Characteristics of 4-H Participants and Their Psychosocial Development

Lauralee Lyons

Utah State University

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CHARACTERISTICS OF 4-H PARTICIPANTS AND
THEIR PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

by

Lauralee Lyons

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
in
Family, Consumer, and Human Development

Approved:

______________________________  ________________________________
Troy E. Beckert, Ph. D.  Randall M. Jones, Ph. D.
Major Professor  Committee Member

______________________________  ________________________________
Elizabeth B. Fauth, Ph. D.  Mark R. McLellan, Ph. D.
Committee Member  Vice President of Research and
  Dean of the School of Graduate Studies

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
Logan, Utah
2013
ABSTRACT

Characteristics of 4-H Participants and Their Psychosocial Development

by

Lauralee Lyons, Master of Science
Utah State University, 2013

Major Professor: Dr. Troy E. Beckert
Department: Family, Consumer, and Human Development

This thesis summarizes a study conducted to explore 4-H volunteerism as it applies to adolescent 4-H members. The study had two main goals: (1) to discover the demographic characteristics of 4-H volunteers during middle and late adolescence, and (2) to focus on 4-H volunteering and its relationship to adolescent perceptions of their own level of autonomy and identity achievement. Through two samples of convenience, survey data were collected online from current 4-H members in high school and post-high school alumni members. Adolescent participants between the ages of 18-25 participated, which included 111 (58.6% currently volunteer) high school students and 86 (58.1% currently volunteer) post-high school students. The Modified Extended Version of the Object Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS), the Cognitive Autonomy and Self-Evaluation (CASE) inventory, and an instrument specifically designed to study 4-H involvement and volunteerism were used as the three measures. The results of this study indicated that 16- and 17-year-old high school participants and 23- to 25-year-old post-high school participants were more likely to volunteer. In addition, those from rural
communities were more likely to volunteer. Academic grades for high school participants did not significantly relate to volunteerism. Those involved for longer periods of time and those that considered 4-H a significant part of their life were more likely to continue to volunteer. Individuals who participated in events held on the national level were most likely to continue volunteering, followed closely by those whose highest level of involvement was on the county level. A steep decrease in volunteerism was found for those that participated on the state level. Neither identity status nor level of cognitive autonomy statistically related to volunteerism. Implications and further recommendations for research and practical uses were further discussed.

(112 pages)
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Volunteerism is an important component in the 4-H program. It was initially used as a method to help agents reach the many youth interested in participating in 4-H. Community service has since become a required component for every club project. Research shows that volunteering can impact youth in many different ways. Other research shows that 4-H youth are more likely to contribute or do some type of community service.

The present study uses the Modified Extended Version of the Object Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS), the Cognitive Autonomy and Self-Evaluation (CASE) inventory, and an instrument specifically designed to study 4-H involvement and volunteerism to look at Utah 4-H. In order to more fully understand how volunteering in 4-H impacts youth, this study focused on adolescents (age 14-25) who have participated in the Utah 4-H program.

The study had two main goals: (1) to discover the demographic characteristics of 4-H volunteers during middle and late adolescence, and (2) to focus on 4-H volunteering
and its relationship to autonomy and identity achievement. This could be then be used to determine future programming changes to the Utah 4-H program.

The results of this study indicated that 4-H adolescents were most likely to be from rural communities and 16 and 17 years old if still in high school or 23 to 25 years old if they had graduated from high school. Academic grades for high school participants did not seem to make a difference in if they volunteered or not. Those members who were involved for longer periods of time or those that considered 4-H a significant part of their life were more likely to continue to volunteer. Individuals who participated in events held on the national and county level were most likely to continue volunteering, but less likely to volunteer if they participated on the state level.

Identity status and cognitive autonomy were not significantly related to volunteerism. However, trends did show that they could possibly be impacted in some way. A larger sample could play a role in determining if it were just a trend or if there was a significant relationship. It may also help to study 4-H participants versus non 4-H participants or 4-H volunteers versus non 4-H volunteers to determine if the 4-H program has an impact on identity status and cognitive autonomy.
I want to thank my major advisor, Dr. Troy Beckert, for all his help in getting this finally completed. He was incredible at knowing when to push, when to encourage, and when to have patience. I appreciate the many drafts, discussions, and work he did in reining me in and helping me focus.

I also appreciate the help of Dr. Randy Jones and Dr. Elizabeth Fauth for their willingness to serve on my thesis committee. I appreciated the time they spent reading my thesis and adding valuable comments and insight.

A huge group of people I need to thank includes all the county extension agents, program assistants and staff, Collegiate 4-H members, State 4-H staff, teen leaders, and everyone else that participated in helping me gather data. I was so blessed to work with so many amazing people for so many years. The 4-H program and the people I worked with played a major role in making me who I am today. I don’t dare list names because of how many of you were there to support, encourage, and mentor me over the years. I’m proud to say I still bleed green!

I especially want to thank my family and friends for all their love and encouragement. I am very lucky to have so many amazing people in my life. Thanks to all those who shared ideas, offered advice, and gave encouragement throughout. I also need to thank my Heavenly Father for helping me through it all. I have no doubt it was only done through His strength and love.

Lauralee Lyons
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Created in 1902, 4-H was originally intended to improve agriculture by teaching technical information to youth as a means of reaching their parents (National 4-H Council, 2011). Prior to the turn of the 20th century, researchers found that the young people were more open and willing to experiment with many of the newly discovered agricultural ideas and methods disseminated from the university. The young people would then share their successes and experiences with their parents and other adults. This provided universities with a new method to indirectly share research and information with adults.

As the 4-H program developed, county extension educators took responsibility for the overall 4-H program. The staff members provide the research-based information through non-formal educational programs to the young people in their communities and counties. Clubs were organized as a way to share this information and provide “hands-on” learning to local groups. The focus of the 4-H program, no longer limited to agriculture, now covers a wide variety of topics and issues including science, engineering, technology, childhood obesity, food safety, and any other topic of interest to participating youth (National 4-H Council, 2011).

Nationally, there are more than 6 million 4-H members under the direction of more than 540,000 volunteer leaders (National 4-H Council, 2011). In Utah, more than 8,000 volunteer leaders serve more than 85,000 members. During 2012, the Utah 4-H Program celebrated its centennial anniversary, ten years after the National 4-H Program
celebrated its 100th birthday. As part of the Utah 4-H celebration, an increased emphasis was placed on volunteer leaders.

Volunteers have been central to the 4-H program since its beginning in 1902 (Wessel & Wessel, 1982). County Extension staff have a hard time keeping up with so many members and the variety of projects that are available to those members, so it is often the volunteers, not county Extension staff, who work directly with the young people. In addition, the job description for extension agents in Utah continues to expand, making it difficult to focus solely on positive youth development. Currently less than one in twenty agents has an exclusive 4-H assignment. Instead, the norm is to have an agent with a partial 4-H assignment and a larger Agriculture or Consumer and Family Development assignment. As a result, agents with an exclusive 4-H assignment, like other Extension educators across the nation, spend less time working with individual youth and more time managing volunteers (Arnold, Dolene, & Rennekamp, 2009).

**Problem Discussion**

A key focus of the 4-H program is positive youth development. Committed 4-H leaders believe that young people are not problems to be corrected, but instead see them as resources to be developed. This school of thought postulates that young people who develop or incorporate the 5 Cs of Positive Youth Development (Competence, Confidence, Connection, Character, and Caring / Compassion) in their lives, will also develop a sixth C – Contributions to self, family, community, and society (Lerner, 2005). The 4-H program teaches and encourages young people to make a positive influence in their communities (National 4-H Council, 2011).
To emphasize the idea of contributing back, community service is a required component of every club project. Often at first, these service projects involve helping a neighbor, cleaning an area of the community, or setting up and cleaning up for a 4-H event. As participants get older and more capable, the service projects also get larger and more complex. These projects range from serving as leaders for younger clubs to promoting social change on community issues. National 4-H Council (2011) is currently promoting a “Revolution of Responsibility” which is a movement for positive change in the community. Four-H leaders believe that youth can be responsible for making a difference and leading a revolution of change where they live by doing positive things and breaking through obstacles.

With both national and state emphasis on young people being contributors and catalysts for change, it is important to have an idea of the current situation within the program. Point-in-time research shows that 4-H youth are 3 times more likely to have higher scores for Contribution than youth in other out-of-school time programs or those in no programs (Lerner, Lerner, & Colleagues, 2011b). The Contribution score measures civic duty, civic skills, neighborhood connection, and civic participation to determine how much an individual is contributing to his- or herself, family, community, and society. When studying youth longitudinally, Lerner et al. (2011b) found that by Grade 11, 4-H youth were still 2.1 times more likely to volunteer. Lerner et al. (2011b) are continuing their research to focus on what happens after Grade 11, but many researchers have already found that, in general, those most likely to volunteer typically have a history of volunteering during their youth (Metz, McLellan, & Youniss, 2003; Wetzstein, 2002).
Based on these findings, one could reason that possibly one of the largest demographic groups of volunteers in 4-H would include adolescents who have just graduated from high school who want to continue their 4-H experience or maintain a connection with a group they have been a part of for so long. However, researchers have found that this group is actually one of the smallest groups of volunteers and the “typical” 4-H volunteer is a 40- to 43-year-old married female with two to three children who are usually participants in 4-H (Culp, McKee, & Nestor, 2005).

One aspect of the Positive Youth Development theory is that it is bidirectional. The idea is that those who develop the 5 Cs, will also develop the sixth C of contribution. This study will examine whether or not 4-H members are contributing members of society in high school or after they are no longer members of 4-H. It is also necessary to look at how volunteering influences the individual. One way to do this is to study areas of psychosocial development that generally take place during the adolescent developmental period.

**Purpose and Objectives**

There is a large body of literature on adolescents and their psychosocial development. There is also a great deal of research on how 4-H affects life skills development in youth. However, there is not a great deal of literature that addresses the relationship between the development of these life skills and the amount of volunteerism with 4-H members immediately following high school. The expectation seems to be that many of these youth will not volunteer again with 4-H until after they have children of their own who are involved in 4-H.
Understanding more about the psychosocial development of the young people who volunteer in 4-H could result in understanding how volunteering impacts young adults. It could also emphasize the importance of including a community service aspect in all club projects and county and state events. This study has two overall objectives. The first is to identify the demographic characteristics of 4-H volunteers during middle and late adolescence. The second is to focus on 4-H volunteering as it relates to adolescent perceptions of their own level of autonomy and identity achievement.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Some early theorists on adolescent development viewed adolescence as a time of “sturm und drang” (storm and stress), during which children evolved from primitive beasts to civilized social animals (Hall, 1904). These theorists focused on what adolescents lacked when compared to mature adults. Anna Freud (1958), for example, saw adolescence as a period of emotional turmoil, full of intrapersonal and interpersonal upheavals. She believed that extreme behavior and radical emotion were normal, and youth who showed no signs of turmoil were actually repressing it and, as a result, were abnormal.

Offer (1969) presented a more optimistic view. He felt that a majority of adolescents had positive self-esteem, maintained good relationships with their parents, and were hopeful about the future. Many current viewpoints tend to agree with Offer and many view adolescents as resources to be developed rather than as “problems to be managed” (Arnett, 2000; Damon, 2004).

The 4-H organization has always considered youth as not only resources that can be developed, but also as resources worth developing. Indeed, the national motto of 4-H demonstrates this idea as 4-H members strive to “Make the Best Better” (National 4-H Council, 2011, Volunteer Resources section, para. 4). The basic 4-H philosophy has also remained the same for over a century. Those in 4-H believe that by “learning by doing,” youth can learn the life skills necessary to make them contributing leaders in their community (National 4-H Council, 2011).
The purpose of this study follows the philosophy presented by 4-H and espoused by Offer as it seeks to learn more about adolescents and one aspect of their path to becoming self-directed and contributing members of society. The goal was to examine the role 4-H plays during this development. The remainder of this literature review is divided into five major sections. First, the history of 4-H will be presented, which is important to understanding the reasoning behind its creation and philosophy. The second reviews how 4-H assists in positive youth development and the impact it has on youth becoming contributing members of their communities. The third section focuses more specifically on the ideas of civic engagement and volunteering. Following this section, a brief introduction to the literature on adolescence and emerging adulthood is presented. This leads to a review of the literature on two aspects of psychosocial development (identity and autonomy) and how volunteering might relate to each of these constructs.

**History of 4-H**

In the early 1800s, agriculture was the primary occupation throughout the United States (Wessel & Wessel, 1982). Education was not an option for many people as only about 1% of the people had an opportunity to attend any kind of school (Herren & Hillison, 1996). Eventually, elementary schools were created to try to combat the social consequences of an illiterate and uneducated culture. Even so, many youth were not able to attend school past the eighth grade, as family support was a top priority.

