INCREASING PROTECTIVE FACTORS IN "AT-RISK" YOUTH THROUGH AN
AFTER-SCHOOL PROGRAM THAT COMBINES CARING ADULTS, PHYSICAL
ACTIVITY AND SPORTS, AND INITIATIVE BUILDING

DISSERTATION

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By

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ABSTRACT

Many youth are growing up amidst adversity (National Research Council, 2002) and risk factors such as poverty, violence, single-parent homes, and substance abuse (Anderson-Butcher, 2000; Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992). Poor economic and family circumstances prove challenging to the positive development of these youth (National Research Council, 2002). Thus, these youth have been labeled "at risk" (National Research Council, 2002). They face numerous challenges with few personal and economic resources to buffer them from the negative consequences of such circumstances (National Research Council, 2002; Quinn, 1998; Siedentop, 2001). However, some research indicates that as youth build protective factors, theses negative consequences are lessened (Blum et al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1999; Garmezy et al., 1984; Jessor et al., 1995; Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). Still, the creation of programs aimed at developing protective factors in youth and empirical examination of programs' effectiveness is an understudied area (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 1999; Hattie, Marsh, Neill, & Richards, 1997; Roth et al., 1998). This study examined an after-school program designed to increase protective factors in youth.

A quasi-experimental research design was coupled with qualitative observations and interviews in this study. An after-school sports program focusing on teaching the social skills cooperation and self-control was offered to 4th and 5th graders attending Deuce Elementary School, a low-performing school in the Rabat Public School District. Twelve students received the treatment (after-school physical activity program including the presence of caring adults and initiative building) 20 times over the course of 15 weeks. Eleven students self-selected into the control group that received no treatment. All 23 students were given The Social Skills Rating System, a self-report questionnaire assessing children's social skill behaviors two times throughout the study: before the after-school program began and immediately after the program ended. A MANCOVA was used to determine if the after-school program was successful in increasing the youths' social skills (cooperation and self-control). Additionally, observations and interviews were analyzed to determine whether the youths demonstrated any behavior changes. Finally, the qualitative data was also used to determine which components of the after-school program were effective in attracting and retaining the youths as well as bringing about the changes in behavior.

Quantitative results showed no significant differences in cooperation and self-control as a result of participation in the after-school program. Qualitative findings, however, demonstrated increases in cooperation and self-control throughout the treatment. Furthermore, these findings showed that a combination of caring adults and physical activity and sports attracted the youths to the program and were most effective in bringing about behavioral changes. Future research should be directed at enhancing one-on-one mentoring in youth sports programs.

Dedicated to my parents
Frank and Sharon Pace
and my siblings
Joe and Lisa Marie Pace

always remember how much your friendship and assistance has meant to me. To Kevin Lorson, my first friend at The Ohio State University, thank you for sharing this experience with me and being here for me for the past three years.

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INTRODUCTION

Approximately 29% of the United States population is comprised of youths under the age of 19 (US Census Bureau, 2000). Many of these youths are growing up amidst adversity (National Research Council, 2002) and risk factors such as poverty, violence, single-parent homes, and substance abuse (Anderson-Butcher, 2000; Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992). Poor economic and family circumstances prove challenging to the positive development of these youths (National Research Council, 2002). Thus, these youths have been labeled "at-risk" (National Research Council, 2002). At-risk youths possess risk factors that act as early warning signs placing them at-risk of developing problem behaviors (Blum, Beuhring, & Rinehart, 2000; Fraser, Richman, & Galinsky, 1999; Jessor, VanDenBos, Venderryn, Costa, & Turbin, 1995). Youths who grow up in urban neighborhoods typically lack resources that are available to their more advantaged peers (Leventhal & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). Therefore, urban youths are at a greater risk of developing both social and psychological problem behaviors (Wandersman & Nation, 1998).

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The parents and families of poor urban youths are struggling to meet their children's needs as their own overwhelming needs override their ability to address the needs of their children (Halpern, Spielberger, & Robb, 1998). As an example, in 1999 single mothers headed 27% of households (National Research Council, 2002) and approximately 16% of youths lived at or below the poverty level (US Census Bureau, 2000). These youths have fewer resources than their more advantaged peers. Additionally, economic isolation and racism that many urban youths are exposed to amplifies their at-risk conditions (Martinek, 1997).

Furthermore, urban youths today face many challenges (such as poverty and transience) as a result of circumstances of which they are living. These challenges are highest for non-college bound youths and ethnic minorities, especially African-Americans and Hispanics. Little institutional support is offered for their transition into adulthood. Additionally, youths' access to drugs and alcohol has increased and they are surrounded by a culture of violence as seen in television, movies, video games, and music. Finally, there are more youth gangs leading to more violent acts by and against youths (National Research Council, 2002).

The presence of risk factors in youths ultimately leads to problem behaviors such as poor grades, truancy, early onset of substance use and sexual activity, and violent behaviors (National Research Council, 2002). Consequently, problem behaviors result in negative outcomes such as dropping out of school, teenage pregnancies, and violent crimes (Burt, Resnick, and Novick, 1998).

However, studies have shown that the presence of protective factors may mediate or ameliorate the effects of risk factors, breaking the chain leading to negative outcomes (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001). Unfortunately, many at-risk youths living in urban areas lack the protective factors that will mediate their risks and give them the competence to become resilient. Resilient youths have overcome inherent risks and adversity in their lives adapting to stress and their environment. Ultimately, these youths grow up to be healthy, productive adults (Garmezy, Masten, & Tellegen, 1984; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992).

Statement of the Problem

Thus, it is clear from the above discussion that many urban youths can be labeled as "at-risk". They face numerous challenges with few personal and economic resources to buffer them from the negative consequences of such circumstances (National Research Council, 2002; Quinn, 1999; Siedentop, 2001). Some research indicates that as youths build protective factors, theses negative consequences are lessened (Blum et al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1999; Garmezy et al., 1984; Jessor et al., 1995; Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). However, the creation of programs aimed at developing specific protective factors in youths and empirical examinations of programs' effectiveness is an understudied area (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 1999; Hattie, Marsh, Neill, & Richards, 1997; Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster,1998). Much more research is needed to determine the outcomes of these programs as well as the best practices and effectiveness of different types of programs.

Brief Background Information

The following provides a brief overview of risk, resilience, and protective factors as well as practices related to promoting positive youth development. This background information was utilized to mold the purpose of the study.

Risk Factors and Risk

Risk factors are signs or indicators inherent in youths that increase the likelihood children will develop an emotional or behavioral disorder (Garmezy, 1983; Smith & Carlson, 1997). Risk factors increase individual vulnerability (Rutter, 1987) and predict undesirable behaviors leading directly to negative outcomes (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001). They can be found within the individual, peer, family, neighborhood, school, and community systems or interactions with the environment (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Werner, 1982). Risk factors act as early warning signs and place youths at risk of developing problem behaviors (Blum et al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1999; Jessor et al., 1995). According to Jessor (1991), risk factors present in youths' lives lead to risky behaviors. Risky behaviors ultimately lead to health or life compromising outcomes such as disease or illness, school failure, early pregnancies, and social isolation. Eventually, risk reaches a critical threshold making youths' transition into adulthood difficult (Dryfoos, 1990; Jessor, 1993).

Resilience

Several studies that longitudinally followed youth from birth to adulthood revealed that despite possessing multiple risk factors, a number of youths have overcome their predisposition for risky behaviors and negative outcomes becoming healthy, productive adults (Garmezy et al., 1984; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). These

youths have been labeled resilient. Resilience is successful adaptation despite risk and adversity (Masten, 1994). Resilient youths are able to adapt to stressful life events regardless of their living conditions. They are able to "respond actively and positively to life conditions, stress, and trauma…able to bounce back and continue to approach life with positive actions" (Christiansen, Christiansen, & Howard; 1997; p.87).

Resilient youths have been characterized in three ways (Masten, Best, & Garmezy, 1991). First, they exhibit coping skills. Coping is the ability of youths to restore or maintain equilibrium despite being exposed to significant stress or threat.   Second, resilient youths have recovered from a traumatic event such as abuse or a death in the family. Finally, the presence of protective factors in resilient youth modifies or nullifies risk factors that may also be present in their lives.

Various terms have been used to describe resilient youths. According to Masten and Coatsworth (1998), resilient youths exhibit both competence and developmental successes. Competence is effective adaptation in the environment (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Youths may be deemed competent if they experience reasonable success with major developmental tasks or if they demonstrate specific domains of achievement. Developmental success can be measured in three domains. First, youths' social competence with peers is a determinant of success. Youths that are capable of positive peer relations will experience increased developmental success. Second, rule-governed behavior is a marker of developmental success. Resilient youths conduct themselves in socially appropriate ways. Finally, developmental success can be measured by academic achievement (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Therefore, it follows that social competence

such as cooperation, self-control as evidenced by following rules, and academic

achievement can be viewed as protective factors that ultimately increase resiliency in

youths that possess risk factors and display risky behaviors.

Protective Factors

At-risk youths who overcome their adversity possess protective factors that

enhance their resiliency (Blum et al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1999; Jessor et al., 1995:

Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). Protective

factors are mechanisms that help operationalize resilience (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher,

2001). They are assets that lead to positive behaviors and help youths to overcome their

risks (Allen-Meares, Washington, & Welch, 2000).

According to Burt and colleagues (1998), problem behaviors and negative

outcomes can be moderated by the presence of protective factors. Possession of these

factors leads to the resilience of youths that would otherwise be labeled "at-risk." In other

words, protective factors work by acting as buffers that help minimize the effects of risk

factors (Benard, 1993), by mollifying the effects of risk factors that youths are exposed to,

and by reducing the occurrence of risk factors that youths encounter in the first place

(Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001). Ultimately, having protective factors decreases the

possibility of negative outcomes that are typically associated with risk factors.

Lawson and Anderson-Butcher (2001) identified three distinct categories of

protective factors. Individual protective factors include self-esteem, social skills,

autonomy, intelligence, and optimism. Family protective factors include parental support

and family attachment. Environmental protective factors include associating with pro-social peer groups, involvement in positive activities, and being a part of a caring school and neighborhood.

Youth Development

Positive youth development is the focus on healthy adolescent development (Roth et al., 1998) and on desired outcomes for youths (Roth et al., 1998) by teaching engagement in pro-social behaviors and the avoidance of health compromising and future jeopardizing behaviors. The goal of positive youth development is to increase protective factors in youths while reducing risk factors. Ultimately, positive youth development will lead to increased competencies and resilience in youths (Roth et al., 1998).

Research has identified several youth development strategies that have been successful in increasing protective factors while simultaneously decreasing risk factors. The following are brief descriptions of after-school programs, the presence of caring adults, physical activity and sports, and initiative building; positive youth development strategies that have been identified in the literature.

After-school programs. The majority of youths' time is spent after school hours (Miller, 2001). Substantial amounts of unstructured leisure time during these hours may lead to negative health consequences in youths (Blum et al., 2000). It follows that using after school time for productive activities may extend learning opportunities (Miller, 2001). After-school programs are ideal for extended learning opportunities because they offer membership in small groups, voluntary participation, chances to experiment with new learning content and materials, and opportunities to build relationships with peers and other adults (Noam, Biancarosa, & Dechausay, 2002).

After-school programs may promote positive youth development in at-risk youths. These programs expose impoverished youths to increased opportunities as well as offer them adult guidance while simultaneously enhancing skill development and teaching youths about the world outside of their neighborhoods (Halpern et al., 1998). After-school programs have the capacity to strengthen multiple protective factors in children leading to resiliency. Holland and Andre (1987) found that participation in extracurricular activities encourages positive youth development because youths are able to play with peers in a less structured environment than school while still receiving adult supervision.

However, to be successful in decreasing risk among youths, the focus of these programs must be on positive youth development and the enrichment of protective factors. Further, targeted programming aimed at increasing specific protective factors must be planned and executed in order for the enrichment to occur. With this in mind, several aspects of successful after-school programs are delineated below.

Presence of caring adults. A mentor can be defined as "any caring person who develops an on-going, one-on-one relationship with someone in need" (Smink, 1990, p. 1). Research has demonstrated that the presence of supportive, caring adults who act as mentors to youths contribute to positive outcomes for youths who are labeled "at-risk." Additionally, the presence of caring adults in youths' lives act as protective factors that increase resilience in these youth (Burt et al., 1998). Beier, Rosenfeld, Spitalny, Zanksy, and Bontemmpo (2000) found that mentored youths were less likely to engage in risky behaviors such as smoking, drug use, carrying weapons, and engaging in unsafe sex than their un-mentored peers. Furthermore; Zimmerman, Bingenheimer, and Notaro (2002)

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found youths that had been mentored had more positive attitudes towards school, and were less likely to use alcohol, marijuana, and become delinquent. It is apparent from these and other studies that youth mentoring is a valuable youth development tool. Additionally, after-school programs offer caring adults an environment conducive to mentoring youths.

Physical activity and sports. Sport has been defined as the "broad array of physical cultural practices involving the body, including forms of informal as well as semi-structured play and games" (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2000, p. 2). Participation in physical activity and sport is a vital component of effective after-school programs (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2000). Furthermore, sport is an excellent medium to attract youths to after-school programs (Lawson, 1998; Martinek & Hellison, 1997). "Play, games, sport, exercise, outdoor pursuits, other physical activities, and practices involving body cultures are powerful magnets for children, youth, and their families." (Lawson, 1998, p. 18). This is especially true for minority youths and youths who live in poverty because sport is seen as a means of upward mobility (Lawson, 1998). Sport acts as a valuable and unique teaching and learning domain (Collingwood, 1996). Additionally, the multiple interdisciplinary approach of physical activity provides resources for cultural, physical, educational, and social enrichment (Martinek, 1997).

Much research has been done to link physical activity and sport to positive youth development. Lawson and Anderson-Butcher (2000) stated, "sport participation may promote the healthy enhancement of individuals, the well being of families, safety, security, and vibrancy of local neighborhood communities" (p. 1). Additionally, these authors discussed the ability of sport leaders to build supports to meet risk areas while

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building upon the protective factors youths possess. In this way, sport can be used as an intervention to increase protective factors and decrease risk factors to which youths may be exposed.

For instance, sport is also a medium for developing positive values and life skills (Collingwood, 1996). Sport programs that focus on developing self-esteem, social skills, initiative, positive peer relationships, and an optimistic view of the future will enhance positive youth development (Martinek, 1997). Martinek and Hellison (1997) found that physical activity is a medium for promoting growth and optimism within school and community programs. Optimism is a competency that is frequently found in resilient children (Benard, 1993).

Lawson and Anderson-Butcher (2000) suggested that there is a link between physical activity and sport and a number of positive behaviors. Participation in sport may be related to the prevention of problem behaviors. Additionally, physical activity may alleviate some risk factors. Consequently, youths' exposure to risk factors may decrease as a result of participation in sports programs that focus on developing self-esteem, social skills, initiative building, positive peer relations, and optimistic views for the future.

Initiative building. The best practices of youth development incorporate various strategies. Youth development programs that integrate strategies such as putting youths in leadership roles and giving them opportunities to become leaders, using decision-making skills, and learning the importance of self-control culminate in the achievement of positive outcomes (McWhirter, McWhirter, McWhirter, & McWhirter, 1998). Successful youth development programs allow youths to develop academic skills through structured activities that provide challenges to youths (McLaughlin, 2000).

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Initiative development is a youth development strategy that can be used to lead youths to positive and productive adulthoods (Larson, 2000). "Initiative is the devotion of cumulative effort over time to achieve a goal." (Larson, 2000, p. 172). There are three elements to initiative development. First, youths must be intrinsically motivated; they must see a reason for doing the activity and want to do it. Second, the youths must have a concerted engagement in the environment. They must be devoting time and effort to a tangible goal. Finally, there must be a temporal arc. The youths must see an outcome over time.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to develop and test an after-school physical activity program that utilized the presence of caring adults and initiative building strategies to determine whether the intervention increased protective factors in inner city youths. The intervention specifically targeted two protective factors that are associated with social skills, which have been shown to enhance resiliency in at-risk youths: cooperation and self-control. Additionally, providing youths with exposure to caring adults is also considered a protective factor.

Research Questions

Various data were collected to help answer the following three research questions.Will an after school physical activity program with caring adults and initiative building enhance the protective factors of cooperation and self-control in urban elementary youths who have been labeled at-risk? What behavioral changes related to cooperation and self-control were apparent in youths as a result of participating in an after-school program combining physical activity, the presence of caring adults, and

initiative building? Finally, which components of the after-school program attract youths to the program keeping them interested in attending the program? Additionally, which components of the program impacted the students' learning of the social skills cooperation and self-control and the behaviors that demonstrate their learning?

Significance of the Study

Youths' involvement in alternative activities provides opportunities for them to participate in contributing to society (Hawkins et al., 1992). One viable opportunity for youths to be involved in activities is through the after-school programming of physical activity and sports and initiative building. Furthermore, after-school programs offer youths exposure to caring adults, exposure that may lead to increased protection in at-risk youths. The benefits of an after-school program combining physical activity, the presence of caring adults, and initiative building that was examined in this study should combine to enhance youths' protective factors that will ultimately foster resiliency in youths that face adversity.

Programs such as the treatment that was offered in this study enhance protective factors for a number of reasons: they provide safe havens, give youths opportunities for involvement, offer youths role models and relationships with caring adults, enhance family support, and build developmental assets and social competencies in youths. These programs also work because as a result of their curriculum and programming they get youths, and sometimes their families, to attend. Furthermore, sport and recreation, activities that are frequently included in after-school programs, act as a medium for positive youth development (Anderson-Butcher, 2000).

The findings of this study are important because the presence of protective factors has been associated with fewer risk factors and increased resilience in youths (Blum et al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1999; Jessor et al., 1995; Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). Increasing youths' protective factors will simultaneously modify or ameliorate their exposure to risk and risk factors (Rutter, 1985) while also decreasing their engagement in risky behaviors that typically lead to negative outcomes such as substance abuse and early engagement in sexual activity (Burt et al., 1998). Therefore, the end result of an after-school program that increases protection in at-risk youths will be fewer negative consequences as a result of fewer problem behaviors.

Additionally, this study is significant because it demonstrates that by making a small investment early in the lives of youths; society might see huge social and economic dividends later in life. This is evident as it is apparent that youth development programs use out of school time to improve children, which in turn will improve society (Halpern, 2002). Participation in after-school youth development programs offers youths safe havens. Safe havens keep youths off the streets and away from gangs and gang-related violence (Halpern, Barker, & Mollard, 2000), ultimately decreasing gang involvement. Reduced gang involvement will strengthen communities and society as a whole. The focus of after-school programs on youth development includes building social and vocational skills, talent, and life skills that will help youths to become productive members of society as adults (Halpern, 2002). According to Miller, O'Conner, Sirignano, and Joshi (1996) after-school programs offer youths the opportunity to overcome the risks that are associated with poverty; risks that have been cyclical in nature. After-school programs help under-privileged youths to achieve both academically and socially

(Halpern, 2002), leading to success later in life. Consequently, the end result of an effective after-school youth development program such as the one provided by this study is that youths who have previously been labeled "at-risk" will now be considered resources to be developed rather than problems to be solved (Miller, 2001).

Definition of Terms

Independent Variable

The independent variable, or the treatment, in this study was a combination of the following four components:

1. After-school program,

2. Presence of caring adults,

3. Physical activity and sports, and

4. Initiative building.

After-school program. Fourth and fifth grade elementary school students voluntarily chose to receive the treatment by signing up for the after-school program. Thirty youths initially signed up for the program, however, only between nine and 15 students attended regularly. Twelve youths who attended 13 or more after-school sessions self-selected into the treatment group by choosing to attend the program.

The after-school program met twice a week (Thursdays and Fridays, except for school holidays) from October 31st through December 19th, 2002 (7 weeks). The program was not held over the students' school break, but resumed on Friday, January 3rd, 2003 and continued to meet every Friday through February 28th (8 more weeks) for a total of 20 after-school sessions in 15 weeks. Each session lasted from 3:30 to 5:30 P.M. Sessions consisted of an awareness talk, snack time, physical activities, time to plan and

carry out a group agreed upon initiative, and a group meeting including debriefing and self-reflection. The program culminated with a field day (initiative) that was planned for younger students by the students in the after-school program treatment.

Presence of caring adults. A group leader (the researcher) provided the after-school program along with the help of various assistants. Three assistants attended the program regularly. In addition to these four adults, other adults attended and helped out with the program when they were available. The role of these adults was to facilitate the learning of the social competencies (cooperation and self-control) through the media of physical activity and sport and initiative building activities while providing a safe and caring environment for the participants. Additionally, the leader and assistants served as caring adults to the youths enrolled in the program.

Physical activity and sports. Each session used participation in physical activity and sports as a medium to teach the social competencies (cooperation and self-control). Various activities, sports, and games were introduced to the students throughout the 20 sessions. These activities were selected with the intent of providing the participants with an environment that allowed them to learn and practice the desired social competencies (cooperation and self-control). Within each session, the instructor incorporated instruction of the social competencies into the lesson plan and gave the students opportunities to practice them throughout the session. A debriefing period during which the adults asked the students questions about skills relating to each activity ended each session.

Initiative building. Finally, each session included an initiative building component. During this component, the group planned and developed a long-term goal (a field day) that was agreed upon by the group. Students used the social competencies that they learned and practiced along with the guidance of the caring adults to carry out their long-term goal. A portion of most after-school sessions was devoted to the planning and development of this long-term goal. The students themselves directed and carried out the initiative building component. The group leader and assistants merely offered guidance and support for the carrying out of this goal.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this study included the social competencies, which are protective factors, cooperation and self-control. Both protective factors were measured twice (pre- and post- treatment) with the administration of the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) Student Form Elementary Level. The SSRS is a self-report instrument that uses student behaviors to simultaneously measure cooperation, assertion, empathy, and self-control (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). However, only cooperation and self-control were measured in this study. In addition to quantitative measurement of the dependent variables, qualitative accounts of the youths behavior changes based on observational journals were also collected and analyzed.

Cooperation. The SSRS uses behaviors such as helping others, sharing, and complying with rules and directions to measure youth's cooperation (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Examples of cooperative behaviors included in the SSRS include: "I listen to adults when they are talking with me" and "I avoid doing things with others that may get me in trouble with adults."

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Self-control. The SSRS uses behaviors such as responding appropriately to conflict and teasing, and taking turns and compromising to measure self-control (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Examples of behaviors referring to self-control that are included on the SSRS include: "I control my temper when people are angry with me" and "I politely question rules that may be unfair."

Limitations

The major limitations of this study stemmed from the lack of exposure that the students had to the treatment. Due to time constraints of the researcher and limitations imposed by the school, the treatment was only administered for 20 sessions over the course of 15 weeks. Additionally, the students only received the treatment first twice a week, then once a week creating a break of either five or six days between each treatment. It was difficult for both the students and the researcher to develop consistency with so much time between treatments.

Additional limitations resulted as a consequence of the study design. Because the participants in the proposed study were all minors, they had to obtain written consent to participate from a parent or guardian. If parents/guardians agreed to allow their child to participate in the treatment, it could mean that the children were already being exposed to some of the protective factors on which the treatment focused. Further limitations resulted from the self-selection of the students into the experimental or treatment group. Since time only allowed the researcher to run one group, the treatment group was determined by the attendance of students in the after school program. The individuals in the control group also self-selected as the students signed up for the program, but did not attend or quit shortly after beginning the program. Because the number of students in the

treatment group was only 12, the power of the overall results was reduced. Another limitation resulting from the self-selection of the students into the treatment and control groups is that the generalizability of the findings was reduced.

Other limitations resulted from the restrictions placed upon the after-school program due to the logistics of using a community organization and public school. For example, the program was supposed to focus on physical activity and sports. However, the program began late and was run throughout the winter. The space that was offered to the researcher was one small room for up to 12 students and the weather did not permit for the group to go outside very often. This space was not appropriate for physical activity and the curriculum of the program had to change frequently. The researcher also did not have access to very much equipment limiting the activities that could be done in the program.

Finally, there may be threats to validity that were caused by history. Although children in the control and experimental groups came from the same neighborhood and attended the same school, it could be that children in the treatment group were not exposed to the same experiences (outside of the treatment) as children in the control group. Additionally, children in the control group could have been exposed to the same experiences that the experimental group had through their friends who participated in the after-school program.

<div align="center">Delimitations</div>

The researcher planned and implemented the after-school sessions that were attended by the treatment group. This may make it difficult to replicate the treatment that was offered to the participants. Additionally, the researcher may have brought biases to

the study resulting from her knowledge of physical education, risk and resiliency, and the benefits of positive youth development programs. Finally, this study was delimited to students from a high-risk inner-city elementary school. Therefore, results will only be generalizable to students in a high-risk inner-city elementary school with similar characteristics.

Overview of Chapters

The following chapters document this study. Chapter 1 includes an introduction and statement of the problem, purpose statement, research question, significance of the study, definitions of terms, and limitations present in the study.

Chapter 2 provides a review of literature that is pertinent to this study. It includes literature on risk, resilience, and protective factors. Additionally, Chapter 2 reviews youth development programs including after-school programs, the presence of caring adults, the benefits of physical activity and sports, and initiative building. Chapter 2 provides critical background information regarding the treatment and study.

Chapter 3 gives a complete description of the methodology utilized in the study. This description begins with the type of research that was employed. Additionally, sampling method and a description of subjects are included in Chapter 3. Threats to internal and external validity as well as reliability procedures are also included in this chapter. More thorough descriptions of the independent and dependent variables and the measurement instrument that were used are also included in Chapter 3. Finally, Chapter 3 includes a discussion of data collection and analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. Both quantitative and qualitative data are presented in Chapter 4. Raw data as well as an analysis and interpretation of the data comprise this chapter.

Finally, Chapter 5 is a discussion of the results. The findings of the study are interpreted and discussed in relation to the background literature that was reviewed in Chapter 2. Additionally, implications and recommendations for future studies are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to determine whether an after-school program that incorporated physical activity, the presence of caring adults, and initiative building enhanced protective factors in at-risk youths. This chapter offers a review of literature that is pertinent to give the reader background information on at-risk youths as well as youth development programs that have been shown to work. Finally, this chapter will provide a comprehensive framework combining the best practices of youth development. This chapter is broken down into eight sections: (a) status of youths today, (b) risk factors and risk framework, (c) resilience, (d) protective factors, (e) youth development, (f) youth development programs, (g) positive youth development intervention and framework, and (g) best practices.

Status of Youth Today

The nation is failing many youths by under serving them. Youths that have been labeled "at-risk" do not have a sense of purpose or a vision of their possible future. Individuals who lack a purpose in life begin to believe that their lives are insignificant. Adolescents leave school feeling powerless. They are unable to make appropriate

decisions, demonstrate appropriate behaviors, and feel no control over their emotions. Under served youths become alienated and isolated and eventually resort to resignation and despair. They attempt to fill their sense of incompleteness with drugs and alcohol and by dropping out or tuning out of school (National Research Council, 2002).

Approximately 29% of the United States population is comprised of youths under the age of 19 (US Census Bureau, 2000). Poor economic and family circumstances prove challenging to the positive development of these youths (National Research Council, 2002). In 1999, single mothers headed 27% of households (National Research Council, 2002). Approximately 18% of youths lived at or below the poverty level and 38% of students were minorities, which intensifies their risks (National Research Council, 2002).

In addition to living in poor circumstances, many youths today have engaged in risky behaviors. Engagement in risky behaviors is accompanied by poor physical and mental health and varies with respect to race (National Research Council, 2002). The Youth Risk Behavior Survey (1999) is a national school-based survey that biennially assesses the risk behaviors of youths in six categories. In 1999, youths reported engaging in risky behaviors, such as smoking (34.8%) and drinking (50%), within the last month. Additionally, 19.3% of youths have had suicidal thoughts or attempts within the last year. A number of youths (5.2%) also reported feeling unsafe at school (Youth Risk Behavior Survey, 1999). The National Research Council (2002) reported that smoking and binge drinking is most prevalent among whites and Hispanics while homicides and acts of weapon related violence are seen most often in African American and Hispanic youths.

Reports on the sexual health of youths are not much more encouraging (Blum et al., 2000). About 50% of youths reported having their first sexual experience in high school resulting in increases in teen pregnancy and the contraction of sexually transmitted diseases. Challenges facing youths as well as problems in opportunity and access add to these poignant statistics relating to today's youths. Table 2.1 lists a number of the results from the 1999 Youth Risk Behavior Survey.

Risky Behavior	Youth Engaging in Behavior
Violence & Other Injuries	
Skipped school because felt unsafe	5.2%
Threatened or injured	7.7%
Depression	28.3%
Suicide considerations	19.3%
Tobacco Use	
Ever smoked	70.4%
Smoked 1 or more cigarettes in the past 30 days	34.8%
Alcohol & Other Drugs	
1st drink before the age of 13	13.2%
At least 1 drink in the past 30 days	50%
Used marijuana at least one	47.2%
Used marijuana before the age of 13	11.3% *(continued)*

Table 2.1

Risky Behaviors as Reported in the Youth Risk Behavior Survey (1999)

Table 2.1 *(continued)*

Risky Behavior	Youth Engaging in Behavior
Alcohol & Other Drugs (cont.)	
Used cocaine at least once	9.5%
Used cocaine in the past 30 days	4%
Used other substances at least once	14.6%
Used other substances in the past 30 days	4.2%
Sexual Behavior	
Has had sex ever	49.9%
Had first sexual intercourse before 13	8.3%
Has had sexual intercourse with 4 or more people	16.2%
Used a condom during last sexual intercourse	58%
Has been pregnant or fathered a child	6.3%

Adolescents in under served communities do not have access to the same programs, resources, opportunities, and supports that their affluent peers do (Hellison et al., 2000). Therefore, urban youths living in poverty are characterized by academic failure (National Research Council, 2002). Racial and ethnic group differences can be

seen in academic achievement with youths from poor inner cities and rural areas losing ground over the summer. These youths have fewer learning opportunities, less support at home, and limited parent interaction to enhance their academic success.

The parents and families of poor urban youths are struggling to meet their needs as their own overwhelming needs override their ability to address the needs of their children (Halpern et al., 1998). These youths already have fewer resources than their more advantaged peers. Economic isolation and racism that many urban youths are exposed to lead to at-risk conditions in youths (Martinek, 1997).

Youth development is also affected by youths' use of time (National Research Council, 2002). Only 20% of youths' time is spent in school (National Research Council, 2002). The remainder of urban youths' time is spent either watching television or "hanging out." Youths are increasingly being left both psychologically and physically on their own as out of school time is increasing (Halpern et al., 1998).

It can be concluded from the previous discussion that youths today face many challenges as a result of the circumstances that they are living in (National Research Council, 2002). These challenges are highest for non-college bound youths and ethnic minorities, especially African-Americans and Hispanics. Little institutional support is offered for their transition into adulthood. Additionally, youths' access to drugs and alcohol has increased and they are surrounded by a culture of violence as seen in television, movies, video games, and music. Finally, youths are participating in more gangs leading to more violent acts (National Research Council, 2002).

Ecological Systems Perspective

The ecological systems perspective of youth development asserts that youths do not grow up in a vacuum. Instead, they are constantly exposed to a variety of systems or environments affecting their development. Thus, youth development is jointly affected by the relationship of these environments and the individual's interaction with these environments. Therefore, when youths exhibit problem behaviors, professionals need to examine multiple environments in addressing the solution; rather than focusing on just one environment (Allen-Meares, Washington, & Welsh, 2000).

Various environments act on youths, ultimately affecting their positive development (Allen-Meares et al., 2000). These environments include family, peers, school, workplace, neighborhood, community, region and country. Youths live in these overlapping worlds and individuals and circumstances within these contexts either act as opportunities in their development or as barriers to positive health-related behaviors. A concerted effort needs to be made to address each of these environments in order to promote positive youth development (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). It is vital for all environments (family, school, peer group, and the media) to carry the same positive youth development message.

The ecological perspective of risk and protective factors takes into account and addresses all environments that youths come from, the communities they live in, and the level of institutional support that is available to them. Additionally, the ecological perspective considers the strengths and competencies of each individual youth as well as the protective factors that are available in the youth's environment (Burt et al., 1998).

Problems in Neighborhoods

Development of social and psychological problems is associated with living in inner cities (Wandersman & Nation, 1998). Since neighborhoods are building blocks of cities, ecological effects on youths have been found at neighborhood levels (Wandersman & Nation, 1998). Urban neighborhoods are distinguished by a lack of available resources and deterrents to positive social relationships (Leventhal & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). The neighborhood structural characteristics model shown in Figure 2.1 (Wandersman & Nation, 1998) demonstrates how neighborhood characteristics can lead to health problems. Neighborhood characteristics such as the number of families living in poverty (socioeconomic status), level of cultural heterogeneity (racial/ethnic composition), number of female headed households (residential patterns), and number of divorced adults (family disruption) are all predictors of severe neighborhood outcomes such as crime and violence (Block, 1979; Shihadeh & Steffensmeier, 1994; Wandersman & Nation, 1998). Social organization (including social control and common values), subcultural influences, and psychological stress (including stressful life events and insufficient resources) mediate these characteristics. Ultimately, few resources, high residential turnover rates, and high levels of cultural and ethnic heterogeneity result in social practices that lead to negative outcomes including a lack of primary relationships and stable support networks as well as a lack of neighborhood organizations and other sources of internal control and support (Wandersman & Nation, 1998). The end result is externalized problems such as child maltreatment, juvenile delinquency, and behavioral disorders in addition to internalized problems such as psychiatric hospitalization, depression, and even schizophrenia.

Mediating Processes

Neighborhood Characteristics Socioeconomic status Racial/Ethnic composition Residential patterns Family disruption	**Social Organization** Social control Common values **Subcultural Influences** **Psychological Stress** Stressful life events Insufficient resources	**Mental Health** **Externalized** Child Maltreatment Juvenile delinquency Behavioral disorders **Internalized** Psychiatric hospitalization Depression Schizophrenia

Figure 2.1. Neighborhood structural characteristics model (Wandersman & Nation, 1998).

An additional neighborhood model, the environmental stressor model (Figure 2.2) (Wandersman & Nation, 1998) emphasizes the role that chronic environmental stressors typically found in inner cities; such as noise, crowding, pollution, and high-rise housing; play in development. Individuals that continuously put up with these environmental stressors experience a stressful environment that leads to the depletion of residents' coping resources. Essentially, the end results are after-effects such as social isolation, less prosocial behavior, and decreased academic performance as well as mental health

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problems such as depression, aggression, childhood behavior problems, and psychiatric

symptoms (Wandersman & Nation, 1998). Both of the above neighborhood stressor

models indicate how environmental stress that results from growing up or living in inner

cities could lead to negative physical and mental health consequences.
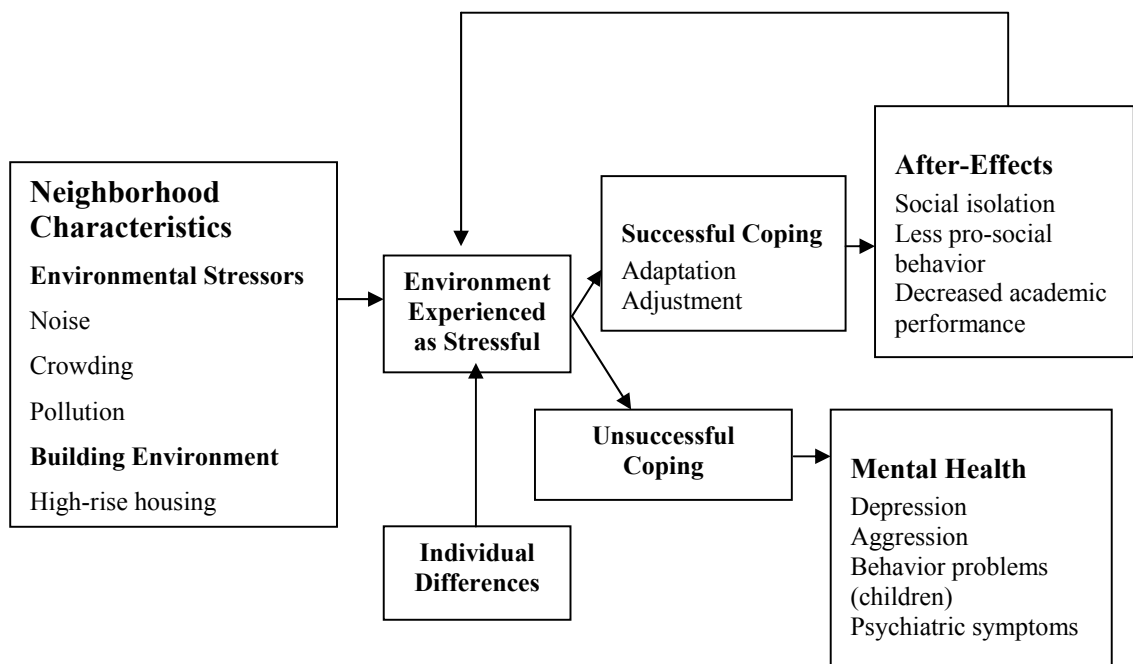
Figure 2.2. Environmental stressors model (Wandersman & Nation, 1998).

Lack of Opportunities

A lack of opportunities abides in these disenfranchised communities and

neighborhoods. Quinn (1999) described a number of problems that add to the bleak status

of youths today. The problems begin with a lack of constructive activities and meaningful

roles that are offered to youths by society. Youth development theory recommends that youths need opportunities for physical activity, development of competencies and achievement, self-defense, creative expression, positive social interaction with peers and adults, sense of structure and clear limits, and meaningful participation in authentic work experiences.

Barriers in Providing Programs

The National Research Council (2002) suggests that all youths need help, discipline, instruction, support, and caring. Families, schools, neighborhoods, and culture are valuable sources in providing these necessities to youths. Additionally, youth development programs offer these sources through special clubs and service programs, sports leagues, community service organizations, faith-based youth groups, academic enrichment programs, and other programs (National Research Council, 2002). However, many youths do not have access to these resources or programs.

Low participation. Unfortunately, a number of challenges have been identified in providing effective programs for youths (Quinn, 1999). Participation in youth development programs is low. Participation rates of males and females are equal. However, whites participate at higher rates than blacks and 40% of low-income youths do not participate in programs compared to only 17% of high-income youths (National Research Council, 2002). This research suggests that programs may not be meeting the needs and interests of youths, limiting their desire to participate.

