Issues in Children's and Families' Lives

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Editors

A Blueprint for Promoting Academic and Social Competence in After-School Programs

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Thomas P. Gullotta · Martin Bloom ·
Christianne F. Gullotta · Jennifer C. Messina
Editors

Jessica M. Ramos
Research Assistant

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Editors

Thomas P. Gullotta
Child and Family Agency
of Southeastern Connecticut
New London, CT
USA
tpgullotta@aol.com

Martin Bloom
University of Connecticut
Storts, CT
USA
bloom@uconn.edu

Christianne F. Gullotta
Town of Glastonbury Youth & Family
Services (YFS)
Glastonbury, CT
USA
chris.gullotta@glastonburg_ct.gov

Jennifer C. Messina
Child and Family Agency of Southeastern
Connecticut
New London, CT
USA
messinaj@cfapress.org

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This book is dedicated to two exceptional individuals.

To Laurence P. "Jim" Smith who is the very essence of what this book is about and whose unrelenting focused interest in the lives of children in need will forever be an example of what civic virtue really means.

To Pat King whose contribution to this book and to the lives of children is felt by each of us in our hearts and minds every moment of every day.

Preface

This is a book about after-school programming. It is unique in the after-school programming literature for several reasons. First, it offers a theoretical and research foundation upon which to build effective after-school activities. Second, it systematically provides a series of templates that draws upon that theory and research to enable staff to build a successful after-school program. Third, it evaluates these efforts and offers an affordable approach for undertaking future field evaluations. Fourth, for the growing evidence-based prevention practice literature, it is step in the direction of designing the next generation for program models.

Theory and Research Base

To revisit the first of the four statements above, this book offers the after-school program developer and staff member a context from which their work with young people should emerge. For example, in Chapter 1, Martin Bloom examines the multiple meanings of social competency from an ecological perspective. Martin then offers eight observations that are necessary for good programs to develop. In Chapter 2, Deirdre Fitzgerald provides an example-rich discussion of the way in which young people learn. This chapter offers an important backdrop against which the "blueprint" found in this book is drawn. Chapter 3 by Joseph Durlak, Sasha Berger, and Christine Celio departs from these theoretical perspectives to examine the small but increasing research base to identify effective after-school practices. In Chapter 4, Maurice Elias and Jennifer Gordon focus on activities that promote social and emotional learning and discuss the importance of nurturing this type of interpersonal intelligence among children attending after-school programs. Preston Britner and Lisa Kraimer-Rickaby continue this examination of specific interventions in Chapter 5 with their review of mentoring and its role in promoting academic and social competency. These foundational chapters conclude with Christine

Celio and Joseph Durlak describing in Chapter 6 the important differences between community service and service-learning.

These chapters provide leads to successful programming by emphasizing, each in its own way, that effective after-school programming must encourage academic achievement and healthy personal growth through planned intentional processes. They arrive at this conclusion from many different starting points, and this leads to a potential dilemma: to emphasize a strict adherence to one successful program or to recognize the diversity that occurs in every human setting.

To work, the current generation of effective prevention/health promotion programs depend on tightly adhering to an implementation protocol. Developed in laboratory-like settings with a highly motivated and invested staff testing those interventions, these programs have experienced less success when removed from this protective greenhouse-like atmosphere and planted in outside communities. Developers have responded to these realities by talking to the group being trained to deliver the services about the importance of fidelity and dosage and generally being ignored by that same group. This reality has been duly noted and calls made from the field of prevention science and funding bodies for a second generation of prevention initiatives that can better withstand this tinkering process.

Translating Theory and Research into Practice Strategies: Templates for Program Development

In the spirit of that challenge and with the encouragement and support of the Salmon Foundation, we approached the objective of increasing academic achievement and nurturing prosocial behavior among school-aged children with the expectation that this program would be added to, changed, and modified. To use a food analogy, consider this program to be a densely rich tomato sauce. There is one absolute necessary ingredient to tomato sauce – tomatoes – beyond which an almost countless number of other ingredients can be added to satisfy the tastes of different groups. These capers, sausages, onions, garlic, basil, and so forth, address the ethnic, racial, religious, and socioeconomic issues of those various constituencies. So, what are these varieties of tomatoes? They are four operating assumptions that lead to a set of design templates that staff use to create *their* program. Those elements are

1. Cognitive learning theory is an effective way to teach new behavior. By offering examples of desired behaviors, modeling those behaviors, and encouraging those good behaviors, the good behavior develops.
2. Learning occurs developmentally, and opportunities for learning must be matched to the child's developmental ability to learn.

3. Intelligence is best viewed through multiple dimensions (verbal/linguistic, mathematical, kinesthetic, interpersonal, etc.). No one form of intelligence is "better" than another – they are simply different. One or another may be more useful in one time/context than another. All represent potentialities of human beings.
4. Primary prevention involves preventing predictable problems, protecting existing strengths, and promoting possible desired goals. This scientific perspective and its technology provides an effective approach to achieving academic growth and prosocial behavior.

The use of templates is a departure from the general practice of manualized programming where staff are given a prepared program, instructed in its use, and expected to implement it with proper fidelity and dosage. To return to our tomato sauce imagery for a moment, manualized programming is like purchasing a jar of tomato sauce off the grocery store shelves and serving it according to label directions. This might happen the first time but eventually human nature being what it is becomes bored with the product.Experience suggests that generating continued staff enthusiasm for an effort that requires so little personal investment is difficult to sustain. Thus, the use of this tomato sauce or prevention program may be only as long as the jar or program funding lasts. Again,experience suggests that it is not uncommon to find both half-emptied jars and partially implemented programs relegated to the trash before their time is due. In their place is yet another jar of sauce and some other packaged program promising change that never occurs because the same staff behavioral dynamics are repeated.

The Salmon program is a planned effort to alter this outcome by empowering staff with the responsibility to create the program while adhering to certain fundamental principles. Creating a program begins over three trainings with a facilitator.[1] Prior to meeting, staff read the background chapters in this book appropriate to the day's assignment. The material in the Salmon program is divided into three sessions. In the first session, the staff map their workday, establish activity periods, identify problem times in their schedule, and use a logic plan to create meaningful multiple intelligence activities. In the second session, the staff establish an *authoritative* disciplinary system that is fair, consistent, and permitting of appeals. In the third session, staff focus their attention on logic model activities that enhance interpersonal intelligence (social competency) and gain an appreciation for promoting health and reducing illness among the youth attending this program.

Do not assume that with the conclusion of these three staff sessions that the job is complete. Quite the contrary, it has only just begun. Programs are dynamic and ever-changing requiring continual adjustments. There is one

[1] The training of trainers in the use of this curriculum is provided by the Child & Family Agency of Southeastern Connecticut. To learn more, check their Web site at www.cfapress.org.

constant, however, and this is the four assumptions behind the templates that give rise to the program. It is against these assumptions that the program templates are completed, implemented, and evaluated by the staff.

Evaluation

Because programs emerging from the Salmon curriculum may differ from the one evaluated in this book, it is important that an affordable evaluation strategy, able to be implemented by individuals not steeped in research methodology and statistics, be developed. In keeping with our love of food analogies, we looked about our community kitchen, uncovered a box of philo sheets, and offer for your consideration a "baklava" research strategy. What is baklava? It is a pastry made of very thin sheets of philo dough with honey, nuts, and spices between each sheet. One sheet of philo dough does not make baklava. It is the layering of multiple sheets with other ingredients that results in this delicious Greek pastry.

Now to apply this food imagery to the Salmon curriculum evaluation, we used the findings of other after-school programs to identify possible outcome measures. These included improved academic grades, the development of prosocial behavior, and fewer problem behaviors (see Chapter 3). Because the Salmon program is interested in nurturing five specific prosocial behaviors, we developed and administered a simple questionnaire to staff and parents to assess their perceptions of the growth of these behaviors in the sample population over the course of one academic year. To assess academic growth and behavior, we acquired the school report cards of children previously in the program and currently in the program and compared those reports on academic subjects, behaviors, attendance, and teacher comments against matched controls. Like a single sheet of thin philo dough, each of these efforts is inadequate to establish the effectiveness of the program. However, it is our contention that when layered together, the depth of the evidence either supports or refutes the efforts being undertaken by the program. Does every piece of evidence need to point in the desired direction of academic and prosocial growth?

It would be wonderful if it did, but philo dough sheets can tear or crumble and the desired overall result may appear less than perfect when in fact the finished product is completely acceptable. We contend that if staff perceive children behaving prosocially, and parents perceive children behaving prosocially, and teachers perceive children behaving prosocially, then at least in those three settings prosocial behavior appears to be the rule rather than the exception.

We contend that prosocial behavior will continue in these three settings only so long as it is encouraged. It will generalize to other settings (the neighborhood)

if those other settings (e.g., the neighborhood) are either encouraging of or neutral of prosocial behavior. For many youth, these prosocial behaviors will compartmentalize in an antisocial environment like a troubled neighborhood. That is, the behavior of the young person will correspond with the setting for survival reasons. Further, these prosocial behaviors will disappear if at least two of the three settings (family, after-school program, school) do not maintain prosocial environments. The sobering reality of this paragraph is that this program, *any program*, will not result in lasting generalized change unless the environment permits that change to take root!

Next Generation of Primary Prevention Programming

This reality brings us to a discussion of the next generation of prevention programs. Two of the editors of this volume have had the scholarly opportunity to observe and participate in the development of the mental health prevention and health promotion movement over the past 35-plus years. Drawing upon their experiences as past editors of the *Journal of Primary Prevention* and most recently editing the *Encyclopedia of Primary Prevention and Health Promotion*, we recognized in a fleeting "ah ha" moment that the majority of the current generation of effective evidence-based prevention/health promotion program developers assume that the implementers are in fact *ready*, *willing*, and with proper training *able* to implement the program.

Unfortunately, in many instances this is not the case. Interestingly, we are observing prevention developers recognizing this fallacy and assessing the willingness of a site prior to providing staff training to implement their good program. We believe even this is not enough. We believe that a staff must be made ready and that the next generation of programs will focus on readiness preparation. What is *ready*? Think of ready as a primer coat or a wash upon a canvas *before* the finish coat or artistry is applied. In the Salmon program, *ready* means that the staff is equipped with the necessary tools and prepared to positively act on behalf of the young people entrusted to their care. Now it may well be that a primer coat alone is sufficient – that is the Salmon program. Or it may be that other good prevention programs will be layered onto the initial programming effort. Clearly, this will require that the initial effort has the robust flexibility both theoretically and practically to incorporate this new effort into the program. We believe the Salmon program is an important first step in that direction.

We cannot conclude this introduction without again acknowledging the Salmon Foundation for its support of our efforts to design this blueprint for successful after-school programming. We need to thank the B. P. Learned Mission and its board of directors for believing that its venerable institution

could be safely entrusted to us. We would be remiss if we did not also thank the Connecticut Department of Mental Health and Addiction Services and in particular its commissioner, Thomas A. Kirk, and director of prevention, Dianne Harnad, for their support in the development of this curriculum.

Finally, for those of us long associated with Child & Family Agency of Southeastern Connecticut, it could only be in this tolerant, friendly, and adventurous setting that a program like this could even be envisioned. This remarkable agency, descended from a female benevolent charitable society that continues to be governed by a volunteer structure reminiscent of that founding group, challenges us daily to do better in fulfilling its mission of serving children. And that is what this book is about – doing better by the children who in a very few short years will have the responsibility of governing this republic in a socially, morally, and ethically responsible manner.

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About the Editors

Martin Bloom obtained a Ph.D. in social psychology from the University of Michigan in 1963, after receiving a diploma in social study from the University of Edinburgh in 1958. He recently retired from a career in research in gerontology and teaching at schools of social work. Some of his publications are mentioned in his chapter. His current preoccupations include primary prevention, art, and grandchildren – not necessarily in the order presented.

Christianne F. Gullotta, B.S., a certified prevention specialist, has worked with youth and their families for more than 30 years. She is currently the youth program coordinator for Glastonbury Youth and Family Services. She has received the Governor's Award for Service, the Connecticut Youth Services Award for her efforts in the field of prevention, and most recently an award from Harvard University's School of Education for her developmental coaching of undergraduate education majors. She developed the Creative Experiences Program for her agency and has assisted other communities in developing similar programs. Ms. Gullotta also teaches in the STEP Program for the University of Connecticut School of Social Work.

Thomas P. Gullotta is C.E.O. of Child & Family Agency of Southeastern Connecticut and is a member of the psychology and education departments at Eastern Connecticut State University. He is the co-editor of *The Encyclopedia of Primary Prevention and Health Promotion*, editor emeritus of the *Journal of Primary Prevention*, and senior book series editor for Issues in Children's and Families' Lives. He has published extensively on young people and primary prevention. He has been honored by several organizations for his contributions to practice including Vermont Conference on the Primary Prevention of Psychopathology (VCPPP) and the Society for Community Research & Action, Division 27 of the American Psychological Association.

Jennifer C. Messina, M.Ed., currently works at Child & Family Agency of Southeastern Connecticut as the educational coordinator for the B. P.

Learned Mission, an out-of-school time program serving children in grades 1–5. Jennifer's interests are in developing high-quality after-school programs to promote academic, social, and emotional development. In this regard, she has worked to develop and test interventions to promote the academic success and increase the social and emotional learning of grade-school children.She graduated from Villanova University in 2004 with a B.A. in human services and recently earned her master's in education from Harvard University.

Contributors

Sasha R. Berger is a doctoral student in clinical psychology at Loyola University Chicago. Her interest in after-school programming as a means of promoting positive outcomes in youth was inspired by her father's many years of devoted service in the field.

Preston A. Britner, Ph.D., is an associate professor and the associate department head of Human Development & Family Studies at the University of Connecticut. He also holds joint appointments in the Department of Educational Psychology, Neag School of Education, and in the Ph.D. program in Public Health (Social and Behavioral Health Sciences), University of Connecticut Center for Public Health & Health Policy. He earned his Ph.D. in psychology from the University of Virginia. Prof. Britner serves as the editor for *The Journal of Primary Prevention* and as an editorial board member for *Child Abuse & Neglect: The International Journal* and the *Journal of Child and Family Studies*. He is a University of Connecticut Teaching Fellow, the highest teaching honor at the university. Prof. Britner has published in the areas of youth mentoring, child maltreatment prevention and the child welfare system, child–parent attachment/caregiving relationships, and social policy and law affecting children and families. He was the national chair of the Social Policy Committee for the Society for Community Research & Action (SCRA; American Psychological Association, Division 27) for 2005–2006, and is a fellow of APA and SCRA. Prof. Britner serves on the Connecticut Mentoring Partnership (CMP) Leadership Council. In Connecticut, he has conducted mentoring research involving a variety of populations, including statewide studies of school-based programs for children at academic risk and children in state care (i.e., foster care) and site-based studies of mentoring programs for children of incarcerated adults and the use of university students as mentors/tutors for school- and community-based organizations.

Christine I. Celio is a doctoral student in clinical psychology at Loyola University Chicago. Her research interests center around increasing positive development in youth, focusing on the impacts of service-learning and civic engagement.

Joseph A. Durlak is a professor of psychology at Loyola University Chicago. His main interests center around positive youth development programs and prevention programs for families and school-age populations.

Maurice J. Elias is a professor in the Psychology Department, Rutgers University; president of the international Society for Community Research & Action/Division of Community Psychology (27) of APA; Director of the Rutgers Social-Emotional Learning Lab and the Developing Safe and Civil Schools (DSACS) prevention initiative (www.rci.rutgers.edu/~melias/); and founding member of the Leadership Team for the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (www.CASEL.org). His books include *Emotionally Intelligent Parenting* (2000), the *Social Decision Making/Social Problem Solving Curricula for Elementary and Middle School Students* (2006, www.researchpress.com), and *The Educator's Guide to Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement: Social-Emotional Learning in the Classroom* (Corwin, 2006).

Deirdre Lee Fitzgerald is a tenured assistant professor of psychology at Eastern Connecticut State University. Dr. Fitzgerald's teaching, research, and applied work has focused on identifying how to produce efficient and effective learning outcomes using instructional practices with demonstrated effectiveness to increase the success of young learners. She is a board-certified behavior analyst (BCBA) and educational consultant where she develops individualized accelerated learning programs and provides organizational training in the adoption of best practices.

Jennifer S. Gordon's commitment to fostering healthy social and emotional development in youth emerged during her high school years at Rocky Mountain Academy in Bonners Ferry, Idaho. Jennifer applied her early involvement in the field of social and emotional learning to her academic focus, earning a bachelor of science in psychology at Curry College in Milton, Massachusetts. Her professional experience includes program coordinator of Livingston Youth and Community Services (LYCS) in Livingston, New Jersey. Jennifer is currently pursuing her master's in educational psychology: learning, cognition, and development at Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, in New Brunswick, New Jersey.

Lisa Kraimer-Rickaby, Ph.D., is a lecturer in the Department of Human Development & Family Studies at the University of Connecticut. She has extensively studied foster youth and state-sponsored independent living programs, including a mentoring program for youth in state custody in Connecticut.

Christine Miskell received her doctor of veterinary medicine degree from the University of Florida in 1998 and received her master of public health degree with a focus in epidemiology from the University of Alabama at Birmingham in 1999. Her previous work experiences include clinical veterinary medicine, pharmaceutical research, and emergency preparedness. She is currently a research assistant for Child & Family Agency of Southeastern Connecticut and a program coordinator for the Southeastern Regional Action Council.

Jessica M. Ramos received her B.A. in psychology from Eastern Connecticut State University. She is a research assistant at Child & Family Agency of Southeastern Connecticut. Jessica has assisted in the editorial process of books on primary prevention, prevention and treatment of behavioral problems in childhood and adolescents, Asperger syndrome, promotion of prosocial behavior, and interpersonal violence in the African-American community. She is involved in agency research and reviews cases for quality assurance.

Chapter 1
Social Competency

Martin Bloom

Social competency is a term of many possible meanings, requiring that I define how I will be using the concept, lest you march off in one assumed direction while I gallop off in another. To begin with, I think of social competency as the conceptual intersection of an individual's competence within various social settings, so that this chapter has three major tasks: (1) to define individual competence; (2) to identify the social – and cultural and physical – environments and historic time period within which an individual plays out his or her life in moment-to-moment interactions; and (3) to discuss how we might assist young people (about the ages of 5–13 years) toward the goal of achieving social competence in the multiple environments of their lives, with special reference to after-school activities.

Individual Competencies of Youth

What a wondrous thing is the human being, as the poets have pointed out, leaving it to the literarily challenged social scientists to specify just what is that thing. Nearly a century ago, Freud offered a short epigraph as to what is the nature or purpose of human beings, "to *work* and to *love*." Adler suggested that to be truly human, people must also *serve* other human beings (Bloom, 2000:27). Beyond that, others have noted that people who are to become human beings must *play* (Erikson); that is, they must pretend to go through the roles and rules of adults of their kind and thus make them ready to assume these adult statuses in due time. Piaget (and other cognitive theorists) added that people must *think*, that is, must begin to use the full range of their cognitive abilities to solve problems and seek out reasonable solutions. Danish (2000:288) further suggested that people need to *be well*, to take good care of themselves so as to advance into adulthood with all of their given and learned resources.

M. Bloom
70 Southworth Dr., Ashford, CT 06278, USA
e-mail: bloom@uconn.edu

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Gullotta (2000) added that people have to make *meaningful contributions* and thus to *belong to*, and be *valued by*, some specific group.

I believe that these are the critical dimensions of human beings, but I caution that when theorists start enumerating lists of critical dimensions of human beings, there is no end to this never-ending exercise. So, let's take this list as merely a beginning, an assumption about what a wondrous thing is the human being, and go from there.

These dimensions apply to all human beings across the life span, each in their own way. For example, I retired recently from some 40 years of teaching and research, and I must tell you that "work" means something very different to the paid, happily employed person in contrast with the self-motivated but unpaid retired person who happily works equally hard, except this occurs whenever the spirit moves him, rather than on scheduled time. This insight into the meaning of my own "work" means that I should specify how these components mentioned above apply to young people, say from the ages of 5 to about 13 years, or whenever puberty comes along to warp my neat theoretical concepts.

In defining these components, I will employ the scientists' trick of avoiding straightforward dictionary definitions that everyone seems to understand by supplying operational definitions that we hope are perfectly clear. But as you will see, operational definitions are, to paraphrase Sam Johnson's definition of second marriages, a triumph of hope over experience. Every term in the operational definition needs further clarification – what actions constitute "chores" in the first definition? – but if you have any doubts about specific words, just consult a nice clear standard dictionary, which is what I did in constructing these operational definitions (Table 1.1).

I recognize that not everyone will agree with my list of six dimensions, nor with my list of 16 operational definitions of these basic terms, and this is exactly the appropriate critical stance for budding theorists. Clearly, some of these 16 require more explanation, but for the moment, please suspend disbelief long enough to accompany me further in exploring the nature of social competence for youth.

Imagine an empty vessel. Now, pour in 16 glasses of ingredients (the operational definitions listed above), and what do you have? I would suggest that you would have a nice kid, someone you wouldn't mind having as a baby sitter for your young children, or someone you could employ cutting your grass. Okay, okay, this isn't a very sophisticated way of conceptualizing, but I hope you can get a sense of the whole person, the feeling that all these 16 elements can come together in a recognizable youth. Let's take this example one step further: Imagine taking one ingredient away, and what would we have? I don't suppose you would be satisfied with a youth who lacked suitable moral reasoning. Or a youth who didn't know the rules of the game and was thereby socially isolated. Or who was not dependable or bonded positively to his or her family. And so on, down the list. This is the point of the exercise, the sense of this whole concept, that all of these combined ingredients are the beginning point for a socially competent person.

Table 1.1 Components of psychosocial competence for youth 5 to 12 or 13 years of age

Conceptual categories	Operational definitions for youth
I. Working well and making meaningful contributions to one's group.	1. Adequately completing chores at home. 2. Possibly having a limited paid job, not at home.
II. Playing well.	3. Having fun when playing alone or with friends. 4. Knowing the rules and roles of the game, and demonstrating them in use with others.
III. Loving well and belonging to, and being loved by, a person or group.	5. Having good friends (at least one "best" friend, or several good friends, by one's own definition). 6. Having strong group affiliations (either youth groups, or adult/children groups). 7. Having a strong sense of self-esteem (love of self as a valued person).
IV. Thinking well.	8. Using appropriate problem-solving skills, at least suitable for one's age. 9. Having appropriate abstract ideas for one's age, religious, spiritual, or philosophical. 10. Holding abstract moral values suitable to one's life context and historic time.
V. Serving well.	11. Being dependable for suitable tasks of one's age. 12. Exhibiting age-appropriate care and concern for others. 13. Possibly serving others, as a volunteer, without pay.
VI. Being well.	14. Maintaining an adequate level of health, cleanliness, and amount of sleep suitable for one's age. 15. Exercising adequately, in school-connected or non–school-related activities. 16. Avoiding the premorbidities of this age – no drugs, alcohol, or premature sex problems – while at the same time recognizing that one is maturing toward adulthood as a sexual being who has choices on how to live one's life.

