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YOUTH EXPANDED FOOD AND NUTRITION EDUCATION PROGRAM:
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Youth expanded food and nutrition education program:
Staff competencies and youth personal development concepts

by

Virginia Caples

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INTRODUCTION

For several years many of the educational institutions and other educational type agencies have directed efforts towards working with and helping low-income families to improve the quality of living. The efforts are seen through massive programs on the federal, state, and local levels aimed at helping to improve the social, physical, economic, and perhaps psychological conditions of families. The concept is one of a total human development approach in working with low-income families.

Human development begins at birth and must be nurtured throughout life. To insure optimum growth and development individuals need: (1) the necessary experiences that will enable them to find purposes and meaning in life, (2) to develop satisfying interpersonal relationships so they can contribute to the well being of themselves and others, (3) the ability to develop and exert control over their own destiny through a sense of responsibility, and (4) the ability to work with others and to relate to them. As expressed by the Cooperative Extension Service, these needs can best be met by providing quality of living programs which are designed mainly to help low-income families. The joint report of the USDA-NASULGC (1968) stated that:

From the first, Cooperative Extension Service was concerned with the welfare of the family. Initially this concern was expressed in the

rural areas. Now that there are no boundary lines between rural and urban, the Extension function is called upon to serve families regardless of their place of residence. The priority problems of the communities of crime, civil disorder, inequality of opportunities, of youth, all relate directly or indirectly to the quality of living program (p. 58).

The ultimate measure of the quality of living is the kind of human being produced, which in turn determines the character of the society and the future generations. Quality of living encompasses the sum total of all of the - experiences of the individual. It has material aspects, since all people have primary physical needs for food, clothing, housing, and a measure of security. But it has social and psychological aspects as well. Social and psychological growth is greatest in an environment where the physical needs have been met and there are rich and varied opportunities for learning.

In order to provide the quality of living expressed by Extension, opportunities for optimum growth and development should be afforded to all segments of society. One of Extension's programs which helps to provide for quality of living is the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP). Although the EFNEP is a new and developing program the idea for the youth phase of the program is not.

As early as 1960 the Iowa Cooperative Extension spoke to the need of expanding and redesigning programs to reach a variety of youth as well as to help prepare youth to

survive in the complexities of modern society.

The Iowa Cooperative Extension...Today...Its Scope and Responsibility (1960), made this statement concerning youth programs:

The job to be done is one of growth, of adjustment, of redirecting the fine basic objectives of youth work in terms of youth needs today. Extension will direct its attention to youth of farm, rural nonfarm, village, and urban fringe not excluding the rapidly growing interest of youth in strictly urban areas. It will be a broader program than the heretofore traditional projects, giving project work flexibility and adaptation in terms of needs of the individual and his capabilities. It will emphasize the teaching of basic and fundamental principles which the young person can apply to his project. It will encourage greater understanding and use of the knowledge of science. At the same time, it will endeavor to teach methods of problem solving and the decision making process which will be helpful for youth to apply to everyday living. In these ways it will help youth to move towards maturity (p. 24).

From a national perspective concern for the expansion of youth programs was also voiced. In May of 1966 an advisory committee chaired by Dr. Ralph W. Tyler, Executive Director of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, met for the purpose of analyzing the needs of the youth in urban areas and low-income environments and identifying the kinds of programs which would satisfy those needs most effectively and efficiently. This committee consisted of a combination of federal, state, and local Extension personnel as well as a number of human development specialists. Recommendations were that the land grant universities should

offer a vastly expanded, flexible out of school 4-H youth development program which capitalizes on the past and which is applicable to the serious needs of youth regardless of their place of residence or socio-economic level, but priority should be given to work with disadvantaged youth. They further recommended that the programs should improve employability and develop marketable attitudes and skills, develop a feeling of self-worth and encourage the pursuit of excellence, develop social responsibility, and develop the ability to function effectively in a free society (USDA, Open Door, 1966, p. 13). These examples of federal and state Extension are a few of the conscious efforts leading to the organization of such programs as the youth EFNEP.

The youth EFNEP had three main objectives: (1) to contribute to the improvement of diets and nutrition of families by means of education of youth, (2) to provide education for youth in the principles of nutritional diets and in the acquisition and use of food, and (3) to contribute to the personal development of disadvantaged urban youth through improved nutrition. These broad objectives were further delineated by a task force of the Federal Extension Service.¹ The task force suggested that the youth EFNEP should provide

¹Loretta Crowden, Washington, D.C., personal correspondence, May, 1972.

experiences (activities) which would help youth to: (1) become more participative in communication and interaction with peers and adults, (2) learn to understand and handle emotions and increase self-image, (3) learn to work towards personal and group goals and to become a productive person, (4) become aware that food has a definite relationship to appearance but is not the only factor that influences health, and (5) become aware of other avenues of personal development, including other types of 4-H participation.

These objectives indicate the emphasis was to be on an integrative approach to working with youth. Through these objectives of the youth EFNEP, with the inclusion of the two areas of food and nutrition and personal development, it was felt that a more total or integrative approach for working with the individual could be accomplished.

A question often asked was, "What does food and nutrition have to do with personal development?" As noted above the concept of human development encompasses the physical, social, and psychological settings of the individual's environment. This in itself may account partly for the inclusion of youth personal development as a part of the total EFNEP but a review from the Dairy Council Digest (1965) also indicated a direct relationship of food habits to physical, social, and psychological factors. The report of research with girls showed that girls who scored best in emotional

stability, conformity, adjustment to reality, and family relationships had better food habits than girls who did not score high in these areas. Research of this nature also suggests the need to work with nutrition education from an integrative approach.

From a theoretical perspective the relationship of food and nutrition and personal development may be explained by Maslow's basic needs theory. When Globe (1970) spoke of Maslow's basic needs theory he explained that "the human being is motivated by a number of basic needs which are species wide, apparently unchanging, and genetic or instinctual in origin" (p. 38). This, he believed, was a unique fundamental concept of Maslow's theoretical point of view. Needs are also psychological rather than purely physiological. Needs are the inner nature of the human species, but weak, easily distorted, and overcome by incorrect learning, habit or tradition. They are intrinsic aspects of human nature which culture cannot kill but only repress.

A brief explanation of the needs categories by Globe (1970) is presented. The most basic, the most obvious of all man's needs are his needs for physical survival--his needs for food, liquid, shelter, sex, sleep and oxygen. A person who is lacking food, self-esteem, and love will demand food first, until this need is satisfied.

While the psychological needs can be separated and identified more easily than the higher needs, they cannot be treated as separate, isolated phenomena. For instance, a person who thinks he is hungry may actually be feeling a lack of love or security or some other need. Conversely, some people satisfy, or attempt to satisfy, hunger needs by other activities such as smoking or drinking water. Thus, all human needs are interrelated.

When the physiological and safety needs are met, need for love, affection, and belonging emerge. The person with hunger for affectionate relations with people in general, namely for a place in his group, will strive with great intensity to achieve this goal.

Maslow found that people have two categories of esteem needs--self-respect and esteem for other people. Self-respect includes such needs as desire for confidence, competence, mastery, adequacy, achievement, independence and freedom. Esteem from others includes such concepts as prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, reputation and appreciation. A person who has adequate self-esteem is more confident and capable and thus, more productive.

With the hierarchy of needs theory, the contention is that the individual continues to grow. Globe quotes Maslow as saying "what a man can be, he must be" (Globe, 1970,

p. 41). The identification of psychological need for growth, development, and utilization of potentials is what Maslow called self-actualization. The need for self-actualization usually emerges after a reasonable satisfaction of the love and esteem needs.

Although the youth EFNEP does not meet all of the needs of the individual, it does cover a wide spectrum of physical, emotional, social and psychological needs of the individual. The spectrum leads to more of a whole or integrative approach to working with the needs of youth of the EFNEP. Thus a rationale for the youth EFNEP supports the inclusion of the two areas of food and nutrition and personal development.

To effectively operate the EFNEP needs continuous information which may be helpful for inservice training of personnel as well as program development. In relation to inservice training of Extension personnel the USDA-NAULGC (1968) commented that "the environment in which Cooperative Extension functions is such that only by a continual process of staff training and development can it hope to have a staff which is competent and confident" (p. 43).

The present study was a two dimensional approach designed to provide information for inservice training as well as program development. As explained previously, the move for the expansion of Extension's youth programs began

as early as 1960 but the actual inception of the youth EFNEP was not until 1968. Since that time efforts have been made to provide information for inservice training and program development, for a relatively new program such information is needed for ongoing operation efficiency. Sources for such information should come from all levels of program participation as well as from outside sources.

The present study was an attempt to gather information from the different sources including state, local and para-professional of the youth EFNEP as well as youth participants. Objectives included in the study were:

1. Analyze tasks and identify competencies needed to perform tasks in the areas of personal development and food and nutrition for Extension youth staff members of the EFNEP.
2. Compare differences among youth staff as to competencies needed and determine the competencies indicated as most important for inservice training of youth staff and program development.
3. Identify from among the most important competencies those concepts in the area of personal development considered important for inservice training and program development.
4. Assess the perceptions of EFNEP and 4-H youth of the identified personal development concepts in (3) above by means of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (LCS).
5. Determine differences of self-esteem and locus of control for EFNEP and 4-H youth and determine the relationship between locus of control and self-esteem.

6. Identify demographic differences of EFNEP and 4-H youth in relation to the personal development concepts.

As a result of the review of literature the following hypotheses were derived from objectives 4, 5, and 6 to be tested by the study:

1. There is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth in self-esteem using total scores of the CSEI.
2. There is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth on the subscales of the CSEI. This hypothesis will hold true for age, sex, and program affiliation.
3. There is no significant difference between 4-H and EFNEP youth on the locus of control scale.
4. There is no relation between locus of control and self-esteem.

Definition of terms used throughout the study included:

Self-Perception - how the individual believes himself to be, wishes he were or hopes to become, and how he believes others view him (Soares and Soares, 1969, p. 253).

Self-Concept - the organized, consistent conceptual Gestalt composed of the 'I' or 'me' and the perceptions of the relationship of the 'I' or 'me' to others and the various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions (Rogers, 1959, p. 200).

Self-Esteem - the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 4).

Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP or ENP) - a program administered through the Cooperative

Extension Service, designed to improve the nutritional status of rural and urban low-income families. The EFNEP has both a youth and family phase.

Disadvantaged Youth - as used in the present study is interpreted to mean those youth of EFNEP families and other youth of comparable income status participating in EFNEP youth activities.

Locus of Control - the generalized expectancy by which a behavior is thought to occur. Belief that one is controlled by luck, fate, or powerful others is referred to as a belief in external control of reinforcement. Internal control refers to the generalized expectancy that positive and negative events are related to one's own behavior (Rotter, 1966, p. 1).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present study was a two-fold approach for research of the youth EFNEP. This two-fold approach included research on competencies for youth staff personnel of the EFNEP and determining personal development perceptions of youth participants of the EFNEP. Since a review of research indicated that competency studies related to the EFNEP were not evident at the time of this study, for the first phase of the study on youth staff competencies a general review of EFNEP research is included.

The review of literature for the second phase of this chapter is somewhat different in approach. The personal development concepts of this study (self-image, interpersonal relationships, family relationships, and self-acceptance) are constructs of the self or self-concept. Therefore the review includes background literature on the self or self-concept. The section includes:

- (1) general research of the youth EFNEP, (2) youth personal development research, (3) theoretical background and personal development research.

General Research of the Youth EFNEP

The EFNEP has both a family and youth phase. A considerable amount of research has been conducted on the

family phase of the program, including such areas as nutritional knowledge of homemakers, food habits, nutritional status, and nutritional attitudes. Research has also been conducted with paraprofessionals of the EFNEP, but the youth phase of the EFNEP has had little study of any segments of personnel or youth participants. Therefore, in this section research will be limited to a general study on the youth EFNEP. The research reported was part of a national evaluation study of the total EFNEP youth and family phases. The review of the evaluation study includes that part of the research which concentrates on youth activities and program leadership.

USDA Program Performance (1971) Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program is an evaluation of the EFNEP from the period April 1, 1970 through March 31, 1971. The study's location included several states from each of the different regions of the United States, selected to include different geographic areas, urbanization, ethnic background of program personnel and participants, and to represent variation in program design and operation. Data for the study were collected from Extension personnel; agents (youth leaders or home economists), supervising aides, program aides, participating families, youth participants and program volunteers. Information was also gathered from state Extension personnel and such local

personnel as county directors, area directors and 4-H leaders.

The analysis consisted of a review and analysis of field notes and nonsystematic data, routine data processing for description of the population, and a test of the overall hypothesis for the study.

In reviewing the youth activities of the EFNEP the following areas were focused upon:

(1) The ability of the program to foster increased youth awareness and practice of the principles of good nutrition, (2) the extent to which a general improvement in family nutrition practices is effected through work with youth, and (3) the impact of the program in furthering general personal development of disadvantaged youth through program participation (p. 42).

From a nutritional standpoint the evaluation report (USDA, EFNEP, 1971) indicated that youth along with young professionals, aides, and volunteers all overwhelmingly agreed that food and nutrition education was the major activity of the program. The data did not indicate however, on a performance basis, nutritional changes for youth or their families. An evaluation of youth personal development indicated that the objectives were frequently ignored or misunderstood at the local level. The situation as indicated by the evaluation relates to a confusion of "what" and "how to do" rather than a rejection of the goal. It was indicated that the extent to which the program's activities

were narrowly focused upon food and nutrition may be too great. Several factors were indicated as contributing to this emphasis:

- (1) A specific instruction to adhere rigidly to a nutrition education concept and a lack of definition of nutritional related activities,
- (2) reliance on an abundance of recipe materials provided through program sources, and
- (3) lack of guidance as to what to include or how to approach the objective of youth personal development (p. 45).

Results suggest that a curriculum content strictly limited to nutrition will act negatively on program achievement in two ways: first, by keeping out those who would be more easily enticed into participation on the basis of other activities, but who would also participate in and reap benefits of the nutritional education; and secondly, through nutrition saturation, by reducing the duration of program tenure, effecting an overall decrease in the extent of exposure to nutrition education. The evaluation indicated a recognition of this phenomenon at higher levels but to date resources necessary for avoiding the effects described have not been adequate. Greater inclusion of personal development into youth curriculum would attract the teen-age audience which has been bypassed by program activities.

The evaluation also indicated the need to specify program objectives and measures or observation sufficient to indicate the achievement or nonachievement of the objectives.

In view of this evaluation it was believed that there were great potentials for a spectacular youth program through the assimilation of 4-H materials but such potentials are not being realized at the present. The realization of such potentials will require considerable skill in translating 4-H program elements into informational and situational structures which are real to the target youth.

Youth Personal Development Research

A considerable amount of research has produced constructive information on the personal development or self-concept of youth. However because the personal development of youth is dependent upon environmental factors which may change from environment to environment, generalizability of such research may be risky. The following section includes an explanation of the nature of the self, theories related to the self, and self-research of the advantaged and disadvantaged youth. From this information on the self one can see the risk of generalizing from group to group and the need for independent evaluation of groups.

Theoretical Background

Nature of the self

Throughout the history of man's curiosity about the causes of his conduct, and the shorter span of years since

1860 when psychology officially became a science, the question of a psychic agent which regulates, guides, and controls man's behavior has been repeatedly raised and discussed. Perhaps the most popular concepts of an inner entity which shapes man's destiny is that of the soul. According to soul theory, mental phenomena are thought to be the manifestation of a specific substance which is entirely different from material substance. However, with the rise of scientific psychology, the idea of a soul or any other psychic agent such as mind, ego, will or self as a total construct has tended to be rejected.

William James (1890) set the stage for contemporary theorizing, and much of what is written today about the self and the ego. James defined the self or the empirical Me in the most general sense as the sum total of all that a man calls his--his body, traits, abilities, material possessions, his family, friends, enemies, his vocational choice, and avocation. James discussed the self under three headings: its constituents, self-feelings, and the action or seeking self. The constituents of the self are the material self, social self, spiritual self, and pure ego. Self-feeling is one's actual success or failure, and the good or bad actual position one holds in the world, and depends entirely on what we back ourselves to be or do. The action or seeking self is the value placed upon an

individual's extension of the self.

The term self in modern psychology has come to have two distinct meanings. Hall and Lindsay (1970) explained these meanings by stating that the self is seen as the person's attitudes and feelings about himself or the group of psychological processes which govern behavior and adjustment. The first meaning may be called the self as an object denoting the person's attitudes, feelings, perceptions, and evaluation of himself as an object. The self as a process consists of an active group of processes such as thinking, remembering, and perceiving (p. 516).

Combs and Snygg (1959) and Fitts and Richards (1971) maintained that the self is strongly phenomenological in nature and based upon the general principle that a man reacts to his phenomenal world in terms of the way he perceives the world. Probably the most salient feature of each person's phenomenal world is his own self--the self seen, perceived, and experienced by him. This is the perceived self or the individual's self-concept.

The term self-concept is more commonly used than the simpler term self because man is not always aware of his absolute true, or actual self but only of his own concepts and perceptions about himself. The self-concept or self-image is learned by each person through his lifetime of experiences with himself, with others and the realities

of the external world.

Relevant theoretical positions about the self

The self or self-concept as we know it, though similar, in many respects differ with each individual. Accordingly, theories about the self differ from theorist to theorist. The processes of how, when, and what constitutes the development of the self are the basis for some of the differences in opinion. Some of these positions are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Symonds (1951) has described the origin of the self-concept by stating the self as a precept is not present at birth but begins to develop gradually as perceptive powers develop. The self develops as we feel ourselves separate and distinct from others, but the first differentiations are dim and hazy. It is probably true that one learns to recognize and distinguish others before one learns to recognize and distinguish the self. As the recognition of familiar faces takes shape, vague notions of the self simultaneously develop; as the mother begins to take shape as a separate person, the baby forms vague notions of himself as a separate individual. Symonds defined the ego as a group of processes, namely perceiving, thinking, and remembering, which were responsible for developing and executing a plan of action for attaining satisfaction in response to inner

drives. Four aspects of the self were seen by Symonds: (1) how a person perceives himself, (2) what he thinks of himself, (3) how he values himself and (4) how he attempts through various actions to enhance or define himself. The conscious and unconscious perceptions of the self may be different.

Taylor (1953) proposed that as a result of exploratory activity and experience with one's own body, the boundaries of the self begin to be defined and that this occurs by approximately six or seven months of age. During this very early period in his life, the individual's self-concept is based almost entirely on his own perceptions of himself. Later his view of himself is based to a much greater extent upon the values he acquires from his interactions with other people.

Jerslid (1960) stated that the development of the self-concept initially involved a process of differentiation. He pointed out that the infant begins life as if he were still part of his mother's body, and continues to be helpless and dependent for the first several months of life.

Sebin (1952) classified the self into the body (the somatic self), the sense organs and musculate (the receptor-effector self) and social behavior (the social self). He inferred that the selves emerge in developmental sequence, the body self first, and much later the social self.

Purkey (1970) defined the self as a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value. He saw the self as being organized and dynamic. As an organized entity it has several features: (1) the self has a generally stable quality which is characterized by harmony and orderliness, (2) the self is divided into many parts which are beliefs about the self, (3) some beliefs are very close to the essence of the self and are very important, others are not and are less important, (4) closely held beliefs about the self are difficult to change, (5) each concept within the self has a negative and positive value, and (6) each person's self-concept is unique.

As the self is a dynamic entity, perhaps the most important single assumption of modern theories about the self is that maintenance and enhancement of the perceived self is a motive behind all behavior. The self is the individual's basic frame of reference, the central core around which the remainder of the perceptual field is organized. The phenomenal self is both product of the individuals' experience and producer of whatever new experiences of which he is capable. The world exists for the individual only as he is conscious of it. Assuming that the maintenance and enhancement of the perceived self is the motive behind all behavior, then it follows that there is only one

kind of motivation, and that is the personal internal motivation that each and every human being has at all times, all places and in all activities.

