying community leaders in a Southern rural area involving 33 neighborhoods:

1. *Asking a Panel of Knowledgeable People*. He chose people whose jobs put them in contact with a lot of people or helped them know about a lot of people—a former county agent, manager of the local ASCS office, and a special Extension watershed agent. They were asked to name at least one community leader for each of the 33 neighborhoods. Their combined lists named 40 people.

2. *Asking Identified Community Leaders.* Sollie then went to the 40 people named by the expert panel. He asked them to name persons in their neighborhoods to whom people generally looked for leadership. He got 81 names this time.
3. *Asking People at Random in the Community.* He simply went into the watershed area and started asking anyone he could who the leaders were. Anyone whose name was mentioned five times or more, he arbitrarily took as a "leader." This way he got 42 "leaders" out of the 188 named.
4. *Randomly Sampling the Population of the Area.* This consisted of 294 interviews of household heads—about one-fifth of the area population. He asked two questions: (a) best person for advice on homemaking and/or farming and (b) best person to get local people to do something about bettering the community. This turned up 700 names. Again taking those mentioned 5 times or more, he got 89 "leaders."

Combining the four lists, he came up with 114 "leaders" out of the 1,000 named. Twelve were on all four lists, 36 on three, 30 on two, and 36 on one only. Every name on the final list from Method 3—asking people at random (he calls this the

"snowball" technique)—also appeared on one or more of the other three lists.

### Implications

Although Sollie is careful to point out that this isn't the last word on how valid Method 3 results are, he says these results look promising. This simpler technique may be just as valid as the more complicated reputational techniques. It's a technique that Extension personnel would find easy to use.

Sollie doesn't tell us how many people he interviewed using Method 3. This leaves us with a question: "How many is enough?" That's where your judgment must come in. When your interviews don't produce new names—or rarely do—maybe that's enough. Sollie cites a study by Merton, where Merton interviewed 86 informants to find influentials in a town of 11,000.

Method 3 ought to be a good one for a new agent moving into a job. It'll get him out meeting and talking with people, as well as learning the names of the influential people in the community. This might be good for the more established agent to do once in awhile, too! Things are changing fast these days—including the power structures of communities.

At the same time, it wouldn't hurt to check your findings when you can by one of the other methods—the panel of knowledgeable people, for example. Actually, the agreement among the four methods

Sollie used was quite high. So any of them could be used and would be helpful.

Remember: Sollie was working in a rural area. You may need different methods to find leaders in a large city. It's possible that no single reputational method—or even all Sollie used—would be satisfactory as a single way of getting at the more complex leadership patterns in the urban community.

M. Miller, L. Cushman,  
and J. Elliott

*Evaluation of Learning 100: An Adult Basic Education Project in Bedford-Stuyvesant, 1967-68.* Elaine Scheier and Donald R. Senter. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc., 1969. [Order number: ED 044 551. Price: MF 65¢, HC \$3.29.]\*

Compared Learning 100 (L-100) with a conventional reading program. L-100 was a multimedia, multimodal, multilevel communication skills system. It was designed for use with undereducated adults, out-of-school youth, and potential dropouts. There were 49 in the experimental group and 47 in the control. The L-100 students achieved significantly higher reading achievements than the control group. The program can be taught by teachers with little previous experience in educational technology. Also, student interest and motivation were maintained during the learning. And, students showed

positive changes in attitude toward learning to read.

M. Miller

*Youth and the Establishment: A Report on Research for John D. Rockefeller, III, and the Task Force on Youth.* Daniel Yankelovich, Inc. New York, New York: John D. Rockefeller, III, Fund, Inc., 1971. [Available from: The JDR, III, Fund, Inc., 50 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, New York 10020. Price: Not given.]

How big is the generation gap? Can it be bridged? If so, what are the conditions?

These questions and others were undertaken by a task force on youth established by John D. Rockefeller, III, to: (1) determine through research if a basis exists for a working relationship between campus youth and established business leadership, (2) develop guidelines for a working relationship, and (3) formulate specific projects for collaboration.

