
A panel of 12 county extension agents serving as consultants identified 25 competencies for members of county program-building committees in Texas. Two hundred randomly selected committee members who had partial understanding in all areas of competence listed were studied.

The study discovered a noticeable lack of understanding in "the rules by which the county program-building committee operates," "the organizational structure of the overall county program-building committee," and "the relationship of the Texas Agricultural Extension Service to the U.S. Department of Agriculture."

Committee members were also found to lack abilities in establishing priorities for long-range county program planning, revising programs, and interpreting them to others. Although 84 percent of the committee members thought the committee was an asset to their community, only 76 percent thought the committee determined problem areas in the county.

P. Boyle


Participants of seven seminar sections were studied to determine if opinion change might depend in
part on the interpersonal needs of the learners. FIGO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation) measured need level in three areas: inclusion, control, and affection. All 113 participants were pre- and post-tested. Three nonresidential groups met weekly for 15 weeks, and 4 residential groups met on campus 6 times, followed by a weekend in residence.

In the partial residential groups, an increase in anxiety was found to be related to a more positive opinion of democratic leadership. Those with low control needs had greater opinion change in these residential groups. But, in the nonresidential groups, those with high control needs had the greater opinion change. Participants of both groups who had high need scores had about the same amount of opinion change, regardless of the residential nature of the course.

In a six-week period after the course ended, partial residential groups registered a positive opinion change about democratic leadership. But the nonresidential groups had a sharply negative opinion change about democratic leadership during that same period.

P. Boyle


This study employed three specific objectives: to test alternative methods of determining training needs, to identify methods of determining training needs that may be more efficient than those used previously by the Texas Agricultural Extension Service, and to develop recommendations for procedures that may be more useful in determining training needs for newly employed Extension personnel.

One method surveyed all Texas county Extension agents hired during 1966-67 and still in service in January, 1969. In another method, their pre-service college course transcripts and job performance ratings were analyzed. Through each method, training needs were determined for broad areas of competence, but no significant correlation was found between any two methods for each area of competence. Each method was measuring something different.

Training needs in specific competencies considered necessary for new agents were assessed through the agent survey method and further examination led the investigator to conclude that the agent survey was the most effective of all the methods studied.

P. Boyle

The study focuses on processes of educational change to determine how experienced teachers, educational theorists, and researchers with empirically tested knowledge can cooperate in program planning.

The paper offers basic criteria, such as the completeness and vitality of a system, how it maintains itself, and how educators learn the system and participate in it, as bases for analyzing educational systems and programs. The basic functions within different interpersonal, productive, and membership or maintenance roles are defined in terms of organizational settings, adaptive strategies, and fellowship group or other subculture.

Types of systems are described, ranging from a conceptual or world utopian idea to an individual or personality structure system. The adaptive dynamic cycle is pictured as mainly a vigorous feedback process shaped by individual roles, subcultures, and other structural elements, such as in the interaction of public schools with neighborhoods. The author suggests some practical steps, predictions of real-life applications for classroom settings and for insuring acceptance of pilot innovation programs.

P. Boyle


This is a report of a 1968 national survey of 229 Cooperative Extension staff members working in community resource development (CRD). The survey tried to learn something about the staff's characteristics, their perception of community problems, their competencies for certain tasks, their relationships with other development-oriented agencies, and their preferences for program evaluation criteria.

The survey showed national distribution of CRD staff with most workers (43%) at a multicounty level. Only a few of the states have assigned the majority of their staffs to counties and localities.

The study suggests that CRD staff assume initiative at local, county, and multicounty levels to create awareness of the priority of community problems among the citizens, determine communications gaps and develop two-way communication between decision-making bodies and the persons with the problems, and develop a philosophy of community self-help. A field staff person, the study recommends, would thus be an information and communication generalist rather than an in-depth specialist; his job would be to know his area and see to it that experts and leaders respond to his community's needs.

P. Boyle

Community Resource Development—How Extension Workers Perceive the Job.

Propensity for Change Among the Rural Poor in the Missis-

This publication reports on factors that influence willingness among the rural poor in the Mississippi Delta to act positively to change their life conditions. The sample for this study consisted of 1,249 household heads of poor families who were viewed as having high potential for moving out of poverty.

The dependent variable, propensity for change, is measured by expressed willingness to act positively to change one’s circumstances through participation in programs of vocational and educational improvement. It was hypothesized that propensity for change would be adversely affected by low rates of social participation and high levels of fatalistic feelings—the two independent variables.