The Civil War brought about a change that forever influenced education in the United States. In 1857, shortly before the start of the war, Representative Justin Morrill proposed legislation to establish agricultural colleges in each state by providing public
land to each state (Wessel & Wessel, 1982). The greatest opposition for this came from southern legislators and they managed to veto it, claiming it was unconstitutional, and just a way for central government to seize more power (Herren & Hillison, 1996). In 1859, the legislation gained enough support to pass both houses, but President Buchanan vetoed it, citing reasons ranging from expense to constitutionality. The Civil War brought change to both of these opposing parties. There was a new U.S. President and many of the Southern states had seceded to form the Confederate States of America. The Morrill Land Grant Act quickly passed and was signed into law by President Lincoln on July 2, 1862. The new law provided a way for every state to build and start its own college, making the dream of receiving more education a little easier for many.

In 1887, President Cleveland granted these land-grant universities additional funding by signing the Hatch Act into law. This funding was used to create experiment station systems that could do research related to various agriculture issues. This law was further able to build up the economy by revising farming methods to fit the specific geography and environment germane to each state.

Many farmers held tight to tradition and were hesitant to embrace the ideas and agricultural discoveries from the universities. Researchers instead were required to start with young people who were more open and willing to experiment with new ideas. In 1902, the first youth programs or “clubs” were formed as a way to share ideas and promote “hands-on” learning. Their focus was mainly on soil, farm animals, tools, cookery, and housekeeping (National 4-H Council, 2011). Clubs started springing up around the country and their focus continued to grow. By 1912, there were almost 73,000 boys and 23,000 girls involved in 4-H work (Wessel & Wessel, 1982).
Land-grant colleges supported the local educators in organizing these clubs. From 1912 to 1914, O. H. Benson worked to make these relationships more formal and to establish written agreements between the counties, states, and federal government. As a result, the Smith-Lever Act was passed in 1914, creating the Cooperative Extension System through the United States Department of Agriculture. President Woodrow Wilson, who signed it into law, called it “one of the most significant and far-reaching measures for the education of adults ever adopted by the government” (Wessel & Wessel, 1982, p. 23). Extension offices were created to further expand the ability to extend knowledge and research to youth and adults. These county and state offices were able to provide research-based information and non-formal educational programs directly to individuals, families, and communities (National 4-H Council, 2011).

Volunteer work played a role from the beginning. Extension agents relied on adult volunteers to lead many of the clubs. Older youth were encouraged to teach younger youth. During World Wars I and II, 4-H members focused on raising Victory Gardens or “Food for Freedom,” which enabled members to grow essential war crops, raise livestock, and bottle millions of jars of fruits, vegetables, and meats (Wessel & Wessel, 1982). Members of 4-H clubs were especially prepared to help during World War II, where it is estimated they grew enough produce between 1943 and the end of the war to feed a million American soldiers (Van Horn, Flanagan, & Thomson, 1998).

The philosophy of 4-H continues to focus on youth as resources to their community, nation, and world (Van Horn et al., 1998). While the issues and situations may be different, their purpose is to facilitate the “development and growth of the individual through (a) intellectual experiences, (b) compassion and caring about the
community, (c) learning and applying new skills, and (d) living a healthy lifestyle” (Van Horn et al., 1998, p. 1).

4-H and Positive Youth Development

Although 4-H work originally focused on agriculture, the National 4-H Council (2011) now lists over 200 available project areas, divided into three main mission mandates: (1) Citizenship, (2) Healthy Living, and (3) Science, Engineering, and Technology. The National 4-H Council claims that there are over six million youth, age 5 to 19 years old, currently involved in 4-H programs, making it the largest non-formal youth educational program in the United States (About 4-H section, para. 1).

Many people define 4-H by the projects that are done, but it is the life skills learned while doing the projects that are of greater importance for positive youth development. A study by Fox, Schroeder, and Lodl (2003) found that while doing 4-H projects, members also learned skills such as decision-making, responsibility, working as a family, interpersonal skills, leadership, communication, understanding self, teamwork, self-confidence, social skills, and a service ethic. Many members also learn technical project skills that eventually lead them to employment using those skills specific to the project with which they were involved. Astroth and Haynes (2002) sent a survey to every youth in grades 5, 7, and 9 from two school districts each within 21 different counties in Montana. Over 50 schools participated, including schools on four of Montana’s seven reservations. Using approximately 2,500 usable surveys from the 2,800 received, they found that youth in 4-H were less likely to engage in risky behaviors, including 2 times less likely to use illegal drugs to get high, 3 times less likely to shoplift or steal, or 2
times less likely to damage property for fun. At the same time, those involved in 4-H were more likely to succeed in school, be involved as leaders in their school and the community, be looked up to as role models, and engage in more volunteerism. They were also more confident, competent, connected with their family and community, and had a deeper sense of compassion and caring for others (Astroth & Haynes, 2002).

In 2006, Maass, Wilken, Jordan, Cullen, and Place compared how 4-H ranked against other youth development organizations in the development of life skills. They mailed surveys to 444 alumni of the Oklahoma 4-H program. The average age of the 223 respondents was 37.5 years old and more than 90% had been in 4-H for 8 years or more. They found that the top five life skills 4-H alumni claimed to have developed in 4-H were public speaking, community service volunteering, self-discipline, self-responsibility, and teamwork. The top five life skills developed in other youth development programs were character, self-discipline, accepting differences, cooperation, and social skills. Of the 36 identified life skills, alumni attributed the development of 26 skills to 4-H and four skills to other youth development organizations (Maas et al., 2006).

The philosophy of 4-H to develop life skills is transitioning to a newer theory called the positive youth development (PYD) perspective. This theory derives from relational developmental systems-based theories that there is a bidirectional relationship between an individual and his/her environment (Mueller et al., 2011). The PYD theorists also believe that there is potential for change and positive development throughout life, not just during childhood and adolescence. As a result, an adolescent’s trajectory is not fixed, but can be influenced by various outside factors in their homes, schools, and communities (Lerner, Lerner, von Eye, Bowers, & Lewin-Bizan, 2011a). This PYD
perspective focuses on enhancing youth development instead of decreasing behavioral
deficits, especially during adolescence (Lerner, von Eye, Lerner, Lewin-Bizan, &
Bowers, 2010). The goal is to promote “thriving” which, in turn, may have a
preventative effect. Lerner et al. (2010) defined “thriving” as the development of
positive attributes in an individual, not as the absence of problems. These attributes
include what are known as the “Five Cs” of PYD – competence, confidence, character,

Table 1

*The Five Cs of Positive Youth Development*

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| Competence | Positive view of one’s actions in specific areas, including: social, academic, cognitive, health, and vocational.  
*Social competence* pertains to interpersonal skills (e.g., conflict resolution).  
*Cognitive competence* pertains to cognitive abilities (e.g., decision-making).  
*Academic competence* relates to school performance (e.g., school grades, attendance, and test scores).  
*Health competence* involves using nutrition, exercise, and rest to keep oneself fit.  
*Vocational competence* involves work habits and career choice explorations (e.g., entrepreneurship). |
| Confidence | An internal sense of overall positive self-worth and self-efficacy. |
| Connection | Positive bonds with people and institutions that are reflected in bidirectional exchanges between the individual and peers, family, school, and community and in which both parties contribute to the relationship. |
| Character | Respect for societal and cultural rules, possession of standards for correct behaviors, a sense of right and wrong (morality), and integrity. |
| Caring | A sense of sympathy and empathy for others. |

**Development resulting in the 6th “C” – Contribution**

| Contribution | Contributions to self, family, community, and civil society. |

*Note: Derived from Lerner et al. (2005) and Roth & Brooks-Gunn (2003)*
connection, and caring (Lerner, Lerner, Almerigi, & Theokas, 2005) and eventually lead to contributions to self, family, community, and society (Lerner et al., 2010). The above table helps break down and define the Five Cs.

The sixth C is often where the bidirectional portion of the theory comes into play. A “thriving” youth will be more prone to contribute positively not only within the context that has benefited them, but also to self, family, community, or society (Lerner et al., 2011a). Long-term or older members of the 4-H program are often asked to assist with younger children as they begin their projects in the 4-H program. This not only helps them to contribute back to the 4-H program, their leaders, parents, and others that helped them, but they are once again benefited as they further develop leadership and relationship skills.

Using a meta-analytic approach, Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003) identified 48 soundly evaluated programs from five different national reports that had been successful in producing positive outcomes in youth ages 10-18 years old. They then analyzed these programs to identify similarities and differences in program content and structure and concluded that a valid and successful youth development program needs three main elements: (1) program goals, (2) program atmosphere, and (3) program activities. The goals of each program should concentrate more on promoting positive development than preventing problem behaviors and should be based on all 5 Cs. In their study of various youth programs, they found that many focused on character and competence, but few were also able to include the idea of caring. Leaders, staff, and volunteers should create an atmosphere of hope, support, and empowerment that endures for at least a school year. While many groups are able to convey expectations for positive behavior, only about
one-third also empower the youth. The activities should provide real challenges, hands-on participation, and expand the youths’ experiences and knowledge. Nearly all of the programs Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003) looked at were able to build skills, but it was harder for groups to also provide authentic activities while broadening an individual’s horizon.

The 4-H program has created a model to help young people achieve positive youth development (Arnold et al., 2009). The model requires several elements, including (1) resources, including volunteers; (2) youth who can be involved in a variety of methods; (3) using the essential elements that focus on belonging, mastery, independence, and generosity; and (4) the content or project that is used to help an individual develop life skills. The short-term outcomes are the Five Cs of PYD, followed by a long-term outcome of a successful transition from adolescence to adulthood as evidenced by individuals who have developed positive social relationships with friends and family, economically stable and self-sufficient, and impact their community in a positive manner. Using this model, the 4-H program is able to meet all three elements needed to be a valid and successful youth development program as defined by Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003).

Beginning in the 2002-2003 school year, Lerner et al. (2011b) began studying fifth graders. Using a longitudinal sequential design, they added new participants to offset the loss of participants over time. By the end of Wave 7, over 7,000 participants from 44 states had participated. Using outcomes of youth who participated at Grade 11 (n = 1,137), they found that youth who participated in 4-H were 1.6 times more likely to score higher for PYD. The youth were also nearly twice as likely to get better grades,
twice as likely to plan to attend college, 41% less likely to engage in risky behaviors, and 25% more likely to positively contribute to their families and communities. By using the extant data from Lerner et al. (2011b), Mueller et al. (2011) found that other positive outcomes of 4-H PYD included initiative skills, civic engagement, prosocial relations, and identity development.

**Volunteerism**

Volunteers have been an important part of the 4-H program since its inception. The growth and popularity of the program meant that extension agents needed to rely on local farm parents to conduct club meetings (Wessel & Wessel, 1982). Extension agents often lacked the skills needed to work with youth and did not have the additional skills needed for the wide variety of projects, growing more technical and sophisticated as new equipment was invented. Extension agents began to quickly shift their roles from not only teaching within their specialty, but also training other adults and volunteers with different specialties to work with youth.

Much of this is still true today. With only 3,500 professionals trying to impact the lives of over six million 4-H youth, there is a significant need for the help of the over 540,000 volunteers currently in 4-H (National 4-H Council, 2011). Volunteers serve in a variety of roles including public relations, fund-raising, grant writing, club leaders, responsibility for projects, programs, or activities, or serving as policymakers, board members, and advisors (Culp et al., 2005). In 2005, the average age of the 4-H volunteer was 46.3 years old, employed full-time, with a broad range of specialties.
Youth are also encouraged to volunteer. Part of the 4-H pledge says, “We pledge…our hands to larger service, for our club, our community, our country and our world” (National 4-H Council, 2011, History section, para. 3). They are often asked to serve in many of the same capacities that adult volunteers are asked to serve. As they get older, the range of service opportunities increases. The 4-H Study of Positive Youth Development (Lerner et al., 2011b) found that youth involved in 4-H were more active in their communities and made more civic contributions than other youth outside of 4-H.

**Definition of Volunteerism**

Volunteerism is a form of “civic participation which includes long-term, planned, and nonobligatory prosocial activities that benefit another person, cause, or group” (Cemalcilar, 2009, p. 432). Civic engagement is defined as actions that enhance the greater good and the motivation to do so (Zaff et al., 2011). These behaviors may be done through community action, advocacy, or political participation.

Metz and colleagues (2003) sampled 367 suburban middle-class high school students in New England at the beginning and ending of the school year to determine which types of voluntary service would enhance civic development. They then grouped all voluntary community service activities into two main types of service, social-cause service and standard service. Social-cause service involved working directly with the homeless, elderly, or handicapped, trying to resolve issues of perceived injustice, or addressing public issues of drunk driving, drug abuse, or racial intolerance. Standard service included tutoring, coaching, or mentoring others, providing daycare, administrative tasks, or manual labor. Standard service was the most common form of
service for adolescents, though by the end of Grade 12, students were beginning to show more interest in social-cause service. They also found that female participants were most likely to volunteer. Those that had done service had greater intention to do more service in the future, while those who had not done service decreased in their intention to do service over time. This was especially evident for those who had not participated in service by Grade 12. Students who had been involved in social-cause service were more likely to continue to volunteer in the future.