Problems with access. Also, problems with access to programs are adding to low participation. Youths who are most in need of youth development programs have the least access to these programs (Siedentop, 2001). Barriers in access are related to

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transportation; location of services; safety considerations; fees for service; and lack of belonging due to race, gender, and physical disabilities. Another barrier faced by youth programs is that of funding. Those funds that are available to programs are frequently unpredictable and not sufficient to meet the needs of all youths. Additionally, funds are distributed unevenly across programs. Unfortunately, children living in poverty in inner cities suffer as a result of inadequate funding. Finally, youth development programmers are also faced with the challenge of developing effective programs as well as coordinating their services with other youth development service providers (Quinn, 1999).

Ultimately, these barriers in access and lack of opportunities can be linked back to neighborhood constraints. Insufficient resources preventing youths' participation in programs are a result of common inner city neighborhood characteristics such as low socioeconomic status, racial composition, and single family parents. Additionally, stressors such as noise, crowding, and pollution that are found in the inner cities lead to social isolation and less prosocial behaviors restricting participation in youth development programs.

<div align="center">Risk Factors and Risk Frameworks</div>

Risk Factors

It follows that youths living in inner cities are exposed to a number of risk factors as a result of the circumstances that they are living in. Risk factors are signs or indicators inherent in youths that increase the likelihood that they will develop an emotional or behavioral disorder (Garmezy, 1983; Smith & Carlson, 1997). Risk factors increase individual vulnerability (Rutter, 1987) and predict undesirable behaviors leading directly to negative outcomes (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001). Risk factors have also been

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called predictors, causes, correlates (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001), or processes (Rutter, 1987) as they are known to predict, cause, or be correlated to negative behaviors. However, the term risk factor has been used throughout this study in reference to any of the aforementioned terms for ease of understanding. Risk factors are found within the individual, peer, family, neighborhood, school, and community systems or interactions with the environment (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Werner, 1982). Table 2.2 gives examples of risk factors that are associated with the various levels described above.

Level	Risk Factor
Individual	Inability to take cues from others
	Economic deprivation
	Low bonding with others
	Attitudes favorable to drug use
	Early problem behaviors
	Early onset of drug use
Peer	Peer rejection
Family	Lack of family ties
	Long term unemployment for parents
	Family management practices
	Family conflict
Neighborhood	Living in an unsafe neighborhood
	Neighborhood disorganization

(continued)

Table 2.2

Risk Factors Associated with Negative Outcomes in Youth (Anderson-Butcher, 2000; Hawkins et al., 1992)

Table 2.2 (*continued*)

Level	Risk Factor
School	No strong social bonds at school
	Early difficulties in the classroom
	Academic or school failure
	Low commitment to school
Community Systems	Lack of strong social norms

Hawkins and colleagues (1992), in a study on youths' substance use and abuse, identified risk factors that predict youths' problem behaviors. In this benchmark study, the researchers revealed a number of contextual and individual or interpersonal risk factors. The researchers found the following factors to be associated with youths' alcohol and substance abuse: extreme economic deprivation, physiological factors, poor and inconsistent family management practices, family conflict, low bonding to family, early problem behaviors, academic failure, low degree of school commitment, and alienation. Many of these factors are characteristics that Wandersman and Nation (1998) identified as being present in individuals living in the inner cities.

Continuing with Hawkins and colleagues' (1992) work, Blum and colleagues (2000) used data from almost 11,000 white, African-American, and Hispanic youth and their parents to determine the effect of risk factors on problem behaviors. Race and ethnicity, income, and family structure (all of which are known to be typical risk factors) categorized the sample. These researchers reported a high degree of interrelationships among race, income, and family structure indicating that multiple risks frequently coexist. Surprisingly, however, they found that problem behaviors were predicted by other risk factors besides these well-known factors.

Risk Frameworks

Risk factors act as early warning signs that place youths at-risk of developing problem behaviors (Blum et al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1999; Jessor et al., 1995). Therefore, risk can be defined as the probability of youths developing problem behaviors over an extended period of time (Allen-Meares et al., 2000). Youths who are labeled "at-risk" possess risk factors that increase the likelihood of them engaging in problem behaviors resulting in negative outcomes.

Youth risk framework. Burt and colleagues (1998) have proposed a risk framework that can be applied to youths. This framework suggests that youths progress through four stages starting with antecedents and ending in negative outcomes. Antecedents are risks that are inherently present in youths' lives. These risks may exist at the community or family level. Examples of antecedents at the community level include violence, gang problems, and poverty. Antecedents at the family level include single-parent families, poverty, and transience. Antecedents frequently lead to system markers, which are early, measurable signs of difficulties that have been documented by

authorities such as schools. Examples of system markers are poor school attendance, truancy, and school failure. According to Burt and colleagues (1998), system markers eventually predict problem behaviors. Problem behaviors are youths' actions, such as violence and crime, which sometimes lead to negative consequences. Finally, Burt and colleagues' (1998) risk framework suggests that problem behaviors will lead to negative outcomes. Negative outcomes, such as dropping out of school, result in negative consequences in the future development of what could be responsible, self-sufficient adults. However, Burt and colleagues' (1998) risk framework also suggests that this process may be moderated by the presence of protective factors, which will be discussed later, limiting both problem behaviors and negative outcomes in "at-risk" youths.

Adolescent risk behavior model. Jessor (1991) described a similar adolescent risk behavior model. According to this model youths possess risk factors that lead to risky behaviors. Risky behaviors, in turn, lead to health or life compromising outcomes. Jessor's (1991) risk factors are the same as the antecedents described by Burt and colleagues (1998). In both models, the end product of risk factors (or antecedents) are negative outcomes resulting from youths' engagement in risky or problem behaviors. Table 2.3 demonstrates the relationship between risk factors, risk behaviors, and outcomes according to Jessor's (1991) model. The model shows how a risk factor (such as poverty) leads to a risky behavior (illicit drug use) finally resulting in a health or life compromising outcome (such as school failure).

Risk Factors	Risk Behaviors	Health/Life Compromising Outcomes
Poverty	Illicit drug use	School failure
Illegitimate Opportunity	Drunk driving	Legal trouble
Models for deviant behavior	Tobacco use	Low work skills
Low Perceived life chance	Delinquency	Unemployability
Risk taking propensity	Truancy	Disease/Illness
Poor school work	Unprotected sex	Early childbearing
Latchkey situations (due to		Social isolation
single parent families or two		Depression/Suicide
wage earner families)		Amotivation

Table 2.3

Adaptation of Jessor's Adolescent Risk Behavior Model (1991)

Although studies have linked risk factors to negative outcomes, research has

shown that the possession of single risk factors is not associated with negative outcomes.

However, the cumulative effect of multiple risk factors has been related to negative

outcomes (Cowen, 1983; Rutter, 1987; Smith & Carlson, 1997). Eventually, the

accumulation of risk factors in youths reaches a critical threshold making youths'

transition into adulthood difficult (Dryfoos, 1990; Jessor, 1993).

<center>Resilience</center>

Several studies that longitudinally followed youths from birth to adulthood

revealed that despite possessing multiple risk factors, a number of youths have overcome

their predisposition for risky behaviors and negative outcomes becoming healthy,

productive adults (Garmezy et al., 1984; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). These

youths have been labeled resilient. Resilient youths are able to overcome developmental

hazards and adversity without developing negative outcomes (Garmezy, 1983; Rutter,

1987; Werner & Smith, 1992).

Resilience has been defined as successful adaptation despite risk and adversity

(Christiansen et al., 1997; Masten, 1994). Resilient youths "overcome adversity to

achieve good developmental outcomes" (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998, p. 205). They are

able to adapt to stressful life events regardless of their living conditions. Despite being

exposed to risks, resilient youths have the ability to bounce back (Benard, 1993). They

are able to "respond actively and positively to life conditions, stress, and trauma…able to

bounce back and continue to approach life with positive actions" (Christiansen et al.,

1997, p. 87). Research suggests that resilient youths are capable of overcoming their risky

circumstances and becoming successful adults.

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Masten and colleagues (1991) characterize resilient youths as individuals that have the following characteristics. First, resilient youths must have recovered from a traumatic event such as abuse or a death in the family. Second, resilient youths have developed coping skills. Coping is the ability of youths to restore or maintain equilibrium despite being exposed to significant stress or threat. Finally, the presence of protective factors in resilient youths modify or nullify risk factors that may also be present in their lives (Masten et al., 1991).

Several researchers have used different frameworks to demonstrate the characteristics of resilient youths. Competence and competencies are terms that are frequently used in conjunction with resiliency. Resilient youths demonstrate competence (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Competence is the ability for individuals to effectively adapt to any environment of which they are being exposed (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Youths may be deemed competent if they experience reasonable success with major developmental tasks or if they demonstrate specific domains of achievement. Additionally, Benson's (1997) 40 developmental assets that define positive youth development characterize resilient youths. Benson's developmental assets are broken down into protective factors that are fund both internally and externally in youths.

Masten and Coatsworth (1998) use the term developmental success to describe resilient youths. Youths' developmental successes can be measured in three domains. First, youths' social competence with peers is a determinant of success. Youths that are capable of positive peer relations will experience increased developmental success. Second, rule-governed behavior is a marker of developmental success. Resilient youths

conduct themselves in socially appropriate ways. Finally, developmental success can be measured by academic achievement (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Youths that display competence in school have been deemed developmentally successful.

Similarly, Benard (1993) lists the following four attributes that resilient youths possess. First, social competence is the ability to interact socially with others. Characteristics of socially competent children include flexibility, empathy, caring, communication, and a sense of humor. A second attribute of resilient youths is problem-solving skills. Resilient youths have been exposed to situations where they are encouraged to plan and call on their resourcefulness in order to be successful. They have used these problem-solving skills to figure out how to overcome the many challenges that they have faced. Third, autonomy is having a clear sense of who you are. Autonomous individuals act independently and realize that they have the ability to exert control over their own environment. They are also able to detach themselves from negative situations. Finally, the fourth attribute that resilient youths possess is optimism and hope for the future. They are able to set goals, persist in fulfilling their goals, and they believe that a bright future exists for them (Benard, 1993).

Christiansen and colleagues (1997) delineated five characteristics of resilient youths. First, resilient youths display good naturedness. Their personalities enable them to accept whatever comes their way with a positive attitude. Second, resilient youths have the ability to form a close bond with a caring adult. The third characteristic present in resilient youth is the ability to solve problems. Closely related to problem-solving skills is the fourth characteristic, the ability to accept challenges. Finally, resilient youths are characterized by the knowledge that they have control over themselves.

Table 2.4 compares the characteristics of resilient youths as various authors have delineated them. It is clear from this table that the various researchers have discovered similarities in their descriptions of what characterizes resilient youths. For instance, all three list social competence in some form as necessary in the development of resilience. While Masten and Coatsworth (1998) and Benard (1993) specifically list social competence as a characteristic of resilience, Christiansen and colleagues (1997) list good naturedness and a close bond with a caring adult; both are traits that require social competence. Additionally, Masten and Coatsworth (1998) include rule-governed behavior in their definition of resilience, a quality that is necessary to display social competence. Both Benard (1993) and Christiansen and colleagues (1997) list problem-solving skills as necessary attributes leading to resilience. Christiansen and colleagues even extend problem-solving skills by specifically listing the ability to accept challenges, the first step in beginning to solve problems. Finally, while Benard (1993) includes autonomy in her definition of resilience, Christiansen and colleagues (1997) refer to "control over self," which is virtually autonomy. It is apparent in Table 2.4 that many researchers have similar ideas of what behaviors constitute to resilience in youths.

Masten & Coatsworth (1998)	Benard (1993)	Christiansen et al. (1997)
Developmental successes:	Attributes:	Characteristics:
Social Competence	Social competence	Good naturedness
Rule-governed behavior		Close bond with a caring adult
	Problem-solving skills	Problem-solving skills
		Able to accept challenges
	Autonomy	Control over self
Academic achievement	Optimism & hope for the future	

Table 2.4

Characteristics of Resilient Youth

Protective Factors

One characteristic of at-risk youths who have overcome their adversity is that they possess protective factors that enhance their resiliency (Blum et al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1999; Jessor et al., 1995; Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). Protective factors are competencies that operationalize resilience (Lawson

& Anderson-Butcher, 2001). They are "influences that modify, ameliorate, or alter a person's response to some environmental hazard that predisposes to a maladaptive outcome" (Rutter, 1985, p. 600). Protective factors have also been called resilience factors, developmental assets (Benson, 1997), compensatory factors, and resource factors (Kaplan, 1996) as they have been shown to enhance both resilience and youths' development, compensate for risk, and act as a resource for at-risk youths. This study uses the term protective factors in relation to all of the above terms. Protective factors operate when a risk is present (Rutter, 1987) and indirectly lead to positive behaviors helping youths to overcome their risks (Allen-Meares et al., 2000).

According to Burt and colleagues' (1998) risk framework, the presence of protective factors and positive behaviors moderates problem behaviors and negative outcomes. Youths, who would otherwise be labeled "at-risk," that possess protective factors are more likely to become resilient. This is similar to Lawson and Anderson-Butcher's (2001) belief that protective factors both prevent risk factors from occurring in youths and mollify the effects of risk factors that youths are exposed to. Youths who have protective factors are less likely to experience negative outcomes that are typically associated with risk factors. Thus, protective factors act as buffers that help minimize the effects of risk factors (Benard, 1993).

Protective factors vary across different risks (Blum et al., 2000). Similar to resilience, various researchers have categorized protective factors differently. Although, most researchers have agreed that protective factors can be found at the individual, familial, and extra-familial levels. Masten and Coatsworth (1998) differentiate between these three levels of protective factors found in resilient youths. Individual factors include

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intelligence, being sociable and easy-going, having positive self-efficacy and self-esteem, and boasting talents and a strong faith. Familial factors include establishing close relationships with others, being exposed to authoritative parenting, having socioeconomic advantages, and having an extensive support network. Extra-familial factors include bonding with adults outside of the family, being connected to organizations, and attending effective schools (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

Lawson and Anderson-Butcher (2001) also identified three distinct categories of protective factors. Individual protective factors include self-esteem, social skills, autonomy, intelligence, and optimism. Family protective factors include parental support and family attachment. Environmental protective factors include associating with pro-social peer groups, involvement in positive activities, and being a part of a caring school and neighborhood.

Christiansen and colleagues (1997) discussed four categories of protective factors. First, individual protective factors include special interests or hobbies that help youths develop positive self-esteem. Second, family protective factors are characterized by family support including active involvement of family members in the children's education. An adult mentor who allows a close attachment or bond to form between the adult and child characterizes the third set of protective factors, environmental factors. Finally, Christiansen and colleagues (1997) describe a turning point event that provides youths with an opportunity for positive development as another protective factor.

Similarly, Benson (1997) listed 40 specific developmental assets, or protective factors, that youths need for positive development. These factors are structured into nine categories that are found both internally and externally to the youths. Categories of

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youths' internal protective factors include a commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity. Categories of youths' external protective factors are broken down into support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, adult role models, and constructive use of time (Benson, 1997).

Table 2.5 lists various protective factors as different researchers have characterized them. Commonalities can be seen between these researchers' examples of protective factors. For example, individual protective factors include high self-esteem, social skills, and the ability to learn. Familial protective factors include close relationships within the family as well as family support. Finally, extra-familial protective factors include adult role models, connection to an organization including constructive use of time in positive activities.

Category of PF	Masten & Coatsworth (1998)	Lawson & Anderson-Butcher (2001)	Christienson et al. (1997)	Benson (1997)
Individual or Internal Protective Factors	Intelligence	Intelligence		Social competencies
	Sociable	Social skills	Positive self-esteem	Positive identity
	Easy going	Self-esteem	Hobbies	Positive values
	Positive self-efficacy	Autonomy		Commitment to learning
	High self-esteem	Optimism		
	Talents			
	Strong faith			
Familial Protective Factors	Close relationships	Family attachments	Family support	
	Authoritative parenting	Parental support	Active involvement	
	Socioeconomic advantage			
	Extensive support network	*(continued)*		

Table 2.5

Protective Factors

Table 2.5 (*continued*)

Category of PF	Masten & Coatsworth (1998)	Lawson & Anderson-Butcher (2001)	Christienson et al. (1997)	Benson (1997)
Extra-familial, Environmental, or External Protective Factors	Bonding with adults	Pro-social peer groups	Adult mentor	Adult role models
	Connection to an organization	Positive activities		Support
	Attending effective schools	Caring school & neighborhood		Empowerment
				Boundaries & expectations
				Constructive use of time

Thus, in reviewing literature on risk, resilience, and protective factors it appears that the best route to decreasing risk factors and increasing resilience in youths is by exposing youths to a variety of protective factors. One way to do this is through positive youth development.

Youth Development

Positive youth development is the focus on healthy development of adolescents (Roth et al., 1998). It involves engaging youths in pro-social behaviors. Additionally, positive youth development entails avoiding health compromising and future jeopardizing behaviors. The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989) lists five goals of positive youth development. According to the Council, youths should be

intellectually reflective, en route to a lifetime of meaningful work, good citizens, caring and ethical, and healthy. Youths who achieve these goals are on their way to positive development.

Positive youth development programs focus on increasing desired outcomes for youths while simultaneously reducing negative behaviors (Roth et al., 1998). Thus, the goal of positive youth development programs is to increase protective factors in youths while reducing risk factors. Ultimately, positive youth development will lead to increased competencies and resilience in youths (Roth et al., 1998). The following three frameworks can be used to enhance protective factors and build resiliency in positive youth development.

Epidemiological Risk Model

The epidemiological risk focused model emphasizes taking steps to eliminate or reduce risks. This is similar to an epidemiological model in which steps are taken to reduce heart or lung disease (Hawkins et al., 1992). First, risk factors that are present in youths are identified (Bogenschneider, 1996). Once risk and risk factors in youths have been identified, programs are developed to prevent exposure to these risks, thereby limiting problem behaviors and negative outcomes. The ultimate goal of the risk-focused model is avoidance of risk factors and risky behaviors (Bogenschneider, 1996).

Resiliency Model

The resiliency or protective approach goes one step beyond the focus on risk reduction and attempts to create or build protective factors in youths to facilitate positive youth development (Benard, 1993; Garmezy, 1983; Rutter, 1987; Werner, 1990). First, protective factors that will increase positive development are identified in youths. Youth

development programs are then developed to focus on enhancing and using the protective

factors that are already present in youths' lives to enable youths to resist problem

behaviors and hazards (Bogenschneider, 1996).

Combined Model

The combined ecological risk and protective theory combines the reduction of

risk factors with the enhancement of protective factors across all ecological levels of

youths including individual, family, peer, school, work, and community settings

(Bronfenbrenner, 1986). This model operates under the belief that youth development is

affected by the environment in which youths live in addition to the factors that they are

exposed to. All of these factors and systems must be addressed in order for positive youth

development to be realized (Bogenschneider, 1996). Additionally, reducing risk will also

reduce the amount of protection that youths need. Combined youth development efforts

also offer youths additional protective factors that provide them with more ammunition to

deal with the risk factors that they still encounter (Bogenschneider, 1996). Figure 2.3

(Bogenschneider, 1996) demonstrates how the ecological risk and protective model leads

to positive youth development. It shows how risk factors that are headed towards

dangerous behaviors are redirected towards healthy development in the presence of

protective factors. Youth development programs act as media to reduce risk factors and

deliver protective factors to youths.

Dangerous

Behaviors

Risk Factors

Protective Factors

Healthy
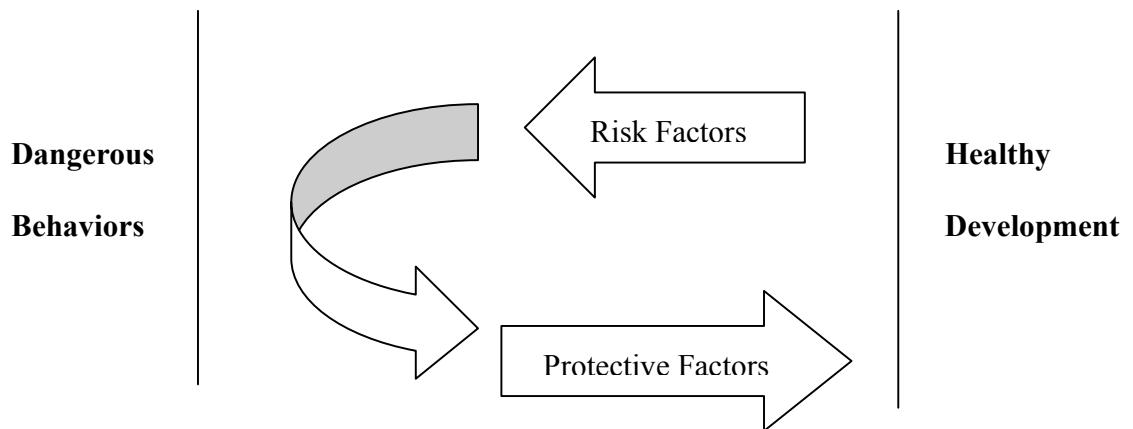
Development

Figure 2.3. Ecological risk and protective model as seen in Bogenschneider (1996).

Youth Development Programs

Programs that serve youth can be visualized on a continuum ranging from social

control to youth development programs (Quinn, 1999). Figure 2.4 demonstrates this

continuum. On one end of the continuum is social control and incarceration. These

programs operate by taking deviant youths into custody solely for the purpose of social

control. Next, are programs that focus on primary prevention and risk factors. These

programs address the negative factors that youths are exposed to and attempt to alleviate

the youths' environment of risk factors. Short-term interventions mediate deviant youths'

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behaviors by giving them options to help stay out of trouble. Long-term treatments take

short-term interventions one step further by increasing their mediation time. Finally,

youth development programs provide opportunities for challenging and relevant

instruction and training as well as new roles and responsibilities. Youth development

programs also stress skill and competency development (Quinn, 1999). Roth and

colleagues (1998) list a number of desired outcomes of youth development programs in

the form of competencies and internal assets. These assets include a commitment to

learning, positive values, social skills, positive identity, academic skills, and vocational

skills.
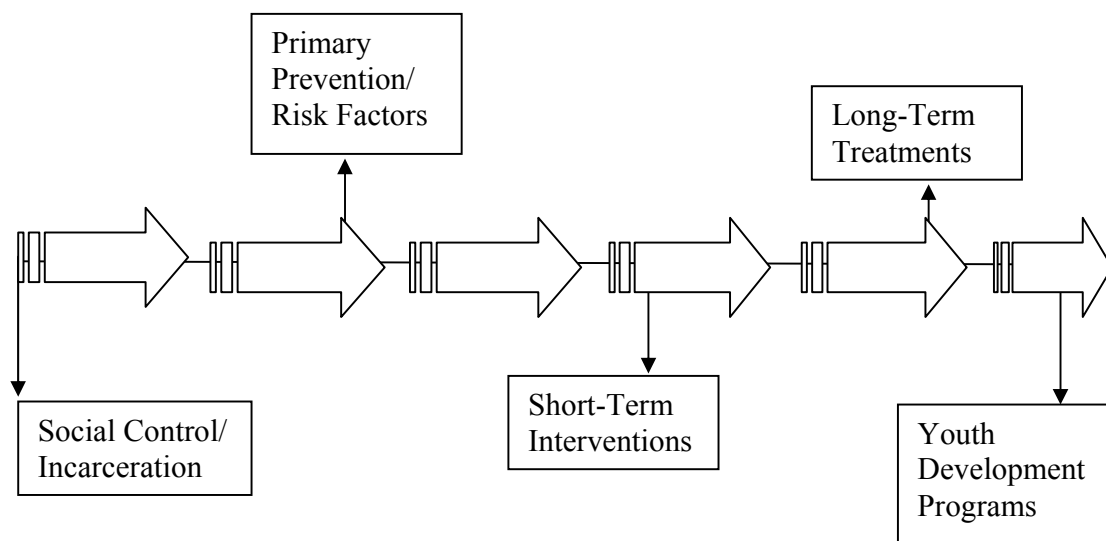
Figure 2.4. Youth programs continuum (Quinn, 1999).

Youth development programs offer opportunities and support for youths to gain protective factors that help them overcome adversity (Roth et al., 1998). Roth and colleagues (1998) offered a youth development framework that explains the components and desired outcomes for youth development. Youth development programs provide youths with opportunities for challenging and relevant instruction and training as well as new roles and responsibilities. Furthermore, youth development programs also stress skill and competency development. Roth and colleagues (1998) list a number of desired outcomes of youth development programs in the form of competencies and internal assets. These assets include a commitment to learning, positive values, social skills, positive identity, academic skills, and vocational skills.

Research Supporting Youth Development Programs

Much research has been done supporting the role of positive youth development programs in building protective factors and resiliency in youths. Hattie and colleagues (1997) conducted a meta-analysis on the effects of adventure education programs on at-risk youths. They looked at 96 evaluations of programs that included small groups in wilderness or backcountry settings. The programs incorporated mentally and physically challenging experiences, intense social interactions, group problem solving, and decision-making into their curriculum. Significant effects were found on the development of psychological, cognitive, and emotional assets as a result of youths' participation in the programs.

Roth and colleagues (1998) reviewed over 60 evaluations of prevention and intervention programs that incorporated positive youth development objectives. Fifteen evaluations of community-based programs were included in their report. They looked at

three categories of youth development programs: asset focused, risk focused, and combined asset and risk focused programs. The researchers found that programs incorporating more youth development elements such as providing protective factors and providing more opportunities for youths yielded more positive outcomes for youths.

Catalano and colleagues (1999) reviewed 77 program evaluations and reported on 25 of them. They found that the most effective programs had the following goals: strengthen social, emotional, cognitive, and behavioral competencies; self-efficacy; and family and community social norms for healthy social and individual behavior. The majority of these programs addressed at least one of the following environments: school (88%), family (60%), or community (48%). Additionally, successful youth development programs targeted all social settings by utilizing family, school, church, community, and work. Catalano and colleagues (1999) concluded that positive youth development programs could increase positive youth development outcomes and decrease problem behaviors in youths. Twenty-four of the 25 programs reviewed showed significant decreases in problem behaviors such as drug and alcohol use, school misbehavior, aggressive behavior, violence, truancy, high risk sexual behavior, and smoking.

Positive Youth Development Intervention Framework

The rest of this chapter focuses on positive youth development through the combination of four youth development programs. After-school programs, the presence of caring adults, physical activity and sport, and initiative building (Larson, 2000) will all be combined with the intention of creating a positive youth development program intervention for youths that have been labeled "at-risk." The goal of the intervention will be to increase the protective factor social competence in youths while simultaneously

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decreasing exposure to and the effects of risk factors. Social skills or social competence has been linked with the development of resilient youths (Benard, 1993; Mastern & Coatsworth, 1998). Additionally, social skills or social competence has been deemed a protective factor by various researchers (Benson, 1997; Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Specifically, the intervention will focus on developing the social skills cooperation and self-control. Figure 2.5 shows the link between risk, the youth development intervention, and protective factors. The model fist demonstrates that problem behaviors develop as "at-risk" youths are exposed to risk factors. However, participation in youth development programs results in positive youth development, which increases protective factors while decreasing risk factors. Finally, youths will demonstrate more positive outcomes and fewer negative outcomes as displayed by an increase in positive behaviors and a decrease in problem behaviors.
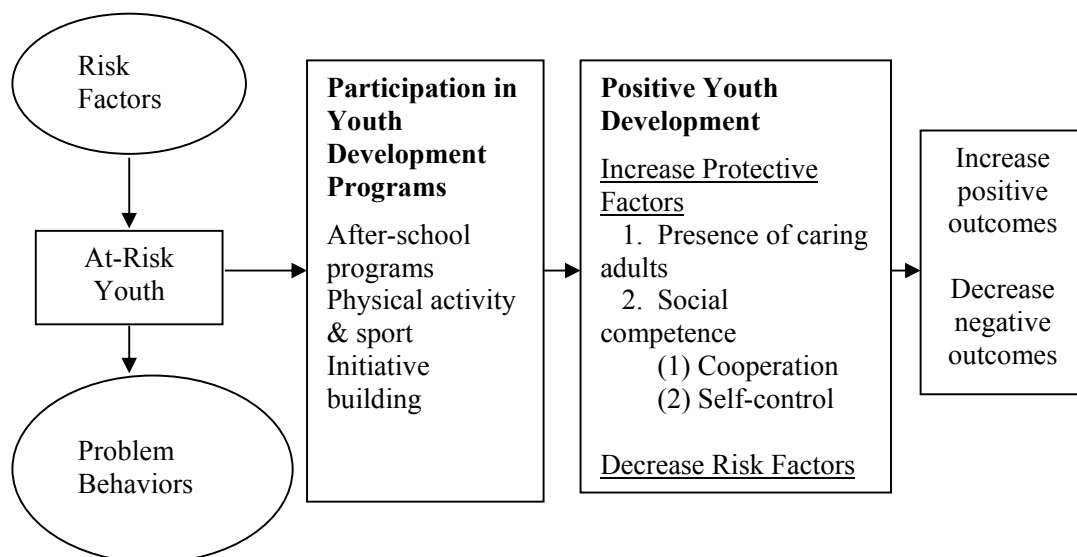
Figure 2.5. Positive youth development intervention framework.

After-School Programs

The majority of youths' time is spent after school hours (Miller, 2001). Research

has shown that a number of problem behaviors occur during this time. Substantial

amounts of unstructured leisure time may lead to negative health consequences in youths.

(Blum et al., 2000). Juvenile crime rates triple during after-school hours (cited in

Siedentop, 2001). Additionally, youths may use their free time after school to experiment

with alcohol, drugs, tobacco, and sex (cited in Siedentop, 2001).

Need for after-school programs. The negative consequences of unstructured after

school time may be reversed through youths' participation in an organized after-school

program. Each hour that youths spend participating in an after-school program keeps

them off the street and safe for an extra hour (Halpern, 1999). Additionally, using after

school time for productive activities can extend youths' learning (Miller, 2001). After-

school programs are ideal opportunities to extend youths' learning because they offer

them membership in small groups, voluntary participation, chances to experiment with

new learning content and materials, and opportunities to build relationships with peers

and other adults (Noam et al., 2002). Furthermore, effective after-school programs will

offer youths learning opportunities without replicating or reproducing their in-school

learning experiences (Noam et al., 2002). Finally, after-school programs promote youth

development by offering students a richer, more experiential, well-rounded, and

democratic learning experience.

Youths' experiences in school are changing as schools are increasingly being

forced to teach to strict state curriculum guidelines based on high-stakes outcomes testing.

The result is that these youths are losing valuable participatory, exploratory learning and

mentoring that used to be characteristic of schools. Furthermore, school administrators are increasingly cutting non-academic subjects such as physical education, arts, and projects out of the school day in order to devote more school time to raising test scores. The absence of these programs leaves many youths with no avenue for success in school. After-school programs can make up for these lost opportunities while offering safe havens for youths and addressing multiple needs in their ecological environments (Halpern, 1999).

After-school programs promote positive youth development by exposing impoverished youths to opportunities and adult guidance while simultaneously enhancing skill development and teaching youths about the world outside of their neighborhoods (Halpern et al., 1998). There is a need for after-school programs (especially in the inner cities) to provide developmental services to youths. After school programs are especially needed in the inner cities because public spaces are no longer safe, youths should not be left on their own, youths need more time and attention to master skills, and youths from low-income backgrounds deserve the same opportunities as their high-income peers (Halpern, 1999).

Unfortunately, the demand for after-school programs in the inner city, where the need tends to be at a premium, greatly exceeds the supply. Halpern (1999) provided an example of this inconsistency in his evaluation of the MOST after-school programs offered in Boston, Chicago, and Seattle. Only 14%, 9%, and 35%, of youths in these cities, respectively, were getting their after-school needs met. This shortage results from barriers in providing youth development programs such as a lack of funding and lack of resources to provide these programs (Halpern, 2002). Ultimately, when supply meets

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demand, after-school programs will provide at-risk youths with safety, a space of their own, and enrichment opportunities comparable to their upper-class peers (Halpern et al., 1998). After-school programs stand to enhance positive youth development because they are small, flexible, call for voluntary participation, and promote belonging; all characteristics of effective interventions for at-risk youths (McWhirter et al., 1998). Thus, by enhancing youth development through after-school programs, youths that participate also stand to increase their resilience.

Benefits of after-school programs. Effective after-school programs promote the development of Benard's (1993) four attributes of resilient youths: social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose for the future (Dungan-Seaver, 1999). However, in order for youths' participation in after-school programs to increase resilience, they must focus on positive youth development and the enrichment of protective factors, rather than the prevention of problem behaviors. After-school programs have the capacity to strengthen multiple protective factors in children leading to resiliency. Non-academic activities that are found in after-school programs are the best means to build protection in youths (Brown, 2002). Additionally, participation in extracurricular activities encourages positive youth development because youths are able to play with peers in a less structured environment while still receiving adult supervision (Holland & Andre, 1987). Finally, the pursuit of hobbies was found to be a protective factor among a number of different risk factors (Blum et al., 2000). Therefore, after-school programs should focus primarily on physical, emotional, and moral needs and development of youth. The assumption is that academic achievement will increase indirectly as a result of effective after-school programs (Dungan-Seaver, 1999).

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Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2000) believe that after-school programs should be open to and geared towards all youths since risky behaviors tend to cluster together. Including all youths in these programs will increase positive peer relations, as youths with negative behaviors will learn positive behaviors from their peers. However, Dungan-Seaver (1999) found that the adolescents who benefit the most from after-school programs possess the following traits: they are from a low-income family, live in an urban neighborhood, are younger than fifth grade, and tend to be males. This demonstrates that while younger youths that have been labeled "at-risk" will benefit the most from after-school programs, it would be wise to include all youths in these programs.

Research supporting after-school programs. Posner and Vandell (1994) conducted a study to determine if formal after-school programs were associated with low-income youths' social and academic functioning. They looked at 216 youths that received various after-school care at least three days a week. Sixty percent of the youths in their sample received free or reduced lunch. Fifty percent were African-American and 55% lived in single-parent households. The researchers used 15-minute intervals to determine the amount of time that youths were spending in specific activities, who was in attendance, the time that adults spent with the youths, the presence of adults, and the presence of peers. They found that formal after-school programs led to better grades, better work habits, better peer relations, and better emotional adjustment. In addition, youths that participated in formal programs were exposed to more learning opportunities and richer social experiences stemming from spending more time with adults and peers. They concluded that participation in after-school programs alleviated some of the negative effects that these youths faced from living in urban poverty.

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Gerber (1996) longitudinally examined the relationship between extracurricular activities (i.e. participation in after-school programs) and academic achievement. She found that the amount of participation was positively related to academic achievement. Furthermore, she found a stronger relationship for white youths and participation in school-related (vs. community-based) programs. This research suggests that the biggest gains are seen in white youths participating in school-related after-school programs.

Morrison, Storingo, Robertson, Weissglass, and Dondero (2000) compared 175 fifth and sixth grade youths who possessed at least three risk factors to a comparison group of 175 youths. All youths came from four elementary schools in California. The sample was made up mostly of Latinos who were living in poverty. The experimental group received after-school tutoring and activity programs while their parents received education and support. Pre and post data revealed that after-school programs acted as a protective function by increasing or maintaining the presence of protective factors such as school bonding, positive perception of parents, and positive behaviors.

Finally, Kahne and colleagues (2001) surveyed youths from two elementary schools and one high school in Chicago. Ninety-six percent of the youths were African-American and 48% were living in poverty. Youths who participated in after-school programs were compared to a control group of comparable youths. Youths in the after-school programs were asked to respond to three questions based on their participation in the programs. When asked about the affective context of school and after-school activities, youths reported that they preferred the after-school context of learning to the school day context. Youths also reported that they received more support for youth

development in the after-school programs than throughout the school day. Based on the youths' responses, the authors concluded that after-school programs are especially beneficial for African-American boys living in the inner city.

In conclusion, research supports the benefits of youths' participation in after-school programs. Positive outcomes such as academic achievement (Gerber, 1996) demonstrated through better grades, work habits, peer relations, and emotional adjustment (Posner & Vandell, 1994) were found as a result of youth's participation in after-school programs. Additionally, after-school programs added protection to youths by increasing school bonding, positive perceptions of parents, and positive behaviors (Morrison et al., 2000). Finally, after-school programs are effective because youths prefer the learning context offered in these programs to the learning context offered at school (Kahne et al., 2001). Valuable protective lessons can be taught to "at-risk" youths in the after-school context.

The Presence of Caring Adults (Mentoring)

According to Smink (1990), youths list as reasons for dropping out of school a lack of someone who cares for them, weak attachment to others and no close social bonds with adults. Youth mentoring, or the presence of caring adults, provides adult contacts for youths, which in turn provides youths the opportunity to strengthen attachment to others and create more social bonds with adults (Staudt, 1995).

Martinek and Hellison's (1997) identified 11 guidelines that should be used in establishing effective youth development programs. Perhaps the most important of these guidelines is to provide an opportunity for children to have regular contact with caring adults (Ianni, 1993 and Gordon & Song, 1994; cited in Martinek & Hellison, 1997). The

literature on the benefits of sport emphasizes the importance of positive adult role models for adolescents participating in sport (Wankel & Berger, 1990). Barbara Staggers, an inner-city physician from Oakland, California commented:

> With all the kids I know who make it, there's one thing in common: an individual
> contact with an adult who cared and who kept hanging in with the teen through
> his hardest moments…But when it comes down to it, individual person-to-person
> connections make the difference…Every kid I know who made it through the
> teenage years has at least one adult in his life who made the effort (Foster, 1994, p.54).

The term mentor has come to mean a wise and loyal advisor, teacher, or coach (Smink, 1990). The term mentor has evolved to include "any caring person who develops an on-going, one-on-one relationship with someone in need" (Smink, 1990, p.1). To that end, mentoring is ultimately about supporting psychosocial development (Kram, 1985). Society has looked to successful people in communities to offer guidance for psychosocial development to youths, rather than relying only on professionals such as teachers, counselors, and specialists (Gibb, 1999). This allows for a greater number of youths to benefit from the presence of caring adults.