One member of the task force was Daniel Yankelovich, president of Daniel Yankelovich, Inc., a commercial survey research firm. Two significant researches by this firm were used as background for the work of the task force. The first was a study undertaken in 1968 for *Fortune* magazine and reported in the January, 1969, issue under the title, "A Special Kind of Rebellion." The second was a 1969 study for CBS News as background for a 3-part television program entitled, "Gen-

erations Apart.”

An item of particular significance from the background studies is the identification of two types of youth on American campuses. The first are the “career-minded,” representing 56 percent of the college population. These students attend college for its practical advantage, to improve their life style. They want to earn more money, have a successful career, and enjoy a better position in society.

The second and emerging type are catalogued as “forerunners,” representing 44 percent of the college population. Students in this category take the practical advantages of attending college for granted. For them, college means an opportunity to make a difference; to make a contribution to changing things for the better. These are the young people most concerned with social change and most willing to make a commitment to projects that contribute to change. The forerunner group symbolized a whole new set of value priorities, beliefs, and attitudes that are associated with the college rebellion.

The forerunners are the group of major concern and emphasis in the work of the task force on youth. The reason is that the alienation from “the system” is greatest among this group. If ways could be found to bring together the forerunners and the business establishment, then, the task force could report a successful bridging of the gap.

The task force undertook research of its own to identify a basis

for a working relationship between youth and the business establishment.

### Research Parameters

The two research methods used were structured surveys and free-form, in-depth interviews. Two samples were drawn from stratified national samples of the population.

The college sample was drawn from all campuses in the country and was stratified by geographic region, by public or private type, and by size (over and under 10,000 students). Thirty-five campuses were selected based on the probability proportionate to current enrollment. Students were systematically selected at each campus from lists of students in various disciplines and classes. A total of 872 students were interviewed.

The business sample was heavily weighted toward larger corporations. Two hundred and seventy-five of the 408 business executives were chief executives selected from *Fortune's* list of the nation's largest industrial firms plus *Fortune's* list of 250 largest banks, insurance companies, transportation, utilities, and retailers. The other 133 executives were drawn from a sectional listing of business firms and representing management at a level below the chief executive.

### Basis for Collaboration

The research findings reported below describe the forces working in

favor of a youth-establishment coalition. Obstacles to collaboration are reported in the following section.

A basis for collaboration is found in the following conditions:

1. Among students, both career-minded and forerunners, and business leaders there exists a common core of priorities and issues of concern—poverty, racism, pollution, overpopulation, and drug abuse.
2. Business leaders overwhelmingly support the idea of working with college youth on projects to bring about social change.
3. Young people are far more conflicted in their orientation toward working with business leaders. They're concerned about the motives of business leaders for a collaborative effort. Despite their misgivings, a majority are willing to give collaboration a try. There's a three to one preference among students for working with the establishment over protest groups.
4. There's far less student backlash among business leaders as a group than in the general population. (This finding may seem illogical until one recognizes that the forerunners are likely to be sons and daughters of these affluent business leaders—see *Fortune*, January, 1969.) The business leaders appear to have an enormous, frustrated desire to enter into dialogue with these college youths.
5. A vast majority of college students (68%) and 6 out of 10 forerunners, believe that the system is flexible enough to solve problems and overcome flaws without radical change. A similar majority resist identifying themselves with the political left and believe that violence is unjustifiable.
6. The main commitment for any collaborative effort will likely come from the forerunner group. There's an 80-100 percent chance of their devoting at least 6 months of their lives to meaningful, collaborative projects.
7. Three out of four business leaders indicate a willingness to work on almost any collaborative project. Two out of three state they're willing to help sponsor and devote their personal time to collaborative projects.
8. Four projects were identified as mutually acceptable—University Consortium, Extending Nader's Raiders, helping elect candidates to political office, and Dialogue Week.

#### Obstacles to Collaboration

Although there appears to be a basis for collaboration between youth and the business establishment, there are many obstacles to such a union. Generally, these obstacles may be expressed as:

1. Differences in expectations with which businessmen and youth approach collaboration. Young people want "action" and "results"; businessmen want "improved communication."
2. Suspicion on the part of students toward the motives of businessmen.
3. Businessmen's weariness of student immaturity and radicalism.