Source: Adapted from Bloom (2000:27); Danish (2000:288); and Gullotta (2000).

So, let me discuss these 16 operational definitions, starting with number 1, *home chores*. There is research that suggests that youngsters who do chores (without pay) are more bonded to the family, have a greater stake in it, share the family values, and thus are psychosocially competent within their family (Hawkins & Weis, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992). If I recall, my kids did most of their chores most of the time, although there were occasions when we had to remind them vigorously. Okay, so these definitions admit of degrees; few kids are perfect in reality, only in an old guy's memory – as Mark Twain said in effect, as I grow older I remember things better and better, whether they happened or not. But the category, doing home chores, remains a basic feature of working well for a young person who is not able to do regular paid work like his or her parents (Werner & Smith, 1992).

Operational definition number 2, *a possible paid job*, recognizes the fact of life that some young people have to hold paying jobs to aid their family's economy, or may want to have paid employment for its own sake. In the former case, say, a poor farmer's child, his or her contribution may make a significant addition to the family treasury, even at the price of bending child labor laws and taking away valuable play time in human development. In the latter case, there is evidence that youth who take on too much paid employment, in contrast with fulfilling adequately their student roles, are short-changing themselves with poorer grades in school and thus not living up to expectations for their adulthood (Greenberger & Steinberg, 1986). And then there is some wiz kid who quits high school and works 140 hours a week inventing a new contraption that makes him or her a millionaire by age 21 – oh well, this is merely proof that no theory is perfect in predicting all cases.

Operational definition number 3, *having fun*, is like a Hollywood version of childhood – just going out to the old barn and putting on a brilliant summer theater play. I seem to recall that my childhood also contained minor terrors, and while I must have had some fun, what I recall now are the threats I faced, or thought I faced, as I was growing up. Would those new kids on the block like me? Did I do the assignment right? Do I have to give up my bedroom when Aunt Gertrude visits us again? Eventually I learned to play well with the kids on the block, and I eventually figured out the assignment correctly, and I even learned to enjoy the visits of Aunt Gertrude who told some pretty funny off-color jokes. Fun is what we should try to do, try to achieve, in life. Like all of the other 15 operational definitions of social competence, it takes work on our part and the community of our parents and neighbors to make them come true. No one promised us a garden of earthly delights called childhood. It takes a community to raise a child. Am I descending into cliches in old age?

Operational definition number 4, *knowing the rules and roles of the game*. As play theorists from Piaget and Erikson to modern writers suggest, young people play at becoming adults. These may involve role-playing episodes, like when I dressed up in my father's big shoes and put on his (expensive) suit jacket (until he found out what I was doing), and then went off to my "work," whatever that was, I really didn't know – but I tried to play at being the adult I knew best at the time. When I jumped off the couch wearing a long towel around my neck (and almost landing on our poor dog), I was emulating the virtues of my current superhero; I don't think this got me very far on my way to superherohood, but it was the idea of becoming something I was not that was important. Games are important when youngsters enter the arena with other kids who expect them to know how to play and what roles to take. We learn fast, if we want to play with other kids, and this is as true on the fields of Harrow as it is in the sand lots of rural Michigan where I grew up. Gaming has become a big sport for adults, using tools like computers in the way I used long towels and couches, as points of departure for an unknown future into which one leaps.

Operational definition number 5, *having good friends*. Definitions 5, 6, and 7 all involve loving well, oneself, one's close friends, and the groups (family, church, club . . .) that become important in growing up. Loving well is inherently social; there are others involved in the process (even the formation of self-esteem – see DuBois, 2003), but I will emphasize the personal side in this portion of the chapter. Through years of experience, each individual comes to accept, more or less, the importation of the reactions of others to his or her own behaviors. He or she becomes, in effect, how others respond to him or her, shaping his or her behavior a little this way, a little that way, as Skinner would have said. Even David Thoreau, out in his wilderness self-built cabin, totally independent of all others, and thinking transcendent thoughts that became one of the greatest books in American history, took his laundry home to his mother. We are social, like it or not.

Indeed, little tikes raise their arms in fascistic salutes, like their hood-wearing parents. What we learn from social others is not necessarily good or sensible; it just is. Sometimes, terrible experiences in growing up are transformed by acts of creativity into great literature, such as Franz Kafka's wretched childhood at the hands of an authoritarian father, which appears in the irrational world of *The Trial*. Or, Kafka's hostile social world where the hero of his story reappears transformed as a hapless insect *(The Metamorphosis)*.

For youth during the age period 5 to 13 years, having good friends takes on different meanings. Early, a friend is someone to play with, to have fun with, and to depend on for these experiences. Later, when there are breaks between play in which the friends start talking about some important topics among themselves, topics that they usually cannot broach with adults, they ask questions and receive answers about common experiences, about other friends (or enemies), about parents, about their bodies and inevitable changes that are occurring, and about ideas (hopes, fears, questions). Friends play a vital role in shaping what one is to become by reinforcing some ideas and extinguishing others.

Another dimension of loving well is to connect with some group or groups, either youth groups or, more likely, adult/youth groups, especially among the younger members of our age span. Like friends, these friendly adults provide role models for being adult, whereas youth groups supply a continuing source of friends (and enemies). In both cases, the youngster gets feedback about his or her actions, gets shaped into what adult and cultural roles are valued by important people in his or her life, and gets ample role models, even if somewhat homogeneous. (Millionaire uncles and bag lady aunts don't usually come to family picnics.)

Peer groups begin to come into play and then take over much of the social life of youngsters at they approach puberty. The secret life of peer groups – secret from adults and parents – becomes the ticket to membership in the next generation. "What did you and your friends do?" "Nothing." Where did you go?" "Nowhere, we just sat around and talked." Ah, but in that talking, jesting, perchance to argue or fight, and to reconcile all over again, is what forms the basis of the developing young person for the new and unpredictable world of the

future, where each person faces, in his or her own way, a *Trial* and a *Metamorphosis*.

The cluster of operational definitions 8, 9, and 10 concern thinking well and reflect the greatest glory of the Enlightenment Age, the valuing of effective problem-solving skills for oneself (rather than have a king or priest think for you). Yankee peddlers of bygone days were problem solvers, making things, or making up things, to help people survive when they were spread far apart in the wilderness. Think fast and improvise your way to a solution, to repair a leaky bucket or to fly to the moon. Or a leaky relationship with an important other. Thinking is the thing that is distinctive, more or less, of human beings, with a few well-trained chimpanzees and a large number of untrained people being the exception.

Here we face a dilemma: Thinking, high-level problem-solving, so valued by society, seems to disappear in adulthood for some who, like Gilbert and Sullivan's modern major general, "never thought of thinking for himself at all" – and just follow what appears to be orders, public opinion, mass crazes, mass advertising telling people what they want. Isn't thinking fun? Isn't problem solving a satisfying enterprise so that it should last a lifetime? Apparently not, as thinking factories (i.e., schools) regularly lose about a quarter of their products to dropout. With rates like that, businesses would soon go out of business. So, whereas the capacity to think deeply and abstractly grows like wild fire in the period we are discussing, it doesn't necessarily keep the fires burning in the hearts of some graduates (and perhaps more, of nongraduates). Not that these youngsters cannot think well – the vast majority can – but rather circumstances in the environment effectively drive them away from effective personal and social problem-solving, and we all are the losers for it.

On the other horn of this dilemma are some people labeled as developmentally delayed in school, but when they graduate (or leave school), they disappear into the great mass of adults who live their lives in splendid isolation from complex thinking and problem solving. For these individuals, this is a great triumph of self-success, to be invisible and apparently normal by going through the actions of social living without too many problems and crises.

So, think kindly on thinking well, as what it means so greatly depends on the culture and historic times that the isolated Piagetian logical thinking categories are lost in the forest of our own making.

Operational definition number 9, on *abstract thought*, represents the cumulative side of thinking and problem solving. We store up what we have faced and resolved through some rule-guided behavior. We join others who have faced these same existential issues and have offered their solutions, religious/spiritual or philosophical. Religious answers are canned solutions, sin and salvation, heaven and hell, elect or damned, and elaborate institutions are evolved over centuries to present the current versions of these abstract thoughts. (To read the history of religion is to wonder at the miracle that any of us survived religious wars fought over little words or ambiguous phrases.)

Spiritual answers are raw solutions, "my own search and discovery, that may or may not be helpful to you." It is the quest, not the answers of that quest, that is the main thrust of the spiritual. For youngsters gaining the perspective that they have a perspective on life, and that parental (and adult) answers are somehow deficient for them as they become adults, this is a vitalizing energy, to think, to day dream, to wonder about abstractions when no one else, it seems to them, can give them their personal answers. Not many take this path of individual search; it is easier to become a member of a religious group and get ready-made answers, which may be deeply satisfying. There are no guarantees that spiritual seekers will find much better than did the great prophets and philosophers of old.

However, if a youth persists along this difficult path of spiritual inquiry, he or she may end up with a personal philosophy of life that locates desired goals and acceptable paths toward those goals. This becomes a personal identity, which guides decisions in everyday life. These are fortunate people, indeed. For the rest of us, we scramble along, trying to patch together whatever canned religious and philosophical ideas we can in order to give some direction to our lives, if we engage in the task of systematic abstract thinking at all.

Kohlberg (1983) and Gilligan (1982) provide some paths to thinking about moral reasoning in contemporary society. Each defines some well-known developmental processes by which the individual moves from an amoral lump to a moral (and possibly a highly moral) member of society. They differ in what the contents of this development are, for Kohlberg, some abstract patterns of independent hedonistic thinking to interdependent social thinking (and possibly back to independent social thinking). Arbuthnot (1992) successfully uses Kohlbergian paradigm – of challenging a youth with experiences in moral reasoning just a little higher than his current stage – to guide changes (improvements in objective social behaviors) in predelinquent youngsters.

Our own experiences alone may not be adequate to solve all the problems we face, so we borrow experiences of others through the abstract ideas they share in books or parables. After we borrow these abstract ideas, often quickly forgetting their source, we set up our own abstract values and goals and use these to guide our particular behaviors – when convenient. If not convenient, we may amplify those values beyond the point of recognition of the original ones. Shall we torture possible terrorists to extract information from them to save the lives of innocent others – even though we have ample evidence that tortured persons say anything to stop the pain, making the information all but useless? Let's twist our national values and the Fourth Amendment until we get this one right. Are children any different in how they learn to think well, value well?

The cluster of operational definitions 11, 12, and 13, deal with *serving well*. These range from being dependable in local situations, to serving others beyond one's own home (as volunteers), and in general, exhibiting age-appropriate care and concern for others.

Operational definition number 11, *dependability*, clearly depends on the age of the youngster. What we choose to allow very young children to do to fulfill their obligations, to be "dependable," varies according to circumstance. Where necessary, very young children can be held responsible to care for younger siblings – this would be against the law in some communities; in fact, even older youth might not fulfill these same responsibilities in these communities, because dependability is a learned quality and requires graduated experiences that some children do not get. Havighurst (1966) and others were especially clear on the tasks of children at various ages, and though time has taken its toll on some of these tasks, the basics are still operative, more as guides to parents on what demands they should be making on their children "for their own good." Chief among these tasks are the age-appropriate educational mastery tasks, including doing homework and other chores that are the curse of the television class.

Operational definition number 12, *care and concern*, adds another wrinkle in the complexity of growing up. You may be exonerated if you think I am repeating myself on values, with number 10 (abstract values) and number 12 (concrete care and concern in local situations), because these are opposite sides of a current debate on whether values are abstract (Kohlberg, 1983) or local (Gilligan, 1982). I resolve that discussion by saying they are both and put them into different conceptual categories as well. All people hold some abstract values, and all people may have to live in the concrete world. The two kinds of values lead to difficult conflicts, like caring for developmentally delayed child with extensive handicaps, or their chronically mentally disabled elderly parent (like philosopher Peter Singer, who writes that hopeless situations involving such people should be humanely disposed of (killed) – although his critics point out that his own mother who suffers from Alzheimer's disease is being lovingly cared for in an institution at his expense). So, life is complex, and we can hold good abstract values while at the same time we hold good local values and show care and concern. What is most important to recognize in the work of Kohlberg and Gilligan is that people may not proceed very far in their abstract or local values, and we get the moral monsters who frequent our newspapers and our nightmares.

Operational definition number 13, *serving others*, has ample research support (Allen, Philliber, & Hoggson, 1990). It also demonstrates the helper therapy principle (Riessman, 1965), that giving help to others provides as much or more help to oneself. So, the marginal student sixth grader helping a struggling second grader to read gains in self-confidence (as a praised student, honored to be chosen to give help to a younger child) and more skill (overlearning the reading task, preparing himself or herself on how to teach this content to the younger person). Universities and colleges are recognizing this evidence, as they introduce service units in their curricula before students graduate. There are ample opportunities in grade school for working together with classmates on shared projects (Aronson & Bridgeman, 1979), which seem

to add not only to the intellectual performance but also to the social relationship tasks that all children need in getting along with peers and in a humane society.

The last cluster of operational definitions of social competence deal with ways of being healthy – putting things into oneself (food, sleep, exercise) and not putting things into oneself (drugs, alcohol, compromising sexual situations) that together enable the youth to move on toward responsible adulthood. Operational definition number 14, *health, cleanliness, and sleep*, deals with issues that we adults hope people would take for granted, but they don't. Recent studies of relative sleep deprivation in school-aged children emphasize choices need to be made among developmental tasks if these young people are to get the amount of sleep they need to benefit from all of their educational activities (cf. Biegel, 1984). As to health, childhood (just before puberty) may be the healthiest time in people's lives, when nature provides reinforcement to youth pushing themselves without apparent harm – eating fast foods on the run, ignoring aches and pains, moving on foot or vehicles as fast as possible to get as much as possible out of each experience. For the lucky ones, those who don't get into trouble or have accidents, all is well, and the self-fulfilling prophecy comes true, at least for now. For the unlucky ones, well, what can one say? Pity their parents (and the rest of us) who have to pay the bills, which, in the case of fatal accidents, is the least of it.

Operational definition number 15, *exercise*, is something that adults discount in children who never, it seems, stop moving. But, school boards, hard pressed to find funds for Three-Rs school matters, cut out extras, like gym, art, music, and other "frills." These local boards have total control over such matters – unless they are driven by national laws to leave no child behind (without federal funds to match). Add to this couch potatohood and TV or computer gaming, and some youths make hardly anything like healthful exertion. So goes the healthy body in favor of a healthy mind (or maybe only a hedonistic mind entertained). What we have realized for the past 500 years is that we need, absolutely, both healthy bodies and healthy minds (Bloom, 2003). Remember this and the leaders who brought you this new image of responsible government the next time you vote.

Operational definition number 16, *avoiding premorbidities*, refers to the mounting hazards of ordinary life for school-aged children – hard drugs, soft alcohol, sticky sex, and smoky cigarette, the four allures of a distorted view of adulthood (Dryfoos, 1994). Except for the first-named, all of these activities are legal for adults. Small wonder why youth chaff at the bit to get to the starting line and often sneak a head start into self-destruction. Responsible drinking, urges the alcohol company ads; some hard drugs only for medical purposes, say the desperate who get no relief from conventional medicines; smoking steadies the hand, controls the over-intake of food, and looks so sophisticated, say the cigarette ads; sex is great, shout advertisements everywhere. There is some truth, sorry to say, to each of these proclamations.

Take sex: sometime, somewhere, some how, almost all people will come to realize that they are sexual beings and attempt to act on this self-information. It doesn't happen categorically at any particular age, and rules/mores/parental prohibitions against sexual actions have little effect on practices. And sometimes, sexual activities really do mess up lives. Religions, all-knowing and wise, suggests suitable arrangements at suitable times with the blessing of the community – there is nothing wrong with this as such, except the times, places, and arrangements just don't always fit the timetable of youths. Untruths, like early teaching of safe sex will lead impressionable youth into sexual experimentation and therefore into sin and evil, are the stock-in-trade of fear mongers, regardless of the strong evidence to the contrary (Christopher, 1995). When religious morality disguises itself as science, look out everyone. The first casualty in religious wars is truth. Am I descending into cliches in old age?

Becoming a healthy youth is a difficult business, for the youths themselves, as well as for their parents, teachers, religious leaders, and the community at large. Makes me glad that I'm retired, and that my children now have these issues to negotiate with their children. Good luck guys, but please be careful with *my* grandchildren.

Social Environments

The term *social environment* means more than social + environment, as I want to include the full range of social environments (large and small), the physical environment (built and natural), the cultural environment (in which a given person may be a member of some majority and other minority groups), in some historic period of time (a larger time concept of *Age*, and the more focused time, as in our current time period). All that would be a mouthful, and so I use the shorthand phrase of social environments.

To discuss fully all of these social-cultural-physical-historical environments would be an enormous task. So, you will be happy to learn, I will be very selective and brief (relatively brief for a dyed-in-the-wool theorist).

The Cultural Environment

The social environment doesn't exist in the sense that the table or chair I am currently using exists. Instead, what we see, hear, feel, smell at times, and rarely taste, are the relatively persistent interaction between people and physical events over time. Bronfenbrenner (1979) distinguished a number of social environment that I will review. For presentation sake, I will look at these systems from the point of view of an imaginary 10-year-old youth.

The *microsystem* refers to various social structures that are in close and continuous interaction with that youth, like his or her family, peers, the neighborhood viewed as a play area, possibly a local church, probably health systems pertinent to that child (a pediatrician or public health nurse). This is where the youngster lives; these are the immediate social structures through which the child lives. However, having made these strong sociological statements of the power of microsystems on the life of that individual, I want to switch hats to make a strong psychological statement, that this individual may influence and change events in his or her microsystem. Microsystems are fluid in the sense that it matters greatly what the individual does in reaction to and in interaction with other aspects of his or her immediate environment.

In listing family, peers, neighborhood, and the like, I am uttering familiar terms, which are, for the theorist, mine fields. Everyone has his or her own views of these terms, his or her own definitions. This is good in the sense that I don't have to bore you to tears telling you that a *family* is a series of interrelated functions by which a small group of people serve various needs of each other – sex, child rearing, gainful employment, stimulation, succor, and the like. What? You think a *family* consists of a father, mother, or their equivalents, and their natural or adopted children, if any, living their lives together under the same roof? I'll go with that. This means that any of the many common definitions of family, each of which contains flaws according to other schools of thought, are good enough for me in this chapter. Whatever it is, the family is one of the microsystems with which the youth is in frequent interactions that influence his or her growth and development.

The *exosystem* refers to other social structures in which our referent individual plays no part but is affected by the actions of these structures. For example, the state board of education may create policies and take actions that eventually affect our 10-year-old, for better or for worse. The local board of education may be a part of the exosystem, if the child's parents do not participate in any way in the educational process. If the parents do connect with the school board in one fashion or another, then these relationships are part of a *mesosystem*, connecting individuals and social structures. Although these terms are relative, everything out there has a place somewhere in Bronfenbrenner's conceptual structure.

The *macrosystem* is the culture in which our 10-year-old and his family live. This system of beliefs, values, and behaviors common to a particular people and communicated over historic time to succeeding generations is the largest context in our ecology. Cultures will differ even though all cultures include their own specialized ways of living, foods, music, art, and forms of expression (sometimes including a distinct language).

Culture has always been a difficult term for theorists. There are hundreds of definitions of the term, and none decisively clearing up this murky domain. Theorists of the future, start your engines. You have yet to clarify how beliefs, values, and behaviors common to a particular people over time influence our

10-year-old, and especially how that 10-year-old influences culture. Does it make any sense to ask how youth can influence culture? Well, someone had to influence culture somewhere along the way, like the Beatles did for popular music, or the youthful Mozart did for unpopular music. (What is the opposite of popular music?) Music reflects the age in which it is written. All cultural elements likewise reflect their age.

Bronfenbrenner also discussed historic time and the influences that distinctive patterns of events in time have on people. He later brought in biological factors, making this a relatively complete biopsychosocial and physical environment theory moving, as it were, over time (see Germain & Bloom, 1999). Literally everything is present, which means that we still have to figure out how everything influences every other thing in any particular situation.

Thus, we have the social and the cultural environments, and you're welcome to them. They are complex things into which to throw our 10-year-old. Let's try the physical environment next, in hopes it will be much more comprehensible.

The Physical Environment

The basic problem in discussing the physical environment is that it is always there and thus tends to get taken for granted, until it is problematic or destructive (think of global warming and Hurricane Katrina). Or forgotten. When is the last time you thought about Hippocrates' *Air, Waters, and Places* ? This little book, written about 3000 years ago, should have alerted us to the obvious, that the air we breathe – or try to breathe – is a prerequisite for everything else people do. The waters we drink, sprinkle on our house plants or ourselves, gush over irrigation fields, suck out of limited aquifers, or spew with oil from our motor boats (or worse) are equally vital for survival. And where we plant our houses and farms and factories and streets and national parks has great effects on the lives we live. Undeniable and underexplored. We have a long way to go before we begin to comprehend the importance of place – the built places or the natural ones.

In one exploratory venture, environmental psychologists Cotton and Geraty (1984) have explored clinical environments, on the theory that children receiving help for their personal mental and emotional states need two contradictory things from their world – challenge/pleasure and security/safety – to enjoy the stimulus to move ahead or to stay behind and not risk getting hurt. So, they planned a mental health facility with both – at the same time. For example, the day room may have soft bean bag furniture (soft fuzzy challenge) but are too big to throw at people (security/safety) as one interacts with them on a daily basis (social challenge); soft attractive carpets (tactile challenge) that are glued to the floor (security/safety). Pictures line the walls (aesthetic challenge), but are the soft tapestry kind (security/safety) on

pastel-colored walls (which have a calming effect – security/safety). Clear doors lead to recreation equipment (with elements of both security and challenge), but they are locked (safety) for use only with personnel. And so forth – Every physical item can be viewed as being a challenge for children's growth and development or being something that represents security and safety without growth and development). The challenge is to put these two environmental concerns together to aid in achieving the mutual objective of healthy development for children.

The opposite of this is often accidental thinking about place, like having a television set in a child's room during homework time, or having no space other than the family dinning table on which to do homework. Obviously, economic and social considerations influence this latter situation. However, as a basic point, merely having luxurious things strewn about is no guarantee that an individual will be stimulated in a positive way, rather than saturated with the quantity of things without personal or social meaning. Television, too often the baby sitter of choice, may have some beneficial effects as *Sesame Street* and equivalent programs have demonstrated, but it definitely has some pernicious ones as well. Violence and aggressiveness, especially in the predisposed youth, are frequent companions on the couch in front of a TV set. (Antonishak, Sutfin, & Reppucci, 2005:70). Computer surfing may be the equivalent experience for contemporary youth.

What is a youth-appropriate healthy physical environment? Do we yet have the knowledge and wisdom to construct environments (or use natural environments) that would capture this goal? I think the nearest thing we have for normal development may be the clinical experience of designing everything with challenge and security in mind, but for ordinary situations along the developmental curve, we will probably have to vary the degree of the one and the other. For young children, we will likely have more protective and secure environments, but never forgetting to stimulate these youngsters with challenging experiences (things, and things in places). For older children, we will probably have to increase the challenge and offer more independence (and associated risks), while never forgetting to keep these older children feeling secure, having been socialized as infants to import into themselves the security and esteem their parents showered on them. It may be a mark of adolescence that parents and other adults offer larger spheres of independence, meaning, and independence from parental and environmental security and safety in favor of self-control in the face of new and wondrous challenges (with peers, strangers, and environments).