**Youth Volunteers**

Some people consider this generation of emerging adults to be selfish or self-focused. Arnett (2007) maintains that this is a myth and that many emerging adults (those in their late teens to mid-twenties) are actually less egocentric than younger adolescents are. He believes that a major part of becoming an adult is being able to be more considerate of others and seeing things from their point of view. For him, it is true that the trend over the past half century shows that emerging adults report less traditional civic engagement than their parents or grandparents did when they were adolescents (Arnett, 2007). Traditional civic engagement includes things such as reading the newspaper, boycotting, or getting involved in politics. However, today’s youth are becoming involved in volunteer work. This type of civic engagement is showing an increase from half a century ago.

The separation from traditional civic engagement and volunteer work was also found when comparing religious participation and civic participation in adolescents (Zaff et al., 2011). Adolescents with intense religious involvement or more theologically
conservative beliefs also tended to volunteer at a higher rate. However, there was no relationship between religiously active and other forms of civic engagement, including advocacy, boycotting, and most forms of politics. Zaff et al. used data from the 4-H Study of Positive Youth Development (Lerner et al., 2005, 2011b) to look at civic engagement in adolescence. When studying data from youth in grades 8-11, they found that youth development program participation and religious attendance have an effect on civic engagement and its components of civic duty, civic efficacy, neighborhood social connection, and civic participation. However, they found that youth with higher participation rates showed slower growth in all four components. Based on the statistics, they determined that this suggested by Grade 8, many youth involved in these programs are already at a higher level for each of these components.

There is evidence that a person’s willingness to volunteer positively correlates with their motivation for doing it and their sense of satisfaction from it (Arnold et al., 2009). Culp (2009) found that an adolescent’s most common motive for volunteering is the desire to help others. This supports the belief that one of the outcomes of positive youth development is civic engagement (Lerner et al., 2011a). A thriving youth wants to give back to what program or organization that has supported and helped him or her. Young people also want to help others in the same way they were helped.

Youth most frequently learn about volunteer opportunities through school, family members, friends, or organizations in which they are or were involved (Culp, 2009). Three out of four people who have parents who volunteered when they were young, will also do volunteer work (Seider, 2007). When asked to volunteer, youth are 3 times more
likely to become involved than when they had to seek out their own opportunities (Culp, 2009).

Zaff et al. (2011) found that by 11th grade, youth believe they have a duty to affect change in their community and that they are capable of helping make that change. At the same time, they also found that although adolescents believe they can and should make a difference, they often do not do anything. The involvement in youth development programs also correlated with civic engagement, but the researchers were unable to determine whether quality, breadth, or intensity of the programs played a larger role.

Cemalcilar (2009) compared individuals who were first-time volunteers to non-volunteers with similar backgrounds to try to determine various dynamics of those who choose to volunteer. Pre-project questionnaires were collected from 505 adolescents from low- to middle-income public schools. These adolescents were then given the opportunity to work together with university student mentors on various social responsibility activities in their communities. Those that did ($n = 388$) were then given a post-project questionnaire 6 months later. The two questionnaires were compared and the results, similar to demographic studies, indicated that volunteers were most commonly female and younger. Individuals who volunteered had a higher sense of community belonging, social responsibility, and self-esteem. Volunteers also perceived themselves to be more intelligent, possibly an effect of having more time to participate in extracurricular activities or the confidence that they can make a difference.
Benefits of Volunteerism

Researchers who examined results from 367 suburban middle-class high school students also found that doing service in high school is a strong predictor of whether college students intended do volunteer work as adults (Metz et al., 2003). The act of doing service often increased their desire and motivation to continue volunteering in the future. The type of service done also had some benefits. Social-cause service often provides adolescents with a challenge as they have contact with unfamiliar people and work on a compelling social problem. As a result, many are able to identify as effective pieces of a larger movement, making them want to take a more active role in the future and with larger social issues. Standard service provides adolescents more practical experience in working with others, often resulting in empathy for others or enhanced self-esteem for themselves.

Adolescents who volunteer are not only contributing to society, but can also positively stimulate their own development (van Goethem et al., 2011). Volunteerism can have many positive effects on a person including building social relationships, acquiring new knowledge and skills, development of prosocial attitudes, empathy for others, changes in self-perception, and improvement academically (Cemalcilar, 2009).

Volunteering, during adolescence, may also facilitate the psychosocial development of identity and cognitive autonomy. To understand this development, one must first understand the period in which this development takes place.
Adolescence and Emerging Adulthood

Adolescence

Although the majority of theorists no longer adhere to Hall’s notion that adolescents are beast-like, most still believe that adolescence is a period of major change and transition. Erikson (1959) believed adolescents are attempting to figure out who they are and their place in the larger social order. Adolescents are going through a variety of physical, mental, and social changes. These changes influence how others treat them, the amount of responsibility they take on, and the number of freedoms they are given. They begin to see themselves as adults and expect to be given more freedoms and responsibility.

While figuring out who we are is a life-long process, it reaches a crisis point during this stage. Adolescents begin to realize that many of the choices they make will determine their future choices. Erikson (1959) claimed that during this identity crisis, adolescents are expected to: (1) evaluate their abilities, interests, and childhood influences, (2) explore possible opportunities and futures, and (3) make lifelong choices in love, work, and ideology. Some become overwhelmed with what is expected of them and experience the period of “storm and stress” previously mentioned.

Emerging Adulthood

While the transition from childhood to adolescence is more apparent as a result of the biological changes that occur during puberty, the transition from adolescence to adulthood is a little more difficult to observe (Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Metzger, 2006). Research on brain development shows that a lot of brain maturation takes place
during adolescence, including considerable development in the prefrontal cortex and the formation of more neural connections, making it difficult for adolescents to consistently make mature decisions (Cauffman & Steinberg, 2000). As a result, we must rely on other aspects and transitions to determine when an adolescent becomes an adult. Many people focus on the completion of identity exploration during this period that mainly occurs in three areas: love, work, and worldviews (Arnett, 2000). The result is usually a completion of education, entrance into the work force, and the formation of family (Smetana et al., 2006).

During the transition from adolescence to adulthood, emerging adults begin to live independently, determine and maintain their own level of academic and moral standards, experiment with a new social life, and handle finances (Brougham, Zail, Mendoza, & Miller, 2009). However, researchers have found that only about 25% of 18- to 25-year-olds consider themselves to be adults (Nelson & Barry, 2005). Arnett (2000) classified this transitional period for most 18- to 25-year-old young people as emerging adulthood. During this period, young people often go through periods of identity exploration, instability, egocentrism, feeling in-between, and exploring and evaluating possibilities in lifestyle, work, education, and family (Arnett, 2000).

By age 18 or 19, most young Americans leave home and begin living a life of semi-autonomy (Arnett, 2000). During this period, they accept some responsibilities of independent living, but also still depend on their parents, college authorities, and other adults to make some of their decisions. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2011), 68.1% of 2010 high school graduates enrolled in colleges or universities. Of those not attending college, 76.6% were employed or looking for work. For most,
marriage and parenthood are delayed until the mid- to late-twenties as young people are instead going through a period of change and exploration (Arnett, 2000). The identity crisis proposed by Erikson may begin during adolescence, but the majority of exploration and decision-making in today’s youth takes place during late adolescence or emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2007).

By their late twenties, most people have made decisions that have enduring ramifications in their life (Arnett, 2000). They have received positive and negative feedback from the choices they have made and established a foundation for future life goals (Brougham et al., 2009). At this point, most individuals in their late twenties will say that they have moved from adolescence into adulthood.

Many theorists try to explain the cognitive, physical, sexual, emotional, and social developments of adolescence and emerging adulthood. No single theory can describe the development entirely, but each contributes a piece of the puzzle. While several various theories will also be mentioned, the emphasis will be placed on Positive Youth Development Theory, Identity, and Cognitive Autonomy.

**Psychosocial Development**

The most critical developmental changes that need to take place during adolescence include growth of the prefrontal cortex, identity formulation, autonomy, and intimacy (Bowers et al., 2010). The process of identity formation and cognitive autonomy development are closely related. Autonomy requires an individual to develop a sense of self, form a personal identity, and achieve a level of emancipation (Baumrind, 1987; Helwig, 2006). Emancipation was further defined as realizing that parental
authority is not absolute and unquestionable. As a result the adolescent begins to form his or her own identity and independence. The overall goal is to reach a point of independence and self-actualization, while still maintaining positive relationships with family (Spear & Kulbok, 2004). Self-actualization was defined by Maslow (1970) as the “full use and exploitation of talents, capacities and potentialities” (p. 150). In his hierarchy, this stage was where one worked to develop their full potential and gained an idea of their meaning in life. The purpose of this section is to define these two constructs and speculate as how volunteerism relates to their development.

Identity

Erikson (1959) defined eight social stages that humans experience throughout the lifespan. Each stage presents a new crisis or turning point that a person must go through and each stage builds on the success of previous stages. Those stages not successfully resolved may cause problems or reappear during later stages. The fifth stage, Identity vs. Role Confusion, occurs during adolescence. During this crisis, adolescents undergo a period when they are trying to figure out who they are and how they fit into society.

An adolescent’s ego identity is often a unique combination of various identities (Erikson, 1959). Today, adolescents are overwhelmed with decisions and options available to them while forming their identity – some positive, others negative. The quality of opportunities an adolescent receives from their families, friends, schools, and communities plays an essential part in this development (Erikson, 1968). In this stage, the adolescent places a great deal of importance on what others think and where he or she
fits in society. Erikson (1959) found that adolescents try to identify with groups and begin to exclude other people.

According to Marcia (1980), there are two parts of ego identity formation: (1) an exploration of beliefs, values, and goals, and (2) a commitment to a set of these beliefs, values, and goals. The combination of these parts results in one of four outcomes or statuses. Identity diffusion occurs when adolescents have not explored any meaningful alternatives or made any commitments. They remain undecided about many of life’s major decisions. Identity foreclosure is when an individual commits without exploring many of their options. Identity moratorium is when they have not made a commitment yet, but they are actively exploring meaningful alternatives. Identity achievement results from exploration of meaningful alternatives and subsequent commitment. Individuals with this status tend to demonstrate more autonomy than individuals with the other three statuses (Kroger, 2003).

The exploration of alternatives was first defined by Erikson to occur in three areas including work (e.g., school, short-term jobs, travel, and volunteer work), love (e.g., dating), and worldviews (e.g., religious views; Nelson & Barry, 2005). In an attempt to clarify an individual’s ego identity status, researchers have extended these areas to include recreation, dating, philosophical lifestyle, friendship, occupation, sex roles, religion, and politics (Kroger, 2003). Reaching a level of achievement in each of these areas helps the individual begin to solidify more of their identity and get one step closer to reaching adulthood.

Many adolescents do not begin to reach identity achievement status until the mid-twenties (Arnett, 2007; Marcia, 1980). In the United States, adolescence or emerging
adulthood is often considered a period of moratorium as young people are exploring various options before committing to one (Arnett, 2000).

Identity and Volunteering

Erikson (1968) claimed that during late adolescence, “youth seek to identify with values and ideologies that transcend the immediate concerns of family and self and have historical continuity” (p. 32). Volunteering gives individuals the opportunity to experience different worldviews and ideologies (Seider, 2007). These volunteer experiences often change their commitments, beliefs, and goals. These help form part of the volunteer’s new identity (Crocetti, Jahromi, & Meeus, 2012).

The ability to view things from another’s perspective and connect to the broader culture is an important aspect of identity formation (Duke, Skay, Pettingell, & Borowsky, 2009). Seider (2007) found that those who were able to connect with people or view the world from their perspective while volunteering would most likely continue to volunteer. He interviewed 20 college students who performed 10 to 20 hours of community service each week. Through the interview, all 20 participants were able to pinpoint an experience they believe had altered their “ideology” or “worldview.” Seider (2007) also looked at how this change in worldview influenced participants’ commitment to community service. Those who replaced their worldview had more motivation to perform community service. A change or modification of their worldview often resulted in a change in how they would do community service. Finally, those who were able to clarify or focus their worldview, often became more committed to doing community service.
By studying 91 undergraduate and graduate students from a mid-western university, Hardy and Kisling (2006) found that identity achievement positively correlates with prosocial behaviors in university students. They used a regression analysis that indicated that identity achievement was a positive predictor for community service, $R^2 = .20$, $F(7,82) = 2.94$, $p < .01$, prosocial activities, $R^2 = .18$, $F(7,82) = 2.65$, $p < .05$, and prosocial tendencies, $R^2 = .23$, $F(7,82) = 3.43$, $p < .01$. In other words, individuals with an achieved status were more likely to perform community service, be involved in prosocial activities, and have prosocial tendencies. They also found that individuals who scored higher for identity diffusion also reported less prosocial behavior.

While studying 392 Italian adolescents between the ages of 14 and 20, researchers had similar results and found that the relationship is usually through the idea of social responsibility or that it is important to care for one’s community (Crocetti et al., 2012). Crocetti et al. determined that those with an achieved identity may feel a greater connection with the community and a responsibility to help others in the community. They stated that another possible explanation for this is that those who are achieved also usually have a higher level of moral reasoning.