More specifically, the obstacle is the current student attitude of mistrust, alienation, anger, and radicalism. This attitude is most typical of the forerunner group. Among the attributes associated with this attitude are:

1. Less acceptance of all forms of restraints and prohibitions.
2. Almost every major institution in our country has been held up for reexamination and, for the most part, found wanting.
3. Serious and widespread concerns about the viability of the two-party system.
4. Widespread and growing doubts about the motives of business.
5. Increasing concern with "racism," unequal distribution of wealth, and soundness of economic structure of society.
6. Characterization of the Vietnam conflict as an imperialist war. (This feeling more than doubled among the forerunners during a single year—from 22% in 1969 to 50% in 1970.)

7. A growing resistance to fighting a war for the purpose of containing communists, maintaining our position of power in the world, or fighting for our honor.
8. A majority of all students, career-minded as well as forerunners, believe that Black Panthers, radicals, and hippies can't be assured of a fair trial in the United States. This notion is sharpened by their view that their personal values aren't shared by most Americans.
9. Two out of three believe student radicalism is going to increase; very few believe it will decline.

#### Some Conclusions

1. The institutions of society have produced a new type of person—a personality type that's moving further and further away from the institutions that spawned it. This forerunner personality appears to be founded on two strong motivations. The first is a private one, directed at personal self-fulfillment, self-actualization, and creativity. The second is a public one, directed toward a vision of what a just and brotherly society might be.
2. The obstacles standing in the way of a productive youth-establishment collaboration and positive forces operating in favor of working together are fairly evenly balanced.

3. Mutual mistrust is the major obstacle standing in the way of working together and must be carefully weighted when planning and implementing specific collaboration projects.

D. Stormer

“. . . And What Professors Think About Student Protests and Manners, Morals, Politics and Chaos on the Campus.” Martin Lipset Seymour and Everett Carll Ladd, Jr. *Psychology Today*, IV (November, 1970), 49-51+.

Student activism is an important recent development in American higher education. The research reported here is an attempt to determine the extent to which professors support student activism.

The survey, conducted in 1969, was sponsored by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education with the cooperation of the American Council on Education. Professorial opinion on a wide range of national and campus matters was elicited. The data were drawn from a national sample of 60,000 professors at 307 colleges and universities.

Social science professors were more supportive of student activism than were their co-workers in the physical and biological sciences and in the humanities. Analysis of the data indicates a regular decline of support for student activism as you move from the social sciences to the humanities, fine arts, and education, on to the physical and life sciences, and then to the generally conserva-

tive professional schools of business and engineering. At the bottom of the slope line, the professors of agriculture were unchallengeably the most hostile.

The general political ideology of the individual seemed to be the source of differences over campus politics. Analysis of the Carnegie Survey data indicates that professors who viewed national issues as liberal or left tended to give more support to student activism than those who were middle-of-the-roaders or conservatives. Generally, social scientists were the most heavily left-liberal and agriculturists the most right-conservatives of the discipline groups.

About half of the faculty surveyed described their political views as generally left or liberal. The other half was obviously generally right or conservative. However, the liberals and conservatives weren't all evenly distributed among the disciplines. More than 70 percent of the social scientists claimed to be left or liberal. Slightly fewer than half of the biologists, fewer than a third of the engineers, and less than one fifth of those who teach in schools of agriculture would put themselves in that category.

Analysis of the data from this and other surveys suggests that the more productive academics, as measured by involvement in research or extent of publications or similar indices, are likely to favor left-liberal politics and approve of student activism. Those who prefer teaching to research, or achieved

less in writing, would be more moderate politically.

Other findings of interest include:

1. The faculty of the so-called elite schools were more liberal than those at schools with less prestige. (Institutional prestige appears to be largely a function of having a creative faculty.)
2. As age increased, support for student activism decreased across all disciplines.
3. Academics of Jewish background were consistently more supportive of student activism (61%) than gentiles (43%).

D. Stormer

"A Survey of Family Life Education Programs for Adolescents in Wisconsin University Extension Community Programs, 1968-1969." Carol L. Anderson. Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1969.