The Time Dimensions

Time as such exerts no influence on human affairs; it is, rather, the events that occur in time. Yet, time may be used as a shorthand way of summarizing complex events.

We speak of a depression personality (the Great Depression, that is), in which the person is continually anxious, unsure of the stability of his or her world (for good reason – the world proved to be very undependable). Years later, people still may be maintaining this uncertainty. The "clean plate" club – where you tell your children to finish every scrap of food on their plates – may reflect this transmitted historic insecurity. On the other hand, most of the Baby-Boom generation came to age (to *Age*) with an unprecedented sense of optimism. Things were getting bigger and better, and that is the way of the world. No more clean plate club; just order another delivery of fast (and fattening) foods. How times have changed.

Another way to think about time in human affairs is to consider the Age in which we are living. There are many events going on in our Age, such as the great civil rights changes, the growth of feminism, the advancement of the handicapped into the mainstream of social life. These are great advances, especially for the parties involved, but for all of us as well. Yet, this is an insecure Age, when the national government made serious and subtle inroads in traditional civil liberties; when no national political party appears willing or able to face economic facts of life, that national imports far exceed exports and national debts are rising to astronomic heights; where hedonism may be substituted for capitalism as a national way of life, and aspirin is the real drug of choice.

Is this the kind of world into which you would want to bring children? Don't laugh at this question, as it is the type of question used in national surveys of optimism and pessimism. The important decisions we make – in bed and elsewhere – are influenced by our perception or reading of the times.

Yet, in every *Time* period, some individuals appear to challenge their Age, and in challenging it, change it. We think of the Gandhis for the powerless poor, the Martin Luther Kings for discriminated minorities, the Rachel Carlsons on behalf of our common environment on which everything depends, the Betty Furnesses to gain rights for the majority (women), and a relatively small number of others. Yet they come, and create the changes that distinguish their lives and ours. The world is a pretty hopeless mess, except that some people do not believe that and in fact act to change the world. How are we to create this sense of the possible in our current generation?

What Constitutes Academic and Social Competence in After-School Programs? Some Generalizations and Advice

One of the great levers of the modern age is the public school system, which is sensitive (after a fashion) to the changing times and the demands of the modern world.

We are addressing after-school programs in particular, as being a major vehicle by which we can challenge our current generation of young people to excel in personal and sociocultural ways. This is not to say that schools themselves are fulfilling all that may be possible; we appear to be continually

changing our school programs in hopes of hitting the right formula for this magical outcome. There may not be a single right formula for the complex institution, the diversity of students, and a politically divided electorate.

However, Durlak (2003) has offered eight generalizations derived from research in the field of primary prevention at large. Adapting these generalizations to the field of after-school programs may offer one way to jump-start our thinking on how to promote social competency. First, let's review Durlak's important observations:

Generalization One: Effective interventions are theory driven and research based (Durlak, 2003:61–63).

Theory is important because it attempts to answer basic practical questions:

> . . . [T]heory offers a blueprint for determining what the program should contain (which components should it have and for how long should the program last), who should participate (as both recipients and providers of services), why the program might work (i.e., what processes should account for positive outcomes), and finally, how to assess program impact (i.e., which types of outcomes are expected, and how and when should they be measured). (Durlak, 2003:62).

Evaluations offer self-corrective to the guiding model and help to reshape the theory in light of empirically based information. The science of primary prevention needs to develop its theoretical base along with its empirical testing of their hypotheses.

Durlak notes that the social learning, behavioral, and ecological models now dominate most thinking in primary prevention and thus are good points of departure in conceptualizing any new concern, such as after-school programming and social competency. For example, social learning models stress the importance of modeling, behavioral practice with suitable reinforcement, along with environmental supports. So in planning an after-school activity using this model, we would have to consider what models, actively engaging the learners in what activities, using what reinforcements that would be accepted by the learners, in what social and physical contexts whose support and resources would become part of the on-going after-school environment. Theory helps to sharpen the right questions to ask and considerably advances the project.

Generalization Two: Effective interventions recognize that multiple factors present at multiple levels influence adjustment (Durlak, 2003:63–65).

There are many factors that contribute to the occurrence of any event. Durlak used the risk, protective, and positive factor paradigm as a way to summarize a complex array of causal factors. The first two factors involve anything that increases or decreases the likelihood of future untoward events, respectively, whereas the positive factor involves an increased likelihood of a future positive outcome, a new enhancement, as contrasted with merely preventing a predictable problem from occurring.

Multiple risks and multiple protective factors cumulate to become more powerful in a negative or positive direction, respectively. Protective factors may

be shared across individual, group, or environmental lines, as when a friend lends a sick neighbor a hand in getting plants into the ground at the right time and may use the county agricultural agent's advice on seed and fertilizer.

Durlak points out that one may use any or all of these paradigmatic factors as one program. The value of this advice for school personnel is to offer several points of entry into the after-school programming project. Are there specific risks to be addressed in your population, such as the outbreak of violence among students in different ethnic groups? Are there protective skills to be encouraged to address those risks, such as working in small diverse groups to solve challenges that would advance the entire group (Aronson & Bridgeman, 1979)? Are there positive goals separate from either risks or protective factors that could be enhanced, like teaching the basics of computer skills so that the students would profit from future course materials – and divert attention from needing to use violence?

Generalization Three: Effective programs emphasize skill development and behavior change (Durlak, 2003: 65–66).

Durlak points to accentuating the positive, rather than trying to get someone not to do something. For example, if an after-school activity is proposed so as to prevent the rise in tensions and violence among students, it is better to teach students how to behave in prosocial ways, rather than ordering them not to fight or punish them if they do. The point is to provide some suitable positive substitute for something problematic rather than focusing on the negative behaviors as such. This may involve new kinds of behaviors entirely. If so, a complex whole can be broken down into manageable-sized units of learning, and suitable reinforcements given.

Generalization Four: Effective interventions are well-timed (Durlak, 2003:66).

The general advice is to begin early, so as to work with students before the actual problem occurs. However, the timing has to be qualified so that the students can benefit from the program. Durlak gives the example of youthful experimentation with drugs or sexual behavior beginning in the fifth or sixth grade and recommends preventive intervention at some natural time before then, such as in early health classes, when children would be receptive, interested, and not yet involved in the untoward behavior. An intervention too early would fall on unreceptive ears and thus would be wasteful of energy and money. So the challenge is timing, where it is probably useful to depend on the experience of direct line workers' sense of the receptivity of young children.

Generalization Five: Effective interventions use developmentally appropriate program materials and intervention techniques (Durlak, 2003:66–67).

Some good programs and materials may be too advanced for some students, such as younger children not being able to comprehend abstract instructions or terms, as the Piagetian model of cognitive development suggests. Programs may have to be run over successive years, with "booster shots" to review and remotivate students regarding the earlier presentations. With regard to sex education, there has been some fear by parents that early introduction to sex

would drive the children in sexual experimentation. The evidence (Christopher, 1995) shows that such instruction has not increased children's sexual activity.

Old-fashioned methods, like pilot testing of instruments that have been shown to be effective with other same-aged groups, is useful, as unexpected variables, such as regional cultures, generational differences, and such, may yield unpleasant results.

Moreover, it is possible, as Durlak discusses, to present positive programs unrelated to the predicted untoward behaviors, such as presenting problem solving, refusal skills, and stress-management early, rather than wait until pregnancy pressures are upon the students.

Generalization Six: Effective interventions take steps to ensure good program implementation (Durlak, 2003:67).

Program fidelity is difficult to attain. Whatever we say or write is open to multiple interpretations, and the pressures of the moment may require taking short-cuts that undermine the overall project. So it is vital to make sure the core goals and methods of the project are clear to all persons involved and that the training materials are pretested as being user-friendly. Ongoing monitoring is useful to keep the program from going too far away from the intended core methods and goals, but monitoring too closely can be disturbing for participants. Perhaps the best compromise is to have clearly stated directions and procedures and require participants to monitor their own efforts for fidelity on the short-term basis, while the research would look at the overall fidelity to the core components of the program.

Generalization Seven: Effective interventions are targeted and adapted for the target population and setting (Durlak, 2003:67–68).

Program adaptation is the other half of program fidelity. Durlak points out that there will always be a need to adapt a program developed in one context to the major characteristics of another setting. The trick is to maintain those core components while adapting to new situations and demands. Basic sociological terms, such as proportions of ethnic groups, class levels, and gender balances, are good places to begin looking at how adaptations might affect core processes. A middle-class community may already be providing the cultural tools that working-class communities have less access to and thus less communication with their children. (I remember still my embarrassment at missing a test question on who is Beethoven, whose name was never mentioned in my parental home.) To replicate without adaptation a study done first with working-class children on a new group of middle-class children is to invite unwelcomed surprises in evaluating outcomes.

Generalization Eight: Effective interventions are carefully evaluated (Durlak, 2003:68).

Evaluation of programs points out ineffective programs, unhelpful procedures, and unexpected administrative and other problems. Doing nice things, like inviting a friendly police officer to a school assembly (for little cost and maximum coverage), may seem appealing until rigorous evaluation indicates

that there is no evidence that this experience does what it was intended to do, to reduce delinquency and the like. Convenience and response to outside pressures may have more to do with adopting one-shot, low-cost, didactic, fun programs rather than the more serious criterion of whether a program does what it purports to accomplish. If we adopted this more serious criterion, there would be a lot fewer assemblies in schools around the country.

Applying this generalization to after-school programming will be challenging, because the staff will likely be preoccupied with the activities themselves and may believe in their efficaciousness without obtaining objective measures. Yet, there are many natural conditions that might be employed in a careful study. For example, it might not be possible to accommodate all of the classes at the same time, so a staggered approach – a flip of the coin to determine which half of the classes will get the after-school program first, and which the following semester – provides an experimental/control group design without harm to the participants. Existing record procedures may be employed to study the effects of a program. For instance, records on deportment, trips to the principal's office, absenteeism, and the like may be indicators of program success/nonsuccess, where the data are collected routinely for other purposes and may be shared for research. University research classes might be very happy to take on an assignment of finding effective research methods that accommodate the participants of the project and limitations of costs and such. Adaptation is the name of the game in evaluation, and Durlak's eight generalizations are useful for application to after-school programs, as well as many other uses.

Concluding Remarks

Competency, as discussed above, is really psychosocial competency, involving the combination of personal and social environmental ingredients. There is no way to have personal competency without a relatively supportive environment, and there is no way to achieve social competency without having participants capable of benefiting from the resources and support of those larger contexts. In discussing after-school programs for children and youth, we are pointing to the intersection of the personal with the social and are seeking to introduce empirically grounded beneficial programs to youngsters capable of benefiting from them. This is a challenging task, as other chapters in this book amplify.

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Chapter 2
How Development Affects Learning: Lessons Learned from Developmental, Cognitive, and Natural Science

Deirdre Lee Fitzgerald

Much attention has been paid to the "education crisis" arising from the gap between students needs and expectations and the lack of resources available to teachers and schools to address those needs. Federal initiatives such as the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (widely known from previous authorizations as IDEA), and other phenomena exert crushing demands on the current model. With these changes, terms such as inclusion, accountability, and mastery have become part of the everyday nomenclature in schools. As communities struggle to meet the needs of learners, new support for learning is developing. Today, programming extends beyond the school day to include before- and after-school, as well as home- and community-based settings for many children. After-school programs, in particular, play a vital role in increasing the academic success and social competence of young learners.

Creating learning programs that effectively increase student mastery of skills is vital. Merging what is known about the development of young children and effective instructional design practices can create effective and efficient educational programs. This current chapter examines the development of young children by extracting themes that can guide the implementation of effective after-school programming for young learners.

Defining Learning and Development

Parents, teachers, peers, and mentors support children as they face the challenges of development. Much is known about the typical scope and sequence of development (i.e., growth trajectories). For example, we know

D.L. Fitzgerald
Associate Professor of Psychology, Applied Behavior Analysis, Eastern Connecticut State University, 83 Windham Street, Webb Hall #132, Willimantic, CT 06226, USA
e-mail: fitzgeraldd@easternct.edu

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that patterns of learning are individual. Each child progresses at a different rate, is drawn to different subjects, and is motivated by different events. Trends emerge across similar groups of learners. Thus, we may ask, "what develops?" in the learner, and "under what conditions does development occur?" (Novak, 1996, p. 268). Knowing the answers to these questions permits the creation of educational programs that maximize this growth. To answer these questions, we must examine what is meant by learning and development. There are different ways in which a skill can be acquired, different depths or quality of that learning, and different means of making experiences available to the learner. For each event to be taught, the best way to provide instruction to complement and facilitate development should be considered.

What It Means to Learn

Learning is a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs over time as a result of experience. A complex interplay of both biological and environmental factors influence what is learned, how, and when. Some learned events have a primarily genetic character (and etiology, or cause) and are shared by most members of that group, whereas other events are more influenced by unique experiences that occur during the life of a particular learner. Developmentalists often refer to the contribution of *nature* as the constellation of biological patterns that are present at birth and to *nurture* as the impact of events that the child encounters as they experience their world. An additional means of learning is often identified as culture because of its role in transmitting information through such shared practices as language, beliefs, and traditions.

Learning Through Consequences

As a youngster interacts with the world, new skills and repertoires can be established in at least two ways: through the outcomes of a learning event or through associations with what is already known. Knowing the processes by which each type of learning occurs allows educators to arrange instruction in ways that facilitate these events.

When a learning event occurs and produces a particular outcome, that outcome can make the event more or less likely to be repeated in future settings. Favorable outcomes, from the perspective of the learner, make a learning event more likely to be repeated than events followed by unfavorable outcomes. These outcomes of learning are called consequences. Learning through the impact of consequences forms the science of operant conditioning.

It is important to note that by consequences, we do not mean the popular interpretation of the term as "bad things happening"; we simply are examining

what occurs as a result of the learner's interaction with their world. Consider this example: If a teenager bullies a peer, the outcome of this interaction may be complex. It may include immediate feelings of power, later feelings of guilt, immediate increases in peer standing in some groups, immediate decreases in prestige with other groups, legal penalties, receiving a desired item (i.e., the peer's lunch money), avoiding class (by being sent to the principal's office), having more work to do later, parental penalties, a rush of adrenaline, and more. Whether the teen repeats this event or not is a function of the outcomes that are most powerful to that individual and how often they are produced. If an increase in peer standing with their target peer group is the most important outcome for the teen at that moment, then the teen might bully again. This outcome may even overshadow the effect of other sanctions, even if they were unfavorable. The learner will respond most to the outcome that is most powerful to them at that time. We develop a history of receiving certain consequences for certain behaviors and that shapes our choices about what to do (or not do) later on.

When examining the impact of consequences for behavior, we must take the perspective of the learner and be aware that the same learner may be impacted differently by the same outcome at different times or in different settings. This is because each learning event changes the learner in ways that effect subsequent interactions. Additionally, the context may have an impact on the value of an event to the learner. For example, getting a high mark on a paper might be motivating for a teenager if they can show it to an important mentor but might be uncomfortable if they are required to share it with their peer group. The context changes the value of the outcome for the learner.

The most valuable consequence to understand and use in teaching and learning environments is the reinforcer. A reinforcer is an event that when it is presented after a behavior increases the likelihood of the learner performing that action again. Reinforcers are events or circumstances that are favorable to the learner. All learners have unique preferences that will change and evolve over time. Some favorable outcomes include adding an event to the learner's environment and some include removing an event from their environment. These arrangements are called positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement, respectively. In both cases, the resulting situations must be something that learner prefers. When a peer group finishes their work accurately and rapidly, they may be provided with the opportunity to play a computer learning game as a reinforcing consequence that is added after homework completion. Conversely, altering something they dislike, like waiting in the long lunch line, removes a nonpreferred state and serves to reinforce behavior also. In both cases, it is important to stress that behavior happens more often because the learner's behavior is followed by a has a favorable outcome.

By arranging for favorable outcomes after the learner's behavior, educators can increase the performance of important skills. Helping learners to develop

the capacity of self-feedback and to deliver their own reinforcers is an important goal for educators and has a powerful and lasting effect on student learning.

Although other types of consequences are available (see Fitzgerald & Walker [2005] for a review), their effect is to decrease behavior, rather than to increase it as reinforcement does. In academic settings, increasing appropriate skills is the priority. Behavior management programs should focus on maximizing the learner's success by engaging them in appropriate skills by all positive means available.

Learning Through Associations

Learning occurs when a new event becomes associated with something with which the learner already has some knowledge. For example, Grandma is wonderful and apple pie is more wonderful because she makes it every time I see her. In this case, what I know about one event (Grandma) becomes associated or interwoven with what I know about another event (apple pie). Preschools use this effect to increase children's positive associations between the school setting and learning new skills. This is done by pairing fun and exciting learning activities and the school itself. However, it is important to note that school phobias can be acquired in the same manner. When such experiences as academic failure or peer rejection occur in school settings, a student may come to associate school with unfavorable events.

In this type of learning, it is not the outcome of an event, but the pairing of one event with another that establishes whether it will be repeated. When two events are paired often, or intensely, they are more likely to be repeated. These associations form the science of respondent conditioning. Learning based on respondent conditioning includes both simple associations and more complex events. Because such variables as the setting, individuals, and activities that are present during a learning event can become associated with strong feelings for the learner, educators should be careful to arrange associations that contribute positively to a learner's motivation and development.

Types and Depth of Knowledge

Learning changes the individual; in fact, all of the repertoires of the learner are affected by changes in each skill. The individual approaches similar situations anew after a learning event has occurred. For example, a child who is bitten by a dog may come to speak about and approach dogs differently, and may even come to, dream of dogs, hear dogs, and feel dogs in ways different than before the biting event. Some measures of learning from this experience are more biological in nature, such as the increased sensitivity to the sound of a dog

bark; some measures are more environmental in nature, such as the changes in proximity to the dog; while still other measures of this experience can be said to be behavioral, such as the changes in thinking about dogs that the child experiences. Even an individual who reports no fear may be relaying subtle postural, hormonal, or respiratory changes that could indicate fear. Learning affects the whole of the organism as well as the way that it interacts with its environment even if we are not consciously aware of these effects.

We have seen that there are at least two different processes by which learning can be acquired. Once a skill has been acquired, it can be further described by the depth or level of knowledge demonstrated. According to Bloom (1956), there are six levels of knowledge that describe most learning. The first level is direct knowledge, which is closely related to the instructional material. A spelling test is a good example of this type of knowledge where the goal is to learn the correct order of letters that compose specified words. A second level of knowledge is comprehension. Here the learner is expected to generate an independent answer that represents his or her own analysis. Having a classmate answer questions about what new initiatives a candidate for class president would support after hearing his or her campaign speech illustrates the student's comprehension of the speech. Application is the next level of knowledge whereby the student is expected to use some previously acquired piece of information to solve a problem in a new setting. For example, if a child is taught to spell words in school using certain rules of speech and then is asked to spell the names of items in their home for homework, then they would be applying their knowledge. A fourth level of knowledge is analysis. Analysis requires breaking a concept into its component parts. One then makes comparisons between concepts such as the similarities and differences between healthy and unhealthy foods. Synthesis, a fifth level of knowledge, is the integration of separate component skills to form a composite skill. This may occur, for example, when a learner combines basic repertoires in problem solving, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division in the completion of an advanced algebra problem. The final level of knowledge is evaluation. This requires the use of previous levels of knowledge as the learner offers arguments in favor of or against a particular position, event, or decision, as when they consider, for example, which college to attend and why. These levels of knowledge are useful for educators, as Engelmann and Carnine (1991) and others have emphasized matching learning objectives and the teaching methods used to attain them to the different levels of knowledge that might be obtained.

The quality or depth of learning also can be measured in terms of the fluency of the skill. Fluency is a measure that identifies that the skill meets a level of mastery like that of an expert's performance in that it is both rapid and accurrate (Binder, 1996). This scientific concept maps directly onto the everyday use of the term *fluency* when describing one's skill in a language. There are two important dimensions of fluency: accuracy and rate. First, an expert performance must be correct, or meet some standard for appropriateness.

In the case of language, this would mean using the right words and understanding those used by others in conversation. The second dimension of fluency differentiates it from measures of the acquisition of a skill by examining the rate at which the skill can be performed. The pace or speed at which an accurate performance can be exhibited is a noteworthy part of expert performances. When you are newly acquiring a second language, think of how fast it seems that fluent members speak. You might also think of the rate dimension of fluency as the tip of the tongue phenomenon, in that what is well-known is also so readily accessible it is as if it were on the tip of your tongue. To demonstrate the concept of fluency, we might consider the case of two students in the same mathematics class. A student who can complete 100 long division problems without any errors in 1 hour is accurate, but the peer who can complete the same 100 problems correctly in 20 minutes or less shows a higher level of mastery. An accountant may perform this skill faster still. The performance that most closely matches that of an expert is the one that is considered fluent. Thus, the second student is said to have a higher level of mastery than the first but still less mastery than an expert (the accountant). Fluency is an excellent measure of mastery after we have determined that a skill has been acquired (Kubina & Morrison, 2000). Fluency is especially effective as a measure of mastery in academic settings because it has been shown to produce increases in the retention of skills, endurance on a challenging task, and application to new settings while maintaining high standards for the quality of the skill (Johnson & Street, 2004).

Intentional Versus Incidental Learning

Some learning events are specifically arranged and others occur in the course of everyday experiences. Specifically, arranged learning is called intentional, programmed, or structured. These experiences constitute the bulk of a child's academic life, most parenting efforts, and many cultural experiences. The curriculum for third grade, for example, provides a list of learning events that the teacher should ensure the student is exposed to and obtains mastery of before entering the fourth grade. Similarly, parents give children household responsibilities to prepare them for life as independent adults, and cultural communities involve youth members in important events to teach them traditions to pass along to yet future generations.

In contrast, learning that occurs naturally, or incidentally in everyday experience, is not specifically arranged. This might include learning how to make friends in new places and problem-solving strategies that work best for one's learning style. Although trends in education may sway toward or away from a particular way of providing learning experiences, the science of learning shows that effective instructional practices are applied in both intentional and incidental learning environments (Moran & Malott, 2004). A match between

the skills of the learner and the goals of the teaching event should dictate the way that learning is arranged to maximize student success. In fact, failure to facilitate this match in the design of learning experiences can put a learner at a distinct disadvantage. Consider the following example of incidental or naturally occurring versus intentional or programmed instruction. The Greek scholar Pythagoras and the modern inventor Einstein are examples of individuals who pursued their interest in events and accomplished significant depth of knowledge in their fields by learning from natural experimentation. They acquired their knowledge in a timely manner and developed additional skills simultaneously and at a relatively young age. However, these individuals represent the exception, rather than the rule. Most individuals require extensive well-designed instruction to understand the advances in geometry and physics (to name just a few areas) that these individuals brought about.