Theories Related to the Self

Theory of Combs and Snygg

One of the basic assumptions of the theoretical position of Combs and Snygg (1959) was that behavior is both determined by and related to the behaving organism's phenomenal field. The phenomenal field includes everything of which the person is aware of at the moment of action. Thus, though the degree of awareness may vary, an individual's behavior is the result of the physical reality itself.

Combs et al. (1971) further cited the phenomenal self as an object and doer. It is an object because it is composed of perceptions concerning the individual, and a doer because it regulates behavior and directs a person to behave in a manner which is consistent with his self-concept. Combs also spoke of other aspects of the self. He related that:

The most important single factor affecting behavior is the self-concept. What people do at every moment of their lives is a product of how they see themselves and the situations they are in. While situations may change from moment to moment or place to place, the beliefs that people have about themselves are always present factors in determining their behavior. The self is the star of every performance, the central figure in every act (p. 39).

In conjunction with Comb's theoretical position about the self, several assumptions were made: (1) self-concept is not a thing but an organization of ideas, (2) self-concept is who each person is, (3) the self-concept, once established, thereafter provides a screen through which everything else is seen, heard, evaluated and understood, (4) self-concept has a circular effect, it corroborates and supports the already existing beliefs about self and so tends to maintain and reinforce its own existence, (5) self-concept is learned as a consequence of experience, (6) self-concept can be taught, (7) as perceptions of the self change, behavior changes, and (8) the absence of threat is important for the development of the self-concept.

Combs and Snygg (1959) also promoted the idea that no experience in the development of the child's concepts of self is so important or far reaching as his earliest experiences in his family. They concluded that the family provides the individual with his earliest experiences with (1) feelings of adequacy or inadequacy, (2) feelings of acceptance or rejection, (3) opportunities for identification and (4) expectancies concerning acceptable goals, values, and behavior. From the family members and later from significant other people, the individual learns the values which he attaches to his perceptions of himself.

Carl Rogers self-theory

The self-theory of Rogers (1970) grew out of his work with psychoanalytic therapy which was influenced by the works of Otto Rank. Similar to Combs and Snygg (1959) Rogers (1970) emphasized the significance of the self in determining human behavior. His definition of psychological adjustment hinges almost completely on the notion of congruence of sensory and visceral experiences with the concept of self. Psychological adjustments exist when the concept of self is such that all sensory and visceral experiences of the organism are or may be assimilated on a symbolic level into a consistent relationship with the concept of self.

The main postulates of the self-theory of Rogers (1970) included:

Assuming (a) a minimal willingness on the part of two people to be in contact, (b) an ability and minimal willingness on the part of each to receive communication from the other, and (c) assuming the contact to continue over a period of time: the following relationship is hypothesized to hold true; the greater the congruence of experience, awareness and communication on the part of one individual the more ensuing relationship will involve a tendency toward the reciprocal communication with a quality of increasing congruence; a tendency towards more mutually accurate understanding or communication; improved psychological adjustment and functioning in both parties; mutual satisfaction in the relationship (p. 527).

Congruence as seen by Rogers is the full functioning of a

person. It includes such characteristics as openness to experiences, absence of defensiveness, accurate awareness, unconditional self-regard and harmonious relations with others. In constructing a theory of the self Rogers stated several positions which refer to the self. These included: (1) a portion of the total perceptual field gradually becomes differentiated as the self, (2) as a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of the self is formed and organized, (3) the value attached to experiences, and the values which are a part of the self in some instances are values experienced directly by the organism, and in some instances are values introjected or taken over from others, but perceived in distorted fashion as if they were experienced directly, and (4) as experiences occur in the life of the individual they are either; (a) symbolized and organized into relationship to the self, (b) ignored because there is no perceived relationship to the structure of the self or (c) denied symbolization or given a distorted symbolization because the experience is inconsistent with the structure of the self (Rogers, 1951, pp. 498-507).

According to Rogers (1970) the best reference point for understanding behavior is from the internal frame of reference of the individual. The approach of working with

the whole of the individual is significant to this frame of reference.

Rotter's social learning theory

Rotter (1964) indicates that social learning theory does not utilize a construct of the self or self-concept but makes use of its implication. Social learning does however accept the psychological unit which is referred to as a person. Rotter states that "If we mean by the self a person abstract from the total situation, then clearly such an abstraction is important and necessary. If it is possible to substitute the word person for self then there can be no objection to the use of the term" (p. 239). Rotter believes that the person as a whole may react to one or more of his parts, thereby creating attitudes about himself as a unit, or about himself as he functions in a given situation, or about how other people perceive him.

A basic formulation of social learning is that one of the major predictors of behavior is the subject's expectancy regarding the outcome of his behavior in a given situation. In regard to these expectancies Rotter further explains: "One might refer to such expectancies as self-concept or say that a person's conception of himself in a given situation is a determiner or major determiner of his behavior" (p. 239).

According to social learning theory, Rotter (1970)

believed that behavior is determined by goals and is always directional. An individual responds with those behaviors that he has learned will lead to the greatest satisfaction in a given situation. Each person gradually associates certain goal objects and internal conditions with unlearned or inborn satisfactions. Gradually a set of differentiated motives or needs develops in each individual, varying from very specific to very general. The more specific the category of behavior the more possible it is to predict the strength of one from the other. The more general, broad, or inclusive the concept, the less accurate the prediction of one behavior from another.

From this point of view a need has three essential components. One of these is the set of behavior directed toward the same goal (or to similar or related ones). The second major component is the expectancies that certain behaviors will lead to satisfaction of goals that a person values. An individual may have learned many ways of getting others to take care of him as a child, but at the present time he may have little expectation that will lead to satisfaction. The third general component of needs is the value attached to the goals themselves, that is, the degree to which an individual prefers one set of satisfactions to another.

Another aspect of social learning theory is the weight

it gives to the psychological situation of the individual both in understanding and predicting his behavior. In contrast with trait approach, or any personality approach that places all the stress on internal states, this view emphasizes that an individual learns through past experiences that some satisfactions are more likely to occur in some situations than in others. Individual differences exist not only in the strength of different needs but in the way the same situation is perceived. An individual's reactions to different situations depends on his own past experiences, which therefore constitutes an important aspect of individual differences. The psychological situation then provides the cue for a person's expectancies that his behavior will lead to desired outcomes. Individuals may differ in their attitudes toward different kinds of people and the ways which they respond to strong reinforcement and in the way they approach a variety of similar situations from a problem solving point of view. This concept is called generalized expectancy in social learning theory. A belief that one is controlled by luck, fate, or powerful others is referred to as a belief in external control of reinforcement. Internal control refers to the generalized expectancy that positive and negative events are related to one's own behavior. The generalized expectancy of control of reinforcement is commonly referred to as locus of control.

Summary

The literature of self-theory indicates that the self is a separate and unique entity for each individual. It is developmental and phenomenological in nature and based upon the general principle that man reacts to his phenomenal world in terms of the way he perceives the world. The self-concept is learned by each person through his life time of experiences with himself, with others and the realities of the external world.

Locus of control is based on Rotter's (1964) social learning theory. The basic formulation of social learning is that one of the major predictors of behavior is the subject's expectancy regarding the outcome of his behavior in a given situation. This expectancy is generally referred to as locus of control or generalized expectancy. The locus of control dimension measures the degree to which a person believes or perceives that a behavioral event is contingent upon his own behavior. Those individuals who believe that events that happen to them are a result of fate, luck, superstition, and other factors beyond their control are called "externals"; "internals" are characterized by the belief that their own actions and behaviors determine the positive or negative reinforcement that occur.

The locus of control or general expectancy of the individual's behavioral response is also learned. Reactions

are generally based on past experiences and the perceptions held by the individual of those experiences.

Rogers (1970) self-theory approaches the concept of self from several positions. First of all the best possible reference point for understanding the individual is from the internal frame of reference. Secondly, the interaction with environment and the evaluation of this interaction is significant in the organization and structure of the self. Third, a positive regard for other relates to a positive regard for self.

As measured in the present study self-regard or acceptance is an important aspect of the total concept of self. Self-acceptance is dependent upon the interaction of family, peers, and to a great extent upon the total community in which the individual exists. Community may be defined as the immediate environment which the individual encounters outside the home on a day to day basis. The behavior which the individual displays and expects may be dependent upon the perceptions held from past experiences together with the way new experiences are perceived and internalized. Rogers (1970) stresses the importance of the individual's interaction within his environment as does Rotter (1970). In view of the nature of the present study, the Self-Theory of Rogers and Rotter's Social Learning Theory will serve as the basic theoretical framework for

the study.

Personal Development Research

For a considerable length of time much of the research and other literature related to any aspect of the self or self-concept of the disadvantaged reflected a negative or low self-concept for this socioeconomic group. Such results are still reported but other research is beginning to show no significant difference between the self-concept of the advantaged and disadvantaged (Gibby and Gabler, 1967; McDaniel, 1967). Still other research indicated the self-concept of the disadvantaged to be higher than the advantaged (Soares and Soares, 1964, 1969; Powers et al., 1971).

Much of this research has been conducted in classroom settings, often to determine the effect of racial integration on the self-concept. Other studies have correlated self-concept with such variables as intelligence, academic success and level of parental education as well as other variables. These studies have been based upon a number of psychological and social theories. Some of the theories suggested that the self-concept is a developmental process dependent upon the interaction of the individual and his environment, environment being the social, physical, and psychological setting of the individual. These theories also suggested that the self-concept is made up of several

constructs such as self-acceptance, self-image, self-esteem, self-worth and others. Taking the aforementioned statement into consideration the research which follows will focus on theories related to the self and incorporate the several constructs of the self mentioned.

Because of the nature of the self the measure or study of the self-concept is often very difficult. The greatest difficulty in measuring the self-concept or constructs of the self results from the fact that each person's self-concept is private, personal and not directly observable. Combs and Snygg (1959), for example, maintain that the self-concept cannot be measured at all, but only inferred indirectly from people's behavior.

Radford et al. (1971) indicated a number of problems related to the measurement of the concept. These authorities maintain that there has been marked tendency of researchers to devise instruments of their own rather than to use instruments that others have used. As a result it is very difficult to collect and integrate the existing self-concept research. Furthermore, since little is known regarding the psychometric characteristics, reliability, and normative data of such instruments, the meaning and usefulness of studies using these instruments are limited.

An additional difficulty in the measurement of the self-concept stems from variations in the way self-concept

is conceptualized and the kinds of variables investigators have sought to measure. Some have studied the self-concept only in terms of self-acceptance; others have been concerned with the physical self. Wiley (1961) asserted that such characteristics as these have not led to enlightening research, where as such constructs as self-acceptance, or self-esteem especially when referring to specified attributes, have yielded more manageable and fruitful procedures.

The research which follows utilized several different procedures and instruments, and findings vary. This approach was chosen because many of the constructs of the self, spoken of in the theoretical background, are brought out in the different research studies. This approach was also chosen because from the theoretical background it was pointed out that the self-concept differs with each individual and is composed of several different constructs developed according to environmental settings.

Suinn

The Rogerian self-theory holds that when an individual accepts himself, then he is necessarily more understanding and accepting of others as separate individuals. Research to determine whether a theoretically proposed relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others can be demonstrated empirically has yielded correlations from .36 to .74 (Beiger, 1952; Umwaske, 1954; Phillips, 1951; Sheerer,

1949; Stock, 1949). Suinn (1963) also pointed out that little has been done to specify the variables leading to such correlations. As an extension of work done by Levy (1959), Suinn attempted to provide a theoretical orientation from which the variables influencing the relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others could be derived. A learning theory approach was used, whereby the self was considered as a stimulus object and self-acceptance statements were considered responses. The hypothesis was that these responses associated with the self would be subject to effects of stimulus generalization.

Eighty-two male high school seniors were asked to describe themselves and two other designated stimulus objects; their fathers and their male teachers. Four Q-Sort decks were developed for use. Each deck was composed of 20 adjectives selected from a 300 item adjective checklist by Gough (1955).

Suinn predicted that self-acceptance responses would generalize towards the father and teacher as a function of degree of self-dissatisfaction and degree of involvement with other stimulus objects. Results indicated that self-acceptance was significantly correlated with acceptance of father and with acceptance of teachers. Perceived similarity was a significant variable influencing the generalization of self-acceptance. There was no support for the

proposed influence of degree of self-dissatisfaction, involvement, and self-acceptance or acceptance of others.

Phillips

A great deal of Rogers' self-theory grew out of his work with clients in a therapeutic setting. Several of Rogers' students reported self other attitudes during therapy sessions. Sheerer (1949) reported an analysis of the relationship between acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others in counseling cases.

Phillips (1951) further utilized the results of Sheerer by determining: (1) if self other attitudes are a facet of personality structure, (2) if attitudes can be elicited directly by a question and answer technique, and (3) if such attitudes are related to each other and to a statistically reliable extent in all sections of the population that can respond to a questionnaire.

Using the statements from Sheerer counseling cases regarding self-acceptance and self-respect and regard for others, Phillips constructed a 50 item questionnaire with 25 items referring to self-attitudes and 25 items referring to attitudes towards others. Items on the questionnaire were answered on a five point scale from rarely or almost never true of me to true to me all or most of the time. Using 45 general psychology students, the test retest

reliability for a five day interval was reported as .84 for the 25 items regarding self and .82 for items regarding others.

The questionnaire was administered to several different groups. The first group consisted of 48 college students enrolled in a general psychology summer class. Correlations between attitude towards self and others for this group was .74. The second group consisted of a general psychology class of 77 students all or nearly all of whom were freshmen or sophomores who began college immediately upon completion of high school. The correlation for this group was .54. With the question of age still in mind the questionnaire was administered to still another group consisting of 45 third semester and 41 eighth semester high school students. Correlation for the first group was .67 and .51 for the second group.

The result indicated that self other attitudes as measured in terms of objective, multiple choice questionnaires showed relationship above that expected by chance. Also indicated was that observation of clinicians in regard to self other attitudes hold normal for nonclinical populations as well. Correlation coefficients for the different age groups were not consistent.

Coopersmith

Coopersmith (1959) conducted a study to develop measures capable of distinguishing between subjects with high and low self-esteem, and between subjects exhibiting reality-based and defensive responses. Several hypotheses of the study included: (1) persons whose experiences have been highly successful should generally tend to express confidence and assurance in both their behavior and perceptions, while those who have had more failure experiences should generally tend to express either caution and hesitancy, or attention seeking and aggression in both their behaviors and perceptions, and (2) in cases in which there was disagreement between self-evaluation and behavioral expressions there should be either (a) low self-evaluation due to high standards to which the individual rigidly adheres, or to failures in areas of experience not tapped in the measure; or (b) high self evaluation due to successes achieved in fantasy, or to success in areas not tapped in the measure.

The subjects were 102 fifth and sixth grade children age 10 to 12 years, attending the public schools in a small eastern city. The group consisted of 49 girls and 53 boys who resided in a middle-middle to upper-middle class neighborhood. The age group of 10 to 12 was chosen because the personality has been relatively well formed by this time and

the adolescent turmoil noted in the society is not likely to have occurred.

The measured called the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI), used in the study, was constructed on the basis of items selected from Rogers and Dymond's Scale (1958) which was reworded for children. Several additional items were added and the battery was presented to five psychologists who sorted the items into two groups, those indicative of high self-esteem and those indicative of low self-esteem. The set of items were tested with 50 children for comprehensibility. The final instrument consisted of 50 items concerned with subjects' perceptions in four areas: peers, parents, school, and self.

Scores on the initial administration ranged from 40 to 100 with a mean of 81.3 and a standard deviation of 11.6. The mean score for boys was 81.3 with a standard deviation of 12.2, and for the girls 83.3 with a standard deviation of 16.7. The difference between scores was not significant. Test, retest reliability after a five week interval with the sample of 30 fifth graders was .88.

The teachers and principal of the children involved in the study were asked to rate each child on a 14 item, five point scale on behavior presumed to be related to self-esteem, Behavior Rating Form (BRF). Items included in the rating referred to such behavior as the child's reaction to

failure, self-confidence in a new situation, and the need for encouragement and reassurance. The correlation between the evaluation of teacher and principal was .78.

From the group of 102 children, four groups of 12 children each were selected on the basis of the self-esteem inventory score and the teacher-principal ratings (BRF). Each group represented various types of relationships between high-low self-evaluation and convergent-divergent behavioral evaluations. The criteria used for selection included: (1) high-high, high scores on both SEI and BRF and in the upper quartile of the class, (2) low-low scores on both SEI and BRF and in lower quartile of the class, (3) high-low, SEI in upper quartile and BRF in lower quartile, and (4) low-high, SEI in lower quartile and BRF in the upper quartile of the class. These children were used to study extreme behaviors of self-esteem.

To obtain academic, social, and personality measures for the four groups of children, several activities were initiated. First the Iowa Achievement test score for each child was obtained from school records. Second, the children in the four groups were asked to indicate which three children in their class they would most like to have as a friend. The information was compiled as the total number of times each child was chosen by their classmate. As a third activity, the children were administered the

children's form of the Taylor Scale of Manifest Anxiety (1952). The children were also presented with items on the self-esteem inventory in card form and instructed to put the cards in the like me or unlike me pile, according to the way the person they would like to be would do it.

Using self-esteem scores and scores from the achievement test and sociogram as indices of success experiences, the data were subjected to chi square analyses. The chi square values of 5.1 for the achievement scores and 8.3 for the sociometric choice were both significant beyond the .05 level. These significant chi-square values indicated that students above and below class median in success experiences were above and below the respective class median in self-esteem.

Overall results of the study indicated that there was substantial agreement among self-evaluation and behavioral expression in the majority of cases. It was also found that persons who had more success experiences were significantly higher in their self-evaluation than individuals with fewer such experiences. For the four groups of children used to study extremes of self-esteem behavior, the groups were found to differ significantly in achievement, sociometric status, ideal self and achievement motivation. The four groups of behavior included: (1) low-high, children with low self-evaluation and high teacher evaluation,

sociometric status and achievement scores, (2) high-low, children with high self-evaluation and rated low by teachers, seldom chosen by classmates and low academic achievement, (3) low-low, children who scored low in every category with the exception of the Manifest Anxiety Scale, and (4) high-high, children rated high by themselves, by teachers and frequently chosen by classmates.

The foregoing studies dealt with self-acceptance, acceptance of self and others and self-esteem as these constructs relate to groups not considered disadvantaged. The following studies, in some instances, used both advantaged and disadvantaged groups of children to study self-concept constructs. Many have attempted to compare the self-concept of the two groups while others have sought to determine the concept of the two groups but to make no comparisons.

Soares and Soares

Soares and Soares (1969) reported that self-perceptions include the self-concept (how the individual believes himself to be at the moment), the ideal self (how the individual wishes he were or hopes to become), and the various reflected selves (how he believes others view him). The study was a comparison of the self-perceptions of disadvantaged children with those not generally described

as the disadvantaged. Questions posed by the study included:

(1) Do advantaged and disadvantaged children have positive or negative self-perceptions and do the perceptions differ among the two groups? (2) Are there differences between the self-perceptions of the two groups when grouped according to grade and sex?

To answer these questions, 514 children, 229 from a public elementary school in a disadvantaged area, and 285 from a public elementary school in an advantaged area were used. Two hundred forty-four girls and 270 boys, grades four through eight with a minimum of 40 students from each grade were chosen.

To determine the self-perceptions of the students, a revision of the self-perception scale, Soares and Soares (1964) was used. A pilot project was first undertaken to determine whether the revised form would be appropriate both in terms of language and comprehension. The instrument revised from the pilot study contained 20 bi-polar traits. Each subject rated himself as to whether he was more like the positive than negative traits, on the five different measures of self-perception: (1) self-concept, (2) ideal self, (3) reflected self-classmates, (4) reflected self-teachers and (5) reflected self-parents. The five forms of the Self-Perception Scale were administered to the students at different times over a three week period.