Functions of mentors (caring adults). Many researchers have listed various functions of mentors (Kram, 1983; Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999). Kram (1983) described instrumental and psychosocial functions of mentor in business literature. These functions can be applied to youth mentors as well. First, youth mentors act as sponsors to their young mentees by advocating (Smink, 1990), encouraging (Martinek et al., 2001; Smink, 1990), and providing support for academic achievement (Smink, 1990). Second,

youth mentors act as coaches to their mentees by sharing ideas and experiences with them and offering advice (Smink, 1990). Youth mentors also coach their mentees by suggesting strategies that may lead to improved problem-solving skills (Smink, 1990), decision-making skills (Smink, 1990), and increased goal setting (Martinek et al., 2001; Smink, 1990). Third, youth mentors protect their mentees by shielding them from harm. One goal of youth mentoring is to decrease the youth's exposure to risk factors that may result in negative outcomes for youths (Barron-McKeagney, Woody, & D'Souza, 2001; Blechman, 1992). Finally, Einolf's (1995) instrumental function of youth mentoring parallels Kram's (1985) exposure and visibility function. Youth mentors provide their mentees with access to benefits or services that may not otherwise be available to them.

The psychosocial functions of mentoring described by Kram (1983) are particularly pertinent in youth development. According to Einolf (1995), psychosocial mentoring functions facilitate successful development both academically and in social situations outside of school. Many youths in urban neighborhoods do not have adults they can look up to (Freedman, 1993). Mentors act as role models for these youths to look up to (Haensly & Parsons, 1993; Smink, 1990; Yancey, 1998). In addition, mentors provide unconditional acceptance and confirmation to youths by listening (Smink, 1990) and providing encouragement (Martinek et al., 2001; Smink, 1990) to their young mentees. Youth mentors act as counselors to their mentees by providing them with an environment where they feel safe to talk and share their experiences (Smink, 1990). They may also offer advice and strategies to help combat some of concerns the youths they are mentoring may be facing (Smink, 1990). Finally, youth mentors can be friends to their mentees by providing them with opportunities for positive social interactions

(Herrera et al., 2000; Walker & White-Hood, 1998). All of these functions serve youths by promoting their competence and increasing their self-esteem and identity in every aspect of their life.

   Role modeling. Role modeling can also be looked at as a type of mentoring. Role models are individuals that are worthy of imitation (Yancey, 1998). Individuals may be used as role models in a group mentoring setting. The use of role models allows more individuals to have contact with exemplary individuals who may help to shape the development of the mentees. In role modeling programs, one role model may hold interactive group mentoring sessions as an alternative to one-on-one mentoring.

   Yancey (1998) examined a role-modeling program in a teenage group home. The PRIDE program used ethnically relevant role models in group interactions to build rapport with the teenagers living in the home. The role modeling included both structured and unstructured contact between the role models, the facilitators, and the teenagers. This contact created significant cognitive and emotional experiences for the teenagers.

   Role models that were selected to interact with the teenagers met the following criteria: they were minority professionals and trades people, gave three to four hours every four to six months, demonstrated productivity (went through an educational, vocational, or talent refining process), had ethnic pride, accepted personal responsibility for social maladies, possessed cultural literacy and sensitivity, were androgynous, performed health conscious behaviors, had spiritual awareness, had non-judgmental attitudes, accepted human weaknesses, and displayed a sense of humor (Yancey, 1998). Facilitators of the program observed positive outcomes both in the role modeling sessions and in the everyday lives of the teenagers. The teenagers began to arrive at the role

modeling sessions earlier in anticipation of the sessions. There was more verbal

engagement from the teenagers during the sessions, including more self-disclosure from

usually quiet teenagers. The facilitators noticed less verbal confrontation and

disruptiveness. In addition, teenagers were seen initiating more positive, order

maintaining behaviors. The teenagers were heard asking multiple questions and

requesting anecdotes and advice from the role models. Eventually, the facilitators had a

hard time ending each role modeling session. Overall, Yancey found the role modeling

sessions in the group home yielded increased confidence, self-esteem, and enhanced

educational and vocational motivation of the teenagers.

Phases of mentoring. Young and Wright (2001) describe the process of building

a mentoring relationship. The first step is assessment. The mentee must figure out why a

mentor is needed and determine what he or she hopes to gain from having a mentor. The

second step is to identify possible mentors and solicit their help. Once the mentor has

been identified and solicited, a face-to-face meeting must occur. The purpose of this

meeting is to determine if the desired mentor will meet the needs and expectations of the

mentee. Finally, the mentor and mentee must decide on what type of relationship they

want and set ground rules for their relationship. Young and Wright (2001) believe that

mentoring relationships should be cyclical in nature. First the mentee will realize the

need for a mentor. Then a mentoring relationship will develop. Eventually, the mentee

will become a mentor to another mentee in need of a role model.

Caring adults and positive youth development. The presence of caring adults has

been related to positive youth development. Furthermore, research from various fields

suggests that the presence of caring adults contributes to the attainment of positive

outcomes, particularly in youths who live in high-risk settings (Benson, Leffert, Scales, & Blyth, 1998). Further research (William & Kornblum, 1985) supports the notion that mentoring, or the presence of caring adults, has been the key difference between successful and unsuccessful youth development in urban neighborhoods. Additionally, the presence of caring adults (Lefkowitz, 1986) and secure attachment to an adult role model can be viewed as a protective factor in youths (Burt et al., 1998). Attachment is an indicator of caring and connectedness that helps deter high-risk behaviors. Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2000) found that caring relationships with adults foster positive behaviors in youths. Furthermore, Maniglia (1996) believes that real change will happen for youths primarily through non-exploitative relationships with competent, caring adults. Finally, according to Sandling (1999), "mentoring offers the most potential for positive change" in youths (p. 33).

The availability of caring, supportive adult role models outside of youths immediate household has diminished in society, particularly in urban neighborhoods. The loss of caring adults in communities can be attributed to shifting marital patterns, overcrowded schools, and loss of community cohesiveness, especially within inner cities (Furstenberg, 2000). Unemployment in inner cities has increased, as manufacturing jobs have been eliminated forcing adults into low-paying service jobs and unemployment. Furthermore, middle-class flight to the suburbs has also decreased the presence of possible adult role models in urban communities (Sampson, 1992). The remaining adult role models available to urban neighborhoods face the challenge of a lack of time and opportunity to develop relationships with youths (Rhodes, 2002). In addition, youths' relationships with teachers are also diminishing as class sizes increase resulting in fewer

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opportunities for teachers to develop relationships with youths and to run after-school programs. The culmination of the above factors results in fewer opportunities for adult supervision and development of significant relationships with adults outside the family for youths living in poverty (Rhodes, 2002). Therefore, it is apparent that there is a growing need for caring adults in urban neighborhoods.

Coleman (1990) uses the theory of social capital to explain how the presence of caring adults can build protective factors in at-risk youths. Social capital can be defined as the resources that are found in relationships inherent in family attitudes, efforts, and self-esteem that are necessary for success in school. Such resources enable the youths that possess them to adapt to their environments. These resources can be seen in attributes such as positive attitudes, efforts, and self-esteem. Caring adults are the ideal individuals to provide youths with these attributes. The presence of caring adults compensates for insufficient or missing adult relationships and resources inherent in many urban youths by giving youths the opportunity to develop human and social capital.

Programs that offer youths the opportunity to spend time with caring adults help youths to establish attachments and bonds that are missing from the lives of many at-risk youths. Youth mentoring occurs when a specific caring adult takes a special interest in a specific child and develops a nurturing, facilitating relationship with that child. Exposing youths to caring adults allows them to face challenges more efficiently leading to an increased likelihood of experiencing success (White-Hood, 1993). Furthermore, caring adults accept the responsibility of guiding the youths to maturity while developing competencies and striving to reach goals (Einolf, 1995). Caring adults provides adult contacts for children (Staudt, 1995). The goal of programs that utilize caring adults as

mentors or role models should be to improve students' self-esteem, attitudes, and achievement through supportive relationships with adults. Exposure to caring adults gives youths the opportunity to identify with the adults as positive role models.

Further, positive changes have been observed in youths as a result of the presence of caring adults. Rhodes (2002) devised a conceptual youth mentoring model explaining the influence that caring adults may have on their young protégés (See Figure 2.6). Mentoring relationships between youths and caring adults provide three important influences for youths: enhancing social skills, improving cognitive skills, and serving as a role model and advocate. The effects of these influences are moderated by factors such as interpersonal history, social competencies, duration of the relationship, developmental stage of the youth, demographics, and ecological context of the relationship. The end result of effective youth mentoring relationships is positive youth development as seen in outcomes such as character and academic and social competence.

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                                    ┌──────────────────────────┐
                                    │        Mediator          │
                                    │  Improved parent, peer,  │
                                    │  other close relationships│
                                    └──────────────────────────┘

              ┌─────────────────┐
              │ Social-emotional│
              │   development   │
              └─────────────────┘              ┌──────────────────┐
  Mutality,                                     │ Positive Youth   │
  Trust ,        ┌─────────────────┐            │ Development      │
  Empathy        │   Cognitive     │            │ e.g., character, │
Mentor           │  development    │            │ academic/social  │
relationship     └─────────────────┘            │ competence       │
                                                └──────────────────┘
              ┌─────────────────┐
              │ Role modeling & │
              │  identification │
              └─────────────────┘

        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │ Moderators                                            │
        │ Interpersonal history social competencies, relationship duration, │
        │ developmental stage, demographics, ecological context │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 2.6. A conceptual model of youth mentoring (Rhodes, 2002).

Best practices of programs that include the presence of caring adults. Grossman
and Tierney (1998) identified best practices for using caring adults in youth development
programs from their research with the Big Brothers/Big Sisters mentoring programs.
Successful mentoring dyads were made up of adults who had high expectations of the
youths they were paired with. These adults cultivated a caring and supportive
environment for their respective youths. Successful adults created positive relationships

and attachments for their youths. Furthermore, they conveyed both communication and understanding to their youths while providing positive attention for positive behaviors. Finally, successful caring adults fully support the youths that they are working with.

Herrera, Sipe, and McClanahan (2000) list nine factors that lead to effective mentoring of youths. The most important factor is that the mentoring occurs during social activities, such as physical activities or sport. Social activities are best because youths enjoy them, they allow youths to have a say in deciding the activity, and more conversations that help relationships develop occur during social activities. Participating in social activities will help youths benefit academically as well, "youth benefit academically simply from having an adult pay attention to and spend time with them" (p. 8). Next, academic activities are important in adult relationships with youths. Third, the more time the adult and youth spend together, the better the relationship will be and the more positive outcomes will be seen. The fourth factor is that youths should be allowed to take part in the decision-making process of the relationship with their caring adult. Another factor is that caring adults should be trained before they are matched with a youth. A sixth factor involves continuous training and support for the caring adult after the adult and youth have been matched. Screening adults before matching them with youths is another important factor ensuring the screened adult can be trusted to act as a role model for youths. Another factor is the importance of matching caring adults to youths with similar interests facilitating a better relationship. Studies have shown that matching interests of youths and caring adults is more important than matching ethnicity or gender. Finally, the age of the youth is important in developing effective mentoring relationships. Elementary school youths have benefited more from the presence of caring

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adults than middle and high school youths have. However, this does not imply that older youths do not need to be exposed to caring adults; rather it implies that caring adults working with older youths need to be trained differently and activities need to be adjusted so they are more age-appropriate.

Outcomes associated with the presence of caring adults. The list of possible benefits resulting from the presence of caring adults in youths' lives is long. Grossman and Tierney (1998) identified the following benefits: improved grades, increased school attendance, better family relationships, prevention of drug and alcohol use, decreased violent behavior, increased self-efficacy, and increased emotional support from peers. Sandling (1999) found the potential for positive change as a result of the presence of caring adults to be significant. Relationships with caring adults build self-esteem and confidence in youths while providing them with a sense of hope for the future. Furthermore, youths who are exposed to caring adults are also deterred from alcohol and drug abuse, prone to more responsible behaviors such as abstaining from sex and alcohol, participate in less juvenile crime, and develop better study skills and academic achievement. Levinson (1978) found that the presence of caring adults is an important element of psychosocial development that is specifically related to identity. Growth outcomes that occur as a result of the presence of caring adults include competence, identity, and effectiveness (Kram, 1985).

The presence of caring adults in after-school physical activity programs. Despite the numerous positive outcomes found in youth development programs using caring adults, results on the outcomes associated with these programs have been varied. Royse (1998) identified reasons why some previous studies on the presence of caring adults

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have not shown a difference in youths. The following factors were identified as missing links to successful youth development programs: close monitoring of the adult/youth dyads by a supervisor, longer lasting relationships, lack of consistent meetings between caring adult and youth, limitations by the youth based on a fear of being negatively stereotyped, and caring adults not being able to change enough in the present living circumstances of the youths.

These shortcomings can be addressed by adding the presence of caring adults to after-school programs focusing on physical activities and sport. The nature of sport makes the development of relationships more natural than other media that may be used to facilitate such a relationship. Additionally, effective coaches can fulfill the functions of effective caring adult role models. Furthermore, supervisors closely monitor after-school programs. Typical relationships between a coach and athlete may last several years, enhancing the relationship development between coach and athlete (caring adult and youth). Meetings between a coach and athlete are frequent, usually a few times a week and last for a few hours each. Youths who fear negative stereotypes that are associated with needing a caring adult mentor will not face the same judgments if they are athletes. Typically athletes are viewed as being "cool" and it is acceptable for them to have some kind of a relationship with their coach. Coaches may not be able to change the present living circumstances of their athletes, but they can offer them social capital and physical benefits that will give them optimism and hope for changing their own future (Royse, 1998). Thus, it is evident that youths participating in after-school physical activity and sports programs will benefit greatly with the addition of caring adults.

Physical Activity and Sport

Sport has been defined as the "broad array of physical cultural practices involving the body, including forms of informal as well as semi-structured play and games" (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2000, p. 2). Participation in physical activity and sport is a vital component of effective after-school programs (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2000). Additionally, sport is an excellent medium to attract youths to after-school programs (Lawson, 1998; Martinek & Hellison, 1997). "Play, games, sport, exercise, outdoor pursuits, other physical activities, and practices involving body cultures are powerful magnets for children, youth, and their families." (Lawson, 1998, p. 18). This is especially true for minority youths and youths who live in poverty because sport is seen to them as a means of upward mobility (Lawson, 1998). Additionally, sport acts as a valuable and unique teaching and learning domain (Collingwood, 1996). Furthermore, the multiple interdisciplinary approach of physical activity provides resources for cultural, physical, educational, and social enrichment (Martinek, 1997).

Physical activity, sport, and positive youth development. Much research has been done to link physical activity and sport to positive youth development. Lawson and Anderson-Butcher (2000) stated, "sport participation may promote the health enhancement of individuals, the well being of families, safety, security, and vibrancy of local neighborhood communities" (p. 1). Additionally, they discussed sport leaders' ability to build supports to meet risk areas while at the same time building upon the protective factors that youths possess. Thus, sport enhances resilience in youths by increasing protective factors and decreasing risk factors (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2000), teaching positive values and life skills (Collingwood, 1996; Danish & Nellen,

1997), emphasizing optimism (Martinek & Hellison, 1997), decreasing problem behaviors (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2000), and increasing personal and social responsibility (Hellison et al., 2000). In this way, sport can be used as part of an intervention to build resilience in youths that have been labeled "at-risk."

Participation in sport enhances protective factors and fosters resilience through the learning of positive values and life skills (Collingwood, 1996; Danish & Donohue, 1995; Danish & Nellen, 1997). As such, sport programs that focus on developing self-esteem, social skills, initiative, positive peer relationships, and an optimistic view of the future will enhance positive youth development. Life skills are transferable behaviors and attitudes that enable youths to succeed in the environment in which they live (Danish and Donohue, 1995). They may be learned in one environment and effectively applied to other environments. Life skills are physical (kicking or throwing a ball), behavioral (effective communication), or cognitive (decision-making) skills that are learned in one domain and then transferred to other domains. The transference of life skills from sport domains to alternate domains enhances positive youth development.

Life skills parallel sport skills because both are learned through the demonstration, modeling, and practice of behaviors. Additionally, many skills that are learned in sports can be transferred and applied to other life situations (Danish & Donohue, 1995). Life skills that are learned through sport participation include the ability to perform under pressure, problem-solving, meeting deadlines and challenges, goal-setting, communication, the ability to handle successes and failures, cooperation, and the ability to accept feedback.

Physical activity can also be a medium for promoting growth and optimism within school and community programs. Optimism is a competency that is frequently found in resilient youths (Benard, 1993). Lawson and Anderson-Butcher (2000) suggested that there is a link between physical activity and sport and positive outcomes in youths. These outcomes include the prevention of problem behaviors, the alleviation of some risk factors, and youths' decreased exposure to risks as a result of focusing on developing self-esteem, social skills, initiative building, positive peer relations, and optimistic views for the future.

Another way that physical activity and sport enhances resilience and builds protection in youths is by encouraging healthy lifestyles. Collingwood (1996) believes that physical training is a concrete intervention that teaches healthy lifestyles to youths that face risk. The developmental process of sport leads youths through stages from unhealthy behaviors to readiness to address at-risk problems. According to Collingwood (1996), participants in sport pass through seven stages:

1. Exercise leads to health-enhancing lifestyles.

2. Health-enhancing lifestyles lead to increased physical fitness.

3. Increased physical fitness leads to increased self-confidence.

4. Increased self-confidence leads to self-discipline and control.

5. Self-discipline and control lead to goal setting and planning.

6. Goal-setting and planning lead to increased responsibility.

7. Increased responsibility leads to readiness to address at-risk problems.

As sport participants progress through these stages they develop protective factors that lead to resiliency. These protective factors include autonomy, self-confidence, optimism, and hope for the future (Benard, 1993).

Hellison and colleagues (2000) encourage the use of physical activity to teach personal and social responsibility principles to youths. Physical activity provides a real-life setting for learning values regarding youths taking responsibility for their own lives as well as for the lives of others. In essence, the personal and social responsibility model uses trust, respect, and caring to teach youths personal and social responsibility through sports. The model requires physical activity leaders to stress the five hierarchical levels of responsibility. These levels are described in Table 2.6. Youths must determine what level of the model they are at when they enter the program on a daily basis. They are reminded throughout their physical activity experience that their goal is to attempt to move through the levels towards the highest ideal. Youths first focus their attention on respecting the rights and feelings of others. They then move through effort, self-direction, and helping others within the confines of the gym. Ultimately, youths are encouraged to reach the fifth level, transferring their responsibility skills to life outside the gym (Hellison et al., 2000).

Responsibilities	Examples
1. Respect for the rights and feelings of others	Control temper and mouth
	Include everyone
	Solve conflicts peacefully and democratically
2. Effort	Explore effort and new tasks
	Have the courage to persist when the going gets tough
	Focus on self-improvement, rather than comparison to others
3. Self-direction	Be responsibly independent
	Set and work on personal goals
	Have the courage to resist peer pressure
4. Helping others	Be sensitive and responsive to others' needs
	Provide leadership to promote group welfare
5. Outside the gym	Try these responsibilities in school, at home, and elsewhere
	Be a role model for others

Table 2.6

The Personal and Social Responsibility Model (Hellison et al., 2000)

The above research demonstrates that participation in physical activity and sport should be included in youth development interventions. However, in order for any youth development program to be effective, care must be taken to ensure that the programs are effective. Martinek and Hellison (1997) identified 11 guidelines that should be used in establishing effective youth development programs. These guidelines can be easily implemented using sport as a medium, as shown in Table 2.7.

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport
1. Treat youth as resources to be developed. Work from strengths; emphasize competition and mastery to build self-confidence, self-worth, and the ability to contribute. Label children "at promise" instead of "at-risk" (Swadener & Lubeck, 1995).	Participation in sport allows youths to focus and build on their strengths. Self-confidence is increased as skills are mastered and competition provides opportunities for success. Sport also gives every youth the opportunity to contribute in some way.
2. Focus on the development of the whole child.	Sport develops the whole child. Physical development occurs through mastery of skills and gains in strength and fitness. Emotional and psychological development occur as the child learns to handle both success and failure. Social development occurs, as the child must interact with peers (teammates) and adults (coaches). Ethical and moral development occur as the child must learn to play by the rules of the game.
3. Respect the individuality of the participants.	All participants in sport are allowed to demonstrate their individuality as each youth has different strengths that contribute to the success of the entire team. *(continued)*

Table 2.7

Guidelines in Establishing Effective Youth Development Programs (Martinek & Hellison, 1997)

Table 2.7 (*continued*)

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport
4. Empower children by encouraging independence and teaching them that they can control their own lives through active participation. Give children a voice in the program and let them be leaders.	Youths who participate in sport are empowered as they learn that they are independent and have a means of controlling their lives. They also learn to be leaders through leading their teams both on and off the field.
5. Include a set of values with clear expectations in the program.	Participation in sport includes adherence to rules, values, and ethics. Without these norms, participation in sport would be less attractive as conflict would develop.
6. Help children envision a possible future for themselves.	As youths become successful in sport, they realize that they can also be successful in life, which helps them to envision a possible future for themselves.
7. Provide a psychologically and physically safe environment for children.	Youths who participate in sport feel both psychologically and physically safe as they are receiving constant supervision and reinforcement from both caring adults and peers.

Table 2.7 (*continued*)

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport
8. Keep program numbers small and encourage long-term participation to create a sense of belonging and membership. Allow children to develop close personal relationships.	Most sport programs or teams are comprised of small numbers of participants making each youth more valuable to the team. Participants will also develop a sense of belonging and membership to the team, which Anderson-Butcher and Fink (in review) have found to be significant predictors of resiliency.
9. Maintain local connections through linkages with the community.	Sport programs have an opportunity to create and maintain local connections with the community through partnerships and sponsorships of sports teams, as well as by mentoring youths in community programs.
10. Provide persistent and courageous leadership so the program will last.	Effective programs will use consistent evaluation and feedback to constantly improve their program so they can better and longer serve youths.
11. Provide children contact with caring adults.	Sports provide multiple opportunities for youths to have contact with caring adults, their coaches or program leaders.

(continued)

Research supporting physical activity and sport. The benefits of participation in physical activity and sport have been supported by a number of researchers. Participation in physical activity and sport produces numerous positive outcomes in youths.

Collingwood (1996) has found that youths who participate in physical activities and sport experience increased self-esteem and self-concept, better school attendance, better academic performance, and more positive relationships with parents. Other positive outcomes of participation in sport include increased responsibility (DeBusk & Hellison, 1989) and a lower perception of stress (Norris, Carroll, & Cochrane; 1990). MacMahon (1990) has found that the psychological factors associated with participation in sport (such as self-control and self-mastery) increase confidence in participants. Furthermore, physical fitness programs positively affect risk factors by increasing self-esteem, increasing well being, increasing the acquisition of life skills such as goal-setting and planning, increasing the development of values, and decreasing depression and anxiety while reducing problem behaviors such as substance abuse and criminal behavior (MacMahon, 1990).

Segrave and Hastad (1982) gave self-report questionnaires to 1935 youths from eight high schools. The questionnaires assessed delinquent behaviors (petty theft, theft, vandalism, and physical assault) engaged in by both athletes and non-athletes. The type of sport they participated in and the degree of participation in the sport categorized the athletes. Segrave and Hastad (1982) found that high school athletes engage in significantly less delinquent behaviors than non-athletes. These results seemed to be the same across age, gender, racial background, residential background, and socioeconomic status, and all types of offenses.

Hastad, Segrave, Pangrazi, and Petersen (1984) looked at the relationship between youths' participation in sport and deviant behavior in elementary school youths. Self-report questionnaires were administered to 278 sixth graders in a suburban school district in the southwest. Subjects were all actively involved in at least one organized sport during the past year. Twelve deviant behaviors that were either drug or school related were listed on the questionnaire. The researchers found a negative association between participation in sports and deviancy across all categories of deviancy regardless of gender and socioeconomic status.

Horn (1985) observed coaching behaviors and games for five female middle school softball teams. Seventy-two athletes between the ages of 12 and 15 were used as subjects. Horn (1985) used her observations of the coaches and a measure of perceived competencies of the young athletes in her analysis. She found that coach's practice behaviors had a significant association with changes in the girls' self-perception. Their competence and control were affected by coach's feedback. This could lead to enhanced self-esteem if coaches give appropriate feedback.

DeBusk and Hellison (1989) conducted a case study on youths' participation in a special physical activity program. Ten 4th grade boys who were known for their behavioral problems were selected to participate in a sports program 3 times a week for 1-hour sessions. The program lasted for six weeks and included a variety of fitness and sport activities. While the youths participated in sports during the program, the focus of the program was on Hellison's responsibility model (Hellison et al., 2000). Pre and post interviews were conducted with the subjects and teachers. Additionally, researchers looked at school records before and after participation in the program to determine

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whether or not any changes in student behavior were noted. Data suggested that the social responsibility model made students more aware of self and social responsibility concepts and were able to incorporate some of these concepts into their lives. These changes were most apparent in the physical activity program, but were also noticed in the classroom.

Mahiri (1994) reviewed a sports participation program that combines useful values and skills with team goals. He found that coaching relationships give youths access to supportive caring adults that may otherwise be absent from youths' lives. Additionally, participation in sports can provide opportunities for active learning and improvements in communication skills and prosocial behavior.

Collingwood (1996) found that youths who participate in physical activity and sports experience increased self-esteem and self-concept, have better school attendance, perform better academically, and experience more positive relationships with their parents.

Martinek, Schilling, and Johnson (2001) combined a sport club with mentoring in Project Effort. Project Effort is a six-month program that is based on the social responsibility model and two hours of mentoring each week. Sixteen elementary school children identified as having high office referrals and low motivation were selected to participate in this after-school program. The school that the youths came from was characterized by a high percentage of students receiving subsidized lunches. The population of the school was 97% African-American. Data were collected form mentor and teacher journal entries as well as interviews with the youths. The researchers found that Project Effort did enhance efforts that were experienced in the classroom. They also found that 63% of the youths from the program were able to show respect and self-

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control in the classroom some or most of the time. Fifty percent of the participants showed caring to others some or most of the time. Finally, 60% of the participants showed medium and high levels of transference of their learned skills to the classroom.

Table 2.8 summarizes additional research that demonstrates the impacts of physical activity and sport on risk and protective factors of youth (Anderson-Butcher, 2000). It is apparent from the research summarized above and in Table 2.8 below that participation in sport and physical activity offers youths multiple opportunities to increase protection and enhance their resiliency.

Construct	References of support
Self-perceptions	
1. Increases self-esteem	Gruber, 1986; Hilyer, Wilson, & Dillon, 1982; Sonstroem, 1984; Sonstrem & Morgan, 1989
2. Increases self-concept	Cason & Gillis, 1994; Collingwood & Willett, 1971; Iso-Ahola & Hatfield, 1986; Koocher, 1971; MacMahon & Gross, 1988; Marsh & Peart, 1988; McDonald & Hodgdon, 1991
3. Increases self-efficacy	Ewert, 1989; Holloway, Beuter, & Duda, 1988
4. Increases psychological well-being	Brown & Frankel, 1993; King, Taylor, Haskell, & DeBusk, 1989; Leonard, 1997; McAulety, 1994
5. Increases locus of control	Cason & Gillis, 1994; Duke, Johnson, & Nowicki, 1977
6. Increases perceptions of competence	Biddle & Armstrong, 1992; Feltz & Petlichkoff, 1983; Fox & Corbin, 1989; Harter, 1981; Roberts, Kleiber, & Duda, 1981
7. Increases motor skill competence	Ulrich, 1987; Weiss, 1995; Wiggins, 1996
8. Increases self-esteem	Gruber, 1986; Hilyer, Wilson, & Dillon, 1982; Sonstroem, 1984; Sonstrem & Morgan, 1989

(continued)

Table 2.8

Physical Activity and Sport and Their Impacts on Selected Risk and Protective Factors

(Anderson-Butcher, 2000)

Table 2.8 (*continued*)

Construct	References of support
Self-perceptions	
9. Increases self-concept	Cason & Gillis, 1994; Collingwood & Willett, 1971; Iso-Ahola & Hatfield, 1986; Koocher, 1971; MacMahon & Gross, 1988; Marsh & Peart, 1988; McDonald & Hodgdon, 1991
10. Increases self-efficacy	Ewert, 1989; Holloway, Beuter, & Duda, 1988
11. Increases psychological well-being	Brown & Frankel, 1993; King, Taylor, Haskell, & DeBusk, 1989; Leonard, 1997; McAulety, 1994
12. Increases locus of control	Cason & Gillis, 1994; Duke, Johnson, & Nowicki, 1977
13. Increases perceptions of competence	Biddle & Armstrong, 1992; Feltz & Petlichkoff, 1983; Fox & Corbin, 1989; Harter, 1981; Roberts, Kleiber, & Duda, 1981
14. Increases motor skill competence	Ulrich, 1987; Weiss, 1995; Wiggins, 1996

Table 2.8 (*continued*)

Construct	References of support
Feeling states	
1. Enhanced mood	Berger & Owen, 1988; Hilyer et al., 1982
2. Decreased loneliness	Page et al., 1992; Page & Tucker, 1994
3. Decreased depression	Hayes & Ross, 1986; Hilyer et al., 1982; Martinsen, 1990; Mutrie & Biddle, 1995; North, McCullagh, & Tran, 1990
Social skills	
1. Enhanced interpersonal skills	Collingwood, Sunderlin, & Kohl, 1994; Hattie et al., 1997; Weiss, 1991, 1995; Wiggins, 1996
2. Enhanced leadership and responsibility	DeBusk & Hellison, 1989; Hattie et al., 1997; Stoltz, 1992
3. Increased affiliation/belonging	Leonard, 1997
4. Enhanced peer relations	Sachs & Miller, 1992; Weiss & Duncan, 1992
5. Enhanced parental relations	Collingwood et al., 1994
6. Decreased stress/anxiety and enhances coping	Collingwood et al., 1991; Hayes & Ross, 1986; Long & Haney, 1988; McDonald & Hodgdon, 1991; Petruzello, Landers, Hatfield, Kubitz, & Salazar, 1991; Plante & Rodin, 1990; Rostad & Long, 1996; Roth & Holmes, 1985
7. Increased moral development	Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, & Shewchuk, 1986; Miller, Bredemeier, & Shields, 1997

Table 2.8 (*continued*)

Construct	References of support
Other outcomes	
1. Decreased substance abuse	Collingwood et al., 1991; Collingwood et al., 1994; Winnail, Valois, McKeown, Saunders, & Pate, 1995
2. Decreased mental health issues	Gruber, 1986; Harvey & Reid, 1997; Martinsen, 1990
3. Enhanced school attendance and performance	Cason & Gillis, 1994; Collingwood et al., 1994; Landers & Landers, 1978
4. Decreased delinquency	Castellano & Soderstrom, 1992; Hastad, Segrave, Pangrazi, & Petersen, 1984; MacMahon, 1990; Segrave & Hastad, 1982; Segrave, Moreau, & Hastad, 1985
5. Decreased vulnerability	Gruber, 1986

Note. See Anderson-Butcher (2000) for complete list of references.

Initiative Building

The best practices of youth development must culminate in a program that incorporates various strategies to achieve the most positive outcomes for youths. Students who are put in leadership roles and are given the opportunities to become leaders use decision-making skills and learn the importance of self-control (McWhirter et al., 1998). Successful youth development programs allow youths to develop academic skills through structured activities that provide challenges to youths (McLaughlin, 2000).

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Initiative building is a youth development strategy that can be used to lead youths to positive and productive adulthoods (Larson, 2000). "Initiative is the devotion of cumulative effort over time to achieve a goal." (Larson, 2000, p. 172). There are three elements to initiative building. First, youths must be intrinsically motivated; they must see a reason for doing the activity and want to do it. Second, the youths must have a concerted engagement in the environment. They must be devoting time and effort to a tangible goal. Finally, there must be a temporal arc. The youths must see an outcome over time.

Youths' participation in initiative building activities must be voluntary. Providing youths with structured activities to practice initiative development is also helpful (Larson, 2000). Youth development programs that incorporate initiative building into their planning will yield positive outcomes.

<center>Best Practices</center>

Figure 2.7 shows the importance of utilizing effective practices in youth development programs. Youths who are involved and engaged in youth development programs that operate using research-backed practices will experience positive outcomes. The desired outcomes that will result from youth development programs that utilize best practices include increased protective factors and decreased risk factors leading to fewer problem behaviors and negative outcomes being exhibited by youths. Finally, youths who have previously been labeled "at-risk," will develop resilience.
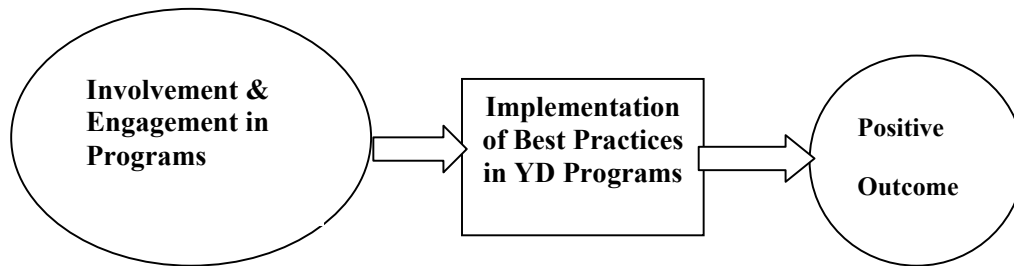
Figure 2.7. The effects of best practices in youth development.

Table 2.9 compiles some of the best practices that have been identified by researchers such as Catalano and colleagues (1998), Herrera and colleagues (2000), The National Research Council (2002), and Roth and colleagues, (1998). It shows how these practices can be effectively implemented in the intervention that has been described in the previous pages.

Best Practice	After-School Programs	Physical Activity & Sports	Presence of Caring Adults	Initiative Building
Focus on environmental and organizational change	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Provide structure & safety	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Integration of family, school, & community environments	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Longer-term program	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Skill building				
1. Social skills	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
2. Communication	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
3. Cognitive	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
4. Emotional	Yes	Yes	Yes	
5. Employment	Yes		Yes	
6. Life skills	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Teach & enforce positive social norms	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Foster a caring adult/adolescent relationship	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Provide youth with opportunities to belong	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Provide support for efficacy & mattering	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table 2.9

Best Practices in Youth Development

CONCLUSION

Research presented earlier in this chapter demonstrates that the status of youths today is dismal. Strategies are needed to provide youths with resources that they need to overcome risk and adversity and move on to become resilient adults. Youth development programs have shown hope in changing the current trends of risky behaviors by simultaneously enhancing protective factors and decreasing risk factors. The implementation of effective youth development programs that incorporate after-school programs with physical activity, sport, the presence of caring adults, and initiative building may be the key to fostering resilience in youths that have been labeled "at-risk." In following the prior research and best practices in youth development, this study combined physical activity and sports with the presence of caring adults and initiative building in an after-school program. The ultimate goal of the after-school program was to increase protective factors (particularly cooperation and self-control) in youth, offering them necessary tools to resist and overcome the risk and risk factors that they are being exposed to. These youths must be looked at as resources to be developed, rather than challenges to overcome (Miller, 2001).

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This chapter describes the procedure that was used to implement and test the

after-school program. The relationship between participation in the program and the

presence of two specific protective factors was assessed. This chapter is organized into

nine sections: (a) research methodology, (b) threats to validity (quantitative data), (c)

trustworthiness of qualitative data (d) sampling, (e) variables, (f) instrumentation, (g) data

collection, (h) data analysis, and (i) ethical considerations.

Research Methodology

Quantitative Data

This study used a quantitative, quasi-experimental design.   It also has aspects of

qualitative research methods. This section focuses upon the quantitative portion of the

study. Quantitative research is concerned with issues of how much, how well, or to

whom does a specific phenomenon apply (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). The purpose of

experimental research is to test the cause and effect relationship among variables

(Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In experimental research, one variable is manipulated to

determine the effect the manipulation of the variable has on a measured outcome variable (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). True experimental research must meet the following criteria (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000):

1. Must have at least two groups for comparison purposes

2. Independent variable must be manipulated by the researcher

3. There must be random assignment of experimental units to groups

It is not always possible for a study to meet the three criteria described above. Quasi-experimental research, therefore, only requires that two of the above criteria be met (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Usually, randomization is the missing element in quasi-experimental research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Typically, quasi-experimental designs are used in research settings where it is impossible to randomly assign research units to groups (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Research conducted in schools provides an example of quasi-experimental designs. Students are already established in research groups (classes). The researcher may manipulate variables within or between class groups, and may randomly assign a group to the variable, but this is not always possible.

The nonequivalent control group design is common in educational research (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). In this type of research, there are two groups (an experimental group and a control group). Both groups are given a pretest and a posttest. However, the control group and experimental group have not been randomly assigned. Instead, the groups are "naturally assembled collectives" (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 47). The pretest is used as a benchmark, or to measure initial equivalency between groups before the treatment is administered to one of the groups. Examples of groups that are used in quasi-experimental research are classrooms. The treatment, however, is randomly

assigned to one group or another. A pretest is used to determine how similar the control and experimental groups are to each other before the treatment is administered. A posttest is then given to both groups to determine what outcomes have been achieved as a result of the treatment.

Figure 3.1 represents the non-equivalent control group design. In the diagram, the "O" represents observations (pre-tests and posttests). The treatment ("X") is only administered to one group; however, observations are made on both the treatment and control groups. There is no random assignment of subjects to groups; however, it is assumed that the treatment was randomly assigned to the group (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

O   X   O

O   O
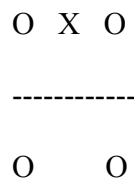
Figure 3.1. Diagram of a non-equivalent control group design.

This study utilized the non-equivalent control group design. The study took place at Deuce Elementary School (DES) (an acronym for the school pseudonym that will be used throughout this document), an urban public school located in the University District of a large Midwestern city as well as Rosemont Community Center. The sample was

made up of an experimental group and a control group. The researcher recruited 30 fourth and fifth grade students to volunteer for an after-school program that was offered in conjunction with a non-profit organization that serves the community surrounding DES. From this group of students, between 8 and 15 students consistently attended the after school program. This group of students voluntarily became members of the experimental group. The experimental group participated in an after-school program that lasted 14 weeks. The control group was composed of the remaining 11 students from DES who volunteered to participate in the after-school program, but never showed up. The control group did not receive any treatment.

Pre-tests of the dependent variables (cooperation and self-control) were conducted to control for differences in the selection of the groups since randomization was not possible with this study. The experimental group received the treatment for 14 weeks. After the treatment was administered to the experimental group, a posttest was administered to both groups. Gains were measured to establish whether or not one group achieved more gains and to determine if any measured gains could be attributed to the treatment.