Social participation, measured in this study by Chapin’s social participation scale, is based on the fact and degree of participation in voluntary organizations. A six-item, Guttman-type, Srole scale was used to measure the extent of fatalistic orientation among respondents. They were asked to react to such statements as: “There’s no point in writing public officials. They can’t change anything anyway”; and “There’s no sense in bringing children into this world.”

It was assumed that the primary reason for joining organizations was to increase opportunities for access to different channels of social mobility through such things as widened personal contacts.

An even more basic premise is that lower strata individuals express degrees of willingness to change their conditions for upward social mobility. They can therefore be arranged on a continuum of low to high potential for breaking the poverty cycle.

The predicted correlation between potential for breaking out of poverty and the two independent variables wasn’t supported by the data. Those who were the most willing to take action for positive change in their circumstances were in the younger age groups, married, with smaller households, Negro, and with a higher level of education.

One reason for social participation in voluntary organizations by household heads not willing to take action for positive change in their circumstances may be that their status is already fixed in the community. No dissonance is created by their participation in civic, farm, and political organizations because they’re not perceived by others nor do they perceive themselves as socially mobile.

The researchers tried to bypass the question of aspirations and attitudes by dealing only with consequences—namely, an expressed willingness to take positive steps to
improve one’s lot. The absence of a commitment to undertake a particular type of behavior such as enrolling in a program for educational betterment was assumed to be due to an absence of the requisite aspirations and attitudes.

While it may be a perfectly legitimate assumption to expect some correspondence between aspirations or values and behavior, the researchers haven’t allowed for an individual’s conflicting values and a reluctance to pay the price for the advantage of increased social mobility.

In one observer’s words:

That minority of persons from low income areas who do become educated leave their friends and neighbors and families in order to enter someone else’s world and adopt someone else’s life patterns. The object is wealth, autonomy, status in the larger society, better housing, and the price reluctantly paid is adoption of ways of behaving, patterns of interaction, styles of relationship, which are foreign and unattractive to those to whom the education is being extended.¹

This report has conclusively demonstrated two things: (1) expressed willingness of the sample to take action to change one’s circumstances is related neither to low rates of social participation in voluntary organizations nor to high levels of fatalistic feelings and (2) nonparticipation of the rural poor in programs available for their betterment is frequent. Perhaps the conflict in aspirations posed by such opportunities is a more plausible explanation and a more fruitful source of inquiry about potential social mobility. In bypassing the level of values and aspirations, the study may have unwittingly discarded that key that unlocks the door to the hearts of the rural poor.

Perhaps what we say to the poor in presenting our programs is heard by them to mean, in Hagstrom’s words again:

Come to us. We are superior. We are educated. We are valuable. We will help you to become important and valuable and good and educated like us. Do not be like your neighbors. Leave them and quit being like them. Come and be like us.²

If the poor could reply and be heard, their message might be: “I love my family, respect my parents and neighbors. I don’t want to leave them, even though I need a good job and a better place to live in.”

The poor, however, don’t reply; they merely withdraw.

¹Warren C. Hagstrom, “Poverty and Adult Education,” Adult Education, XV (Spring, 1965), 150.
²Ibid.

R. Kleis and D. Boggs

The Interdisciplinary Topics in Gerontology series may help point the way for more interdisciplinary and international research in continuing education. Seven volumes are now available. Volume 1-6 present the research reports of the colloquia held in Semmering, Austria, in July, 1966, before the Seventh International Congress of Gerontology. Volume 4 presents papers read at the 1967 NATO conference on "Decision Making and Age." Volume 7, and subsequent volumes, won't be limited to any particular format, but will cover areas of current research in aging.

As a set, the volumes represent current research papers from four major disciplines: biology, clinical medicine, psychology, and sociology including social welfare. The first six volumes represent international research in English: one half from the United States, one fourth from the United Kingdom, and one fourth from Western Europe. In general, the research isn't by educators, but it's relevant to continuing educators because it deals with a major category of potential adult students. The researchers, as might be expected, present their findings and leave implications to the reader. Many of the articles require a limited knowledge of statistics.

As you examine Volume 4, Decision Making and Age, and scan the other volumes, you get the feeling that gerontology operates against the unexamined hypothesis that since old people eventually die, the various human faculties must gradually peter out after peaking sometime between the early twenties and "middle age." Not only is this an oversimplification, but while some current research supports it, other research flatly contradicts this easy assumption.

Decision Making and Age reports several independent research projects. Guilford, following his work on creativity and psychometrics, investigates decision making as a function of divergent intellectual production and reports a negative aging effect. Bromley recognizes that from his laboratory tests dealing with originality he can't find outstanding age decrements in high-level problem solving—the variables are simply too complex.