Another important factor to identity development is the extent to which adolescents feel like members of their community. Duke et al. (2009) looked at data from in-home interviews from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. This included data from 9,130 emerging adults between the ages of 18-26 years. They found that strong connections to family, peers, school, neighborhood, and other adults make it more likely that adolescents will volunteer (Duke et al., 2009). These connections give the adolescent an opportunity to feel accepted, loved, valued, and safe.
in their social domain. These feelings of acceptance and safety provide an environment which then helps facilitate the development of the five Cs - competence, confidence, character, connection, and caring. Competence and character also helps individuals connect better with others and become confident in their ability to be a contributing member of society (Duke et al., 2009).

**Cognitive Autonomy**

Erikson (1968) considered autonomy as a precursor to identity achievement. In his second stage, Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt, the child (1-3 years of age) begins to explore the environment and to become more independent. Since Erikson’s conceptualization of childhood autonomy, researchers have determined that autonomy is complex and dynamic with various levels of completion, many of which occur during adolescence (Beckert, 2007; Spear & Kulbok, 2004). Identity formation is often a necessary part of helping an individual achieve the advanced levels of autonomy, continuing until one is truly independent or self-governed (Spear & Kulbok, 2004).

Erikson (1968) believed that until adolescence, development depended mainly on what was done to us. After this point, development mainly depends on what we do. During the transition to adulthood, a young person will hopefully be able to learn who they are, handle change and stress in a positive manner, and achieve a higher level of autonomy. Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) describe this transition as a type of disengagement that takes place between the parents and the adolescent. This definition does not necessarily require a separation from others, but instead is more of an agency or capacity for the adolescent to make their own decisions and control various aspects of
their life (Helwig, 2006). The healthiest path to developing autonomy is a gradual “negotiation” of independence while still maintaining family connections (Larson, Pearce, Sullivan, & Jarrett, 2007).

Autonomy can be broken down into three main constructs including: emotional (to regulate feelings and emotional responses), behavioral (to act or behave), and cognitive (to think and decide; Beckert, 2012; Spear & Kulbok, 2004). Most research to date has focused on emotional and behavioral constructs (Beckert, 2012). However, developing an adolescent’s ability to think independently is fundamental, as he or she will need to be prepared to make important decisions in adulthood (Jacobs & Klaczynski, 2002). All three are important, but because this study is focused on both identity and autonomy, only cognitive autonomy will be examined.

Piaget (1954) conceptualized four stages of cognitive development describing how people think about and understand their environment. The Sensorimotor stage occurs during infancy and involves coordinating physical actions with sensations. Preoperational thought manifests when children begin to use symbols and internal images while maintaining unsystematic thought that is illogical and simple. Concrete operational thought occurs when the child can begin to think and reason but only with concrete examples. Formal operational thought entails beginning to think abstractly and create hypotheses. Individuals pass through the stages at different rates, so there is no way to assign an age to each stage. When an individual moves to the next stage, he or she is often influenced by their environment or through experiences they have had.

At some point during adolescence, transition from concrete thought to formal operational thought usually occurs (Piaget, 1954). The majority of early adolescents will
have a well-developed ability for concrete operational thought (Tanti, Stukas, Halloran, & Foddy, 2011). Their view of the world will be more fixed and narrow as they are only able to consider those things that are concrete or observable. They still rely on the opinion of others or learned stereotypes when making their decisions or identifying with people.

Late adolescents and adults are more likely to be able to use abstract thinking and hypothetical reasoning to develop the capacity to think in a more complex, flexible manner (Tanti et al., 2011). This transition results in the development of a large range and variety of capabilities including: planning, self-governance, goal-directed behavior, values, selective inhibition, inductive reasoning based on evidence, epistemic understanding, navigating emotions and motivations, and reconciling competing demands and goals (Larson, 2011). These capabilities change not only what an adolescent learns, but also how the adolescent learns. Formal operational thinkers are able to actively and consciously reflect on experiences, create conclusions, and then establish methods for coping with other types of situations. They no longer rely on others’ opinions or learned stereotypes when making decisions, but are able to reason and reflect to create new decisions or ideas (Tanti et al., 2011).

Autonomy development is often influenced by how the individual feels others perceive them (Spear & Kulbok, 2004). If the individual perceives he or she is supported, autonomy is enhanced. Environments that do not allow an adolescent to gain independence and control over their own lives may hinder development, which may in turn lead to faulty decision-making. Adolescents in these environments may turn to peers for these feelings of support. Sessa and Steinberg (1991) defined cognitive autonomy as
“a sense of self-reliance, a belief one has control over his or her life, and subjective feelings of being able to make decisions without excessive social validation” (p. 42).

Cognitive autonomy is achieved when an individual is able to: (1) make decisions or generate alternatives, (2) voice opinion, (3) capitalize on comparative validations, (4) evaluate thought and make logical deductions, and (5) self-assess or self-reflect (Beckert, 2007).

**Autonomy and Volunteering**

Researchers show that the healthiest way for an adolescent to achieve autonomy is through a gradual increase of independence and responsibility while still maintaining ties with their parents (Larson et al., 2007). Youth can begin to make decisions, voice opinions, evaluate what they want or think compared to their friends and parents, and then take responsibility for their actions and thoughts. Youth programs can help parents provide opportunities for adolescents to develop initiative, responsibility, self-control, self-reliance, social confidence, and other life skills.

Volunteer leaders in 4-H are often encouraged to have adolescents take on many of the leadership roles, requiring more autonomy as they progress. This may include serving in elected positions, planning service projects and activities, and eventually volunteering as leaders for younger groups. These experiences help adolescents move from concrete thought by exercising many of the competencies necessary for formal operational thought (Larson, 2011). These competencies include planning, self-governance, goal-directed behavior, selective inhibitions, inductive reasoning based on experiences and evidence, and others. The 4-H program uses a pattern of “Do, Reflect,
Apply” where the members complete a task, think and discuss what happened and why, and then apply it to their life or other possible situations (National 4-H Council, 2011).

Volunteering involves an integration of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral constructs (Zaff et al., 2011). Adolescents are not only given more opportunities to think, evaluate, and make decisions, but they are often given more information to be able to use in making those decisions. Their motive for volunteering also often requires them to consider the needs of others instead of just their own desires (van Goethem et al., 2011).

**Literature Review Summary**

Current theories surrounding development in adolescence focus on the viewpoint that adolescents are resources that can and should be developed (Lerner et al., 2011a; Mueller et al., 2011; Offer, 1969). The 4-H program not only focuses on this philosophy of positive youth development, but also incorporates the idea of helping youth become contributing members of society. The bidirectional effect of this can result in young people who volunteer and will develop more through identity formation and cognitive autonomy growth.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the role and effectiveness of Utah 4-H in developing youth psychosocially and as contributing members of society. A study of how 4-H involvement during high school relates to volunteerism and if volunteerism is related to their identity and autonomy development was also completed. Based on this purpose and the lack of sufficient information in the literature, the following research questions will guide this study.
1. In which demographic characteristics do volunteer and non-volunteer 4-H participants differ?

2. Does identity status differ according to volunteer status?

3. Does cognitive autonomy differ according to volunteer status?
CHAPTER III

METHODS

This study had two goals. The first was to highlight some of the demographic characteristics of 4-H participants who volunteer during middle to late adolescence. This will help 4-H staff discover common characteristics of current volunteers. For counties that are experiencing a shortage of volunteers, this information demonstrates where other counties have been successful in recruiting and maintaining volunteers. It will also demonstrate to all county staff where there is potential for future recruitment. The second was to examine two aspects of adolescent development – identity and cognitive autonomy and the relationship volunteerism has to each. This chapter provides a description of the research design, sampling method, measurements, and data analysis.

Research Design

Given the exploratory scope of the first research question, a cross-sectional descriptive design was appropriate. Data gathered for this study were based on 4-H participation, volunteer habits, and perceptions of their own identity and cognitive autonomy.

Sample

This study used two samples of convenience. For Sample 1, participants in high school were recruited from current 4-H members with valid email addresses. Letters were mailed to 1,894 individuals to notify parents about the survey. They were asked to
respond within a 2-week period if they did not want their child participating in the survey. Emails were then sent out to the youth participants. Emails were sent with 23 coming back as invalid email addresses.

Out of the possible 1,871 4-H members who were sent emails, 111 responded for a response rate of 5.86%. For Sample 2, post-high school participants were recruited through email addresses that had been collected from 4-H members and volunteers over the years. These email addresses were used to solicit participation in the questionnaire. All 2,018 individuals in the high school database and late adolescents between the ages of 18-25 in the second database were contacted for participation. A total of 26 email addresses came back as invalid. Out of the 1,992 who possibly received an email, 86 responded for a response rate of 4.32%.

For both sample groups, there were 197 participants in this study. The participants were predominantly white (93.91%). Eighty-six (43.65%) of those who completed the survey were college students ranging from 18-25 years of age, while 111 (56.35%) participants were high school students ranging from 14-18 years of age. Eighty-two (41.62%) of the participants did not currently volunteer for 4-H, while 115 (58.38%) were active volunteers. A $t$ test was used to determine whether volunteerism was significantly different for high school and college participants participating in this study. Because a statistically significant difference was not found $t(195) = .06, p = 0.91$, all subsequent analyses were computed by combining both high school and college groups. Other demographic characteristics included the following: 55 (27.92%) were male, 142 (72.08%) were female. Sixty-eight (34.52%) were from towns of fewer than 5,000 residents, 93 (47.21%) from towns or cities with 5,000 to 50,000 residents, and 36
(18.27%) from cities of more than 50,000 residents. Grades were mostly above average with 144 (73.10%) participants and 53 (26.90%) participants reported average or below average grades.

Demographic information related to 4-H was also gathered with years in 4-H ranging from 0 - 10 + years. Four participants were current volunteers with 4-H, but did not participate in 4-H as a youth. Participants were also asked to determine their level of involvement with 4-H as a youth with 12 (6.09%) not at all, 16 (8.12%) rarely, 24 (12.18%) large events only, 94 (47.72%) somewhat, and 51 (25.89%) considered 4-H a large part of their life. Their highest level of activity was determined by asking in which events they participated. The data were then coded such that participants were placed in the group that included their highest level of activity. Of these, 18 (9.14%) participated in only club or local activities, 31 (15.74%) in county events, 120 (60.91%) in state activities, and 28 (14.21%) in national events.

General demographics were noted for those individuals who received letters. This information should be similar to alumni that were contacted. The sample pool of high school students consisted of 1,155 (60.98%) females and 739 (39.02%) males. A higher percentage of females completed the survey, which is consistent with studies that have found that females are more likely to volunteer. The sample pool based on grade was very similar to those who responded with 1,130 (59.66%) in 9th grade, 697 (27.09%) in 10th grade, 373 (19.69%) in 11th grade, and 333 (17.58%) in 12th grade. Ethnicity was also similar with 1,799 (94.98%) being white. The response rate was also consistent with the sample pool for residency with 735 (38.81%) living in rural communities, 773 (40.81%) living in communities with between 5,000 and 50,000 people, and 386
(20.38%) coming from areas with more than 50,000 people. The sample showed a larger percentage of individuals only having been involved in 4-H for 1 year (24.23%) or 2 (18.43%) years.

**Procedures**

Approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Utah State University. In accordance with IRB protocol, anonymity was maintained by ensuring that no names were requested as part of the survey and the only qualifying information obtained was age, gender, and school grades. These procedures eliminated the possibility that researchers would be able to connect names to data.

For high school participants, letters were sent to parents explaining the study. The letter of declination informed parents that youth participation was voluntary and their child could withdraw at any time without consequence to them. Any parent who did not wish their child to participate was asked to send their declination with return post or via contact information provided. Only one parent called to ask for their child to be withdrawn from the survey; she was apologetic, but explained that her child had down-syndrome and would be unable to complete the survey. After 1 week, current Utah 4-H members were contacted via email about study participation. The email request contained information about the study and a link for the questionnaire. When participants clicked on the link, a letter of explanation about the study and the participant’s role was provided. The information explained the purpose of the study, contained contact information for the research team, and explained safeguards for participation (anonymity, confidentiality, and termination without penalty). The student then participated by
clicking the “begin survey” link at the bottom of the screen. Questionnaires were completed electronically without any link to identifying information. A follow-up thank you/reminder was sent 2 weeks following the initial contact.

For the college participants, a cover letter and a link to the questionnaire was emailed to alumni 4-H members. The cover letter described the study and asked volunteers to go online and complete the questionnaire. A follow-up thank you/reminder was sent 2 weeks following the initial contact. An email was also sent to county staff explaining the survey in case those receiving emails contacted them instead of the research team. Some county staff receiving the email also forwarded it on to alumni 4-H members or current volunteers for whom they had updated email addresses.

As an incentive to complete the questionnaire, all participants were entered into a drawing for their choice between a $75 gift card to anywhere of their choice, $100 towards their registration for a future county or state 4-H event, or a Kindle touch. This information was entered in a separate form that appeared after the questionnaire was completed. It was kept separate from the questionnaire so that information collected in the questionnaire remained confidential. Questionnaire data were then entered into an SPSS data file for analysis. The data used for this thesis were analyzed in aggregate.