Results indicated significant differences on the self-concept measure between the two schools and interaction of school with sex and grade. Children of the disadvantaged schools had the higher mean of the two groups. Significant differences were shown on the ideal self-measure between the two schools and in the interaction of school with sex and grade. For all five of the perception scores, the disadvantaged children had consistently higher means than the advantaged children. In regard to answering the question posed by the study, the findings indicated positive self-perceptions for the disadvantaged and the advantaged group but slightly higher for the disadvantaged than the advantaged. The investigators noted that these results are readily understood when all of the children attend neighborhood schools. Results indicated no significant difference in self-perception of the group when compared by age and sex.

Powers et al.

As a result of controversy generated by the results of the study by Soares and Soares (1969) which reported findings that disadvantaged children have more positive self-perceptions than the advantaged, Powers et al. (1971) used the scale constructed by Soares and Soares to determine differences in self-image and selected educational variables

for Blacks, Jewish-white and non-Jewish white youth integrated in a suburban high school. One of the main interests was to see if results similar to those reported by Soares and Soares could be obtained.

Data were gathered using the Self-Perception Scale of Soares and Soares (1969) with additional information on grade point, accumulated credits, absences, tardies, intelligence and average length of time in school district.

The sample was drawn from the tenth grade class of a high school in a large metropolitan area. Students for the sample included 49 Blacks, 106 Jewish and 60 non-Jewish white, a proportion approximate to that of the population of the community. Paired comparisons of groups showed that the mean score for self-image was higher for Black than for Jewish and non-Jewish whites. On both grade point and cumulative credits, all pairs of comparisons were significantly different in order of Jewish, non-Jewish white and Blacks from high to low respectively. The Jewish group had significantly fewer tardies than either of the two groups. The mean I.Q. score of the Blacks was significantly lower than either the Jewish or non-Jewish white groups. Powers et al. (1971) suggested that the results seemed to support the hypothesis set forth by Soares and Soares (1969) that self-image is a result of the daily interaction of persons with others like themselves. The data also suggested that

self-image is more likely a product of a person's interaction within the specific subgroups to which he belongs than the product of the general school or community environment.

Zirkel and Moses

Zirkel and Moses (1971) conducted research to determine whether ethnic group memberships in a public school significantly affect or modify the self-concept of an individual student. The main objective was to determine (a) if differences existed in the self-concept among Negro, Puerto Ricans, and white elementary school students, and (b) the extent to which these differences were influenced by the minority or majority status of each group within the school. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) was used for data collection.

Subjects for the study consisted of 120 students from fifth and sixth grades in schools with students from three socioeconomic levels in similar sections of a large Connecticut city. All schools had Negro, Puerto Rican, and white students with a majority of one of the three groups in a school. Forty students were selected from each school consisting of 20 from the majority and 20 from the minority.

The SEI was administered to a small ethnically mixed group of students away from the classroom teachers. The

ethnic group factor yielded statistical significance, but the majority-minority factor did not. Negro children showed a higher self-concept than whites though not statistically significant. Negro and white children tended to have lower but not statistically significantly lower self-concepts when in a minority than a majority, whereas Puerto Rican children reflected the opposite effect. Self-concept of the Puerto Rican children was lowest when they were in a school with a white rather than a Negro majority.

Scott

Scott (1969) analyzed the self-concept of students in an integrated school setting in comparison with that of students in a segregated school setting. Comparisons were made of (1) Negro groups of seventh grade students who had been in segregated schools throughout their lives, (2) groups of Caucasian seventh grade students who had spent elementary years in segregated schools and (3) mixed groups of Negro-white students who had been in schools that had been integrated for two years or more.

Hypothesis for the study centered around there being no significant difference between students in integrated and nonintegrated school systems for both Negro and white students. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was used for data collection. Findings from the study showed no

significant differences among the four groups of students, although Negro students showed a dissatisfaction with their current personal status. Negro students in the integrated and segregated school groups evidenced a more positive acceptance of life than white students in each of the two groups.

Campbell

Campbell (1965) examined the relationship between self-concept and school achievement for fourth, fifth, and sixth grade public school children. He also contrasted levels of self-concept between boys' groups and girls' groups. An additional consideration of the study was the stability of the self-concept over a one year period and the consistency of the interrelations within the CSEI over the same period of time.

Hypotheses for the study were: (1) There is a direct, linear relationship between self-concept and school achievement for children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades in a suburban public school. (2) There is a relationship between school achievement and the levels of self-concept specific to the school setting. (3) The effect of ability upon the relationship between self-concept and school achievement is to introduce nonlinearity, with the size of the correlation decreasing at successively higher ability

levels. (4) The effect of school grade placement upon the relationship between self-concept and school achievement is to introduce nonlinearity, with the size of the correlations decreasing at successively higher grade levels. (5) The relationship between self-concept and achievement is more pronounced for boys than for girls. (6) The level of those attributes of self-concept specific to the school setting is higher for girls than boys.

Three questions posed by the study were: (1) Does the CSEI maintain internal consistency? (2) Does the self-concept remain relatively stable in time? (3) What may account for the observed deviations from the pattern of most middle grade school children?

A group of 158 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in a suburban elementary school were tested on measures of academic ability, academic achievement, and self-concept. June, 1963, the students were administered the CSEI and at the same time a teacher judgment of student self-concept was also collected. October, 1963, the Iowa Test of Basic Skills was administered to the same students and Intelligence Quotients from the SRA Test of Primary Mental Abilities were obtained from school records. June, 1964, the CSEI was readministered to the students.

The data supported the hypothesis pertaining to the relationship between self-concept and achievement for the

total group, for specific school related self-concept and achievement, for the nonlinear effect of grade placement for the more pronounced relationship for boys than for girls, and for higher levels of self-concept for girls than for boys. The data did not support the nonlinear effect of ability level groupings.

The analysis of the CSEI was approached in two parts. First, the stability of the self-concept as measured by the inventory was examined by test-retest correlations computed from test administrations one year apart. Secondly, the interrelation of the self-esteem part scores to each other and to the total scores were examined. These analyses were accomplished through examination of the correlation matrix of self-esteem scores and the teacher judgment score.

The stability of the self-concept as measured by the CSEI was relatively low for the study. The correlation between the total scores (pretest) and the total score (posttest) was .60. The relationship of the part scores to the total score remained relatively consistent in the two situations. Coefficients for part score to total score on pre- and posttest are indicated in Table 1. The moderate figure estimating stability over a one year period could as well be due to external factors as to instrument weakness.

Table 1. Correlation between part score and total score for pretest, posttest application of the CSEI

	Self	Social	School	Home	Lie
Pretest					
Total scores	.93	.63	.75	.69	-.16
Posttest					
Total scores	.90	.62	.75	.66	-.08

Trowbridge

Trowbridge (1972) conducted a study to determine the relationship of self-concept to socioeconomic status (SES). The purposes of the study were to determine (1) whether measurable differences in self-concept existed between children of different SES, (2) the dimension of self-concept in which differences occurred, and (3) whether differences in self-concept by SES were confounded by other variables such as race, age, sex, and density of population.

SES was established in two ways. Low SES was determined by selecting those schools that received funds as a result of Title I of Public Law 89-10, Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965). The neighborhood of pupils was also used as a criterion for determining low SES. Trowbridge indicates that perhaps the best manner to establish SES is by the individual's income. As family

income figures were not available for students, the schools receiving Title I funds where a majority of the students were disadvantaged were selected. Middle SES was established by home evaluations used for tax purposes. Schools were considered middle SES if 90 percent of the home evaluations translated into market values of \$12,000 to \$24,000.

One hundred thirty-three classrooms were selected from 42 elementary schools in rural and urban areas of central Iowa. Classrooms were classified by SES and population density. The 133 classrooms included 1534 rural-small town students and 2225 urban-suburban students. Classrooms were not randomly selected but chosen on the basis of the investigator's prior connection with the teachers in other research, thus introducing possible sample bias.

Total and subtotal scores for each student were computed. Means were obtained for the different groups; age, sex, population density, race, and SES. Analysis of variance indicated significant differences for SES, race and population density; however, SES differences were much greater than race or density of population differences. Interaction variances in all cases were insignificant, indicating that the important SES differences go across both races, and in both urban and rural areas.

In analyzing the subscales of the CSEI, Trowbridge found that for the general self, social self-peers and

academic school-self-subscales, the low SES students scored higher than middle SES students. The low SES students felt more sure of themselves, could make up their minds easily, and believed that what they had to say was worth saying. The low SES students also felt that they were more able in school than their middle class peers. Middle SES students showed a stronger self-concept than low SES students in terms of adjusting to new things, understanding themselves and not being easily upset when scolded.

The review of research thus far has dealt with self-esteem, self-acceptance, and other constructs of the self. The following studies are of research on internal and external locus of control. The research involves studies of locus of control and its relationship to other variables such as socioeconomic status, academic achievement, parent's level of education and other variables. Nowicki and Strickland (1971) indicates that "How a person perceived his environment may be directly or indirectly related to how he behaves socially. That is, not only may locus of control be related to variates of academic achievement but also to other types of interpersonal variables" (p. 2). Social acceptance as well as other variables are a part of the study which follows.

Nowicki-Strickland

Nowicki and Strickland (1971) conducted research to produce a reliable measure of generalized locus of control which could be group administered to a wide range of children at different age levels. Hypotheses for the study were: (1) scores will become more internal with increasing age, (2) scores will be related to achievement with internals more than externals, and (3) scores will not be significantly related to measures of social desirability or intelligence.

The Nowicki-Strickland (N-S) Locus of Control Scale (LCS) is a paper and pencil measure consisting of 40 questions which are answered either yes or no by placing a mark next to the question. The instrument originally contained 102 items based on Rotter's definition of the external-internal control of reinforcement dimension. The items describe reinforcement situations across interpersonal and motivational areas such as affiliation, achievement, and dependency. The instrument was given to nine clinical psychologists and five graduate students who were asked to answer the items in an external direction. Items that were not in complete agreement with the judges were dropped leaving 59 items. The 59 item test was given to 159 children, third through ninth grade. The test-retest reliabilities for a six week period were .67 for

the eight to eleven year old ($N = 98$) and .75 for the twelve to fifteen year old group ($N = 54$). Results from the item analysis as well as comments from teachers and pupils in the sample led to the 40 item scale.

The 40 item instrument was administered to 1,017 mostly Caucasian elementary and high school students in four different communities. All schools were in counties which border a large metropolitan city but none were from a metropolitan system. Results indicated that students' responses became more internal with age, and that substantial individual differences in this measure were present at the third grade level.

Estimates of internal consistency for the N-S (LCS) via the split-half method, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula were $r = .63$ (grades, 3, 4, 5); $r = .68$ (grades 6, 7, 8); $r = .74$ (grades 9, 10, 11); $r = .81$ (grade 12). Investigators judged these reliabilities satisfactory inasmuch as the items were not arranged according to difficulty. Test retest reliability sampled at three grade levels, six weeks apart, were .63 for the third grade, .66 for the seventh grade, and .71 for the tenth grade.

Locus of control scores were not significantly related to social desirability. Internality was significantly related to higher occupational level, especially

for males. The correlations for parental level of education were not clear. The lack of significance may be the result of using the highest level of education for analysis regardless of whether it was mother or father. Significant correlation between locus of control and achievement for male and female ranged from .27 to .45 which suggested a relationship between the two variables.

On the basis of the item-total correlations and item-variance estimates for each item on the Nowicki-Strickland scale, those items working the best were identified. Analyses computed for each grade were combined into primary and secondary groups. Primary groups consisted of grades three through six and secondary included grades seven through twelve. Results were used to construct shorter versions of the 40 item scale. The two revised scales consist of 20 and 21 items respectively using items which discriminate best for the two age groups.

Summary of research

Research directed toward differences between advantaged and disadvantaged youth indicates a change in the once held conviction that low SES youth held lower self-concepts than middle and upper income SES youth. The research also indicates change regarding the self-concept of minority groups as compared to nonminorities. The latest research indicates

significant differences between youth of the different income levels as well as ethnic group membership, with an equal or higher self-concept for low SES and minorities.

Several of the researchers speculate that the changes in the self-concept of low SES youth may be due to the different ethnic power movements of minorities or a new self-consciousness among low income people in general. It was also suggested that the continued pressures of middle and upper income parents on their children to succeed may be a factor in the low self-concept of this group. The immediate environment of the individual may also contribute greatly to the concept of self held by youth.

As personal development of youth is a continuous concern, the research studies indicated the need for continuous evaluation of the self-concept of youth.

METHODOLOGY

The present study was conducted in two parts. Part one dealt with competencies needed by youth staff members in the areas of personal development and food and nutrition. The second phase was an investigation of youth perceptions of personal development concepts of the youth EFNEP.

Purposes of the study were:

1. Analyze tasks and identify competencies needed to perform tasks in the areas of personal development and food and nutrition for Extension youth staff members of the EFNEP.
2. Compare differences among youth staff as to competencies needed and determine the competencies indicated as most important for inservice training of youth staff and for program development.
3. Identify from among the most important competencies those concepts in the area of personal development considered important for inservice training and program development.
4. Assess the perceptions of EFNEP and 4-H youth of the identified personal development concepts in (3) above by means of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale (LCS).
5. Determine differences of self-esteem and locus of control for EFNEP and 4-H youth and determine the relationship of self-esteem to locus of control.
6. Identify demographic differences of EFNEP and 4-H youth in relation to the personal development concepts.

Hypotheses tested by the study were:

1. There is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth in self-esteem using total scores on the CSEI.

2. There is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth on the subscales of the CSEI for age, sex, and program affiliation.
3. There is no significant difference between 4-H and EFNEP youth on the locus of control in relation to sex, age and program affiliation.
4. There is no relationship between locus of control and self-esteem.

Instrumentation

Phase one

In order to develop the type of instrument desired for data collection, several steps were initiated:

1. As the youth EFNEP was a developing program, the investigator went directly to personnel of the local youth EFNEP to interview youth leaders on the nature of their work. This interview questionnaire centered around tasks performed on the job (Appendix B). Interviews were also conducted with food aides of the youth EFNEP and youth participants (Appendix C and D).
2. A search of the literature for jobs similar to the youth EFNEP was conducted. State personnel of the youth EFNEP were sent questionnaires relating to personal development outcomes expected of youth as a result of participating in the youth EFNEP (Appendix E).
3. Summarizing the literature search, interviews, and questionnaires, a task analysis was organized for youth staff of the local EFNEP in the areas of personal development and food and nutrition.
4. Competencies for each task were determined from existing literature on the subject as well as from consultation with subject matter specialists.
5. The completed task and competency list for personal development and food and nutrition was sent to selected subject matter specialists for their

Phase two

For assessment of youth personal development concepts, two scales were chosen; the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (LCS). Copies of the instruments are in Appendix G and Appendix H, respectively. The CSEI contains five subscales: (1) general self, (2) social self-peers, (3) home parent-self, (4) academic self, and (5) a lie scale. The subscales and items were closely related to the personal development concepts of this study (self-image, family relationships, self-acceptance, and peer relationships) which was one reason for using the CSEI for data collection. The other reason was the validity and reliability of the instrument as reported in the review of literature. Because the present study did not concern itself with academic success, the academic self-subscale was dropped from the instrument.

With an interest in determining the relationship between self-esteem and locus of control, a search was begun to find a reliable instrument which measured locus of control in children eight to 15. The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children was chosen. The reliability and validity data are included with the review of literature.

Pretest

Phase one

The Q-sort instrument with directions for sorting was sent to three youth staff of the state EFNEP. The purpose was to determine adequacy and clarity of directions, and time required to complete the instrument. No revisions were necessary.

Phase two

The CSEI was pretested with two groups of EFNEP youth not included in the final sample. The purpose was to determine if the youth of the EFNEP would experience difficulty in understanding the instrument. Results from the pretesting indicated that the youth had a clear understanding of the items and experienced no apparent difficulties in responding to the instrument.

The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale was not pretested because of a delay in receiving the instrument before actual testing.

Sample

Phase one

All county youth staff personnel of the Iowa EFNEP were used in data collection. The EFNEP youth personnel was divided into two groups (a) youth staff leaders and

(b) home economists. The first group consisted of 12 and the latter 19 for a total of 31. The following EFNEP units were included in the study: Des Moines, Waterloo, Cedar Rapids, Burlington, Newton, Creston, Fort Dodge, Sioux City, Ottumwa, Dubuque, Council Bluffs, and Davenport.

Phase two

The sample for the youth personal development research was drawn from youth participants of the EFNEP and 4-H youth located in areas where there were EFNEP groups. To determine the sample for the study, a questionnaire was mailed to each of the youth leaders in 13 units (the 12 units listed in phase one with the addition of Mason City) requesting the number of boys and girls per group and the total number of groups in the EFNEP during the months of July and August, 1972. The same information was requested of 4-H leaders located within EFNEP areas. Responses showed that there were 93 groups, 1038 boys and 1220 girls for the EFNEP; and 93 groups, 706 boys and 1113 girls for the 4-H.

Of the 13 units of the EFNEP, 12 youth leaders submitted a list of youth groups meeting during the months of July and August. One unit leader was resigning and was not included in the study; therefore, the 4-H group submitted from the unit was also excluded from the study. From the

list of youth groups submitted by both EFNEP and 4-H leaders, one group from each unit was randomly selected to participate in the study. From this random selection a total of 237 EFNEP and 206 4-H youth were included in the study. The questionnaires were personally administered to each group selected.

Because of the irregularity of attendance at meetings for the EFNEP groups and summer vacations for 4-H, the total number of membership indicated for each group was not always present when the questionnaires were administered. Therefore, the final sample for the study included 102 EFNEP and 128 4-H youth. The total number included 29 boys and 73 girls for the EFNEP, and 48 boys and 80 girls for the 4-H.

Data Collection

Phase one

Each of the 12 youth leaders, eight food aides, and eight youth participants of the EFNEP were interviewed concerning the nature of the youth EFNEP. The interviews were personally conducted by the researcher during the months of March and April, 1971. This information was used in construction of the task and competency list for youth leaders and home economists.

The Q-sort instrument of tasks and competencies was mailed to 12 youth leaders and 19 home economists of the

youth EFNEP. A total of 25 usable instruments or 81 percent of the total sample responded to the instrument. The six nonrespondents were either no longer with the program or not associated with the youth phase of the EFNEP.

Phase two

Each EFNEP leader and each 4-H youth leader was contacted by telephone and informed of the group selected for the study. The meeting dates of each group were obtained and times established to administer the questionnaires to each group. During the months of August, September, and October, the CSEI and LCS were administered personally by the researcher to each of the youth groups selected for the study.

Data Analysis

Phase one

Using the score sheet from respondents, the data for the Q-sort were coded according to the 11 point scale used by respondents to sort the items. Codes for items were: 11, 10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1.

A person by person, 25 x 25 intercorrelation matrix was constructed and factor analyzed. Two to eight factors were extracted by maximum likelihood procedure and rotated by Varimax Procedure. Each factor was inspected for logical

groupings of people on each factor. The four factor solution was chosen because the factor loadings by persons were more unique for each factor. Uniqueness was interpreted to mean high loadings on one factor with low loadings on others. Also considered was the number of individuals accounted for through the factors analyzed. The four factor loadings uniquely utilized the responses of 22 persons, whereas all other factor solutions utilized 21 persons or less. Item means for each group of persons were determined and scatterplots constructed. Clusters of related items were determined from the analysis of scatterplots. The factor loadings for the four factor solution are included in Appendix I.

Phase two

Total and subtotal scores for each youth were computed for the CSEI and LCS. Correct responses on the CSEI were scored 2 points each with the exception of the lie scale which received 1 point for each correct response, the lie scale of the CSEI was not included in the total score for the CSEI, in accordance with the author's key. Items of the LCS were also scored 2 points each.