Rendall's paper "Logical Structure" only touches on age as an independent variable. Welford reports that older people in management or command positions are more stable than their younger counterparts. Birren finds increasingly effective decision strategies in successful older adults. Cesa-Bianchi and Clement found that people in managerial positions requiring a generally high educational level and a greater use of intellectual skills have a more psychologically successful aging process.

Belbin found that "discovery method" teaching is particularly efficient and effective in retraining older workers. Craik, applying signal detection theory, finds that the strategy of increasingly conservative criteria for decision making in older
adults responding to stimuli masks unimpaired stimulus discrimination. This research indicating change in the decision-making process coupled with little or no change in discernment of stimuli has obvious significance for training older workers.

Frohlich discovered that older adults resist manipulation and introduce confounding variables in interpersonal conflict experiments—possibly a sign of hope in a society unsure of its values! Forssmann concludes that a significant factor among older Swedish workers is the deterioration of health, as measured objectively—in contrast with the workers' own subjective and optimistic assessments of personal health.

Each of the above studies illustrates a common thread found in the research on decision making and old age. Quite apart from "aging," which connotes deterioration, these articles indicate the significant changes in adults that result from living a long time.

Welford and Birren conclude:

The papers have all attempted not only to look backward at already existing knowledge and ideas, but also to look forward in the attempt to map the way ahead for future research in a field which poses some extremely challenging problems, both practical and theoretical.

R. Kleis and W. Mielke

*Learning and Leisure in Middle and Later Life*.


The Pre-Retirement Association, using data gathered by the National Institute of Adult Education in its inquiry into the adequacy of provision of adult education in England and Wales, gathered information about the interests and activities of people as they grow older. The message of the study was that if age is to have its proper dignity and fulfillment, education must indeed be developed as a continuous process throughout life.

Two samples were analyzed: the general population sample and a sample of participants in adult education. Characteristics studied for both included age, sex, employment status, leisure, and membership in clubs and societies.

Loss of learning ability with age was relatively greater for those with poor education. And, there were incalculable advantages to the individual in being a member of various social groups. An association between the extent of early education and subsequent occupational and social class rating and attitudes toward education in later life existed.

J. P. Leagans

This study examines and discusses sociological and psychological factors affecting adult motivation (or lack of motivation) to engage in systematic learning or difficult intellectual effort. Characteristics and effects of mass culture are briefly noted. Differing levels of learning and conceptualization are described, ranging from the relatively effortless learning of isolated facts (as by mass media) to highly abstract reasoning involving much conscious effort (as in mathematics).

Several disciplines are then classified in terms of the kinds or levels of learning required. Play, school life, practical experience, reading, and television are assessed as channels or means of continuous learning. The nature of continuing education and of intellectual effort is also considered. Finally an evaluation is given of age, sex, family status, socioeconomic status and other background factors as observed in various countries, followed by analysis of curiosity, social advancement, and other motives for educational participation. An annotated bibliography of 37 items is included.

J. P. Leagns


A total of 170 students enrolled in the preparation for marriage course at East Carolina University in 1969 to 1970 participated in a behavioral analysis study. The project assumed that what a person does, his behavior, is more revealing about him than any other observable fact. Students were given four pages of instructions to help them appraise themselves and their mates as they observed and assessed each other's behavior.

Attitude Toward the Behavioral Analysis

The authors tell us that the students varied in their initial response to the project. While some welcomed the opportunity to study themselves and their respective dates more objectively, others were threatened by the fact that their dates would learn more about them.

As noted in the instructions, the behavioral analysis required the participation of the date of the student enrolled in the preparation for marriage course. Since love included a willingness to help one another, students quickly became aware of the degree of love their date had for them. Three couples broke up over the refusal of the date to log his behavior or answer the questions.

Overview of Behaviors

One part of the instructions was designed to assist each student in critically looking at the objective, observable behaviors of himself and his date. Here are a few verbatim responses of individual student revelations: "My date's actual time spent in spiritual endeavors was very
similar to my estimated time for him. This pleased me very much.”

“In looking at the log, I have found that I drink excessively, my study habits are very poor (probably the main reason for the sudden regression of my grades), and my vocabulary seems to be limited to many words that are not included in Webster’s dictionary.”

“From reading Tom’s log, I have discovered that he is really a goof-off (although I was quite well aware of this fact anyway).”