**Instruments**

The instrument used in this study was a self-report questionnaire, which included three separate measures: questions designed specifically to study 4-H involvement and volunteerism, the Modified Extended Version of the Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS), and the Cognitive Autonomy and Self-Evaluation (CASE) inventory.
Also included were seven demographic questions. Example questions are provided in this section to demonstrate some degree of content validity for both the EOMEIS and CASE inventory. The surveys can be found in Appendix B (High School Version) and Appendix C (College Student Version).

4-H Involvement and Volunteerism

The 4-H involvement and volunteerism portion of the survey included 21 questions across three sections of inquiry regarding (1) their type and level of involvement in 4-H as members, (2) their type and level of involvement in 4-H as volunteers, and (3) their perceptions of their 4-H involvement and volunteering. The first section included three questions asking about their length of involvement, the events they were involved in, and their perception of how involved they were. The events they were involved in were then divided into a club, county, state, or national level. Responses to the questions in section one and the questions involving demographic characteristics were considered independent variables as they related to all other sections.

The second section included 12 questions and focused on their level of involvement, reasons for volunteering, type and length of volunteer activity, and group size and classification. These questions helped show how adolescents are currently volunteering, and how and what type of involvement in 4-H may lead to future volunteerism. These questions served both as dependent (comparison to section one and three) and independent variables (comparison to section three and psychosocial development).
The final section used six questions to evaluate the individual’s perception about 4-H and volunteering. All six questions were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). These questions also served as both dependent (how volunteering related to their perception) and independent variables (how their perception related to volunteering). Data gathered from these questions could then be used to show how perception of volunteering and 4-H related to the level of volunteering, and how the level and type of involvement in 4-H and volunteering related to the perception of 4-H and volunteering.

Identity Status

Many measurements have been created to attempt to assess the formation of identity since Erikson first proposed his theory on psychosocial development. Marcia (1966) was the first to create one which focused on ego-identity status formation with the Identity Status Interview (ISI). This measure assessed development in the content areas of occupation, religion, and politics (Jones, Akers, & White, 1994). A combination of measures by Adams, Shea, and Fitch (1979) and Grotevant, Thorbecke, and Meyer (1982) led to the development of the Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS) in 1984 (Grotevant & Adams, 1984). The EOMEIS is a 64-item scale that added five content areas (friendship, dating, sex roles, education, and philosophical lifestyle) to the three original ones and statements for each of the four identity statuses (achieved, moratorium, foreclosed, and diffused).

The Modified Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status scale (The Modified EOMEIS) is a 40-item scale developed by Akers, Jones, and Coyl (1998).
While still measuring Marcia’s identity statuses, it only focuses on the five content areas of education, dating, philosophical lifestyle, friendship, and occupation. Response values are based on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) through 6 (strongly disagree).

Each item was designed to measure a specific identity status: achieved (i.e., “After a lot of self-examination, I have established a very definite view on what my own lifestyle will be.”), moratorium (i.e., “In finding an acceptable viewpoint to life itself, I often exchange ideas with friends and family.”), foreclosed (i.e., “My parent’s view on life are good enough for me, I don’t need anything else.”), and diffused (i.e., “I guess I just kind of enjoy life in general, I don’t spend much time thinking about it.”)

Participants receive a subscale score in each of the four identity statuses. The highest frequency of identity status from the five dimensions will result in an overall identity status classification. In the original study of 1,159 adolescents, the Cronbach alpha internal reliability coefficient for scores for each identity status was 0.74 for achievement, 0.71 for moratorium, 0.79 for foreclosure, and 0.78 for diffusion (Akers et al., 1998). The Cronbach’s alpha for the current study resemble those from the original study and are presented in the next chapter. Evidence of criterion validity was established originally by Akers et al. (1998).

**Cognitive Autonomy**

Several instruments have also been developed to measure adolescent autonomy. Many of these have focused on emotional and behavioral autonomy. The Cognitive
Autonomy Self Evaluation (CASE) focuses specifically on measuring cognitive autonomy or the ability to think for oneself (Beckert, 2012).

The CASE inventory is a 27-item scale developed to evaluate five areas of independent thought including: evaluative thinking (8 items), voicing opinions (5 items), decision-making (6 items), self-assessing (3 items), and comparative validation (5 items). Response values are based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Sample questions in each area include: “I think about the consequences of my decisions” (evaluative thinking), “When I disagree with others I share my views” (voicing opinions), “I am good at evaluating my feelings” (decision-making), “I am the best judge of my talents” (self-assessing), and “It is important to me that my friends approve my decisions” (comparative validation). Higher scores in each subscale indicate greater levels of cognitive autonomy (Beckert, 2007). In the original study of adolescents, the Cronbach alpha internal reliability coefficient for scores for each area of independent thought was 0.87 for evaluating thinking, 0.80 for voicing opinions, 0.77 for making decisions, 0.73 for self-assessing, and 0.64 for comparative validation (Beckert, 2007). The Cronbach’s alpha for the current study are presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

Descriptive and inferential statistics including frequency distributions, \( t \) tests, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and chi-square were computed to identify various characteristics of 4-H volunteers, and to determine if volunteerism related to an adolescent’s identity status and cognitive autonomy. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of the responses for the two measures of adolescent development. For each of the three research questions, the results of the survey and analyses are presented below.

Reliability of Measures

Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of the responses for the identity and autonomy measures. The Modified Extended Objected Measures of Ego Identity Status (Modified EOMEIS) contains 40 items divided into four subscales that measure the identity statuses as defined by Marcia. The respondent scores yielded acceptable levels of reliability for each of the subscales according to Henson’s (2001) criteria. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were as follows: foreclosure (\( \alpha = .76 \)), diffusion (\( \alpha = .69 \)), achievement (\( \alpha = .69 \)) and moratorium (\( \alpha = .75 \)). Compared to previous studies using this measure, these reliability scores are adequate for the purposes of this study.

The Cognitive Autonomy Self-Evaluation (CASE) contains 27 items divided into five subscales. For this study, the scores were analyzed for each subscale of the CASE
instrument. All but one of the subscales showed acceptable levels of reliability. The Cronbach’s alpha for each of the scales were as follows: voicing opinions ($\alpha = .75$), evaluative thinking ($\alpha = .85$), comparative validation ($\alpha = .69$), decision-making ($\alpha = .55$) and self-assessing ($\alpha = .78$).

**Research Question One**

The first research question, “In which demographic characteristics do volunteer and non-volunteer 4-H participants differ?” was analyzed using information gathered from the demographic questions and questions from sections one and two of the 4-H involvement and volunteer instrument. While a complete table of frequencies and percentages of the participants’ demographic characteristics can be found in Table A1, located in Appendix A, many of the key findings are mentioned below and can also be found in Tables 2-5.

The majority of participants in this study were White ($n = 185, 93.91\%$), female ($n = 142, 72.08\%$) adolescents with above average grades ($n = 144, 73.1\%$). Neither gender nor grades were found to be a significant factor relating to volunteerism. Completed surveys were collected from 111 high school students and 86 college age students. The percentage of active 4-H volunteers was similar for both high school ($n = 65, 58.56\%$) and college ($n = 50, 58.14\%$) age participants. A large percentage of participants volunteered outside of 4-H ($n = 174, 88.32\%$). There was a significant correlation ($r = .17, p = .014$) between those that volunteer for 4-H and those that volunteer outside of 4-H.
Demographic information related to 4-H was also gathered including years in 4-H ranging from 0 - 10+ years of 4-H. The reliability of the data for college age participants was suspect as some participants mistakenly included post high-school years in their calculation of 4-H membership. In addition, some participants of the survey were current volunteers with 4-H, but did not participate in 4-H as a youth. As a result, an analysis was done focusing on just those in high school. The number of years a participant was involved in 4-H significantly related to their volunteerism for those in high school $F(3, 107) = 4.60, p = 0.01$. This difference was most pronounced after the member had been involved for five years.

**Age**

To examine the relationship between volunteering and age, frequency distributions were computed. Using naturally resulting clusters, the participants were grouped into five age categories. The resulting age categories were 14 – 15 ($N = 56$), 16 – 17 ($N = 45$), 18–19 ($N = 43$), 20–22 ($N = 33$), and 23–25 ($N = 20$). A one-way

Table 2

*One-Way ANOVA for Age of Participants and If Participants Currently Volunteer*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 – 15</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 17</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 – 19</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 22</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 – 25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$F(4, 192) = 4.02, p = 0.004$
analysis of the variance (ANOVA) was computed with the five age groups as independent variables and current volunteer status (Yes/No) as the dependent variable. Table 2 displays the mean scores, standard deviations, and ANOVA results for each age.

Based on post-hoc comparisons, participants aged 16-17 were significantly different from the other age groups. The greatest differences occurred for 16-17 and the age groups directly older and younger than them. The mean score and standard deviation for the 16-17 year old participants ($M = .73, SD = .45$) indicated that they were significantly more likely to volunteer than 14 – 15 year olds ($M = .45, SD = .50$) and 18 – 19 year olds ($M = .43, SD = .51$). However, they were slightly less likely to volunteer than those in the 23 - 25 year old group ($M = .80, SD = .41$).

Figure 1 helps to demonstrate the overall trend of volunteerism. There is a decrease of volunteers in the 18- to 19-year-old group, followed by an increase of volunteerism over the next few years. As expected, similar results were found when current year in school was analyzed with the decline occurring between the participants in 12th grade and those in their first year of college.

*Figure 1.* Age of participants and if 4-H participants currently volunteer.
Home Residence

Information was also gathered about where the participant considers their home residence. For high school students it would likely be where they are currently living, but for college students it would most likely be where they grew up and participated in 4-H. Sixty-eight participants (34.52%) were from towns of less than 5,000 residents, 93 (47.21%) from towns or cities with 5,000 to 50,000 residents, and 36 (18.27%) from cities of more than 50,000 residents. A chi-square was computed to determine the degree to which this related to the rate of volunteerism. Current volunteer status (Yes/No) was again used as the dependent variable, while type of residency was used as the independent categorical variable. As indicated in Table 3, 4-H participants from rural communities were considerably more likely to volunteer during adolescence ($\chi^2 = 7.01, p = .03$). For those from rural communities, 49 (71.01%) were current volunteers, while 20 (28.99%) were not volunteers. However, for participants from towns and cities larger than 5,000 residents, the number of volunteers ($n = 19$) was just slightly more than those that did not volunteer ($n = 17$).

Table 3

Chi-Square for Home Residence and if 4-H Participants Volunteer or Not

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home residence</th>
<th>Current volunteer</th>
<th>Not a volunteer</th>
<th>Row sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>$n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural community</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>24.87</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 5,000 and 50,000</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23.86</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 50,000</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column sum</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>58.38</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square test $\chi^2 = 7.01$

$p = .03$
Level of Involvement

Participants were also asked to indicate their level of involvement with 4-H as a youth. This variable was also collapsed using a frequency distribution to facilitate analysis. The resulting groups included participants that had little or no participation in 4-H (n = 52), somewhat participated (n = 94), and those that felt like 4-H is or had been a large part of their life (n = 51). Table 4 shows the mean scores and standard deviations for the reported levels of participation. The results showed significantly (p < .001) that the more involved a participant was in 4-H, the more likely they were to be current volunteers. This was especially true for those that considered 4-H a large part of their life.

Highest Level of Activity

The participants were asked to indicate which 4-H events they had participated in while 4-H members. For analytic purposes, they were then placed in the group that included their highest level of reported activity. For the most part, this would indicate that they had also participated on some of the lower level activities. Of these, 18 (9.14%) Table 4

One-Way ANOVA for Level of Involvement as a 4-H Member and if 4-H Participants Currently Volunteer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of involvement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Little to none</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-H is/was my life</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F(2, 194) = 6.90, p = .001
participated in only club or local activities, 31 (15.74%) in county, 120 (60.91%) in state, and 28 (14.21%) in national. As indicated in Table 5, the higher the level of activity, the more likely they were to be current volunteers $F(3, 193) = 3.27, p = .02$. There is, however, a decrease for those that participate in the state level ($M = .53, SD = .50$).

Those adolescents who participated on either the county level ($M = .74, SD = .45$) or the national level ($M = .75, SD = .44$) were the most likely to volunteer.

**Research Question Two**

The information gathered from responses to the Modified EOMEIS instrument was used to answer the second research question, “Does identity differ according to volunteer status?” Average scores were computed for each adolescent in each of the four identity domains. This average score was then transformed into a $Z$ score for each adolescent by using the grand mean and standard deviation. Those $Z$ scores that were .05 standard deviations above the mean were marked as a 1 or “in the status,” all other were marked as a 0. These new codes were then used to determine the final identity status.

| Table 5 |

**One-Way ANOVA for Highest Level of Activity as a 4-H Member and if 4-H Participants Currently Volunteer**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of activity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Club / local</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.495</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$F(3, 193) = 3.27, p = .02$
classification. Individuals with all 0’s were considered “low profile” and included with other diffused individuals. Individuals with a 1 in only one status were placed in that classification. Individuals who had 1 in more than one status were assigned as unclassified. A chi-square was computed to analyze the relationship between volunteerism and participant identity. How the participants perceived their own identity was computed as a categorical independent variable and current volunteer status was used as the dependent variable. As demonstrated in Table 6, the relationship was not significant ($\chi^2 = 4.86, p = .30$). It is noted that the largest percentage of participants were placed into the unclassified group for both non-volunteers ($n = 42, 21.32\%$) and volunteers ($n = 45, 22.84\%$).