Thus, given that the majority of our instructional experiences are programmed, the question of how best to let the learner navigate these events is important. The level of instructional support for a learning event must be a function of variables involving the learner, teacher, subject matter, and setting. There is never one method that will match all situations. The educator must choose the best fit for their program at that time and then modify instruction as variables change. The continuum of instructional support ranges from experiences that allow the learner to experiment with the environment and are grounded in trial-and-error discovery to structured teaching programs that guide the learner to correct responses through errorless learning. Consider this contrast in a familiar educational task. In the Piagetian conservation task where two glasses of different shapes containing an equal volume of liquid are presented to young learners who are then asked to determine which one contains the most liquid, different levels of instructional support could be arranged. A trial-and-error approach may evoke an answer from the learner and be followed with feedback on the accuracy of their choice. In contrast, an approach that uses errorless teaching techniques would prearrange a number of instructional tasks that would guide the learner's responding toward the correct answer (i.e., they are equal) and away from other choices (i.e., the tall, thin glass contains more, or the short, broad glass contains more). Research shows that each approach has benefits and shortcomings (Fitzgerald, 1997). Specifically, trial-and-error learning can produce strong, lasting knowledge that is flexibly paired with new information, but learning this way is time consuming, frustrating, and frequently leads to burnout, or even dropping-out of that task and related experiences. Errorless learning is efficient and effective at establishing knowledge and enthusiasm for learning, yet information may not be remembered as long or as readily expanded upon as that which is learned with some errors. Again, we are reminded that learning is individual and fluid and must be paired with teaching that shares these qualities to most effectively bring the learner to the desired outcome.

Learning and Development

Development flows from learning. We see development in the progressive changes that a learner makes along one dimension or skill over time. These changes can be tracked and trends in learning can be identified. The development of trends may be a slow process. For example, a learner may display a skill once, then not again for an extended length of time. The skill is seen again, and followed by successively more and more instances of the skill. Once it is reliably observed in a given setting, then we can speak of the skill as acquired. As particular groups of skills come together to create more complex patterns of behavior, we can speak of these patterns as development.

Progressive changes in the nature of interactions between the learner and their environment are what we examine when we refer to development (Bijou & Ribes, 1996). Children develop, not merely because of the passage of time, but because particular meaningful experiences are had at important times. Timing is important because a child must be ready, that is they possess the necessary prerequisite component skills and abilities (also referred to as foundation skills), to take advantage of this new experience. In fact, it may be that much of what we call development depends on the organization and sequence of teaching practices in a given social or cultural setting (Rosales-Ruiz & Baer, 1996).

Development has distinct characteristics (Novak, 1996). First, it is a process that is dynamic. The learner is ever changing, each new experience creating a new perceptive. Once children master the skill of walking, for example, they solve problems of mobility and negotiate physical challenges in vastly different ways than they did as crawlers, and this repertoire continues to evolve. Second, development, though progressive, is nonlinear and may occur in spurts and leaps. This varying pace and, sometimes, sequence of developmental events is observed in the case of identical twins reared together advancing through different skills at different times. Third, action is required for development to unfold. That is, there is interdependency between young children and their environment. This is illustrated by the young learner who is read to and exposed to the written word at an early age mastering the skill of reading at a developmentally appropriate age, and the child who is not exposed to a world rich with books struggling with reading. Additionally, development is reciprocal. Events change the learner, but are changed also by the youngster as they navigate their environment. This dance is ongoing. The reciprocal nature of development is seen clearly in the observation of a teacher and a child during imaginative play as they take turns in creating a game or scripting the exchange of characters, each interaction feeding off of that before it. Most importantly, development is malleable. The outcome of a child's development is not prewritten and is subject to the influences – beneficial or detrimental – of their ongoing experiences. For educators, this malleability provides a call to service as teaching changes developmental outcomes.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

Developmentally appropriate practice provides meaningful experiences at the optimal time so that the learner can move to the next step with other supports in their environment. There is a fine balance to negotiate between the needs of a class of students as a whole, the need to press on to new and more complex experiences for some learners, and the need to engage a single learner in different or additional contact with instruction to bring about their mastery of the material. Because developmental outcomes are strongly influenced by experiences, children have critical periods for teaching and learning that must be facilitated in many ways.

The challenges of development for children in the 5- to 13-year-old populations are vast. The supports for their development should be rich and varied. The developmental challenges that younger children face include transition to full-day schooling, discovering how more complex things work, cooperating with others on task, developing imaginative play, acquiring symbolic language, developing fine and gross motor skills, and increasing pragmatism. Middle childhood brings the following challenges and achievements: the use of logic, discovering patterns, increasing memory, more reliable metacognition, expanding language skills, sense of responsibility, and pride in one's accomplishments. Early adolescence finds the child facing: puberty, identity formation, abstract thinking, scientific reasoning, the importance of peers, moral development, intensification of relationships, and establishing independence from parents.

Instructional environments should integrate practice with appropriate skills in each of these domains. For some children, educational settings may provide their only exposure to vital areas of skill development.

Using Developmentally Appropriate Practice to Help Children Catch Up

Hart and Risley (1995) provided an elegant demonstration of the importance of early environmental supports for learning in their longitudinal study of the language development of young children and patterns of language used by parents from professional families, working-class families, and families receiving welfare. Their robust finding was that the language development, intelligence, and academic success of young children were related to the amount and nature of verbal interactions with their caregivers. Parents in professional families were more likely to provide ongoing descriptive narration of the child's behavior and positive statements to the child than were parents of families receiving welfare. Parents in families receiving welfare had the lowest overall frequency of verbal interactions with their children and the highest percentage of those interactions containing negative statements (e.g., "stop touching that") as compared with positive (e.g., "yes, you said 'top'") or neutral (e.g., "that is a blue car") statements. This early interaction was related to differences in the

child's vocabulary development such that by the age of 3 years, children from professional families had vocabularies that were more than 3 times greater than those from families receiving welfare.

Contributions of After-School Programs to Development

We know that appropriate experiences are essential for effective development. As a result, many after-school programs are designed to address the cumulative disadvantage that some children experience. Two types of added experience that are used to supplement the development of children are enrichment and acceleration programs. Enrichment programs aim to provide meaningful experiences that may not be available to the learner through standard sources. Such programs may provide access to technology (computers), culture (museums, zoos, theater), leadership (mentoring, professional partnerships), and science (equipment, experiments). In contrast, acceleration programs provide additional contact with increasingly advanced curricular objectives for the student from their current academic placement. This translates to additional time for instruction on the learning objectives already in place for that student and more time to master the curriculum. Depending on the current pace of the learner, this could mean that they work ahead (as in many programs for gifted individuals), or this could mean that they catch up and are able to demonstrate true mastery of the subject matter at a pace similar to that of their peers. Whether based on a remediation, acceleration, enrichment, or another model, after-school programs have the benefit of providing additional time for learning beyond that of the regular school day.

Individualization in After-School Programming

After-school programs have the added benefit of being readily individualized to meet the differing needs of students. After-school programs have been designed as models to guide other implementations, and they have been used to test applications of innovative programs. Many programs have demonstrated positive effects on the development of participants. Such areas as adjustment to elementary education (Posner & Vandell, 1999), academic success (Zosky & Crawford, 2003), and increases in reading skills (Fleming, 2005) have been demonstrated as outcomes of effective after-school programming.

A population that has received great attention in after-school programs is children identified as at-risk for academic failure and other negative social outcomes. In fact, after-school programs have been effective in facilitating the development of children placed at-risk (Riggs & Greenberg, 2004). After-school programs provide an opportunity to follow through on the enrichment that children at-risk need and thus maintain the early gains that these programs

create. This is particularly significant given the finding that to sustain the benefits of programs, such as Head Start and Early Start, they should be continued in age-appropriate ways (Watkins, 1997; Reynolds, 2003).

The benefits of after-school programs also extend to gifted youth. Well-designed acceleration programs, in particular, are effective and appropriate ways of maximizing the abilities of youth identified as gifted (Swiatek & Benbow, 1991). Schools can expand their offerings for gifted youth by offering additional programming in an after-school format.

Although after-school services may be one way to stimulate advanced students, such programs are also useful in servicing students who are members of special populations. Children with emotional and behavioral disorders, in particular, need structured teaching, peer support, and help developing appropriate skills (Wagner et al., 2006). Because these students are academically challenged, after-school programs provide an opportunity for focusing on the acquisition, maintenance, and generalization of skills in effective teaching settings.

Participants in after-school programs who show typical patterns of development can benefit from a curriculum that enhances readiness for the next grade or level of learning.

Programs also function to create cohorts of learners and similarly situated families. Building community bonds benefits both learners (Jackson & Riessman, 2001) and their families. Families with more positive social networks have lower levels of stress and can better meet the needs of their children (Valiente, Fabes, & Eisenberg, 2004; Raikes & Thompson, 2005).

Facilitating Learning

After-school programs that produce the greatest outcomes are guided by practices with demonstrated effectiveness (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network, 2004). Science is guided by both empirical research and theories of development. By examining common developmental theories and the science that evolves from them, educators can make informed decisions about program adoption. As such, the contributions of developmental, cognitive, and natural science will be examined, and theories, principles, and practices that follow from them will be detailed.

Lessons Learned from Developmental Science

Developmental science is the scientific, multidisciplinary study of development across the life span with an interest in socially relevant issues (Heatherington, 1998). It looks directly at issues facing youth such as poverty, crime, risk, resilience, divorce, and the media. Developmental science seeks to address

trends affecting different groups of learners, such as those at-risk for academic failure, children of divorce, inner city youth, immigrants, and others.

Developmental science frequently has been at the forefront of emerging prevention programs, especially those that coordinate the talents of a variety of disciplines. Programs such as Early Start and Head Start are examples of prevention programs that in their design embody the values of developmental science. Both programs provide developmentally appropriate programming and address the needs of children labeled at-risk for a variety of negative outcomes because of family income, educational attainment, cultural or linguistic isolation, and access to community resources. In Head Start programs, for example, children are served by professionals from education, health care, social services, and other fields in the same facility. In addition, caregivers are supported through this program with services. As a result, both Early Start and Head Start programs play an important role in providing at-risk youth with exposure to positive developmental experiences to enable these learners to make significant gains (Love et al., 2005; Reynolds, 2000).

Developmental science has contributed greatly to our understanding of risk and resilience, as well. Certain factors correlate with unfavorable developmental outcomes. Examples of developmental risks include poverty, teen parents, substance abuse, and poor-quality schooling. Individually, or in combination, these factors tend to occur in groups of children with later outcomes including teen pregnancy, substance abuse, unemployment or underemployment, and others. However, not every child exposed to risk factors has an unfavorable developmental outcome. Despite challenges, some children thrive while their peers, siblings, and parents experience hardship. Certain factors seem to offer protection against environmental harm for some children. This phenomenon is called resilience. Factors contributing to resilience include a positive role model, a mentor, academic success, and acceptance by healthy peers (Condly, 2006).

After-school programs also play an important role in the prevention of a number of negative developmental trends. Thus, they may contribute to resilience. One area of significant impact for after-school programs may be the reduction of criminal behavior. Studies report an increase in violence, crime rates, substance use, and sexual activity for youth during the period immediately after the dismissal from school (Riggs & Greenberg, 2004). Quality after-school programs provide a venue for engagement in appropriate activities under adult supervision and corresponding decreases in youth crime rates (Gottfredson et al., 2004). In addition to the benefit of providing a safe, supervised, and structured environment, children have the opportunity to enhance academic and social skills.

After-school programs may contribute to the physical health of youth, as well. For example, the rise in childhood obesity and related illnesses correlates with the decrease in physical education classes in schools and reduced extracurricular offerings. After-school programs can make a positive impact on increasing the heath behaviors of young children (Mahoney, Lord, & Carryl, 2005).

In a comprehensive review of what is known about prevention programs across settings and topic areas, Nation et al. (2003) found that a skill development focus and the importance of proper timing were two of the most crucial indices of effectiveness. Thus, programs that are matched to the developmental progress and challenges of learners are most effective. Furthermore, specific learning objectives should be selected and effective instructional design must be applied to reap these benefits.

Lessons Learned from Cognitive Science

Cognitive science draws from a number of disciplines to address questions of mind, knowledge, language, memory, and other processes (Gardner, 1985). Cognitive science is held together by an interest in structures that underlie learning and the processes that they are governed by. Many areas of research emerge from this tradition. The contributions of Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky, and Howard Gardner are given attention because their work contains important implications for educational design.

Piaget

Jean Piaget is the author of one of the most prominent theories of child development (Piaget, 1965, 1971). It articulates the position of constructivism, which posits that the learner's active creation of mental representations of an event, or a schema, guide subsequent interactions. In constructivism, the learner engages in the world through experimentation and discovery, both naturally and in programmed settings.

Learning activities that are most valued by Piaget are those where children are allowed to experiment, analyze, and draw their own conclusions. Teachers arrange and facilitate experiences to help students discover information through questions, probes, and other strategies (also called the clinical method). Because learners are expected to actively construct new knowledge from these experiences, it is important that learners are properly prepared for this level of independence in their learning. This means that essential prerequisite skills must be present so that the learner can take advantage of discovery exercises. These prerequisites include direction following, sustained attention, peer cooperation, use of tools, communication skills, or the ability to read.

Research by Piaget and others had elaborated typical developmental milestones for youth of various ages. He proposed four developmental stages and associated skills that generally are observed at each stage.

The first stage of development spans the first 2 years of life. It is called the sensorimotor stage to emphasize the primary task and mode of learning during

this period: physical interactions with the environment. The use of one's senses to come to know objects, events, and individuals is important.

The preoperational stage is the second developmental task in Piaget's theory. It ranges from approximately years 2 to 6. Advances in thinking that take the child from literal and immediate sensory experiences to abstract representations of events characterize this stage. Children become able to use symbols and thus begin to understand words and numbers.

Concrete operations develop and the child enters the third stage. Here the child becomes able to manipulate symbols and use logic. Generally, this occurs between the ages of 6 and 11. Using words to tell a story or numbers to solve a problem are examples of working with the abstract concepts that are seen during this period.

The final stage of development is described as formal operations. Learners in this stage demonstrate higher-order abstract thought. As such, a broad range of possibilities can be conceptualized, evaluated, and compared by those who have developed these sophisticated ways of thinking.

Although these stages contain sufficient breadth to describe the development of most typical learners in stimulating circumstances, it is not the case that all learners achieve the level of skill described by each of the stages. This is particularly true regarding the final and most complex stage of development: formal operations. It is the position of Piaget that the advancement of a learner through these stages was a matter of the unfolding of particular levels of skill. The timing of a learner's advancement and how far a given learner was able to advance in the stages was not something that could be readily influenced by teaching.

Piaget's stages focus on cognitive development, which is facilitated by a few important processes. First, organization is used to fit new knowledge into existing repertoires. A second process is adaptation, which describes the modification of existing repertoires in response to new knowledge. Third, assimilation is determining if new information is like something already known or if it is so distinct from previous experiences that it becomes an example of a new category. This later process is called accommodation.

Piaget's theory of child development emphasized the importance of the learner as an active participant in their unfolding development. Piaget stressed the importance of the teacher as a guide. His lasting contributions are to encourage educators to present learners with challenging and meaningful learning opportunities in which they will have the opportunity to learn the way that the world works.

Vygotsky

Lev Vygotsky's theory of social and cultural development has sparked intense interest. It is grounded in the premise that development is a culturally situated event, thus interactions with others are of primary importance in the

development of knowledge (Vygotsky, 1986). Language is the vehicle by which knowledge is transmitted from more skilled to less skilled members of a cultural community.

Vygotsky stressed the role of culture as a developmental catalyst. Children could learn more under the guide of a more skilled model or a mentor than they could learn on their own. In fact, his theory of development incorporates a number of processes that emphasize the importance of collaborative learning. The skilled mentor that arranged an apprenticeship in learning for the less learned partner greatly widened their range of abilities. The difference between what skills a learner can demonstrate independently and what can be done with assistance is called the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The more a child knows and is able to do, the more doors open to him or her for even more experiences, and development continues to accelerate.

A mentor can expand a learner's ZPD through a process called scaffolding. Scaffolding is a teaching method whereby learning experiences are arranged that build upon already mastered skills, engage the support of a skilled mentor, and expand the ZPD in a stepwise fashion. Once learners can do the new skill with assistance, they are exposed to it with diminishing levels of support until they can engage in it independently. This skill then becomes part of their repertoire and becomes increasingly covert or private in its presentation. An internal dialogue, referred to as private speech, comes to govern well-known skills. Simultaneously, still further advances in that area of knowledge are facilitated by again working with the mentor. The process is continually evolving and contributes to advances in the learner's thought and language and their ability to mentor others.

Vygotsky presented a theory of development that accounts for development through social interactions. His theory is readily brought into practice and as such has had an important role in shaping modern instructional environments.

Gardner

Howard Gardner shares an interest in the development of cognitive skills with that of other cognitive scientists. His theory of intelligence distinguishes a variety of types of expert behavior (Gardner, 1993a, 1999). This theory of multiple intelligences outlines eight areas of skill that describe a given learner's abilities. The developmental evolution of particular inclinations evident in individuals is the focus of his work. Intelligence represents advanced skill in socially relevant domains (Gardner, 2003). It is a dynamic process, and by understanding and identifying what constitutes intelligence, we can support its evolution in young learners (Gardner, Csikszentmihalyi, & Damon, 2001).

One type of intelligence is linguistic. An individual who shows remarkable skill in writing and oration may have high linguistic intelligence. A second type of intelligence is logical-mathematical. The use of logical analyses and numerical computation by mathematicians and scientists demonstrates this type of

intelligence. Musical intelligence is a third category identified by Gardner. The composition and/or performance of works of music are evidence of this domain. A fourth area involves exceptional skill in the bodily-kinesthetic domains, such as that seen by those that work with their bodies like athletes and craftsmen. Spatial intelligence compromises a fifth domain. Architects, navigators, and pilots, for example, excel here. Sixth, a naturalist intelligence is seen in biologists, ecologists, and conservationists. Interpersonal intelligence describes working effectively with others like psychologists, human-resource professionals, and advocates do. Lastly, intrapersonal intelligence is demonstrated by depth of self-understanding and using this knowledge to guide one's life choices. Existential intelligence has also been included to describe advances in the understanding of life itself.

Gardner derived these areas from extensive research and factor analysis. These domains appears to reoccur across populations. Whether his definition of intelligent behavior is accepted, or that of another, Gardner's framework provides an excellent guide for educators as they develop an array of curricular experiences to promote and maximize development in socially significant domains (Gardner, 1991, 1993b, 2004; Kornhaber, Krechevsky, & Gardner, 1990).

Lessons learned from cognitive science include accounts of how development unfolds; models for how learners receive, interpret, store, and retrieve information; representations of mental processes; accounts of how learners may differ in motivation and ability; and techniques that promote theoretical learning events. Cognitive scientists have advanced our understanding of what we think and have proposed useful systems of explaining how thinking evolves. These advances can sensitize teachers to student's needs.

Lessons Learned from Natural Science

Natural science uses empirical methods to study measurable events in everyday settings (Bijou, 1993). Behavior Analysis is the application of the natural science of behavior to the solution of problems of social significance. The subject matter of behavior analysis is behavior, which includes everything one says or does. Behaviors are measurable events. This means that any given behavior must be well defined, able to be verified by others, and the appropriate measure must be selected to capture the picture of that behavior. Some behaviors are readily observed and measured by others. These are called overt or public events. The number of words read aloud per minute, time on task, and percent of time spent in peer activities are examples of overt behaviors. Behaviors that are most easily observed by the learner himself or herself are called covert or private events. Examples of covert behaviors include planning, reasoning, problem solving, remembering, dreaming, and thinking. The number of times a student asks for assistance on a task is easily observed by another individual, but the feelings of

calm that the relaxing beach oasis of your daydreams bring about are most easily observed through other means. It is important to note that private events, and even some public events, require different kinds of measures, but they are still observable because they are natural phenomenon.

The natural science approach to teaching and learning aims to provide efficient solutions to developmental challenges to increase the learner's success (Greer, 2002). This is done by applying the best practices in teaching and learning. Natural science as applied to the development of children emphasizes the principles of learning that underlie instances of development for the individual. It also examines the varied and complex influences on development that are exerted by such factors as family, education, culture, and society.

A natural science approach to development is guided by direct observation of the learner. Careful analysis of the learner's current skills and opportunities for growth focuses on five domains: the learner's motivation, the characteristics of the learning environment, the triggers for behavior, the performance of the skill, and the outcomes of behavior. These variables are combined with learner characteristics, their past history of successes, and areas for continued growth. This information creates an inclusive picture of how best to teach the learner to maximize their success. The actual teaching strategy that is implemented will be a function of this analysis as no single strategy or group of practices is effective for all learners.

Analysis of the first variable, the learner's motivation, includes previous experiences and immediate events. Motivation changes the likelihood that the learner will engage in different subject matter, instructional methods, and social settings. A shy child with few peer alliances may fail to complete a science experiment, for example, not because of lack of interest in the activity or knowledge in the prerequisite domains, but because the teaching method required peer cooperation and they were unlikely to engage in collaborative learning projects.

The setting where learning occurs contains a variety of events that influence learning, as well. For some learners, a room full of interesting stimuli increases their excitement about the task, and for others high levels of stimulation overextend their ability to attend to the task. As such, the context that best suits the learning goal should be identified and arranged.

In a given setting, a particular event will trigger the learner to answer a question, complete an analysis, perform a skill, or other type of engagement in the curriculum. How best to provide instructional triggers so that the learner successfully participates in the learning experience is identified by the natural science approach.

Finally, feedback on the learner's performance that best contributes to their ongoing development is provided. All members of the teaching environment are engaged in providing positive outcomes for learning: the teacher(s), peers, and the student themselves. Learning is as individual as learners are unique. Thus, it is the charge of educators to provide information to learners about their

strengths and remaining learning opportunities in ways that best promote growth. This may mean using mentors, peers, everyday experience, or self-direction to enhance learning. Learners on the edge of a leap in understanding are described as "on the cusp." Behavioral cusps open doors to new triggers, responses, and contexts for learning, thus they should be identified and expanded upon (Rosales-Ruiz & Baer, 1997).

Fredrick, Deitz, Bryceland, and Hummel (2000) identified three characteristics of Behavior Analysis that make it well suited to the design of effective, developmentally appropriate educational programs. First, it is focused on the unique experience of individuals in their environments. Next, it seeks to address challenges that learners face in everyday settings by examining those settings and developing solutions. Finally, it is science-based and uses the scientific method to address issues of development and learning for the purpose of identifying patterns, relationships, and causal variables that can support learning. Focusing on functional relationships between the learner and their environment allows educators to make significant changes in appropriate domains.

Program design grounded in evidence-based practice is the goal of natural science and its application in the field of Behavior Analysis. Behavior Analysis presents a rubric for examining learning events that is readily applied to all areas of development. Lessons learned from the natural science of behavior include descriptions of events that trigger learning; descriptions of events that maintain skills; descriptions of changes in motivation; prediction of the conditions under which different behaviors will occur; influence for positive behavioral choices; and teaching methods that establish, maintain, extend, and generalize basic through higher order skills. After-school programs guided by a natural science approach have lasting and deep impact of the learners they touch.