A $2 \times 2 \times 5$ factorial analysis of variance using weighted and unweighted mean analysis was used to determine the significance of age, sex, and program affiliation on self-esteem

and locus of control. Overall F was not significant on the self-esteem inventory thereby eliminating the need for further analysis of the data. Overall F for the locus of control scale was significant; however, the detailed analysis of the unweighted means was not informative in that none of the individual sources of variance were significant, probably because of the unequal sample sizes. In order to determine the cause of a significant F on the locus of control scale, the mean scores for each of the independent variables were generated from the unweighted three way factorial analysis. Using the weighted means scores for each of the 20 groups composing the sample (for example, the first group was males in the EFNEP, ages 8 and 9; second group females EFNEP, ages 8 and 9, etc., Table 2), another three way factorial analysis was constructed. The error term for this analysis was determined by dividing the total error mean square for the unweighted analysis by the harmonic mean. The harmonic mean was determined as follows:

$$n_h = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{20} \frac{1/n_i}{i} \right)$$

where n = the number of observations per cell and i = number of cells (Snedecor, 1967, p. 475). The same procedure was also used in analysis of the subscales of the CSEI.

Mean scores of the 20 groups composing the sample were

Table 2. Number of youth of the EFNEP and 4-H by age level and sex

Program	Sex	Age Levels				
		8,9	10	11	12	13,14,15
EFNEP	Girls	23	14	17	4	15
EFNEP	Boys	7	6	5	9	2
4-H	Girls	2	7	11	23	35
4-H	Boys	5	4	7	8	24

computed for all items of the LCS and for each subscale of the CSEI to provide insight into low scoring items for the different groups.

To determine the relationship between locus of control and self-esteem, scores of the CSEI and LCS were correlated using the Pearson formula (Snedecor and Cochran, 1967) and attenuation corrected by using the following formula:

$$\hat{r} = \frac{r_{12}}{\sqrt{r_{11}} \sqrt{r_{22}}}$$

where r_{11} is the reliability of the CSEI, r_{22} is the reliability of the LCS, and r_{12} is the correlation of r_{11} and r_{12} (Nunnally, 1967, p. 204).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the research are divided into two phases. The first phase involves a discussion of needed competencies for youth staff of the EFNEP. Items selected as most important are presented and discussed. Phase two is an investigation of youth personal development concepts as measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and the relationship of self-esteem to locus of control.

Phase One

Needed competencies of the youth EFNEP

Several steps preceded final development of the Q-sort instrument used to determine competencies needed by youth staff of the EFNEP. Involved were interviews of youth leaders, food aides, and youth participants, and the combination of interviews, suggestions from subject matter specialists and existing literature in the development of the task and competency list used in construction of the Q-sort instrument. Determination of needed competencies includes a summary of interviews, development of task and competency list, explanation of factor grouping, and analysis of scattergrams.

Summary of interviews

An interview was conducted with each youth staff leader concerning tasks performed on the job, activities or programs, methods of need determination, evaluation of programs and clients, and related concerns. Similar interviews were conducted with food and youth participants of the EFNEP.

Data from the interviews of youth leaders indicated that most of them felt their role was one of determining needs of youth, developing and coordinating programs, and training adult youth volunteers. There was little direct involvement with youth because youth leaders felt a lack of competency in this area as well as a lack of time. Needs of youth were usually determined by food aides, by asking the youth directly or through other existing programs within the community. An indication of the need for more training in this area was expressed.

Activities for youth in food and nutrition were expressed as being in hand but the area of personal development had very few activities. Youth leaders felt a lack of competency in working in this area. Their concerns included determining needs in personal development, developing appropriate activities for youth, and methods of evaluating youth personal development.

An analysis of interviews from food aides showed that aides performed tasks of teaching or assisting with the

instruction of nutrition classes. Aides planned many of the activities for the youth program with home economists and suggestions from the youth. Home visits, questionnaires, or simply talking with the youth were indicated as methods to identify needs. In relation to personal development, some of the aides indicated that they could not tell about personal development while others indicated such things as responsibility, appreciation, and self-awareness.

Interviews of youth participants indicated that the youth learned of the EFNEP through friends or food aides. Activities in which the youth had participated centered around cooking, sewing, and different types of games. Most of the youth met twice monthly but would prefer a weekly meeting. Other activities which the youth expressed an interest in were sewing, field trips, baseball, basketball, hiking, camping, crafts, and swimming. The youth felt that the program had helped them to learn to cook new dishes and the basic four. There was little indication of their understanding of personal development.

Development of task and competency list

Summarizing the interviews and literature on jobs similar to that of EFNEP youth leaders, a task analysis in the areas of personal development and food and nutrition was developed. Competencies for each task were determined from

existing literature and consultation with subject matter specialists. The task and competency list was sent to selected subject matter specialists in each of the subject matter areas for clarity of tasks and competencies, suggestions for additional tasks and competencies, and final judgment of the appropriateness of each task and competencies for each task. The task and competency list with revisions from subject matter specialists was converted into a Q-sort. A major factor involved in converting the task and competency list into a Q-sort was the force choice system utilized which provides for a certain amount of selectivity of items.

Explanation of factor groupings

To determine needed competencies for the youth EFNEP in the areas of personal development and food and nutrition, a Q-sort was constructed using interviews of youth leaders, food aides, youth participants, suggestions, from subject matter specialist, and literature on the subjects. Data from the Q-sort was factor analyzed using the following procedure. A person by person 25 x 25 intercorrelation matrix was constructed using the responses of the 25 youth leaders and home economists. People instead of items were used in the factor analysis because of the small number of respondents per item. Eight factor solutions were extracted

and each factor examined to determine logical grouping of people on each factor. The four factor solution was chosen because it utilized more people on each factor loadings than did any of the other factor solutions. Twenty-two people were accounted for in the four factor solution where as 21 or less were accounted for on all other factor solutions. Four groups of people consisting of both home economist and youth leaders emerged from the four factor loadings. Because each group contained both youth leaders and home economists it was assumed that there were no differences in the responses of youth leaders and home economists.

A question unanswered by the research is what the four factors represent. One may speculate such things as educational background, years of work experience, or experience in each of the subject areas studied by the research. However, a definite determination could not be made because of a lack of personal data on each individual.

Analysis of scattergrams for needed competencies

Item means for each factor grouping of people responses were determined and scattergrams constructed for each of six different group combinations. To determine items which differentiated the two groups in each comparison as well as to determine important items, the scattergrams were inspected

in the following manner. Each scattergram was examined for items (for ease of reference competencies will be referred to as items in each of the group comparisons) which clustered farthest away from the diagonal. Each cluster had to follow a central theme or form one or two related concepts which were part of a task for which the competencies were derived. Items which clustered around the diagonal were interpreted to mean that the groups were responding alike. These items are listed in Appendix J.

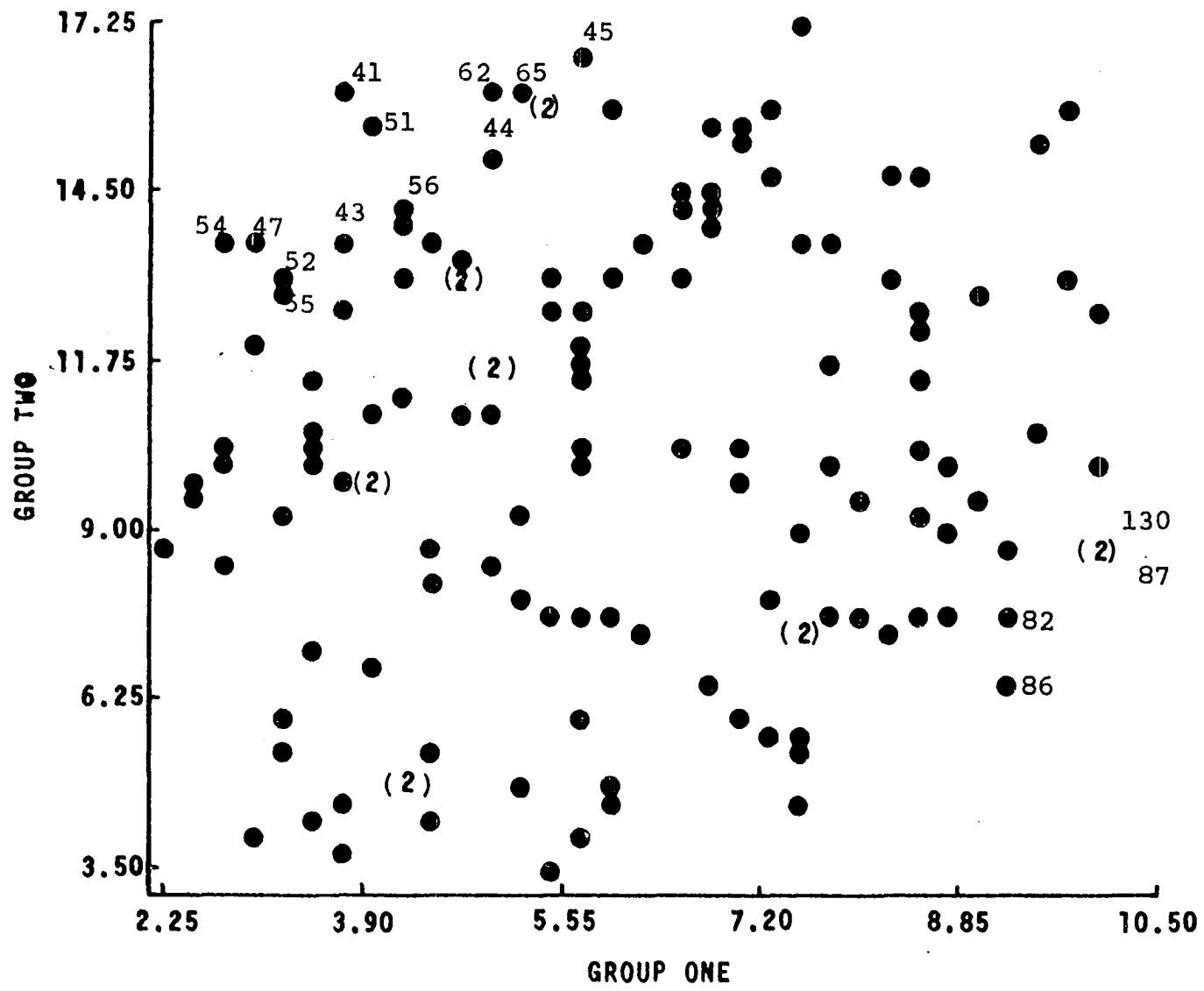
Group I and II An examination of Figure 1 shows that for group I, items which formed the cluster related to self-image and self-acceptance, group II shows clusters with items which relate to nutritional needs. Items for each of the groups included:

<u>Group I</u>	
Item No.	Item
41.	Strengths and weaknesses of self
43.	Factors which contribute to self-image
44.	Accepts self as a person of intrinsic worth
45.	Accepts responsibility for own behavior
47.	Accepts self as a sexual being
51.	Possesses an awareness of self
52.	Characteristics of self-image
54.	Importance of self-image
55.	Relationship between self-image and daily living

Figure 1. Scattergram of mean responses^{a,b} to competencies
for youth leaders and home economists in groups
I and II

^aIndicated as 1, least important to 11, most important.
This is also true for Figures 2 through 5.

^b() Two or more items were plotted in one spot.



- 56. Meaning of self-image
- 62. Recognizes self as a fully functioning being capable of right or wrong behavior
- 65. Importance of being and accepting one's self

Group II

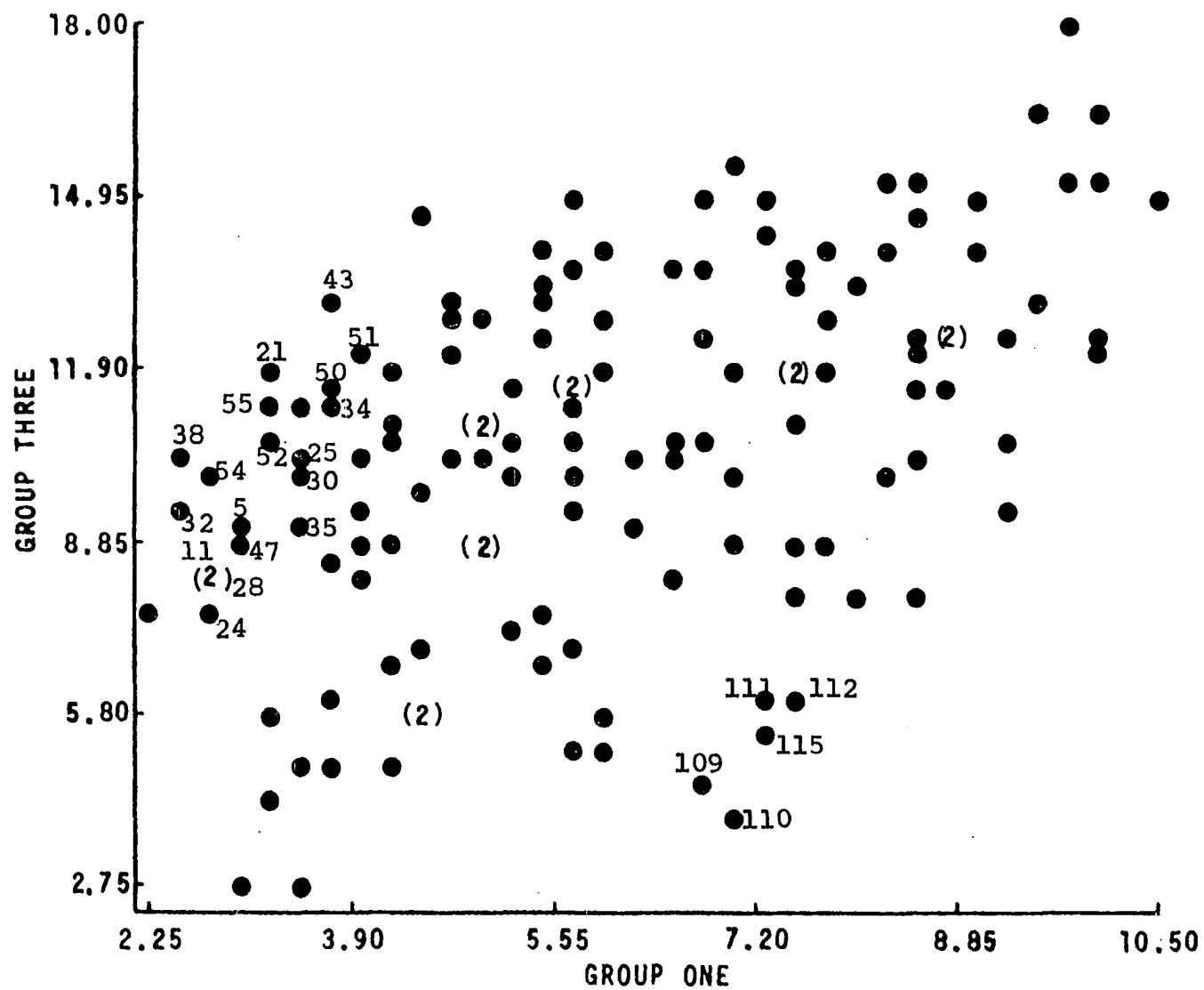
Item No.	Item
82.	Normal nutritional needs of all age groups
87.	Nutritional problems of youth
88.	Ways of identifying nutritional problems of youth
130.	Ways of motivating interest in one's diet

Group I and III When compared with group III (Figure 2), it was found that items important for group I related to tasks on consumer information and buymanship. Items important for group III included those that related to family relationships and self-image. Items for these two groups were:

Group I

Item No.	Item
109.	Consumer information and other factors influencing food purchasing
110.	Importance of comparing prices in food purchasing
111.	Helps families to establish spending guides
112.	Helps families to make wise decisions in shopping

Figure 2. Scattergram of mean responses to competencies
for youth leaders and home economists in groups
I and III



115. Relationship of time, energy, and money to food buying

Group III

Item No.	Item
11.	The importance of companionship with others
21.	Meaning of family
24.	Advantages and disadvantages of good family relationships
28.	Responsibility of caring for family members
30.	Individual responsibility to family
32.	Difficulties and satisfaction of working in and living in a family group
35.	Family functions
38.	Significance of being a family member
39.	Importance and meaning of self-image
43.	Factors which contribute to self-image
50.	Value of being liked by others as well as self
51.	Possesses an awareness of self
52.	Characteristics of self-image
54.	Importance of self-image
55.	Relationship between self-image and daily living

Group I and IV A distinction between group I and IV (Figure 3) shows that items important for group I related to consumer information and buymanship and were the

Figure 3. Scattergram of mean responses to competencies
for youth leaders and home economists in groups
I and IV

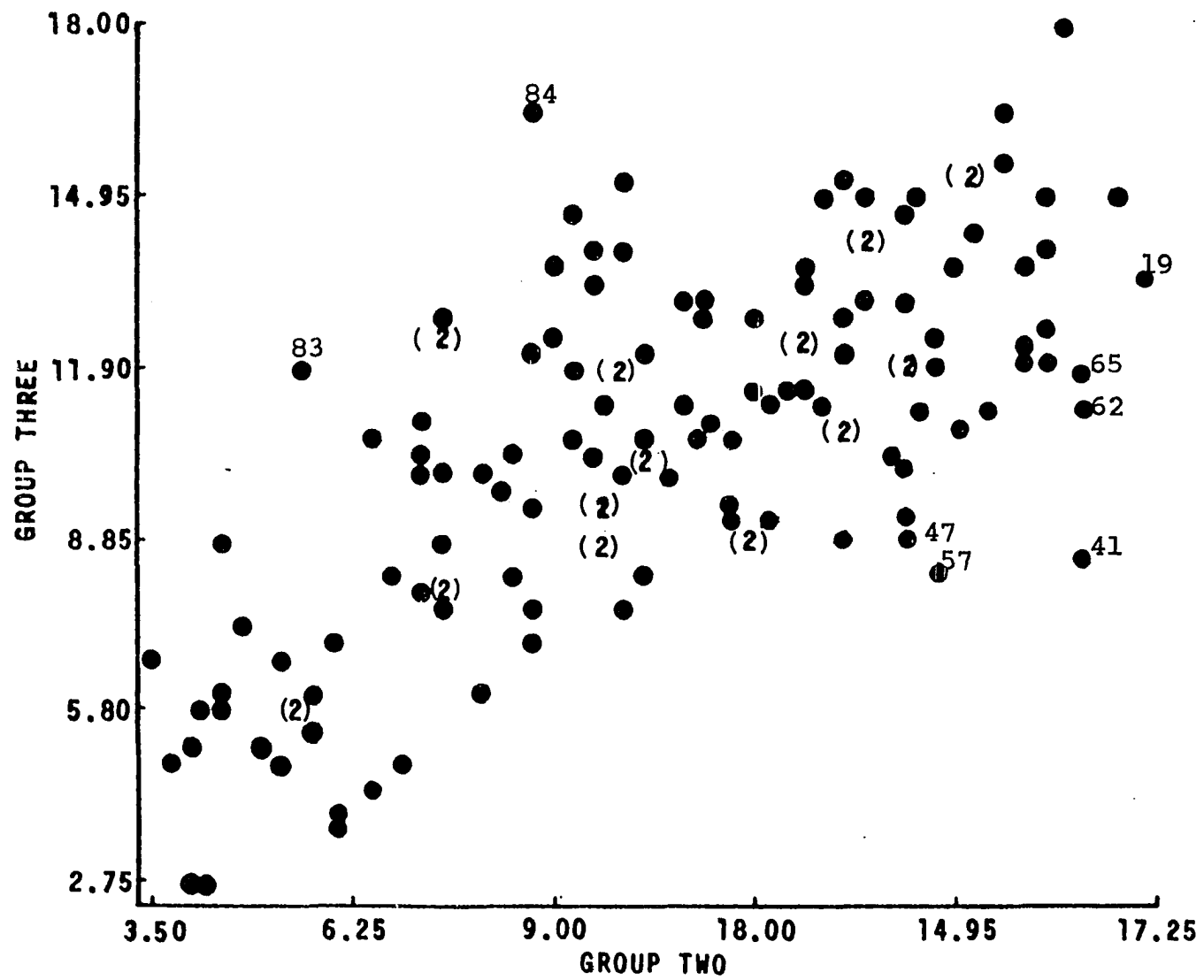
same as the one selected in comparisons with groups II and III. Items chosen in group IV formed clusters on interpersonal relationship and family relationships for which items were:

