A Multifunctional Web-based Extension Curriculum Targeting Teens as Teachers: The North Carolina 4-H TRY-IT! Project (Teens Reaching Youth through Innovative Teams!)

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Abstract

One of the most discussed topics in contemporary education is that of distance education. While the use of distance learning strategies has been demonstrated in the teaching of adult Extension staff and clientele and the potentials for distance education applications in international agricultural education settings are being explored; little (if any) literature exists documenting Extension/agricultural education program initiatives utilizing Web-based distance education technologies to teach youth. Teens Reaching Youth through Innovative Teams! (TRY-IT!) is the second generation of a cross-peer educational program. TRY-IT! utilizes Web-based modules to develop and expand teens’ abilities and opportunities to teach younger youth, under the guidance of an adult volunteer coach. Multi-functional pedagogical strategies and distance technologies are incorporated within individual modules to: (1) maximize appeal to teen audiences, (2) promote active learner engagement, and (3) maximize learner retention of module content.

The purpose of this exploratory, descriptive research was to investigate teen participants’ reactions to the two initial TRY-IT! modules regarding eight specific criteria for assessing Web-based programs. The researchers developed a quantitative methodology using a written questionnaire to collect data from a convenience sample. The findings showed two pilot modules to be well designed and constructed. None of the eight individual constructs assessed were evaluated by teens as being below the median of the respective construct’s overall range. The two modules evaluated successfully integrate an effective combination of content, teaching pedagogies, and Web-based instructional design.
Introduction

North Carolina’s communities and municipalities face increasing challenges in providing adequate public programs and services for their citizens. The need and demand for human services to maintain and improve quality of life continue to grow, especially in very rural areas. More citizens must assume active leadership roles through community service if the quality of community life is to be maintained and improved (Lappe & DuBois, 1994). Current budget deficits and resulting cutbacks in state human and community service programs have increased demands on local governments to assume responsibility for a wider range of human and community service programs; consequently, human and material resources are extremely limited at all levels of state and local government. However, local governments have neither the mandate nor the resources to provide the levels of services necessary to alleviate social problems.

Teen Engagement in Communities

All youth, and especially those in their teens, also need to be engaged in their communities through volunteerism and service that allows them to actively participate in decisions affecting themselves and their families, schools, workplaces, and communities. Brendtro and Bacon (1995) suggested that such active involvement in decision making assists teens in developing both responsibility and commitment. Swinehart (1992) defined youth engagement as having four components: (1) including youth in significant decision making; (2) youth participating in activities that satisfy a genuine need in their community; (3) youth developing collegial relationships with adult partners and mentors; and (4) youth reflecting on their work and learning skills related to it.

Engaging teens in meaningful leadership roles has become a major focus of many contemporary not-for-profit organizations. Today’s cultural and political climates demand that community-based organizations approach youth not as mere recipients of programs, nor even as mere resources in program development, but rather as valued and equal partners in the holistic program development, implementation, and evaluation process. As Long et al. (n.d.) noted: “[There is ample] evidence that weaving the work of youth development, civic development, and community development makes sense for three important reasons: First, young people, who make up 26 percent of the population, possess vision, creativity and energy that is largely untapped. They have much to contribute to organizations and communities. Second, young people, when called to action, contribute to their own development, as well as to the development of the common good. And third, constructive action and involvement are always and everywhere the best defense against school failure, drug and alcohol abuse, teen pregnancy, crime, and violence – pathologies society cannot afford to remediate, even if it knew how to (p. 3).”

A Curriculum to Engage Teens as Volunteer Teachers of Younger Youth

The mission of the Department of 4-H Youth Development at North Carolina State University (NCSU), and the holistic 4-H program in North Carolina, is to create helping relationships to enable youths to become responsible, productive citizens. Since its inception in 1902, 4-H has worked with adult and teen volunteers to teach young people basic life skills. Life skills taught by 4-H include decision making; psychomotor skills; understanding
of self; problem solving; acquiring, analyzing, and using information; managing resources; working with others; workforce preparedness; communication; interpersonal relationships; leadership; citizenship; and community service. 4-H is administered by the land-grant university system. In North Carolina, NCSU and N.C. A&T State University provide faculty and educational resources to the 4-H program. At these two institutions, the Cooperative Extension Service provides overall leadership to 4-H.