Conclusion

Learning and the development of children are not passive events. Rather, a complex dynamic between learners and their environments shape their developmental outcomes. Important individuals, resources, discoveries, and collaborations propel the learner into new and more complex repertoires. Building a broad array of foundation skills for later learning is crucial. Growth results as physical, social, educational, and personal gains are made. It is the role of teachers to arrange conditions to maximize positive developmental trends and to provide protective barriers for potential threats to healthy development.

Teachers who know the strengths of and opportunities for growth of each for their students are more effective at designing meaningful and lasting instruction. Responsible programming is designed around the needs of learners using empirically supported best practices. It is implemented in a warm and caring

Table 2.1 Recommended practices across different areas of science

	Cognitive science			
Developmental science	Piaget	Vygotsky	Gardner	Natural science
Mentoring	Cooperation	Social interaction	Engage different modes	Build on current repertoire
Early Start and Head Start	Exploration	Apprenticeship	Expose learners to different methods	Provide well-designed experiences
Parental involvement	Interaction	Cultural values	Encourage creativity	Provide the learner with the tools for success
Refusal skills	Experimentation	Collaboration		Use models to promote imitation
	Challenge	Guided participation		Encourage and motivate
	Child-driven	Expert partners		Make learning fun
	Teacher-arranged	Individualized assistance		Probe learning at higher levels
	Teacher-guided			Limit the detrimental effects of errors
	Facilitated learning			Provide immediate feedback
	Self-discovery			Provide positive supports
				Facilitate true mastery
				Teach skills that are supported by environment, useful in many settings, and will help the learner to acquire additional skills
	CAUTIONS			
	Must have well-designed learning assessments	Must separate individual performance from group	Do not pigeonhole in best area, expose to all areas	Remain dynamic, flexible, and driven by learner's performance

Table 2.2 General focus on learning in different scientific approaches

		Cognitive science			
	Developmental science	Piaget	Vygotsky	Gardner	Natural science
Nature				X	
Nurture	X	X	X		X
Operant conditioning	X	X	X	X	X
Respondent conditioning					X
Levels of learning		X		X	X
Fluency	X		X	X	X
Intentional learning	X			X	X
Incidental learning	X	X	X		X
Trial-and-error	X	X		X	X
Errorless	X		X	X	X

environment that values flexibility and consistently grows with the child. Well-designed programs are centered on specific instructional objectives. Progress toward these objectives is constantly measured, evaluated, and modified as indicated. Best practices are shared, because what works in education is not a secret to be protected, but rather the entitlement of all learners.

After-school programs have taken on the challenges of education that have been unmet by other supports. The continued support of after-school programming is contingent on the demonstration of positive outcomes (Xu, 2002). Thus, it is in the best interest of the learner, teacher, administrator, community, and funding agent that high standards of ethics, accountability, and integrity be maintained.

Guided by typical developmental trajectories and lessons learned from the scientific study of children, after-school programs show more promise than ever before. Outcome data reflect these trends. Chapters in this volume provide excellent accounts of what works in after-school programming for young children.

In closing, specific practices for use in effective and efficient after-school programming found in Tables 2.1 and 2.2.

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Chapter 3
After-School Programs

Joseph A. Durlak, Sasha R. Berger, and Christine I. Celio

Introduction

What did you usually do after school when you were growing up? Did you go home to a waiting parent or guardian? Were you trusted to take care of yourself until an adult came home? Did you stay with a relative, baby sitter, or family friend? Or, did you attend an after-school program, where you might have done anything from playing with your friends to receiving help with your homework? If it was the latter, you were part of a growing national trend. The number of youth in after-school programs has grown steadily over the past two decades. In a 2004 government survey of a representative sample of 35,743 youth, 50% were in some sort of after-school arrangement. Of those youth, 7% participated in after-school activities as a substitution for adult supervision, almost a fifth (19%) were involved in a center- or school-based program, 17% were in the care of a relative, 6% were in nonrelative care, and 13% relied on self-care (Kleiner, Nolin, & Chapman, 2001).

These data are important because it matters where and how youth spend their time outside of normal school hours. For example, when youth engage in activities without adult supervision (e.g., being alone, hanging out with friends), this unsupervised time increases the possibility of a variety of negative outcomes such as academic and behavioral problems, drug use, and other types of risky behavior (Weisman & Gottfredson, 2001). Conversely, evidence is mounting that young people benefit when they spend their after-school time in structured pursuits that offer opportunities for positive interactions with adults and peers, encourage them to contribute and take initiative, and contain challenging and engaging tasks that help them develop and apply new skills and personal talents (American Youth Policy Forum, 2006; Larson & Verma, 1999; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2002).

J.A. Durlak
Professor of Psychology, Loyola University Chicago, 6525 N. Sheridan Road, Chicago, IL 60626, USA
e-mail: jdurlak@luc.edu

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Out-of-School Time and After-School Programs

Out-of-school time refers to any time that does not fall into normal school hours during the typical school year. This time can include summertime programs and camps, extracurricular school-related activities, specific lessons and crafts (e.g., piano, martial arts, dance, and music lessons), involvement in after-school programs, and time spent "hanging out." Youth may engage in a combination of these activities, and there are some differences depending on the community and youth who are surveyed. For example, surveys of Chicago high school students found that although 25% spend some of their time in a structured activity (e.g., an after-school program or extracurricular activity), 70% also spent some time alone, 55% also reported hanging out with friends, and 22% supervised siblings or other youth (George, Chaskin & Guiltinan, 2006). This and other surveys, however, indicate that a sizable number of youth not currently participating do express a wish to become involved in after-school programs (Chaskin & Baker, 2006). Parents often express the wish for more after-school programs in their community, particularly in lower-income areas where options for youth are more limited.

This chapter focuses specifically on after-school programs, which we define as follows. After-school programs refer to formal programs for school-age youth (ages 5 to 18) that operate outside of normal school hours for at least part of the year, are supervised or in some way monitored by adults, and that intentionally seek to promote young people's growth and development by focusing on one or more of the following areas: academic/cognitive, personal/social, cultural, artistic, or civic development. At the very least, after-school programs provide a safe, supportive alternative to a youth being on his or her own. We focus here on those programs that offer much more – from academic assistance to prevention programming and the promotion of positive youth development in multiple ways.

In this chapter, we first present an overview of after-school programs as they exist today across the United States. We also describe a few programs to give the reader a sense of what happens in these programs and how they operate. Later sections summarize the research evidence on program impact and describe the features or program characteristics that have been associated with better outcomes. The final section offers a set of guidelines for conducting an effective program based on the available research evidence and the experiences of several experts in the field.

Who Participates in After-School Programs?

Surveys of demographic characteristics of participants in after-school programs have indicated that socioeconomic status and racial characteristics are related to program participation. For example, one large-scale survey indicated that

youth from higher-income families are more likely to participate in after-school programming than are lower-income families, although the gap has narrowed recently (Wimer et al., 2006). However, youth from lower-income families are more likely to participate in programs that offer academic components (e.g., tutoring or homework assistance) to help those at academic risk. Many programs specifically target minority youth, and African-American youth are often well-represented in these programs (Wimer et al., 2006) In general, however, Latino youth tend to be underrepresented in all types of programs, suggesting that more efforts should be devoted to recruiting and retaining Latino youth in after-school programs.

Weiss, Little, and Bouffard (2005) stress that getting youth in the door is only the first step. These authors summarize research showing there is a link between the level of youths' participation in after-school programming and how much they benefit. However, Weiss et al. (2005) point out that we should be thinking about the "participation equation," that is, that participation equals enrollment, regular attendance, and genuine engagement. "Being there keeps youth safe, but being engaged enables them to grow" (p. 20). Therefore, Weiss et al. (2005) stress that the impact of after-school programming should be related to multiple indicators of participation that assess not only attendance patterns over time, but also the breath and depth of youths' engagement in different activities.

Numerous ecological factors are related to program participation. These factors include personal interest and motivation, parental encouragement, peer group influences, neighborhood factors related to the breath and proximity of programs, and program features such as the program staff and range and type of activities offered.

Public Support and Funding for After-School Programs

There is strong public support for after-school programs. For example, a representative sample of national voters was polled by the Afterschool Alliance (2003) to determine prevailing attitudes surrounding the benefit and need for after-school programs. The results indicated the importance of after-school programming to the general public, with 9 of 10 voters expressing concern over unsupervised and unstructured after-school time for youth. Respondents also agreed that youth need some type of organized activity or a place for them to go to every day. In addition, those polled would like to see governmental input and commitment to after-school programs.

Currently, the federal government funds after-school programs through the 21st Century Community Learning Centers Program, which is part of the No Child Left Behind legislation. Policy advocates have noted, however, that this funding stream unnecessary limits the amount of money that local programs

can use for program evaluation, capacity building, training, and technical assistance to 3% (American Youth Policy Forum, 2007).

States differ in the amount of money that is earmarked for after-school program funding. Some states, such as Wyoming, North Dakota, and Delaware, allot less than $50,000 a year across the entire state. This is contrasted with states such as California and Texas, which each allocates more than $1,000,000 per year (National Child Care Information Center, 2005). California, in particular, has dramatically increased its allocation for after-schools; Proposition 49 has ensured that more than $550 million will go toward after-school programming at the conclusion of its implementation (Afterschool Alliance, 2007). Thus, it is clear that statewide policy initiatives are an important factor in the number of after-school opportunities that exist in local communities. Regardless of state-level support, funding patterns for individual programs tend to vary widely. A study by Lind, Relave, Deich, Grossman, and Gersick, (2006) acknowledged that researchers and practitioners have yet to agree on a standard and comprehensive way of estimating the full costs of after-school programs. Based on a few programs that provided cost data, Lind et al. (2006) estimated that costs per youth have ranged from $449 to $7,160. These authors suggested that future research should focus on to what extent quality programming is related to costs, and what expenditures are needed to improve existing programs.

What Does a Typical After-School Program Look Like?

Actually, there is no such thing as a "typical" after-school program apart from the general perspective that they operate during non–school hours for at least part of the school year. Current programs vary tremendously in their procedures as well as goals, which, in turn, are strongly affected by available funding and staff, and the nature and needs of the local community. For example, some programs have summertime or weekend components in addition to the regular school week. Some are open for several hours each weekday, whereas others operate for only a few hours on 1 or 2 days. Some offer a wide range of activities that can include tutoring or some other form of academic assistance, social skills training, prevention-related curricula related to drugs and violence, culturally oriented activities, field trips, and recreational pursuits. Others have a narrower focus and concentrate on only one or two of the above issues. Some also offer support and services to family members such as English classes, parenting workshops, and general support groups. Many programs are based in schools, but others operate in community-based facilities. Each of the above factors can affect the specific goals and objectives of a program.

In sum, given the diversity of different programs, a single yardstick cannot be used to measure or describe current programs. In the following section, we offer

descriptions of several different types of programs that vary in their services, goals, participants, location, size, and staffing patterns. This material is designed to give the reader a snapshot of the myriad options present within the after-school programming milieu. The common denominator among the following programs, however, is their general effectiveness. That is, the following programs are examples of successful after-school programs that have been recently reviewed (Durlak & Weissberg, 2007). These programs did not necessarily obtain positive results on every outcome they assessed but, nevertheless, were effective in achieving most of their objectives.

Some Program Examples

"Be A Star" (Pierce & Shields, 1998) builds on existing community-based after-school programs and occurs off school grounds within the local community. This program operated in St. Louis, Missouri, and included 783 youth between the ages of 5 and 12 years. The neighborhood community centers involved in the program were situated in areas with high rates of gang activity, high school drop-out, and child abuse, as well as large numbers of low-income families. The goals of the program were to improve cultural awareness, decision-making skills, and interpersonal competencies to increase resistance toward drugs and alcohol and to enhance self esteem. Games and playground activities were used to reinforce positive interactions. A typical session starts with a small group discussion on a specific topic (e.g., stress, peer pressure) followed by a game or craft that helps illustrate the topic. The program was held once a week, for 1.5 hours, throughout a single school year. On average, youth attended about 22 sessions and participated in 33.5 hours during that time (p. 178).

In another programming effort that targeted high-risk youth, Neufeld, Smith, Estes, and Hill, (1995) evaluated a program aimed at youth who were at risk for substance abuse in Santa Barbara, California. 175 high-risk youth from the fifth and sixth grades of 4 schools participated in the program. The youth in the high-risk category were predominately Latino and were nominated by their teachers based on several factors, such as low socioeconomic status, working below grade level, disinterest in school, behavioral problems, and peer difficulties. The program occurred immediately after school on site for 2 hours daily and involved tutoring, an activity program for the youth, and a parent education program. The primary goal of the program was to improve the academic achievement of the students prior to their establishing a pattern of academic failure and withdrawal. The program also focused on the development of prosocial skills, and emphasized for students the importance of successfully negotiating their school, home, and community environments and contributing in a positive fashion to each.

Sometimes, programs are developed at the specific requests of local parents to address a need. The program described by Phillips is a good example. Phillips (1999) reviewed a program aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of a community-based intervention to reduce stress for 180 economically disadvantaged African-American youth (mean age 11.3 years) who had siblings with a developmental disability. Parents had asked for a program that would focus on the issues involved in having a sibling with a developmental disability, and offered input into the components of this program. This was accomplished through discussion and exercises that addressed the youth's feelings and knowledge about disability and stress. In addition, homework assistance and recreational activities were offered. The program met daily from 3 to 5:30 p.m. for 15 weeks and was staffed by six team leaders and seven volunteers. The intent of the program was to create a supportive and rewarding environment for youth, where they were able to interact positively with peers and adults in their community.

Another effort helped along by community members and parent participation was Project EMERGE (Monsaas et al., 1994), an early-morning program designed to increase the learning time and social skills of at-risk students in Crisp Country, Georgia. Program goals were to improve achievement and attendance and to reduce disciplinary referrals by developing social skills, improving attitudes toward school, and enhancing self-esteem. Project EMERGE provided basic skills tutoring and enrichment activities, development of critical thinking skills, conflict-resolution and violence-prevention strategies, and counseling support for students. This program was conducted for students in grades 3, 4, and 5. The project staff was comprised of school-day teachers who volunteered their time to teach before the school day began.

Some after-school programs focus on assisting youth to reach their personal educational and career goals. For example, Maxfield, Schirm, and Rodriguez-Planas (2003) evaluated the Quantum Opportunity Program (QOP), which helped approximately 480 at-risk high school–aged youth graduate from high school and enroll in postsecondary education or training. They followed a single cohort of youth in 5 different sites across the country from ninth grade until the end of high school, 1995–2000. The types of activities presented in the program were supplemental academic education, developmental acti-vities, and community service. There was also a mentoring component and life skills training to promote effective decision-making skills. This program operated year round for 5 years.

In addition, Citizens Schools (Espino, Fabiano, & Pearson, 2004) is a nonprofit organization founded in 1995, which offers after-school and summer services to youth ages 9–14 years, with the long-term goal of improving the quality of their life trajectory. Citizen Schools provides participants with authentic, hands-on learning experiences, supportive relationships with adults, and positive youth development opportunities. This program has 12 Boston, MA campuse. Activities differ by campus, but the core model consists of

apprenticeships, writing and data projects, explorations, team-building activities, and homework time. Citizen Schools offered programming on 81 days during the 2002–2003 school year, for an average of 3.5–4 hours per day.

Finally, TASC (The After school Corporation, 2006) is an example of a large-scale program created based on a review of "best practices" literature that focuses on enhancing the academic achievement of its participants. Implemented in areas in and around New York state, programs are open every school day from 3:00 to 6:00 p.m. Although housed in public schools, these programs are operated by staff of local community-based organizations that provide homework help and enrichment activities in areas including literacy, science, math, computer skills, arts, sports, community service, and field trips. Attention is also paid to health and social development, and includes a drug prevention. Component Nutrition is an important part of the program, and students are given nutritious food and time to eat and socialize with adults and peers. Each TASC program has a full-time, year-round program coordinator and a diverse group of staff, where the student–staff ratio is usually around 10 to 1. Parents and families are an important element of TASC programs, and their participation is actively encouraged.

Program evaluations have found many positive effects of TASC. Children in pre-K to eighth grade who participated in TASC programs for at least 2 years and on a regular basis have improved their math scores substantially compared with nonparticipants, and school attendance also increased, especially for students in grades 5–8. High school students were also positively impacted by TASC; these students increased their school attendance and earned more high school credits than did nonparticipants. Principals and parents have expressed strong support for TASC programs (The After School Corporation, 2006).

Are After-School Programs Effective?

The Academic and Social Benefits of After-School Programs

What is known about the impact of after-school programs? Most reviews have concentrated on their academic benefits, and the results have been mixed (Kane, 2003; Scott-Little, Hamann, & Jurs, 2002; Vandell et al., 2004; Zief, Lauver & Maynard, 2004).

However, two extensive reviews offer more encouraging news about whether programs can improve the academic performance of students who are struggling in school. For example, Cooper, Charlton, Valentine, and Muhlenbruck (2000) reported that 54 summer school programs targeting youth with academic problems yielded significant positive effects. These authors reported that youths' reading and math scores improved significantly, that effects occurred for students at all grade levels (elementary, middle, and high school), and that

underachieving students improved the most from summer-school programs. In fact, Cooper et al. (2000) noted that gains from short-term summer programs were comparable with results achieved by educational programs with similar goals that were conducted over the course of an entire regular school year!

Another review of 35 programs that focused on students at academic risk because of such factors as poor grades or low levels of academic achievement reached similar conclusions (Lauer et al., 2006). Participation in after-school programs was associated with significant gains in both reading and math scores, and youth at all grade levels benefited.

Whereas the previous reviews concentrated on the academic benefits of after-school programs, a review conducted by one of the current authors (Durlak & Weissberg, 2007) evaluated the outcomes from programs that sought to improve youths' personal and social skills. Many programs do include such goals in their overall mission, and these skills may include matters related to interpersonal problem-solving, leadership, assertiveness, and appropriate control of behaviors and emotions. One important rationale guiding skills training programs is that more effective skills should help youth in their daily interactions with peers and adults in school, at home, and in their local neighborhoods. Durlak and Weissberg (2007) divided the outcomes obtained from 66 programs into eight different categories. There were two outcome categories that evaluated feelings and attitudes (self-esteem and bonding to school); three categories that assessed behaviors (positive social behaviors such as social skills, problem behaviors such as conduct and delinquency, and drug use), and three outcome categories related to school performance (achievement test scores, grades, and school attendance).

Programs yielded significant positive effects for seven of these eight categories (for all but school attendance), and students at all grade levels benefited (elementary, junior high, and high school). These findings indicate that after-school programs can produce multiple benefits across a range of outcomes that are important to youth development.

In sum, there is evidence that after-school programs can provide academic benefits for youth who are most in need of help, and that programs that focus on personal and social skills can produce multiple benefits that include increased self-esteem and self-confidence, better social behavior, and improved school performance. Current research evidence does not mean that every program has been effective but does suggest that programs *can* be successful and sometimes result in multiple positive benefits for participants.

The positive evaluations that have appeared suggest that after-school programs can be a worthwhile social investment. For example, the Afterschool Alliance (2005) noted the potential cost–benefit effectiveness of after-school programs when they positively impact participants' school performance or reduce behavioral problems, as some programs have been able to do. The Carrera program (Philiber, Kaye, & Herrling, 2001; Philiber, Kaye, Herrling, & West, 2002) has been able to significantly reduce pregnancy rates for teens,

and Isaacs (2007) has indicated that programs that are successful at preventing adolescent pregnancy are one of the most cost-effective uses of public monies. Finally, Durlak and Weissberg (2007) reported that successful after-school programs (i.e., the SAFE programs, see below) produced results on many outcomes that are comparable with or better than those achieved by many other kinds of in-school and out-of-school youth interventions, a clear indication of after-school's value to society and our youth.

What Makes an After-School Program Effective?

Many authors have stressed the need for careful analysis of which programs are more effective because such analyses can help identify the factors that are associated with positive outcomes (Bodilly & Beckett, 2005; Durlak & Weissberg, 2007; Granger & Kane, 2004; Kane, 2003; Vandell et al. 2004, 2005).

Attempts to identify the factors that are associated with better outcomes have occurred in several ways. Some reviewers have begun to search for commonalities among successful programs in order to provide guidelines for future research and practice. For example, one review identified five features of successful academically oriented programs (Birmingham, Pechman, Russell, & Mielke, 2005). These features consisted of (1) a broad array of enrichment activities, (2) frequent opportunities for skill-building, (3) close interpersonal relationships between staff and youth, (4) strong and experienced program leadership and a well-trained and supervised staff, and (5) sufficient administrative, fiscal, and professional development support from the sponsoring organization.

Durlak and Weissberg (2007) described four characteristics of the skill-training components of the programs they reviewed that were associated with positive results. These characteristics produced the acronym SAFE. Effective programs were (1) sequential (connected their skill-building activities over time to enhance the step-by-step acquisition of skills), (2) active (emphasized role-playing and practicing of targeted skills over discussion and lecture), (3) focused (devoted sufficient time to skill development during the program), and (4) explicit (were specific and clear about what skills they expected the youth to learn). In fact, Durlak and Weissberg divided the programs they reviewed into two groups. In one group they placed the programs that possessed all four SAFE features. The remaining programs that did not contain all four features were put into a second category. Durlak and Weissberg (2007) found that only the SAFE program group obtained positive effects on the seven outcome categories noted earlier. As a group, the program without the four SAFE features did not obtain positive effects on *any* of the outcome categories relating to feelings and attitudes, changes in positive or negative behavior, or school

performance. (More details about this review are available in the full report www.casel.org).

The after-school field is also beginning to develop a consensus about what constitutes quality in ASPs. For example, Yohalem, Wilson-Ahlstrom, Fischer, and Shinn (2007) examined nine independent attempts to assess the quality of youth development programs. All of these efforts emphasized the daily interactions occurring among staff and youth that can be captured through behavioral observations. In other words, researchers emphasized that what makes a high-quality program is based in large part on what happens each day when staff and youth interact

Although there are some differences in emphasis and content, Yohalem et al. (2007) reported that there were six core concepts related to quality that were common across the nine different research groups. These six concepts involved (1) personal relationships, (2) the physical environment, (3) level of youth engagement, (4) social norms operating in the program, (5) skill-building opportunities, and (6) routine and structure.

In brief, a high-quality program is characterized by several features. These features consist of (a) close and supportive personal relationships among staff and youth, (b) a safe physical environment and sufficient space for different types of activities, (c) youth who are actively engaged in the program and given input into activities and scheduling, (d) an interpersonal social atmosphere that emphasizes individual attention, responsibility, and openness, (e) sufficient program time and attention devoted to building skills and having youth practice and use these skills in different ways, and (f) program routines and structure that are attuned to youth needs, abilities, and interests.

At this point, it is not known if some of these features are more important in some settings or for some participants more so than for others. Nevertheless, when groups working independently reach similar conclusions about the value of certain practices, the commonality of their findings is compelling.