“He did not inform me that he had changed his insurance, but left it as a surprise when I read his log. It was a surprise too because it showed that he is not only accepting responsibilities but he is reaching out for them. He seems more ready for marriage than I have been thinking he was.”

“I learned that she spends a great deal of time drinking, considering she is a female. Also, though aware of a girl’s tendency to curse when among other girls, I did not realize it was to such an extent and quite often as vile as a boy’s language.”

Abstract Values

In addition to the recording of their own behaviors and those of their respective dates, a systematic ranking of values yielded surprising results for some as stated by these two writers.

“As for the abstract values, I think that the majority of the values which I value most in a person are present in my date. However, there are a few values that I think she has that I would like to see vanish, such as temperament, stubbornness, and non-conformity.”

“Being able to read on paper the things a person values greatly enables one to go into another’s mind deeper and I believe these abstract values have helped my view into Bill’s mind more than any part of this paper.”

Questions

The authors pointed out that many couples spent their time together talking about their classes, the latest Playboy, hit tune or movie, Saturday’s dance, and spring vacation to the exclusion of their thoughts, ideas, and feelings about central issues of their relationship. The questions were designed to equip each student with the rationale for verbal behavior necessary to determine specific information from his date that may be useful in assessing the value of continuing the relationship.

Here’s the verbatim reaction of one student in response to asking her date specific questions:

“We have been dating rather steadily for the last five months since we first met on a blind date arranged by a mutual friend. During these five months, Paul and I have never talked about our feelings for each other, but instead used the simple phrase ‘I love you’ as adequate communication to describe our feelings. The answers to the specific questions were most revealing.”

*Journal of Extension: Winter 1971*
Results and Implications

The two teachers stated that to the degree that students become more clearly aware of themselves and their impending mates, happier marriages may result. Although the test didn’t indicate significant differences on selected categories of behavior between estimated and actual behavior of self and date, the student evaluation of the project may herald the usefulness of such an experience. Here are two student comments:

“I would be kidding myself and Jan if I didn’t say that I had thought this schedule would be a waste of time and a bore. But Jan seemed to place so much importance on it that I thought it was only right that I cooperate with her. Well, the results surprised me, for I was so glad to find out how Jan and I spent our time and also how we felt about certain issues.”

“In this log, June and I were as honest as possible. I felt that some of the questions were ridiculous and too personal for either of us to disclose to anyone, much less a professor. Although some of the answers were not written down, we discussed every question together to the fullest extent, and without embarrassment. June has worked exceptionally hard on this log, but her biggest job was to get me to participate. You see, I love her and I would do anything for her, but I didn’t think I had the time, nor did I like the idea of exposing all of our secrets to a stranger. Now that it’s over and done, though, I can see that probably writing this log has helped us in some ways and we can look back on it in the future.”

The authors feel that the implications for the use of this term project in marriage preparation courses are clear. Although some students will complain and profit little from the experience, the teachers stress that most will achieve a more objective cognition of themselves and their respective dates. While some relationships may be strengthened, others may be terminated forever. For some, perhaps the price of intelligent mate selection is a broken relationship.

The authors summarize the project this way: Marital happiness probably results more from conscientious mate selection than chance. The purpose of most marriage preparation courses is to influence the student to carefully consider a marriage partner. This may best be accomplished by helping the student learn more about himself and his date through observing behaviors, ranking values, and discussing potential problem areas in marriage.

Extension personnel will find the complete article fascinating reading; the appendix is important to each of us as we work with all kinds of families in this complex society.

V. McGaugh

“Needs and Interests of Young Homemakers Living in Low-Income Housing Proj-

This study identified some common needs and interests and revealed differences according to the race and age of 50 white and 50 nonwhite homemakers in 2 housing projects in Montgomery, Alabama. The homemakers were married or the head of a household, were from 16 to 40 years of age, and had a family income of $3,000 or less per year.

Results indicated that residential mobility is more stable than previously believed, especially for the nonwhite homemakers—50 percent of whom had lived there for 5 years or more.

More programs on understanding credit are needed and desired by nonwhite homemakers. Programs on money management are desired by white homemakers.

More programs on understanding credit are needed and desired by nonwhite homemakers. Programs on money management are desired by white homemakers.

Compared with the nonwhite subjects, the white subjects read less and had fewer magazines and daily newspapers available in their homes.

Young nonwhite homemakers were interested in their children’s optimum development; however, they weren’t aware that they needed more information concerning how children grow and develop.

Evidence indicates the need for further programs in helping young homemakers see the relationship between early childhood development and success in later stages of development. Such programs could be initiated in group discussions of parents along with the day care or Head Start programs and other work with low-income families.