The N.C. 4-H Youth Development Teens Reaching Youth (TRY) program was developed initially in 1986 as a Kellogg Volunteers for the Future project and tested in North Carolina (Groff, 1992). The goals of TRY are: (1) to improve teen self-esteem and life skills, including leadership; (2) to enable teens to realize maximal personal growth and understanding; (3) to empower teens to make a difference in the lives of others (especially younger youth) through teaching opportunities; and (4) to empower teens to contribute to the common good through volunteerism and service. TRY-IT! (Teens Reaching Youth through Innovative Teams!) is the next generation of the original TRY program. TRY-IT! utilizes innovative Web-based resources to strengthen and expand community-based teen volunteerism and service through effective teen-adult partnerships. More specifically, project objectives include: To foster and support effective teen-adult partnerships throughout project development, implementation, and dissemination; to expand teens’ opportunities and abilities to develop leadership skills through volunteer teaching and service; to develop cutting-edge Web-based resource modules (available 24/7) that will allow teens and adults to develop effective partnerships in addressing community issues; and to strengthen teens’ personal and interpersonal leadership skills through active volunteerism and service.

The TRY-IT! program’s curricular content includes a total of 26 (eventual), 45 minute interactive Web-based modules addressing teen-adult partnerships (seven modules), effective teaching-learning (nine modules), and individual and shared leadership (ten modules), as well as a section supporting adult volunteers as coaches of TRY-IT! Teams. While all modules have been written, only three have been formatted for the Web as of July 1, 2003. Individual module content was developed by 6-8 member Writing Teams comprised of youth and adult volunteers and Extension professionals working in partnership as Subject Matter Experts (SMEs). The project’s Instructional Designer coached SMEs to write learner-focused content that is integrated with effective Web design and IT systems based upon contemporary literature (Heide & Henderson, 1994; Jukes, Dosaj, & Macdonald, 2000; Kruse & Keil, 2000; Palloff & Pratt, 1999; Schreiber & Berge, 1998.) Individual SMEs as well as writing teams integrated various distance technologies (e.g., animation, streaming video, self-assessed feedback loops, etc.) within individual modules so as to (1) maximize appeal to teen audiences, (2) promote active learner engagement, and (3) maximize learner retention of module content.

**Bridging Teen Volunteerism and Distance Education**

One of the most renowned and researched contemporary topics of educational outreach is the concept of distance education. Universities and high schools have enacted countless initiatives to extend to the community the information that has been developed and taught in the classroom. By utilizing the notion of distance education, facilities have attempted to develop courses that reach students who are unavailable to be physically present
in a classroom. This began with the advent of correspondence courses and the long-distance spread of resources. Additionally, many universities (specifically land-grant universities) have developed Extension departments in which educational content is brought directly into communities.

There is a great and storied history to the development of distance education with computer technologies in school and non-school settings. One of the first steps into understanding this new type of technology is understanding it under one unified name. Carnevale (2001) discussed a multitude of different ways that computer-based distance learning has been classified in professional literature. Further, he defined the need for one unified term, claiming that a proliferation of labels has caused public backlash and increased public confusion. Some of the labels that are prevalent include e-learning, distance learning, web-based training, computer-based training, electronic-performance support, i-learning, and computer-enhanced learning. A formal poll revealed that e-learning is the preferred term according to learning institutions, resource vendors, and students alike. The word was described as being accessible and comfortable for all involved. Thus, e-learning is the term that has evolved to label the process of distance education over a computer forum.