From Effective Research to Effective Practice

What implications do research findings have for current practices in the after-school field? The following section will address several salient aspects in planning and implementing a successful after-school program. It is impossible to provide a standardized step-by-step guide, because programs can vary so much in their intent, scope, and specific goals, but several general guidelines can be offered. First, however, the concept of a logic model is presented and explained as a way to conceptualize the process of carefully creating, implementing, and evaluating an after-school program. Then, practical guidelines for building an effective after-school program will be offered.

The Usefulness of a Logic Model

There are many ways to structure an after-school program. Research has suggested (Harvard Family Research Project, 2006) that creating a road map before a program begins can lead to enhanced program cohesion and results. This road map, often referred to as a *logic model*, is a specific summary of a program's key elements, goals, and the methods of measuring goal attainment. In essence, a logic model is a concise, logical explanation of how a program works. In other words, what has to occur for a program to be successful in achieving its specific goals? Creating a clear and convincing road map of how a program can be successful (before the program actually begins) can also be a key factor in gaining and maintaining financial support for one's project. Components of a logic model can include desired results, motivating reasons for starting the program, program strategies and activities, and ways to document results. Three basic components of the logic model (goals, implementation, and evaluation) are discussed below. Additional, user-friendly material on logic models is available from several Web sites (http://www.gse.harvard.edu/hfrp/pubs/onlinepubs/rrb/learning.html; http://www.childtrends.org/Files/Child_Trends-2007_01_05_RB_LogicModels.pdf; and http://www.cdc.gov/eval/resources.htm).

What are your goals? What does your program hope to accomplish? This is the first question at the center of this stage of the logic model. A successful after-school program should have targets (i.e., which aspect of youths' lives does the program hope to affect, such as the prevention of drug use or the promotion of academic success?) as well as corresponding outcomes to measure the degree to which each goal was successfully attained. Targets and their outcomes can lie in many different areas, such as academic, youth development, and prevention domains.

Implementation: How will you reach your goals? This portion of the logic model lays the central foundation for reaching the goals outlined in the initial planning stage. Several questions should be asked and answered during this stage: How can the objectives best be achieved? How will we help youth reach program goals? What specific activities must be part of the program in order to reach these goals, and why? What materials and/or resources are needed? At this point, it may also be useful to create a realistic timeline for the program to make sure that there is ample time to reach desired objectives.

Evaluation: How will you know if you have been successful? A good evaluation is, in effect, an honest snapshot of program success and, based on this information, can offer suggestions for further modification and improvement of program characteristics where necessary (Harvard Family Research Project, 2006). In addition, a good evaluation can convince the multiple stakeholders involved (e.g., staff, outside funders, parents, and various citizen groups) that the program is worth continued support. A good evaluation helps to ensure that the

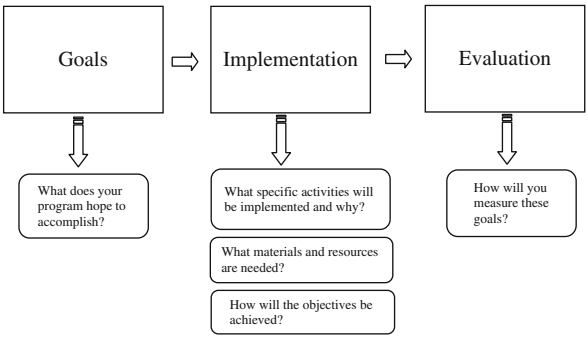

Fig. 3.1 Three important components of a logic model and the questions needing answers within each component

concerns and questions of different stakeholders are addressed and increases the likelihood that multiple groups will continue to support and collaborate with programs. Therefore, it is important to consider how this step will be accomplished within the context of the logic model, before the program has even begun!

Successful evaluations can be accomplished in several different ways, depending on the needs and characteristics of individual programs. Important questions at this stage of the logic model are the following: What data do we need to measure progress toward goals? What and who would provide the most convincing information that the program is on the right track? Who should we collect information from, and how should we collect the information? The most useful evaluations often use multiple methods and multiple sources to obtain an unbiased picture. For example, a program wishing to enhance youths' school performance and their behavioral functioning might examine data from school records combined with parent, teacher, and youth questionnaires and interviews. It is also important to have a control group and to obtain data at the beginning and end of program participation from both controls and program youth. Useful information can also be obtained from nonexperimental evaluations, such as case studies and participatory research accounts (Little, 2002). An illustration of the three major components of the logic model and some of the important questions to answer for each component is contained in Fig. 3.1.

Guidelines for Running an Effective After-School Program

Clearly, there is no "magic potion" to create the ideal after-school program. There are many different types of programs and just as many ways to implement them. However, as we have seen, there are certain characteristics that effective programs share. Table 3.1 summarizes the lessons learned to date about what factors seem to lead to better outcomes in after-school programs. Because we are not yet sure which lessons might be most important and how many need to be followed for the best results, they are not listed in Table 3.1 in any implied

Table 3.1 Ten guidelines for running an effective after-school program

What	How
Involve parents in program planning and activities	Get the word out! Make sure parents know that their input and participation is always welcome. Provide frequent opportunities to get involved.
Assess the needs of program participants	Make sure your materials reflect the ability level of your participants so as to be challenging but not overwhelming.
What resources will be needed?	Make sure that resources are available to achieve your program goals.
Provide adequate staff training and supervision	Make sure staff is trained to conduct effectively the activities such as tutoring or skill building that will help youth reach program goals. Provide ongoing supervision and feedback.
Establish strong, effective leadership	The program director should provide adequate structure while providing support and boosting morale.
Create a balance between structure and choice for participating youth	Provide some structure while also encouraging youth leadership and initiative.
Offer a variety of enrichment activities	Add program components that expand on program goals in different ways.
Effective skill-building is SAFE	Ask youth to learn new behaviors sequentially, employ active forms of learning, devote sufficient time and attention to skill acquisition, and be explicit in what you want them to learn.
Build close interpersonal relationships between staff and youth	Hire and train staff with good listening and communication skills.
Monitor progress toward program goals and adjust accordingly	Get frequent feedback from youth, staff, and stakeholders. Adjust program structure to reflect this information.

order of importance. Rather, the guidelines follow a loose chronological order of when issues might be considered when planning, implementing, and evaluating a program.

Involve Parents in Program Planning and Activities

Parents can be a strong influence on whether or not their children will attend a program, so securing their input about needs and preferences is important. After-school programs are not always able to achieve steady and high rates of participation in program activities, and one way to encourage better attendance is to offer a program that effectively meets the needs of the local community. Our recommendation about balancing structure with choice (see below for discussion) is a way for youth to feel more involved and recognized for their contribution, which, as a result, should also encourage better attendance.

Assess the Needs of Program Participants

Why? Young people learn best when they are effectively challenged by the material. Presenting material at too high a level will discourage youth because they will be unable to enjoy much success. If the material is too easy, however, there will not be enough of a challenge, and youth will lose interest. Assessment is needed for all the goals the program has established. The same youth may be at one level of proficiency in one academic area (math) but not in another (reading) or may need more training in social skills or the arts than in academics.

Secure Adequate Resources to Meet Your Goals

Why? Different types of resources are required depending on the circumstances and include physical facilities and space, money, time, supplies, and support from the local community and families whose youth are attending. It may be necessary to scale back some program goals if available resources cannot be attained. Some initiatives will require fundraising and grant writing before they are begun.

Do Not Underestimate the Importance of Adequate Staff Training and Supervision

Why? Providing a safe haven for youth is important, but good after-school programs offer much more than that. They are places for youth to learn new skills and develop their talents. Staff will need to be trained and well supervised as they help youth establish new behaviors. Moreover, ongoing supervision is just as essential as initial staff training because different interpersonal and technical problems will inevitably appear in the complicated interpersonal world of after-school.

Establish Strong, Effective Leadership

Why? A good leader knows how to motivate their staff, develop a consensus about program tasks and goals, delegate authority and responsibility, recognize the talents of their staff, maintain high morale, and deal with the inevitable stress that is involved in running a youth program. Effective leaders are a central component of a program's success.

Create a Balance Between Structure and Freedom Across Program Activities and Scheduling

Why? Although structure and routine is often helpful for younger youth because it can build a sense of security and safety, eventually youth become most involved if they feel their voices are being heard and they have some choices. Therefore, find frequent ways to encourage youth initiative and leadership. Give youth some input and choice into activities and their scheduling. Recognize personal strengths. In larger programs, youth who are already skilled in some tasks can be used as group coleaders, mentors, or tutors for others. Create leadership positions in the program through youth councils and committees so that youth increasingly come to "own" the program.

Attendance and motivation for some activities, such as academic tutoring and homework assistance, may not be high initially, especially for those who are struggling academically. Youth can become motivated and more involved by offering them choices about how some activities are conducted and when they are offered, by recognizing progress toward goals with wall charts and graphs that are displayed for all to see, and by reinforcing youth frequently for their effort and their behaviors both during sessions and immediately after via more "fun" activities.

Offer a Variety of Enrichment Activities

Why? It is fine to stress one activity if the program only has one central goal, but data indicate that youth can profit in multiple ways from well-run programs. Variety not only lessens boredom, but is also more likely more likely to improve multiple skills.

Effective Skill-Building Is SAFE

Research has suggested that effective skill-building has several common features (Durlak & Weissberg, 2007). That is, opportunities for skill-building should be sequential, require active participation by the youth, be a main focus of the program, and be explicit in terms of what youth are expected to learn (i.e., follow the acronym, SAFE).

New skills cannot be acquired immediately. It takes time and effort to develop new behaviors, and often more complicated skills must be broken down into smaller steps and sequentially mastered. Therefore, a coordinated sequence of activities is required to link the learning steps and provide youth with opportunities to connect these steps. Usually, this occurs through lesson plans or program manuals, particularly if programs use or adapt established

curricula, but programs can integrate skills training in novel ways by linking the training to youths' real-life experiences and many practical tasks.

The time allotted for different activities is one indication of the value placed on such activities. Sufficient time and attention must be devoted to any task for learning to occur. Therefore, programs should designate special time in their regular program schedule that is primarily for skill development.

Active forms of learning require youth to act on the material. That is, after youth receive some basic instruction, they should then have the opportunity to practice new behaviors and receive support and feedback on their performance. This is accomplished through role-playing and other types of behavioral rehearsal strategies, and the cycle of practice and feedback should continue until mastery is achieved. These hands-on forms of learning are much preferred over exclusively didactic instruction, or general group discussion, which do not usually produce behavioral change. Finally, clear and specific learning objectives are preferred over general ones. Youth need to know what they are expected to learn. Therefore, programs should not focus on personal and social development in general but identify explicitly what skills in these areas youth are expected to learn (e.g., problem-solving skills, resistance skills, self-control, and so on).

Why are these things important? No one reading this chapter learned mathematics in a few short sessions. They took courses on the subject (explicit and focused), spent an entire semester or two developing mastery (sequential), and learned by doing, not by thinking or merely discussing mathematical concepts (active). Why should it be different for youth learning any new behaviors? Not all program activities need to be focused on direct skill building, but if skills are part of a program's goals, programs that follow all four of the SAFE features are more apt to be successful than are those that do not.

Strive to Build Close Interpersonal Relationship Between Staff and Youth

Why? Youth learn best when they receive consistent encouragement and support from concerned adults. Staff who possess good listening and communication skills can offer the warmth and respect that helps young people thrive. Make sure that your program is staffed by caring individuals who can support the youth in achieving the goals of the program.

Monitor Progress Toward Program Goals Periodically, and Adjust to Improve Program Practices

Why? How can a program function well if it doesn't have good information on the impact of its practices? Regardless of how well a program appears on paper

or "seems to work," each program should be evaluated in as rigorous a manner as possible. Even the best programs might need to change to improve current practices. Moreover, youth are not all alike, and child development is not static. Things can change quickly as youth's competencies and needs change, or as new participants enter the program.

Using a logic model as described in this chapter helps a program monitor how it is doing. On the one hand, do not be afraid to discover something is not working. Would you really want to continue something, if it is not effective? On the other hand, enjoy and savor your successes. Staff will experience more job satisfaction as they realize their efforts are moving the program forward.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we touched upon some important considerations in after-school programming. It is no surprise that after-school programs are growing in popularity and funding, and research is now beginning to demonstrate that they have a potent ability to produce multiple positive changes in the lives of the youth they serve. As we have shown, after-school programs vary widely in

Table 3.2 Helpful online resources for after-school programs

Name of resource	Description	Web site
Afterschool Alliance	Suggests resources and best practices in after-school programming	www.afterschoolalliance.org
The Harvard Family Research Project	Promotes best practices by generating, publishing, and disseminating research	www.gse.harvard.edu/hfrp
The After School Corporation (TASC)	Provides grants, training and technical assistance to New York after-school programs	www.tascorp.org
The federal government	Includes information about starting and operating an after-school program as well as outlines resources from a variety of federal agencies, including a searchable database of federal funding sources	www.afterschool.gov
The National After School Association	Lists resources and pertinent articles for those planning and implementing after-school programs	www.naaweb.org
Forum For Youth Investment	Dedicated to fostering positive outcomes for our nation's youth through research, leadership, network development, consultation, and technical assistance	www.forumfyi.org

structure, activities, and goals. Although it is important to remember that no two programs are alike, there are several important guidelines that seem to be associated with more effective programs. These guidelines, discussed in the previous section of this chapter, should help in the development, implementation, and sustenance of quality after-school programs. In closing, we refer readers to Table 3.2, which lists some valuable Web-based resources that contain information on research findings, practice issues, funding and policy initiatives, or other matters related to the burgeoning after-school field.

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Chapter 4
Promoting Social and Emotional Development in Childhood and Early Adolescence

Maurice J. Elias and Jennifer S. Gordon

When the end-of-the-day school bell rings, many children across the country return to empty homes, whereas other children congregate with their peers to engage in unsupervised activities. Today, more than 7 million children in the United States are without adult supervision for some period of time after school (Weisman & Gottfredson, 2001). This knowledge has triggered a body of research on the risks and benefits of after-school activities and led to the development of after-school programming for school-age children (ages 5–11 years) and adolescents' (ages 12–18 years) (Mahoney, Harris, & Eccles, 2006).

The expansion of after-school programs has dramatically increased over the past few years, largely as a response to an increase of local, state, and federal expenditures to support organized activities. One additional factor responsible for prompting after-school programming includes the historic rise in maternal employment, which resulted in a gap between children's daily school schedule and their parents' employment hours. This reality, coupled with research indicative of the dangers for children who are unsupervised during the after-school hours, has raised red flags in many American communities and spurred them to implement organized after-school activities for children with working parents (Miller, 2003). In addition, recent literature suggests that young people benefit when they engage in structured pursuits that offer opportunities for positive interactions with adults and peers, encourage them to contribute and to take initiative, and contain challenging and rewarding tasks that help them develop and practice new skills and personal talents (as cited in Durlak & Weissberg, 2007). Collectively, these factors call for an interest in after-school programs that can provide youth with a safe, caring, and supportive adult-supervised environment, structured with activities and experiences that foster the maturation of academic, personal, social, and recreational development.

M.J. Elias
Department of Psychology, Rutgers University, 53 Avenue E, Livingston Campus, New Brunswick, NJ 08854-8040, USA
e-mail: MJERU@aol.com

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At the same time, the consensus of research carried out to date is that the most effective after-school programs are not highly structured (Halpern, 2003; Hirsch, 2005). In this chapter, we explore the role of developmental and social-emotional factors in designing optimally effective programs for youth of different ages, and conclude with examples of how the principles discussed can be used to create engaging and developmentally appropriate activities for after-school programming.

What Is Distinctive About the After-School Context as an Arena for Intervention?

What is known about the impact of after-school programs? Most relevant research has concentrated on the academic benefits of programs that offer homework help, tutoring, or other forms of academic assistance to youth (Lauer et al., 2006). Up until Durlak and Weissberg's (2006) most recent publication, no empirical review had systematically evaluated the many anecdotal reports that point to the personal and social advantage of after-school programs.

Durlak and Weissberg's (2006) meta-analysis of 73 after-school programs designed to enhance youths' personal and social skills revealed that young people who participate in after-school programs improve significantly in three major areas: feelings and attitudes, indicators of behavioral adjustment, and school performance. More specifically, after-school programs that promote personal and social skills succeed in improving youths' feelings of self-confidence and self-esteem, school bonding (positive feelings and attitudes toward school), positive social behaviors, school grades, and achievement test scores. Furthermore, these after-school programs reduced problem behaviors (i.e., aggression, noncompliance and conduct problems) and drug use. Durlak and Weissberg reported that effective after-school programs, "produced multiple benefits that pertain to youths' personal, social, and academic life" (p. 5). Gottfredson, Gerstenblith, Soulé, Womer, and Lu (2004) also suggested that participation in after-school programming reduced delinquent behavior for middle school students but not in elementary school students. This reduction was not achieved by decreasing time spent unsupervised or by increasing involvement in constructive activities but by increasing intentions not to use drugs and positive peer associations. Effects on these outcomes were strongest in programs that incorporated a high emphasis on social competency instruction in areas such as self-control, stress management, responsible decision-making, social problem-solving, and communication skills. The researchers speculate that programs may have not been successful at the elementary level because elementary school programs examined in this study tended not to emphasize social skills.

Based on recommendations from the National Research Council, Black (2004) proposes that after-school programs best complement classroom learning by *not* strictly focusing on academic achievement, but rather by emphasizing social, emotional, and physical development:

> . . . programs should provide safe places for kids to interact with friends; give kids trusting, supportive relationships that make them feel accepted and included; allow them to assume responsibility by making choices and pursuing challenges; and engage them in activities that develop their personalities and interests as well as their intellect (para 8).

What Is Social and Emotional Learning (SEL)?

The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) (2004a) defines SEL as the process of acquiring the skills to recognize and manage emotions, develop caring and concern for others, make responsible decisions, establish positive relationships, and handle challenging situations effectively. (See Table 4.1 for a listing of SEL skills) the impetus for SEL came from the publication of Daniel Goleman's best-selling book, *Emotional Intelligence* (1995). Although Goleman did not coin this term, he used it as an umbrella to include a number of interventions previously labeled as social skills, social problem-solving, social development, and social competence promotion. The term itself was introduced in the 1990s by Baron, Salovey, and Mayer and was intended to place an increased focus on the role emotion in effective social interaction, role performance, and relationship development (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2006). Previously, the emphasis was on cognitive factors; prior to that, the focus was on training behaviors (Elias & Clabby, 1992).

In CASEL's definition of SEL, one can see that the theoretical understanding of how children learn key social competencies has become more sophisticated. First, there is a recognition that social performance involves the coordination of affect, cognition, and behavior, and that these areas, as well as their coordination, develops over time. Second, skill acquisition is the ongoing outcome of a process that depends on nurturance, support, and appreciation in various environmental contexts. Third, much is now realized about the many accumulating influences on students, not all of which are in tune with the development of SEL skills. There is pressure and modeling in the mass culture for impulsive behavior, quick decision making, short-term goal setting, extreme emotions, and violent problem-solving. It is the latter recognition, combined with an increasing appreciation of the role of emotions in directing attention and influencing learning, that has given after-school programming greater salience. That is, students' skill acquisition and internalization is the balance of many competing forces of socialization and development. For many, SEL in their after-school environment may provide the tipping point

Table 4.1 Essential Competencies in Social-Emotional Learning (SEL)

SEL Competencies
Self-Awareness
– **Identifying emotions**: Identifying and labeling one's feelings
– **Recognizing strengths:** Identifying and cultivating one's strengths and positive qualities
Social Awareness
– **Perspective-taking:** Identifying and understanding the thoughts and feelings of others
– **Appreciating diversity:** Understanding that individual and group differences complement each other and make the world more interesting
Self-Management
– **Managing emotions:** Monitoring and regulating feelings so they aid rather than impede the handling of situations
– **Goal setting:** Establishing and working toward the achievement of short- and long-term pro-social goals
Responsible Decision Making
– **Analyzing situations**: Accurately perceiving situations in which a decision is to be made and assessing factors that might influence one's response
– **Assuming Personal responsibility:** Recognizing and understanding one's obligation to engage in ethical, safe, and legal behaviors
– **Respecting others:** Believing that others deserve to be treated with kindness and compassion and feeling motivated to contribute to the common good
– **Problem solving**: Generating, implementing, and evaluating positive and informed solutions to problems
Relationship Skills
– **Communication:** Using verbal and nonverbal skills to express oneself and promote positive and effective exchanges with others
– **Building relationships:** Establishing and maintaining healthy and rewarding connections with individuals and groups
– **Negotiation**: Achieving mutually satisfactory resolutions to conflict by addressing the needs of all concerned
– **Refusal:** Effectively conveying and following through with one's decision not to engage in unwanted, unsafe, unethical, or unlawful conduct

that allow them to develop skills essential for successful performance in roles at school, home, workplace, and community settings.

Research has shown that SEL is fundamental to children's social and emotional development – their health, ethical development, citizenship, academic learning, and motivation to achieve (Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004). Durlak and Weissberg's (2007) meta-analysis of 379 studies of school-based SEL preventive interventions found that they had a significant impact on social-emotional–cognitive skills, positive self-efficacy, school bonding and adherence to social norms, with effect sizes ranging from 0.22 to 0.41. Findings related to reduced negative behavior, school violence, and peer rejection were sustained through a follow-up period of at least 3 months. Perhaps most salient in the current education climate is that SEL-related programs showed significant impact on academic achievement test scores (37 studies, mean effect size = 0.39) and grades (N = 34, mean ES = 0.28).

To the extent to which students are in environments where their schools are not safe, engaging places but instead are filled with adults and youth who are at odds with one another in a climate of disrespect, they are less likely to develop the kinds of skills essential for sound social-emotional growth. But also a more realistic, sophisticated perspective shows that even within such environments, there may be sources of positive influence. Thus, for students, it is the balance of socialization forces that can be crucial in determining their outcomes. Under such circumstances, their experiences in after-school programs can be especially important in providing not only skill-building experiences but reinforcement for the disposition to build and use those skills for constructive purposes. Below are the SEL skill clusters and composite skills that CASEL (2004b) identifies as a unifying framework for social and emotional learning:

Developmental Considerations in SEL for Ages 5–13

We cannot expect a child to succeed in algebra when she or he is just learning to add and subtract, and similarly, we cannot expect a child to demonstrate empathy toward his peers when he or she has not yet learned how to identify and articulate different forms of emotion. After-school program participation is more likely to result in the desired student outcomes if the developmental stages are applied to the design of the program. "While the features of positive settings remain the same, their effective implementation varies along the development trajectory. Younger children demonstrate different cognitive and social needs than their older counterparts" (Hall, Yohalem, Tolman, & Wilson, 2003, p. 39). Comprehensive SEL after-school programs must be characterized by safe, caring, and well-managed learning environments and instruction that is sensitive to the social and emotional development of the targeted population.

Carolyn Saarni (2000) illustrates the developmental trajectories of emotion with the results of research undertaken with children and adolescents. Using Saarni's approach, we understand emotion to be highly individualized, and thus emotional competence is an active creation, as it is integrated with one's cognitive developmental functioning and one's social experience. Saarni's (2000) model (Table 4.2) presents some of the major developmental milestones in schematic form for how children learn to connect emotion and social experience meaningfully. In this chapter, we have targeted the following age periods developed by Saarni: *early elementary school* (5–7 years), *middle childhood* (7–10 years), and *pre-adolescence* (10–13 years). For each age period, Saarni identifies three broad themes (regulation/coping, expressive behavior, and relationship-building) that capture the fundamental nature of emotional development. Saarni identifies skills that constitute emotional competence in each age group.