V. McGaugh


The family is no longer an effective transmitter of many important kinds of knowledge. As a result, many of the family’s traditional functions have been taken over by other social agencies. From this perspective, it seems certain that comprehensive sex education programs will soon become a reality in our schools. It’s imperative that a positive approach be taken toward the outrage and protests of many concerned parents. A need for greater awareness of and sensitivity to the sources of this concern exists.

The following three procedures could be beneficial in calming the fears of parents: (1) implementing programs and courses on sex education for parents—such courses would help the adult understand his own sexuality, (2) close parental involvement in establishing and selecting the content of sex education courses, and (3) wide dissemination of information about resources and materials on sex education.

V. McGaugh

Where verbal deficiencies exist in children, one method of exceptional promise uses operant conditioning techniques to establish and modify verbal behavior. Modifications and extensions take place as the function of direct interaction between an experimenter and the child. Assuming that the mother is the ideal teacher for such a child, given the availability of teaching time and familiarity with behavioral consequences for her child, a study was made to develop a training program for the mother in the use of operant conditioning techniques.

In four cases, a mother was introduced to contingency management and familiarized with behavioral analysis of verbal and vocal topography and function. She was then taught to apply these instructions to the specific problems of her child, so that she and the experimenter actually taught the child. After each case study, the author's teaching procedure was modified to develop a program that incorporated the discoveries and results of the four case studies. The resulting strategies represented an actual procedure which if administered as directed, had a high probability of changing predestined behavior in a mother and consequently in her child. The program was administered to a fifth case to demonstrate its validity.

V. McGaughe


Extension has a strong economic bent in its programs. We often hear: "Increase the income of a family, community, state, and nation, and a lot of the other problems will take care of themselves."

Community resource development programs, in less-populated, unindustrialized areas, often recommend bringing in an industry, factory, or business of some kind to increase area income and the employment potential there.

While this may often be a helpful suggestion from an economic viewpoint, research by Faunce and Smucker points out some social consequences we don't often take into account: change in the local status, or change in the power structure, or both.

Study in Brief

Faunce and Smucker wondered where high status people get their status from in places of varying degrees of industrialization. In an ur-

Research in Brief
ban society, the people who are high status also tend to be those with high income and more prestigious jobs. There's good evidence that this isn't true in some of the developing countries. Status tends to derive much less from occupational position. The evidence isn't clear what the case is for small towns in the United States.

The researchers looked at 3 towns—all under 1,000 inhabitants—a village each in Michigan, Costa Rica, and Guatemala. So, size wasn't a variable. What did vary was each village's exposure to an industrialized culture. The Guatemalan village had no industry locally, and was in a nation that wasn't based on urban, industrial values. The Costa Rican village had an important local industry, but was in a non-urban, nonindustrial country. The northern Michigan village had no local industry, but was exposed to the urban and industrial values of the U.S. society.

Data were gathered by field observation, from census sources, and from extensive interviews with 275 household heads in the 3 towns. People interviewed were asked to rate all household heads (by name or picture) in their community on a 10-point status scale to indicate their standing or prestige in the community. When they'd completed this rating, they were asked to go back over the names and indicate for those at the top of the scale, and for those at the middle and bottom, why they rated those people as they did.

The researchers found:

1. The three communities ranked the way the researchers had predicted: the Guatemalan village used income and occupational prestige the least in determining who the prestigious heads of households were; the Costa Rican village the most.

2. The Guatemalan village was isolated and had a relatively simple social structure. Ascribed characteristics such as age and sex counted for more in determining status level than did any work-related values.

3. In the Michigan village, occupation and income were important. However, other variables were at least as important—such as the number of community organizations in which the person was a member...the variable most highly correlated with status. Also important were the number of times the person was mentioned as someone others in the community visit, and the number of times chosen as a friend by others.

4. The Costa Rican village had a highly integrated social structure organized around the local industry. There people were regularly involved with others at different occupational status levels. Here occupation and income were clearly the most important status-assigning criteria.
Interestingly enough, to a striking extent personal qualities—friendliness, honesty, dependability, morality—were given as reasons for people being of high prestige in all three of these communities.

Finally, villagers were asked to name persons in their village that: (1) they'd select to represent the village in outside contact with prestigious representatives of the larger, urban, industrial society and (2) they'd select for a local honor involving status in the community only.

In answer to the first question, they tended to select people with higher occupational and personal qualities, especially the possession of certain social graces. For the second one, they picked people who were mainly active in local affairs and who had resided in the village the longest time.