Smith, Bucklin and Associates, Inc. (2000) emphasized the enormous potential of electronic media (including the Internet) upon nonformal, community based educational programs, and especially those targeting youth. They stated:

The younger generations have been raised on video games, MTV, Star Wars special effects, Walkmans, CDs, personal computers, and other products of the electronic age. The array of technology is dazzling. The production is slick. And the advertising professionals will tell you that use of these media to educate young people is measurable in terms of results. (p. 129)

However, based upon the researchers’ combined 46 years in formal and non-formal youth development, no educational efforts have been initiated that utilize interactive Web-based distance education technologies to nurture and facilitate the engagement of teens as volunteer leaders in their communities. Such technological initiatives would address directly several of the issues confronting youth development educators in structuring teen leadership development opportunities that are both pedagogically sound and appealing to today’s MTV generation of teens. Additionally, distance technologies would alleviate many of the obstacles in engaging rural teens in their communities, many of which are isolated by geographic distance, cultural barriers and real time issues.

Theoretical Base

Teen Engagement

Teens seek active, meaningful engagement in their communities (Zeldin et al., 2000.) Numerous studies have highlighted teens’ desires and initiatives to work together with peers and adults as leaders in addressing the serious issues facing us as a society (Auck, 1999; Safrit, 2003; Safrit & King, 1999; Safrit, King, Burcsu, & Jones-Ward, 1999; Youth Service America, 1994). Studies have indicated that participation in voluntary structured activities during nonschool time is associated with the development of positive identity, increased initiative, and positive relationships with diverse peers and adults, better school achievement,
reduced rates of dropping out of school, reduced delinquency, and more positive outcomes in adulthood (Clark, 1988; Eccles & Barber, 1999; Larson, 2000; Vandell & Posner, 1999).

In return for their active engagement in the community, teens both experience intrinsic satisfaction and expect extrinsic rewards that enable them to be successful both today and into the future. Safrit, Scheer, and King (2001) provided an excellent discussion of how to develop meaningful service opportunities for engaging teens in their communities, taking into account teens’ unique developmental characteristics. According to the Safrit, Scheer and King, “teens are more willing to actively engage in mixed gender groups and seek greater responsibility/decision making in what volunteer projects to conduct” (p. 19) as active partners in community-based programs.

There is an abundance of literature that, both pragmatically and conceptually, addresses the topics of positive teen development and leadership within not-for-profit settings. Lofquist (1989) first brought our attention to the fact that teens should be approached as valuable resources (and not mere recipients of programmatic action) in addressing issues facing them and their communities. Bronfenbrenner (1989) approached adolescent development within the context of the individual teen’s larger real-world settings and environments. His bioecological theory identified five distinct systems encompassing the individual teen’s critical interactions with others and the environment: the microsystem (the setting in which the teen lives and where most direct interaction occurs, such as the family, peer groups, school groups, etc.); the mesosystem (entailing the teen’s direct interactions as a member of respective interacting microsystems); the exosystem (the overall social setting and culture in which the individual teen lives; while the teen may not have an active role in this system, it still affects the individual teen); the macrosystem (involving daily interactions between the three previously described systems); and, the chronosystem (the sociohistorical patterns of environmental events and transitions over the life of the teen that may affect her/him, such as divorce, working mothers, etc.). The Search Institute’s (2001) assets-based approach to teen development provides a strength-based approach to developing programs that effectively engage teens, rather than focusing on adolescent problems, deficits, and dysfunctions. The model identifies 40 critical factors for a young person’s positive growth and development, organized into 20 external assets (that teens receive from people and institutions in their lives) and 20 internal assets (internal qualities that guide the choices they make and create a sense of centeredness, purpose, and focus). The external assets include the four categories of support, empowerment, boundaries, and expectations; the internal assets include commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity.