### Methods and Contest

This study was designed to explore family life education programs for adolescents available through the Community Programs Division of University Extension at The University of Wisconsin. Survey respondents were 51 4-H and youth agents, 52 home economics agents, and 10 home economics youth agents. The respondents made up 92 percent of all agents in the positions surveyed.

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The survey focused on six areas of programming for adolescents: self-understanding, interpersonal relationships, social issues related to the family, preparation for marriage, child development, and parent education.

### Findings

About 50 percent of the agents surveyed were programming for adolescents in the area of family life education. Youth agents were as likely to be programming on family life education as were home economists. There was a reluctance to develop programs that focused on sex, interpersonal relationships, and social issues.

Agents saw their role in family life education as one of a resource person rather than a teacher. They felt the best way to educate adolescents in family life education was through parental education (58%) and working directly with youth (43%). The emphasis on parental education is consistent with the respondents feeling that family life education should be taught in the home (80%).

Only a minority of agents felt competent in the six areas of family life education included in the survey.

D. Stormer

"A System Design Management for the Structuring and Simulation of Selected Training Institutions." Paul Donovan Thompson. Ph.D. dissertation.

*Journal of Extension: Fall 1971*

The Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C., 1969. [Available from: University Microfilms, 300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106. Order number: 69-19,014. Price: MF \$3.15, Xerox \$11.05.]

The purposes of this study were: (1) to define the role and elements of systems approach for training administrators, (2) to develop a model to serve as a guide for educational and training planners, and (3) to provide a set of criteria for the optimum use of resources. The literature was reviewed, specific graphic and mathematical analysis in education and training analyzed, and a new synthesis devised for modeling and evaluation.

The findings: a substantial deficiency existed in the use of the systems approach in training, task analysis was the method for achieving systems feedback to control and stabilize the optimum training system, and graphic analogs are valuable tools for analyzing existing institutions and for constructing new ones.

The study also supported the integration of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives into the learning system for training. It was recommended that the systems design should become a recognized discipline in training and design development.

C. Trent

"An Analysis of Factors Associated with Turnover of Male

Kansas Extension Agents." Ensley J. Sisk. Master's thesis, Kansas State University, Manhattan, 1968.

Recruiting the large number of employees annually to keep all positions filled is one of the major concerns of the Cooperative Extension Service. The average annual turnover rate of agents in the United States is almost eight percent.

The cost in time and human resources involved in selecting and training employees who leave the service after a short time is an expense that could be reduced by improved selection procedures.

How can an Extension administrator predict during the selection process whether an applicant is likely to "stay put" or leave at an early date?

To provide some insight into this question, Sisk examined some of the personal and situational characteristics of present and past male county Extension agents in Kansas. He tried to determine if and to what degree these characteristics were associated with job turnover.

### Study in Brief

The data for the study were obtained from personnel records of all male county Extension agents hired during 1963-67. Also studied were the individual scores recorded for each agent on a specially constructed interest and attitude inventory.

The objective of the study was to determine if there were differences in the opinions, attitudes,

training, and other characteristics of agents who remained in Extension and those who left.

### Findings and Conclusions

Agents who remained in Extension indicated more interest in occupations with opportunities to associate with other people than did those who left.

The occupations usually chosen were those with authority and prestige and those where planning and execution of a plan were involved. In several chosen occupations, a touch of adventure was involved.

Agents remaining in Extension scored higher on the "Individual Inventory" than those who left. The inventory was designed primarily to predict agent success.

More concern for people and their development was a major characteristic of agents who remained. Also, they had completed more college hours of sociology, psychology, and agricultural and extension education than agents who left.

Agents who left the service tended toward a higher opinion of the younger generation than those who remained. And, those remaining in the service indicated a stronger dedication to their work to the point of "wearing themselves out." Both groups of agents liked the same sort of people. Both saw the farm as a good place to rear children.

Agents who remained were more concerned with the comfort of

the family than modernizing farm structures. They also held a more positive feeling toward adding government workers to the payroll than agents who left.