So even in Guatemala and northern Michigan, when village representatives to the outside world were being chosen, the villagers chose people with values and characteristics more in line with the criteria of the larger society.

Implications for Extension

Maybe we've taken the long way around, but it seems to us that this study points up the fact that industrializing an area, even in the U.S., can have real consequences for the status structure of a community. Chances are that the people who formerly had the status, power, and prestige, won't be the same people who have these attributes after industrialization.

Thus, an Extension staff member helping a community that's considering bringing in a factory, business, or industry must worry also about what such changes will do to the social structure of the community. What's likely to happen? To whom? What are the probable consequences? Can we ease the undesirable consequences? Can we take advantage of the desirable ones?

Too, in bringing about such changes, we may find ourselves supported mainly by a minority of community leaders with more urban values and bitterly opposed by those with fewer urban values—unless we're careful to help them both work through the advantages and disadvantages of any change.

If community values and status structure also change with the introduction of industrialization, it may well be that the kind of agent who works in that community must also change to be successful and relate to the power structure successfully.

Also, the emphasis in all three of these villages on the importance of personal qualities in prestigious people has implications for U.S. Extension agents who go overseas to work in developing countries. Those agents from less urbanized areas may find the status structure more like what they're used to—and the criteria for picking prestigious people more similar to what they're familiar with—than the agents from the more urbanized area. All of this means they'd have fewer personal
adjustments and changes to make in this respect and more readily adapt to work in the system they're confronted with.

Might we even go so far as to speculate that maybe rural-oriented U.S. Extension agents may be more successful in working with low-income U.S. groups in urban areas when those groups are recently from a more rural background? This study doesn't say, but it's an intriguing possibility—given that these agents could overcome their dislike of the city and its environment.

Finally, this study reinforces the feeling we've been getting out of some of the other abstracts we've done. In one, researchers found the occupational hierarchy important in identifying leaders in Syracuse, New York. In another, a small rural community, leadership wasn't tied to occupation nearly so much.

Thus, where you look for the prestigious people and the reasons for their having that prestige can differ from place to place—based partly on the size of the place, but also based on the degree and kind of exposure the people have to urban industrial values and to an industrial occupational status hierarchy.

M. Miller, D. Walker, and J. Elliott

Men were more enthusiastic than women about the effectiveness of overall course content and of the correspondence method of the State University of New York's correspondence courses. General reactions were favorable. Drawbacks stated: campus administrators' minimal efforts to communicate with the students, often long delays in delivering course materials to enrollees and getting lessons corrected and returned, and the large number of students for whom instructors' comments on evaluated assignments were of little help.

M. Miller


Title describes the study and audience. Adult basic education (ABE) program using supplemental instructional television (ITV) produced no greater achievement gain for functional illiterates than did face-to-face ABE alone. However, younger adult illiterates made greater gains than their older classmates. Those with education above eighth grade in their native countries made greater gains in spelling than those who were illiterate. Looking at characteristics of dropouts from the program, the only one that was significant was age—older adults tended to drop out most.

M. Miller


How do you best help people learn to do a good job of performing on TV? This study took 62 participants and tested 3 different methods. Group 1 made a TV presentation, saw and evaluated the videotape reply, and received a written panel critique for study and comparison. Group 2 performed and had the panel critique only. Group 3 performed, but got no feedback. Inservice training followed treatment. At the end of the workshop, all subjects remade their presentations. These were both panel and performer evaluated.

High feedback produced significantly more favorable attitudes toward TV as a medium for Extension education. Key predictors of change: grade-point average, college TV courses, graduate credits, degrees, years in Extension, TV experience, attitude, self-concept, TV knowledge, and the personality traits of exhibition, achievement, autonomy, order, dominance, and aggression.

M. Miller


Evaluation of 1969 Extension program where 385 aides conducted an 8-week nutrition education program for over 18,000 low-income homemakers and children in 31 parishes. Changes often were affected by income and food sources. However, the greatest change was in the milk and milk-products' groups. Second was the increased use of fruits and vegetables. A moderate change occurred in the use of bread and cereals. Least change was in the meat and meat-substitute group. The technique of influencing homemakers through children (and vice versa) proved effective.

M. Miller


Compared the effectiveness of radio farm forums and adult literacy classes for communicating information. The two villages using radio farm forums showed significantly more progress than either the two villages with literacy classes or the two control villages. The literacy villages showed more progress than control villages, but the differences weren't usually statistically significant. Conclusions: A well-run radio
farm forum should result in rather immediate accelerated development and literacy programs should be considered either as a long-term investment in development or as a social welfare measure.  