Threats to Internal Validity (Quantitative Data)

Internal validity refers to the "extent to which the results of a study (usually an experiment) can be attributed to the treatments rather than to flaws in the research design" (Vogt, 1999, p.143). In essence, an experiment that is internally valid tells the reader that there are causal effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Extraneous variables must be controlled by the researcher in order for a study to be

considered internally valid (Vogt, 1999). When an experiment has internal validity, the relationships between the variables are considered meaningful in its own right, rather than being due to extraneous variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

There are ten threats to internal validity. Campbell and Stanley's (1963) eight threats to internal validity and suggestions for controlling them are explained below. A discussion of the remaining two threats to internal validity suggested by Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) will follow.

History. Events that occur during the course of the study may cause a history threat to validity (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Events that threaten internal validity are usually events that will affect the responses of subjects. History effects occur to all groups within the study. These effects affect everyone. Example of history effects would be significant events that are experienced by everyone participating in the study, such as a weather disaster or a war. Only some groups in the study, however, experience intra-session history effects. An example of this would be if the treatment group was exposed to an event (such as a death in the community) that the control group was not exposed to.

History threats to validity can be controlled by experimental isolation, randomization, or monitoring. In this study, events that occurred outside of school were monitored so that any possible intra-session history that could affect the outcomes of the treatment were known. Since both the experimental and control group were in the same school throughout the day, the threat of history effects was significantly reduced. Furthermore, the researcher found no events throughout the course of study that caused a history threat.

Maturation. Maturation refers to the changes that may occur to the subjects as a result of the passing of time, rather than the treatment itself (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Maturation threats can be controlled through randomization, the use of mature subjects, and the minimization of the length of the experiment.

This study controlled for maturation by minimizing the length of the study and by having a treatment and control group. The treatment took place over the course of only 14 weeks. Additionally, all subjects were in the fourth or fifth grades and matured at relatively the same rate. Since there was a control group, the maturation of both groups was compared.

Testing. The testing threat to internal validity refers to the practice effects of testing (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). For example, subjects in this study were all given a pretest before the treatment is administered. It is possible that the pretest made the subjects in the treatment group aware of what their treatment would be like. This, in turn, would make them more likely to be sensitive and responsive to the treatment that they receive affecting the outcomes of the treatment when the experiment is over.

The testing threat can only be controlled for by randomization or not giving a pretest at all. This study did not control for the testing threat as it was impossible to randomly assign students to the treatment or control group.

Instrumentation. Instrumentation threats may stem from invalid or unreliable instruments or from problems with raters (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The instrumentation threat was controlled in this study by the use of a valid and reliable instrument (Elementary Level Social Skills Rating System) (Gresham & Elliott, 1990) and the use of only one rater.

Statistical regression. Regression refers to the movement of the selected groups towards the mean on subsequent testing. Regression is seen most frequently in groups who pretest unusually low or high (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). These groups, in general, will test more towards the mean on their next test. This threat is seen most frequently when groups are selected because of their initial low or high test scores (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). When looking at subjects that need the most help, it is almost inevitable that significant improvement will result from the treatment. Regression can be controlled by randomization, randomized blocking, not selecting extreme cases, running parallel analysis of extremes, and by building extremes into the study.

In this study, the subjects were all extreme cases, but the presence of a control group and randomization controlled for statistical regression. In addition, a pretest was given to determine the extremity of each subject's preliminary risk situation. Because of voluntary participation, the threat of regression was reduced (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Biases. Biases act as a threat to internal validity due to the differential selection of subjects that will receive different levels of the independent variable (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). If the selected subjects in the experimental and control groups are different to begin with, then the study will not be internally valid. Unequal groups at the beginning of the study will not allow the researcher to determine if any outcomes as a result of the treatment were due to the treatment itself or to the difference in subjects.

An example of differential selection in this study would be if the students in the experimental group already possess some of the protective factors that are being measured. This was apparent because in order for students to participate in the study they voluntarily chose to do so. In addition, they needed the permission and support of their

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parents, which could be considered a protective factor. The selection threat to internal validity can be (and was) controlled through the use of a pretest. The pretest consisted of the Elementary Level Social Skills Rating System (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

Experimental mortality. The mortality threat to internal validity refers to when students drop out of a study before the study has been concluded (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). There are two types of mortality. Differential mortality is when there are more dropouts in one group than another. General mortality is when the dropout rate is similar across groups. Differential mortality can be problematic to a study if the treatment is causing subjects to drop out. Mortality may also cause inequality among groups.

In this study a pretest was conducted to ensure that both groups were equal to begin with. The best way to control mortality is to maintain subjects in the study. The researcher attempted to maintain subjects in the study by keeping motivation to participate in the program high. However, due to extraneous factors out of the researchers control, a number of subjects still dropped out of the after school program. These students were interviewed to determine why they dropped out.

Selection-maturation interaction, etc. An interaction between selection and maturation, history, or testing may be mistaken for the effect of the experimental variable. The pre-test that was administered to both groups in this study controlled for these interaction threats.

There are two other threats to internal validity that may be relevant to the proposed study. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) cited attitude of subject and implementation as additional possible threats to internal validity.

Attitude of subjects. If the subjects know that they are participating in a study, they may be either motivated to work extra hard or feel demoralized depending on how they perceive their placement in either the treatment or control group (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). It is possible that their score on the dependent variable is a reaction to being a part of the study rather than a true measure of the effects of the treatment. This threat can be controlled by treating subjects as normally as possible, using unobtrusive measures, and by treating the groups as similarly as possible except for the administration of the treatment.

In this study the students did not experience any differential treatment. The subjects that were in the treatment group voluntarily signed up to participate in an after-school program. The subjects in the control group were given an opportunity to participate in an after-school program and chose not to. The only part that the students in the control group had in the study was to take the pre- and posttests. Furthermore, they were given the opportunity to participate in the after school program but voluntarily chose not to.

Implementation. The implementation threat to internal validity refers to the possibility of different individuals implementing the treatment in different ways (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Another possibility of implementation being a threat to internal validity is if the implementer has a bias. Implementation can be controlled through randomization, monitoring of the implementer, and holding the implementer constant.

In this study, there was only one implementer so each subject in the treatment group received their treatment in the exact same way. Only one level of treatment was offered so there was no implementer bias between different levels of the treatment.

Threats to External Validity (Quantitative Data)

External validity refers to the extent that the results of the study are generalizable to a population and setting that was not included or used in the study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Vogt, 1999). Bracht and Glass (1968) identified both population and environmental threats to external validity. Population threats refer to whether or not the experimental subjects truly represent the population that the researcher wishes to study. Environmental threats refer to the settings, treatments, and experimenter effects that can affect whether or not the results of the study will be repeated elsewhere. External validity threats are interactive effects (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000) between the independent variable and another potential extraneous variable. These interactions could prevent the generalization of the results to another population or setting. According to Cronbach (1951), research that is conducted in field studies will add to the external validity of experimental research by making the results more generalizable to the real world. Campbell and Stanley (1963) listed the following four threats to external validity.

Interaction of testing and X. When subjects take a pretest, they gain information that may be helpful to them as they participate in the treatment, this may raise their posttest score (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). In this study, the pretest was an assessment of the social skills that the subjects possessed before the study began. The researcher believes that it would have been difficult for the subjects to learn these skills from merely being pre-tested.

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Interaction of selection and X. In selecting subjects, the researcher must make sure the target population is the one to which the experimenter wants to generalize (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). For example, in this study subjects were 4th and 5th grade students at an inner city public school. Results from this study cannot be generalized to middle school students living in the suburbs. Results may only be generalized to populations similar to the subjects (elementary students in 4th or 5th grade attending public schools in the inner city).

Reactive effect of experimental arrangements. The subjects' knowledge of participation in an experiment may alter their response to the treatment (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Subjects may become more motivated by their desire to do the "right thing" (especially when using volunteers for subjects). The reactive effect was controlled for in this study because the study took place in a natural setting which lessened the subjects' awareness that they were participating in a study.

Multiple treatment interference. Some schools (lab schools) receive so many treatments that the students become accustomed to being subjects; it is difficult to generalize these findings to populations that have not experienced multiple treatments themselves (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). This study took place at DES, which is a natural setting rather than a lab school . Therefore, multiple treatments did not pose a validity threat to this study. However, some students may have been participating in other programs that could affect their social competencies (See Table 3.1). In addition, the treatment was made up of multiple components, which made it difficult for the researcher to determine which components actually played a role in the measured

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outcomes. The treatment was offered in a location other than the school (Rosemont

Community Center) where many other programs were also offered.   This location is

known for serving the community surrounding DES.

Student	Experimental or Control Group	Number of Non-school Hours Activities
Cray	E	8
Cute One	E	4
Cuzz	E	16
Dawn	E	3
Dee	E	9
DeSown	E	3
Gibson	E	11
Juan	E	0
Kay	E	2
Lil Charles	E	10
Que	E	3
Ray	E	9
Alice	C	5
Anna	C	2
Annalisa	C	2
Bernie	C	0
Berle	C	0
Elena	C	1
Jay	C	0
Lanie	C	5
Matel	C	0
Sierra	C	3
Tennelle	C	0

Table 3.1

Number of Extracurricular Activities Participated in by Youth Participants

Bracht and Glass (1968) have identified the following threats to external validity in addition to those that were outlined by Campbell and Stanley (1963).

Novelty and disruption effects. Subjects may respond differently to a treatment just because it is new or novel (Bracht & Glass, 1968). It is possible that this was a threat in this study because the subjects may not have had the opportunity or access to participate in previous programs similar to the treatment. This threat was controlled through the use of a pre-test and a control group.

Experimenter effect. The experimenter may influence results so that other experimenters cannot replicate them (Bracht & Glass, 1968). This is especially a problem when the experimenter is an expert but few experts exist that can apply the treatment the same way or with the same skill. The treatment in this study was explicitly documented to assure the possibility of replication. Documentation of the intervention included weekly lesson plans clearly stating what skills were covered in each after-school session as well as weekly reflections written by each of the group leaders describing what actually occurred in each after school session.

Measurement of dependent variable. Measurement of the dependent variable becomes a threat to external validity if multiple instruments yield different results when measuring the dependent variable (Bracht & Glass, 1968). This threat can be controlled with the use of a valid and reliable instrument. The instrument that was used in this study is valid and reliable (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

Interaction of time of measurement and treatment effects. This threat holds that an effect that is measurable immediately after the treatment may not be measurable over a sustained period of time (Bracht & Glass, 1968). Giving more than one posttest over time can control it.

Interaction of time of measurement and treatment effects may be a threat to external validity in this study as only one posttest was administered.

Interaction of personological variables and treatment. It is possible that the method of teaching the treatment may work differently on subjects with different personological variables (Bracht & Glass, 1968). If subjects are homogeneous, then the researchers may have false generalizations. Using a heterogeneous group controlled for this threat. In this study, this threat was difficult to control for as the subjects volunteered to participate. Additionally, the population of the school and the subjects themselves was relatively homogeneous. The use of a control group and a pre-test helped to control for this interaction effect.

<div align="center">Sampling Method</div>

Type of Sample

Sampling is the process by which individuals are selected from a population to participate in a study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). This study used the purposive non-probability sampling method. A purposive sample is one in which the subjects are selected deliberately by the researchers (Vogt, 1999). Usually, this type of sample is used because the subjects possess certain traits that the researchers want to examine.

The sample in this study was purposive in two ways. First, the subjects were all students at DES, a school within a section of the school district that is known to have a high-risk population of students (The Godman Guild, 2001). Because the purpose of the study was to determine the effects of the treatment on high-risk inner city youths, it was necessary to sample high-risk students. Second, subjects were self-selected. That is, they volunteered to be in the study.

A purposive sample can be problematic as it makes the results of the study less generalizable (Vogt, 1999). The results of this study can only be generalized to a similar group of at-risk youth who voluntarily participate in an after-school program.

Setting

This study was conducted at Deuce Elementary School (DES) an urban elementary school in the Rabat Public School District (RPSD) (pseudonyms are used throughout the study). There were 64,401 students enrolled in this district with 60% of the students on the free or reduced lunch program. School officials declared the school district to be in "academic emergency" as a result of low student proficiency test scores (Ohio Department of Education, 2003). There were 92 elementary schools in RPSD. The racial makeup of the district was 62% African American students and 35% non-minority students (See Table 3.2).

Deuce Elementary School is a public school serving students in Kindergarten through grade five. Approximately 330 students attend DES. The population of the school is 86% African American, 14% Caucasian, and less than 1% "other" with 92% of the students receiving free or reduced lunches (See Table 3.2) (Communities in Schools, 2001). The school is situated in the University District of the RPSD. The University

District is known for its high incidence of poverty and crime such as car thefts, violence, and gang-related behaviors (The Godman Guild, 2001). A high proportion of larceny and property destruction that can be attributed to youth exists in the University District of the RPSD (The Godman Guild, 2001).

Deuce Elementary School has been labeled an "AAA School", as it is one of the 22 lowest performing schools in the district based on poor proficiency test scores (The Godman Guild, 2001). Test scores are low with only 12% of students passing the reading test and only 14% passing the math test.

	DES	RPSD
Number of Students	330	64,401
Race (%)		
African American	86%	62%
Caucasian	14%	35%
"Other"	>1%	3%
Free and Reduced Lunch	92%	Unknown
Transience	62%	Unknown
Disciplinary Actions	30.3/100	80.1/100
Proficiency Test Totals	77.3	206.4

Table 3.2.

Demographics for Deuce Elementary School and The Rabat Public School District in the

2001-2002 School Year

Students attending DES can be labeled at-risk due to the number of risk indicators they possess. As indicated by the free and reduced lunch program, 92% of DES students live in poverty. Sixty-two percent of the students are transient. Delinquency in the school is high with a total of 30.3 disciplinary actions per 100 students during the 2001-2002 school year (Communities in Schools, 2001; Ohio Department of Education, 2003).

Subject Description

Data were collected from 23 fourth and fifth grade students attending DES. Sixty-one percent of the students were boys (14) and 39% of the students were girls (9). Seventy percent (16) of the students were in the fourth grade and 30% (7) of the students were in the fifth grade. The average age of the students was 9.26 with a range from 9 to 11 years of age. Seventy-eight percent (18) of the subjects were African-American, 13% (3) of the students were Caucasian, .5% (1) of the students was Hispanic, and .5 (1) of the students was bi-racial. One-hundred percent (23) of the students received a free or reduced lunch.

The 23 fourth and fifth grade students that participated in the study self-selected into experimental and control groups. Twelve students attended the after-school program at least thirteen times. The fewest number of students present on one day was eight and the most students present on a given day were 15. These 12 students became members of the experimental group. Eighty-three percent (10) of the experimental group were boys and 17% (2) were girls. Fifty-eight percent (7) of the experimental group were in the fourth grade and 42% (5) of the experimental group were in the fifth grade. The average age of students in the experimental group was 9.8 with a range from 9 to 11 years of age.

Ninety-two percent (11) of the experimental group were African-American while only 8% (1) was Hispanic, and 0% (0) was Caucasian. One-hundred percent (12) of the students in the experimental group received a free or reduced lunch.

Of the remaining students who signed up for the program, nine never attended the program, two attended three sessions, nine attended between three and 13 sessions. The 11 students who attended three or fewer sessions became members of the control group. Thirty-six percent (4) of the control group were boys and 64% (7) were girls. Eighty-two percent (9) of the control group were in the fourth grade and 18% (2) of the group were in the fifth grade. The average age of students in the control group was 9.55 with a range from 9 to 11 years of age. Sixty-four percent (7) of the control group were African-American, 27% (3) were Caucasian, and only 9% (1) was of bi-racial background. One hundred percent (11) of the students in the control group received a free or reduced lunch. The demographic information for the students who participated in the study is presented in Table 3.3.

Student	Study Group	Free/Reduced Lunch	Gender	Age	Grade	Race
Cray	E	Yes	Boy	11	5th	African American
Cute One	E	Yes	Boy	10	5th	African American
Cuzz	E	Yes	Boy	10	4th	African American
Dawn	E	Yes	Girl	9	4th	Hispanic
Dee	E	Yes	Boy	10	5th	African American
DeSown	E	Yes	Boy	9	4th	African American
Gibson	E	Yes	Boy	10	4th	African American
Juan	E	Yes	Boy		4th	African American
Kay	E	Yes	Girl	10	5th	African American
Lil Charles	E	Yes	Boy	11	5th	African American
Que	E	Yes	Boy	9	4th	African American
Ray	E	Yes	Boy	9	4th	African American
Alice	C	Yes	Girl	11	5th	African American
Anna	C	Yes	Girl	9	4th	Mixed
Annalisa	C	Yes	Girl	9	4th	Caucasian
Berle	C	Yes	Boy	10	4th	African American
Bernie	C	Yes	Boy	10	4th	African American
Elena	C	Yes	Girl	10	4th	Caucasian
Jay	C	Yes	Boy	9	4th	Caucasian
Lanie	C	Yes	Girl	9	4th	African American
Matel	C	Yes	Boy	10	5th	African American
Sierra	C	Yes	Girl	9	4th	African American
Tennelle	C	Yes	Girl	9	4th	African American

Table 3.3.

Demographic Information for the Students Who Participated in the Experimental and

Control Groups (E = Experimental Group, C = Control Group)

Subject recruitment and attrition. The researcher and two assistants recruited fourth and fifth grade students from DES to participate in an after-school program. They went door-to-door in the DES neighborhood asking parents and students if they were interested in participating in a free after-school physical activity and sports program for fourth and fifth grade students attending DES. Thirty-three students agreed to participate in the program and filled out the appropriate paperwork to participate, including a consent form (see Appendix A). Twelve students attended the after-school program on the first week of the program and continued to attend the program regularly. These 12 students became the experimental or treatment group. All of the students' parents were called to remind them that their children were supposed to be attending an after-school program. Once it became clear that the remaining 11 students were not going to attend the program, they became the control group. Throughout the 14 week program, between eight and 15 students attended the program regularly. See Table 3.4 for an overview of students' participation in the study based on attendance.

Student	Study Group	# of Days Attended	# of Days Absent	Date 1st Attended Program
Cray	E	14	6	11/1/02
Cute One	E	19	1	11/1/02
Cuzz	E	17	3	11/1/02
Dawn	E	15	3	11/1/02
Dee	E	17	3	10/31/02
DeSown	E	16	4	11/8/02
Gibson	E	16	4	11/7/02
Juan	E	15	5	11/7/02
Kay	E	13	7	11/14/02
Lil Charles	E	13	7	11/1/02
Que	E	16	4	10/31/02
Ray	E	13	7	10/31/02
Alice	C	3	17	11/8/02
Anna	C	3	17	10/31/02
Annalisa	C	0	20	NA
Berle	C	0	20	NA
Bernie	C	0	20	NA
Elena	C	0	20	NA
Jay	C	0	20	NA
Lanie	C	0	20	NA
Matel	C	0	20	NA
Sierra	C	0	20	NA
Tennelle	C	0	20	NA

Table 3.4.

Student Attendance and Attrition.

Variables

A variable is a concept that can be measured that has the possibility of changing, varying, or being expressed as more than one value (Vogt, 1999). Items must be different to be considered variables (Frankel & Wallen, 2000). Examples of variables include gender, race, and social class (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

Independent Variable

An independent variable can be defined as the cause, predictor, or antecedent variable (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Vogt, 1999). Independent variables are the manipulated variables in experimental research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). They are presumed to have an effect on another variable or variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Independent variables are, in essence, the treatments that are applied to one or more groups in experimental research with the intent of causing change in the dependent variable (Vogt, 1999).

The independent variable, or the treatment, in this study was the implementation of an intervention combining the following components:

1. after-school programs,

2. presence of caring adults,

3. physical activity and sports, and

4. initiative building

An after-school program, the first independent variable, was used as a medium to offer the remaining three independent variables to the subjects. Adult leaders were used throughout the program as caring adults. These leaders assisted with the implementation of the physical activity and sports and initiative building components while

simultaneously providing the youth participants with attention and caring. Physical activities and sports offered in the after-school program were specifically designed and selected to teach and reinforce the social skills cooperation and self-control. Initiative building was also included to enhance the youths' exposure to group challenges and long-term goal setting.

A daily session of the after-school program is described below. First, the youths were met at DES immediately after school. Typically, a group physical activity was engaged in at the school as the youths were ready to be active. The youths were then walked back to Rosemont Community Center by the adult leaders. Once they arrived at the Community Center, they usually played another active game. The youths were then given a snack and were told about the goals for the day. At this time and during the walk back to the Community Center, the youths had an opportunity to talk with the adult leaders. Following snack time, another physical activity or sport was played. Usually, lead up games were used to teach the game or activity. The activities were frequently stopped for instructional purposes and in order to take advantage of teachable moments. Time for initiative building was included in most after-school sessions. During this time, the youth participants would work on planning their field day. Additionally, most after-school sessions included a group challenge or group problem-solving activity. Finally, the youths were brought back together at the conclusion of the after-school session to debrief. Debriefing sessions included specific questions asked of the youth regarding what they learned that day and how they used the skills they learned. Additionally, the youths were asked to evaluate the after-school session and their behavior (both individually and as a group) that day.

After-school program. Students and their parents voluntarily chose to receive the treatment by signing up for the after-school program. The program combined physical activity and sports with initiative building. The program consisted of 20 sessions that lasted two hours each. For the first six weeks, students met for two sessions a week (Thursdays and Fridays except during school holidays). After the students' winter break, students only received the treatment once a week (Fridays) for eight weeks. The total number of treatment sessions received by the subjects varied by individual youth (see Appendix B for a sample lesson plan for each after-school session).

Caring adults. The after-school program was run by a leader (the researcher) with the help of three assistants. The leader was a certified physical education teacher (K-12) with four years of experience teaching elementary physical education. One of the assistants (Tweetie) was a Masters of Education student in physical education at The Ohio State University. She attended every session through December. In January and February Tweetie was unable to continue helping on a regular basis as she had other commitments. The second assistant (Scooby) was a doctoral student in sport management at The Ohio State University. He did not have much background working with youth before the program. The third assistant (Taz) was a close friend of the researcher who had partially fulfilled undergraduate degree requirements in physical education and sport management at the University of Dayton. Additionally, various individuals volunteered to help out sporadically throughout the program. The assistants were trained to teach the social skills cooperation and self-control to the students through the planned activities. Ultimately, the purpose of the assistants was to add supervision to

the group so that the program remained safe and effective. Additionally, both the leader

and the assistants acted as caring adults to the youth. The presence of caring adults

increases protection in at-risk youth (Martinek & Hellison, 1997).

Physical activity and sports. Each session used physical activity and sports as a

medium to teach the social competencies of cooperation and self-control. Various

activities, sports, and games were introduced to the students throughout the 14-week

period (see Appendix C for the curriculum from the entire intervention). Within each

session, the leader incorporated the social competencies cooperation and self-control into

the lesson plan and gave the students the opportunity to practice them throughout the

session. Each session ended with a debriefing period where the leader and assistants

asked the students questions about skills relating to each activity.

Initiative building. Each session included an initiative building component (see

Appendices B and C). During this component, the group planned and developed a long-

term goal that was selected by the entire group. The students used the social

competencies that they learned and practiced throughout the treatment along with the

guidance of the group leader and assistants to carry out their long-term goal. The

students jointly decided on a long-term goal, planning a field day for the younger

students from DES who were participating in a parallel after-school program being

offered at the same community site. They then used the assistance of the leader and

assistants to plan and carry out their goal over the course of the 14-week program.

Please refer to Appendices A and B for the program curriculum, including objectives and all activities designed to reach these objectives.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variable is the presumed effect of a study (Vogt, 1999). It is named because it is assumed that the values of the dependent variable are predicted by or "depend" on the effects of the independent variable (Vogt, 1999). The dependent variables in this study included the protective factors cooperation and self-control. Cooperation is the ability to act jointly with another or others (Merriam-Webster, 1991). Individuals that exhibit cooperation are able to successfully work and socialize with other individuals. Self-control refers to the ability to direct power or regulate one's own behaviors (Merriam-Webster, 1991). Individuals that exhibit self-control are able to regulate their behaviors and display only appropriate behaviors. Both dependent variables were measured with the Social Skills Rating System Student Form Elementary Level (SSRS) (see Appendix D). Students were asked to report on the frequency of behaviors that are representative of each protective factor. Students circled "0" if they Never display the behavior, "1" if they Sometimes display the behavior, and "2" if they Very Often display the behavior. Examples of cooperative behaviors are helping others, sharing, and complying with rules and directions. Finally, examples of behaviors representing self-control include conflict resolution, responding appropriately to teasing, taking turns, and compromising (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). See Table 3.5 for examples of test items.

Item Number	Social Skill	Sample Behavior
6	Cooperation	"I tell others when I am upset with them."
7	Self-control	"I disagree with adults without fighting or arguing."
8	Cooperation	"I keep my desk clean and neat."
10	Cooperation	"I do my homework on time."
11	Self-control	"I tell new people my name without being asked to tell it."
12	Self-control	"I control my temper when people are angry with me."
13	Self-control	"I politely question rules that may be unfair."
15	Cooperation	"I listen to adults when they are talking with me."
18	Cooperation	"I avoid doing things with others that may get me in trouble with adults."
19	Self-control	"I end fights with my parents calmly."
21	Cooperation	"I listen to the teacher when a lesson is being taught."
22	Cooperation	"I finish classroom work on time."
25	Cooperation	"I follow the teacher's directions."
27	Self-control	"I ask friends for help with my problems."
28	Self-control	"I ignore other children when they tease me or call me names."
30	Cooperation	"I use my free time in a good way."
32	Cooperation	"I use a nice tone of voice in classroom discussions."
34	Self-control	"I talk things over with classmates when there is a problem or an argument."

Table 3.5.

Sample Test Items from the SSRS

Instrumentation

Description of Scale

The Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) is an assessment of student social behaviors (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). The SSRS measures the perceived frequency and importance of behaviors that are related to social competence and adaptive functioning at school and home (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). The SSRS is made up of three behavior rating forms (teacher, parent, and student) that measure the domains of social skills, problem behaviors, and academic competence.

This study only used the social skills scales as rated by the students. Research and national standardization on the SSRS have found the instrument to be reliable when using just the student form (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). The specific domains that are assessed by the students are cooperation, assertion, empathy, and self-control (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). However, the researcher only focused on the development of cooperation and self control throughout the program. The cooperation subscale includes behaviors such as helping others, sharing, and following rules and directions. The self-control subscale includes behaviors that are present in conflict situations such as responding to teasing as well as behaviors that are present in non-conflict situations such as taking turns and compromising.

The SSRS uses ratings on both frequency and importance (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). The students are first asked how often they display particular behaviors. Then they are asked to rate the importance of the behaviors. However, the elementary student form does not include importance so this study did not include the importance of each social behavior.

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The SSRS questionnaires are designed with the age of the raters in mind (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). There are differences in the scale, subscale, and item content depending on the age of the rater completing the form. See Appendix C for the SSRS Student Form Elementary Level Grades 3-6 Social Skills Questionnaire.

User qualifications. The SSRS suggests that raters be able to read at or above the 3rd grade level (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Even if children are able to read at the 3rd grade level, they may need assistance in completing the form. If the students have reading difficulties, a teacher or evaluator may read the items to the students. In this study, the leader or one of the assistants generally helped each child complete the forms.

Administration time. The SSRS should take the rater no more than 25 minutes to complete (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Generally, administration time will be considerably less than 25 minutes. Scoring of the scale takes approximately 5 minutes for each booklet. In this study, each test took approximately 15 minutes to administer. The tests were administered in the subject's home while their parents were filling the other application forms. In some cases, there were distractions such as siblings, friends, or other family members being present or the television being on.

Type of ratings. The SSRS obtains ratings of both the perceived frequency of social behaviors and the importance of social behaviors (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). However, the elementary student form does not include the importance ratings so only the frequency ratings were used in this study. Frequency ratings were obtained as a summary of specific behaviors as observed over a period of time in various

environments. A 3-point rating scale is used. A rating of 0 corresponds to the behavior *Never* occurring. A rating of 1 corresponds to the behavior *Sometimes* occurring. A rating of 2 corresponds to the behavior occurring *Very Often* (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

Instructions for raters. Instructions for the raters are included on the questionnaire booklets. Instructions include one or two word prompts and information about the rater, a description of the rating procedures, an example of the proper completion of items, and a request for the rater to complete all items (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). However, in most cases, the group leader gave oral directions and examples to the subjects. It immediately became apparent that the children were struggling with the terms on the SSRS and needed individual help.

Scale Development and Early Research

Several sources were used to determine the most appropriate items for the SSRS (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Literature on the assessment and training of social skills, existing scales of social skills and adaptive behavior, and research on the relationship between specific childhood social behaviors and social outcomes were all sources that were used in establishing items for the SSRS. This information is based on empirical research from child development, clinical development, clinical psychology, educational psychology, and special education literature.

Early research conducted on the SSRS focused on establishing an adequate item pool, obtaining stable factors, developing a strong psychometric base, and collecting evidence supporting validity (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). A forerunner to the SSRS was the TROSS. Much early research on the SSRS used the TROSS. The TROSS originally consisted of 100 items developed from a review of literature, other rating scales, and

experience with children. Field-testing on the TROSS reduced the original 100 items down to 52 items (Clark, Gresham, & Elliott, 1985). The Cronbach's alpha of .96 revealed high internal consistency for the TROSS scale. Additionally, a factor analysis of the scale conducted by Clark and colleagues yielded four dimensions (Academic Performance, Social Initiation, Cooperation, and Peer Reinforcement). The subscales Cooperation, Assertion, and Self-Control are currently being used in the SSRS (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

National tryout. A national tryout of the SSRS was conducted in 1987 to finalize the factor structures of the various forms, eliminate unreliable and redundant items, refine and standardize administration methods, and finally to recruit participants for the national standardization program (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Six forms of the SSRS were used in the national tryout: an elementary and secondary school form for teachers, students, and parents. The elementary student form was made up of only 53 social skills items. The tryout form was given to 550 elementary children in 10 northeastern, midwestern, and southeastern states (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

In order to select final items and determine how to scale the final items, a factor analysis was conducted on each completed tryout form (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). As a result of the factor analysis, four social skills factors were selected for the Student Elementary form (cooperation, assertion, empathy, and self-control).

National standardization. The SSRS was standardized using a national sample of self-ratings from 4,170 children (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Data collection for the national standardization occurred in 1988. Six students from each class in the selected settings were randomly chosen to complete ratings of themselves. A representative

number of males and females as well as students from each grade (3rd through 10th) were

a part of the sample. Approximately 27% of the standardization sample was made up of

minority students while 31% of the United States population is made up of racial or

ethnic minorities. Self-reportings were obtained from students in 18 states representing

the northeast, north central, south, and west regions of the country (Gresham & Elliott,

1990).

Development of final forms. Frequency ratings from the tryout sample were used

to determine the factor structure and to select items for the social skills standardization

forms (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Items with factor loadings less than .30 were discarded.

Additionally, items that had multiple loadings greater than .30 on two or more scales

were discarded. Finally, items that showed inconsistent loadings across forms (parent,

teacher, and student) were also discarded. Seventeen percent of total items were

discarded, with 13-15 items from the two student forms being dropped (Gresham &

Elliott, 1990).

Factor analyses of the standardization data were used to determine the final items

of the SSRS forms (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). The same item selection criteria as above

were used. However, to make scoring easier, only 10 items were selected for each

subscale. Approximately 27% of the standardization items were discarded in the final

scale.

Reliability Procedures

Reliability refers to the "consistency or stability of a measure or test from one use

to the next" (Vogt, 1999, p. 245). A reliable measure gives consistent results (Fraenkel &

Wallen, 2000). Additionally, a reliable instrument can be described as being free from

measurement or random error (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The following procedures were used to determine the reliability of the Social Skills Rating System, the proposed instrument for the study.

   Standard error of measurement. The standard error of measurement reflects the expected variability of obtained scores due to the belief that even the same individual will rarely perform exactly the same on subsequent trials of the same measure (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Internal consistency reliability coefficient alphas and test-retest measures were used to determine the standard error of measurement in the SSRS.

   Internal consistency. Internal consistency provides information about the uniformity of responses to all items on a scale (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Vogt (1999) defines internal consistency as "the extent to which items in a scale are correlated with one another, and by extension, the extent to which they measure the same thing" (p. 142). The coefficient alpha is used as a measure of internal consistency. Coeffiicent alpha ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 showing no consistency and 1 showing perfect consistency.

   The median coefficient alpha reliability across all forms and levels of the SSRS is .90. The alpha coefficients for the subscales of the elementary student form of the SSRS are .68 (cooperation), .51 (assertion), .74 (empathy), and .63 (self-control). The overall alpha coefficient for the elementary student form subscales is .83 (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

   Test-retest reliability. Test-retest reliability refers to "a correlation between scores on two administrations of a test to the same subjects." (Vogt, 1999, p. 290). The same test is administered to the same subjects a second time after a period of time has elapsed (Franekel & Wallen, 2000; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). A high correlation between

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the two test scores indicates high reliability. Test-retest reliability of the SSRS was determined by comparing the original ratings' scores to ratings made four weeks later. Test-retest reliability of the student form yielded a coefficient of .68 (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

Validity of the Instrument

Validity refers to the instrument's ability to accurately measure what it is proposed to measure (Vogt, 1999). Validity can be described as the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the instrument (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Kerlinger and Lee (2000) and Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) describe the following three types of validity.

Content validity. Content validity refers to whether or not the items accurately represent what is being measured (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). An instrument that has content validity adequately measures a defined domain or universe of content (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). All items on a scale must be representative of all items that could possibly be selected to be included on the scale.

Content validity of the SSRS was obtained using importance ratings for each of the social skills items (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Expert judges were used to determine which items should be included on the scale. Once the items were selected, secondary students were asked to rate the importance of each skill that was included on the scale. Raw score means and standard deviations of importance ratings for social skills subscales as rated by secondary students are 11.7 and 3.5 (cooperation), 11.3 and 3.8 (assertion), 10.5 and 3.7 (self-control), 12.9 and 4.0 (empathy), and 46.3 and 11.9 (total scale).

Criterion-related validity. Criterion-related validity refers to the ability of a test to make accurate predictions (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Tests of criterion-related validity demonstrate relationships between predictor and criterion variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). To determine criterion-related validity, scores obtained from using the intended instrument are compared to scores obtained from alternate instruments (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

Two correlations were examined to determine the criterion-related validity of the elementary student form of the SSRS (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). The first correlation compared the SSRS with the Child Behavior Checklist – Youth Self-Report Form (YSR). The YSR measures internalizing syndromes, externalizing syndromes, and total behavior problems as reported by students between the ages of 11 and 18 years old. The correlations between the SSRS and social competence section of the YSR were low to moderate: .36 (cooperation), .27 (assertion), .03 (self-control), .07 (empathy), and .23 (total scale).

The second correlation compared the SSRS with the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS). The PHSCSC is an 80-item self-report scale that assesses how students feel about themselves. Total correlations found between the two scales are as follows: .27 (cooperation), .25 (assertion), .12 (self-control), .34 (empathy), and .30 (total scale) (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

Construct validity. Construct validity refers to the ability of the instrument to accurately measure the construct of interest (Vogt, 1999). A number of methods were used to establish the construct validity of the SSRS (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). These methods included internal consistency measures, convergent and discriminant validity, correlations with other tests, and factor analyses (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

Data Collection

Quantitative Data Collection

Demographic data. Demographic data were collected through three different sources. First, the students' parents/guardians were asked to complete "Intake Forms" including demographics (age, race, free or reduced lunch program, who lives in household, and other activities participated in) to be kept on file at the Rosemont Community Center before their child was allowed to attend the program (see Appendix E). Second, the youth participants were asked to answer several demographic questions (birth date, grade, home situation, sex, race, free or reduced lunch status, and sport preferences) on their first day of the after-school program (see Appendix F). Third, records (school behavior reports) were obtained from the school.

Social Skills Rating System. The student form of the SSRS was given twice to both the experimental group and the control group (see Appendix D). Each student was asked to complete the SSRS while the researcher was at their house to sign them up for the after school program (pre-test). Either the researcher or an assistant sat with each child individually and helped each child rate his or her own social. A small number of students (2) did not complete the SSRS at their house, but instead completed it during a session of the after school program without individual help from an adult.

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The SSRS was given again as a post-test after the completion of the 14 week program. Students in the experimental group completed the SSRS as a group during the last session of the after school program. Students in the control group completed the SSRS in the DES library the last period of the school day.   Table 3.6 shows when each youth completed the pre- and post-tests.

Student	Study Group (E or C)	Date of Pre-test	Location of Pre-test	Date of Post-test	Location of Post-test
Alice	C	10/14/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Annalisa	C	10/10/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Berle	C	10/21/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Lanie	C	10/10/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Sierra	C	10/18/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Bernie	C	10/21/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Matel	C	10/18/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Anna	C	10/10/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Lanie	C	10/11/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Tennelle	C	10/18/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Jay	C	10/18/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Gibson	E	11/8/02	Rosemont CC	2/21/03	Rosemont CC
Cute One	E	10/14/02	Home	2/21/03	Rosemont CC
Cuzz	E	10/16/02	Home	2/21/03	Rosemont CC
Que	E	10/19/02	Home	2/21/03	Rosemont CC
Dee	E	10/16/02	Home	2/21/03	Rosemont CC
Juan	E	10/16/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Kay	E	10/14/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Lil Charles	E	11/8/02	Rosemont CC	4/1/03	DES Library
Dawn	E	10/11/02	Home	2/21/03	Rosemont CC
Ray	E	10/16/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
Cray	E	10/11/02	Home	4/1/03	DES Library
DeSown	E	11/8/02	Rosemont CC	2/21/03	Rosemont CC

Table 3.6.

 Date and Location of Completion of the SSRS.

Attendance. Attendance was taken at each session to determine if individual outcomes were related to program attendance. Additionally, the date that individual students dropped out of the program was also noted.