Group IV

Item No.	Item
4.	Importance of interpersonal relationships in relating with others
5.	Advantage of improved interpersonal relationships
9.	Joys of friendship
10.	Similarities and differences in the socialization process in different cultures
11.	Importance of companionship with others
21.	Meaning of family
25.	Contribution of family functions to individual family members
32.	Difficulties and satisfactions of working in and living in a family group
34.	Family as a basic unit
38.	The significance of being a family member

Groups II and III, II and IV, and III and IV For the next three group comparisons, many of the items are the same as in the first three groups. However, the item combinations were different and brief reference will be made to each group comparison. In group II and III (Figure 4) items of importance for group II clustered around food nutrients and

Figure 4. Scattergram of mean responses to competencies
for youth leaders and home economists in groups
II and III



items for group III, self-image and self-acceptance, For group II and IV, item clusters for II were self-image and self-acceptance, and food practices for IV. In group III and IV good practices were most important items for IV and self-image for group III. Items for each of the three group comparisons were:

Group II and III

III

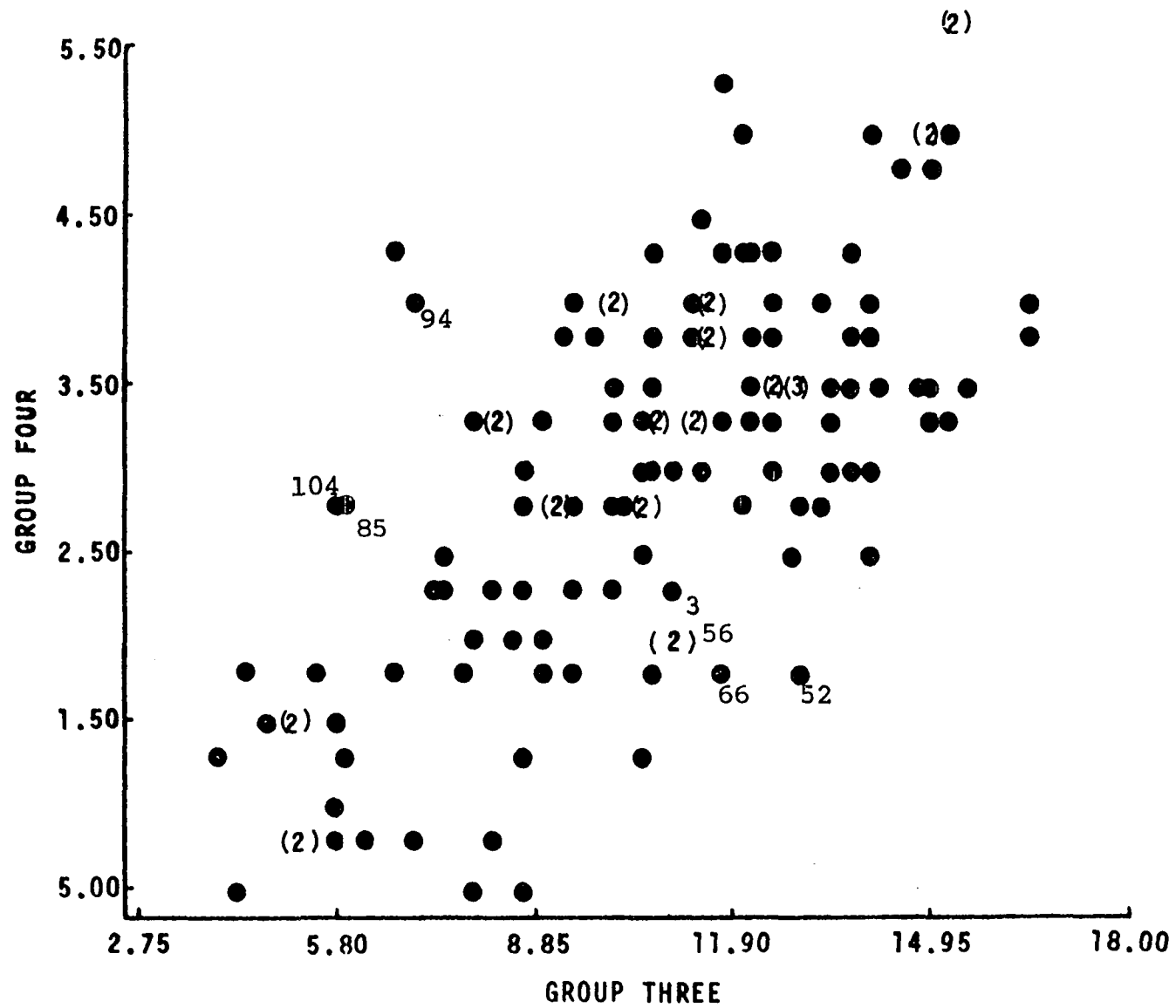
Item No.	Item
83.	Functions of food nutrients
84.	General knowledge of the nutrient composition of food

II

Item No.	Item
47.	Accepts self as a sexual being
41.	Strengths and weaknesses of self
62.	Recognizes the self as a fully functioning being capable of right or wrong behavior
65.	Importance of being and accepting one's self
57.	An awareness of the significance of continuous self-improvement
19.	An internal attitude of acceptance of self and others that will evoke in others and self, feelings of self-acceptance, confidence and security

Figure 5. Scattergram of mean responses to competencies
for youth leaders and home economists in groups
II and IV

Figure 6. Scattergram of mean responses to competencies
for youth leaders and home economists in groups
III and IV



Group II and IVII

Item No.	Item
41.	Strengths and weaknesses of self
47.	Accepts self as a sexual being
45.	Accepts responsibility for own behavior
62.	Recognizes the self as a fully functioning being capable of right or wrong behavior
64.	Significance of positive attitudes towards self as well as others
44.	Accepts self as a person of intrinsic worth and dignity

IV

Item No.	Item
94.	Differences between food fads and fallacies
83.	Function of food nutrients
84.	General knowledge of the nutrient composition of food
85.	Appraises food practices
104.	Possesses an awareness of trends in food consumption patterns

Groups III and IVIII

Item No.	Item
52.	Possesses an awareness of self
56.	Meaning of self-image

- 66. The importance of self-assessment in developing self-image
- 3. The importance of understanding self-image in relating with others

IV

Item No.	Item
85.	Appraises food practices
94.	Differences between food fads and fallacies
104.	Possesses an awareness of trends in food consumption

Discussion of needed competencies The competencies most important for program development, inservice training and needs of clients were selected from the six scattergrams of responses from youth leaders and home economists.

The competency clusters for the six group comparisons were:

- Group I and II: (I) Self-image, self-acceptance,
(II) Nutritional needs
- Group I and III: (I) Consumer information and buyman-
ship, (III) Family relationships,
self-image
- Group I and IV: (I) Consumer information and buyman-
ship, (IV) Interpersonal relation-
ships
- Group II and III: (II) Self-image, self-acceptance,
(III) Food nutrients
- Group II and IV: (II) Self-image, self-acceptance,
(IV) Food practices
- Group III and IV: (III) Self-image, (IV) Food practices

Each competency is a part of a total listing of competencies for each task. The tasks for which these competencies were determined are listed below.

1. Develop methods and techniques for working with youth that contributes to acceptance of self and improved self-image.
2. Develop methods and techniques for helping youth understand interpersonal relationships and family relationships.
3. Help youth to gain personal satisfaction from satisfactory accomplishments.
4. Help youth to develop meaningful and satisfying relationships in groups.
5. Help youth to gain a better understanding of appropriate food and nutrition concepts.
6. Help youth to increase their knowledge of consumer behavior as it relates to food and nutrition.
7. Help youth to develop an awareness of food and its relationship to people.
8. Develop methods and techniques for expanding nutrition education.

These tasks as well as competencies for each task suggest areas for program concentration and inservice training of youth personnel. Each task includes a main idea or concept (underlined) which the task is especially designed to accomplish. Those competencies chosen in each of the six group comparisons were selected from a group of competencies

for each task and are interpreted to be the most important. An overall analysis of each of the six group comparisons indicated the need for planning inservice training and programs in areas that relate to self-image, self-acceptance, family relationships, interpersonal relationships, food nutrients, food practices, nutrition education, and consumer information and buymanship. The mean scores by groups for items in each of the cluster concepts are included in Appendix K.

Summary

One of the major reasons for using the Q-sort technique was the forced choice response which resulted in the sorting of items on a continuum from most important to least important, thereby forcing priorities. From the analysis of the six different group comparisons, 44 of the 139 original items were selected as being most important for program planning and inservice training of youth personnel. From the total number of competencies emerging in the six group comparisons, the area of personal development stands out as being the area most in need of program planning and inservice training. These results tend to support the statements made by youth leaders and food aides in the interviews. The results are also supported by USDA Program Performance (1971)

which asserted that instead of a refusal to include youth personal development as a part of the total EFNEP, the lack of programming in personal development is indicative of a confusion of what and how rather than a rejection of the total goal.

Phase Two

Youth personal development

In phase one four concepts in the area of personal development were chosen as most important for inservice training and program development. Those concepts included: self-image, self-acceptance, family relationships, and interpersonal relationships. These concepts were used to determine specific areas towards which program development might be directed. A measurement of the youth perceptions of these concepts would in some instances point out areas for program activities. To measure the perception of EFNEP and 4-H youth in regard to the personal development concepts, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale (LCS) for Children were administered to youth of the EFNEP and 4-H programs. Factorial analysis of variance and correlations were used to analyze the data. Mean scores were also computed for each item on the inventories.

The section on youth personal development included

total scores on CSEI and LCS for the EFNEP and 4-H youth, differences on CSEI and LCS for EFNEP and 4-H youth, the relationship between locus of control and self-esteem, and a summary of the section. Each section will include findings and a discussion of the hypothesis related to the particular section.

Total scores on CSEI and LCS

Scores of the CSEI and LCS were computed at the ISU Computation Service. Each item of the CSEI and LCS received a score of two points (with the exception of the lie scale of the CSEI which received one point). The total possible score for the CSEI was 84 and 40 for the LCS. Scores were calculated for each individual.

The mean scores and standard deviations for the boys and girls of the EFNEP and 4-H are shown in Table 3. As indicated in the table, the 4-H group as a whole scored higher than the EFNEP group on both CSEI and LCS. For the 4-H and EFNEP youth, the girls scored higher than boys.

Eighty-six percent of the boys and 81 percent of the girls of the EFNEP were at or above the mean on the CSEI, for the LCS 86 percent of the boys and 84 percent of the girls were at or above the mean. For the 4-H group 83 percent of the boys and 84 percent of the girls were at or above the mean on the CSEI; on the LCS 86 percent of the

Table 3. Means and standard deviations for EFNEP and 4-H youth on the CSEI and LCS

Program	Sex	N	CSEI		LCS	
			Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
EFNEP	Boys	29	48.41	7.51	17.80	6.19
EFNEP	Girls	73	53.80	12.56	19.40	6.33
4-H	Boys	48	56.17	13.32	23.54	7.04
4-H	Girls	80	57.15	13.04	25.52	6.84

boys and 87 percent of the girls were at or above the mean. The range of scores for both groups is shown in Table 4. This range indicated that 4-H youth scored lower as well as higher on both the CSEI and LCS than the EFNEP group. The individual scores for the CSEI and LCS are included in Appendix L.

Differences on CSEI and LCS

To answer the question of whether age, sex, or program affiliation would indicate differences in self-esteem and locus of control for 4-H and EFNEP youth, a 2 x 2 x 5 factorial analysis of variance was used. The following sections are discussion of the results of the analyses.

Table 4. Range of scores on CSEI and LCS for 4-H and EFNEP youth

Program	CSEI	LCS
4-H Boys	18 to 78	12 to 38
4-H Girls	18 to 80	6 to 36
EFNEP Boys	30 to 64	8 to 30
EFNEP Girls	28 to 78	12 to 34

CSEI Data from Table 5 indicated that F values for individual and interaction effects were not significant. The conclusion drawn from the data was that there were no significant differences between EFNEP and 4-H youth in their self-esteem.

Discussion of hypothesis (1) The results supported the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth in self-esteem. Several factors may be related to these results. First of all the EFNEP and 4-H program are organized in such a manner as to give the youth opportunities for growth and development. Youth are given a chance at leadership roles, role responsibilities, and opportunities for immediate success experiences. These statements hold true for 4-H programs more than EFNEP programs in that 4-H programs have been in existence longer

Table 5. Analysis of variance: total scores of CSEI for 4-H and EFNEP youth

Source of Variance	df	MS	F
Total	229		
Regression	19	209.38	
Residual	210	157.60	1.329
Program (A)	18	213.89	
	1	128.21	0.813
Age (B)	15	211.94	
	4	199.80	1.268
Sex (C)	18	220.38	
	1	11.41	0.072
AB	15	242.15	
	4	86.51	0.549
AC	18	219.81	
	1	21.55	0.136
BC	15	241.94	
	4	83.54	0.530
ABC	15	263.93	
	4	4.83	0.030

giving them a more stable organizational structure. With the 4-H programs there is a certain amount of parental involvement which may not be true of the EFNEP youth programs. However, even with these differences in program structure the youth in both programs appear not to be significantly different in their self-esteem. Several researchers (Soares and Soares, 1969; Powers *et al.*, 1971)

suggested a new consciousness among ethnic group members and low socioeconomic groups which may be a factor in no differences existing between groups. They believe that self-image or self-concept is more likely a product of a person's interaction within the specific subgroup to which that person belongs rather than the product of the general school or community. If in a given environment the youth are functioning according to a level of expectation of their parents, teachers, friends, peers, and others, and they are satisfied to a great extent with themselves, then the results are generally a positive concept of self.

A further question to be answered by the data is whether the two groups had high or low self-esteem. Included in Table 6 is the combined distribution of scores for the EFNEP and 4-H youth. The mean score for each group was 56.78, 4-H and 42.27, EFNEP with a possible score of 84. As indicated in the table, over half of the youth were at or above the mean suggesting that over half of the youth were in a medium or high self-esteem category.

Table 6. Distribution of CSEI scores for EFNEP and 4-H youth combined

Number (EFNEP and 4-H)	Cumulative Number	Scores
2		80-83
8	10	76-79
15	25	72-75
16	41	68-71
27	68	64-67
22	90	60-63
22	112	56-59 ^a
32	144	52-55 ^b
27	171	48-51
14	185	44-47
22	207	40-43
9	216	36-39
3	219	32-35
7	226	28-31
2	228	24-27
2	230	16-19

^a4-H \bar{x} = 56.78.

^bEFNEP \bar{x} = 52.27.

Subscales of CSEI The analysis of variance for total scores of the CSEI indicated no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth in self-esteem. While no differences existed on the total scores of the CSEI, it was felt that the subscales might indicate differences in the two groups either by age, sex, or program affiliation.

To determine if differences existed on the subscales of the CSEI, the scales were analyzed by the 3 way factorial analysis procedure used for the total scores of the CSEI. In Table 7, the general self-subscale, results showed that a significant difference existed between the two programs. No other effects were significant. Table 8, social self-peers subscale, shows no significant differences were found for any of the variables. For the home parent subscale, Table 9, sex was significant.

Discussion of hypothesis (2) It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between 4-H and EFNEP youth on the subscales of the CSEI and this hypothesis would hold true for all variables on the subscales; age, sex, and program affiliation. For the general self-subscale, the data supported the hypothesis on the age and sex variable, but program affiliation was significant. Mean score for the EFNEP youth was 31.49 and 34.50 for 4-H youth on the general self-subscale. The data indicated that 4-H youth scored higher than EFNEP youth. For

Table 7. Analysis of variance: general self-subscale of CSEI for EFNEP and 4-H youth

Source of Variance	df	MS	F
Program (A)	1	91.088	9.265**
Sex (B)	1	6.978	0.710
Age (C)	4	10.945	1.113
AB	1	16.841	1.713
AC	4	8.380	0.852
BC	4	10.750	1.093
ABC	4	4.039	0.410
Error	210	9.831	

**
p < .01.

Table 8. Analysis of variance: social self-peers subscale of CSEI for 4-H and EFNEP youth

Source of Variance	df	MS	F
Program (A)	1	1.390	0.902
Sex (B)	1	0.219	0.142
Age (C)	4	1.868	1.212
AB	1	0.655	0.425
AC	4	0.963	0.619
BC	4	1.377	0.894
ABC	4	1.882	1.221
Error	210	1.540	

Table 9. Analysis of variance: home parent subscale of CSEI for 4-H and EFNEP youth

Source of Variance	df	MS	F
Program (A)	1	2.222	1.023
Sex (B)	1	10.119	4.659*
Age (C)	4	2.553	1.175
AB	1	0.141	0.164
AC	4	5.290	2.435
BC	4	2.944	1.355
ABC	4	1.758	1.141
Error	210	2.172	

* $p < .05$.

the social self-peers there were no significant differences on any of the variables, supporting the hypothesis for this subscale. On the home parent subscale sex was statistically significant with mean scores of 10.87 for the girls and 9.45 for the boys. Girls scored higher than boys on this subscale.

Items with low mean scores for general self and home parent subscales To delineate items which might provide detailed information for program activities, items with low mean scores for the EFNEP and 4-H youth for the general self and home parent subscales were examined. These

subscales were chosen because one or more variables on each from the factorial analysis were significant. The items and mean scores are presented in Table 10 for 4-H youth and EFNEP youth on the general self-subscale. Those items with a mean score of 0.999 or lower were chosen. As shown in Table 10, the items are the same only the mean scores differ. These items indicated that youth would change many things about themselves, often wish they were someone else, felt sorry for the things they did, and most people were better liked and nicer looking than they were.

Those items from the home parent subscale for boys were:

Mean score	Item no.	Items
0.986	11.	I get upset easily at home.
0.828	17.	My parents usually consider my feelings
0.966	23.	My parents expect too much of me
0.828	35.	There are many times I'd like to leave home.

For the girls only one item had a mean score of 0.99 or below which was item number 11 suggesting that for this age group girls are more satisfied with their home life than boys.

Lie scale of CSEI The lie scale of the CSEI is used to note defensive reactions by the individual. As noted by Coopersmith (1967) defensive reactions stem from

Table 10. Items with low mean scores on general self-sub-scale of CSEI for 4-H and EFNEP youth

<u>Mean Scores</u>		Item No.	Items
4-H	EFNEP		
0.712	0.712	3.	I often wish I were someone else
0.619	0.548	8.	There are a lot of things about myself I'd change if I could
0.668	0.439	15.	I'm often sorry for the things I do
0.828	0.900	31.	I can make up my mind and stick to it
0.932	0.912	37.	I often feel ashamed of myself
0.873	0.849	38.	I'm not as nice looking as most people
0.875	0.789	44.	I get upset easily when I am scolded
0.986	0.877	45.	Most people are better liked than I am
0.621	0.756	49.	Things usually don't bother me

the individual's desire or inclination to present a public response that differs from his private attitudes and convictions. The responses that are publicly expressed are assumed to be generally supportive of socially accepted norms and thereby gain or maintain group or self-acceptance that would be lost if genuine attitudes are expressed. On the CSEI the total score for the lie scale is 8. A score

of 8 indicates that the person is not defensive in his reactions. With the present study the mean scores for the lie scale for the EFNEP and 4-H youth were high or close to the total possible score. Mean scores for EFNEP were 6.89 and for 4-H 7.51, indicating that in general the youth were not defensive in their reactions.