As this chi-square left several individuals in the unclassified identity status, another analysis was completed. For this one, the highest Z score of the status was the

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not a volunteer</th>
<th>Current volunteer</th>
<th>Row sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achieved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$%$</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moratorium</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$%$</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>5.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreclosure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$%$</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>6.09</td>
<td>8.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diffused</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$%$</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>18.78</td>
<td>28.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$%$</td>
<td>21.32</td>
<td>22.84</td>
<td>44.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column sum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$%$</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square test $\chi^2 = 4.86$

$p = .30$
status of that dimension. This made it so the adolescent would be assigned to an overall identity status based on their disposition of certain identity statuses. By doing this, the number of individuals in each category increased by at least doubled, except for diffused which decreased slightly. For achieved, there were 20 non-volunteer and 39 current volunteers; foreclosed included 21 non-volunteer and 27 current volunteers; moratorium included 22 non-volunteer and 26 current volunteers; and diffused included 19 non-volunteer and 23 current volunteers.

Further analysis included a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the degree to which volunteering related to a participant’s identity. Overall, there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups for the subscales of achieved, moratorium, foreclosure, and diffusion. Table 7 shows that the mean scores for the achieved subscales were slightly higher for those participants that volunteered ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 0.72$) when compared to those participants that do not volunteer ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.74$). The other three subscales were different in that the non-volunteers had higher mean scores for moratorium ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 0.85$), foreclosure ($M = 3.43$, $SD = 0.73$) and diffusion ($M = 2.38$, $SD = 0.69$). So while not statistically significant, the trend does show that those that volunteer self-rate higher for achievement. To examine the impact of age on identity achievement, high school and college student scores were analyzed separately. No differences were statistically significance for college students. However, the relationship was significant for the achieved subscale $F(1, 109) = 4.30, p = .04$ for high school students. High school students who volunteered had a higher mean score for achievement ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 0.67$) than non-volunteers ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 0.71$).
Table 7

*One-Way ANOVA for Identity Status and if 4-H Participants Currently Volunteer Status*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not a volunteer</th>
<th>Current volunteer</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achieved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1, 195</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moratorium</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1, 195</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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**Research Question Three**

In response to the final research question, “Does cognitive autonomy differ according to volunteer status?” information was gathered from the Cognitive Autonomy Self-Evaluation (CASE) inventory. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to evaluate the relationship between volunteerism and the participants’ scores on the subscales of the CASE inventory. Table 8 shows the results based on those participants who volunteer and those who did not. There was no statistically significant difference between the two groups for the subscales of evaluative thinking, voicing opinions, decision-making, self-assessing, and comparative validation.
Table 8

One-Way ANOVA for Cognitive Autonomy and if 4-H Participants Currently Volunteer

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Cognitive autonomy status</th>
<th>Not a volunteer</th>
<th>Current volunteer</th>
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However, self-assessing approached significance \( F(1,195) = 3.02, p = .08 \). It can also be observed that the mean scores for four of the subscales were slightly higher for those participants who volunteered. This difference was observable for evaluative thinking, voicing opinion, decision-making, and self-assessing. The most apparent difference in mean score was for the self-assessing subscale \( (M = 3.56, SD = .78) \) when compared to those who do not volunteer \( (M = 3.36, SD = .77) \). Comparative validation was different from the other four subscales in that those participants who do not volunteer \( (M = 3.12, SD = .57) \) have a higher mean score than those that do volunteer \( (M = 3.09, \)
$SD = .66$). So while not statistically significant, the trend does show that those that volunteer score higher on four of the five subscales for cognitive autonomy.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

As stated, this study had two goals. First, to highlight some of the demographic characteristics of 4-H participants that volunteer during middle to late adolescence and second, to examine two aspects of adolescent development – identity and cognitive autonomy and the relationship volunteerism has to each. Current 4-H members and 4-H alumni were asked to respond a survey regarding their demographics, 4-H history, and complete both a modified version of the Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS) and the Cognitive Autonomy and Self-Evaluation (CASE).

The following discussion addresses the findings associated with the three research questions. This chapter also discusses the possible implications of the findings, possible limitations of this study, and suggestions for others interested in doing similar research. Finally, recommendations for volunteer recruitment are discussed.

Research Questions

Research Question One

Discovering common characteristics of 4-H participants who volunteer was the focus of the first research question. Many of the ratios were very common to what has been previously reported in 4-H. At many events and activities, the ratio of male to female is often 1:2 or 1:3. The home residence was also consistent with what has been reported through Utah membership, 30-40% live in rural and farming areas, 40-50% live in larger towns or small cities, and 10-20% live in large cities (Utah 4-H, 2012). These
similarities demonstrate that the participants were an adequate sample of the overall 4-H population to whom I hoped to generalize.

One ratio that was interesting was that similar percentages of participants volunteered during high school and after high school. This ratio is consistent with Metz et al. (2003), who found that doing service in high school is a strong predictor of volunteer work in college and adulthood.

**Age.** There was a large drop in volunteerism for participants around the age of 18. This would be expected, as this is a potential period of major life transitions. Many adolescents are leaving home to attend school, find jobs, and so forth. A decrease in volunteerism would be consistent with the belief of Schwartz, Maynard, and Uzelac (2008) that increased egocentrism emerges each time an individual enters a new environment or endures a major shift in life situation. Transitioning youth become preoccupied with their own internal world as they deal with changes. Once they find balance in their new situation, they once again begin to focus more outside themselves. It was interesting to note that another drop did not occur for participants near the age of 23. At this point, many would be leaving college and entering a new transitional period. This may be a sign of greater maturity or that the changes may not be as drastic. The rate of volunteerism was actually highest for participants at this age.

**Home residence.** With regard to home residence and volunteerism, it was almost 2 ½ times more likely that participants who lived in rural communities volunteered. Although not a part of this study, it would be interesting to know if and how many of the participants have moved away to attend college and how many still lived in rural communities. This finding is in line with other studies that indicate that adolescents in
rural communities are more likely to volunteer because they feel a greater connection with their community (Duke et al., 2009).

**Level of involvement.** Consistent with many other findings, participants that consider 4-H a significant part of their life, often become volunteers or continued to serve as volunteers for 4-H (Lerner et al., 2011a). It seems that these young people wanted to give back to a program that supported or helped them. Their motivation might be aimed more at volunteering for a specific organization, than just volunteering overall because they have a greater appreciation for the experiences they had while in the 4-H program. They may also feel a greater connection and comfort with those in 4-H because they are able to look at things from a similar perspective, creating a bond that results in continued volunteerism (Seider, 2007).

**Highest level of involvement.** The majority of adolescents that attend state and national events have started to form some kind of commitment to 4-H. They are past the initial introduction to the program and many times are already serving as volunteers and leaders in their respective clubs and counties. Many of the state level programs have a component that focuses on leadership, usually teaching others skills the individual has gained. In this study, the level of involvement differed from original expectations. Intuitively, it would be expected that the higher the level of involvement, the more likely adolescents would be current volunteers. However, there was a decrease for those whose highest level of involvement included state sponsored activities. County and national levels were almost identical, and both were higher than state involvement. This could demonstrate that counties are doing a good job in recruiting those individuals that are active only at the county level. They may feel that they are no longer able to recruit those
that have begun to be active on the state level. However, there are fewer opportunities available to volunteer on a state level. There are not as many activities on the state level as there are on the county level. Moreover, there is a larger pool of potential volunteers that state staff can use when recruiting volunteers. The adolescents may also feel that they have already experienced volunteer opportunities on the county level and are not aware of the volunteering opportunities outside of their county. It may also show that those that are involved in programs on a state level are being introduced to a greater variety of additional programs to become involved in, or they already are those individuals who are involved in a multitude of programs.

Another reason for this decrease at the state level could be a result of state and county level staff. County staff may feel that it is now their responsibility to involve the youth participating in state level activities in volunteer service. They begin to focus on those that have not reached this level of commitment to 4-H. Those on the state level may need to look at their programs and find ways to continue to involve these youth in volunteer activities. This would help explain why those who get involved on the national level volunteer at a level similar to those on the county level. The national program may be better at finding ways to encourage youth to continue to volunteer than the state program.

**Volunteering outside.** The individuals who volunteer with 4-H were also likely to volunteer outside of 4-H. While only 58% currently volunteer with 4-H, 88% currently volunteer outside of 4-H. This shows that while they may not return to volunteer, many do continue to contribute to society in other ways. It may be a result of adolescents becoming involved in other activities, but part of it may also be influenced by
moving to a location where they are unfamiliar with the 4-H staff. They may still be willing to volunteer with 4-H but are unaware of many of the volunteer opportunities available. Many times, they find out about volunteer opportunities because a 4-H staff member has invited them or they have friends or family still involved in the program. However, when they move into a new county, their records are not often transferred to the new county, especially if they have graduated from high school. The 4-H staff members in their new county are unaware that they are potential volunteers for their 4-H program. Without an invitation to volunteer, many find other programs with which to volunteer. It would be interesting to see how this rate would compare to non-4-H adolescents.

**Grades.** Although school grades were not a statistically significant factor in determining if participants would continue to volunteer, it was found that a large percentage of 4-H participants do fit the profile as found in other studies of being good students. Only 2 (1%) classified themselves as having below average grades, while 144 (73%) indicated that they had above average grades. This corresponds with the longitudinal study by Astroth and Haynes (2002) which found that 72.4 % of youth active in 4-H reported getting mostly B’s, A’s and B’s, or mostly A’s.

**Years in 4-H.** Unfortunately, the data collected about the number of years in 4-H were unreliable for those in college. Many also included post-high school or collegiate 4-H membership. As membership is officially only between grades 3-12, the results should have only reached up to ten years of membership. Any involvement with 4-H after high school as a Collegiate 4-H member or mentor would be classified as volunteer leadership.
Many were confused with the question and considered membership in collegiate 4-H part of their actual 4-H membership.

Post-involvement is not yet an option for high school students, so these data were considered more reliable. When the data were examined for only high school students, the years in 4-H manifested as significant in determining the degree to which a participant would become a volunteer. The trend showed that the longer they were in 4-H, the more likely they were to volunteer. This follows the sixth C of contribution that long-term or older members are asked to assist with younger children and take on larger leadership roles (Lerner et al., 2005). Older members are encouraged to teach and mentor younger youth who are beginning to learn some of the project and life skills the older youth have mastered. By teaching others, they are able to not only give back to the program, but also further develop leadership skills. Teaching also allows them to gain a deeper understanding of the project. Additionally, the older youth would be able to feel a strong connection to the younger youth just starting in 4-H, having been in that position before. This relates to prior research that found that adolescents are more likely to volunteer for people they feel a strong connection with and with whom they feel they are capable of helping (Duke et al., 2009; Zaff et al., 2011). The rate of volunteerism dropped slightly for those in 4-H for ten years or more. This information might simply be related to those graduating from high school and experiencing a lifestyle change. An individual that started 4-H during 3rd grade would be graduating from high school during their tenth year in 4-H. Many times their focus changes, temporarily, as they begin college.
**Research Question Two**

The results of the survey indicated that there was not a statistically significant relationship between an individual’s current level of volunteerism and the participants’ self-reported level of identity achievement. A large percentage remained unclassified in the original analysis. The second largest group was classified as diffused. The findings from this survey are consistent with previous findings from Akers and colleagues (1998). According to Arnett (2007), many adolescents do not begin to reach identity achievement until the mid-twenties. They have not had the opportunity to do a lot of exploring or making commitments.

One thing that was interesting was the high number of individuals in the achieved status. Using the first analysis, it was the third largest group. However, in the second analysis, which made sure that each individual was classified in an identity status, those individuals in the achieved status made up the largest group. One explanation for this could be that these individuals, while not yet having fully reached an achieved status, are closer to fitting in this category than the other three. While it might be premature to conclude based on this study, it may be possible that because 4-H gives adolescents an increased opportunity to experience different worldviews and ideologies, they reach the achieved status more quickly. They are able to view things from another’s perspective while they are club members and youth leaders. They often interact with people from outside their school or community at county or state events. This would help them explore and make a commitment in more areas quicker because they have had more opportunities to do so. Much more research is necessary in this area. It would be
particularly important to compare 4-H members to non-4-H members to determine if this was an explanation for the large number in the achieved status.

When looking at mean scores of each status sum, the trends indicated that those that volunteered were more likely to score higher in the achieved status and lower in the diffused status. This would correspond with Crocetti et al. (2012) that individuals with an achieved identity feel a greater connection with the community and feel a responsibility to help others in the community but those with a diffused identity are often less prosocial.