Qualitative Data

According to Patton (1990) the use of qualitative methods is more consistent in understanding certain research questions than other research methods. In addition to the quantitative methods used in this study, qualitative data was also used to support the quantitative methodology and to better answer the research question. Qualitative methods provide data that allow the researcher to understand the participant perspectives in addition to the perspectives of the researcher. Furthermore, qualitative methods can assist educators in understanding the complexity and context within schools (Rink, 1993). More importantly, experts in after-school programs have suggested that assessing gains in students' social skills in a quantitative manner cannot begin to capture the entire "picture" of after-school program success and failure (D. Hellison, personal communication, August, 2002). Therefore, multiple qualitative data collection techniques were used in this study to enhance the quantitative data that was collected.

The qualitative data gathered in this study served three main purposes. First, journals were kept by all the adult leaders of the after-school program to document each session. Second, observational journals and interviews were used to assess behavior changes in the youth participants that might not be captured with the SSRS. Finally, qualitative data was used to examine which components of the intervention were effective in attracting and retaining the youth participants and in facilitating behavioral changes.

Qualitative Data Collection

   Observations.   According to Denzin (1989) "participant observation is a commitment to adopt the perspective of those studied by sharing in the day-to-day experiences" (p. 156). Additionally, Loftland (1971) believed that observing and interviewing participants go hand in hand as much of the data collected in participant observation are obtained through informal interviews while observing in the field. Because of this, the researcher and assistants recorded what happened during each session immediately following the session. The researcher and assistants completed journals answering questions relating to which strategies worked and did not work in teaching the social skills and physical activities. Furthermore, any interactions or specific gains that were noted in the participants were also documented (see Appendix H for observational journal format). The purpose of the observational journals was twofold. First, the researcher wanted to assure documentation of each after-school session. Second, the observational journals were used to determine any behavioral changes (positive or negative) that were observed by the adult leaders throughout the course of the after-school program. To that end, the observational journal format was structured with these purposes in mind. The adult leaders were first asked to record the daily activities. Next, they were asked to identify any behavioral strategies that were (or were not) effective in teaching and reinforcing the social skills. Finally, the adult leaders were asked to record all behavioral changes that stood out in their mind from that day.

   Youth participant interviews. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), interviews provide a better understanding of the meanings people attach to everyday activities. Interviews provide researchers with an opportunity to learn about what cannot

be observed directly or quantified, such as thoughts, feelings, and intentions (Glesne &

Peshkin, 1992; Patton, 1990). As a result of these beliefs, seven of the youths in the

experimental group participated in one open-ended, semi-structured interview in which

they were encouraged to respond to questions in their own words. Selection of youths

that were interviewed was by chance. Youths that were present during one of the two

days the interviews were conducted were interviewed. Care was taken to match the

youths being interviewed to an adult leader with whom the youth had developed a

relationship. Unfortunately, time did not allow for more youth interviews than the seven

that were conducted. The interviews were used to gain additional information about the

youths' thoughts, feelings, and intentions regarding their perception of the after school

program. Additionally, the interviews were used to gauge whether or not the students

learned the two social skills (cooperation and self-control) that were being taught in the

after school program. Finally, the interviews were used to determine what factors of the

after-school program led to their satisfaction with the program. The students were

interviewed by either the researcher or one of the assistants. All interviewers followed an

interview schedule (see Appendix H). The interviews were audio-taped and lasted

approximately 15 minutes each.

  Adult leader interviews. The three regular assistants (Tweetie, Taz, and Scooby)

were also interviewed by the researcher at the completion of the treatment. Specific

questions addressed the behaviors and changes that were observed by the assistants

throughout the course of the program (see Appendix I). These semi-structured interviews

were audiotaped and lasted approximately 20 minutes each.

Interviews with both the youth participants and the adult leaders were audiotaped with the permission of the participant and then transcribed by the researcher. All transcriptions were compared to the tapes to assist with accuracy. The benefits of tape recording interviews include: researchers have the original data; tapes are a source to check for lack of clarity; recording benefits participants as they can be assured access to the tapes; and reviewing tapes allows the researcher to study their interviewing technique (Seidman, 1991). Additionally, the researcher transcribed the interview tapes herself as "interviewers who do their own transcribing come to know their interviews better" (Seidman, 1991, p. 88).

Trustworthiness of Qualitative Data

As with any quantitative study, establishing the credibility of qualitative data is critical. Credible data is data in which the "constructed realities of the participants match the realities as represented by the researcher" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 286). The traditional quantitative criteria of internal and external validity, which are typically used to establish the credibility of data, are replaced in qualitative research by the terms trustworthiness and authenticity (Creswell, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The following methods were used in this study to ensure trustworthiness or credibility of the qualitative data: member checking, data triangulation, and peer debriefing.

Member checking. Lincoln and Guba (1985) referred to member checks as the "most crucial technique for establishing credibility" (p. 314). The objective of using member checking in a study is to verify that the researcher accurately represented the

participants (Glesne, 1999). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), the researcher must allow for the participants to review the data that was collected from them in one way or another.

In this study, the adult assistants were given the written transcripts of their individual interviews for review. The adult assistants were given the opportunity to alert the researcher if any data was incorrect or if the individual felt that the data misrepresented them. This member checking was done both to ensure that the audiotapes of the interviews were accurately transcribed and to ensure that the audiotaped interviews accurately captured what the individuals had intended to say. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) the purpose of member checks is to allow the participants to suggest changes to improve the authenticity of the data. Due to time constraints out of the researcher's control, the youths' interviews were not member checked.

Data triangulation. Data triangulation is the use of multiple data collection sources along with a variety of data analysis perspectives in a single study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Glesne, 1999; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The purpose of data triangulation is to judge the accuracy of the collected data and to explore different perceptions, rather than simply ensuring that all data and interpretations align.

Several data collection methods and data sources were used in this study. Data were triangulated by using student interviews, assistant interviews, researcher and assistant observations, quantitative measures, and document analyses. Triangulation of data in this study helped proved a better understanding of the students' learning and behavior changes throughout the course of the study.

Peer debriefing. Peer debriefing involves an outsider commenting on the data collection process as well as the outcome of the interpreted data. Peer debriefing is a tool that helps bring credibility to a study (Creswell, 1998). It allows for external reflection and commenting on the researcher's work (Creswell, 1998).

In this study, peer debriefing allowed for a number of people aside from the primary researcher to observe the data. In this process, the researcher was held accountable for both the data that was collected and any researcher's biases that may have been present at any time throughout the study. Peer debriefing occurred through sessions with the researcher's faculty advisor and cognate advisor at The Ohio State University. Throughout the treatment phase of the study, the researcher met regularly with both advisors to discuss concerns with the study. During data analysis and the final writing phases of the study, regular meetings were held with the researcher's advisors who challenged the methodologies and interpretations of the study. Additionally, the researcher held many discussions with the assistants throughout the treatment to discuss implementation, concerns, and findings of the study.

Researcher bias. The last method used to address trustworthiness of the data in this study is to expose the researcher's bias brought to the study (Glesne, 1999). The researcher brought four years of teaching physical education to the study. Additionally, the researcher brought 20 years of participating in both organized and recreational sport to the study. The researcher has also been a student of physical education and sport for 10 years. Over the years, the researcher had developed views about the importance of participation in sport to youth development and society.

Transferability. Transferability refers to the ability of the reader of research to decide whether the results of the study apply to the context they are studying (Lincoln & Guba, 1995). Transferability is achieved through thick description. The use of sufficient detail and depth in presenting the data enable the reader to determine what part of the findings are transferable to their situation. By using multiple data sources and by probing throughout each piece of data, the researcher was able to provide, thick, rich descriptions based on the data.

<div align="center">Data Analyses</div>

Quantitative Data Analysis

Although the scales have been utilized in numerous studies and found to be valid and reliable (Gresham & Elliott, 1990), the scales' validity and reliability were checked through Cronbach's coefficient alphas and item-to-total analysis. Constructs that possessed a Cronbach's alpha of .70 or higher were deemed reliable (Cronbach, 1951). Items that possessed a correlation of .25 and correlated higher with their own subscales than others were deemed valid indicators of the construct.

Data were analyzed to address the research question using the SPSS version 11.0 software package. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, and correlations) were derived for each of the variables of interest (cooperation and self-control).

In order to determine whether the intervention increased the two protective factors (dependent variables) (cooperation and self-control), a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted. The independent variable was the after-school program (experimental, control), scores on the SSRS for cooperation and self-control served as the dependent variables, and pre-test scores on the SSRS served as the co-variates.

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Qualitative Data Analysis

Interviews. The audiotapes of all individual interviews with both the students and assistants were transcribed verbatim and then analyzed. An inductive analysis (Patton, 1990) was used to determine common themes that emerged from the data. The researcher read and coded the transcripts of each individual interview in order to determine emergent themes in the data. Coding allows the researcher to synthesize data, categorize the data, consider it, and conceptualize it in new ways (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The theory that was generated came from the data as themes relating to the development of protective factors in at-risk youth and best practices in an after-school program.

Observations. The field notes from the researcher and assistants' observation were also analyzed. The main purpose of these data was to describe the treatment (the after-school program) in detail. A cross case analysis (Huberman & Miles, 1998) was used to highlight similar themes between the researcher and the assistants. Additionally, data from the observations were used to support the quantitative findings and the interviews relative to the development of protective factors in the subjects as well as the best practices of the after-school program. The use of a cross case analysis also serves to help extend external validity of the study. The researcher identified themes that were apparent in all of the observations and interviews. These themes were then compared in terms of similarities and differences across the various data providers.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were taken into account by the researcher throughout this study.   All information that the students and assistants shared with the researcher was kept confidential, as were their names. The research was written in such a way as to mask the identity of those involved in the study. All participation in this study was voluntary. Procedures regarding the voluntary nature of the study and the process for ensuring confidentiality were explicitly stated in the Statement of Informed Consent that each subject and their parent/guardian signed as per The Ohio State University Institutional Review Board. Pseudonyms were used throughout the write up of this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether an after-school program combining physical activity and sports, the presence of caring adults, and initiative building would increase the protective factors cooperation and self-control in youths compared to youths who did not participate in the after-school program. Additionally, this study tracked after-school program participants' behavioral changes in cooperation and self-control, social skills that were taught throughout the after-school program. Finally, the study determined which components of the after-school program were more effective in bringing about the aforementioned changes. This chapter represents the results of the quantitative and qualitative data for each of the research questions. Each research question will be addressed separately with separate sections for quantitative and qualitative findings when both quantitative and qualitative data were collected.

Description of Subjects

Subjects for this study came from Deuce Elementary School (DES), a public school located in the inner city of a large Midwestern city. Thirty-three 4th and 5th grade students were recruited to participate in an after-school program that was offered in

conjunction with a community organization. Once the students were signed up for the

program, they self-selected into either the experimental or control group. Students that

chose to attend the after-school program consistently (13 or more sessions) were placed

in the experimental group. Students that only attended three or fewer sessions of the

program were in the control group. Twelve students attended the after-school program a

minimum of 13 times and were placed in the experimental group. Eleven students

attended the after-school program three times or less and were placed in the control group.

Nine students attended the after-school program between three and 13 times and were

eliminated from the study altogether. Complete data from the remaining student could not

be collected so she was also eliminated from the study.

Experimental Group

Youths who attended the after-school program 13 times or more (12 youths total)

between October and February were placed in the experimental group. Of these 12

students, three students attended 13 sessions, one student attended 14 sessions, three

students attended 15 sessions, two students attended 16 sessions, two students attended

17 sessions, and 1 student attended 19 of the 20 sessions. The majority of these students

(10) completed the pre-test Social Skills Rating System Student Form Elementary Level

at home individually with the help of an adult while they were being signed up for the

program. The remainder of the students (2) completed the pre-test SSRS on the first day

they attended the after-school program, which varied for each subject. Most of the

subjects in the experimental group (7) completed the post-test on the second to last day of

the after-school program, February 21, 2003. These students completed the post-test

without individual help from an adult. The test was administered to the entire group at

once with three adults patrolling the room to help students if the need arose. Five students were absent from the program the day the post-test was administered and completed the post-test at DES on April 1, 2003 in a group setting under the supervision of four adults.

Additionally, qualitative data was collected from seven of the after-school participants. Students were selected, in no particular order, to be interviewed the last two weeks of the program. Interviews were semi-structured and lasted about 15 minutes each. Interviews were conducted by either the researcher or one of the adult group leaders.

Demographics of experimental group. The experimental group was comprised of 12 youths. Seven youths were in the fourth grade and five were in the fifth grade. Ten youths were male, while two were female. All of the youths received a free or reduced price lunch. Eleven of the youths were African-American and one was Hispanic/American.

Control Group

Youths who did not attend the after-school program or who attended the program fewer than three times (11 youths total) were placed in the control group. Of these 11 youths, nine did not attend the after-school program once and two youths attended three after-school sessions. All control subjects completed the pre-test SSRS at home individually with the help of an adult while they were being signed up for the program. The post-test was administered to subjects in the control group, along with five subjects in the experimental group, in the library at DES on April 1, 2003 in a group setting under the supervision of four adults.

Demographics of control group. The control group was comprised of 11 youths. Nine youths were in fourth grade and two were in fifth grade. Four youths were male, while seven were female. All of the youths received a free or reduced price lunch. Seven youths were African-American and four youths were Caucasian. Youths were responsible themselves for deciding whether or not they would attend the program. The majority of the youths in the control group (9) did not even attend one after-school program session.

Instrument Characteristics

Although the SSRS has been utilized in numerous studies and verified as a valid and reliable measure, Cronbach's alphas and item-to-total correlations were conducted to establish validity and reliability for its application in this study. As can be seen in table 4.1 below, the instrument was internally consistent as the Cronbach alphas were .71 for "cooperation" and .74 for "self-control". Item-to-total correlations indicated that each of the items were a reliable indicator of its specific dimension (e.g., cooperation or self-control) as all were above .25 and all correlated higher with its own dimension than with others (Factor analysis was not conducted due to the low number of subjects completing the survey).

	Cronbach's Alpha	Item-to-Total Correlations	
Cooperation	.71		
#6		**.64**	.13
#8		**.52**	-.11
#10		**.75**	.22
#15		**.62**	.11
#18		**.25**	.23
#21		**.59**	.08
#22		**.51**	-.17
#25		**.59**	-.05
#30		**.63**	-.12
#32		**.46**	.38
Self Control	.74		
#4		.14	**.47**
#7		.38	**.69**
#11		.22	**.72**
#12		.10	**.26**
#13		.37	**.58**
#19		-.16	**.51**
#27		.12	**.28**
#28		.22	**.78**
#33		.10	**.45**
#34		.12	**.67**

Table 4.1

Item to Total Correlations of the SSRS

Research Question One

Will an after school physical activity program with caring adults and initiative building enhance the protective factors of cooperation and self-control in urban elementary youths who have been labeled at-risk?

Quantitative data was collected to answer this research question. The SSRS was used to determine if the youth participants' self-control and cooperation increased as a result of attending the after-school program. Participants completed the self-report questionnaire before they began the after-school program in October and upon completing the program in February. Their scores were compared to scores achieved by the control group

As can be seen in Table 4.2 below, pre-test scores for the experimental and control group on the "cooperation" portion of the SSRS were quite similar (1.50 compared to 1.57). However, the pre-test scores for "self-control" were significantly different between the two groups, t = -2.57 $_{(1, 21)}$, $p < .02$. The experimental group started out significantly lower on the self-control scale (M = 1.19) in comparison to the control group (M = 1.55).

	Mean	SD
Cooperation		
Experimental	1.50	.28
Control	1.57	.36
Self Control		
Experimental	1.19	.33
Control	1.54	.32

Table 4.2

Pre-Test Means and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables Cooperation and Self-Control by Experimental or Control Group

To determine whether the treatment significantly affected the post-test scores on the SSRS, a MANCOVA was conducted. The treatment served as the independent variable, scores on the cooperation and self-control section served as the dependent variables, and pre-test scores served as the co-variates. Results of the MANCOVA were not significant, $F = 1.04_{(2, 18)}$, $\underline{p} = .37$ indicating that the treatment did not significantly effect post-test scores for the experimental group in relation to the control group.

As can be seen in Table 4.3 below, the experimental group did score higher on self-control after the treatment (1.26 compared to 1.19) while the control group actually scored lower compared to their pre-test scores (1.25 compared to 1.56) as well as in comparison to the experimental group scores (1.25 compared to 1.26). However, the difference was not statistically significant. Cooperation scores for the experimental group decreased (1.50 compared to 1.28) as did cooperation scores for the control group (1.50 as compared to 1.57).

	Mean	SD
Cooperation		
Experimental	1.28	.49
Control	1.50	.29
Self Control		
Experimental	1.26	.35
Control	1.25	.20

Table 4.3

Post-Test Means and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables Cooperation and Self-Control by Experimental or Control group

Research Question Two

What behavioral changes related to cooperation and self-control were apparent in youths as a result of participating in an after-school program combining physical activity, the presence of caring adults, and initiative building?

Qualitative data to answer this question were collected from observational journals written by the after-school program adult leaders, youth participant interviews, and adult leader interviews. Program leaders completed journals following each session of the after-school program they attended. The same journal format was used throughout the duration of the program. The journal format provided questions to guide the adult leaders in recording pertinent observations that they made throughout each after-school session. Youth participants and the four consistent adult leaders were interviewed once at the completion of the program to determine whether the program was successful in teaching the youth participants cooperation and self-control. Due to time constraints and infrequent attendance of the after-school program, only seven youths were interviewed. Both sets of interviews were semi-structured. Journals and interviews were read for emerging themes providing evidence of behavior changes in youth participants in the after-school program.

The overall results for research question two found that positive behavioral changes were observed in the youths who participated in the after-school program. Enhanced youths' behaviors were also documented by the adult program leaders throughout the after-school program. Increases in both cooperation and self-control were apparent throughout the program, both in the group as a whole and in individual youths.

Additionally, interviews with the adult leaders provided evidence of youth participants'

behavioral changes. The following sections give examples of the behavioral changes that

were observed in the youth participants.

Initial Levels of Cooperation

At the start of the after-school program, youths exhibited many negative

behaviors. Findings about initial levels and examples of cooperation will be described

first. Examples of the development of cooperative behaviors will follow.

Presence of cliques. Despite examples of cooperative behaviors evident in the

youths, in many instances there was evidence of a lack of cooperation among the

program participants. One negative cooperative behavior that was observed by all of the

adults was the formation of cliques. At the beginning of the after-school program (in

October), a few cliques were present within the after-school program.

> …they seemed to be grouped, sort of put themselves in little niches to where three
>
> or four people would hang out. Three or four other people would hang out, and
>
> then there were a couple that would be segmented that would be separate from the
>
> rest of the group….and there were outcasts. It wasn't blatant picking on the
>
> outcasts, but it was evident that for some reason, be it race, or background, or they
>
> just didn't like each other that they were separated. Because of that, or that
>
> showed in the fact that they didn't share different things, whether a ball, they
>
> didn't want to be on each other's teams (Scooby, Interview, 24-33, 3/20/2003).

Students that were members of the cliques cooperated well with each other. However, some students were left out of the cliques and the cliques did not tend to cooperate together, "The group of friends talked with each other, wrestled and paid attention to each other, but neglected the others to an extent." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11/1/2002).

Lack of teamwork. Even when activities were designed to encourage teamwork and cooperation, the youths had difficulties cooperating and working together to accomplish their team goals, "They did not really cooperate with one another and they did not know how to work together as a team when we played games or participated in activities." (Tweetie, Interview, 9-11, 3/22/2003). A number of activities in the after-school program were designed specifically to encourage cooperation and teamwork. Without these skills, the teams would not be successful. Even during these cooperative activities, adult leaders of the after-school program found youths frequently fighting within their team, sabotaging their own progress, rather than working together towards a common goal,

> So even though we wanted to concentrate on teamwork it did not happen. I think
> the kids understand the concept of teamwork but they don't know how it feels to
> actually be affiliated on a team. We have 2 teams in our groups, but really we
> don't have the kids work only in their group. So, the kids don't have that strong
> bond of team camaraderie (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002).

Attention-seeking behaviors. Additionally, uncooperative behaviors were observed in individuals. Most of the youths' uncooperative behaviors were related to their attention seeking behaviors which were also apparent throughout the entire after-

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school program. Youths were seeking individual attention from adults. This need took precedence over the good of the entire team or group as evidenced by the following observations, "He was rather uncooperative unless a leader was solely focusing on him." (Thelma, Observational Journal, 11/7/2002) and "They want attention any way they can get it even if it means that they will do something that they are not supposed to." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002).

Other uncooperative behaviors accompanied the youths' selfish desires to always have everything their way, even at the expense of their friends and the rest of the group. Youths were competitive with each other and wanted to be the best. They were most concerned with their individual needs and would not compromise these needs for the success of the entire group,

> Just about everything that we did early on that required cooperation, the kids struggled with. They were very competitive with each other. They did not realize that they would accomplish their team goals quicker by working together. Their biggest concern was always individually beating the opposing team (Shaggy, Interview, 59-63, 3/22/2003).

Selfish behaviors. Many times individuals' uncooperative behaviors affected the groups' ability to effectively participate in the planned activities. Individual behaviors disrupted both the activities and the goals of the group. Youths were so interested in doing their own thing to increase their fun and draw attention to themselves that they ruined the experience for the rest of the group, "…there were others, like Cuzz who ran around and knocked down balloons and popped others.…the balloon exercise was

sabotaged by outside students who did not agree with the activity or were looking for attention." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/5/2002) and "…the balloon exercise was sabotaged by outside students who did not agree with the activity or were looking for attention." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/5/2002). These behaviors were selfish as they allowed only those who were acting up to have fun; the rest of the group was being punished by the inappropriate behaviors of a small minority of youths.

Fighting. Additionally, individuals were observed fighting with their teammates rather than working with them to complete challenges, "Teamwork and cooperation was lacking at the beginning of the program. No one was willing to work together to reach a goal. They were constantly fighting and pushing each other around." (Tweetie, Interview, 3/22/2003).

Individuals' needs to settle a fight or defend themselves took precedence over the activities that were planned. To this end, physical fights between youths even took priority over merely participating in activities. At times, these behaviors were so drastic that the entire group had to be sent home early because they could not cooperate, "There was a point where I could not calm them down and stop the fighting enough so I sent everyone home early." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/13/2002).

Cheating. Additionally, cheating was observed by both the youths and the leaders in many of the games that were played, "There was a lot of cheating going on during tag and it wasn't fair to the other kids." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002). Rather than cooperating with their teammates and the other team, individuals were sometimes caught breaking the rules of the game in order to assure their team a victory. Some youths even went as far as cheating to make themselves look good, regardless of the effect their

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behaviors had on their own team's success. Many of the youths who were playing by the rules would complain that their peers were ruining the fun for them by not following rules,. "…some students who showed off their athletic abilities by staying near the rope, skipping it, instead of following the rules and simply passing through." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002).

Development of Cooperation

Evidence of learning. Gains in cooperation were noticed by the group leaders almost immediately. The most apparent evidence of the youths' learning was displayed in their behaviors during debriefing and responses to questions regarding cooperation. In October, it was difficult to get the youths interested enough to pay attention to debriefing at the end of the session. However, by December the youths were willing to listen and take part in these discussions providing insightful answers to the leaders' questions regarding cooperative behaviors,

> As time went on they listened more to group discussions on cooperation….as time
> went on the large group discussion about cooperation and social skills, seemed to
> work better than they did at the beginning. They were able to pick out negative
> actions, negative behaviors in others, so without naming names you could say
> 'what did you see was going on' and they could pick out actions that were
> counteracting what we were looking for (Scooby, Interview, 3/20/2003).

As the youths grew to know and trust each other and the adults, their cooperative behaviors improved. Their ability to successfully complete group challenges requiring cooperation was their reward for working together and using teamwork, "The group stand

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up game totally relied on cooperation and self-control, and I was impressed by the progress made by the students in this facet." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/6/2002). The youths were more willing to work as a group and less reliant on their pre-formed cliques. They eventually broke away from their initial cliques and were more willing to interact with everyone in the group, decreasing the amount of fighting that was witnessed by the group leaders, "Another thing I noticed was how the kids interacted with one another. My first day with the program, the kids fought a lot….On this day though, I didn't see any of that." (Taz, Observational Journal, 1/24/2003). Additionally, they were focused on the goals of the team or the entire group rather than worrying only about what they needed individually, "Everyone was helping by the end, from Que to Gibson to Kay all worked hard to finish the puzzle….working hard to finish the task with absolutely no problems, as this was perhaps the first time this occurred." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/6/2002). Ultimately, it was apparent that the youths were learning to cooperate with each other.

Fair play. Youths were observed participating in activities without breaking rules. They seemed to have realized that everyone would have more fun if they followed the rules, rather than focusing on their own desires to win which previously led to frequent rule breaking, "Knowing the rule, Gibson proceeded to let go of the ball so that the other team could take possession." (Taz, Observational Journal, 1/24/2003). Additionally, youths were frequently observed encouraging their teammates to play fairly, "I can't think of one time, in which he (Que) broke a rule, and didn't immediately give up the ball or surrender to any other rules of the game." (Taz, Observational Journal, 1/24/2003).

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Helping others. At times, the youths' cooperative behaviors were so advanced that they were able to help their teammates accomplish individual goals, even if it slowed their own progress down. A number of activities required physical skills that were lacking in some of the individuals. In order for the entire group to succeed, each individual had to succeed. Rather than yelling at or making fun of their peers, individuals were attempting to teach them the missing skills so that they could all be successful, "When it became apparent that a few people were struggling with this activity, they were singled out by the group and helped through first, a sign of true teamwork for the ultimate goal." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002). These helping behaviors were accompanied by verbal encouragement and cheering for their teammates to accomplish their goals,

> On Thursday, he kept on hitting the jump rope and then the entire team had to start over. They finally had him go first and cheered for him when he made it without touching, so I think that the kids were finally learning to help him out in that situation instead of discouraging him (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002).

Problem-solving and perseverance. At the beginning of the after-school program, teams or groups would give up when they struggled to accomplish a team goal. They would frequently give up if they were not winning, rather than attempt to solve their problems and cooperate to increase their chances of winning. However, as the program wore on, teams were seen working through their problems and persevering rather than giving up because they could not work together,

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…the kids showed a much greater improvement in teamwork and cooperation in the puzzle activity and throwing the ball around…our kids didn't give up even when your team finished first and no one was fighting with each other. Everyone was helping each other out (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 1/17/2003).

Caring. Other cooperative behaviors observed in the youths were examples of caring that were not evident in the early stages of the after-school program. Not only were the youths interested in working together to achieve a common goal, they also seemed to truly care about the well being of their classmates and group leaders, "Ray asked someone if they were ok when they fell. He also wanted to make sure to include me and asked me if I would pitch for them." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1/10/2003). Youths frequently checked to make sure their teammates were not hurt. If any rough play or name calling occurred, they checked to make sure no one was physically or emotionally wounded, "They were aware of each other and their feelings and they weren't mean to each other in any way whatsoever." (Taz, Interview, 63-64, 3/16/2003). Youths also checked to make sure everyone was included in the game and was able to participate, "…he (Que) also tried his best to get all of his teammates involved in the game. Even though some kids were apt to drop the ball when it was passed to them, Que kept passing it to them to keep them involved." (Taz, Observational Journal, 1/24/2003).

Volunteering. In addition to working together and cooperating with their classmates youths' cooperative behaviors extended to the adult leaders of the group. They frequently volunteered to help set up and pass snacks out, and some of them even

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volunteered regularly to stay after group to help clean up, "They always ask if they can help set up, clean up or pass out snacks." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 2/7/2003). The youths wanted to cooperate by assisting the adults in any way that they could.

Trust falls and acrosports. The ultimate test in cooperation came in the form of trust falls and acrosports. Trust falls required the youths to work together as a group to catch their peers as they fell backwards off of a table. Youths were challenged to fall backwards from a table into their classmates' outstretched arms. Those who were not currently falling were expected to cooperate and help catch each other, "Other kids really understood cooperation and teamwork and made sure to stay and catch their peers." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 2/7/2003). They were reminded numerous times that this was a serious activity and that they had been given a great deal of responsibility. Most youths accepted the challenge and the responsibility and were successful in both their falling and their catching.

> The kids' improved cooperation was very apparent the day we did the trust falls. Trust falls is an activity that requires trust (obviously), cooperation, and listening skills and self-control. All of the kids realized that in order to be able to fall, they had to cooperate with each other. They also wanted to help catch everyone else. I think this was most apparent when they were falling with partners (Shaggy, Interview, 113-118, 3/22/2003).

The second to last week of the after-school program the group was challenged to try a new activity called acrosports. Youths worked in groups of three or four to build various pyramids. Making the challenge tougher, only one youth on each team was

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allowed to see the pyramid the group was supposed to build. Cooperation was also required from the group when that individual then had to convey the image to their group and direct them in their building,

> Another way they used cooperation came from when the team representative would try to explain which skill his/her team needed to complete. Not only did the representative have to clearly explain what skill it was they needed to do, but the teammates had to listen to each other when they couldn't remember how to do that skill." (Taz, Observational Journal, 2/21/2003).

Finally, the group build was a race. Each team succeeded in this cooperative challenge. The individuals demonstrated they had learned cooperative behaviors, "Even before we turned it into a game, the kids really had to work together in order to complete the particular skill." (Taz, Observational Journal, 2/21/2003). More importantly, in this activity the youths demonstrated an ability to perform the cooperative behaviors they learned throughout the after-school program.

Initial Levels of Self-Control

Other negative behaviors that were observed in youths related to the absence of self-control. These findings will be described next followed by behaviors indicative of the development of self-control.

Absence of general self-control. Qualitative results demonstrate that youths participating in the after-school program were lacking self-control when the program first began in October. From the moment they were met at DES their behaviors were difficult to control. It was even a chore to keep them in the same room to introduce and participate in planned games and activities,

> The biggest problems I noticed were related to the lack of self-control. The kids were fighting so much that I did not know what to do. They could not walk down the hallways without causing problems within their own group and getting the other groups upset with us and them. I remember one incident where we were walking out to the playground and Gibson pinched Kay's neck. Kay screamed uncontrollably. Everyone from all groups ran out into the hallway to see who was dying (Shaggy, Interview, 68-73, 3/22/2003).

Out of control behaviors that were observed during the after-school program include touching each other, violence such as fighting and throwing things, yelling, not listening, and general aggression towards equipment and each other, "Upon arrival the calming of the class was very difficult….Games at the beginning were difficult because kids were still going everywhere and doing anything." (Scrappy, Observational Journal, 11-22-2002). At some points early on in the program, the youths' inability to control themselves was so detrimental to their own well being that they had to be sent home early. This consequence occurred only after a number of warnings were issued to the group and they were still unable to control themselves enough to engage in a productive after-school session,

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The bean bags were often used as weapons and when someone was hit with one,

they would react with aggression, which would be reacted to by the originator

with more aggression and it was a bad situation. Eventually, they were so out of

control, we could not keep them settled to work toward any other goals and let

them leave early (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12-13-2002).

Absence of physical self-control. The group as a whole had difficulty controlling

their bodies. This was evident by the frequent touching and physical fighting, which

made it difficult for the group to pay attention to the instruction that was being given by

the adult leaders, "Kids were wrestling, throwing things and generally not paying

attention to anything we were talking about." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12-13-

2002).

Results demonstrate that fighting amongst the youths in the after-school program

would be the biggest barrier to overcome in providing a satisfying experience for the

youths. From the time the youths were met at DES throughout the entire session, adult

leaders were constantly having to break up fights, "All the students were tackling each

other. We had very little control." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11-21-2002). The

group was rarely able to walk back from DES to the Rosemont Community Center

without at least one fight erupting. Once they were in their room at the Rosemont

Community Center and throughout the after-school session, the fighting persisted,

Early on we had to break up a lot of fights. Fights happened in the playground among our kids and between our kids and kids that weren't going to the Rosemont Community Center. They happened on the way back to the Rosemont Community Center, at the Rosemont Community Center, and after the program when the kids were supposed to be leaving. Our biggest problem was probably fighting. Most of the fights were physical (Shaggy, Interview 26-32, 3/22/2003).

The physical self-control behaviors were intensified by the small space that was allotted to the after-school program. The youths were not able to sit next to each other without touching each other, "There were big problems with the proximity of each student, causing fights and arguments." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11-8-2002), and there was no such thing as innocent or accidental touching. Even the smallest touch called for retaliation. Furthermore, there were days when 15 fourth and fifth graders were expected to run around and be active in one small room. It was inevitable that the youths would respond to the small space by acting aggressively towards each other,

I noticed a lot of body control issues. The kids would touch each other and had a hard time settling down into one place without bothering their classmates. At the same time, a lot of accidental touching happened because of the games we were playing and the small space we had top lay in. The kids' reaction to this was very defensive. Whenever someone touched them, their response was to get angry (Shaggy, Interview, 20-24, 3/22/2003).

Finally, inappropriate physical self-control behaviors were contagious. As a result of the defensive nature of the group, once one person touched someone else, the touching and fighting would spread through the group until the room was in a state of chaos making it impossible for the group to get anything accomplished,

> But, on the whole, self-control was another one of those social skills that were lacking a bit. If there was an activity where there was close proximity to action between kids, where perhaps somebody hit somebody on accident, they were going for a ball or something was being done to where they made contact with someone else, they didn't react so well to that. Thinking that they were trying to pick a fight, it was a very defensive nature (Scooby, Interview, 65-70, 3/20/2003).

Absence of verbal self-control. Another area where self-control was lacking in the youth participants was controlling their mouths. The youths were constantly talking to or arguing with and yelling at each other, "…for the most part, there were arguments, fights, physical contact, lies and many other deviant behaviors." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11-8-2002). They were almost always talking while the adult leaders were attempting to introduce an activity, "…a couple of students were always talking when someone else was." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11-1-2002), and because of this they were not listening.

Ultimately, this lack of self-control made it difficult for the youths to be able to play the planned games and activities for the day. Other inappropriate verbal behaviors that were observed were name calling and foul language, "Very few of the kids could actually control what they said…The rest of the kids just blurted out whatever they

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wanted and did not show any respect to others or us when we were talking." (Tweetie, Interview, 24-26, 3/22/2003). Sometimes the name calling led to physical fights, another example of missing self-control.

Absence of self-control during transitions. Transitions proved to be an opportunity for youths to get out of control. The first transition occurred immediately after-school at the beginning of the program. The group had to make daily walks from DES to the Rosemont Community Center, where the after-school program took place. Early on in the program this walk was a source of stress for the group leaders as the youths were difficult to control, "the students seemed to become hyper and excited as we started walking to the Rosemont Community Center" (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 10-31-2002). Adults not associated with the after-school program frequently complained about the program's youths. They were out of control at the school where they were met and they caused commotion in the form of fighting on the way back to the Rosemont Community Center, "There was one fight with our kids on the way back and a number of fights between younger kids on the playground." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 11-14-2002). Additionally they made excessive noise in the hallways of the Rosemont Community Center disrupting other programs that were going on.

The second transitional problem occurred between activities, usually a time that called for the most self-control so that directions could be given to the entire group, "But as soon as the activity was over they were running all over the place and it was hard to get them back under control." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 11-7-2002). When the youths were participating in the actual physical activities, they were typically on-task and

controlling themselves. However, as soon as an activity was stopped to either teach skills, debrief, or move on to another activity, the group became chaotic and lost control of themselves once again,

> …when I tried to start a game using beanbags, an impromptu game of dodge ball started. Those that weren't engaged in that game were busy divvying up the snacks, which they have been instructed not to touch until told so (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12-13-2002).

Individual self-control problems. There were also many examples of individuals lacking self-control at the beginning of the after-school program. These examples are similar to the self-control problems experienced by the group. The biggest problem with individual behaviors observed by the adult group leaders was a general lack of desire to participate. Individuals that did not want to participate in the designated activity would undermine the goals of the group and do anything in their power to disrupt the activity until the entire group was no longer enjoying themselves,

> Cuzz actually scared me today. He was off the wall. Every time I looked at him he was doing something wrong. He was fighting with kids, popping other people's balloons, and refused to play the games outside (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12-5-2002).

Individuals were consistently observed touching each other and instigating fights rather than paying attention to the current activity, "He (Ray) was totally out of control. He would not listen or pay attention and he was constantly disrupting class and fighting with another kid in my group." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11-14-2002). Individual

behavioral problems also included talking out of turn, yelling, and calling each other names distracting the rest of the group from the activity they were engaged in, "…he (Gibson) was just full of energy and was always talking (usually yelling)…he did distract from things once in a while. He was one of the kids I caught throwing food at one time." (Taz, Observational Journal, 11-14-2002).

Certain individual youths also had difficulties listening to and following instructions. These same youths did not listen or respond to disciplinary attempts by the adult leaders, "He (Gibson) almost always questions or ignores direction and discipline. For instance, he is blatantly breaking the self-control maxim" (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11-22-2002).

Many times inappropriate behaviors of individuals hurt the entire group by forcing the game or activity to end. The following example of individuals' disruptive behaviors resulted in an ultimatum where each individual in the group was asked to make a decision between staying in the group and controlling themselves and leaving the group for good,

> Name calling ensued and Kay totally disrupted any effort to gain control of the group. Eventually, she was so disruptive the group reeled totally out of control to the point where I gave them an ultimatum (Scooby, Observational Journal, 1-31-2003).

Fortunately, after this ultimatum was issued, an abrupt change was observed as the individuals pulled themselves together and learned various facets of self-control that persisted throughout the rest of the after-school program.

Development of Self-Control

Throughout the after-school program, distinct changes in behaviors related to self-control were observed by the program leaders. In general, as the following evidence demonstrates, progress in self-control was made with each after-school session.

Development of general self-control. As the after-school program progressed, the group as a whole became better at controlling themselves, "Overall, with every child that was at the program there was much better teamwork and control within group and themselves than when we first started the program." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 2-21-2003). Because of their ability to control themselves in all aspects, they were able to successfully complete more games and activities. More time was spent playing and engaged in fun activities while less time was needed for teaching skills. Additionally, the group experienced more success in some of the challenges and activities that they were given. The improvements in general self-control behaviors of the entire group enhanced the youths' experience at the after-school program and increased the group's ability to learn, participate, and ultimately have fun,

> On the whole, they were very well-behaved. There were obviously flare-ups of negative behavior, but they were quickly quelled and more time was spent on-task and in activities. I think that everyone was very well-behaved…Everyone else was very good about calming down and paying attention and wanted to play, to the point where they started to tell those making noise to calm down (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11-22-2002).