Table 4.2 Emotional development in relation to social interaction

Age period	Regulation/coping	Expressive behavior	Relationship building
Early elementary school: 5–7 years	Self-conscious emotions (e.g., embarrassment) are targeted for regulation. Seeking support from care-givers still a prominent coping strategy, but increasing reliance on situational problem-solving is evident.	Adoption of "cool emotional front" with peers.	Increased coordination of social skills with one's own and other's emotions. Early understanding of consensually agreed upon emotion "scripts"
Middle childhood: 1–10 years	Problem-solving is a preferred coping strategy if control is at least moderate. Distancing strategies are used if control is appraised as minimal.	Accepting of norms for expressive behavior, whether genuine or dissembled. Use of expressive behavior to modulate relationship dynamics (e.g., smiling while reproaching a friend).	Awareness of multiple emotions toward the same person. Use of multiple time frames and unique personal information about another as aids in the development of close friendships.
Pre-adolescence: 10–13 years	Increasing accuracy in appraisal of realistic control in stressful circumstances. Capable of generating multiple solutions and differentiated strategies for dealing with stress.	Distinction made between genuine emotional expression with close friends and managed displays with others.	Increased social sensitivity and awareness of emotion "scripts" in conjunction with social roles.

Although individual experiences must be taken into account, each developmental milestone, classified by Saarni (2000), is marked by a set of social and instructional behaviors that we can expect children to be cognitively and emotionally ready to practice. During the *early elementary school* stage of emotional development, students can be expected to demonstrate the following behaviors with their peers:

- Be a member of a group: share, listen, take turns, cooperate, negotiate disputes, be considerate and helpful.
- Initiate interactions.
- Can resolve conflict without fighting; compromise.
- Understand justifiable self-defense.
- Be empathetic toward peers: show emotional distress when others are suffering; develop a sense of helping rather than hurting or neglecting; respect rather than belittle, and support and protect others rather than dominate; awareness of the thoughts, feelings, and experiences of others (i.e., perspective taking) (Elias et al., 1997).

When coordinating effective SEL after-school prevention programs, it is also important to consider how developmental differences have an impact on students' behavior during school-related tasks. Students in the *early elementary school* (5–7 years) stage, typically between kindergarten and second grade, are expected to pay attention to teachers (or program facilitators), understand similarities and differences (i.e., skin color, physical disabilities), use words effectively (especially words for feelings), cooperate in group tasks, respond positively to approval, express self in art, music games, or role playing, and be able to identify and articulate likes and dislikes as well as strengths and weaknesses. During this period of emotional development, students tend to derive security in repetition and routines. For this reason, consistent instructional procedures are useful when working with this age group. During their initial 3 years of elementary schooling, students are often self-confident and trusting; they believe that they are important, that their needs and wishes matter, that they can succeed; and that they can trust adults in school and school-related environments (Elias et al., 1997). This naturally predisposes them positively toward after-school experiences.

As students graduate through the *middle childhood* (7–10 years) and *preadolescent* (10–13 years) stages of emotional development, they are expected to increasingly demonstrate the following behaviors when interacting with peers:

- Listen carefully
- Conduct a reciprocal conversation
- Use tone of voice, eye contact, posture, and language appropriate to peers (and adults)

- Display skills for making friends, entering peer groups; can judge peers' feelings, thoughts, plans, actions
- Learn to include and exclude others
- Expand peer groups
- Choose friendships based on mutual trust and assistance
- Show altruistic behavior among friends
- Become assertive, self-calming, cooperative
- Learn to cope with peer pressure to conform (i.e., dress)
- Learn to set boundaries, to deal with secrets
- Deal positively with rejection

Naturally, expectations of behavior during school-related tasks rise as students advance through the late elementary and middle school grades. Students in the *middle childhood* and *pre-adolescent* periods of emotional development become increasingly independent in goal setting, following directions, and carrying out commitments to others. These students develop the capability to become good problem solvers and learn to strategically and cooperatively work in teams. Students who are transitioning from elementary to middle school grades demonstrate a strengthened resilience when they make mistakes and begin to show pride in their accomplishments. During these years, students begin to master key interpersonal skills of how to appropriately ask for help, how to calm down after being upset or losing one's temper, and how to resolve conflict peacefully (Elias et al., 1997). One implication of this developmental constellation is that after-school programs for these age groups are going to have to "sell" themselves and have some flexibility if they are to engage students who are seeking to establish their identities by becoming associated with distinctive, tangible accomplishments that they feel they own.

Best Practice Tips for Designing After-School Intervention to Build SEL

The challenge of after-school intervention to build SEL is that skill development is a coordinated, continuous, and cumulative process. To the extent to which after-school activities within and/or across programs take the form of disconnected, low-frequency activities that are not connected to one-another or to related sources of skill development, their likely impact on youth will be diminished. That said, there are many ways in which after-school program activities can be focused on skill building in an explicit way, with attention to providing contexts for these skills to be used and valued by youth in contexts outside that in which the skills are being taught.

The structure of effective skill-building activities is that they must be engaging, have a clear rationale for relevance and use to students, they must have opportunities for practice, feedback, and reflection, and there must be a

follow-up potential for times when the skills can be used and further mastered. Especially for students from disadvantaged backgrounds, these skills are essential for success in school and life, but they often do not have the practice opportunities of their more advantaged peers. Therefore, ways to create enjoyable after-school programming that builds in development of SEL skills such as a focus on relationships, building of strengths, deepening involvement, fostering ownership/creativity, being sensitive to the emotional state of participants, and focusing on goal-setting and problem-solving will be especially valuable to young people.

Developmental trajectories must be kept in mind when designing an appropriate environment for after-school SEL programming. Younger students in the *early elementary school* stage of emotional development will benefit from clear lesson procedures and rules, in which the authority is understood, fair, and deserving of respect. Younger students will also benefit from opportunities for responsibility in the classroom. The environment must offer students consistent, stimulating contact with caring adults in a location free from violence and threat (Elias et al., 1997).

Appropriate ways to structure the environment for students in the *middle childhood* and *pre-adolescent* periods of emotional development include participation in establishing effective group rules. The environment must provide students with opportunities to negotiate, to comfort peers in distress, and to help new persons feel accepted and included. Small-group activities and story-based learning are recognized as highly effective techniques when paired with activities that allot time for laughter and occasional silliness (Elias et al., 1997).

In what follows, we offer examples of such activities, derived from the framework suggested for use with the age groups noted. These examples are provided so that readers can "try on" age-appropriate activities designed from an SEL framework, see tangibly how the SEL approach translates into the design of programming, and have a model for how principles of best practice, from an SEL point of view, can be incorporated to improve the effectiveness of activities one may already be using with youth. Later in this volume, Gullotta and colleagues provide a number of similar exercises to encourage academic success and social emotional learning.

After School Activities that Promote Social and Emotional Learning

Early Elementary School Activity

Feelings Identification

Rationale: *How many of you have different feelings over a whole day, in the morning, afternoon, night time? (Allow students to raise their hands.) How do*

you know how you are feeling? (Select two to three students to share responses.) How do you know how others are feeling? Well, we are going to do something today to make it a little easier for you to figure out how others are feeling when different things happen during the day.

Before the class begins, draw a "feeling continuum" on the chalkboard. The "feeling continuum" should appear similar to the following example:

Angry Upset Sad/Calm Indifferent Bored Happy Excited

The facilitator asks the students, "How do you feel? How do you feel today?" If they respond without detail (i.e. "fine"), discuss why that happens. Ask them why people greet one another with "how are you feeling?" and answer "fine" even when they are not fine?

The facilitator asks the students to indicate how they feel right now (present feeling state) by putting initials under a feeling word on the chalkboard. Have them add any word that better describes their feelings.

Mingling Exercise

All students are expected to participate in this exercise. The facilitator distributes one pencil per student. In an open forum, students are asked to share words that describe different feelings. Every time a student states a new feeling word, the student is given one index card and is instructed to write the feeling word on the card.

Once all students have participated, the facilitator collects the index cards. The Facilitator shuffles the cards and randomly redistributes them to the students.

Have students tape the card to their shirt and stand at their seat. Direct students to start mingling (walking slowly) around the room while acting out their feeling card. Students are not allowed to touch other students during the mingle. After approximately 2 minutes, stop the mingling and ask students to take a seat.

The facilitator asks one student at a time to stand at the front of the class and act out their feeling word once again. The facilitator prompts a brief discussion with class to bring attention to the volunteer/actors' body language. For example, if a student was assigned to act out Anger, the facilitator may begin the discussion by stating, "*Notice how his fists are clenched,"* and/or *"Notice how his nose is scrunched and his eyes are squinted,"* and/or *"He doesn't appear as though he wants to talk to anybody."*

One-by-one, students will act out their feeling word before the entire class. Thank the students for participating as they return to their seat. The facilitator leads a brief processing discussion by asking the students, *"How can learning about feelings help you at home, at school, or on the playground?"*

Middle Childhood Activity

Respect and Tolerance

Rationale: *Think about a time when you joined something new, like a new class, group, or club. What feelings do you remember having? (Take a few replies.) Today, we are going to do an activity so that we can all understand what it means to join a group and how to make it easier for others when they join a new group.*

Using craft or construction paper, trace and cut out a life-size silhouette/outline of a person (to avoid gender- or race-specific figures, you might want to cut the figure from green paper; prepared in advance; note also that children respond best when the silhouette is as close to life-size as possible, so consider creative options such as using a large green trash bag that you then cut out).

Gather students in a group and introduce them to their new "classmate" (You might give the figure a name such as Greenie or Bluey to avoid any association with a real person.) Explain that new students often have difficulty fitting in because they are entering a situation where groups of students have already formed bonds of friendship. Point out that some people will automatically put up barriers to a new student, deciding quickly – without even trying to get to know him or her – that they dislike the new student.

Ask students to imagine that Greenie (for example) has just come into a classroom where bonds already have formed; the atmosphere is very unwelcoming. Invite students, one at a time, to share what people might say to Greenie to make Greenie feel unwelcome. They will have to use their imaginations, because Greenie has no specific features they can pick on. The teacher might even start the ball rolling by saying something like, "I can imagine someone saying something like, 'We don't want you here, Greenie,' or 'We don't like people who are different from us,' or 'Your hair is a mess, Greenie.'" Then ask, "What can you imagine some people saying to Greenie?" Each time a mean thing is said to Greenie, the teacher rips off (or cuts off, erases, etc.) a piece of Greenie's body and hands it to the person who made the comment.

(Tip: When ripping, rip large chunks; it will need to be obvious to students where each chunk fits into the whole when they are to piece Greenie back together.)

After everyone has had a chance to say something mean to Greenie, it's time to start taping Greenie back together. Invite each student who said something mean about Greenie to come up and use tape to reattach his or her piece of Greenie in its proper place. As each piece is reconnected, the student must apologize to Greenie for the mean thing that was said. (You might have younger students model in advance some of the words they might say when making an apology.) You can prompt this by asking, "If someone had said some of these

mean things to Greenie, what might they say to apologize and help Greenie feel less torn and more put-together?"

When the torn body is fully repaired, no matter how hard the students have tried to piece him back together, Greenie will not look the same as when students met her or him for the first time. Ask questions to lead students to the understanding that although some of the damage has been repaired, Greenie will never be exactly the same. His or her feelings were hurt, and the scars remain. Chances are those scars will never go away.

If possible, hang Greenie on a wall as a reminder of the power words have to hurt. Greenie's presence will serve as constant reinforcement of a vivid lesson in kindness.

Middle Childhood Activity

Anger Management

I would like to tell you a story about a child your age and see what you think about it.

Read the following story to the students:

> There was a child named Pat who had a bad temper. Pat's father gave Pat a bag of nails and told his child that every time Pat's temper was out of control, Pat should hammer a nail in the back fence. The first day the child had driven 37 nails into the fence.
>
> Then it gradually dwindled down. Pat discovered it was easier to control temper than it was to drive those nails into the fence. Finally the day came when Pat temper was controlled. Pat's father saw what was happening and suggested that Pat now pull out one nail for each day that Pat's temper was controlled.
>
> The days passed and the young child was finally able to tell the father that all the nails were gone. The father took Pat by the hand and led the child to the fence. He said, "You have done well, my son, but look at the holes in the fence. The fence will never be the same. When you say things in anger, they leave a scar just like this one. You can put a knife in a man and draw it out. It won't matter how many times you say 'I'm sorry,' the wound is still there."

Rationale: In an open forum, students are encouraged to share their reactions to the story. *What do you think is the lesson of this story? What does it say about anger?* (Possible responses: anger can be controlled, but you can't ever get the situation completely back to the way it was; anger leaves a lasting mark; it is always best to control our anger.) *How do you think the story can help you when you find yourself getting angry about something?*

Tell students that in life when we work out our problems using anger, it leaves a lasting mark. The person or people that we use anger toward is forever affected. We are not perfect, but the less we use anger to resolve our conflicts, the better off we are.

Pre-adolescent Activity

Values

Rational: *How do you know what is most important to you? Whose ideas about this do you listen to the most? (Take answers to both questions.) Today, we are going to take a look at things that are most important to us and we will start by asking the meaning of this word: Values. (solicit definitions)*

The facilitator asks students to share their current knowledge of values. Define the term *values*. We recommend using the following definition, based on Dahlsgaard, Peterson, and Seligman (2005): "Values are what you believe to be the most important ways to live your life, to guide your actions when you are in difficult situations, and to act toward others."

(Be sure students are sitting far apart from one another during this exercise – to ensure privacy.) The facilitator distributes nine index cards (index cards may be cut in half to save materials) to each student and one crayon per student (values cards adapted from Stone-McCown, Jensen, Freedman, & Rideout, 1998).

Listen to the words I am about to say aloud and you are to write one word on each index card.

Friendship, Long Life, Peace, Riches, Wisdom, Popularity, Beauty,

Family, (Blank Card)

Students have the option to write an additional value on the blank value card (otherwise they may leave it blank). The group is instructed to sort the cards from the one that is the very most important to the one that is the least important (but not necessarily unimportant or bad). The card furthest to the left represents the most important value, and the card furthest to the right represents the least important value.

Once students are finished sorting the value cards, the facilitator instructs class to the open area (about a $6' \times 6'$ cleared area) in the back of the room. The facilitator places down nine cards, the card closest to the left will read *Most important value*; the card closest to the right will read *Least important value*. Students are told that in a moment they will be called to place down their value cards in the order they previously sorted on their own (the most important value to the left and least important value to the right). To maintain anonymity, the facilitator instructs students to either close their eyes or face the back of the room while each student is called to place down their sorted values on the designated area (the facilitator should make sure that the cards are lined up in columns).

After all students have placed down their sorted values cards, the facilitator addresses the following statement and questions to prompt discussion. *Notice how we prioritize our values. Did you see a pattern to the choices? Were some values consistently high and others consistently low?*

Close by saying that everyone around us knows us through the values we express in our words and actions every day. Ask them to think about whether people are getting the message about them that they want to send out. If not, offer them help, either by coming to talk with you, speaking with a member of the school support staff, talking to a relative or family friend they trust, or even talking to their closest friends who really care about them.

Optional Activity Extension

If your group has a bond of trust and a strong sense of group safety, you may want to extend the general discussion to touch students at a personal level. For example, you could ask who seems to hold the same or similar values as those represented by a given sort. You can ask how their values have changed, perhaps since starting this school, why this has happened, and whether they are happy with the direction of the changes they are seeing. Other prompts that can generate important discussions and deepen positive bonds among students are (1) what the sources of influence are on their values, or where they believe their values have come from, and (2) what do they do and how do they handle it when their values differ from those of their peer group. You can even ask for hypothetical or real examples of these discrepant situations.

Concluding Thought

Although after-school programs can be highly beneficial to children and youth, Bouffard, Little, and Weiss (2005) caution that especially for disadvantaged youth, their potential can be greater when they are complements to existing social-emotional intervention being carried out in the schools. Ultimately, the synergy of different institutions in a child's life working together provides the best chance to compensate for chronically difficult life circumstances. Thus, it will behoove anyone interested in developing after-school programs to find out what the relevant schools are doing to build children's social-emotional competencies and to attempt to coordinate with it. *"One clear lesson from a decade of research is that just as 'schools can't do it alone,' neither can out of school programs"* (Bouffard et al., 2005, p. 6).

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Chapter 5
Mentoring and Its Role in Promoting Academic and Social Competency

Preston A. Britner and Lisa Kraimer-Rickaby

Youth development programs increasingly are moving away from deficit-based models of intervention and focusing more on strength-based prevention models, such as mentoring, to foster healthy developmental outcomes for youth. Mentoring, defined briefly as a relationship in which the older person provides guidance to the younger person to facilitate socially appropriate goals, has recently experienced a surge of interest. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services has recently awarded millions of dollars to fund mentoring programs for children of incarcerated parents. The U.S. Department of Education has supported school-based mentoring in poor school districts. Researchers are beginning to ask more involved questions about the systemic, bidirectional influences of mentoring and families and to apply the appropriate research methods to the study of mentoring. Unfortunately, to date, there has been more of a focus in the field on building up the quantity of mentor–protégé "matches" than on studying the quality and effectiveness of programming, as informed by theory and research.

At best, the available research suggests that mentoring – when implemented according to best practices – can be linked to a myriad of positive effects on children (Grossman & Tierney, 1998). At worst, the research suggests that mentoring has very little impact (and even some potential for negative impact) on children (Rhodes, 2002).

In this chapter, we explain the concept of mentoring as a positive youth development strategy, including discussions of theoretical models of the mechanisms of mentoring and structural settings as contexts for mentoring. We then review the findings from mentoring research literatures (across program models) on child outcomes, the links between mentoring process and outcomes, and the outcome research within specific program models. After we speculate on why mentoring practice has outpaced mentoring research, we

P.A. Britner
Department of Human Development & Family Studies, University of Connecticut, 348 Mansfield Road, U-2058, Storrs, CT 06269-2058, USA
e-mail: preston.britner@uconn.edu

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conclude with recommendations for practitioners about key issues for program development and service delivery.

Mentoring as a Positive Youth Development Strategy

Literature on youth development programs suggests that they may work to promote competence in at-risk children by providing opportunities for training/new roles and responsibilities and/or enhancing emotional, motivational, or strategic supports (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster, 1998). According to Barton, Watkins, and Jarjoura (1997), "prevention strategies aimed at enhancing youths' development, reducing communities' specific risks, and strengthening protective factors are likely to be more successful than programs addressing the problem behaviors themselves" (p. 483).

There is some evidence to argue in favor of community-based, rather than school-based, efforts (Hirsch, 2005; Hirsch & Wong, 2005). In a sample of 125 sixth through tenth grade African-American students, for example, participants reported having more opportunities for youth development and preferring the "affective context" of after-school programs to school-day experiences; differences were more pronounced for community-based versus school-based after-school programs (Kahne et al., 2001).

Mentoring is a strong component of both stand-alone and more comprehensive after-school community-based youth development programs. Mentoring programs for children seek to minimize risk factors (e.g., low bonding to family, school, and community; early and persistent behavior problems; academic failure; alienation and rebelliousness; peer rejection; association with delinquent peers) and maximize protective factors (e.g., the involvement of supportive adults and peers; beliefs that promote school success and the rejection of crime and substance use; problem-solving skills; self-esteem; social and interpersonal skills; religious commitment; belonging to a supportive community; bonding to a social institution) (Bogenschneider, 1996; DuBois & Karcher, 2005; Rhodes, 2002).

Rhodes (2002) provided a useful definition of mentoring as ". . . a relationship between an older, more experienced adult and an unrelated, younger protégé – a relationship in which the adult provides ongoing guidance, instruction, and encouragement aimed at developing the competence and character of the protégé" (p. 3). Accepting this definition, mentoring has the capacity to help children develop social and emotional competence and life skills in ways that are compatible with preventive school-based (e.g., Elias, Gara, Schuyler, Branden-Muller, & Sayette, 1991) and after-school programs (e.g., Bloom, 2000; Elias & Gordon, 2008; Mahoney, Lord, & Carryl, 2005). We focus in this chapter on children and their adult mentors, although we should note that there are some promising models of peer or developmental mentoring (e.g., Karcher, Nakkula, & Harris, 2005) that are beyond the scope of our discussion.

Theoretical Models of the Mechanisms of Mentoring

Several models have been presented to describe the process of how mentoring might "work." Parra, DuBois, Neville, Pugh-Lilly, and Povinelli (2002) presented a structural model in which mentoring, followed by the development of a significant bond, widens the youths' social support networks, which in turn bolsters self-esteem. By encouraging trust, autonomy, and initiative, mentors enhance resilience in development. Many mentoring researchers place a strong emphasis on self-esteem as a key variable for determining resilience (DuBois, 2003).

In what she has identified as "the pathways of mentoring influence," Rhodes (2002) suggests that through mutuality, trust, and empathy, positive mentoring relationships can foster youth development in three key domains: (1) social and emotional development; (2) role modeling and identity development; and (3) cognitive development. Positive mentoring relationships can foster social and emotional development by challenging the children's views of themselves in relationships, by providing a "corrective experience" that generalizes to other relationships, by helping children regulate their emotions, and by alleviating relationship stress. Mentoring relationships can enhance identity development through positive role modeling and also enhance cognitive development through dialogue and listening (Rhodes, 2002).

Possible moderators in Rhodes' (2002) model include interpersonal history, social competencies, demographics, and ecological context. Rhodes (2002) also theorizes that improved parent, peer, and other close relationships may mediate the statistical relationship between mentoring and positive youth outcomes. With successful mentoring, we might expect to see improved relationships with parents, more supportive and less risky peer relationships, and greater connections to others in schools and communities. Mentors can create opportunities for adolescents to feel connected to their communities and help engage them in goal-setting, academics, and positive extracurricular activities (Srebnik & Elias, 1993). Feelings of school and community connectedness are then linked with reduced problem behaviors (Karcher, Davis, & Powell, 2002). In many cases, these connections will last longer and be more salient than the mentoring relationship.

The model proposed by Rhodes is the most widely cited in recent years. However, other mentoring researchers have attempted to add dimensions to our discussions of mentoring models. Larose and Tarabulsy's (2005) sociomotivational perspective portrays structure, involvement, and support for autonomy as vital engines of student motivation and academic achievement in mentoring relationships that are geared to assist academically at-risk children (Britner, Balcazar, Blechman, Blinn-Pike, & Larose, 2006; Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005). Keller's (2005) systemic model draws upon ecological and systems theories to provide a promising conceptual model that depicts the interdependent

network of relationships established between mentor, child, parent/guardian, and caseworker against the backdrop of agency policies and procedures. Ironically, few studies have brought this important "relationship" focus to the study of mentoring, especially as it exists within larger social systems.