**Research Question Three**

Volunteering often gives youth an opportunity to take on more leadership roles involving integration of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral constructs (Zaff et al., 2011). Volunteering experiences can give adolescents more opportunities to not only view things from another person’s perspective, but also gain more knowledge and information about things outside their current environment. However, in this study, there were no statistically significant differences between those that currently volunteer for 4-H for any of the Cognitive Autonomy Self-Evaluation (CASE) scales. Scores from both groups, volunteers and non-volunteers, were quite high. Nevertheless, the constructs of evaluative thinking, voicing opinion, decision-making, and self-assessing tended to have a higher mean for those who volunteer in 4-H. The difference may not have reach statistical significance because many of the individuals had already developed significantly because of their involvement in the program as a whole. These results would be similar to Zaff et al. (2011) who found that by Grade 8, those in youth
development programs showed slower growth in the developmental trajectory of civic engagement and its components because they were already at a higher level than those that did not participate.

Explanations for these results may be similar to those given for research question two. The 4-H program may give members opportunities to develop cognitively compared to those not involved in the 4-H program. The 4-H program may give more youth opportunities to develop in their ability to evaluate information, make decisions, voice their opinion, and self-assess. As indicated by Spear and Kulbok (2004), the youth may perceive more support, which would influence the development of their cognitive autonomy. It would be interesting to see how these individuals compared to others their age who had not had the opportunity to be involved in the 4-H program or other volunteer opportunities at all.

When adolescents become teen leaders in the 4-H program, many are expected to begin to exercise more cognitive autonomy. As leaders and as older members, they are often given the opportunity to make decisions, voice their opinion, make comparative validations, make logical deductions, and self-reflect. All of these opportunities are important to achieving cognitive autonomy (Beckert, 2012). These steps become part of the process when completing a 4-H project as stated by one of 4-H’s mottos of “Do, Reflect, Apply” (National 4-H Council, 2011). As a result, volunteering in 4-H may not have as much of a significant impact on cognitive development because involvement in the 4-H program has already had a significant impact.

Respondent confusion about what constituted volunteerism might have also contributed to the lack of variability in cognitive autonomy scores. Some individuals
marked that they did not volunteer, but they indicated they had volunteered for at least a year. An explanation of what qualifies as volunteerism may have been beneficial to the study. Sample size and the sample population may also have resulted in the possibility of a type II error or the failure to detect significance. A new, larger study involving more 4-H members or one including non 4-H members would determine if this were the case. Although not statistically significant, those that currently volunteer did show slightly higher scores in evaluative thinking, voicing opinion, decision-making, and self-assessing. This might indicate that those who volunteer might have had a few more opportunities to practice evaluating information, making decisions or coming up with alternatives, voicing their opinion, and self-reflecting. They are, also, less likely to be influenced by the opinions of their decisions by others. They are gradually increasing in independence and responsibility for their own thoughts and actions.

**Limitations**

One major limitation was in data collection with the email addresses used. It was discovered that many of the email addresses belonged to the parents and not to the adolescent. Although this was not the case with everyone, it did limit the accessibility to the adolescent. The parent may have chosen not to forward the message on to their child or they may have assumed that the adolescent also received the message. When using alumni email addresses, the same problem occurred, making it impossible to determine how many adolescents actually received the message and invitation to participate in the survey. There is no way to determine if more would have participated if the email had been directly sent to the youth. By having less direct access to the adolescent, an
additional unwanted level of screening occurred. Instead of the survey focusing primarily on the adolescent, for some it also involved the parent making the decision for the youth. Parents that did not forward the message may have little or nothing to do with 4-H, it may only be the youth involved. Others may have deleted the email as their child was no longer involved in 4-H, making it harder to reach alumni members. The parents may also be more likely to make decisions for their child, making it more difficult to reach adolescents that are less developed with their identity or cognitive autonomy.

A solution to this problem in future research would be to encourage county staff to enter the adolescent’s email address, not just a family email address, especially as they get older and reach adolescence. This could also benefit the adolescent, as it would make it so the youth is given more opportunities to choose in which 4-H activities they want to participate. It may also give the youth more opportunities to volunteer, as they are able to choose based on their interests, not just those of the parent. When replicating this study, effort should be placed on collecting email addresses directly from individuals during club, county, and state events.

Another solution to this problem would be to replicate methods used by similar studies that were more successful. The study in Montana conducted surveys in more than 50 schools and were able to obtain approximately 2,500 usable surveys (Astroth & Haynes, 2002). This would also allow for a comparison of non-4-H youth. Another survey was done specifically with 4-H alumni (Maas et al., 2006). For this study, surveys were mailed to alumni of the Oklahoma 4-H program. They received a response rate of over 50%. Based on these two studies, it may be more effective to make sure participants are given hard copies of the survey or have them completed in a setting where they can
complete the survey. For high school students, the survey could be completed in the school or at high school events. For college age students, the survey could be mailed with a postage paid envelope.

Many of the computations revolved around the question if they currently volunteer. What one person defines as “volunteering” may actually be different for another person. This confusion was further demonstrated when asked how often they volunteered during the past year. Some actually marked that they had volunteered a number of times during the past year, but did not consider themselves “current volunteers.” A better definition of “current volunteer” and what classifies as volunteering would have strengthened this survey.

**Suggestions for Future Studies**

Many of the findings would be interesting to compare with similar non-4-H adolescents. This would help with determining if the findings were unique to 4-H members and volunteers, or were common trends within the cohort. A comparison with 4-H members from other states might help to determine the effectiveness of the Utah 4-H program.

A future study could also examine why youth who participated in activities on the state level were less likely to volunteer than those who only participated in activities on the county level. Some possible reasons for this could include the lack of emphasis on volunteerism on the state level. If so, this could mean that there needs to be a change in what takes place during state activities to add an emphasis on volunteerism. The state programs and events could be compared to different county programs and events to
determine which components are most important toward developing and maintaining volunteers. Each program could also be examined to determine if the programs are using the Five Cs by Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003) or the four elements by Arnold et al. (2009) deemed as necessary components of a successful youth development program. Another reason could be that those who become involved in state activities also become involved in many other activities and do not have as much time to volunteer. A final reason might be that becoming heavily involved on the state level means extensive membership involvement in 4-H during their senior years so they might feel burned out and decide to take a break from 4-H to do other things. It would be interesting to see how long of a break many of these individuals take and if they do eventually return to volunteering in 4-H.

Another future study could determine if family members or friends are either current members or volunteers with 4-H. This may include parents, younger siblings, spouses, or roommates. Although an adolescent is beginning to exercise independence from parents, many are still influenced by what parents and siblings are involved in. They are also becoming more influenced by what their friends are involved in. This could be another factor in determining why some 4-H members continue to volunteer with the 4-H program. Those who still have a connection to 4-H through other people would have more methods of finding out about volunteer opportunities or may be pressured to volunteer by these individuals. It would be interesting to determine if more of these individuals volunteer because they want to give back to a program that helped them, or if more of them volunteer because of peer and family pressure to do so. Those
who volunteer more because of peer and family pressure may not continue to volunteer in the future after their other siblings or friend have graduated from the program.

It would be interesting to assess longitudinally if those participants who volunteer in high school continue to volunteer after. This study found that the percentages were similar, but because the study was cross-sectional, it is unknown if they would really be the same participants. The current study attempted to examine this idea by asking about level and length of involvement in the 4-H program, but by studying the same individuals longitudinally, it would become possible to study the effect of different programs and activities each person is involved in more specifically. Doing a longitudinal study could also help determine why individuals stop volunteering, what motivates them to continue volunteering, and if there are certain types of activities for which they are more willing to continue volunteering. Longitudinal assessment would also allow for an examination to determine if any breaks from volunteering are long lasting, or if it is just because other factors became more important that year and the person begins to volunteer again the next year. The current study was only able to examine things as they are reported at this moment; a longitudinal study would be able to study factors over time and as they happen to see how they impact that individual at the moment and in the future.

The longitudinal study could be continued into adulthood to see if those who make the commitment to volunteer during late adolescence will follow through and continue to volunteer. The decision to volunteer may also be impacted by life events such as getting married, having children, entering into different careers, and so forth. While starting their career may cause them to take a break from volunteering in 4-H, having children reach the age that they may become 4-H members may help them begin
to volunteer again. This is true especially if they felt that they benefited from their membership in the program.

**Recommendations**

The main purpose of the first research question was to determine the common characteristics of those currently being recruited as volunteers. As a result, suggestions can be tailored for agents based on their current situation. To begin, some things they should probably not focus on include gender and academic grades as neither related to the probability of them being willing to volunteer.

For those that do not have many volunteers, the recommendation would be to first focus on those individuals that others have been successful in recruiting and maintaining. Based on the current findings, those between the ages of 16 to 17 and 23 to 25 are most likely to volunteer. Those soon to be graduating from high school are less likely to volunteer because they are focused on the transitions occurring in their lives. Those from smaller towns are also more likely to volunteer, while they almost have a 50:50 chance with those from larger towns, suburbs, and cities. If looking at their involvement in 4-H, they are more likely to volunteer after having been a member for five years and if they feel like 4-H is a large part of their life. They will also have an easier time if they start recruiting them as a volunteer before they begin to become involved in state events.

For those that have already recruited from these pools, they can begin to target groups that currently are not as successful. One potential population may be those involved in state level activities as they are involved more with 4-H, but might not be actively recruited as much on the local level. This may be especially true for individuals
who have graduated from high school but no longer live in their home towns. These individuals may be unaware of current opportunities to volunteer. To help with this, it may be a good idea to develop a tracking method of adolescents as they move. This would make it possible for 4-H staff to recruit previous 4-H members, and make it easier for 4-H alumni to reconnect with the 4-H program and find out about volunteer opportunities. Adolescents are three times more likely to be involved when asked to volunteer than if they have to seek out their own opportunities (Culp, 2009).

The state 4-H Office should evaluate their state programs to determine if the activities they put on are promoting future volunteerism and service. While some individuals may be “burned out” and are no longer interested because of a large amount of involvement while in high school, others may actually become more interested and committed to volunteering in the future. By evaluating their program, they may be able to determine which ones are more successful in developing the contributing construct and why.

**Conclusions**

This research project was conducted with two objectives. The first was to discover the demographic characteristics of 4-H volunteers during middle and late adolescence. The second objective was to determine the relationship between 4-H volunteering and the development of autonomy and identity achievement.

Several characteristics were discovered which could help county and state staff recruit and maintain adolescent volunteers. Additional research could look further into
specific programs or into the influence families and friends have on their decision to volunteer.

Although no significant relationship was found between those 4-H participants who volunteer for either cognitive autonomy or identity status, trends did show expected results. It may be more advantageous to study 4-H participants versus non 4-H participants or 4-H volunteers versus non 4-H volunteers to determine if the 4-H program has an impact on psychosocial development in these two areas.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A.
### Table A1

**Frequencies and Percentages of Participants’ Demographic Characteristics**

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APPENDIX B.

High School Student Survey
Directions: Please answer all of the questions to the best of your ability.

Section 1: Demographics

1. Age __________

2. Gender
   - Male
   - Female

3. Current year in school
   - High school
     - 9th grade
     - 10th grade

   - 11th grade
   - 12th grade
   - Graduated high school, not attending college

4. Do you plan on attending USU? Yes No

5. Have you attended any 4-H conferences / events at USU? Yes No

6. How much do these events affect your decision to attend USU?
   - A great deal
   - Somewhat
   - Very Little
   - Not at all

7. Ethnicity
   - White
   - Hispanic
   - Black
   - Asian
   - Native American
   - Other - Please specify ________

8. Household income:
   - Less than $20,000
   - $20,001-$29,999
   - $30,001-$39,999
   - $40,001-$49,999
   - $50,001-$59,999
   - $60,001-$69,999
   - $70,001-$79,999
   - Over $80,000
   - Don’t know

9. Home Residence:
   - Rural community, city, or town with population of less than 5,000
   - City or town with population of more than 5,000 and less than 50,000
   - City or town with population of more than 50,000

10. School Grades
    - Above average
    - Average
    - Below Average
Section 2: 4-H Background Information

11. How many years have you been a member in 4-H? _______

12. How involved in 4-H are you?
   - 4-H is my life
   - Somewhat
   - Large events only
   - Rarely
   - Not at all

13. Please select any or all of the 4-H programs you participated in as a 4-Her:
   - Club Youth Leader/Officer
   - County Teen Council/Ambassador
   - Teen Council Officer
   - Region Ambassador
   - State Ambassador
   - State Leadership Training (TLT)
   - 4-H Portfolio/Record book
   - Service Projects
   - County Camps
   - State Adventure Camp
   - County Contests (Demos, Fashion Revue, Talent, etc.)
   - State Contests
   - National Contests
   - National Congress
   - National Conference
   - County Fair
   - State Fair

Section 3: Volunteering with 4-H

14. Do you currently volunteer for 4-H? (ie helping with events, judging, setting up, leading clubs/activities, teaching workshops, etc) Yes No