Community-based organizations (including volunteer and service based programs) are excellent learning laboratories for teen citizens to become engaged in volunteerism and service. Chambers and Phelps (1994) argued that community-based organizations have contributed a great deal to the development of youth actively engaged in their communities. The authors stated that the organizations provided opportunities for youth to “test their judgment under pressure in the face of opposition” and “to exercise responsibilities and perhaps to try out one or another of the skills required for leadership” (p. 53). Youth engaged in social activism through volunteerism and service also increase cultural and social awareness and personal and social skills.
Collins and Branham (1999) suggested creating collaborative opportunities, inclusive of youth and adults, as being an essential avenue towards enhancing youth civic engagement, which influences the betterment of the entire community. The “New Millennium Project” reported that young people believe that utilizing a participatory approach to teaching government courses would encourage youth involvement in the community (Branson, 1999). By participating in a communal process of decision-making, the sense of ownership and empowerment through self-fulfillment increases through the understanding of its outcomes (Kothari, 1996). Gardner (1995) also concurred that young people need to be a part of the decision-making process. Developmentally, providing youth the opportunity to participate, lends to fulfilling the need of belonging, self-esteem and independence (Kothari, 1996).

**Distance Education in Non-formal Youth Development**

Horner and Roberts (1991) wrote about the use of e-learning to bridge disparate audiences. The authors examined a case study of educational technology in Honduras, Indonesia, and various European countries. The promoted technology included radio instruction, satellite systems, and computers. The researchers found that cultural styles and beliefs strongly influenced an individual’s reaction and relation to the material presented. Franklin and Strenski (2000) expanded on this notion of understanding an international perspective. Their work emphasized the creation of an international perspective while attempting to meet “diverse users’ needs.” E-learning aimed at international students cannot be focused solely around American educational beliefs and practices. The curriculum and products must be culturally relevant, and be flexible enough to be integrated into a variety of styles. This understanding of the educational environment is crucial to the global outreach efforts of e-learning.

Palloff and Pratt (1999) wrote extensively about the results of the e-learning revolution. The authors discuss the evolution of e-learning into a medium in which educational resources were being communicated to disparate audiences. E-learning has created a very strong virtual contact. While devoid of actual physical contact, this virtual contact allowed for the spreading of information, the teacher-student relationship, and also the emotions that go along with the learning process. Brewer, DeJonge and Stout (2001) extended the ideas of Palloff and Pratt in terms of the importance of student understanding. The authors noted that e-learning cannot exist outside of the context of a learning environment. The theory of learning interdependence is presented in which facilitators stress the need for interaction between teachers and learners. In this method, the authors stressed that an e-learning community goes beyond mere acquisition of knowledge, but extends to include the development of “skills to comprehension, application, analysis, and even synthesis.”

Smith, Bucklin and Associates, Inc. (2000) focused upon the use of Web-based technological media in non-profit organizations for program delivery, especially for targeted youth audiences. “One of the primary advantages of the Web as an educational tool is that the younger generations are comfortable with it. . . . The Web also appeals to their tendency to be visually oriented and interactive in their learning environment” (p. 131). The authors highlighted the enormous benefits of Web-based programs to community non-profit educational organizations regarding learning being available anytime, anyplace. “Thanks to
the Web, learning is no longer confined to the classroom or tied to the calendar or clock . . . learning can now occur at any place at any time, at the convenience of both the student and the teacher” (p. 131).

Moore, et al. (2001) also focused on adapting a unique e-learning environment to the high school level. The authors described the adaptation from a university curriculum to a high school curriculum, emphasizing two main points. Primarily, the authors claimed that group work with e-learning curriculum is the most beneficial way to proceed. Since e-learning is relatively new and innovative, it is best for students not to be solitary and unsupported in their online education. There is an emphasis on students and teachers working together in developing and understanding the curriculum. Understanding that youth often have a higher level of comfort and knowledge base about the workings and potential of computers, it is important to stress collaboration. Green and Brown (2002) reiterated this point by bringing in all levels of multimedia. The authors detail the importance of utilizing different perspectives and understandings of technology from both the youth and adult perspective. Since youth understand technology from a different point of view, they are able to provide a unique and directed perspective which may not be captured by adult educators.