M. Miller


This study looked at county-level leadership changes between 1964 and 1968, when the Knox County Economic Opportunity Council Program was underway. County leadership both years was dominated by a relatively small number of influential people—about the same people both years. There was some evidence of change in these people’s attitudes and in the matters they take into account when developing policy decisions. At the lower levels of the county leadership structure, personnel have changed. Fewer branch office or agency executive professionals are now active. More people from stable, but relatively low-income groups, as well as more poor people themselves, are now active.

M. Miller


Questionnaire given to 511 adults in a stratified random sample of those enrolled in the Spring, 1969, term at the Michigan University Center for Adult Education.

Among the findings: (1) TV and radio are potent for transmitting local, national, and world news and (2) participants were most interested in contemporary national and social areas. They tended to scan the media for information about those areas. The author concludes that the media are important to adult educators, and that adult educational programming should be aimed more at contemporary issues.

M. Miller


Legal-theorists and psychologists have increasingly realized that the internalization of values rather than the threat of legal penalties is responsible for compliance with the law and social rules. To understand why people obey or deviate from norms, this cross-cultural study was undertaken to investigate common features of the development of compliance.

The author studied 5,000 middle-school children in the cultures of Greece, Denmark, India, Italy, Japan, and the United States (black and white). The subjects were children ages 10-14. Each subject was given a battery of tests and a random sample of 460 (60 in each culture) were interviewed using a schedule of 79 open-ended questions.

Cross-culturally, children be-
lieve that the nature and functions of laws and rules are the same. They regard both rules and laws as special norms that guide behavior and require obedience. A key finding was that the concept of coercion was noticeably absent from their responses. The children focused on the content and purpose of rules, not on punishment and authority. Their reluctance to recognize coercion suggests, as many legal scholars and social scientists maintain, that coercion and force don't ensure obedience to the law.

Other findings include:

1. The children were able to distinguish between a rule or a law and a fair rule or law.
2. In five cultures, as children grew older, they were less likely to believe that all rules were fair.
3. In five of the seven cultures, children readily accepted the possibility of rule breaking.
4. The children saw father, mother, teacher, and policeman, in that order, as the major authorities who could make them follow a rule.

The children saw rules and laws as performing equivalent functions in the ordering of human conduct. They recognized the need for ordering human affairs, and the role that laws and rules play in providing that order. They want a fair system, one that emphasizes equality and consensus. They agree that with good reason or moral justification, rules could legitimately be violated.

D. Stormer


The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of Extension agents and volunteer 4-H Club leaders toward the idea of using county leaders in the conduct and expansion of 4-H Club work in Idaho. County-level leaders are referred to as service leaders and program leaders, each of which would assume certain responsibilities normally considered appropriate only for the Extension agent.

A questionnaire was mailed to all county Extension agents (101) and all 4-H leaders (617) in 7 randomly selected counties in Idaho. Questionnaires were returned at the rate of 87 percent for Extension agents and 53 percent for 4-H leaders. The questionnaires were different for agents and leaders.

Conclusions

The researcher concluded that Idaho Extension agents and 4-H leaders participating in the study had positive attitudes toward the county-level leadership concept. The majority of respondents agreed that volunteer 4-H leaders could assist Extension by assuming some of the organizational work currently being done by agents.
Some of the more specific conclusions were:

1. Most agents believed that the use of county-level leaders would allow them to reach more youth and provide valuable assistance in developing county 4-H programs.

2. Eighty-two percent of the agents believed that they had insufficient time to provide all necessary training needed by leaders.

3. Only 40 percent of the agents believed qualified adults were available who would prefer county-level leadership to club leadership. (Leader data in this study indicate people are available and willing.)

4. Forty-seven percent of the 4-H leaders felt qualified and 39 percent were interested in training other leaders.

5. Fifty-six percent of the 4-H leaders believed themselves qualified and 66 percent were interested in planning 4-H programs with Extension.

6. Sixty-six percent of the leaders felt qualified and 56 percent were interested in recruiting members and leaders.

7. Sixty-six percent of the leaders felt qualified in organizing 4-H Clubs and 57 percent were interested.

8. Extension agents and volunteer 4-H leaders differed in their perceptions about training needs of volunteer leaders who might assume the role of county service leader or county program leader. Leaders perceived a need for training in areas such as how to teach adults, contests and awards, and leadership techniques. Agents saw training needs in areas such as how to teach youth, leadership techniques, and objectives and philosophy of 4-H Club work.