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Development of physical self-control. Throughout the course of the after-school program the youths gained the ability to physically control themselves. There was less fighting, pushing, and touching each other, "But for the most part, the number of occurrences of hitting or pushing away, or yelling greatly diminished as a group." (Scooby, Interview, 82-83, 3/20/2003). If the youths did touch, they realized it was accidental and did not make any attempts to retaliate. They were less defensive and as a result got along much better. Also, because they were less defensive and understood that it was acceptable to touch each other in some capacity, they were able to successfully engage in activities that required them to be close to each other and sometimes touch, "…they gained enough trust in one another, or overlooked the fact their feet were draped all over each other for the larger group goal, but this was a major breakthrough in the self-control front." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11-22-2002). This level of self-control also allowed them to play more diverse sports and games in the small space that was provided, "What impressed me the most about this game was that the space was so tight, yet we still did not have any problems with kids colliding or getting out of control." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1-17-2003).

Development of verbal self-control. Improvements in the youths' language were not as distinct; however, they were still there. Even though the youths were still continuously engaged in conversations with their friends, they were more apt to stop and listen when they were asked, "These kids (Gibson**,** Juan, and Cuzz) used to drive me nuts constantly fighting or talking out of turn. They no longer do these behaviors as often." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 2/21/2003). Additionally, the group displayed less fighting and yelling. They still talked and argued as 4th and 5th graders do, however, their

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petty arguments no longer turned into physical fights as they used to. The name calling still persisted, but the youths seemed more aware that name calling was not an acceptable behavior. There was also much less swearing, and again, when foul language was heard the youths caught it and apologized for it without getting defensive. Overall, there were improvements in the youths' abilities to control their mouths along with their bodies, "As a group, I think that the group worked together as a team, cooperated and control their mouths and actions much better than when we started the program." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

Development of self-control during transitions. Perhaps the area of greatest improvement in self-control was during transitions. By the end of the program, the youths' self-control during transitions was so apparent that the amount of time they were able to spend playing increased enormously. Both the adult leaders and the youths looked forward to the walk from DES to the Rosemont Community Center, instead of dreading it, as this became a time of getting to know the youths and sharing experiences with them. It was also a source of energy and frustration release that the youths were not afforded in school,

> The last 2 months of the program I do not remember any physical fights among the kids. Picking them up at school was completely uneventful. The kids would run out to meet us and always wanted to leave for the Rosemont Community Center right away. They did not want to stay and fight with anyone. They were able to walk back to the Rosemont Community Center with us in a group and just chatting (Shaggy, Interview, 96-100, 3/22/2003).

Behaviors during snack time also changed from running around the room, yelling, and throwing food at each other to sitting and talking while eating their snacks, "Even when it came to snack time, the kids weren't disruptive at all and were quiet enough so that we didn't have to tell them to listen very often." (Taz, Observational Journal, 1-24-2003).

Improvements were even apparent when the youths were actively engaged. They were quick to quiet down for instruction both during and between activities,

> I think the biggest evidence of their self-control was how quickly they would get back on task. So, at the beginning of the program it seemed like it would take us forever to calm them down (if they ever did calm down). At the end of the program, however, the kids would get crazy, but would calm down almost immediately when we asked them to. Also, they recognized the behaviors that represented self-control and cooperation (Shaggy, Interview, 106-111, 3/22/2003).

Additionally, they were able to move from room to room, get drinks in the hallway, use the restroom, and go outside without any major crises occurring, "Scooby practiced walking in quietly with the kids. I was not there, but he said they did a super job with that." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12-13-2002).

Development of self-control through listening and following directions. As a result of the after-school program, the youths' listening skills also improved. The group was able to sit and listen to instructions from the beginning of the session through the

end, "I recall only one time the kids failed to listen and we had to have everyone sit silently...After the little talk, I think for the most part everyone quickly froze and waited for further instruction." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12-6-2002).

Because they were better able to listen, they were also able to follow directions. All of these skills added up to the group staying on task and accomplishing their goals, "The groups however really surprised me at how well they followed directions and stayed on task." (Taz, Observational Journal, 1-24-2003).

The youths eventually made the connection between their behaviors and the resulting outcomes. If they could sit still and quiet long enough to listen, they would get to play more and their games would be more fun when everyone was following directions,

> They finally realized that if they sit and listen for practically two minutes we can explain the activity and then they can play. Also, towards the end of the program we were able to debrief with the kids and they actually were able to tell us what they liked about the program and why they liked it. They were able to understand that they had to listen, cooperate and work together as a team (Tweetie, Interview, 72-77, 3/22/2003).

Individual Cases of Behavior Changes

Individually, it is obvious that a number of youths acquired social skills behaviors as their cooperation and self-control improved from the beginning of the program in October to the end of the program in February. The following three cases represent the greatest individual improvements in youths that were recognized by the adult leaders.

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Gibson. Gibson is one student that demonstrated enormous behavioral changes. The first day he attended the program Gibson would not look at or talk to anyone, especially the adults. It was obvious that he wanted to play and have a good time, but he was still unable to control his urges, "He basically just does not like to sit still when asked, talks extremely loud and has trouble cooperating with others in his group when a group decision has to be made." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002). Gibson wanted to win every game and would do anything in his power to ensure a victory for his team, even if it meant playing unfairly. He also did not like it when the physical activity stopped for any reason at all and was seen kicking, hitting, and pouting if things did not go his way,

> He is always picking on someone because he is bigger than everyone else and never wants to give me his clothespin. Also, he is very loud and gets upset when he does not get his way….he got upset every time the group went against what he wanted (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002).

Gibson always ignored the adults and any attempts made to control his behavior and help him participate with the rest of the group, "He almost always questions or ignores direction and discipline. For instance, he is blatantly breaking the self-control maxim" (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002). Many days Gibson chose to sit in the corner pounding on the piano keys distracting the entire group, "He spent a lot of time sitting on the piano pounding on the keys. He wrestled with Scooby and kicked him. I think he was the only one who was wrestling inappropriately." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/13/2002).

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By the end of the after-school program in February, Gibson emerged as an example to his peers, "I was pleasantly surprised to see Gibson and Ray setting positive examples for their peers." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1/10/2003). He still acted like a regular fourth grader on most days. However, his ability to control himself and cooperate with the group had greatly improved. One of Gibson's best days was observed during the field day. Gibson was truly interested in providing a fun experience for the younger kids that he was responsible for teaching. His caring showed in his ability to control himself and cooperate for the benefit of the entire group,

> Of all of the days, today was the session I was most proud of, and impressed by Gibson. He took ownership of his assigned section of the field day, but allowed the other members of the group a chance to voice their thoughts and ideas. He is the student who has made the most improvement and that makes the whole project seem worthwhile (Scooby, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

Gibson no longer pounded on piano keys and responded immediately to any discipline or attempts to urge him back into the group. His ability to control himself long enough to sit and listen to instructions demonstrated that he wanted to play, "…I asked the kids who wanted to play to sit around me quietly while I explained the directions and he (Gibson) did a great job with that." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/13/2002). He still wanted to win, but wanted to win fairly, "…if Gibson was tagged, he still gave a small fight saying he was not caught, but then moved his scooter to his partner, a welcomed site." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/19/2002). Gibson's cooperation also improved as he displayed caring behaviors and was frequently observed encouraging his

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teammates to work together to help achieve a common goal, "He (Gibson) cooperated with the rest of the group and displayed caring behaviors when individuals were hurt (both physically and emotionally)." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1/17/2003). Finally, Gibson was frequently heard asking his classmates to settle down and listen so they could have more playing time, "Gibson did a good job today. He listened and tried to encourage others to listen." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/5/2002).

Cuzz. Cuzz also demonstrated huge improvements in cooperation and self-control. It was obvious at the beginning of the program that Cuzz was lacking in these two social skill behaviors. He was constantly fighting with others and was always off task, "Cuzz was a pain in the ass today. He was very uncooperative and wanted to fight with everyone." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002). Cuzz did not seem to even know that there were group goals, let alone assist the group in accomplishing them. He did not respond to individual attention and would not even look at an adult when they were speaking to him. When he did respond to an adult, it was only to do the opposite of what he was asked,

> …on this day, he never responded to anything attempted. He popped the balloons
>
> and wanted nothing to do with anything attempted by the group…he misbehaved
>
> as soon as we met on the road near the Rosemont Community Center. I asked him
>
> not to throw anything and he did (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/5/2002).

On several occasions Cuzz would be told that he must control his body and not fight with others, he would immediately turn around and hit someone else, "…Cuzz who rushed over, and instead of trying to stop the fight, proceeded to kick Ray." (Scooby,

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Observational Journal, 12/12/2002). He was unable to cooperate and frequently

sabotaged his own group when attempting group challenges by fighting with other group

members and cheating,

> Cuzz is always one of the most interested kids in group when we first meet
>
> outside the school, and has demonstrated no signs of disdain or anger for what we
>
> do or how we act, but today he did not listen to anything we asked of him. During
>
> the relay races, he repeatedly cheated, either leaving early, not touching the walls,
>
> stopping opponents' team members from progressing or not running backwards
>
> (Scooby, Observational Journal, 1/31/2003).

By the end of the program, there were still many days when Cuzz would not

cooperate or control himself. However, on these days he usually kept to himself and did

not disturb the entire group, "...I don't remember a single time where Cuzz disrupted

anything or anybody." (Taz, Observational Journal, 2/21/2003). He had more cooperative

days than uncooperative days and was on-task much more often, "One person in

particular that had more fun and stayed on task was Cuzz." (Taz, Observational Journal,

1/31/2003). It was clear that he wanted to be at the after-school program and he was

generally willing to make adjustments in his behaviors to allow him to stay,

> Cute One and Cuzz both had great days. We have not had a single problem with
>
> Cuzz in 2003. Both boys clearly want to be here and have even set examples to
>
> the rest of the group to calm down so that they can all participate in the
>
> activities (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1/17/2003).

In fact, at one point in the program youths were asked to sit down and behave immediately or leave the program for good,

> When the ultimatum was handed down, he (Cuzz) did not move, and iterated there was no interest in him leaving, as he enjoyed coming to the program. I really think he just needs one-on-one attention, and only sees that attention on Fridays and when he does not get the expected time he takes to other methods of earning that awareness (Scooby, Observational Journal, 1/31/2003).

Cuzz did not falter in his decision to stay and after that day moved to the other side of the behavior continuum demonstrating increased cooperation and self-control.

Cute One. Finally, Cute One probably demonstrated the most improvements in cooperation and self-control. Cute One's early behaviors were very similar to Cuzz's behaviors, if not worse,

> I think he is the kid who has to work on self-control more than anyone. He never freezes or listens to any directions we give to the group. He constantly continues to move around the room and talks….I noticed that when he was out in the hall he was goofing   around (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/19/2002).

Cute One and Cuzz frequently worked together to disturb the group. In fact, many times when Cuzz was fighting, Cute One was either fighting with or against him,

> Cute One and Cuzz were very tough to deal with yesterday. I felt completely dejected because I had no idea how to control them. Every time I looked at Cute One he was tangled up in a fight with someone and very proud of it. Raymond was working extremely hard to behave yesterday, but Cute One kept picking fights with him (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002).

When the rest of the group was actively engaged in a group challenge, Cute One would be wandering around the room making noise. On several occasions he chose not to cooperate with the group because he did not like what they were doing.

> Cute One, like Cuzz, would not respond to discipline and completely lacked respect for authority,

> …he wanted nothing to do with anything we were trying to accomplish. From wrestling to play fighting, to actual fighting, he participated in numerous negative behaviors going against the grain of the session…he constantly grabbed and tackled competitors from the other team…quickly was disrupted and moved to the corner near the piano where he would not talk to anyone…He often ignores our calls for quiet, or ignores directions and does his own thing. When we try to pull him back on task, he pays no attention to our inquiries as to why he is acting in the fashion he is, and even mocks our voice (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/6/2002).

At one point, Cute One's inability to participate with the rest of the group caused him to be kicked out of the after-school program, "Cute One would not listen or follow instructions so I decided that I had to follow through on my threat and take him home." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1/10/2003). However, when he was being walked home for the day he showed remorse and a desire to return to the program. From that day on, Cute One's behaviors changed and became exemplary.

Cute One ultimately emerged as a leader in the program, "…I see truly amazing changes in some kids and how they react to each of our requests. For instance, Cute One has taken more of an active role in leading the group in positive directions…" (Scooby, Observational Journal, 1/31/2003). He understood the behaviors that were expected of him and knew when he needed to change his behaviors to comply with the goals of the program, "He (Cute One) gave input on why everyone had a better time today and what he personally did differently. He clearly noticed his change in behavior." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002).

Cute One's cooperation was stellar as he was the first volunteer every day to pass out snacks. He understood the rules of the program and would not pass out a snack until each individual was sitting as they were supposed to be. Cute One always informed his peers to be quiet and sit still so they could participate in the next activity, and for the most part his peers listened to him. He no longer fought with anyone and participated in every activity, "Cute One did a complete turnaround today. He focused and participated. The biggest change was that he did not fight with one person." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/13/2002).

Cute One's new social skills especially shone during the field day. Cute One took control over his entire group and led the younger participants in fun activities,

> Cute One was excited about teaching the younger kids. While the rest of his peers were running around playing, Cute One was working with the younger kids the entire time. He was like the main leader and the little kids followed him as well as his classmates… (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

He used many of the rules and routines with the younger kids that were used with him to teach self-control and cooperation. This was the ultimate evidence that Cute One had indeed learned the social skills cooperation and self-control, "Cute One really stood out to me today, as he was really the leader of the older kids…Cute One really showed how mature he was." (Taz, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

<div align="center">Research Question Three</div>

Which components of the after-school program attract youths to the program keeping them interested in attending the program? Additionally, which components of the program impacted the students' learning of the social skills cooperation and self-control and the behaviors that demonstrate their learning?

Qualitative data compiled from the observational journals, student interviews, and adult leader interviews were used to answer this question.

The Presence of Caring Adults

The importance of caring adults. The observations made by the adult leaders of the after-school program overwhelmingly support the notion that the youths participating in the program were affected most by the presence of caring adults, "Other kids probably

came to the program because they liked the teachers because we cared about them and their feelings." (Tweetie, Interview, 121-123, 3/22/2003). Regardless of the activities that were going on each day, the youths continued attending the program because there were adults there that cared about what was going on in their lives, "Even when they had bad days and the activities were not as fun as they could have been, the kids still did not want to leave and they always wanted to come back." (Shaggy, Interview, 236-238, 3/22/2003). The after-school program provided the youths with consistent caring from four adults who were not members of their family, "I think they kept coming because it was a group of people who took an interest in what they were doing outside of their house." (Scooby, Interview, 179-180, 3/20/2003).

Data gathered from the observational journals demonstrated that the youths obviously looked forward to seeing the adult leaders, "He (DeSown) was extremely happy to see me when I came in the door. He was jumping around and came and gave me a hug." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 2/7/2003). Their initial reaction when they were let out of school was to run up to the adults and greet them with hugs, handshakes, "high fives", and stories from their day,

> I was especially impressed with everyone's greetings. Almost every person ran out and gave me a hug. DeSown told me he had been missing me all week. Even Cuzz gave me a hug and seemed happy to see me. Additionally, when Scooby showed up DeSown physically jumped into his arms (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/5/2002).

They knew when one of the adults was missing and always inquired about their whereabouts. It was apparent that the youths began to count on the leaders and saw them as meaningful, caring adults in their lives. They started forming bonds with the adults and looked forward to developing these bonds each week,

> But it seemed like even in our little group, most of the kids found someone to bond with. Most of the kids had one of us that they pretty much went to and really enjoyed sharing information with. They also did not want to go home at the end of the day, even if it meant cleaning up and not playing. I think that was because it gave them individual time to talk to us (Shaggy, Interview, 343-347, 3/22/2003).

> As soon as I came into the room he (Que) was excited to see me and came up and shook my hand…he wanted to be my partner and did not want to let go of my arm or leave my side. He was very well behaved and under control (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/6/2002).

The youths agreed that the adult leaders cared about them. In their interviews, they all responded that they looked forward to seeing the adults at the after-school program. The youths thought the adults demonstrated their caring in various ways, "Because they're fun…They did fun activities…they give us snacks and stuff...And they help us…By making us laugh." (Desown, Interview, 65-71, 2/14/2003). The youths also made the connection between the adult leaders and the fun they had at the after-school program, "You're nice and we play fun games." (Cute One, Interview, 101, 2/14/2003). It meant a lot to the youths that the adult leaders joined in the activities with the youths, "Because you liked to play with us." (Dee, Interview, 80, 2/21/2003). This demonstrated

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to the youths that the adults were interested in developing caring relationships with the youths, on the same level as the youths. Finally, the youths explained why the adult leaders at the program made them feel good, "Like listening to you, and listening to your problems." (Cute One, Interview, 123, 2/14/2003).

At times, the presence of caring adults meant so much to the youths that they actually felt hurt and betrayed if they were reprimanded or disciplined by the adult leaders, "He reacted very favorably, answering each question, saying he enjoyed being here, and it was obvious that he saw Shaggy as a friend, a mentor, and by not giving him another bean bag he felt this bond was violated and he was hurt." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/13/2002). Furthermore, after the after-school program was cut down to one meeting a week, the youths took it personally believing that the adults no longer cared about them and that was why they were only coming once a week now, "Cray was the only one that seemed upset with this decision (to not meet on Friday). He said that we can't just drop them like that and that we need to think about them too." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/19/2002), "Some of them have even gone so far as to say that we only come once a week now because we (the adults) do not care about them and do not want them to have fun." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1/2/4/2003), and

> Then I said that we weren't going to meet over Christmas break either and a few of the boys seemed depressed by that. So, for the most part, I think that they are enjoying coming to the program and are getting something out of it since they want to come (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/19/2002).

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Another sign of the importance of the after-school program to the youths, and particularly the adult leaders at the program, was their hesitation in leaving. Observations by the group leaders suggested that the youths had to be forced to leave at the end of the program each week. Whenever they were dismissed moans and groans were heard by the leaders,

> I think the biggest factor in the program was that we cared. This was apparent
> because after school almost every single kid would run up to one of us and give us
> a hug. They always told us that they missed us while we were gone. They enjoyed
> walking back to the Rosemont Community Center with us and talking to the
> adults, not just the kids. During down times and snack times we tried to talk to the
> kids and most of them wanted to stay after the program to help clean up. I think
> this was because if they stayed after, they almost always received more individual
> attention. (Shaggy, Interview, 218-224, 3/22/2003).

 They were frequently found loitering in the parking lot after they were dismissed. Once, the adult leaders offered to walk the youths home as it was getting dark outside and they all jumped at this opportunity, "Everyone who was left wanted to walk home with us. Que insisted that we walk him all the way home." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 1/10/2003).

Demonstrating caring through physical touch. The aforementioned evidence demonstrates the importance of caring adults to the youth participants in the after-school program. One way the adults demonstrated their caring was through physical touch. Instances of physical touch were important to the youths from the moment they were met

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at DES. This was apparent in their overwhelming reaction to the adults that met them each week. Generally, they would run up to the adults and give them a hug, "He (DeSown) came up and gave me a hug at the school and right away he started talking about the fight that he was in with another student." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11/8/2002).

The adult leaders used physical touch throughout the program to teach the social skills. Adults would put their arms around the youths when correcting their behaviors and would ask the youths to come hold their hand or stand by their side if they felt the urge to hit someone, "The best way of controlling him (Juan) has been to hold his hand and have him at my side constantly." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 11/7/2002). If the youths did something well they would usually receive a pat on the back, a handshake, or a hug. As evidenced by the following observations, the adults did their best to offer a caring touch to the youths any time they were talking to them, reassuring them that someone truly cares for them, "Whenever I talk to the kids I put my arm around them or I hold their hands. They really seem to like and need this small touch." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 11/7/2002) and "Some kids come up and give me hugs and others always want to hold my hand or stand by me." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002). Finally, just as each session usually began with a hug from an adult, the youths frequently received hugs upon leaving the program for the day.

Demonstrating caring through listening and sharing stories. Another way the adult leaders showed they cared about the youths was through listening and sharing their own stories. The youths were looking for someone who would listen to them without judging them. When they came out of school as soon as they were done hugging the

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adults, they immediately began talking about their days. Having someone there to listen to them had an effect on the youths and contributed to their enjoyment of the after-school program, "Listening was probably the best strategy that worked…It gave them a little comfort, I think, to be able to talk with someone who was listening to what they have to say." (Scrappy, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002).

Some of the listening came in the form of the youths sharing stories about their personal lives with the adults. Others came from the youths asking the adults for help. They asked for help regarding school, home and sometimes social problems that they are facing with their peers,

> …but the time I talked to Cute One, or Gibson, or Kay or Cuzz was important to them…more of the kids are asking me for help, if they have a problem with another student and that should be one of the most important tenets of this program (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002).

Regardless of the reason, it is apparent that the youths are looking for an adult who will truly listen to them, "Some kids just come up to me and start talking about whatever and I listen. I think that they just want someone to care for them and listen. So that's what I do." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 11/22/2002). Furthermore, the youths wanted to be heard without being judged, "I do think that he (Gibson) appreciated that someone talked to him about his suspension without being angry or bitter towards him as his teacher appeared to be." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/19/2002).

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Both the interviews and observations demonstrated that the youths also enjoyed their time with the adult leaders because it was a chance for them to share stories. They would tell the adults stories about their lives and looked forward to hearing storied from the adults in response. Ultimately, they were looking for someone who cared to share their experiences with, "Just the fact that they would talk to us about other things besides school and the activities we were doing, it was almost, like I said before, a friendship that really showed that they thought that we cared enough that they'd give us the time of day." (Taz, Interview, 131-134, 3/16/2003). Additionally, the youths looked forward to bragging about their accomplishments. The adult leaders at the after-school program wanted to hear about the great things the youths had done. The youths were eager to find enthusiastic adults to share these accolades with, "…before I had a chance to ask him (Cute One), he came up to me to report on his teaching. I feel that Cute One and I are starting to connect." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/19/2002). By being active listeners the adults at the after-school program showed the youths how much they cared, this had a major impact on the youths' satisfaction with the program.

The interviews with the youths revealed the same finding. When asked if the adults at the program cared for them, the youths responded that they did care. One reason they knew the adults cared was because they listened to them. The youths knew the adults were listening to them because "(You) Look at us and talk back." (Dee, Interview, 87, 2/21/2003). Cute One knows the adults listen because they "Stop. Look at you. Stop doing what they're doing and listen to you." (Cute One, Interview, 116, 2/21/2003). Additionally, the youths knew they could go to the adult leaders at the program with their

problems, "Cause they say if you have a problem you can always come to me." (Kay, Interview, 62, 2/14/2003). Kay feels she can share stories and problems with the youths because "I don't think anybody else trusts me." (Que, Interview, 44, 2/21/2003).

Demonstrating caring while addressing behavior changes. The adults also showed caring when they attempted to correct negative behaviors observed in the youths. Uncooperative and out of control behaviors were usually addressed by an adult group leader. The adult would confront the youth who was behaving inappropriately. This confrontation entailed a description of the inappropriate behavior, questioning the youth to determine why the behavior was occurring, and reassurance given to the youth that regardless of their behaviors, the adults still cared about them. It was this reassurance that convinced the youths that the adults still cared about them. Even though their behaviors were "bad," the youths knew that they were not bad and the adults still cared about them. An arm around the shoulder or some form of physical touch demonstrating that the adult had faith that the youth would be able to change the behavior accompanied these disciplinary actions.

For the most part, the youths really responded to this type of discipline, "I was very impressed again with their responsiveness both to discipline and caring (arm around the shoulder, any kind of attention)." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 11/1/2002). They listened while the adult was talking to them. They seemed to appreciate that they were not being yelled at in front of the entire group. Sometimes, they even desired this personal attention. This was apparent when the youths were sent to "time-outs" in the hallways. When behaviors were so severe that the entire group was being disrupted, the guilty youths would be asked to step into the hallway until an adult could be spared to go

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discuss the behavior with them. Adult observations and interviews suggested that the youths craved this individual attention so badly that once they were in the hallway with the adults, they were oftentimes more interested in chatting and spending more time alone with the adults than getting back inside to play,

> All the kids love our individual attention. Even when the students stood out in the hall because of doing something wrong and we would have to go out and talk with them about their behaviors they just liked talking with us and spending time with us. (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

The inappropriate behaviors observed in the youths improved when it was evident that the adult leaders cared about the youths in the after-school program, "Ultimately, I still like to think that it is our caring about them that helps correct negative behaviors." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 2/7/2003). The youths wanted to please the adults and changed their behaviors accordingly. In general, whenever a youth received individual attention from an adult, his or her behavior and demonstration of both cooperation and self-control behaviors immediately improved,

> I think the caring adults had the biggest impact on these kids. It was obvious that they wanted to please us. They wanted to be the best behaved so that we could call out their name and say 'good job.' They enjoyed getting rewards from us in everything that they did (Shaggy, Interview, 336-339, 3/22/2003).

Individual versus group attention. The differences in behavior when youths received individual attention versus when they were a part of the group were monumental. A number of observed behaviors supported this finding. First, the youths were on their best behavior when they first came out of school. They ran up to the adults, hugged them, and told them storied about their days. Then again, at the end of the program, the youths wanted to stay afterwards where they would again receive more attention. By staying after and helping clean up they had more individual time to talk with the adults,

> Ray really seems to respond to individual attention. I noticed that he is very focused and controlled at the beginning and end of the session, both times when he is alone with us and gets attention from not just one, but three of us. (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/5/2002).

On the other hand, as the youths came out of school and the number of youths in the daily session increased, the behaviors of the group deteriorated. The adults were now responsible for multiple youths and their attention had to be divided among all the youths in the program, "…when others were receiving that attention then she acted up." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 11/1/2002). Their cooperation and self-control diminished as the adults now had to split their attention between more youths. It was as if the youths were fighting each other in order to get more attention from the adult leaders, "Sometimes, I think the students act out, so they draw attention to themselves, in hopes of receiving this one-on-one attention from an instructor or the other students." (Taz, Observational Journal, 11/1/2002).

P*hysical Activity and Sports*

One component of the after-school program was physical activity and sports. The group leaders attempted to use physical activity and sports to teach the social skills cooperation and self-control to the youths. The adult leaders introduced positive behavior and then gave the youths real-life opportunities to practice them through the games they played. These skills were reinforced through various games and activities throughout the after-school program.

The youths were asked in their interviews whether or not they liked the program and what their favorite aspect of the after-school program was. Generally, they responded that they enjoyed the program because they got to play games, "The after-school program was fun because I like to play, I like to eat, and I like to do some activities. (DeSown, Interview, 38, 2/14/2003). The youths liked every activity, every day. They were not given much opportunity to play with their friends at home or at school, the after-school program allowed them to do this, "Playing. Playing a lot. I don't get to play a lot at home." (Que, Interview, 21, 2/21/2003). When asked why they enjoyed the program, the youths overwhelmingly reported that it was fun because of the games and sports they played. They looked forward to coming to the program because of "the new things we're going to do," (Cute One, Interview, 46, 2/21/2003) and "Because I liked playing games with kids, my friends and stuff." (Gibson, Interview, 39, 2/21/2003). Additionally, the youths reported that they liked the after-school program because the activities helped them learn skills, "It helps us learn stuff like responsibility, cooperation, and teamwork. So if we went home and played with our little brothers and sisters we can teach them what you all taught us." (Que, Interview, 31-33, 2/21/2003). The adult leaders of the after-school program agreed with this finding. They felt the kids enjoyed the games,

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"When the students were engaged in an activity they were smiling, laughing, and having fun." (Tweetie, Interview, 129-130, 3/22/2003).

Opportunities not afforded elsewhere. Conversations with youths revealed that they were not given much opportunity to play at school. Much of their school days were devoted to raising state proficiency test scores. Time that was typically devoted to free-play was now spent in tutoring sessions. The youths were not allowed to play outside during recess as there was a fear of physical fights breaking out. During lunch, they sat in assigned seats and were not allowed to talk. This was apparent as the youths seemed desperate to play non-stop from the time they walked out of the school building to the time they left Rosemont Community Center at 5:30, "They were able to perform physical activities in a controlled setting which they were not afforded that opportunity in school." (Scooby, Interview, 182-183, 3/20/2003). The after-school program allowed the youths to devote time after school on Thursdays and Fridays to playing games with their friends. This was invaluable to them,

> I think the physical activities were also very important to the kids. It seemed that
> during their school day they were not given much time to play and be kids. As
> soon as the entire school poured out of the building, they all wanted to run around
> and play. (Shaggy, Interview, 239-241, 3/22/2003).

New experiences. Interviews with adults and youths as well as adult observations suggested that the youths learned new games and activities at the after-school program. They constantly requested to be allowed to play traditional sports such as football and basketball. However, once they learned the new games such as team and partner tag,

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team handball, group challenges, and trust falls they were sold on these new activities. The new games the youths learned at the after-school program gave them an opportunity to be successful at something different. They also gave the youths who usually do not stand out in physical education classes the chance to be leaders of the group,

> They were also given the opportunity to play some games and do some activities that were new to them, which was one of the goals of the program. I also think that they all experienced success on some levels through the games that we played, and they are not used to being successful (Shaggy, Interview, 241-245, 3/22/2003).

Some activities were so new to the youths at the after-school program that they enticed them to keep coming back. They realized that they could play the usual sports any time. Attending the after-school program forced them to challenge themselves with new activities and sports each week,

> They looked forward to various activities whatever we had in store. I think a lot of the activities weren't – trust falls, I'm sure that they didn't do trust falls. There were a number of activities that they had never participated in. It was sort of exotic. They didn't know what to expect and they came to see what fun activity they would do next (Scooby, Interview, 194-197, 3/20/2003).

The youths liked these new activities and games so much that when they were asked to choose games to teach the younger kids on the field day, they elected to teach some of the new games they had played in the after-school program.

Learning through new games. Additionally, the youths learned social skills by participating in these new physical activities and games, "The sports and games were fun and taught them how to work together." (Tweetie, Interview, 179-181, 3/22/2003). Some of the activities were designed specifically to encourage cooperation and teamwork. If the youths wanted to be successful, their team would have to rise to the challenge and work together. Throughout these activities, the adults offered guidance and reinforced cooperative behaviors,

> In the puzzle races they were also exceptional. They had to work together and include everyone in order to finish their puzzles. I really saw the groups come together to complete their puzzles successfully, and the way they celebrated after completing their puzzles was fun to watch (Shaggy, Interview, 250-253, 3/22/2003).

The youths needed to combine both self-control and cooperation to successfully complete a number of the activities that were presented to them. They struggled with these activities initially because they did not possess these skills. It was difficult for them to focus and work together to accomplish an intangible goal. However, as they developed social skills these group challenges became both easier and more fun for the group to attempt. Trust falls was one activity that specifically forced the group to cooperate and control their bodies, "They also learned a lot of their skills through the games. During the trust falls, I saw them work together and control themselves. Both the faller and the catcher had to control their body parts and their mouths or someone would get hurt."

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(Shaggy, Interview, 246-249, 3/22/2003). Other activities required the youths to work together in a small space, also reinforcing both social skills that were taught in the after-school program,

> Some of the other games that we played outside, like the peanut butter pit, the hula hoop games, the snow ball relay, and the group push-up also forced the kids to control their bodies and cooperate with each other. At first they seemed to struggle to come up with the skills to accomplish their goals, but it became clear that if they would cooperate they would achieve their goals and be successful. They needed to demonstrate self-control to be successful, and they did. (Shaggy, Interview, 253-258, 3/22/2003).

This evidence demonstrates that physical activity was a vital component to the after-school program. First, the success of the program relied on the youths' satisfaction with the program. The games and activities that were introduced at the program played a major role in the youths' satisfaction each week. Second, the games and activities were used to teach and reinforce the social skills cooperation and self-control. Even when games did not focus specifically on these skills, the youths had to cooperate and control their bodies to have fun and succeed as individuals and as a team.

Initiative Building

Initiative building was another component that was addressed at the after-school program. The youths were challenged to come up with a long-term goal on which to focus. They chose to plan a field day for the younger kids in the after-school program. At first, the youths embraced the initiative building component of the after-school program

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and seemed to enjoy planning the field day, "I heard them discussing the activities and really focusing on picking activities that were appropriate. Most of the kids seemed to calm down and enjoy this part of the day." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002). When the group sat down to plan the field day, they really thought about what they wanted to do and gave insightful ideas for the day,

> We had the kids choose age appropriate activities for 1st and 2nd graders. They came up with a lot of good ideas. I think they get excited thinking about what activities the kids could do. I think that all the kids for the most part were sitting and at least listening to the ideas if they had no ideas themselves (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 12/19/2002).

On days that the group actually sat down and became involved in planning the field day, they experienced success, "One group was highly successful in working toward the goal…" (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/5/2002).

> However, eventually planning the field day became a chore for the youths. As the games and physical activities became more fun, the youths realized that they were missing out on playing more fun physical games,

> Initially, the kids seemed very excited and this and were very into it. But I think that as we got more into the program and introduced more fun games to play, they started to resent initiative building as it took away from their game time. It was extremely hard to get them to calm down and focus on planning the field day (Shaggy, Interview, 267-270, 3/22/2003).

Their excitement about the initiative building declined and it became difficult to address this component of the program, "There was a futile attempt made to continue the initiative building." (Scooby, Observational Journal, 12/12/2002). Every week when it came time to plan the field day, the youths needed to be coerced into participating. They did not want to be taken away from their games for one second, especially if they were being taken away to sit and talk about something that they could not visualize,

> …but when it came to planning the field day it seemed to be between activities they really wanted to do and were having fun and we had to stop them and really force them to concentrate on working on this field day. Actually something that could have been fun, that they could look forward to this and they were actually planning a lesson for that day they could have really looked forward to that and had a good time with it (Taz, Interview, 143-148, 3/16/2003).

Furthermore, initiative building required time. The youths had to sit and quietly discuss and write down ideas for an extended period of time each day, and they did not have much time at the after-school program to begin with. It was difficult for them to remain focused on this task long enough to accomplish anything significant, "…eventually the kids got bored with just sitting there. In fact, at least in our group, only a few of the kids really participated in planning the field day. The majority of the kids just sat there and let others do the work." (Taz, Observational Journal, 2/7/2003).

Eventually, the youths came around and worked hard planning the field day. They realized that they were responsible for showing the younger kids a good time and focused their energy accordingly. Furthermore, the group worked together in completing this task,

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Today they complained a bit at first, but they got the job done. They also seemed

to get bored of it, but they took their task seriously and seemed to finally

understand that they were going to have to carry out their plans some day. My

group did all of the planning themselves. They worked together for the most part

and seemed interested in completing their task (Shaggy, Observational Journal,

2/7/2003).

The youths' efforts resulted in a successful field day for the younger kids

attending the Rosemont Community Center's after-school program, "Even though the

kids did not seem to enjoy planning the field day, they really did look forward to teaching

the kids and running the actual field day." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

The youths showed leadership when they were running activities for the younger kids.

They were excited to have an opportunity to teach for themselves and wanted the younger

kids to have a good time, "They were excited about working with the younger kids and

they did a good job setting an example for their young students." (Shaggy, Observational

Journal, 2/28/2003). They took great pride in their field day, and as a result, the day was

truly a success for everyone. The kids were very proud of what they had done and could

not wait to share with the rest of the group how their part of the field day was carried out,

"When we brought our kids back to the Rosemont Community Center they were bragging

about their days. The other group was also bragging and I heard them say that they had a

great time." (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

Additionally, some of the biggest differences in individual behaviors were apparent at the field day. Youths who had previously disrupted the group, altered their behaviors and became role models and leaders for the younger kids, "But the actual day itself I thought was great. Because I saw a lot of the kids, like Que and Cuzz, Cute One, they really wanted to take charge and be a leader." (Taz, Interview, 223-225, 3/16/2003). The field day gave the youths the opportunity to show off their skills, both in the games themselves and through teaching and leading the younger kids. They wanted their field day to be a success and worked hard to ensure that it was,

> Cute One was excited about teaching the younger kids. While the rest of his peers were running around playing, Cute One was working with the younger kids the entire time. He was like the main leader and the little kids followed him as well as his classmates. Que also did a great job. He was truly interested in helping and teaching the younger kids (Shaggy, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

The youths also reported that they enjoyed the field day. They did not seem to know what initiative building was. However, they liked planning the activities for and being in charge of the younger kids on the actual field day,

> I do not know if the kids realized that they met the three tenets of initiative building, but they did have a goal that they worked towards and realized this goal at the end of the program. I think they were very excited by this and I do believe that it meant a lot to them. (Shaggy, Interview, 364-367, 3/22/2003).

Even though the field day provided obstacles in the after-school program, the end result was a positive experience for both the youths and the kids they taught. Everyone had fun and learned from the experience, "Overall, I feel that both sets of kids enjoyed the field day…I still think it was successful. The kids had fun and had a chance to engage in activities and games." (Tweetie, Observational Journal, 2/28/2003).

SUMMARY

The results for this chapter were divided by research question. Overall, the intervention did not quantitatively enhance the protective factor social competence as measured by cooperation and self-control. However, qualitative findings using data gathered through observational journals and youth and adult interviews revealed that the intervention did cause significant behavioral changes in the youths relative to cooperation and self-control as observed by the adult leaders. Furthermore, the qualitative results showed that all components of the program impacted the youths' behavioral changes. However, the presence of caring adults seemed to have the most impact on the youths' behaviors. The youths' satisfaction with the after-school program was most affected by the curricular choices of physical activities and sports that the youths participated in throughout the after-school program.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether an after-school program that combines the presence of caring adults, physical activity and sport, and initiative building would increase cooperation and self-control (protective factors) in urban youths who attend the program. Furthermore, the study was designed to determine if any behavioral changes occurred as a result of youths' participation in the after-school program. Finally, the study attempted to determine which component(s) of the after-school program were most effective in satisfying the youth participants and changing their behaviors. This chapter is composed of the following three sections: (a) a discussion of the findings and implications by research question, (b) conclusions, and (c) recommendations for future research.

Discussion of Findings and Implications

Research Question One

Will an after school physical activity program with caring adults and initiative building enhance the protective factors of cooperation and self-control in urban elementary youths who have been labeled at-risk?

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Discussion of Findings

The Social Skills Rating System Student Form Elementary Level was used to determine frequencies of youths' cooperative and self-controlled behaviors. The results of the MANCOVA demonstrated that no significant gains were found in either the youths' cooperation or self-control mean scores. The following discussion offers possible reasons for this finding.