Research Purpose, Objectives, and Methodology

The purpose of this exploratory, descriptive correlational research was to investigate teen participants’ reactions to two initial TRY-IT! modules regarding eight specific criteria for assessing Web-based programs. The researchers developed a quantitative methodology using a written questionnaire to collect data. Questionnaire development followed guidelines suggested by de Vaus (1996) and was based upon constructs suggested by Jukes, Dosaj and Macdonald (2000) as well as Hall’s (1997) eight criteria for evaluating Web-based training. These criteria included: (1) content, (2) instructional design, (3) interactivity, (4) navigation, (5) motivational components, (6) use of media, (7) evaluation, and (8) aesthetics. The instrument consisted of two sections: Section I: five items for each of the seven constructs (for a total of 35 items) that used a 5 point Likert-type scale to measure respondent attitudes; and Section II: five additional items collecting data on respondents’ selected personal characteristics (gender, age, race/ethnicity) and program variables (current status as a NC 4-H Ambassador and current status as a county 4-H TRY Team member.)

The researchers established the instruments’ face validities by using a panel of national distance learning experts in Cooperative Extension and/or youth development. The instrument’s reliability was established by calculating Cronbach’s alphas (as indicators of internal consistency) from the data collected. The researchers modified the instrument slightly based upon input from the panel of experts and pilot study results.

The researchers used a non-probability, convenience sample of 67 teen leaders who attended the 2003 North Carolina State 4-H Congress, July 21-25 on the campus of North Carolina State University in Raleigh. Participants were from a mixture of rural and non-rural NC counties. The group consisted of 24 males and 43 females; two (self-identified) Hispanic Americans, 15 African Americans, 49 whites, and 1 non-reported; and eight 13 year olds; 11, 14 year olds; 12, 16 year olds; seven, 17 year olds; and 11, 18 year olds. Data collection followed procedures suggested by Kraut (1996), McNabb (2002), and Rea and Parker (1997). The researchers collected data during two, three-hour workshops
conducted by the project’s Instructional Designer on Tuesday, July 22 (9:00 a.m. – 12:00 noon and 1:00 – 4:00 p.m.) in a campus-based computer laboratory. The researchers entered all data into a personal computer and calculated descriptive statistics to satisfy the research objectives. Cronbach alpha’s for the holistic instrument as well as its respective constructs were calculated as: overall: .92; content: .61; instructional design: .65; interactivity: .63; navigation: .64; motivation: .78; media use: .72; evaluation: .63; and, aesthetics: .74. The researchers used Davis’ conventions (1971) to describe strengths of relationships calculated between construct summated scores and selected personalogical variables.

Findings and Conclusions

(The researchers caution the reader concerning drawing inferences about this exploratory research to any teen population other than the research participants.) Table 1 lists means, standard deviations, and ranges for participants’ assessment of each of the two modules’ respective evaluation components. Participants evaluated each component as being above average, with individual mean scores ranging from 7.51 (on a scale of 2-10) to 20.45 (on a scale of 8-30). All measured median points were well above the median points of the respective scale ranges.

Table 2 lists correlations calculated between selected variables. The researchers calculated very strong positive associations between the overall summative score and participants’ gender (.841), current training as a 4-H teen leader (.901), and race/ethnicity (.932). A negligible positive association (.022) was calculated between the overall summative score and participants’ age.

The researchers calculated substantial positive associations between participants’ gender and construct scores for the modules’ interactivity (.570), motivation (.617), media use (.585) and evaluation (.574); participants’ current training as a 4-H teen leader and the modules’ content (.565) and motivation (.558); and participants’ race/ethnicity and the modules’ content (.606), instructional design (.507), media use (.610), and aesthetics (.523).