Summary of CSEI The total score analysis for the EFNEP and 4-H youth indicated that no significant difference existed according to age, sex, and program affiliation on the CSEI. For the general self-subscale, program affiliation was statistically significant with 4-H youth scoring higher than EFNEP youth. No significant difference existed between the groups on the social self-peers subscale. For the home parent subscale, girls scored significantly higher than boys.

The distribution of scores for the CSEI indicated that a majority of the youth were in the medium or high self-esteem category.

LSC Scores for the LCS were analyzed using the 3 way factorial analysis. Presented in Table 11 are the data from the unweighted mean analysis showing a significant overall F value. Since analysis of each source of variance was not significant, there was the need for further analysis to determine the source of variance causing the overall F value to be significant.

Table 11. Analysis of variance: EFNEP and 4-H youth on LCS

Source of Variance	df	MS	F
Total	229		
Regression	19	175.30	
Residual	210	42.52	4.123*
Program (A)	18	181.44	
	1	64.64	1.520
Age (B)	15	204.41	
	4	66.11	1.556
Sex (C)	18	181.11	
	1	70.56	1.660
AB	15	216.11	
	4	22.24	0.523
AC	18	184.94	
	1	1.70	0.400
BC	15	217.84	
	4	15.75	0.370
ABC	15	219.99	
	4	7.70	1.811

* $p < .05$.

In the weighted means analysis a significant F for either a main effect or interaction was not likely due to the unequal n in each of the cells. For instance cell 1 age 8, $n = 13$, cell 2 age 9, $n = 23$, etc. To account for the unequal n the mean for each cell was calculated and

the data analyzed using the mean from each cell. The process utilized is referred to as weighted mean analysis (Winer, 1971, pp. 417-418).

As shown in Table 12, F values from the weighted means analysis for age and program affiliation were significant but interaction effects were not.

Discussion of hypothesis (3) The data supported that portion of the hypothesis that there were no differences between 4-H and EFNEP youth according to sex. However, the F values for age and program affiliation were statistically significant. The age factor is supported by Nowicki and Strickland's research which showed that internality increases with age (1971).

An analysis of the mean scores of the EFNEP and 4-H youth shown in Table 13 further indicates the difference between age and program on locus of control. As age level increases the scores on the LCS increase, but scores of EFNEP youth increase more slowly and thus differences are larger.

The mean scores plotted in Figure 7 graphically present the differences between the two groups by age and program affiliation.

Bialer (1964) suggested that in the early stages of development, young children as a group tend to view their experiences, both positive and negative, as being externally

Table 12. Analysis of variance: EFNEP and 4-H youth on LCS

Source of variance	df	MS	F
Program (A)	1	72.326	11.672**
Sex (B)	1	7.572	1.217
Age (C)	4	24.206	3.888*
AB	1	1.297	0.208
AC	4	6.961	1.118
BC	4	1.855	0.297
ABC	4	0.987	0.158
Error	210	6.225	

** p < .01.

* p < .05.

Table 13. Mean scores of EFNEP and 4-H youth on LCS by age level

Age levels	EFNEP Boys \bar{x}	EFNEP Girls \bar{x}	4-H Girls \bar{x}	4-H Boys \bar{x}
8,9	17.43	17.13	17.00	17.60
10	17.66	18.57	20.00	20.50
11	17.20	20.47	23.64	24.29
12	18.44	20.00	27.13	24.00
13,14,15	19.00	22.27	27.14	24.92

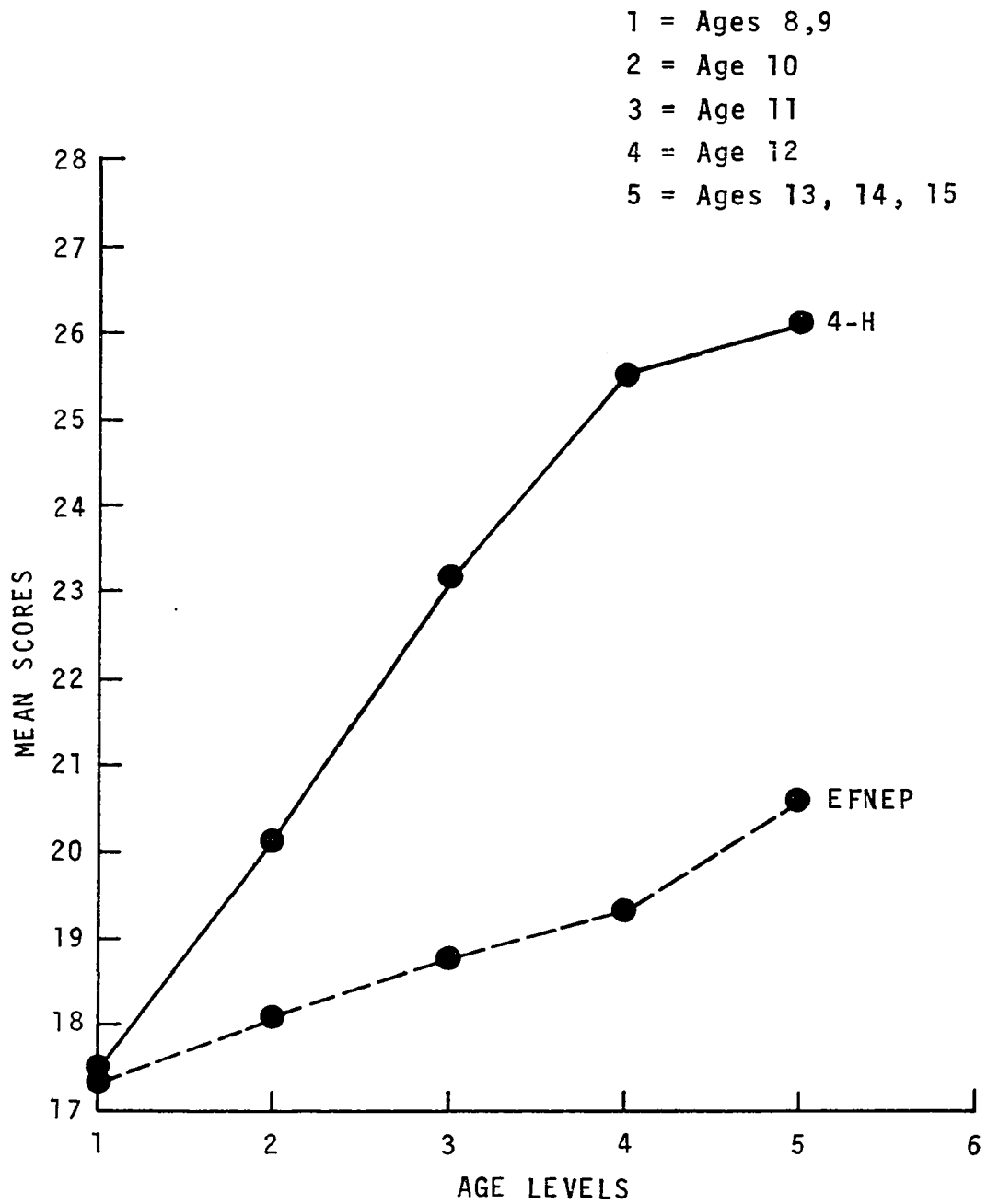


Figure 7. Mean scores of EFNEP and 4-H youth by age levels

controlled. There is no conception of the relationship between the outcome of events and one's behavior. As development proceeds, children begin to note that they are often able to influence the outcome of events by their own actions. They thus are able to view goal oriented experiences as being internally controlled as a consequence of their own behavior.

Items with low mean scores on LCS The mean scores of items of the LCS were presented in Table 14, for EFNEP youth and Table 15, for 4-H youth. Those items with a mean score of 0.99 and below were chosen to illustrate by age level the internality and externality of youth. An examination of those items with low mean scores from the tables revealed that the items related to the youth belief in such things as: kids are born lucky at sports, wishing makes good things happen, it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway, its useless to try to get one's own way, the best way to handle problems is just not to think of them, and when they do something wrong there is very little they can do to make it right.

As shown in the tables, nearly all items have low mean scores for the first age level (8,9) and the number decreases as age increases. A complete listing of all items of the LCS are included in Appendix H.

Table 14. Item mean^a scores for 4-H youth by age level on LCS

Items	Age Levels				
	8,9	10	11	12	13,14,15
1	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.89</u>	1.10	1.08
2	<u>0.44</u>	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.44</u>	<u>0.58</u>	<u>0.95</u>
3	<u>0.89</u>	1.09	1.56	1.68	1.53
4	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.55</u>	1.00	1.29	1.15
5	1.56	1.27	1.11	1.42	1.15
6	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.91</u>	1.22	1.16	1.02
7	<u>0.89</u>	<u>0.55</u>	<u>0.67</u>	1.16	<u>0.98</u>
8	<u>0.89</u>	1.09	1.44	1.16	1.22
9	<u>0.89</u>	1.27	1.44	1.48	1.73
10	<u>0.89</u>	<u>0.55</u>	1.11	1.29	1.49
11	<u>0.89</u>	1.45	1.11	1.61	1.53
12	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.91</u>	1.00	1.42	1.02
13	<u>0.89</u>	1.45	1.33	1.16	1.32
14	<u>0.89</u>	<u>0.91</u>	1.00	1.10	1.15
15	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.91</u>	1.33	1.48	1.36
16	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.91</u>	1.00	1.35	1.36
17	<u>0.44</u>	<u>0.91</u>	1.44	1.29	1.42
18	1.11	1.64	1.67	1.94	1.86
19	1.78	1.64	1.78	1.61	1.59
20	<u>0.89</u>	<u>0.73</u>	1.33	1.03	1.32

^aMean scores below 0.99 are underlined and indicate low scoring items.

Table 15. Item mean^a scores for EFNEP youth by age level on LCS

Items	Age Levels				
	8,9	10	11	12	13,14,15
1	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.60</u>	<u>0.36</u>	<u>0.77</u>	1.18
2	<u>0.40</u>	<u>0.50</u>	<u>0.45</u>	<u>0.31</u>	1.06
3	1.00	1.40	1.36	1.08	1.18
4	1.07	<u>0.70</u>	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.92</u>	1.06
5	1.13	<u>0.70</u>	<u>0.73</u>	1.85	1.18
6	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.70</u>	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.77</u>	<u>0.94</u>
7	1.00	1.00	1.00	<u>0.77</u>	<u>0.94</u>
8	<u>0.60</u>	1.30	1.09	1.08	1.06
9	<u>0.93</u>	<u>0.80</u>	1.18	1.23	1.29
10	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.90</u>	<u>0.82</u>	<u>0.92</u>	1.06
11	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.90</u>	1.18	<u>0.92</u>	1.06
12	<u>0.80</u>	1.30	1.36	<u>0.92</u>	1.06
13	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.90</u>	1.00	<u>0.77</u>	1.06
14	<u>0.87</u>	<u>0.70</u>	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.92</u>	<u>0.71</u>
15	<u>0.87</u>	<u>0.80</u>	1.00	<u>0.46</u>	1.29
16	1.20	1.10	1.36	<u>0.77</u>	1.29
17	<u>0.87</u>	<u>0.70</u>	<u>0.91</u>	<u>0.92</u>	1.29
18	<u>0.87</u>	1.30	1.27	1.23	1.29
19	1.13	1.10	1.45	1.23	1.29
20	<u>0.93</u>	<u>0.90</u>	1.00	1.08	<u>0.82</u>

^aMean scores below 0.99 are underlined and indicate low scoring items.

The relationship of locus of control to self-esteem

To determine the relationship of locus of control to self-esteem, the scores from the CSEI and LCS were correlated. The uncorrected product moment correlation coefficients by sex and program are presented in Table 16, and suggest moderately low correlations. However, since such correlations are subject to measurement error a correction for attenuation was made according to the procedure indicated by Nunnally (1967, pp. 203-204). The \hat{r} as presented in Table 16 reveals a higher correlation, suggesting that the relationship between self-esteem and locus of control is at least moderately strong.

Discussion of hypothesis (4) The data indicate a strong relationship between locus of control and self-esteem. On the basis of the significance for each \hat{r} in Table 16, the hypothesis that there is no relationship between self-esteem and locus of control is rejected. Examination of Table 16 shows the \hat{r} for the boys of the 4-H program was much higher than 4-H girls and almost as high for EFNEP boys as girls. Considering the n for boys in each program and the high correlations, the findings suggest that the locus of control variable may be more important in working with the self-esteem of boys than with girls.

Table 16. Correlation coefficients between scores on CSEI and LCS by sex and program

Program	Sex	r	df	\hat{r}
EFNEP	Girls	.39	72	.54**
EFNEP	Boys	.33	27	.52**
4-H	Girls	.37	78	.51**
4-H	Boys	.44	46	.61**

**
p < .01.

Summary of locus of control From the analysis of variance it was found that program and age were significant. Internality increased with age and youth of the 4-H program scored higher on the LCS than EFNEP youth. A correlation between locus of control and self-esteem suggested the two variables were highly correlated.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study was undertaken to provide background information helpful for inservice training and program development for the youth EFNEP. Areas most important for inservice training and program development were determined and perceptions of EFNEP and 4-H youth personal development concepts measured.

Purposes of the study were:

1. Analyze tasks and identify competencies needed to perform tasks in the areas of food and nutrition and personal development for Extension youth staff members of the EFNEP.
2. Compare differences among youth staff as to competencies needed and determine the competencies indicated as most important for inservice training and program development.
3. Identify from among the most important competencies those concepts in the area of personal development considered important for inservice training and program development.
4. Assess the perceptions of EFNEP and 4-H youth of the identified personal development concepts in (3) above by means of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (LCS).
5. Determine differences in self-esteem and locus of control for EFNEP and 4-H youth and determine the relationship of self-esteem and locus of control.
6. Identify demographic differences of EFNEP and 4-H youth in relation to the personal development concepts.

Hypotheses tested by the study were:

1. There is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth in self-esteem using total scores

of the CSEI.

2. There is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth on the subscales of the CSEI for age, sex, and program affiliation.
3. There is no significant difference between EFNEP and 4-H youth on the locus of control in relation to age, sex, and program affiliation.
4. There is no relationship between locus of control and self-esteem.

As a preliminary step for background information, interviews were conducted with ten youth staff leaders, eight food aides, and eight youth participants of the youth EFNEP. The interviews were concerned with program operation, job responsibility, program activities, evaluation, and other items as appropriate. A task and competency list was developed using ideas gained from interviews, existing literature, and consulting with subject matter specialists. Subject areas for the tasks and competency list were food and nutrition and personal development. To reduce the number of competencies from the 139 identified, the task and competency list was converted into a Q-sort instrument and sent to the total sample of 12 youth leaders and 19 home economists of the youth EFNEP. Data from the 25 respondents were factor analyzed. A person by person 25 by 25 intercorrelation matrix was constructed and eight factors extracted. From the eight factors a four factor solution was chosen because of the logical grouping of people on each factor. The four

factor solution utilized the responses of 22 people whereas all other factors solutions utilized the responses of 21 persons or less. Mean scores for each factor group were determined and scattergrams constructed for each of six different group comparisons. Scattergrams were analyzed to determine items most important for program development and inservice training.

From the first phase of research on needed competencies for youth staff personnel of the EFNEP, the analysis of the six scattergrams indicated that 44 of the 139 competencies were determined to be most important for inservice training and program development. The competencies chosen as most important formed eight cluster concepts which included: self-image, self-acceptance, family relationships, interpersonal relationships, food nutrients, food practices, consumer information and buymanship, and nutrition education.

For the second phase of the research, those concepts from competencies chosen as most important in the area of personal development were used as a bases for determining youth perceptions of the concepts related to the self. To measure the concepts, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children were chosen.

The youth sample was drawn from 12 units of the youth

EFNEP and 4-H programs. The units consisted of 93 groups each for a total of 2,258 EFNEP youth and 1,819 4-H youth. From each of the units, one group was randomly selected to participate in the study. The total number selected for the study included 102 EFNEP youth and 128 4-H youth. The CSEI and LCS were personally administered to each of the groups by the researcher.

Data from the respondents were analyzed using factorial analysis of variance and correlation.

Results of research on youth personal development as measured by the CSEI and LCS indicated that no significant difference existed for age, sex and program affiliation between EFNEP and 4-H youth on total scores of the CSEI. Detailed analysis of each subscale of the CSEI revealed that for the general self-subscale, program affiliation was significant with 4-H youth scoring higher than EFNEP youth. For the social self-peers subscale, there was no significant difference on age, sex, or program affiliation. There was a significant sex difference on the home parent subscale, with girls scoring higher than boys.

On the LCS age and program were significant. Internal-ity increased with age and 4-H youth scored higher than EFNEP youth. Corrections for attenuation of the correlation coefficients for scores of the LCS and CSEI indicated a significant relationship between the two. The data also

suggested that the locus of control variable may be more important in working with the self-esteem of boys than girls.

For the LCS and CSEI, items with low mean scores were determined, since low scoring items may indicate areas for possible program activities.

For the LCS and CSEI, items with low mean scores were determined, since low scoring items may indicate areas for possible program activities.

Recommendations as a result of the study were that:

Inservice training for youth staff in the EFNEP include competencies in food and nutrition and personal development selected as most important in the present study.

Program activities for youth of the EFNEP and 4-H use as a bases low scoring items from the general self and home parent subscales of the CSEI as well as low scoring items from the LCS.

Inservice training for youth staff in the EFNEP and 4-H be directed toward activities planned from recommendation (2) as well as methods of evaluating the youth participants and programs in personal development.

Special training in methods and techniques of integrating personal development and food and nutrition be provided for youth staff.

Research be conducted to determine the efforts of nutrition activities on the self-concepts of youth.

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Virginia Caples

February 27, 1972

APPENDIX A: CORRESPONDENCE

Letter to Youth Leaders and Home Economists
Explaining Q-Sort Instrument for Data Collection

Department of
Home Economics Education
166 MacKay Hall
Ames, Iowa 50010

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

Telephone 515-294-6444

December 2, 1971

Dear

The Home Economics Education Department of Iowa State University is in the final stage of the phase of the research project "Competencies Needed by Youth Staff Workers in the EFNEP", being conducted for the Extension Service. Many of you contributed information in the beginning stages which has been very helpful to us. Once again we need your help in gathering additional information.

Enclosed is the instrument for data collection. This instrument is designed to give an indication of priorities for program planning and development, and establishing training programs for youth staff personnel. Because each of you have been working very closely with the youth phase of the EFNEP, we feel that it is your knowledge which will be helpful in establishing program priorities which will be helpful to clients to be served.

The instrument is a device which uses a sorting technique designed to place items in a rank order according to their importance as perceived by you. To complete the instrument, it will take approximately $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 hours. Directions are outlined for completion of the instrument. It is very important that these directions be followed carefully and that each category or cell on the instrument has the exact number of items as indicated. Failure to complete the instrument as directed will result in having to eliminate the instrument from the final analysis. Therefore, it is imperative that all categories be filled and the score sheet marked as indicated by each category.

If you have the slightest reservations which might jeopardize the final outcome of your selections on the instrument, please do not hesitate to contact either: Irene Beavers--294-3991 or Virginia Caples--294-4757.

We would appreciate having the instrument returned to us by December 15, 1971.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Irene Beavers
Associate Professor
Home Economics Education

Virginia Caples
Graduate Assistant

Enclosures

Follow Up Letter to Youth Leaders
and Home Economists

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

Telephone 515-294-6444

January 10, 1972

Dear

Just before the holiday season began you were sent an instrument for collection of data for the youth phase of the Expanded Nutrition Education Program. We realize that this was a busy season for you plus delays in mailing which made it impossible to return the instrument by the date indicated.