Those remaining were inclined to give definite responses to statements (positive or negative), while agents who left tended to be more undecided.

### Implications for Extension

If a major objective in personnel selection in Extension is to employ agents who will stay, administrators should seriously consider the findings of this study along with examples of programs currently in operation cited in the literature.

C. Trent

"A Study of Factors Associated with the Ease of Doing Certain Extension Tasks." Richard Louis Jepsen. Master's thesis, Kansas State University, Department of Education, Manhattan, 1963.

To describe, analyze, and point up relationships of some of the factors associated with the ease of doing certain Extension tasks were the purposes of this study.

The objectives of the study were: (1) to determine if there were relationships between the ranking of 22 Extension tasks according to difficulty and induction training, previous job experience, undergraduate major, and sex; (2) to determine which variables were associated with the ease of doing certain spe-

cific Extension tasks; (3) to determine if there were associations between difficulty of the tasks and how well the agent thought he performed the tasks; and (4) to determine if there were associations between turnover of Kansas Extension agents and induction training.

A questionnaire was mailed to an equal number of men and women agents in Kansas, with and without induction training, to collect data for the study. Percentage distributions, mean-weighted scores, and coefficients of rank correlation were the descriptive statistics.

These 22 tasks were ranked by all agents according to difficulty:

1. Planned the county Extension program.
2. Developed a plan of work.
3. Explained the philosophy of Extension to others.
4. Gave a platform speech.
5. Prepared an educational exhibit.
6. Prepared written reports.
7. Evaluated results of an Extension event.
8. Gave a method demonstration.
9. Secured a person to serve as a leader.
10. Conducted annual council meetings.
11. Conducted a leader training meeting.
12. Prepared an article for a newspaper.
13. Presented a radio program.
14. Used files to locate Extension subject matter.
15. Explained my job to someone outside Extension.
16. Assisted with township elections.
17. Organized a formal group.
18. Prepared and gave oral reports.
19. Established a result demonstration.
20. Prepared a circular letter or newsletter.
21. Conducted an office visit.
22. Made a farm or home visit.

There was a great deal of agreement among agents as to the difficulty of the tasks.

All of the tasks were easier for the induction-trained agents than for the agents without induction training. In four of the five most difficult tasks, the agents with previous job experience indicated that they had less difficulty than those without previous job experience. No one particular undergraduate major showed an important relationship to the ease of doing the five most difficult tasks.

In all but one task, the induction-trained agents showed a lower percentage of those indicating they felt they did a poor job. A larger proportion of agents without previous job experience expressed a poorer opinion of their performance of these tasks than agents with previous job experience. Among the undergraduate majors, the agricultural subject-matter agents had a lower opinion of their work than either the home economics subject-matter majors or the education majors.

The agents under 35 years of age indicated that they had less difficulty in doing the 5 most difficult tasks than did the agents over 35.

When the amount of time saved to do a job the second time was compared to the first time it was completed, there was an indication that the induction-trained agents were better prepared when beginning their job.

Since the adoption of the Kansas Induction-Training Program, the Kansas turnover rate of Extension agents has dropped faster than any of the bordering states.

The implications of this study to the Kansas Extension Service in particular, and Extension in general, are that there are many factors that may affect the ease of doing various Extension tasks.

A good induction-training program may be more effective than some types of experience in making a task easier. The program shouldn't stop with training the trainee. When placed in trainer-agent counties for further training, the trainee should be under the guidance of a person who understands and is sympathetic to the program. These trainer agents should be trained to be able to continue a satisfactory program. Much of the information given in a one-week training unit can be lost if not followed through by the trainer agent with the trainee in the county.

The induction-training pro-

gram need not be designed for specific undergraduate majors. This study showed that there was no appreciable difference between the variables as to difficulty, opinion of performance, or time saved by these individuals.

From the results presented in this study and as indicated by the review of literature, each state Extension Service should profit from an intensive induction-training program. This should be especially true for the states that have a turnover rate larger than the national average of 5.5 percent. A well-planned, induction-training program should ease the tasks for the beginning agent and should encourage him to remain in the organization.

C. Trent



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