The program was ineffective. One explanation for the insignificant findings regarding cooperation and self-control is that the intervention simply did not work. It is possible that the combination of the components making up the after-school program were ineffective in significantly increasing the youth participants' cooperation and self-control. There could also be problems in implementation (such as time between after-school sessions and infrequent meetings) that made the after-school program ineffective.

Quantitative analysis of after-school programs. Finally, this study attempted to quantify behavioral changes in youths participating in an after-school program. Behavioral changes in 4th and 5th graders are not easily quantifiable. Regardless of the rigor of the research, there is still some doubt in the effectiveness of quantitative analysis of youths' behaviors. Don Hellison (personal communication, August, 2002), a renowned specialist on youth development programs, believes that quantitative studies conducted on these types of programs are never fruitful. According to Hellison (personal communication, August, 2002), observable changes that occur in youth behaviors as a result of youth development programs may not always be measured quantitatively. The types of changes that result from youth development interventions are best captured through qualitative data collection and analysis.

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Limitations of Quantitative Findings

The lack of significant quantitative findings in this study could be explained by the following limitations of the study. These limitations were barriers or challenges the researcher faced that were out of her control.

Difficulty understanding the instrument. One limitation may be the instrument that was used to measure the protective factors. Although the instrument was found to be both reliable and valid, the youths taking the pre- and post-test still had difficulty understanding the questions. Most of the youths needed to have the statements read to them. The youths participating in the study attend a low-performance school. It is possible that their academic and reading skills are lower than the youths that were used to validate the instrument. Because of this, the youths had to have some of the statements interpreted for them and may have misunderstood the meaning of the statements.

Distractions during the pre-test. The majority of youths in the study (21) completed their pre-tests in their home while their parents filled out the required paperwork for their child to participate in the study. Another factor that could explain the lack of significant findings could be the distractions that were present in some of the homes while the youths were completing their pre-tests. One distraction came from the parents/guardians simultaneously filling out paperwork while the child was trying to focus on the pre-test. Throughout the pre-test, some parents had to interrupt their child to get answers to the questions they were responsible for answering. Other activities may have been going on in the homes while the youths were taking the pre-tests drawing their attention away from the statements that were being read to them. For instance, while the youths were completing their pre-tests some of their siblings or friends may have been

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engaged in other, more fun activities. Additionally, in most of the households, the

television was on loudly making it difficult for the youths to focus on the statements.

Finally, there was a great deal of regular, family commotion in most of the households

while the youths completed their pre-tests.

Varying test conditions. Another possible limitation may have been the varying

conditions for both the pre and post-test. While the majority of the youths completed the

pre-tests in their homes, there were still a small number of youths (2) in the experimental

group who were not home the day they were signed up for the program. These youths

were forced to complete their pre-tests the first day they attended the after-school session.

Since these youths completed the pre-test on their own while the other youths were

engaged in games, they could hear (and sometimes see) their peers playing and having

fun. One explanation for varying mean scores could be that these youths were in a hurry

to get through the tests so they could rejoin the games. Additionally, since all the adult

leaders, on some days, were actively involved in the games being played by the rest of

the group, these youths did not receive the same amount of individual attention in

completing the pre-tests as the youths that completed the test at home. All youths in the

control group completed the pre-tests in their homes.

Similarly, seven youths in the experimental group completed the post-test at

Rosemont Community Center the second to last week of the after-school program.

However, there were some youths who were not present or had to leave early the day of

the post-test. These youths were given the post-test at DES three weeks later. The

youths that completed the post-test at Rosemont Community Center knew they were

missing out on play time to complete the tests. It is possible that they were in a hurry to

finish the tests so they could return to their games. Conversely, the youths who

completed the post-test at DES were pulled out of their classrooms at the end of the

school day. Additionally, they were given pencils and candy as a reward for completing

the tests. It can be speculated that these youths were in no hurry to get back to their

classrooms and took their time working through the test statements. As with the pre-tests,

all youths in the control group completed the post-test at the school on the same day.

   Differences between pre-test and post-test environment. The pre-tests were given

to the youths individually in their private homes. In most cases, the youths filled out the

pre-tests with their parents in the same room and with the help of an adult. Both the adult

and the parent could hear what the youths were saying. In some cases, the parent would

interrupt to tell the youths what to circle on their pre-test. Wanting to impress the adults

in the room may have influenced the youths to give answers that were not completely

honest representations of the frequency of their behaviors. In other cases, the youths'

answers may have reflected more honestly their true behaviors since they had an adult

working with them closely forcing them to think and focus on providing the best answer

to the statements.

   Due to time and space constraints out of the researcher's control, the post-tests

were given at one time to a group of youths either at the after-school program at

Rosemont Community Center or in the library at DES. Neither group had one-on-one

assistance completing the post-test like they had completing the pre-test. Since some of

the statements were worded in a way that was difficult for the youths to understand, they

may have had difficulty completing the post-test correctly without individual help. Additionally, they were in a larger group where the behaviors of their peers may have distracted their attention from the task at hand.

Time. Another limiting factor that may have affected the findings regarding youths' cooperation was time. The after-school program took place over the course of 15 weeks. The program met on Thursdays and Fridays for the first seven weeks, and then on Fridays only for the final eight weeks. This meant that there was a minimum of five and as many as six days, between treatments. Retention of skills and behaviors that were taught during the after-school session may have been diminished as a result of time lapses between after-school program sessions. Cooperation and self-control were skills that were focused on throughout the after-school program. Activities and group discussions were used to teach cooperation and self-control while giving the youths opportunities to use behaviors demonstrating these skills through participation in cooperative games and physical activities. It is likely that these youths did not have the opportunity to practice cooperation and self-control at home or in school under the supervision of caring adults, making their time at the after-school program the only time they were encouraged and rewarded for displaying cooperative and self-controlled behaviors.

Implications

The lack of significant quantitative findings in this study results in a number of implications. First, when evaluating the effectiveness of after-school programs in altering youths' behaviors, rigorous quantitative and qualitative methods should be used

to ensure the collection of valid and reliable data. The researcher was unable to completely control the pre and post test environments, thus, the quantitative aspects of this study may have been compromised.

Second, a valid and reliable quantitative instrument that applies to youths of all socioeconomic backgrounds is needed if quantitative evaluations are to be conducted. An instrument that can be easily read, interpreted, and used by youths of all academic backgrounds must be developed and tested for validity and reliability. This instrument should also use multiple raters (similar to the SSRS) to assure truthful evaluations of the youths' behaviors.

Third, studies should be designed to allow for enough time and space for the pre- and post–tests to be conducted in similar (if not the same) environments for all subjects. There should be enough adults present to offer individual help to all youths who are completing the tests. The youths need to be in environments where there are very few distractions. Finally, youths should complete the post-test in the same environment in which they completed the pre-test.

Fourth, in order for after-school programs to be effective, they should be designed to include more consistent contact with youths. Youths should attend the program multiple times throughout the week. Additionally, there should be as few days between after-school sessions as possible. Finally, research shows that youths grow up in an ecological system made up of multiple environments (Allen-Meares et al., 2000). In order for youth development programs to truly work, program designers need to attempt to reach each of these environments. Since youths will spend many hours outside their

after-school program, attempts should be made to train parents, schools, and others who come in contact with the youths so they will continue to be reinforced for their positive behaviors even when they are not physically attending the after-school program.

Perhaps most importantly, these findings demonstrate the importance of establishing a cooperative relationship among all involved stakeholders. The researcher faced many barriers in implementing this after-school program. These barriers were all related to the relationship with the school and the principal. First, the researcher was not allowed in the school until October, causing the after-school program to start two months later than initially intended. Second, the researcher was not allowed to use the school buildings for the program so the alternate space that was allocated for the after-school program was away from the school and was not sufficient for a physical activity program. Third, the researcher was only allowed limited contact with the youths. In implementing future after-school programs, the programmer should take great care in establishing a relationship with the school administrators, as well as any other related stakeholders, to ensure that the goals of the program align with the goals of the school. The aforementioned barriers may be avoided if a good relationship is formed among all interested stakeholders.

Research Question Two

What behavioral changes related to cooperation and self-control were apparent in youths as a result of participating in an after-school program combining physical activity, the presence of caring adults, and initiative building?

Summary of Findings

The qualitative data regarding behavioral changes relative to cooperation and self-control demonstrated that the behaviors of the youth participants in the program improved as a result of participating in the after-school session. At the beginning of the after-school program, the adult leaders of the program observed consistently uncooperative and out of control behaviors. It was difficult for the adult leaders to organize any physical activities as the youths were constantly fighting, talking, shouting, name calling, and clearly lacked cooperation.

Throughout the course of the after-school program, the youths developed behaviors indicating that they were more able to cooperate and control themselves. For example, there was much less fighting. Youths were more aware of fighting and knew how to stop themselves from fighting. They were eager to listen and willing to work together to achieve team and group goals. Their focus shifted from individual goals to group goals. Because the youths became better at listening and controlling themselves, working together, and not fighting, they were given more opportunities to practice these skills and ultimately had more fun as a result.

Discussion of Findings

Behavioral norms. There seemed to be a behavioral norm that was expected from the youths by their peers at the beginning of the program. Everyone was expected to be tough. They had to fight with each other to prove themselves to their peers. Furthermore, if someone insulted them or their family or friends, they had to retaliate. Many fights were instigated as retaliation for hurtful acts against the instigator.

Additionally, some fights were a result of the youths accidentally touching each other harmlessly while playing a game in tight spaces. The youths' initial responses to these accidental happenings were to fight back and defend their territory.

An example of the behavioral norms experienced by the youth participants lies in the neighborhood they live in. As Wandersman and Nation (1998) demonstrated in their neighborhood structural characteristics and environmental stressor models, youths living in inner cities face neighborhood characteristics and environmental stress relating to their living circumstances that result in negative behavioral and mental outcomes including social isolation, less pro-social behavior, aggression, and childhood behavior problems such as fighting. As a result of living in an inner city neighborhood characterized by environmental stressors, the youths in this study faced violence daily on their walks to and from school, during school, and even within their homes. For some of these youths, they must physically defend themselves in order to survive. They do not know any differently than to fight back regardless of where they are. To these youths, there was no difference between the streets and Rosemont Community Center where the after-school program took place. They must fight to defend themselves and survive on the streets. They did not realize that they were safe at Rosemont Community Center, so they also fought to defend themselves and survive at the after-school program.

The after-school program seemed to change these norms within the experimental group. The youths realized that while at the after-school program, they were safe. They did not have to defend themselves with their fists and they could accomplish goals

through means other than fighting. At least within the youths that attended the after-school program, there was an unspoken understanding that they could work together and control themselves without worrying about retaliation and appearing to be tough.

Quinn (1999) believes that offering youth development programs that increase opportunities for physical activity, development of competencies and achievement, positive social interaction with peers and adults, and a sense of structure and clear limits; such as the after-school program offered in this study; will mediate youths' negative outcomes associated with living in disenfranchised communities and neighborhoods frequently found within inner cities. Additionally, attending the after-school program offered the youths protection by providing them with a safe environment. Each hour that youths spend involved in constructive after-school programs, keeps them safe and off the streets for an additional hour (Halpern, 1999). Furthermore, environmental protective factors function to enhance resilience in youths (Benson, 1997; Christienson et al., 1997; Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2001; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). External protective factors include bonding with adults, connection to an organization, pro-social peer groups, positive activities, caring school and neighborhood, adult role models, support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, and constructive use of time.

However, it is difficult to say whether or not these behavioral changes were witnessed in the youths outside the after-school program. These youths had to leave the program each week and still survive on their way to and from school every day, at school, and even in their homes. They may still have to resort to fighting in the environments in which they live in order to stay safe.

Changes in self-control and cooperation. The findings from this study support previous findings suggesting that participation in physical activity and sport may teach self-control. The youth participants in this study demonstrated increased self-control throughout the program. MacMahon (1990) reported that self-control is a psychological factor associated with participation in sport that may lead to increases in participants' confidence. Similarly, Martinek and colleagues (2001) evaluated a youth development program that combined mentoring with a youth sports club. They found that participation in the sports club and mentoring increased the youths' self-control. Additionally, youths showed more signs of caring towards their peers, a behavior that was also observed in the youths participating in this study. Furthermore, Martinek and colleagues (2001) found that the youths in their study were able to transfer the skills they learned to the classroom. The ultimate goal of this study was to develop and evaluate a youth development program that will increase protection and positive behaviors, such as classroom behaviors and academic performance, while simultaneously decreasing negative behaviors.

Need for attention. Many of the youths' initial negative behaviors were a result of needing attention. The youths attending the after-school program were starving for the attention of a caring adult. Some of them were starving for any attention at all. Their behaviors reflected this need in that youths were motivated to behave in ways that would draw attention to themselves. Some youths would talk loudly or not follow directions because their prior experience was that this would force the adults to say their names and focus on them, even if only for a moment. They were willing to get in trouble if it meant someone was publicly paying attention to them.

Many of these youths are living in single-parent homes. Additionally, there may be multiple families or multiple children being raised in these homes. This means that there is less attention to be directed towards each youth. These youths do not have significant time to interact with adults who truly care about them. Their environment at school is not much different. Furthermore, youths' opportunities to receive extra attention from classroom teachers and school officials are also diminishing as class sizes are increasing and teachers are being pressured to teach to high stakes state proficiency tests (Rhodes, 2002). This means less individual attention is given to each student. Finally, youths are finding fewer adults in their neighborhoods to whom they can turn to fulfill their attention needs as positive role models are either working to support their families leaving them little time to devote to neighborhood youths or are fleeing to the suburbs in search of better opportunities (Sampson, 1992). The end result, apparent from the findings in this study, is that youths are resorting to negative behaviors to attract attention from adults to themselves.

The after-school program in this study offered the youth participants an opportunity to develop relationships with caring adults. There were four adults who consistently attended the program and showed the youths they cared through various means such as physical touch, listening non-judgmentally, sharing stories, providing encouragement, and acting as role models; all psychosocial functions of mentoring identified in both business and youth development literature (Einolf, 1995; Kram,1983; Smink, 1990; Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999). Furthermore, research demonstrates that psychosocial functions of mentoring facilitate positive youth development, particularly in

social situations outside of school (Einolf, 1995). The end result is that youths who receive positive attention from caring adults will experience increased protection through increased social competence (Herrera et al., 2000).

Initially, the youth participants in this study took advantage of the caring adults by displaying negative behaviors. They believed that if they acted up, attention would be drawn to them causing the adults to give them the public attention they desperately needed. The youths found, however, that it was their positive behaviors that were rewarded more frequently than their negative behaviors. The adults did their best to publicly praise the youths who controlled themselves, cooperated, listened, and followed instructions. These youths were rewarded with a pat on the back, an arm around the shoulder, and a verbal "Nice job!" in front of the entire group. The youths soon figured out that if they wanted this attention, they needed to display positive behaviors rather than negative behaviors.

The presence of caring adults could have enhanced the after-school program participants' protection in two ways. First, these adults may have fulfilled a need that is missing in the lives of most inner city youths (Freedman, 1993). Second, developing relationships with caring adults could have led to positive youth development outcomes such as social competence (Rhodes, 2002).

Activities that focused on cooperation and self-control. The activities that were offered at the after-school program were intended to increase the youths' cooperation and self-control. Every game and activity that the youths engaged in focused on teaching and practicing these social skills. The curriculum that was taught at the program was very structured in this manner. Even the more typical games such as dodge ball and team

handball were used to reinforce cooperation and self-control. These games were used to teach youths how to incorporate cooperation and self-control into their everyday lives. First the youths were taught the social skills. Then they were given the opportunity to practice them through fun games. The hope was that the youths would then learn to transfer their newly acquired skills to their everyday lives in accordance with previous research regarding life skills (Danish & Donohue, 1995; Danish & Nellen, 1997). Life skills, such as cooperation and self-control, are taught in one environment (physical activities) and then applied to other environments.

This finding demonstrates the importance of structured curriculum planning not only in after-school programs, but also in physical education classes. Physical activity and sport offers a vital opportunity for youths to learn and practice life skills (Danish & Donohue, 1995). However, program planners and physical education teachers must structure their curricula and lesson plans to encourage the development of these skills. Program planners and teachers who throw out balls to keep their students "busy, happy, and good" will not develop life skills in their students unless they use specifically selected games and activities to teach these skills.

Initiative building. Many after-school programs for youths are designed with the intention of keeping youths busy, rather than on positive youth development (Larson, 2000). However, the importance of self-control and cooperation can be learned in programs that put youths in leadership roles giving them the opportunities to make decisions (McWhirter et al., 1998). Furthermore, positive youth development occurs when youths use structured, challenging activities to enhance their skill development (McLaughlin, 2000). Initiative building is an activity that allows youths to be leaders and

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forces them to make decisions to help achieve a goal by devoting a cumulative effort over time (Larson, 2000). Initiative building was included in this study to give the youth participants a goal to work towards, rather than just providing a program to keep them busy. The findings relating to initiative building demonstrated that while the process of planning the field day seemed to increase negative behaviors in the youths, the final outcome was that the youths were forced to become leaders within their group in order for the field day to be successful.

Following are two suggestions regarding why the initiative building component of the after-school program invoked negative behaviors from the youths during the field day planning phase. First, most of the initiative building components of the after-school session were planned in the middle of the session to give the youths a break from the exhausting physical activities. One of the adult leaders (Taz) pointed out after the after-school program ended that perhaps the timing of the initiative building could have been the cause of the youths' negative behaviors. The youths started each session with a fun game. They then stopped for snack and could not wait to start the next activity. After a second activity, they were usually stopped to plan the field day. The youths seemed to know that there was another fun game waiting for them making this "sandwich" effect unsuccessful. One thing that could have been done to improve the timing of the initiative building component would have been to do this planning either at the beginning of the session or during snack time, when the youths were already expected to be sitting rather than playing..

A second suggestion for improving behaviors during the initiative building component involves Larson's (2000) second initiative building element, that the youths must have a concerted engagement in the environment. While the youths were planning their field day, it was months away. They could not make the connection between their planning and the day they were responsible for in the future. Furthermore, they may have never experienced a field day before, particularly in the winter, and did not know what it entailed. Essentially, the field day was not a tangible goal for the youths, so they did not have a concerted engagement. In order to make the field day more tangible to them, the youths could have taken a more active role in planning their daily after-school program sessions by deciding on and running activities and games within the session. In taking a greater role in planning each daily session, the youths would begin to get a feeling for what effort and ideas were needed in planning the field day for the end of their after-school program. This would have made the ultimate goal more tangible as they would have seen multiple small outcomes for their planning throughout the entire after-school program. If the youths were actively engaged in the field day planning, they would have had fewer opportunities to display negative behaviors.

Despite the youths' negative behaviors observed throughout the field day planning, the day itself was a huge success. The youths came together and did a great job working with the younger kids. They worked together to teach and demonstrate their favorite games from the after-school session along with games they came up with themselves. The youths were under control and truly demonstrated leadership and cooperation while working with the younger kids. In a sense, the youths acted as mentors or caring adults to the younger children they were responsible for during the field day.

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This relationship observed between the youth participants and the younger children is similar to Young and Wright's (2001) idea that mentoring should be cyclical in nature (Figure 5.1). Their model suggests that mentoring comes full circle when the initial mentored youths reciprocate by becoming mentors themselves. Initiative building and the field day that was planned and carried out initiated this mentoring cycle.
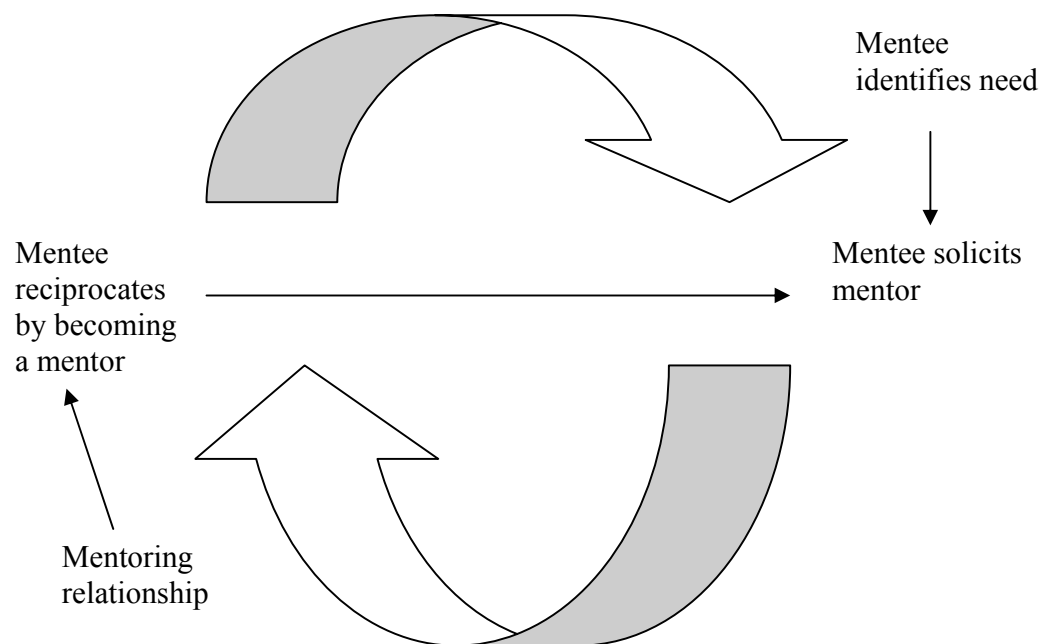
Figure 5.1. Cyclical nature of mentoring relationships as described by Young and Wright (2001).

Longitudinal effects of the intervention. This study evaluated the immediate effects of youths' participation in an after-school intervention. Youths' attended 20 sessions of an after-school program over the course of 15 weeks. Their behaviors were observed throughout the program to determine if there were behavioral changes in cooperation and self-control. The researcher did not have the time or resources to continue observing the youths to determine whether the changes in cooperation and self-control would last. One question that remains to be answered is whether or not these behavioral changes will still be evident when the youths are no longer participating in the after-school program. The researcher believes it is highly unlikely that the youths' improvements in behavior will still be witnessed after the intervention ends.

One reason why the youths' demonstration of cooperation and self-control may decline after the after-school program ends is because the youths do not receive reinforcement for these types of behaviors outside of the after-school program. In school, teachers are being pressured to teach to state proficiency tests, limiting the time they may spend on reinforcing cooperation and self-control (Halpern, 1999; Rhodes, 2002). Additionally, teachers are not teaching a curriculum that focuses specifically on cooperation and self-control, as the after-school program curriculum did. Furthermore, the youths' friends and family members do not possess these social competencies. They do not know how to use cooperation and self-control. The more time the youths spend outside the program, the more time they are exposed to the behaviors of their youths and their families. When they display cooperation and self-control, they no longer receive

positive reinforcement as they did while in the after-school program. In the end, the youths may find it more rewarding to revert back to their old behaviors that lacked cooperation and self-control.

Another reason why the youths' cooperation and self-control may decline when the after-school program ends is because they do not have the opportunity to practice these skills regularly. Within the program, activities and games were planned specifically to give the youths a chance to use these skills. Throughout each activity in every after-school session there were four adult leaders teaching cooperation and self-control. As the youths were being taught these social competencies, they were practicing them. Within these activities, the adult leaders made sure to compliment and reward youths who showed cooperation and self-control. Both at home and at school the youths are not involved in similar activities that focus on cooperation and self-control. While these skills can be used in everyday life, the youths are just learning these skills and need to be reminded when to use them. Furthermore, the more encouragement they receive for practicing these skills, the longer they will continue to use them. Like any other skill, repetition and practice will increase its use. Effective after-school programs will ultimately promote positive youth development by offering youths learning opportunities without replicating or reproducing their in-school learning experiences (Noam et al., 2002). This program was effective in changing youths' behaviors because it specifically focused on positive youth development and the enrichment of protective factors, such as social competence, as suggested by Brown (2002). Additional research supports this finding that formal after-school programming lead to more positive outcomes in at-risk youths (Posner & Vandell, 1994).

Implications

The following implications relate to implementing future youth development interventions based on the findings of from research question two. The researchers found that the combination of the components making up the intervention improved youths' behaviors relative to cooperation and self-control. This finding leads to several suggestions for youth development programmers in planning future interventions for at-risk youths.

While behavior changes were observed in the youths who participated in the after-school program, a more rigorous intervention would intensify these behavioral changes. Effective after-school programs should attempt to reach youths on a daily basis over an extended time period, rather than once or twice a week for a few months. A program that increases contact time with youths will also increase the amount of time youths may develop relationships both with their peers and with caring adults (Herrera et al., 2000).

Findings of this study demonstrate the importance of caring adults or mentoring in positive youth development. Receiving attention from caring adults was vital in changing behaviors of the youth participants in this study. These findings suggest that more attention should be devoted to developing positive relationships between adults and youths in youth development programs. Perhaps more importantly, attempts should be made to decrease the adult to youth ratio. After-school programmers should do their best to make one-on-one matches between caring adults and at-risk youths. Additionally, within youth development programs, more opportunities should be given for each caring adult/youth dyad to participate in physical activities together, further enhancing their relationship.

Finally, youth development programs should make an effort to follow Herrera and colleagues (2000) nine guidelines for establishing effective mentoring programs including training, monitoring, and supporting mentoring relationships. These guidelines should be evaluated and adhered to in order to increase the success of mentoring programs. Since it is known that youths grow up in ecological systems, rather than vacuums (Allen-Meares et al., 2000) all potential caring adults who could serve as mentors in communities should be identified and trained. Adults that should be included in this training include teachers and other school personnel, community workers and volunteers, business employees, and parents. This will enable youths to practice skills in all environments they are exposed to, rather than only at their youth development program. Furthermore, programs should be monitored and supported throughout their inception, even after mentoring matches have been made (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Herrera et al., 2000). Support of these programs may come in the form of resources, training, and assistance in matching youths to adults.

Research Question Three

Which components of the after-school program attracted youths to the program keeping them interested in attending the program? Additionally, which components of the program impacted the students' learning of the social skills cooperation and self-control and the behaviors that demonstrate their learning?

Summary of Findings

Findings regarding this question supported benefits of all components of this after-school program. Specifically, the adults found the presence of caring adults to be the most important mode of change in the youths' behaviors. They also felt that a

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combination of caring adults and physical activities and sports attracted the youths to the program and kept them coming back. The youths agreed that the adults at the program cared about them, but mentioned the games that were played as being the biggest factor in their attendance at the program. Initiative building was difficult to continue throughout the after-school program, but both adults and youths agreed that the end result (the field day) was a huge success and something that everyone was looking forward to. Finally, the after-school program component was difficult to evaluate as it was impossible for either the youths or the adults to separate it from the other components of the program. However, behavioral changes reported by the adults and demonstrated by the youths support the notion and previous research showing that after-school programs are vital elements in positive youth development.

Discussion of Findings Relative to After-School Programs

    Findings. Research has shown that the negative consequences of unstructured after-school time may be reversed through youths' participation in an organized after-school program (Halpern, 1999). The more time youths spend in after-school programs, the more time they are kept off the streets and safe. More importantly, using after-school time in planned activities will extend youths' learning opportunities (Miller, 2001). There were no findings relating specifically to the youths participation in the after-school program alone. This may be because the after-school program did not stand alone. The program contained three other components that both the youths and adult leaders recognized. The presence of caring adults, physical activity and sports, and initiative building made up the after-school program, thus it was difficult to evaluate the effects of the after-school program alone. However, previous research as outlined below suggests

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that after-school programs are effective in enhancing youth development, protective

factors, and resiliency in youths. The findings from this study support the research that is

discussed below.

Changes in social functioning. Findings from this study support Posner and

Vandell's (1994) finding that participation in after-school programs is associated with

youths' social and academic functioning. Unfortunately, the researchers were not granted

permission to analyze the youth's academic records to determine how participation in the

after-school program affected their academic progress. However, the youths in this study

improved their social behaviors throughout the course of the after-school program.

Changes were seen in skills such as cooperation and self-control. Ultimately, like youths

in Posner and Vandell's (1994) study, the program participants' peer relations improved

as a result of participating in the after-school program. Additionally, youths in Posner

and Vandell's (1994) study benefited from spending more time with adults and peers,

another finding in this study.

Context of learning. In a study conducted by Kahne and colleagues (2001), youths

reported that they preferred the context of learning in after-school programs to the

context of learning at school. Furthermore, they reported receiving more support for

youth development in after-school programs. The after-school program offered to youths

in this study may have been effective in teaching social skills cooperation and self-

control to the youth participants because it was a learning context different from the

youths' school day. Additionally, Kahne and colleages (2001) concluded that after-

school programs are most beneficial to African-American boys living in the inner city.

The experimental group in this study, by chance, was composed mostly (n=10) of

African-American boys, all who lived in the inner city. It is interesting that mostly African-American boys self-selected into the experimental group by choosing to attend the after-school program while the control group was made up of only three African-American boys and the rest (n=8) either girls or Caucasian boys. There was not a single Caucasian boy in the experimental group and only one girl who labeled herself Hispanic/Caucasian. Perhaps another reason why the after-school program was so beneficial to the youths was because the experimental group was made up of mostly African-American boys living in the inner city, a group who has already been found to benefit most from positive youth development programs in the past (Kahne et al., 2001).

Similar to Kahne and colleagues findings (2001), Noam and colleagues (2002) suggested that effective after-school programs offer youths opportunities for learning without replicating the youths' in school learning experiences. The behavioral changes observed in the youth participants in this study may be attributed to the differences between the after-school program and the youths' school environment. Youths' experiences in school are changing as schools are being forced to teach to high-stakes outcomes tests and cutting non-academic subjects such as physical education in order to devote more time to increasing test scores (Halpern, 1999; Rhodes, 2002). There was a heavy focus on state proficiency tests at DES. Youths were engaged in a rigorous academic program aimed at increasing the school's proficiency scores. Their days were very structured without much time allotted for play or free time. The youths reported that they were rarely allowed to have recess outside. Their lunch periods were spent either sitting quietly in the cafeteria or in tutoring. Youths that ate their lunches in the cafeteria

must sit quietly in assigned seats. Finally, the youths at DPS only received physical education once per week for half an hour, so the youths were excited about the opportunity to be physically active.

Conversely, at the after-school program, youths were taught through play and sports. Social skills were introduced and then practiced and reinforced in the games that were played. Furthermore, the youths knew that attending the after-school program was a choice and a privilege. They were also allowed a say in the games that they played as well as the rules that would be enforced within each game. This promoted youth development as the youths were involved in a richer, more experiential, well-rounded and democratic learning experience (Noam et al., 2002) than what they were exposed to at school.

Reasons for success. The after-school program that was offered in this study may have been successful for a number of reasons as suggested by (Noam et al., 2002). First, after-school programs offer youths memberships in small groups. Youths in this study were given the opportunity to work and play with the 11 other youths who participated in the program. This group of youths was smaller than their class size. Second, youth programs that are voluntary are more successful in extending learning. All participants in this after-school program were volunteers. They made the decision to sign up for the program and they made a weekly decision to attend each session. Third, after-school programs may be successful because they give youths chances to experiment with new learning content and materials. This after-school program curriculum was designed to offer new games and activities to the youths. The youths agreed that the majority of the games played at the after-school program were either new to them or variations of games

they already knew. Finally, after-school programs are effective youth development programs because they offer youths opportunities to build relationships with both peers and adults. The program offered in this study used four consistent adult leaders to build relationships with the youth participants. Additionally, games and activities were planned with the intent to increase the need for positive relationships between all the youths in the program and adults.

Few opportunities for extracurricular activities. Additionally, after-school programs are ideal opportunities for extended learning to occur after-school hours (Halpern, 1999). Unfortunately, supply for after-school programs does not meet demand for these programs in inner-cities (Halpern, 1999). Nevertheless, youths still need a safe place to go to enhance their learning after school hours. Perhaps this study was effective in attracting and keeping youths in the program merely because it offered youths a safe place to go after school while simultaneously extending their opportunities leading to increased learning.

Enhanced protection and resilience through participation in after-school programs. Benard (1993) identified four attributes of resilient youths; social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose for the future. According to Dungan-Seaver (1999), after-school programs offer at-risk youths opportunities to enhance protective factors ultimately developing these attributes. However, in order for these programs to be successful, they must focus on positive youth development and enhancing protective factors.

The after-school program in this study was designed specifically with the goal to develop Benard's (1993) social competence attribute by teaching cooperation and self-control, both skills that make up social competence. Furthermore, the after-school program gave youths opportunities to increase their problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose for the future through the physical activity curriculum that was offered, initiative building, and the presence of caring adults. The youths regularly participated in activities that encourage problem solving throughout the course of the program. Furthermore, the initiative building component required both problem-solving skills and increased the youths' sense of purpose for the future as it gave them a long-term goal to focus on. Initiative building also helped develop autonomy in the youths as they were responsible for planning and carrying out their field day at the end of the program.

Additionally, the presence of caring adults is a protective factor (Burt et al., 1998) and the program offered the youths opportunities to develop relationships with caring adults. Furthermore, the after-school program that was offered focused on non-academic activities rather than tutoring, another best practice believed to build protection in youths (Brown, 2002). This is also supported by the belief that positive youth development will occur in less structured environments where youths are allowed to play with their peers while still receiving adult supervision (Holland & Andre, 1987). Finally, previous research has demonstrated that positive changes in youths will result from benefits based youth development programs, such as the program in this study (Catalano et al., 1999;

Hattie et al., 1997; Roth et al., 1998). These programs utilize a focused curriculum with goals and related activities to meet those goals, rather than merely keeping youths "busy, happy, and good."

Discussion of Findings Relative to Physical Activity and Sports

The qualitative findings reported in Chapter 4 suggest that the physical activity and sport component of the intervention played a significant role in the youths' satisfaction and behavior changes.

Youths' satisfaction with the program. The youth participants reported that they liked coming to the after-school program because of the games they played. This supports the belief that sport is an excellent medium to attract youths to after-school programs (Lawson, 1998; Martinek & Hellison, 1997). Other researchers have found sport to be especially attractive to minority youths and youths living in poverty, similar to the youths in this study, as sport is seen to them as means of upward mobility (Lawson, 1998). This demonstrates the importance of marketing after-school youth development programs to youths. It is not enough to just offer programs to youths. Programs must be designed to satisfy youths. In order to best serve at-risk youths, programs should be directed at their interests (sports) and then marketed directly to attract them.

Reasons why physical activity and sports were effective. Physical activities and sports were found to be important factors in the youths' desire to attend the after-school program and in their behavioral changes. Martinek and Hellsion (1997) identified 11 guidelines that should be used in establishing effective youth development programs.

Physical activities and sports act as an effective medium through which to apply these guidelines.   Table 5.1 lists these guidelines, how they apply to sport, and how they were applied in this youth development intervention.

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport	Application to Youth Development Intervention
1. Treat youth as resources to be developed. Work from strengths; emphasize competition and mastery to build self-confidence, self-worth, and the ability to contribute. Label children "at promise" instead of "at-risk" (Swadener & Lubeck, 1995).	1. Participation in sport allows youths to focus and build on their strengths. Self-confidence is increased as skills are mastered and competition provides opportunities for success. Sport also gives every youth the opportunity to contribute in some way.	1. Youths participated in competitive physical activities and sports. Youths' self-confidence increased as a result of skill mastery and competition. Every youth was given opportunities to contribute to the team and to experience success.

(continued)

Table 5.1

Application of Martinek and Hellison's (1997) Guidelines to Effective Youth

Development Programs

Table 5.1 (*continued*)

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport	Application to Youth Development Intervention
2. Focus on the development of the whole child.	2. Sport develops the whole child. Physical development occurs through mastery of skills and gains in strength and fitness. Emotional and psychological development occur as the child learns to handle both success and failure. Social development occurs, as the child must interact with peers (teammates) and adults (coaches). Ethical and moral development occur as the child must learn to play by the rules of the game.	2. Youths developed physically as they mastered sports and physical skills. Youths developed emotionally and psychologically as the activities allowed them to both succeed and fail and taught them how to handle both. Youths developed socially as they had to interact with their teammates and the adults to experience success. Youths developed ethically and morally as they learned to follow the rules and focus on the success of the entire group, instead of their individual success.
3. Respect the individuality of the participants.	3. All participants in sport are allowed to demonstrate their individuality as each youth has different strengths that contribute to the success of the entire team.	3. Each youth was encouraged to use their individuality to help the team achieve it's goals.

(continued)

Table 5.1 (*continued*)

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport	Application to Youth Development Intervention
4. Empower children by encouraging independence and teaching them that they can control their own lives through active participation. Give children a voice in the program and let them be leaders.	4. Youths who participate in sport are empowered as they learn that they are independent and have a means of controlling their lives. They also learn to be leaders through leading their teams both on and off the field.	4. Youths were encouraged to take part in establishing and changing rules. They were also expected to lead their team and teammates throughout the various activities and sports that were played.
5. Include a set of values with clear expectations in the program.	5. Participation in sport includes adherence to rules, values, and ethics. Without these norms, participation in sport would be less attractive as conflict would develop.	5. Cooperation and self-control were taught throughout the after-school program. In playing their games, the youths were expected to demonstrate these skills by following rules, working together, and respecting one another and the adults.

(continued)

Table 5.1 (*continued*)

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport	Application to Youth Development Intervention
6. Help children envision a possible future for themselves.	6. As youths become successful in sport, they realize that they can also be successful in life, which helps them to envision a possible future for themselves.	6. Youths experienced success daily in the games and activities that they played. This small element of success will stay with them in life as they have now realized that they are capable of succeeding, now and in the future.
7. Provide a psychologically and physically safe environment for children.	7. Youths who participate in sport feel both psychologically and physically safe as they are receiving constant supervision and reinforcement from both caring adults and peers.	7. The after-school program gave the youths a place to go after school, keeping them off the streets and physically safe. Additionally, the youths were psychologically safe as the environment at the program reinforced positive behaviors from all youths and provided caring adults to supervise the youths.