If you have not mailed your instrument we would appreciate having it at your earliest convenience. Your response is very important to our final results. If you have mailed your instrument, please disregard this letter and thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Irene Beavers
Associate Professor

Virginia Caples
Graduate Assistant

vc

Letters to EFNEP and 4-H Youth Leaders
Requesting Youth Groups of the EFNEP and 4-H

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

Telephone 515-294-6444

June 23, 1972

Dear EFNEP Youth Leaders:

Your cooperation in helping me to determine "Competencies Needed by Youth Staff Workers," is greatly appreciated. The final report of this research is now in the process of being typed and will be available for distribution shortly.

Again I need your help! I am interested in continuing this research to include "Youth Perceptions of Personal Development Concepts." The results of this research will be used to develop programs in the area of personal development.

One of the objectives for this phase of the research is to compare the responses of the youth of the EFNEP and the regular 4-H youth, therefore I am asking that you help me to coordinate the efforts with the regular 4-H youth leaders. I am also sending a copy of this letter and request form to each of the Extension 4-H and Youth Leaders within your unit.

At this point I am trying to select my sample and need your assistance. Would you please indicate for me on the enclosed form the number of youth groups and the approximate number of youth in each group. For identification purposes, please fill in the brief description for each group. If at all possible, would you please return the form by June 28, 1972.

The questionnaire that I would like to administer to the youth contains 50 items dealing with personal development concepts. I have pretested the instrument with two different groups and have found that it takes about 15 to 20 minutes for the youth to respond to the instrument. The response is a very simple like me or unlike me to each of the items on the questionnaire.

During the second, third, and fourth weeks in July I would like to administer the questionnaire to the youth selected in the sample. I will give you further information on this in the very near future.

Thank you very kindly for your help. I look forward to working with you again in the very near future.

Sincerely yours,

Virginia Caples
Graduate Research Asst., Ext.

Esther Whetstone
Asst. State 4-H Leader

cc: 4-H Youth Leaders

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

Telephone 515-294-6444

June 23, 1972

Dear 4-H Youth Leaders:

I am Virginia Caples a graduate research assistant for Extension within the department of Home Economics Education. I am in the process of conducting research on the youth phase of the EFNEP in the area of personal development. I hope to determine the youths perceptions of personal development concepts. I would also like to compare the perceptions held by the EFNEP youth and the regular 4-H youths. For this reason I am seeking your assistance.

On the enclosed form will you please list the number of 4-H youth groups that you have in areas where there are EFNEP youth groups. I need only those groups that are located in areas where there are EFNEP youth groups.

The form that you have received is the same as the ones sent to the EFNEP Youth Workers. I have enclosed a copy of the letter which was sent to them and have asked them to help to coordinate efforts with each of you in determining the youth groups.

Any help that you can possibly give will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Virginia Caples
Graduate Research Asst. Ext.

Esther Whetstone
Asst. State 4-H Leader

cc: EFNEP Youth Staff Workers

VC

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE FOR YOUTH LEADERS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR EFNEP YOUTH STAFF

1. What is the role of the EFNEP youth worker?
2. Is your role administrative, are you an organizer of the program or does your role entail direct involvement with the clientele?
3. How did you go about identifying your clientele in the EFNEP?
4. What specific problems did you encounter in identifying the needs of the clientele in the EFNEP?
5. How do you identify needs of youth with whom you work or intend to work?
6. What activities or programs do you have for youth with whom you work or intend to work?
7. Do you have some indications that your activities are providing for personal growth and development of youth?
8. Can you give examples?
9. What tasks do you perform in connection with these activities?
10. In what ways have you evaluated the program?

11. Are there food and nutrition tasks that you perform related to personal growth and development?
12. If there were possibilities for more activities related to personal growth and development and nutrition than are now going on, what would you suggest?
13. How did you organize some of the activities you have and how are they carried out within the EFNEP?
14. How many aides/volunteers do you have working in the EFNEP?
15. How many youth do you have participating with the EFNEP?
16. Are the aides/volunteers full-time workers with the youth phase of the EFNEP?
17. Are there other staff members assigned to work with you in the EFNEP youth program?
18. Are there areas which you feel the need for additional help or training?
19. Do you use any of the regular 4-H teen leaders in any of the EFNEP youth programs?
20. What are some of the ways they are being used?

21. Are the activities for youth planned around the needs of the youth, interest of the youth, or is there an integration of the two into the activities?
22. Is there an interrelationship among staff members which initiates team work in programming, organizing, and carrying out various EFNEP?
23. What do you feel is the relationship between aides/volunteers and the youth with whom they work?

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FOOD AIDES

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FOOD AIDES

1. What are some of the tasks you perform in the EFNEP youth program?
2. Do you have the responsibility of identifying or determining some of the youth who take part in the EFNEP youth program?
3. How did you identify these youth?
4. How did you determine the families who are participating in the youth phase of the program?
5. What problems did you have in identifying the youth or families of the youth?
6. Do you plan any of the group programs or activities for the youth?
7. How do you go about planning these programs or activities for the youth?
8. What process or method did you use in identifying the needs of the youth?
9. What problems did you have in identifying the needs of the youth?
10. Do you see the needs and interests of the youth as being one in the same or is there a difference between the two?
11. What differences do you see?
12. What are some of the group and individual activities that you have for the youth?

13. What are some of the problems that you have in working in the EFNEP youth program?
14. Are most of the group activities carried out by you or is there someone who helps with these activities? Who helps you?
15. How many youth are participating in each of the group activities?
16. In what ways do you think the program has helped the youth?
 - a. Foods and Nutrition
 - b. Personal Growth and Development
17. Have you worked with any other organization in carrying out some of the EFNEP activities?
18. How have you worked with these organizations?

APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE FOR YOUTH PARTICIPANTS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR EFNEP-YOUTH PARTICIPANTS

1. How did you learn about the EFNEP?
2. How did you become involved in the EFNEP?
3. In what activities in this program have you participated?
4. How often do you get together for these activities?
5. Would you like to participate in this type of program more often than you do?
6. What other activities would you like to see in this program?
7. In what ways do you feel some of the activities of the EFNEP have helped you?
 - a. Food and Nutrition
 - b. Personal Growth and Development
8. What do you think this program is supposed to do for you?
9. What does this program mean to you?
10. What are some things that you feel you need that the EFNEP can provide?
11. What are some of the things that you have learned from this program?
12. Are there parts of the youth program that you like better than others? If so, why?
13. Are there any parts of the program that you don't like? Why?
14. In what ways would you like for the program to be changed?

APPENDIX E: LISTING OF PERSONAL GROWTH
AND DEVELOPMENT OUTCOMES

A LISTING OF PERSONAL GROWTH
AND DEVELOPMENT OUTCOMES

1. To help disadvantaged youth and their families work toward an improved self-concept
2. To help disadvantaged youth work toward an improved state of better health and well being
3. To help disadvantaged youth work toward strengthened interpersonal relationship
4. To help disadvantaged youth work toward strengthened family relationship
5. Improve self-image
6. Improved relationships with others
7. Improved understanding of the part food plays in our personal growth and development
8. Learn attitudes and habits that promote physical and mental well being
9. Relate appropriately to peer group
10. Self-identity
11. Self-worth
12. Group acceptance
13. Broader horizons
14. Accepted group behavior
15. Confidence in self
16. Self-actualization
17. Motivated toward self-set goals
18. More positive self-concept

19. More favorable interpersonal relationship with:
Peers
Adults
Professional staff
Cross culture
20. To gain personal satisfaction from satisfactory accomplishments
21. To gain an appreciation for the need for "good" healthful living
22. To gain some understanding of career potentials from work in the nutrition program
23. The ability to interact with others
24. An increased understanding of his body and physical being and its needs to him to function as an energetic, alert individual

APPENDIX F: Q-SORT INSTRUMENT AND DIRECTIONS

Q-SORT ITEMS

COMPETENCIES _____ PERSONAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

TASK: Develop Methods and Techniques for Helping Youth

Understand Interpersonal Relationships

CONCEPT: Interpersonal Relationships

COMPETENCIES

UNDERSTANDS:

1. Ways of relating more effectively with others
2. Problems of or in relating with others
3. The importance of understanding self-image
in relating with others
4. The importance of interpersonal relationships
in relating with others
5. The advantage of improved interpersonal
relationships
6. And creates an environment and activities
which contribute to helpful interpersonal
relationships
7. The usefulness of interpersonal relationships
with people of different cultures and back-
grounds
8. And accepts cognitively, affectively, and
confluent people of different backgrounds
and cultures
9. Joys of friendship

10. Similarities and differences in the socialization process in different cultures

11. The importance of companionship with others

TASK: Help Youth to Gain Personal Satisfaction from
Satisfactory Accomplishments

CONCEPT: Personal Satisfaction

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

12. The meaning and need for personal satisfaction

13. The relationship of satisfaction to personal growth and development

14. The need for new experiences and adventures

15. The need for satisfactory experiences

16. And creates an environment conducive to satisfactory experiences

17. The importance of feeling a sense of worth and accomplishment

18. The importance of self-set, identified and directed goals

19. An internal attitude of acceptance of self and others that will evoke in others feelings of self-acceptance, confidence, and security

20. Behavior as a means of gaining personal satisfaction

TASK: Help Youth to Work Towards Strengthened Family Relationships

CONCEPT: Family Relationships

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

21. The meaning of family
22. The differences and relationships between families of different cultures
23. The structure and function of families of different cultures
24. The advantages and disadvantages of good family relationships
25. Contribution of family functions to individual family members
26. The uniqueness of each family
27. Worth of each individual family member as well as the family as a unit
28. Responsibility for caring for family members
29. Life styles of families
30. Individual responsibilities to the family
31. Satisfactions in sharing family responsibilities
32. The difficulties and satisfactions of working in and living in a family group
33. The basic needs of the family
34. The family as a basic unit

35. Family functions
36. Factors relating to family stability and instability
37. Similarities and differences in the ways that families in various cultures carry out family functions
38. The significance of being a family member

TASK: Develop Methods and Techniques of Working with Youth that Contributes to Acceptance of Self

CONCEPT: Self-Acceptance

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

39. The importance and meaning of self-image
40. Ways of working with youth and others to increase acceptance of self
41. Strengths and weaknesses of self
42. Past images and experiences which influence self-image
43. Factors which contribute to self-image
44. And accepts self as a person of intrinsic worth and dignity
45. And accepts responsibility for own behavior
46. Emotional feelings
47. And accepts self as a sexual being

- 48. And recognizes differences in attitudes and feelings
- 49. The importance that psychological and physical needs have on behavior and personality
- 50. The value of being liked by others as well as self

TASK: Help Youth and Their Families in Working Towards an Improved Self-Image

CONCEPT: Self-Image

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

- 51. And possess an awareness of self
- 52. Characteristics of self-image
- 53. Factors which influence self-image
- 54. The importance of self-image
- 55. The relationship between self-image and daily living
- 56. The meaning of self-image
- 57. An awareness of the significance of continuous self-improvement
- 58. The uniqueness of an individual in appearance, goals, experience, thoughts, and ideas, which make up self
- 59. Contribution of social environment to

expression of self

- 60. The effects of self-image on behavior
- 61. How self-image affects relationships with others
- 62. And recognizes the self as a fully functioning being capable of right or wrong behavior
- 63. The significance of coping with one's problems
- 64. The significance of positive attitudes towards self as well as others
- 65. The importance of being and accepting one's self
- 66. The importance of self-assessment in developing self-image

TASK: Help Youth to Develop Effective Relationships in Groups

CONCEPT: Group Relationships

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

- 67. The importance of group relationships
- 68. Responsibilities and privileges of a group member
- 69. And accepts people of different ages, backgrounds and abilities
- 70. Various types of friendship

- 71. And creates healthy attitudes about relationships with people of the opposite sex
- 72. The importance of self-identity in group relationships
- 73. The importance of effective communication
- 74. The relationships with others as an important part of the total development of the individual
- 75. The importance of group relationships to the total development of the individual
- 76. Means of developing relationships in a new environment
- 77. Group behavior
- 78. The need for getting along with others in groups

Q-SORT ITEMS

TASK AND COMPETENCIES -- FOODS AND NUTRITION

TASK: Help Youth to Gain a Better Understanding of Appropriate Food and Nutrition Concepts

CONCEPT: Food and Nutrition

UNDERSTANDS:

79. The basic difference between nutrition and diet
80. Basic nutrition concepts
81. Factors influencing the nutritional status of individuals
82. Normal nutritional needs of all age groups
83. Function of food nutrients
84. The general knowledge of the nutrient composition of food
85. And appraises food practices
86. And recognizes cultural food patterns
87. The relationship of nutrition to good health
88. Nutritional problems of youth
89. Ways of identifying nutritional problems of youth
90. Methods and techniques of working with youth that have nutritional problems
91. Agencies or consultants for referrals of specific nutritional problems

92. Basic food groups and how they are used for
a daily food guide
93. Basic food selection and preparation
94. Methods and techniques for obtaining and
maintaining balanced daily diets
95. The difference between food fads and fallacies
96. Food practices to help protect against nu-
tritional deficiency diseases
97. The relationship of changing family patterns
to food and nutrition
98. The need for and ability to plan nutritional
meals
99. The various meal patterns of families
100. The relationship of nutrition to growth and
development of the individual
101. Emotional, physical, and social changes of
youth
102. Eating habits of youth
103. Adolescent behavior as it relates to food
habits or practices
104. General problems of youth and the relationship
to nutrition

TASK: Help Youth to Increase Their Knowledge of Consumer Behavior as it Relates to Food and Nutrition

CONCEPT: Consumer Behavior

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS :

105. And possesses an awareness of trends in food consumption patterns
106. Changing role of the consumer in food selection and purchasing
107. Changing market and its effect upon the consumer
108. Factors determining food supply
109. The impact of technological development on food
110. Consumer information and other factors influencing food purchasing
111. The importance of comparing prices in food purchasing
112. And helps families to establish spending guides
113. And helps families to make wise decisions in shopping
114. The relationship of food prices to consumption
115. The significance of consumer purchasing

practices

- 116. The relationship of time, energy, and money to food buying
- 117. The effect of general knowledge provided by labels and the relationship to food purchasing and adequate diets
- 118. Economic conditions of the family and the relationship to eating habits, food purchasing, food preferences and general nutritional status
- 119. Ways of using existing food supply for maximum benefits
- 120. The relationship of food cost to the total family budget

TASK: Help Youth to Develop an Awareness of Food and its Relationship to People

CONCEPT: Food and its Relationship to People

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

- 121. And appreciates man's beliefs and attitudes about food
- 122. The influence of cultural factors on food practices of families and individuals
- 123. The food habits of the culture to be served

124. How food ideas, beliefs, attitudes and habits
may be formed

125. How customs and traditions alter patterns of
food service

126. The importance of food in community activities
in various cultures

TASK: Develop Methods and Techniques for Expanding Nutri-
tion Education

CONCEPT: Nutrition Education

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

127. Various values, goals, attitudes and beliefs
of prospective audience

128. Needs of audience to be reached

129. And possesses a knowledge of the level of
nutrition to be taught

130. Techniques for reaching groups and individuals
effectively

131. Ways of motivating interest in one's diet

132. Methods of reaching individuals through other
allied agencies and groups

133. Ways of getting individuals to accept a var-
iety of food which provide the nutrients re-
quired by the body

134. The importance of nutrition education

TASK: Train Aides in Methods of Analyzing Daily Diets and
Use of Daily Food Guides

CONCEPT:

COMPETENCIES:

UNDERSTANDS:

135. Purpose of the 24 hour daily diet

136. Basic steps in recording 24 hour daily diets

137. And develops effective interview techniques
which can result in accurate reports

138. How to evaluate food intake

139. Means of evaluating needs on the basis of the
four food groups

DIRECTIONS FOR Q-SORT

STEP I

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are a youth staff worker in charge of a youth EFNEP or because you are a home economist who works closely with the youth staff in the EFNEP. It is your knowledge of the program which is important.

CONSIDER YOURSELF IN THE FOLLOWING SITUATION:

The youth phase of the EFNEP is in the process of developing programs and training personnel in personal growth and development and foods and nutrition. As there are numerous amounts of material which could be incorporated into programs and taught to personnel, one must decide on priorities for a number of reasons such as meeting specific needs of clients, use of resources, use of time and personnel. Your task is to help set some priorities according to your knowledge of the clients to be served and programs that would be of most benefit to them.

KEEP THIS THOUGHT IN MIND AS YOU PROCEED THROUGH THE NEXT STEPS

STEP II

Enclosed is an envelope which contains 139 items. These items are competencies which may be needed by youth staff

workers in the EFNEP in the areas of personal growth and development and foods and nutrition. Your ultimate objective is to divide the items into ELEVEN piles placing them in the ELEVEN cells ranging from MOST IMPORTANT to LEAST IMPORTANT according to how important the item is for the staff assigned to the youth program to know and the importance of the item to the program. Feel free to rearrange the items as often as you would like before making your final decision on their importance in each cell.

PLEASE FOLLOW THE PROCEDURE OUTLINED IN THE NEXT STEPS CAREFULLY.

STEP III

- A. Divide the 139 items into two piles according to their importance.

139

Most		Least
Important	69	70 Important

- B. Divide the pile of 69 most important items from Step Z into two piles.

69

Most		Less
Important	27	42 Important

- C. Divide the pile of 27 important items from Step B into two piles.

27

Most		Less
Important	7	20 Important

- C-1. Place the seven most important items into cell ELEVEN or the most important category.

- D. Divide the pile of 20 less important items from Step C into two piles.

20

Most		Less
Important 9		11 Important

- D-1. Place the nine most important items into cell TEN or the next most important category.
- D-2. Place the eleven less important items into cell NINE or the next most important category.

You should have at this point sorted all of the items on the pile which contained 27 items from Step B, filling cells ELEVEN, TEN, and NINE.

- E. Go to the pile of 42 less important items from Step B. Divide these items into two piles.

42

Most		Less
Important 15		27 Important

- F. Place the pile of 15 items from Step E into cell EIGHT or the next most important category.
- G. Divide the pile of 27 less important items from Step E into two piles.

27

Most		Less
Important 17		10 Important

- G-1. Place the pile of seventeen items into cell SEVEN or the next most important category.
- G-2. Place the pile of ten items into cell SIX or the next most important category. (NOTE) These are only half of the items which belong in this cell. The other half will be included as you continue with the sorting of the remaining 70 items from Step A.

- H. From Step A, divide the pile of 70 less important items into two piles.

70

Most			Less
Important	43	27	Important

- I. Divide the pile of 43 most important items from Step H into two piles.

43

Most			Less
Important	28	15	Important

- J. Divide the pile of 28 items from Step I into two piles.

28

Most			Less
Important	11	17	Important

- J-1. Place the pile of 11 items into cell SIX or the next most important category completing the total number of items for this cell.

- J-2. Place the pile of 17 items into cell FIVE or the next most important category.

- J-3. Place the pile of 15 items from Step I in cell FOUR or the next most important category.

- K. Divide the 27 less important items from Step H into three piles.

27

Most				Less
Important	11	9	7	Important

- K-1. Place the pile of 11 items into cell THREE or the next most important category.

- K-2. Place the pile of 9 items into cell TWO or the next most important category.

- K-3. Place the pile of 7 items into cell ONE or the least important category.

At this point you should have sorted all of the 139 items into the ELEVEN cells ranging from most important to least important. Check to see that you have the correct number of items in each cell.

STEP IV

You have sorted the items into ELEVEN cells. Make your final check to be sure you are satisfied with your selection. You should have the following number of items in each of the ELEVEN envelopes:

Most	7	9	11	15	17	21	17	15	11	9	7	Least
Important	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Important

PROCEED TO THE SHEET MARKED SCORE SHEET

SCORE SHEET**DIRECTIONS:**

These sheets printed in red are score sheets. The numbers correspond with the numbers on the items with which you have been working.