9. The 4-H agents recognized a greater need for training of leaders than the home agents or agricultural agents.

10. All leaders felt they “needed some” training, but leaders between 30-39 and 45-59 years of age indicated the greatest need.

11. Leaders with 7-9 years of education felt they “needed much” training, while those with 10 years of education and college graduates “needed some,” and postgraduates “needed none” but approached needing some.

12. Leaders with little experience felt they needed much training, while those with above 15-19 years of experience needed much less.

D. Stormer


The 4-H literature study was
concerned with the distribution and use of project publications by members and leaders. The sample consisted of about one-third of the members and leaders in clothing, food, and meat animal projects. About 70 percent of the subjects returned a questionnaire mailed to them.

Two methods are predominantly used for the distribution of 4-H publications. Forty-five percent of the counties distribute publications “after the club is organized for the year” and another 40 percent distribute “when leaders request publications.” Leaders prefer the latter method of distribution.

The median number of project publications in the possession of leaders was 6.4. The median for clothing leaders was 4.9, foods 9.4, and meat animals 6.7. Less than five percent of the leaders had no project publications.

The average number of publications possessed by members per project was 4.85. Slightly more than one-third of these were considered required or essential. Generally speaking, members liked their project publications and believed the numbers of publications were appropriate. The leaders generally concurred. Seventy percent of the leaders believed the number was about right.

Ninety percent of the leaders used publications at project meetings, while only one-third gave instruction individually. Seven of eight 4-H members used project publications to determine procedures to follow. Generally, the ratings on helpfulness of publications were less for members than for leaders.

The author concludes:

1. Leaders generally have a larger supply of member materials than leader publications. This suggests they may be using it more extensively than leader material.
2. Members don’t receive all required publications, but generally are supplied with other publications, often in excess of needs.
3. Project publications are used more by leaders than members.
4. On the basis of helpfulness, the publications have more value to leaders than members.
5. Girls, more than boys, use project publications at group meetings.

D. Stormer


A management-education, planning approach called Computer-
Assisted Subject Area (CASA) has been conceptualized as a framework for viewing, evaluating, and recording efforts to improve the effectiveness of a subject area to be integrated within an overall curriculum. CASA is a generalized set of models that feature: (1) a hierarchy of activities in developing a subject area; (2) an organizational library structure, or information repository, for noting and updating findings and working criteria for use in curriculum planning; and (3) a network of cybernetic representation to highlight dynamic interrelationships between various human and machine elements germane to a professor's subject area.

Use of CASA is illustrated in planning a series of programs to give practicing managers a broad but concise introduction to computer technology. Eleven teaching-learning modules were developed, with attention to features and limitations of classroom lectures, films, computer simulations, panel discussions, and other methods and media. Two experimental computer programs (Leisure and Architect/Client) led to the conclusion that a professor untrained in computer use could, in association with regular classroom duties, gain a basic understanding of computer-augmented teaching.

C. Trent


An outline of a management development course that was offered by the National Council of Industrial Management Clubs (NCIMC) to all affiliated clubs and their members is given in this document. It deals with the organization of the course, the format and styling of materials, program coordination, Westinghouse's capabilities and related experience, program schedule, and program cost.

The appendices contain an outline of the elements of the supervision course and the academic qualifications of those in charge of the program. Two supplements present the National Council of Industrial Management Club's report of a survey of educational programs by course titles. Statistical information is given on sessions, total hours, members' fees, number of clubs, and number of courses.

C. Trent


To evaluate a communication workshop conducted as part of the in-service training of new employees in the North Dakota Cooperative Extension Service, attitude and information changes about certain
communication concepts were measured. Before a week-long communication workshop, 32 new employees were given a pre-test composed of a 40-question, true-false test and an attitude measuring device called a semantic differential. Attitude was measured towards 14 communication concepts covered during the workshop. The same booklet was administered at the end of the workshop and three weeks later.

Data were statistically analyzed for mean, standard deviation, t-scores, and range. It was found that there was a significant knowledge gain about communication and there were attitude changes toward all but 1 of the 14 communication concepts.

Three of the changes were significant (at the .05 level), two in the positive direction and one in the negative. The concept showing negative attitude change showed a significant increase in information gain. The two concepts showing significant positive attitude change seemed to be more associated with attitude formation than change, as they represented new information to most of the participants. No significant change in attitude occurred during the post-workshop period.

Data from the mail-in booklet administered three weeks later showed that information level declined, yet remained significantly above the pre-workshop level.

C. Trent

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