(continued)

Table 5.1 (*continued*)

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport	Application to Youth Development Intervention
8. Keep program numbers small and encourage long-term participation to create a sense of belonging and membership. Allow children to develop close personal relationships.	8. Most sport programs or teams are comprised of small numbers of participants making each youth more valuable to the team. Participants will also develop a sense of belonging and membership to the team, which Anderson-Butcher and Fink (in review) have found to be significant predictors of resiliency.	8. Between 8 and 15 youths attended the after-school program regularly. These numbers were small enough that each youth felt valuable to the group and the team. The weekly meetings and formations of teams within the program increased the youths' sense of belonging and membership. Additionally, the youths at the program developed personal relationships with each other and with the four adult leaders that consistently attended the program.
9. Maintain local connections through linkages with the community.	9. Sport programs have an opportunity to create and maintain local connections with the community through partnerships and sponsorships of sports teams, as well as by mentoring youths in community programs.	9. The after-school program created a link with the nearby university by using three students as the caring adults that ran the program. *(continued)*

Table 5.1 *(continued)*

Martinek & Hellison's Guidelines (1997)	Application to Sport	Application to Youth Development Intervention
10. Provide persistent and courageous leadership so the program will last.	10. Effective programs will use consistent evaluation and feedback to constantly improve their program so they can better and longer serve youths.	10. The adult leaders of the after-school program regularly sought feedback from the Rosemont Community Center administrators to better serve the youths. Additionally, conversations with each other and advisors were used to evaluate the current curriculum and progress of the after-school program.
11. Provide children contact with caring adults.	11. Sports provide multiple opportunities for youths to have contact with caring adults, their coaches or program leaders.	11. Four caring adults consistently attended the after-school program. These adults supervised the youths at the program, but more importantly spent time getting to know the youths and developing relationships with them.

Another reason why the youths may have been attracted to the after-school program was because it gave them something in which to be affiliated. Bonding and affiliation have been found to increase youths' satisfaction and positive outcomes associated with the youth development program (Holland & Andre, 1987; Larson, 2000). The youths that attended the after-school program in this study became affiliated with the program. They were a part of a team. Their teams worked together to accomplish goals and to succeed in the games, activities, and challenges that they were presented with.

Teaching through sport. The youths learned and practiced cooperation and self-control through various physical activities and sports. The adult leaders observed changes in the youths' behaviors while playing games at the after-school program. Collingwood (1996) reported that sport is a valuable teaching and learning domain. Martinek (1997) also found that physical activity is a resource for physical, educational, and social enrichment. The findings presented in this study support Martinek's beliefs because the youths' social competencies were improved, or enriched, as a result of participation in the after-school program.

Enhancing resilience. The aim of this study was to increase resilience in at-risk youths by enhancing protective factors; specifically social competencies cooperation and self-control. The findings suggest that youths' cooperation and self-control improved as a result of participating in the intervention. Previous research supports the notion that participation in sport and physical activity increases protection in at-risk youths (Lawson & Anderson-Butcher, 2000). Further, sport programs, such as the one in this study, that emphasize positive values including social skills, initiative, positive peer relationships, developing self-esteem, and an optimistic view of the future have been found to enhance

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positive youth development (Collingwood, 1996; Danish & Donohue, 1995; Danish & Nellen, 1997). One reason why participation in sports and physical activities may increase resilience in youths is because they teach life skills (Collingwood, 1996). Life skills are behaviors that are learned in one domain, such as sport, and can then be transferred to other areas of youths' lives.   Life skills are also attitudes that enable youths to succeed in the environment in which they live (Danish & Donohue, 1995). Youths in the after-school program that was studied here learned cooperation, self-control, responsibility, goal-setting, and problem-solving skills through the physical activities and sports they played. All these skills can be used by youths in other areas of their lives, offering them protection and ultimately leading to resilience.

Discussion of Findings Relative to the Presence of Caring Adults

The qualitative findings reported in Chapter 4 suggested that the presence of caring adults kept the youths coming back to the after-school program and played a major role in changing their behaviors. There are a number of reasons that can be discussed regarding the importance caring adults played in the intervention.

Adult leaders as role models. Presence of caring adults is a protective factor (Burt et al., 1998). Additionally, caring adults foster positive behaviors in youths (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). There is a shortage of adult role models in families and communities, particularly in inner cities (Rhodes, 2002). Perhaps because of this, our findings revealed that the adult leaders in the after-school program functioned mainly as role models for the youth participants. According to Yancey (1998), role models are individuals that are worthy of imitation. Findings by Yancey (1998) demonstrated that role modeling led to increased confidence, self-esteem, and enhanced motivation of

youths. Role modeling is especially beneficial for youths in group mentoring settings. The after-school program in this study allowed the youths to have more contact with exemplary individuals. The end result was the youths' satisfaction with the program and observable behavioral changes as indicated by the qualitative results.

However, the adult leaders in the after-school program did not have much in common with the youth participants. The adults were all Caucasians from middle class families. They never experienced living in an environment similar to what the youths lived in. While the youths still looked up to them as role models, perhaps they would have emulated them more if they were from similar racial and socioeconomic backgrounds. There were times when the adult leaders felt that their race was a barrier in providing a satisfying experience for the youths.

One-on-one attention. Qualitative results showed that youth participants and satisfaction with the program were both enhanced when the youths received one-on-one attention from the caring adult leaders. Adult leaders in the after-school program provided youths with social capital (Coleman, 1990), compensating for insufficient or missing adult relationships and resources inherent in many inner city youths. These resources are necessary for success in school. Additionally, as discussed earlier, the youths in this study were victims of a focus on state proficiency testing which changed their school environment and reduced their exposure to social capital. Their class sizes were larger and they were so focused on teaching to tests that the development of relationships between teachers and students diminished in school.

Because of this, youths responded the most to one-on-one attention from adults. Their cooperation and self-control improved when they knew they would be rewarded with individual attention. Additionally, the results showed that youths returned each week because they knew they would receive individual attention from caring adults. This finding supports previous research implicating the importance of mentoring in positive youth development (Barron-McKeageney, Woody, & D'Souza, 2001; Einolf, 1995; Freedman, 1993; Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Martinek et al., 2001; Yancey, 1995)

Attachment and bonding. Results of the study showed that youth in the study bonded with the adults in charge of the program. This would have increased the youths' satisfaction with the program and enhanced their social competence development .White-Hood (1993) found that youths who are attached and bonded to caring adults face challenges more easily. Ultimately, these relationships increase their likelihood of success. The youths in the after-school program may have been more successful at accomplishing the program goals because they formed attachments to and bonded with the adult leaders.

Successful mentoring programs. Grossman and Tierney (1998) studied successful mentoring dyads in Big Brothers Big Sisters program. They found that mentors in successful dyads had high expectations of the youths, developed positive relationships and attachments with youths, demonstrated communication and understanding, gave positive attention for positive behaviors, and were fully supportive of youths. The success of the caring adult component of this program may lie in these factors affecting successful youth mentoring dyads. While the adults were not matched one-on-one with

the youths, each adult still had high expectations, developed positive relationships, communicated, demonstrated understanding, gave positive reinforcement for positive behaviors, and fully supported the youths.

Herrera and colleagues (2002) listed nine factors of successful mentoring relationships. The after-school program in this study addressed three of these factors. First, the adults and youths participated together in social activities. The focus of the after-school program was on physical activities and sports. Seconds, youths were encourage to take part in the decision making process. Youths were fully responsible for decisions made regarding initiative building. Some days youths were asked to help decide which games to play. Additionally, on most days the youths were responsible for deciding appropriate rules for their games. Third, Herrera and colleagues suggested that mentoring will be most successful in elementary age children. The youths in this study were fourth and fifth graders.

The remaining six factors suggested by Herrerea and colleagues (2002), if addressed, may have increased the youths' satisfaction with the program and led to greater behavioral changes. First, mentoring programs should devote some time to academic activities. However, if programs devote too much time to academics, then both the youths' satisfaction and learning may decrease as a result. However, there was not enough time in this study to fulfill the goals of the program and devote time to tutoring the youths.

Second, mentoring programs should include initial training for the caring adults. This study did not have the time or resources to train the adults. However, all of the adult leaders had a background in sports, coaching, and/or teaching. Third, youth mentors

should be offered continued training and support throughout the entire program. The mentors in this study did have each other for support throughout the entire program. They also had resources at Rosemont Community Center that offered them support. However, there was not enough resources available for continuing official support and training.

The final two factors are mentor screening and matching of mentors to youths. The researcher did not have the luxury of screening or matching in this study. Three adults volunteered to assist with the program. All three adults had previously demonstrated caring behaviors and were interested in helping the researcher. Because of this, screening may not have been necessary. Further, matching was not an option. If there were more available volunteers, the researcher would have attempted to find caring adults that matched the youths racial and socioeconomic backgrounds more closely.

Discussion of Findings Relative to Initiative Building

The initiative building component of the youth development intervention proved to be a challenge for both the adult leaders and the youths. The youths were not enthusiastic about the initiative building component of each after-school session and even complained when it was time for this component of the after-school sessions. However, the youths were successful in running their field day, the culminating event, at the end of the intervention. One explanation suggested in the qualitative results for why the initiative building component may not have been liked by the youths is because it was too structured, similar to their school days. Holland and Andre (1987) suggested that positive youth development and the teaching of skills should be less structured in order

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for youths to see the most positive outcomes. The youths attended the after-school program because it gave them the opportunity to engage in less structured play and learning, not to extend their school day

There are three tenets of initiative building: intrinsic motivation, concerted engagement in the environment, and a temporal arc (Larson, 2000). The youths must want to plan the activity that is being planned, they must see a tangible goal that their efforts are being directed towards, and they must see an outcome over time. The findings reported in Chapter 4 suggest that it was difficult for the youths to meet these tenets within the realm of the after-school program. First, youths must be intrinsically motivated to participate in initiative building. The youths came up with and voted on the field day. It was their idea and they were excited about planning something for the younger kids. However, the findings suggest that they were not intrinsically motivated to follow through with the planning. Rather, based on observations made by the adult leaders the youths wanted to be playing games and sports. They felt that initiative building was taking away from their game time and resented, rather than looked forward to, it.

The second tenet of initiative building is concerted engagement. The youths must see a tangible goal that their efforts are being directed towards. While the field day was certainly a goal, it was not tangible to the youths.   Findings suggest that the youths did not make the connection between what they were doing to prepare for the field day and the outcome that would be realized on the last day of the after-school program in 15 weeks. The youths were constantly reminded of their goal, but it was not tangible. One effort was even made to demonstrate to the youths what a field day would look like. The intent of this session was to show the youths how a field day could be run and what fun

could be experienced during it. However, according to the adult leaders' observations, the youths' behaviors on this day were so negative that they had to be sent home early and they missed the point of the field day all together. Furthermore, the timing of the after-school program made it difficult for the youths to fully engage in the planning. They only met once or twice a week and felt an urgency to play the entire session. Taking time away from their games to plan a field day that they were not sure would ever really happen seemed to be a waste of the youths' fun time. Again, the qualitative findings suggest that their behaviors reflected this bitterness in being forced to sit and plan rather than play and have fun.

Finally, initiative building must include a temporal arc. The youths must see the outcome of their planning over time. Based on the qualitative findings, when the youths actually ran the field day for the younker kids, they realized the outcome and that they had accomplished their goals. The youths were excited about this success and wanted to share it with everyone. However, throughout the planning of the field day they did not realize that there would be an outcome and struggled to focus their attention on this goal.

The results suggest that the field day the youths decided on for their culminating event may have played a role in the youths' dislike for initiative building. First, due to constraints out of the researcher's control the field day was planned for a day in late February. The weather around this time of year is unpredictable and could be very cold and wet. Because of this, the activities that were planned for the field day had to be indoor activities. This limited the youths to a small space and limited the activities they could plan. Also, the excitement of a field day is usually in that it is held outside, on the field, where outdoor activities can be held. While the youths planned fun activities for

the younger kids, they were far from typical field day activities. Additionally, this goal was intangible to the youths. For 15 weeks they were planning an event that was not completely clear to them. Again, if the weather was nicer they could have experienced their own field day outside to get ideas for planning their own day.

Another suggestion for implementing initiative building into future after-school programs is to involve the community more. Youths living in urban neighborhoods would benefit greatly from community involvement. Businesses in the area could become involved by donating services or products to the field day. They could also volunteer their employees as assistants to help supervise the event. Families and other children that live in the neighborhood could also be invited if there was enough space, time, and supervision for the field day. Most importantly, the school could be involved so the youths make the connection between positive experiences and their school. Additionally, including all aspects of the youths' environment addresses the ecological approach to youth development which posits that the best youth development programs will address all systems of youths' lives (Allen-Meares et al., 2000). Involving the community in an event like this would not only strengthen the success of the event itself, it could strengthen the entire community.

Implications

The following implications relate to implementing future youth development interventions based on the findings of this study. The third research question referred to the youths' satisfaction with the after-school program and the components of the intervention that were responsible for youths' behavior changes.

After-school programs. After-school youth development programs should focus on meeting the desires of the youth participants. It is vital that youths are attracted to and continue attending the program. To this end, program organizers should make an effort to learn what youths are looking for in after-school programs. From there, organizers should offer programs that satisfy the desires of these youths to the best of their ability and without compromising the goals of the program. Specific efforts need to be made to then market these programs to the targeted youth groups.

Physical activity and sports seem to attract most males and some females to participate in youth development programs. Once youths have been attracted to the program, care should be taken to offer activities that will keep the youths coming back to the program. With this in mind, it is vital to learn what females want their after-school programs to include. A youth development program that combines the desires of both boys and girls and encourages all youths to attend will be most successful.

Another idea is to extend youth development program goals to lunch and/or recess. Offering programs that replicate those that are offered after-school increase youths' exposure to positive youth development.

Finally, previous research suggests that no youth grows up in a vacuum. The ecological systems perspective posits that in order for positive youth development to occur, attempts must be made to address all the environments youths are exposed to (Allen-Meares et al., 2000). This intervention focused solely on the youth. Future youth development programs should take great aims at addressing multiple environments in

youths' lives. Examples would be to include parents, school, and the greater community in after-school programs. The greater the involvement from various stakeholders, the greater the chances that real changes will be realized in youths.

Physical activity and sports. As stated above, youths are attracted to programs that include physical activities as well as new games. Programs should be designed to include these types of activities and marketed to youths to make them aware of the exact curriculum of the program. Furthermore, program leaders should not just throw a ball out and call the program a youth development program. Care must be taken to design a curriculum that will allow adult leaders to teach social skills and life skills to the youth participants.

Presence of caring adults. The findings from this study suggest that the presence of caring adults is a vital component of any youth development or after-school program. The most positive changes were observed in the youths when they were receiving one-on-one attention from a caring adult. Future youth development program planners should take this into serious consideration. Rather than offering programs that focus on group mentoring, great pains should be taken to recruit enough positive role models to provide one-on-one mentoring for all youth participants. Herrera and colleagues (2000) guidelines for effective mentoring, including screening and training of mentors and matching mentors to youths, should be strictly adhered to.

Furthermore, as stated throughout this document multiple systems in the youths lives should be addressed. Rather than just bringing in caring adults from outside the youths' lives, adults already in their lives (parents, teachers, other family and friends)

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should be included in mentor training programs. As adults are trained to act as mentors to youths in their neighborhood, perhaps the need to recruit outside role models for inner city youths will begin to decrease.

Initiative building. Findings in this study suggest that initiative building is a practice that may be effective in promoting positive youth development. More youth development programs should institute this important theory into practice. Studies should focus on implementing effective initiative building into youth development programs. However, initiative building should occur when youths meet more frequently and can take greater ownership in the culminating event that they are planning. Furthermore, the end goal needs to be more tangible to the youths. Finally, the youths need to see initiative building as a treat from the start, rather than as a chore.

Summary

When looking at both the quantitative and qualitative data that were collected and analyzed in this study, the above discussion can be summarized into the following points. First, while there were no significant quantitative changes in the youth participants' cooperation and self-control, qualitative observations and interviews revealed positive changes in both behaviors. Since the intervention was a combination of four components (after-school programs, presence of caring adults, physical activity and sports, and initiative building) it was difficult to determine which individual component had the greatest effect on youths' cooperation and self-control. However, the presence of caring adults seemed to be vital in the implementation of the program. Additionally, physical activity and sports were necessary to teach and reinforce cooperation and self-control. This component was also necessary in recruitment and attrition of youth participants.

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While the initiative building component was difficult to implement, in the end the youths gained a great deal from the field day that they provided for their younger counterparts. Finally, the findings from this study suggest the importance of marketing an after-school program similar to this one not only to the youth participants themselves, but also including all the youths' stakeholders in both the planning and implementation of the program.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

Based on the findings from this study, the following conclusions are warranted. First, the quantitative measure (SSRS) used to evaluate youths' social skills cooperation and self-control may not be effective in measuring cooperation and self-control in urban youths. While the SSRS was deemed valid and reliable, urban youths who may be performing below grade level may struggle to comprehend the statements. A scale that incorporates youths' reading level into it's development may be more useful in gaining a true measure of youths' social skills.

Second the youth development intervention combining after-school programs, physical activity and sports, the presence of caring adults, and initiative building fostered behavior changes related to cooperation and self-control in the youth participants. It is unclear which components had the greatest impact on the youths' behaviors, but the combination of the components clearly affected the development of youths' cooperation and self-control.

Third, because the various components of the intervention were intertwined, it was difficult to determine which component had the greatest impact on the youths' behaviors. The findings from this study suggest that all four components of the

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intervention were instrumental to change behaviors of the youth participants. However, without studying each component independently it is difficult to tell to what degree each component truly impacted the youth participants. The findings from this study suggest that the presence of caring adults had the greatest impact on youths' behaviors while the physical activity and sports that were played were vital in attracting and retaining youths to the intervention. Findings also support the effectiveness of initiative building and after-school programs as being influential in youths' positive development.

Fourth, qualitative evaluations of youth development programs are invaluable in providing information regarding program effectiveness. While quantitative measures are desirable, qualitative measures are more realistic and may tell researchers more. Protective factors such as social skills (cooperation and self-control) are difficult to quantify accurately, therefore rigorous qualitative research should accompany quantitative research in order to successfully evaluate these types of programs.

Finally, the presence of caring adults seems to be vital in the success of any program aimed at positive youth development. The more attention youths receive, the more likely they will experience positive change. This suggests that youth development programs should attempt to match caring adults one-on-one to needy youths.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations for future research will be discussed based on the findings from this study.

First, if quantitative research is desired, greater attention needs to be paid to the testing environment. Pre- and post-tests need to be conducted in identical settings to ensure consistent findings. Along with this, the environments for testing the

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experimental and control groups need to be similar as well. Additionally, particular

attention needs to be paid to the scale used in the study. This scale needs to be

understood by youths at all academic levels, regardless of where they live (urban or

suburban neighborhoods).

Second, future studies should be more longitudinal in nature. Youths should

participate in the intervention for an entire school year. Within that year, youths should

receive the treatment (the intervention) on a more regular basis. Daily treatments would

be the most desirable if researchers want to see long-lasting changes occur. Greater

effects have been found in interventions that last longer (Herrera et al., 2000).

Additionally, measures and observations should continue to be taken after the termination

of the program to determine if the intervention has lasting effects on the youth

participants.

Third, programs should be studied that couple one-on-one mentoring with

physical activities and sport. Physical activities and sports and mentoring are each

components of youth development interventions that may be enhanced by the presence of

the other. Furthermore, physical activities and sport are a medium that attract youths to

youth development programs. There are many opportunities for mentoring within

physical activity and sports programs. Additionally, mentoring through sports will allow

mentoring programs to overcome some of the obstacles that may have hindered their

study in the past (Royse, 1998).

Finally, more research needs to be conducted on the effects of initiative building in positive youth development. Effort needs to be put into developing and offering initiative building programs that are more relevant to youths. Larson (2000) believes that these types of programs will have a lasting effect on positive youth development. However, not enough studies have been conducted to support this belief.

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PARENT/GUARDIAN CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL BEHAVIORAL RESEARCH

Title of Study: Developing Protective Factors in At-Risk Youth Through an After-School Program

Principal Investigator: Dr. Janet Fink

Introduction: The researchers are conducting a study to determine if an after school program that combines physical activity with initiative building will enhance protective factors in youth.

The purpose of this study: The study may determine whether or not participation in an after school program that combines physical activity with initiative building will enhance the protective factors of cooperation, assertion, empathy, and self-control in youth. This study is important because it may provide youth development agencies with valuable information on programming effective after-school programs for youth.

Procedures for this study: If you agree to participate, your child will have the opportunity to participate in an after-school program offered at Deuce Elementary School. The program will be offered twice a week for ten weeks. The program will be run by Debra Pace, a certified physical education teacher and doctoral student at The Ohio State University. The program will be offered in conjunction with programs offered by The Godman Guild. Additionally, there will be an assistant working with Debra who is an employee of The Godman Guild.

Data on your child will be collected through a number of different means. First, your child will be asked to complete a questionnaire describing their social behaviors. They will be asked to complete the questionnaire three times: 1) before the after-school program begins, 2) at the completion of the after-school program, and 3) three weeks after the completion of the after-school program. The questionnaire should take no longer than 25 minutes to complete (it will probably take significantly less time than this). Additionally, the researcher will be looking at school records to obtain information about

the number of student participants who receive free or reduced lunches, previous grades received by participants, and school attendance rates of participants. Finally, the researcher will be making regular observations of the after-school program to monitor the implementation of the program.

The after-school program can only accommodate 20 students. Therefore, if interest exceeds this number, 20 students will be randomly selected to participate in the study. The selected students will participate in the current after-school program. Once the study has been completed, a similar after-school program will be offered to the students who were not served in the initial program.

One goal of the after-school program is for the participants to plan a culminating event. Students will select an event. They will then be responsible for all aspects of planning the event. At the completion of the 10-week program, the students will have the opportunity to see their event in action. Examples of events that may be planned by the students include but are not limited to a road race, a basketball or soccer tournament, a physical challenge talent show, or a field day. This culminating event may take an entire day and may occur on a Saturday.

Risk to your child if he/she takes part in this study: There are no foreseeable risks associated with participation in this study.

Benefits to your child if he/she takes part in this study: If your child participates in this study, they will have the opportunity to participate in an after-school physical activity program. Additionally, it is hoped that the results of the study will help in the development of effective future after-school programs.

Confidentiality: You and your child's identity will remain confidential and will not be revealed in published results of this study. Also, your child's data will be identified only by number. The key of names and numbers will be kept in a secure and confidential place separated from the test data. Once the data is collected, the data will only be examined by the researchers. Thus, the data will not be accessible to anyone outside the research team. Also, the consent form will be available only to the researchers and will also be kept in a place separated form your child's data.

What will happen to the information that is collected: Once the data is collected, it will be stored in a locked file cabinet in the researcher's office. None of the data will be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified back to your child.

What will your child get for participating in the study: Your child will get the opportunity to participate in an after-school program that combines physical activities with initiative building.

Voluntary Participation: Your child's participation in this study is voluntary. Refusal to participate or discontinuing participation at any time will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to your child. The researchers will notify you of any significant new findings developed during the course of the study that may influence your child's participation.

Right of the researchers to withdraw subjects: The researchers reserve the right to terminate the participation of your child without regard to your child's consent.

Contact for Questions: If you have any questions regarding your child's participation in this study, please contact: Debra Ann Pace (614-246-7473, pace.65@osu.edu) or Dr. Janet Fink (614-292-0867, fink.26@osu.edu).

I consent to my child's participation in research titled: *Developing Protective Factors in At-Risk Youth Through an After-School Program.*

Debra Ann Pace (co-researcher) has explained the purpose of the study, the procedures to be followed, and the expected duration of my child's participation. Possible benefits of the study have been described.
I acknowledge that I have had the opportunity to obtain additional information regarding the study and that any questions I have raised have been answered to my full satisfaction. Furthermore, I understand that my child is free to withdraw consent at any time and to discontinue participation in the study without prejudice to him/her.

Finally, I acknowledge that I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:_____   Signed:_____
                                                                    (Person authorized to consent for
                                                                    participation)

Signed:_____   Witness:_____
       (Co-researcher)

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

LESSON OVERVIEW

Week 3 (November 14)
Day 1 (Thursday, November 14)

Equipment Needed:
- 10 hoops
- 2 poster boards
- Stickers for voting
- Balls or bean bags
- 4 chairs or posts
- Something to use as the fence wire (jump rope, wire, rope, bungee cord, etc.)

Lesson Focus:
- Cooperative games and group problem solving
- Discussing and voting on our big event

Social Competencies:
- Self-control (control temper, mouth, and body parts)
- Cooperation (teamwork, helping others)

Lesson Objective:
- All participants will understand why it is important to be cooperative and use self-control while playing tag and solving cooperative problems.

BREAKDOWN OF LESSON

Week 3 (November 14)
Day 1 (Thursday, November 14)

Time	Lesson Focus	Instructional Sequence	Questions for Understanding
3:30-4:00	Transition Time	Meet on map Word of the day Field activities/tasks Line up and walk to GG	Focus on self-control while walking back to GG. What do we need to do on the way back to demonstrate self-control? Why do we need to do it?
4:00-4:15	Snack Time and Awareness Talk	Pull kids aside for SSRS Eat snack in teams so they can decide on team names Review rules Review goals for the program Review goals for the day Pass out "pennies" – remind them the rules of the pennies and clothes pins	Who remembers our one rule that we established last week? Let's practice our word of the day freezes. What makes up cooperation? Why is it important to cooperate? How can we cooperate with each other? Who used self-control on the way to the GG today? Did anyone use self-control in school this week? What about cooperation? What do we need to control when we are talking about self-control?
4:15-4:30	Activity 1	Musical hoops – Walk, dance, do whatever you want while the music is on When the music stops, you have 1 second to get inside a hoop Remove a hoop so they have to squeeze into fewer hoops	Did you enjoy this game? What was your favorite part of the game? What did you have to do as we took the hoops away? What made it easier to fit inside the hoops? What body parts did you need to control in order to fit inside the hoops? How did you cooperate with each other to fit inside the hoops?

Time	Lesson Focus	Instructional Sequence	Questions for Understanding
4:30-4:45	Initiative Building	Discuss and vote on ideas for our event	What do we need to focus on during this discussion? Why is self-control important here? What do we especially need to control during this activity?
4:45-4:55	Activity 2	Ball Tag Find a partner Each group gets a ball Play catch with your partner until I yell go When you hear go, whoever has the ball must chase and tag their partner, with their hands As soon as you have tagged your partner, start playing catch again	Where are we allowed to tag each other during tag games? How can you use self control when playing tag? What body parts do you need to control? Do you need to cooperate with each other at all when playing this tag game?
4:55-5:20	Activity 3	Electric Fence The entire team must get over the fence without touching it If someone touches it, they must go back to the other side	Before we begin, what social skills will we need to use to successfully complete this task? How will you demonstrate self-control and cooperation while getting over the fence? What specific body parts did you need to control to get over the fence? What made it easier to get over the fence? How did you help each other to get over the fence? What made it easier for all of you to get over the fence? Did you have to control any body parts? Which ones? Was this task easier when you cooperated? How, specifically, did you cooperate in this activity?

Time	Lesson Focus	Instructional Sequence	Questions for Understanding
5:20-5:25	Group Meeting	Debriefing – connecting today's activities to the social skills	See debriefing questions below.

Questions for debriefing:

1. Who can tell me what the 2 social skills that we are working on are?
    a. What is self-control? What kind of behaviors that we demonstrate are self-control? What body parts are we trying to control?
    b. What is cooperation? What did we do today that required cooperation? How?
2. When doing the electric fence activity, what types of skills did you need to use to make it work?
    a. What physical skills?
    b. What social skills?
    c. What were the best strategies that you used?
    d. What did you need to do individually to make it work?
    e. What did the group as a whole need to do to make it work?
3. When playing the tag games, what types of skills did you need to use to make the game more fun and successful?
    a. What physical skills?
    b. What social skills?
    c. What were the best strategies that you used?
    d. What did you need to do individually to make it work?
    e. What did the group as a whole need to do to make it work?
4. When we were playing musical hoops what types of skills were you using?
    a. What physical skills?
    b. What social skills?
    c. What were the best strategies that you used?
    d. What did you need to do individually to make it work?
    e. What did the group as a whole need to do to make it work?

APPENDIX C

OVERVIEW OF AFTER-SCHOOL PROGRAM CURRICULUM

AFTER-SCHOOL PROGRAM CURRICULUM

Week - Day	Physical Activity	Initiative Building Goal
1 - Thursday	Human Juggling, Bag Making (Fall Fest), Tag	Brainstorm Names for Program Brainstorm Program Goals
1 –Friday	Fall Fest, Tag, Human Knot	Brainstorm Names for Program
2 – Thursday	Hoop Relays, Cooperative Hoop Games	Vote on Name for Program
2 – Friday	More Hoop Relays, Cooperative Hoop Games	Brainstorm Names for Program
3 – Thursday	Relay Races, Tag Games, Electric Fence	Brainstorm Ideas for Our Activity
4 – Thursday	Keep Away	Brainstorm Activities for Our Field Day
4 – Friday	Photo Scavenger Hunt, Rock, Paper Scissors Tag, Group Push-Ups	Brainstorm Activities for Our Field Day
5 – Thursday	Cooperative Relays, Snowball Relays	Vote on Activities for Our Field Day
5 – Friday	Turnstile, Team Tag, Cooperative Frisbee	Vote on Activities for Our Field Day
6 – Thursday	Keep Away, Balloon Challenge, Cooperative Challenges Outside	Come up with Schedule for Field Day
6 – Friday	Rock, Paper Scissors Tag; Partner Tag	Revise Schedule for Field Day
7 – Thursday	Holiday Games and Activities, Scooters,	None
8 – Friday	Practice Field Day	Discuss What a Field Day Is and Involves
9 – Friday	Partner Passing and Keep Away	Revise Activities for KG-1st Graders at Field Day
10 – Friday	Keep Away and Team Handball Buildup	Revise Activities for 2nd and 3rd Graders at Field Day
11 – Friday	Team Handball	Design Award Certificates for Field Day
12 – Friday	Team Handball	Design Invitations for Field Day
13 – Friday	Trust Falls	Assign Duties for Field Day
14 – Friday	Acrosports and Acrosport Races	Review Responsibilities for Field Day
15 – Friday	Field Day and Party	Field Day

APPENDIX D

SOCIAL SKILLS RATING SYSTEM

Social Skills

Rating System

Social Skills Q

Frank M. Gresh

Directions

First write the information about yourself in the box below. Then turn to page 2.

Student Information

Name _____
First   Middle   L

☐ Boy   ☐ Girl   Today's date __

Grade _____ Age _____ Birth date ____
l

School _____

Teacher's name _____

This paper lists a lot of things that students your age may do. Please read each senten[ce]
yourself. Then decide **how often** you do the behavior described.

If you **never** do this behavior, circle the **0.**
If you **sometimes** do this behavior, circle the **1.**
If you **very often** do this behavior, circle the **2.**

Here are two examples:

		How Oft[en]
	Never	Sometin[g]
I start conversations with classmates.	0	1
I keep my desk clean and neat.	0	(1)

*This student **very often** starts conversations with classmates. This student keeps his[desk clean]
and neat **sometimes.***

If you change an answer, be sure to erase completely. Please answer all questions. Wh[en]
for further directions from your teacher.

Be sure to ask questions if you do not know what to do. There are no right or wrong ans[wers,]
of how often you do these things.

Begin working when told to do so.

Social Skills

	Nev[er]
1. I make friends easily.	0
2. I smile, wave, or nod at others.	0
3. I ask before using other people's things.	0
4. I ignore classmates who are clowning around in class.	0
5. I feel sorry for others when bad things happen to them.	0
6. I tell others when I am upset with them.	0
7. I disagree with adults without fighting or arguing.	0
8. I keep my desk clean and neat.	0
9. I am active in school activities such as sports or clubs.	0
10. I do my homework on time.	0
11. I tell new people my name without being asked to tell it	0

C	A	E	S		

C	A	E	S		
				15.	I listen to adults when they are talking with me.
				16.	I show that I like compliments or praise from friends.
				17.	I listen to my friends when they talk about problems they are having.
				18.	I avoid doing things with others that may get me in trouble with adults.
				19.	I end fights with my parents calmly.
				20.	I say nice things to others when they have done something well.
				21.	I listen to the teacher when a lesson is being taught.
				22.	I finish classroom work on time.
				23.	I start talks with class members.
				24.	I tell adults when they have done something for me that I like.
				25.	I follow the teacher's directions.
				26.	I try to understand how my friends feel when they are angry, upset, or sad.
				27.	I ask friends for help with my problems.
				28.	I ignore other children when they tease me or call me names.
				29.	I accept people who are different.
				30.	I use my free time in a good way.
				31.	I ask classmates to join in an activity or game.
				32.	I use a nice tone of voice in classroom discussions.
				33.	I ask adults for help when other children try to hit me or push me around.
				34.	I talk things over with classmates when there is a problem or an argument.
C	A	E	S		SUMS OF HOW OFTEN COLUMNS

Stop. Please check to be sure that all ite

SOCIAL SKILLS

	HOW OFTEN? TOTAL		BEHAVIOR LEVEL (see Appendix A)		
	(sums from p. 2)	(sums from p. 3)	Fewer	Average	More
C	+	=			
A	+	=			
E	+	=			
S	+	=			
Total (C + A + E + S)					

(see Appendix D)

Standard Score [   ]   Percentile Rank [   ]

(see Appendix E)

SEM ± [   ]   Confidence Level 68% [ ] 95% [ ]

Confidence Band (standard scores) [to   ]

APPENDIX E

ROSEMONT COMMUNITY CENTER INTAKE FORM

| Program: _____ | **Godman Guild** | Date: _____ |
| Program Service: _____ | Intake Form | GG Staff: _____ |

Name: _____
      Last   First   M.I.   Maid

Address: _____ Apt. #: _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip _____ Co

Referral Source: _____

Home Phone: ( ) _____ Work (Other) Phone: ( ) _____

Funder: _____ Funder ID: _____

Household Information

Name	Relationship	Race	DOB	M/F	Monthly Income ($)	Inc So
	SELF					
		Total Monthly Income				

AA – African American   W – White   H – Hispanic   NA – Na
L – Laotian   A – Asian   S – Somali   M – Mul
O – Other

APPENDIX F

YOUTH DEMOGRAPHIC SHEET

AFTER-SCHOOL SPORTS PROGRAM INFORMATION SHEET

NAME:_____

WHEN WERE YOU BORN:_____

WHAT GRADE ARE YOU IN:_____

WHO DO YOU LIVE WITH:_____

GENDER:_____

RACE:_____

DO YOU GET A FREE OR REDUCED PRICE LUNCH AT SCHOOL?_____

WHAT IS YOUR FAVORITE SPORT TO PLAY?_____

APPENDIX G

OBSERVATIONAL JOURNAL FORMAT

DEUCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AFTER-SCHOOL PROGRAM JOURNAL

Name:

Date:

Please write a journal that either answers the following questions directly, or refers to them.

1. **Describe today's after-school session in as much detail as you can. I am particularly interested in the actual activities that took place.**

2. **What would you say was the main focus of today's lesson?**

3. **Did you notice any teaching strategies that worked or did not work? What were they? Why did they work? What made them not work?**

4. **Did any children's particular behaviors stick out? Who were they and what were they?**

5. **What did you do as a leader to correct negative behaviors?**

6. **Did you notice any improvements or changes in behaviors either within this session or from the last session? What were they and who were they? Please discuss both individual changes and changes within the group as a whole or the team that you were working with.**

7. **Please comment on one child that you remember the most from today. Discuss their behaviors and/or responses to the activities and teaching strategies used.**

8. **What did you do as a program leader to establish a caring relationship with the kids? Did you speak with any of the kids one on one? If so about what? What was their response to the individual attention?**

9. **Give example of how you reinforced cooperation or self-control within the activities that you did today.**

10. **What initiative building activity did you do with the kids today? How did the kids respond to this activity? Were they successful? Were they focused on the activity?**

APPENDIX H

YOUTH PARTICIPANT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EXPERIEMENTAL GROUP

1. What types of activities did you do at the after school program?
    *   What specific games did you play?
    *   What activities besides games did you participate in?

2. What did you like about going to the after school program?
    *   What was your favorite part of the program?
    *   Why did you look forward to coming to the program?

3. What made the program different from being at school?
    *   What made the program different from being at home?

4. Did you develop relationships with the adults at the program?
    o Did you look forward to seeing the adults at the program?
    o Did you feel like you could talk to the adults about problems?
    o Did you feel like you could share news (good or bad) with the adults at the program?
    o Did you feel like the adults at the program were interested in what was going on in your life?
    o Did the adults at the program listen to you when you were talking to them?
    o What did you learn from the adults at the program?

5. Did you learn anything new at the program?
    o What specifically did you learn?
    o What games did you learn?
    o What skills did you learn?
    o What activities did you learn?

6. Was the after school program more fun when everyone cooperated with each other?
    o Why?
    o What were you able to do when the group was cooperating?
    o What types of things do you need to do to cooperate with each other?
    o What activities and games that you played worked better with cooperation?

7. Was the after school program more fun when you controlled yourselves?
    o Why?
    o What were you able to do when the group was in control?
    o What did you need to do to control yourself?
    o What activities and games that you played were more fun when you and your classmates were controlling yourselves?

8. Did you enjoy planning the field day for the younger kids?
   - What did you like about this?
   - What did you not like about this?
   - Did you enjoy running the field day for the younger kids? Or
   - Are you looking forward to running the field day for the younger kids?
   - Would you like to plan another activity like this in the future?

9. Were there any days when you did not have fun at the after school program?
   - What made these days less fun?
   - What could the adults have done differently to make these days more fun?
   - What could the kids have done differently to make these days more fun?

9. When you come out of school on after school program days, what are you looking the most forward to?
   - If you could change something about the after-school program, what would it be?

APPENDIX I

ADULT LEADER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR GROUP LEADERS AND ASSISTANTS

1.　　What was the general focus of the after school program?
- o　What skills did the program focus on developing?
- o　How did you and the other adults reinforce those skills?

2.　　What changes did you see in the kids throughout the course of the program?
- o　What specific behaviors changed?
- o　What social skills were developed?
- o　Can you give me some examples of both the social skills and the behavior changes that you noticed?

3.　　What teaching strategies worked throughout the program?
- o　Why do you think these strategies worked?
- o　What behavior management strategies worked throughout the program?
- o　Why do you think these strategies worked?

4.　　What do you think was the most important component of the program?
- o　Why do you think that this component made the biggest difference in the kids' skills and behaviors?
- o　Were there any components in the program that you think did not make any difference?
- o　Why?

5.　　What, if anything, would you change about the program?