Now start with the pile you considered most important or cell ELEVEN. Each item in this cell will be given a score of eleven. Write an eleven in the box on the score sheet below each item found in cell eleven. Go on to the second most important pile or cell ten. Each of these items will receive a score of ten. Write a ten in the box below the items on the score sheet for each of the items in cell ten.

Continue in this manner until you reach cell one or the least important category. Each item in this cell will receive a score of one.

SCORING

Most Important	<hr/> 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Lease Important
-------------------	---	--------------------

Score Sheet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72
73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96
97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108
109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120
121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132
133	134	135	136	137	138	139					

APPENDIX G: COOPERSMITH SELF ESTEEM INVENTORY
AND DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

PLEASE MARK EACH STATEMENT IN THE FOLLOWING WAY:

1. IF THE STATEMENT DESCRIBES HOW YOU USUALLY FEEL, PUT A CHECK (✓) IN COLUMN "LIKE ME."
2. IF THE STATEMENT DOES NOT DESCRIBE HOW YOU USUALLY FEEL, PUT A CHECK (✓) IN THE COLUMN "UNLIKE ME."

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS

LIKE	UNLIKE
<u>ME</u>	<u>ME</u>

1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming._____
2. I'm pretty sure of myself._____
3. I often wish I were someone else._____
4. I'm easy to like._____
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together._____
- lie 6. I never worry about anything._____
7. I wish I were younger._____
8. There are a lot of things about myself I'd change if I could._____
9. I can make up my mind without too much trouble._____
10. I'm a lot of fun to be with._____
11. I get upset easily at home._____
- lie 12. I always do the right thing._____
13. Someone always has to tell me what to do._____
14. It takes me a long time to get use to anything new._____
15. I'm often sorry for the things I do._____
16. I'm popular with kids my own age._____

LIKE	UNLIKE
<u>ME</u>	<u>ME</u>

17. My parents usually consider my feelings. _____
- lie 18. I'm never unhappy. _____
19. I give in very easily. _____
20. I can usually take care of myself. _____
21. I'm pretty happy. _____
22. I would rather play with children younger than me. _____
23. My parents expect too much of me. _____
- lie 24. I like everyone I know. _____
25. I understand myself. _____
26. It's pretty tough to be me. _____
27. Things are all mixed up in my life. _____
28. Kids usually follow my ideas. _____
29. No one pays much attention to me at home. _____
- lie 30. I never get scolded. _____
31. I can make up my mind and stick to it. _____
32. I really don't like being a boy__girl. _____
33. I have a low opinion of myself. _____
34. I don't like to be with other people. _____
35. There are many times when I'd like to leave home. _____
- lie 36. I'm never shy. _____
37. I often feel ashamed of myself. _____
38. I'm not as nice looking as most people. _____

LIKE	UNLIKE
<u>ME</u>	<u>ME</u>

39. If I have something to say, I usually
say it._____
40. Kids pick on me very often._____
41. My parents understand me._____
- lie 42. I always tell the truth._____
43. I don't care what happens to me._____
44. I get upset easily when I'm scolded._____
45. Most people are better liked than I am._____
46. I'm a failure._____
47. I usually feel as if my parents are
pushing me._____
- lie 48. I always know what to say to people._____
49. Things usually don't bother me._____
50. I can't be depended on._____

Instructions for Scoring and Interpreting
the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI)
Coopersmith

There are two forms of the Self-Esteem Inventory: A contains 58 items and a total of five subscales, B contains 25 items and no subscales. Form A provides a general assessment of self-esteem which may be broken down into component subscales depending on the goals and interest of the tester but which may also be used without such differentiation. Form B is briefer, does not permit further differentiation, and takes about half the administration time of Form A. The total scores of Forms A and B correlate .86, a finding which has been established to a markedly similar extent on four different samples. This is not surprising since Form B was based on an item analysis of Form A and includes those twenty-five items which showed the highest item-total score relationships of scores obtained with Form A. Validating information is presented in Coopersmith's monograph "The Antecedents of Self-Esteem" (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968).

Form A: 58 items

There are five subscales which cycle in sequence the length of the SEI. These subscales are:

General Self	Items 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 17, etc.
Social Self-peers	Items 4, 11, 18, 25, 32, 39, 46 53
Home-parents	Items 5, 12, 19, 26, 33, 40, 47 54
Lie Scale	Items 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48 55
School-academic	Items 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42, 49 56

As noted above the subscales do not have to be scored separately with the exception of the Lie Scale. The responses indicating high self-esteem and low Lie, defensive reactions are noted on the enclosed scored copies of the SEI.

The scores are reported as:

- I. Total number correct of all scales excluding Lie (a maximum of 50).
- II. A separate score total number of responses indicative of defensive, Lie reaction (a maximum of 8).

For convenience sake the total SEI score is multiplied by a two so that maximum score is 100.

Thus SEI score $50 \times 2 = 100$
Lie score $8 = 8$.

In the event that separate subscales for a given purpose are desired the responses are scored and noted separately in the same manner as the Lie Scale.

APPENDIX H: NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL
SCALE FOR CHILDREN

THE N-S LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE FOR CHILDREN

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY PLACING A CHECK ()
IN THE YES OR NO COLUMN.

YES NO

1. Are some kids just born lucky?_____
2. Do you feel that most of the time parents
listen to what their children have to say?_____
3. Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't
pay to try hard because things never turn
out right anyway?_____
4. Do you believe that wishing can make good
things happen?_____
5. Do you feel it's nearly impossible to
change your parent's mind about anything?_____
6. Do you feel that when you do something
wrong there's very little you can do to
make it right?_____
7. Do you believe that most kids are just born
good at sports?_____
8. Are most of the kids your age stronger than
you are?_____
9. Do you feel that one of the best ways to
handle problems is just not to think
about them?_____
10. If you find a four leaf clover do you be-
lieve that it might bring good luck?_____
11. Do you feel that when a kid your age de-
cides to hit you, there is little you can
do to stop him or her?_____
12. Have you felt that when people were mean to
you it was usually for no reason at all?_____
13. Do you believe that when bad things are
going to happen they are going to happen
no matter what you do to stop them?_____

YES NO

14. Most of the time do you find it useless to try to get your own way?_____
15. Do you feel that when somebody your age wants to be your enemy there is little you can do to change the matter?_____
16. Do you usually feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home?_____
17. Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you there is little you can do about it?_____
18. Do you feel that it's almost useless to try hard in school because most other children are just plain smarter than you?_____
19. Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better?_____
20. Most of the time do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do?_____

APPENDIX I: FOUR FACTOR LOADING OF PEOPLE

Four Factor Loading

People	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
1	0.087	0.723	0.209	0.137
2	0.064	0.646	0.102	0.233
3	0.340	0.670	0.039	0.312
4	0.308	0.383	0.194	0.395
5	0.665	0.028	0.113	0.118
6	0.057	0.643	0.086	0.474
7	0.167	0.672	0.114	0.197
8	0.375	0.460	0.259	0.142
9	0.006	0.725	0.044	0.204
10	0.450	0.232	0.089	0.646
11	0.628	0.033	0.107	0.496
12	0.223	0.356	0.163	0.163
13	0.106	0.253	0.141	0.593
14	0.291	0.253	0.141	0.593
15	0.677	0.574	0.138	0.000
16	0.677	0.140	0.035	0.118
17	0.333	0.339	0.072	0.423
18	0.655	0.051	0.146	0.157
19	0.437	0.190	0.641	0.477
20	0.526	0.610	0.078	0.327
21	0.231	0.391	0.152	0.327
22	0.415	0.774	0.051	0.159
23	0.300	0.424	0.218	0.489
24	0.456	0.151	0.080	0.489
25	0.318	0.333	0.342	0.273

APPENDIX J: ITEMS WHICH CLUSTERED AROUND THE
DIAGONAL ON THE SIX SCATTERGRAMS

Personal Development

1. Ways of relating more effectively with others
2. Problems of or in relating with others
6. Creates an environment and activities which contribute to helpful interpersonal relationships
7. The usefulness of interpersonal relationships with people of different backgrounds and cultures
8. Accepts cognitively, affectively, and confluentlly people of different backgrounds and cultures
12. The meaning and need for personal satisfaction
13. The relationship of satisfaction to personal growth and development
14. The need for new experiences and adventures
15. The need for satisfying experiences
16. Creates an environment conducive to satisfactory experiences
17. The importance of self-set, identified and directed goals
18. The importance of feeling a sense of worth and accomplishment
20. Behavior as a means of gaining personal satisfaction
22. The difference and relationships between families of different cultures
23. The structure and functions of families of different cultures
26. The uniqueness of each family
27. Worth of each family member as well as the family as a unit
29. Life styles of families

31. Satisfaction in sharing family responsibilities
33. The basic needs of the family
36. Factors relating to family stability and instability
37. Similarities and differences in the ways that families in various cultures carry out family functions
40. Ways of working with youth and others to enhance acceptance of self
42. Past image and experiences which influence self-image
46. Emotional feelings
48. Recognizes differences in attitudes and feelings
49. The importance that psychological and physical needs have on behavior and personality
53. Factors which influence self-image
58. The uniqueness of an individual in appearance, goals, experiences, thoughts, and ideas which make up self
59. Contributions of social environment to the expression of self
60. How self-image affects relationships with others
61. The effects of self-image on behavior
63. The significance of coping with one's problems
66. The importance of self assessment in developing self-image
67. The importance of group relationships
68. Responsibilities and privileges of a group member
69. Accepts people of different backgrounds and abilities
70. Various types of friendships
71. Creates healthy attitudes about relationships with people

- 72. The importance of self-identity in group relationships
- 73. The importance of effective communication
- 74. The relationships with others as an important part of the total development of the individual
- 75. The importance of group relationships to the total development of the individual
- 76. Means of developing relationships in a new environment
- 77. Group behavior
- 78. The need for getting along with others

Food and Nutrition

- 79. The basic difference between nutrition and diet
- 80. Basic nutrition concepts
- 81. Factors influencing the nutritional status of individuals
- 86. Recognizes cultural food patterns
- 89. Methods and techniques of working with youth that have nutritional problems
- 90. Agencies or consultants for referrals of specific nutritional problems
- 91. Basic food groups and how they are used for a daily food guide
- 92. Basic food selection and preparation
- 93. Methods and techniques for obtaining and maintaining balanced daily diets
- 95. Food practices to help protect against nutritional deficiency diseases
- 96. The relationship of changing family patterns to food and nutrition
- 97. The need for and ability to plan nutritional meals

98. The various meal patterns of families
99. The relationship of nutrition to growth and development of the individual
100. Emotional, physical and social changes of youth
101. Eating habits of youth
102. Adolescent behavior as it relates to food habits or practices
103. General problems of youth and their relationship to nutrition
105. Changing role of the consumer on food selection and purchasing
106. Changing market and its effect upon the consumer
107. Factors determining food supply
108. The impact of technological development of food
113. The relationship of food prices to consumption
114. The significance of consumer purchasing practices
116. The effect of general knowledge provided by labels and the relationship to food purchasing and adequate diets
117. Economic condition of the family and the relationship to eating habits, food purchasing, food preferences and general nutritional status
118. Ways of using existing food supply for maximum benefits
119. The relationship of food cost to total family budget
120. Appreciates man's beliefs and attitudes about food
121. The influence of cultural factors on food practices of families
122. The food habits of the culture to be served

123. How food ideas, beliefs, attitudes and habits may be formed
124. How customs and traditions alter patterns of food service
125. The importance of food in community activities in various cultures
126. Various values, goals, attitudes, beliefs, of prospective audience
127. Needs of audience to be reached
128. Possesses a knowledge of the level of nutrition to be taught
129. Techniques for reaching groups and individuals effectively
131. Methods of reaching individuals through other allied agencies and groups
132. Ways of getting individuals to accept a variety of foods which provide the nutrients required by the body
133. The importance of nutrition education
134. The use and meaning of the daily diet intake
135. Purposes of analyzing the daily diet intake
136. Basic steps in recording daily diet intake
137. Develops effective interview techniques which can result in accurate reports of diets
138. How to evaluate food intake
139. Means of evaluating needs of the basis of the four food groups

APPENDIX K: MEAN SCORES OF IMPORTANT
ITEMS FROM SCATTERGRAMS

MEAN SCORES OF ITEMS SELECTED AS MOST IMPORTANT BY GROUPS

Item No.	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
3	5.00	8.57	6.29	4.00
4	4.25	8.14	6.89	8.50
5	3.00	6.89	5.29	5.50
9	4.50	5.00	4.00	8.00
10	3.50	6.14	6.43	8.00
11	2.75	5.86	4.71	4.50
19	7.50	9.86	7.71	6.50
21	3.25	5.29	6.71	6.50
24	2.75	5.71	4.43	3.50
25	3.50	5.86	5.86	6.50
28	2.75	4.86	4.71	1.50
30	3.50	5.71	5.71	4.50
32	2.50	5.57	5.43	4.50
34	3.75	5.57	6.43	6.50
35	3.50	6.57	5.29	5.50
38	2.50	5.43	6.00	5.00
39	4.50	7.86	8.43	7.00
41	3.75	9.29	4.86	4.00
43	3.75	7.86	7.43	5.50
44	5.50	9.00	8.00	6.00
45	5.75	9.57	8.57	6.50
47	3.00	7.86	5.00	1.00
51	4.00	8.86	7.00	6.50
52	3.25	7.43	6.14	3.50
54	2.75	7.86	5.71	6.50
55	3.25	7.29	6.43	7.50
56	4.25	8.00	6.29	4.00
57	6.50	8.00	4.71	6.50
62	5.00	9.29	6.29	4.50
64	5.50	9.00	7.14	6.00
65	5.25	9.29	6.57	8.00
66	4.25	7.43	5.00	5.50
82	9.25	5.00	5.43	5.50
83	7.50	2.57	5.14	6.50
85	4.50	3.14	3.29	5.50

Item No.	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
88	8.75	4.29	7.14	7.50
94	4.40	2.00	3.86	8.50
109	5.75	3.71	2.57	3.50
110	7.00	3.43	2.57	3.50
111	7.25	4.57	3.57	1.00
112	7.50	4.14	4.57	1.00
115	7.25	3.29	3.14	3.50
130	8.00	4.29	4.57	4.00

APPENDIX L: SCORES OF CSEI AND LCS FOR
EFNEP AND 4-H YOUTH

Scores of CSEI and LCS for EFNEP and 4-H Youth

<u>EFNEP GIRLS</u>			
<u>ID#</u>	<u>CSEI</u>	<u>Lie of CSEI</u>	<u>LCS</u>
1028	78	3	28
1031	78	6	22
1029	74	7	28
1042	74	7	22
1046	74	7	28
1007	72	2	18
1010	72	8	18
1019	72	5	24
1045	72	8	26
1027	70	6	26
1039	70	6	12
1067	70	4	34
1013	68	8	26
1044	66	5	26
1059	66	7	30
1001	64	4	14
1043	64	7	22
1060	64	7	32
1063	64	7	22
1016	62	6	14
1025	62	2	16
1053	62	7	14
1011	60	5	12
1018	60	7	16
1035	60	6	14
1054	60	7	32
1071	60	3	18
1004	58	5	18
1012	56	5	8
1032	56	7	16
1031	56	5	18
1003	54	3	22
1022	54	1	20
1037	54	3	12
1038	54	4	22

EFNEP GIRLS

<u>ID#</u>	<u>CSEI</u>	<u>Lie of CSEI</u>	<u>LCS</u>
1051	54	7	30
1056	4	8	16
1061	54	3	16
1062	54	6	32
1014	52	3	14
1020	52	7	12
1040	52	7	18
1049	52	6	14
1008	50	2	22
1064	50	7	24
1068	50	3	18
1026	48	6	18
1034	48	5	16
1058	48	4	18
1065	48	5	10
1005	46	3	22
1024	46	4	28
1009	44	4	12
1021	44	6	18
1050	44	5	12
1036	42	2	8
1052	42	3	14
1069	42	5	24
1073	42	7	24
1002	40	2	22
1006	40	4	18
1047	40	6	20
1055	40	5	16
1057	40	7	30
1066	40	4	12
1070	40	8	18
1017	38	6	14
1048	38	3	20
1015	36	6	14
1030	30	8	10

EFNEP GIRLS

<u>ID#</u>	<u>CSEI</u>	<u>Lie of CSEI</u>	<u>LCS</u>
1041	30	5	12
1072	30	7	20
1023	28	5	16

EFNEP BOYS

1088	64	4	30
1093	64	6	34
1078	60	6	16
1102	56	5	18
1079	54	4	22
1080	54	3	22
1089	54	6	12
1100	54	8	20
1081	52	7	18
1084	52	6	18
1095	52	5	14
1077	50	6	16
1087	48	5	16
1091	48	6	14
1094	48	0	10
1096	48	7	28
1099	48	5	22
1085	46	4	16
1086	46	7	12
1092	46	7	26
1074	44	2	14
1082	42	6	24
1083	42	4	18
1090	42	7	14
1098	42	4	10
1075	40	2	18
1076	40	6	20
1101	38	8	20
1097	30	6	8

4-H GIRLS

<u>ID#</u>	<u>CSEI</u>	<u>Lie of CSEI</u>	<u>LCS</u>
2037	80	7	30
2056	80	3	30
2014	76	6	28
2047	76	5	30
2006	74	4	26
2020	74	7	26
2045	74	5	34
2068	74	3	38
2073	74	7	34
2018	72	7	26
2015	70	5	32
2019	70	8	16
2022	70	7	26
2050	70	3	30
2072	70	4	30
2076	70	5	32
2009	68	3	30
2034	8	4	12
2031	66	8	30
2053	66	5	22
2058	66	4	28
2063	66	7	28
2066	66	8	22
2070	66	5	34
2075	66	4	32
2032	64	6	30
2033	64	7	30
2035	64	2	12
2036	64	8	30
2039	64	8	34
2043	64	6	30
2011	62	2	22
2025	62	8	32
2051	62	6	24
2077	62	7	32

4-H GIRLS

<u>ID#</u>	<u>CSEI</u>	<u>Lie of CSEI</u>	<u>LCS</u>
2042	60	6	20
2062	60	5	28
2002	58	5	16
2008	58	5	18
2021	58	7	24
2024	58	7	20
2044	58	5	36
2069	58	6	30
2001	56	6	28
2023	56	6	22
2030	56	8	34
2038	56	7	34
2049	56	6	36
2061	56	6	12
2005	54	8	18
2012	54	5	26
2013	54	6	20
2029	54	6	22
2078	54	7	16
2026	52	8	32
2007	50	6	12
2016	50	7	16
2017	50	4	20
2046	50	7	26
2067	50	8	30
2071	50	8	24
2004	48	5	14
2041	48	7	24
2052	48	8	24
2057	48	6	20
2080	48	2	6
2074	46	6	34
2060	44	4	34
2079	44	6	30
2054	42	7	32

4-H GIRLS

<u>ID#</u>	<u>CSEI</u>	<u>Lie of CSEI</u>	<u>LCS</u>
2055	42	5	22
2065	40	8	18
2027	36	7	22
2028	36	6	18
2003	34	6	10
2040	34	8	32
2010	30	8	22
2064	28	8	22
2059	26	8	22
2048	18	6	18

4-H BOYS

2096	78	7	38
2101	76	8	24
2116	76	8	38
2117	76	8	38
2122	74	8	26
2113	72	6	24
2099	70	5	24
2091	68	5	26
2104	68	5	24
2106	68	4	30
0295	66	7	20
2119	66	7	18
2086	64	7	20
2089	64	7	28
2094	64	8	24
2097	64	6	24
2084	62	8	30
2120	62	7	24
2105	60	7	16
2108	60	5	30