As a result of these unexpected substantial associations, the researchers calculated stepwise multiple regression of the dependent variable “overall assessment of TRY-IT! pilot modules” on the independent variables of gender and race/ethnicity (Table 3.) Analysis revealed that 12% of the variance in the “overall assessment” was accounted for by the independent variable of race; 8% of the variance in the “overall assessment” was accounted for by the independent variable of gender.
### Table 1. Measures of central tendency (means) and variance (possible and observed ranges, standard deviations) for TRY-IT! Module constructs as calculated from pilot test data (n = 67)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Possible Range</th>
<th>Measured Range</th>
<th>Median Range Point</th>
<th>Mean (std. dev.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>0 – 25</td>
<td>13 – 25</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>20.03 (3.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Design</td>
<td>0 – 25</td>
<td>10 – 25</td>
<td>17.50</td>
<td>18.45 (3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactivity</td>
<td>0 – 20</td>
<td>7 – 20</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>15.13 (2.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navigation</td>
<td>0 – 20</td>
<td>9 – 20</td>
<td>14.50</td>
<td>16.21 (2.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0 – 30</td>
<td>8 – 30</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>20.45 (4.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Use</td>
<td>0 – 20</td>
<td>7 – 20</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>15.29 (3.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>0 – 25</td>
<td>11 – 25</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>18.22 (3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>0 - 10</td>
<td>2 – 10</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>7.51 (1.9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Correlations between TRY-IT! module construct summated scores and selected personalogical variables as calculated from pilot test data (n = 67)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>.841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Design</td>
<td>.466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactivity</td>
<td>.570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navigation</td>
<td>.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Use</td>
<td>.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>.487</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Point-biserial correlation coefficient; 2 Pearson product-moment coefficient

### Table 3. Regression of the dependent variable “overall assessment of TRY-IT pilot modules” on the independent variables race/ethnicity and gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>(Stepwise Entry)</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>R² Change</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race/Ethnicity a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>12.268</td>
<td>2.575</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard error = 18.27; Adjusted R² = .175

a AFRICAM: 0 = All others 1 = African American, non-Hispanic
HISPAN: 0 = All others 1 = Hispanic
WHITE: 0 = All others 1 = White, non-Hispanic
Comparison group: Other

b FEMALE: 0 = All others 1 = Female
Comparison Group: Male

Table 3. Regression of the dependent variable “overall assessment of TRY-IT pilot modules” on the independent variables race/ethnicity and gender.
Based upon this initial assessment, the researchers conclude that:
1) The research instrument developed is both valid and reliable, with Cronbach alphas suggesting strong internal consistency as an indicator of reliability;
2) The two initial modules assessed by teen participants are well planned and constructed. None of the eight individual constructs (based upon Hall, 1997) assessed were evaluated by teens as being below the mean point of the respective construct’s median range score;
3) The two modules integrate a balanced combination of effective target objectives (i.e., content), teaching pedagogies (i.e., interactivity, motivation, and evaluation), and Web based instructional design (i.e., instructional design, navigation, media use, and aesthetics.)
4) Current training as a 4-H teen leader has a substantial positive relationship to participants’ evaluation of the two pilot modules. The researchers are not surprised by this finding since most county and state 4-H teen leadership trainings address some aspect of either or both the two pilot modules’ content areas (i.e., leadership and teaching/learning).
5) The researchers consider the substantial positive relationships calculated initially between participants’ evaluation of the two pilot modules potentially problematic. Ideally, the researchers would desire that neither gender nor race/ethnicity should bias participants’ attitudes of the modules’ content, teaching pedagogies, or instructional design. Subsequent regression analysis alleviated the researchers’ fears somewhat when they calculated that only 20% of the variance in the participants’ assessment of the two pilot modules was attributed to race (12%) and gender (8%). While the modules contained no overt visual images or written terms that could be perceived by participants as sexist or racist, and no participants commented as such during the pilot evaluation sessions, the researchers will nonetheless monitor these potential aspects closely during the development and pilot assessment of all future modules developed.

In conclusion, the researchers plan to continue the development of remaining TRY-IT! modules based upon the development of the two pilot modules. From this exploratory research, the researchers are even more firmly convinced of the potential of Web-based curricula such as TRY-IT! in reaching teen audiences that may be separated by time and geographic location. The concept has enormous potential for geographically separated international Extension and youth development programs in that core curriculum may be shared and accessed 24/7 via the Web, while each separate culture may apply the content to its unique societal and cultural contexts.

Selected References