15. How many years have you been a volunteer (leader) in 4-H? _______

16. How often have you volunteered for 4-H in the past year?
   - Not at all
   - 1-3 times
   - 4-6 times
   - 7-9 times
   - 10+ times

17. How likely are you to volunteer for 4-H after graduating?
   - Definitely
   - Probably
   - Possibly
   - Probably Not
   - Definitely Won’t

18. Please rank your top three reasons you volunteer your time?
   - Friends (social)
   - Adult pressure
   - Helping others
   - Makes me feel better about myself
   - Learn new skills
   - Get career related experience
   - Scholarship portfolio
   - Feel a duty/ responsibility
You know you make an impact/have an effect
They couldn’t do it without you
Other ____________

19. What helped you first get involved with volunteering in 4-H?
○ Marketing
○ Friends
○ Clubs
○ Church
○ School
○ Social media
○ Email
○ Media – Radio/TV
○ Other ____________

20. How do you most often learn about your volunteering opportunities?
○ Marketing (Fliers)
○ Friends
○ Clubs
○ Church
○ School
○ Social media (Facebook)
○ Email
○ Media – Radio/TV
○ Other ____________

21. What type of activity do you prefer to help with the most? (Please rank your top 3)
○ Event (short term)
○ Camps (3-5 days)
○ Long term (weekly or monthly occurrence)
○ Long term (daily –after school mentoring)
○ Teach Club
○ Other ____________

22. What type of volunteering do you like to do the most?
○ Teaching
○ Mentoring
○ Organizing/planning
○ Hands-on work (planting gardens, cleaning, etc.)
○ Other ____________

23. What size group do you like to work with the most?
○ One on one
○ Small group (3-5)
○ Mid size (6-12)
○ Large group – MC or front person announcing and organizing the group
○ Other ______________

24. What types of people do you like to serve the most?
○ Younger than you
○ Peers
○ Adults
○ Senior citizens
○ People in need (Financially, Physically, Emotionally)
○ Other ____________
25. What things interfere with your ability to volunteer? (Please rank your top 3)
   - Transportation
   - Employment
   - School
   - Entertainment
   - Lack of Time
   - Other __________

Section 4: Other Volunteering

26. Do you volunteer outside of 4-H? Yes  No

27. If so, what type of volunteering do you do?

28. How often have you volunteer outside or 4-H in the past year?

Section 5: Perceptions of 4-H

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements (circle one answer per statement)
   SA = Strongly Agree  A = Agree  N = Neutral  D = Disagree  SD = Strongly Disagree

29. I make an impact when I volunteer with 4-H.                       SA  A  N  D  SD
30. I enjoy volunteering for 4-H.                                      SA  A  N  D  SD
31. My participation in 4-H has been critical to my success in life.   SA  A  N  D  SD
32. 4-H has made a positive difference in my life.                    SA  A  N  D  SD
33. 4-H has made a positive difference in my family life.             SA  A  N  D  SD
34. If it weren’t/wasn’t for 4-H, there would be few organized activities of interest to me outside of school in my community. SA  A  N  D  SD

Section 6

DIRECTIONS: Each of the following statements reflect personal feelings held by some people in this society. We are interested in how much you agree with each statement. Because these statements reflect personal feelings and attitudes, there are no right and wrong answers. The BEST response to each of the following statements is your PERSONAL OPINION. We have tried to cover many points of view. You may find yourself agreeing with some of the statements and disagreeing with others. Regardless of how you feel, you can be sure that many others feel the same as you do.

RESPOND TO EACH STATEMENT ACCORDING TO YOUR OPINION BY CIRCLING THE ANSWER THAT BEST REFLECTS YOUR OPINION

PLEASE READ THIS FIRST
• Some of these statements may not seem to apply to your life right now; still give your opinions, as they might be in the future.
• If a statement seems to have more than one part, respond to the statement as a whole.
• Some statements will sound similar. This is deliberate; we want to know if different wording leads to different responses.
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<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
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<th>DS</th>
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with the crowd and have a good time.
56. The standards or “un-written rules” I follow about dating are still in the process of developing – they haven’t completely “jelled” yet.
57. I would never date anyone my parents disapprove of.
58. I’ve never had any real close friends – it takes too much energy to keep a friendship going.
59. Sometimes I wonder if the way other people date is the best way for me.
60. After considerable thought, I’ve developed my own individual viewpoint of what is for me an ideal “lifestyle” and don’t believe anyone will likely to change my views.
61. School is just something I’m supposed to do, not much more.
62. I haven’t chosen the occupation I really want to get into. I’ll just work at whatever is available unless something better comes along.
63. My rules or standards about dating have remained the same since I first started going out and I don’t anticipate that they will change.
64. In finding an acceptable viewpoint to life itself, I often exchange ideas with friends and family.
65. It took a lot of effort to decide, and I now have definite intentions about my education.
66. There’s no single “life-style” which appeals to me more than another.
67. It took me a while to figure it out, but now I really know what I want for a career.
68. I’m still trying to decide how capable I am as a person and what jobs will be right for me.
69. There are so many subjects to learn about in school. I’m trying out as many as possible so I can make a better decision about my future education.
70. I might have thought about a lot of different jobs but there’s never really been any question since my parents said what they wanted.
71. I’m looking for an acceptable perspective for my own “lifestyle” view, but I haven’t really found it yet.
72. My parents have taught me the most important goals about my education. I’ve seen no reason to doubt them.
73. It took me a long time to decide, but now I know for sure what direction to move in for a career.
74. I’ve dated different types of people and I now know exactly what my own “unwritten rules” for dating are.
Section 7

For each item, circle the answer that best illustrates your thoughts today (mark one answer per statement) 1= Always   2 = Often   3= Sometimes   4= Seldom    5 = Never

75. If I have something to add to a class discussion I speak up. 1 2 3 4 5
76. I think about the consequences of my decisions. 1 2 3 4 5
77. I look at every situation from other people’s perspectives before making my own judgments. 1 2 3 4 5
78. When I disagree with others I share my views. 1 2 3 4 5
79. I need family members to approve my decisions. 1 2 3 4 5
80. I think of all possible risks before acting on a situation. 1 2 3 4 5
81. I like to evaluate my daily actions. 1 2 3 4 5
82. I consider alternatives before making decisions. 1 2 3 4 5
83. I stand up for what I think is right regardless of the situation. 1 2 3 4 5
84. I think about how my actions will affect others. 1 2 3 4 5
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86. I like to evaluate my thoughts. 1 2 3 4 5
87. I feel that my opinions are valuable enough to share. SA A N D SD
88. I need my views to match those of my parents. SA A N D SD
89. I am good at identifying my own strengths. SA A N D SD
90. It is important to me that my friends approve of my decisions. SA A N D SD
91. There are consequences to my decisions. SA A N D SD
92. I can tell that my way of thinking has improved with age. SA A N D SD
93. At school I keep my opinions to myself. SA A N D SD
94. I think more about the future today than I did when I was younger. SA A N D SD
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98. I am good at evaluating my feelings. SA A N D SD
99. I am better at decision making than my friends. SA A N D SD
100. I care about what others think of me. SA A N D SD
101. I am the best judge of my talents. SA A N D SD

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements (circle one answer per statement) SA = Strongly Agree   A = Agree   N = Neutral   D = Disagree   SD = Strongly Disagree

102. If you were to rate yourself on your “independent thought” today, what score would you assign from 1-10 with ten being the most independent? Please provide a brief paragraph to justify your assigned score.

___________ Score (from 1-10)
APPENDIX C.

College Student Survey
Directions: Please answer all of the questions to the best of your ability.

Section 1: Demographics

1. Age ____________

2. Gender
   - Male
   - Female

3. Current year in school
   - Not attending college
   - 1 year
   - 2 years
   - 3 years
   - 4 years +
   - Graduated from college

4. Do / did you attend Utah State University? Yes  No  I’m planning to attend

5. Did you attend any 4-H conferences / events at USU? Yes  No

6. How much did these events have any effect on your decision to attend USU?
   - A great deal
   - Somewhat
   - Very Little
   - Not at all

7. Ethnicity
   - White
   - Hispanic
   - Black
   - Asian
   - Native American
   - Other - Please specify _________

8. Household income:
   - Less than $20,000
   - $20,001-$29,999
   - $30,001-$39,999
   - $40,001-$49,999
   - $50,001-$59,999
   - $60,001-$69,999
   - $70,001-$79,999
   - Over $80,000
   - Don’t know

9. Home Residence:
   - Rural community, city, or town with population of less than 5,000
   - City or town with population of more than 5,000 and less than 50,000
   - City or town with population of more than 50,000

10. School Grades
    - Above average
    - Average
    - Below Average
Section 2: 4-H Background Information

11. How many years were you a member in 4-H? _______

12. How involved in 4-H were you in high school?
   o 4-H is/was my life
   o Somewhat
   o Large events only
   o Rarely
   o Not at all

13. Please select any or all of the 4-H programs you participated in as a 4-Her:
   o Club Youth Leader/Officer
   o County Teen
   o Council/Ambassador
   o Teen Council Officer
   o Region Ambassador
   o State Ambassador
   o State Leadership Training (TLT)
   o 4-H Portfolio/Record book
   o Service Projects
   o County Camps
   o Junior Youth Conference
   o State Adventure Camp
   o County Contests (Demos, Fashion Revue, Talent, etc.)
   o State Contests
   o National Contests
   o National Congress
   o National Conference
   o County Fair
   o State Fair

Section 3: Volunteering with 4-H

14. Do you currently volunteer for 4-H? (For example: helping with events, judging, setting up, leading clubs/activities, teaching workshops, etc)  Yes  No

15. How many years have you been or were you a volunteer (leader) in 4-H?
    As a member _____  Since graduating high school _____

16. How often have you volunteered for 4-H in the past year?
    o Not at all
    o 1-3 times
    o 4-6 times
    o 7-9 times
    o 10 + times

17. Please rank your top three reasons you volunteer your time?
    o Friends (social)
    o Adult pressure
    o Helping others
    o Makes me feel better about myself
    o Learn new skills
    o Get career related experience
    o Scholarship portfolio
    o Feel a duty/ responsibility
    o You know you make an impact/have an effect
    o They couldn’t do it without you
    o Other ________________

18. What got you involved in volunteering?
    o Marketing
    o Friends
19. How do you learn about your volunteering opportunities? (Select the one that happens most often)
   o Marketing (Fliers)
   o Friends
   o Clubs
   o Church
   o School
   o Social media (Facebook)
   o Email
   o Media – Radio/TV
   o Other

20. What type of activity do you prefer to help with the most? (Please rank your top 3)
   o Event (short term)
   o Camps (3-5 days)
   o Long term (weekly or monthly occurrence)
   o Long term (daily –after school mentoring)
   o Teach Club
   o Other

21. What type of volunteering do you like to do the most?
   o Teaching
   o Mentoring
   o Hands-on work (planting gardens, cleaning, etc.)
   o Other

22. What size group do you like to work with the most?
   o One on one
   o Small group (3-5)
   o Mid size (6-12)
   o Large group – MC or front person announcing and organizing the group
   o Other

23. What types of people do you like to serve the most?
   o Younger than you
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24. What things interfere with your ability to volunteer? (Please rank your top 3)
   o Transportation
   o Employment
   o School
   o Entertainment
   o Lack of Time
   o Other
Section 4: Other Volunteering

25. Do you volunteer outside of 4-H? Yes   No

26. If so, what type of volunteering do you do? ______________

27. How often have you volunteered outside of 4-H in the past year?
   o Not at all           o 7-9 times
   o 1-3 times           o 10 + times
   o 4-6 times

Section 5: Perceptions of 4-H

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements (circle one answer per statement) SA = Strongly Agree   A = Agree   N = Neutral   D = Disagree   SD = Strongly Disagree
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DIRECTIONS: Each of the following statements reflect personal feelings held by some people in this society. We are interested in how much you agree with each statement. Because these statements reflect personal feelings and attitudes, there are no right and wrong answers. The BEST response to each of the following statements is your PERSONAL OPINION. We have tried to cover many points of view. You may find yourself agreeing with some of the statements and disagreeing with others. Regardless of how you feel, you can be sure that many others feel the same as you do.

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How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements (circle one answer per statement) SA = Strongly Agree MA = Moderately Agree AS = Agree Somewhat DS = Disagree Somewhat MD = Moderately Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

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For each item, circle the answer, that best illustrates your thoughts today (mark one answer per statement) 1= Always  2 = Often  3= Sometimes  4= Seldom  5 = Never
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92. At school I keep my opinions to myself.  SA A N D SD
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98. I am better at decision making than my friends.  SA A N D SD
99. I care about what others think of me.  SA A N D SD
100. I am the best judge of my talents.  SA A N D SD

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements (circle one answer per statement)  SA = Strongly Agree  A = Agree  N = Neutral  D = Disagree  SD = Strongly Disagree
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101. If you were to rate yourself on your “independent thought” today, what score would you assign from 1-10 with ten being the most independent? Please provide a brief paragraph to justify your assigned score.

___________ Score (from 1-10)