Structural Settings: Contexts for Mentoring

Community-based mentoring: Formal mentoring relationships are developed and nurtured in structured community-based, school-based, or e-mentoring programs. Instead of relying on mentoring relationships to form naturally, programs use a systematic approach to help youth and adults develop partnerships. Formal mentoring programs use evidenced-based and standardized policies, or best practices, to match adults and children and to ensure that mentoring relationships effectively meet the needs of the population being served (Britner & Kraimer-Rickaby, 2005; Thompson & Kelly-Vance, 2001).

Formal community-based programs often target children because they come from single-parent families, are isolated due to poverty, live in unsafe neighborhoods, and have poor access to community programs and supportive adults (Grossman & Tierney, 1998), although Big Brothers Big Sisters of America and some other similar programs have more recently moved away from rigid criteria (e.g., children in single-parent families) to broader (and more vague) criteria of children ages 6–18 years who could benefit from mentoring. In community-based mentoring, the mentor and protégé usually determine the time, place, and frequency of their meetings. Mentors and youth may meet as frequently as 1 hour a week or a little as once a month. In-person meetings can take place at school or other community settings, such as a movie theater or a recreational center.

School-based mentoring: School-based mentoring typically takes place for an hour a week and is always on school grounds (Portwood & Ayers, 2005). Compared with community-based programs, school-based programs are more likely to serve children who are having academic or behavioral difficulties in school and/or who have repeated a grade (Herrera et al., 2000). In this endeavor, school-based mentors are often more structured and place greater emphasis on improving students' academic performance than do community-based programs (Folan & Britner, 2007; Portwood & Ayers, 2005). Given the differences in the models, researchers and practitioners must be cautious about generalizing from one to the other approach.

Informal mentoring: Informal mentoring occurs through teaching, coaching, friendship, and counseling (Thompson & Kelly-Vance, 2001). Most adults recall having had at least one informal mentoring relationship with a nonparental adult (e.g., teacher, coach, relative, mentor) during their childhood. For the purposes of this chapter, we will discuss informal mentoring that takes place

within the context of a broader after-school program or neighborhood youth center. In these setting, the "mentors" are not assigned, and they are not typically in one-on-one mentoring relationships; they may be a coach, facilitator, or other staff member (Bloom, 2000). Many of these drop-in community settings include a large sports or athletics component. In fact, sports participation has been presented as an after-school model for the development of social competence and life skills (e.g., Petitpas, Van Raalte, Cornelius, & Presbey, 2004).

In his descriptive and insightful account of six urban after-school centers, Hirsch (2005) writes that "mentoring of youth by after-school staff is the greatest strength and core foundation of these programs" (p. 12), which he also calls "one-stop shopping for mentoring" (p. 57). Hirsch and Wong (2005) argue that staff mentoring behaviors related to emotional support, guidance/teaching, and sponsorship/advocacy may influence outcomes for children (and staff).

Mentoring Research Findings

Studies to assess the efficacy and effectiveness of various mentoring programs to meet the needs of children have only recently begun to emerge in the literature. Many of these studies suffer methodologically from an overreliance on anecdotal, observational, and/or self-report data and a failure to conduct rigorous statistical analyses (Rhodes, 2002). In our review, we rely on the best available studies devoted to each topic. We start with a review of mentoring research findings (across program models) on child outcomes. We then explore the links between mentoring process (e.g., program quality, relationship quality, child age, and risk) and outcomes. We conclude the section with a review of outcome research within specific program models (formal, mentoring plus, and informal).

Child Outcomes

Research has suggested that mentoring programs – properly implemented – may positively affect children's academic, social, and emotional development (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005; McPartland & Nettles, 1991; Rhodes, Grossman, & Resch, 2000; Westhues, Clarke, Watton, & St. Claire-Smith, 2001). We now examine some specific mentoring studies and outcomes. Unless otherwise noted, studies reported are formal community-based, after-school mentoring programs for children and/or adolescents.

School performance: Mentoring is often promoted as a remedy for children who are academically at-risk or already failing in school (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005). Research exploring this assertion has yielded mixed results. Thompson and Kelly-Vance (2001), using a small sample of 12 boys involved in Big Brothers Big Sisters and 13 boys who were on the waiting list for the program, reported that mentored children made significantly higher gains on a standardized intelligence test than did the control group, even after controlling for ability. Slicker and Palmer (1993), however, reported no difference in grade point average between children who were mentored and those in the control group. McPartland and Nettles (1991) found that mentoring positively influenced school attendance and grades in English but not standardized test scores.

Academic self-concept: Previous research suggests that mentored students may benefit academically from the presence of a mentor by a change in their academic self-perceptions. For example, Rhodes et al. (2000) found that mentoring led to improvements in perceived academic competence for adolescents. A recent meta-analysis suggests that although the effect is small, positive self-beliefs, in fact, predict later achievement, particularly for the academic domain (Valentine, DuBois, & Cooper, 2004). Guay, Larose, and Boivin (2004) found that school-age children's academic self-concept predicted educational attainment level 10 years later. Given the promise of past research and the constant pressure on public schools to "leave no child behind," school-based mentoring and its possible link to enhanced academic outcomes should continue to be explored.

Connectedness: Closely related to the issue of a child's academic self-concept is his or her sense of connection with important adults such as parents and teachers. Britner et al. (2006) argue that mentoring may influence the very characteristics associated with low-performing students, such as negative representations of school and a lack of interest in school-based and extracurricular activities. The degree to which a child who is mentored feels connected to the teachers within the school should exert an influence on many of these characteristics. In fact, research has suggested that connection to teachers (and to parents) encourages conventional attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors (Bonny, Britto, Klostermann, Hornung, & Slap, 2000). Grossman and Tierney (1998) reported that, compared with a control group, children who were mentored reported stronger attachment relationships to their parents. Rhodes et al. (2000) noted that the direct effects of mentoring on self-worth, school value, and grades were mediated by improved scholastic competence and parental relationships.

Meta-analysis of the impact of mentoring: To date, the most comprehensive meta-analysis of the impact of mentoring was published by DuBois, Holloway, Valentine, and Cooper (2002). Five outcomes were examined: emotional/psychological, problem/high-risk behavior, social competence, academic/educational, and career/employment. Mentoring was found to have a measurable, significant effect on youth; however, the effect size was relatively small

(0.14 and 0.18 under the assumptions of fixed and random effects, respectively). In particular, it was found that career development outcomes, academic outcomes, and problem behaviors were influenced by mentoring (DuBois et al., 2002). The researchers also explored the relationship between mentoring and children's social competence or emotional well-being; no clear relationship was detected, and the authors emphasized the need for further study of these topics (DuBois et al., 2002). Moderators of effect size that emerged from the analysis include ongoing training for mentors, frequency of contact, and the encouragement of parental involvement.

Risk and Process: Influences on Mentoring Outcomes

We now examine some of the key characteristics of programs, mentoring relationships, and children that influence the effectiveness of mentoring.

Program infrastructure and quality: The DuBois et al. (2002) meta-analysis found that programs demonstrate a larger effect for mentoring when certain best practices are present. Examples of these practices, which increased relationship intensity and longevity, include more than 2 hours of intensive training for mentors, structured group activities for mentors and youth, and a system for ongoing monitoring of the mentor–protégé match (DuBois et al., 2002). Other research supports the impact of "best practices." For example, practices such as mentor screening, support, and supervision were identified as predictors of more positive outcomes for mentored children (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Herrera, 2004).

Relationship quality and duration: Research indicates that the benefits of a positive mentoring relationship may increase as the relationship progresses over time (DuBois et al., 2002; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). For example, the DuBois et al. (2002) meta-analysis of the effectiveness of 55 mentoring programs indicated a linkage between the quality and intensity of mentoring relationships and beneficial youth outcomes. Specifically, relationship characteristics such as frequency of contact, emotional closeness, and longevity were consistently associated with positive youth outcomes (DuBois et al., 2002).

One review of community-based mentoring programs concluded that children who meet with their mentor multiple times per week experienced more positive outcomes than did those who met less frequently (Jekielek, Moore, & Hair, 2002). Mentoring experts suggest that it is not only the amount of time that the youth and mentor spend together that leads to high-quality relationships. Of equal importance are the types of activities they engage in while together (Herrera et al., 2000; Sipe, 1996). Engaging in social and academic activities has been linked to key measures of positive relationship quality: closeness and emotional and instrumental supportiveness (Herrera et al., 2000). The benefits of these activities can reach beyond the mentor–protégé

dyad. In their study of the Big Brothers Big Sisters Program, Grossman and Tierney (1998) found that youths who had a high level of positive contact with their mentors also experienced better relationships with parents and peers.

Given the formation of intensive one-on-one relationships between mentors and youth, poor mentoring relationships and matches that disrupt within 3 months, or matches that meet inconsistently can have negative emotional, psychological, and cognitive consequences (Ferronato, 2002; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Sipe, 1996). For example, Grossman and Rhodes (2002) followed 1,138 youth in the Big Brothers Big Sisters program for 18 months. The study showed that of the 378 youth who had been matched with a mentor, youth whose matches terminated within the first 3 months suffered significant declines in their global self-worth and their perceived scholastic competence; conversely, relationships that lasted more than 12 months reported the greatest number of positive outcomes (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). In order to detect any benefit, Rhodes (2002) has suggested that mentors meet with their protégés for a minimum of 4 hours per month for at least 1 year.

There are some unavoidable systematic issues that may cause a match to terminate, including youth moving from placement, youth voluntarily leaving the system, and caseworker turnover. In some cases, volunteers may decide to end the match due to time management issues. Many matches disrupt because of a perceived lack of interest on the part of the youth, or mentors have a difficult time understanding the youths' ideas about the nature of the relationship (Britner & Kraimer-Rickaby, 2005; Folan & Britner, 2007).

Targeting children at risk: The DuBois et al. (2002) meta-analysis finds that children from backgrounds of moderate levels of risk (defined broadly) have the most to gain and tend to benefit the most from mentoring, especially when best practices are employed and strong relationships are formed.

However, the evidence for mentoring programs targeting delinquent or potentially delinquent teens is mixed. Some studies, like the Cambridge-Somerville youth study and the 1970s evaluations of Hawaii's Buddy System, found that the mentoring actually produced negative effects; other more recent studies across the United States have found some positive effects (Welsh & Farrington, 2003), but it is hard to tease apart the effects of mentoring versus other program components in these studies.

Shifting the focus from adolescents to children: Folan and Britner (2007), in a study of 500 children in school-based mentoring programs, found that children's self-reported connectedness to their parents and teachers and their perceived academic competence were all lower among high school students versus elementary students. Other researchers have suggested implementing mentoring programs for younger, rather than older, children because of the greater receptivity in the child (Herrera, 2004; Portwood & Ayers, 2005).

Cavell and Smith (2005) discuss issues and research regarding mentoring that is specific to children rather than adolescents. They suggest that a potential disadvantage of focusing on younger children is that the children's verbal and

cognitive capacities can limit the scope of mentoring (e.g., make communication more difficult, or not allow for explorations of identity). Advantages are that most potential mentors will find children (rather than teens) to be more approachable, receptive, and malleable, and that true primary prevention – before problem behaviors and patterns exist – will be more effective than after-the-fact mentoring.

Results within Program Delivery Models

Formal, community-based mentoring: Big Brothers Big Sisters: To date, the most influential study on the impact of one-on-one mentoring on the lives of youth was conducted by Public/Private Ventures. (On the Big Brothers Big Sisters of America site, the link labeled "Our Impact" leads to a description under the heading of "The Study.") The study followed 959 youth (487 received mentors; 472 were waiting list controls) between the ages of 10 and 14 years over a period of 18 months while the treatment youth were participating in the Big Brothers Big Sisters program (Tierney, Grossman, & Resch, 1995). Many of the youth had experienced several parental factors that placed them at risk, including parental divorce or separation or a family history of substance abuse or domestic violence (Grossman & Tierney, 1998).

After the intervention, youth in the treatment group showed significant differences relative to the waiting list control group in the domains of antisocial behavior, academic achievement, and family and peer support. Compared with youth who did not have a mentor, youth who had mentors for at least 1 year were 46% less likely to initiate drug abuse (70% less for minority youth) and 27% less likely to start using alcohol. These youth were also 32% less likely to hit someone, and they skipped, on average, 42% fewer days of school (Tierney et al., 1995). These findings support those of Klaw, Rhodes, and Fitzgerald (2002) that indicated mentors serve a compensatory role in the lives of at risk youth.

Mentoring plus: Across Ages: According to Sipe (1996), combining mentoring with other services may increase the efficacy of the mentoring relationship to promote positive outcomes for youth. Westhues et al. (2001), for example, demonstrated the effectiveness of mentoring plus a group-based empathy training component for girls; self-esteem changes were maintained beyond the time of the prevention program.

The most widely cited example of a "mentoring plus" model is Across Ages. LoSciuto, Rajala, Townsend, and Taylor (1996) investigated the effectiveness of the Across Ages program, an intergenerational and comprehensive drug prevention program that provides youth with older mentors (aged 55 and older). In addition to mentoring, Across Ages provides youth with community service activities, positive youth development (e.g., life skills development), and

parental involvement. Using a random assignment pretest–posttest design, 159 youth were divided into three groups: group C, the control group; group PS, which was composed of youth who received positive youth development, participated in community services activities, and had parent workshops; and group MPC, which was made up of youth who received mentoring in addition to positive youth development, community services activities, and participated in parent workshops.

LoSciuto et al. (1996) hypothesized that a comprehensive, multifaceted intervention would lead to greater improvements in school attendance and less frequent drug use among youth in the MPC group compared with that among youth in either the control or PS groups. Youth were followed for 1 academic year. Youth who received mentoring in combination with other services had fewer absences from school, used drugs less frequently, and had a more positive attitude toward school, the future, and elders.

In another study of the Across Ages program (Aseltine, Dupre, & Lamlein, 2000), the most dramatic changes in self-confidence also were attributable to the combination of mentoring, community service, and positive youth development curriculum. Perhaps because of the experimental research findings and the program's flexible delivery (in school- or community-based settings), Across Ages has maintained its popularity while other models have fallen by the wayside.

Informal mentoring within community after-school programs: The efficacy of natural mentoring relationships – those mentoring relationships between a youth and adult that occur without formal intervention or matching – to achieve positive child outcomes, prevent problem behaviors, and foster resilience has not been studied as often or as well as formal mentoring programs. Nonetheless, research indicates that the formation of informal, or natural, mentoring relationships may be a normative part of adolescent development (Beam, Chen, & Greenberger, 2002). For example, Beam et al. (2002) interviewed 243 adolescents about the nature of their relationships with "very important" nonparental adults. Based on the interview data, Beam et al. (2002) concluded that many adolescents form high-quality relationships with nonparental adults that are dissimilar to their relationships with peers and parents. Furthermore, only 23% of the youth indicated that a significant life event (e.g., family problems; emotional, physical, or behavioral problems; school-related problems) was occurring during the relationship with the nonparental adult.

Researchers have examined the compensatory role of natural mentors in fostering resiliency in at-risk adolescents. Zimmerman, Bingenheimer, and Notaro (2002) interviewed 770 adolescents, 414 (53.8%) of whom reported having a natural mentor. The most commonly reported type of natural mentor was an extended family member (e.g., aunt, uncle, cousin, grandparent). Consistent with the resiliency framework, the results of the study indicated that natural mentors serve both a compensatory role and as a protective factor for

youth. Youth who had a natural mentor reported having a more positive attitude toward school than did youth without a mentor. Youth with a natural mentor were less likely than those without a natural mentor to use marijuana or to exhibit problem behaviors, including delinquency. Youth with a natural mentor were also less likely to be influenced by the negative behavior of their peers. Zimmerman et al. (2002) concluded that the presence of a natural mentor relationship may not only have direct effects on reducing problem behaviors and increasing positive attitudes but may also have indirect effects by helping adolescents avoid peers who provide negative influences.

The compensatory role of natural mentors in fostering the academic achievement of at-risk adolescent mothers was examined by Klaw et al. (2002). Klaw et al. (2002) interviewed 198 African American adolescent mothers ranging in age from 11 to 19 years who were either pregnant (73.2%) or who had recently given birth to their first child (26.8%).The participants were followed for 2 years postpartum. The study addressed several issues related to the mentoring relationship, including duration, quality, characteristics and roles of the mentors, and the frequency of contact.

The researchers also compared the support provided by the mentors with that provided by the mothers of the adolescents to determine if the mentors were serving a compensatory role, filling in for less involved mothers. The study indicated that having a natural mentor outside of the home may provide compensatory support during the postpartum transition period and can have a positive effect on the academic attainment of adolescent mothers (Klaw et al., 2002). Compared with the adolescent mothers who did not identify a natural mentor, those adolescent mothers who had a natural mentor whose mentor relationship endured for more than 2 years were 3.5 times more likely to remain in school or graduate. Participants also reported that they received significantly more support from their mentors than from their mothers, that they were more satisfied with this support, and that the support from the mentors was more important to them than the support from their mothers (Klaw et al., 2002).

DuBois and Silverthorn's (2005) analyses of data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health suggest that the cultivation of natural (especially nonfamilial) mentoring relationships may be a promising strategy for prevention and health promotion. This study is impressive due to its large, nationally representative sample, the examination of relationship characteristics and multiple mentors, and the links to a variety of outcomes (controlling for earlier functioning). Adolescents' relationships with natural, nonparental adults have been shown to have a positive effect on education, health, and adjustment. Furthermore, closeness between the youth and the mentor was associated with greater self-esteem and life satisfaction and fewer depressive symptoms and reports of suicidal ideation (DuBois & Silverthorn, 2005).

After-school and mentoring programs must consider how to capitalize on – and promote – naturally occurring mentor relationships. The interested reader is directed to Hirsch's (2005) book, which describes this process in exquisite

detail, and Hirsch and Wong's (2005) summary of the few qualitative studies to date and their call for more research that explicitly links the mentoring and after-school program literatures.

Whereas research supports the compensatory role of natural mentors in the lives of children experiencing some risk factors, it is important to consider that youth who initiate and maintain these relationships may already have the skills necessary to develop and maintain a mentoring relationship (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Research on informal mentoring will have to address this issue without the benefit of the experimental design (e.g., Across Ages) or wait-list control (e.g., Big Brothers Big Sisters) comparisons that have been possible with (at least a few) formal mentoring programs.

Why Haven't We Done a Better Job Studying Mentoring?

Almost every recent chapter or article we read in preparing this chapter noted the surprise of the authors that the prevalence of mentoring programs and their acceptance as sound prevention practice had not been accompanied by much research (much less, rigorous research) to test these assumptions. How did it happen that practice got so far ahead of the research? We suspect that there are at least two answers. The first is that funding has been growing for mentoring, from both government and business sectors, but that funding has been almost exclusively for service provision – with almost no research or evaluation budget included. Additionally, funding has, in many cases, also been tied to numbers of matches made by the agency or organization. This focus on numbers has resulted in less attention on building quality mentor–protégé matches and less longitudinal study of the quality and outcomes of matches than one would hope.

The second reason, we suspect, is that there is such appeal to the concept of mentoring that everyone is certain that it makes sense. We are less concerned about evaluating mentoring because "everyone knows" that role models and the building relationships are important. People fondly remember someone who mentored them and the impact of that relationship on their academic, social, sports, or career development. In fact, every mentoring organization event always seems to have a keynote speaker making this point. Why haven't we moved beyond anecdotes from successful individuals (who are almost always talking about "naturally occurring mentors" rather than assigned mentors from a formal program)? Prevention and mentoring researchers must now take up that challenge.

Mentoring is not the panacea that many would seek, but its public appeal and demonstrated effects (though small in effect size, even in programs meeting "best practice" standards) suggest that it will continue to be seen as a viable prevention option in the upcoming years. We turn now to describe some of those important practice standards.

Mentoring Practices: Adhering to National Standards and Meeting Community- and Population-Specific Needs

All of the elements of effective practice presented by the National Mentoring Partnership (2003) should be applicable in the design, implementation, and evaluation of all after-school mentoring programs for children. However, some accommodations may be necessary to meet community- and population-specific needs. We now review some of the major elements of effective mentoring practice.

Recruitment and Screening

Although as many as a third of adults in the United States report having mentored a child over the past year according to various surveys (DuBois & Karcher, 2005), most of this so-called mentoring is informal and of variable quality and frequency. In fact, most formal after-school programs for children and adolescents are in desperate need of adult mentors (and for trained, qualified staff, for that matter). A recent book edited by Clary and Rhodes (2006) promotes strategies for mobilizing individual adults, groups of adults, and societies in order to grow community-based programs that cultivate adult–child relationships and promote positive youth development.

During recruitment, programs must provide potential mentors with honest expectations and risks/benefits of working with children. As with all human services programs, mentors must be screened for safety and appropriateness. Concerns are heightened when working with children; comprehensive background checks and screening must be a routine part of screening procedures.

Children must also be screened for appropriateness. Individuals responsible for referring youth to a program must have clear understanding of the program's goals and objectives in order to refer only appropriate youth to the mentoring program. Children should be free of serious psychological or behavioral difficulties that would more appropriately require professional assistance. Care must be taken when further risks are identified. For example, research has indicated that matches with youth who have experienced abuse and neglect are at greater risk for early disruption (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). This is not to imply that vulnerable youth should be screened out from programs. It simply means that programs that serve these children must have a solid infrastructure that fosters the development of enduring, effective mentor–protégé relationships that are built on trust to ensure that both the child and mentor achieve the most benefits from the match (Sipe, 1996).

As mentoring program staff will tell you, it is difficult to recruit mentors. Hirsch, Mickus, and Boerger (2002) suggest that "[a]ttention to potential natural mentors in the youth's social network, and among staff of youth

development organizations" (p. 302) may prove fruitful. This may be especially true for staff who have worked with children, have already been screened and trained, and are somewhat prepared for the potentially difficult early phases of the relationship.

Orientation and Training

Potential mentors who successfully pass the screening process should attend an informational orientation offered by the program coordinator. These orientation meetings should provide potential mentors with pertinent information about, but not limited to, the expected role of the mentor, cultural diversity, and confidentiality issues.

After-school program staff and mentors should be trained in social and emotional skills and supported in their efforts to develop relationships with children (Seligson & MacPhee, 2004). Prematch and postmatch training is critical for the development of positive mentoring relationships. According to one study, mentors who received more than 6 hours of orientation and prematch training spent more time with their protégés and reported having closer and more supportive relationships than did those who received less training (Herrera et al., 2000). High-quality training to promote mentor efficacy may be particularly relevant for mentors working with difficult youth (Parra et al., 2002). Program staff, mentors, and parents all routinely call for more training and information about child development, contemporary problems/issues facing youth, and child-specific background information in order to prepare themselves to help the children succeed. Training topics should include developmentally appropriate practice, identity development, life skills, anger management, attachment, crisis intervention, boundaries, and cultural awareness.

Ongoing Support and Retention

According to Rhodes (2002), an important component to developing a relationship is continuity and a level of motivation on the part of both the child and the mentor to remain responsive to the development of the relationship. Once a match has been made, policies and practices must be in place to nurture the mentoring relationship. Program coordinators or staff, as well as crisis counselors, should be accessible to mentors and protégés in order to address issues that might arise. It is not the job of the mentor to be a counselor, but it is important for them to know how and when to consult with program staff or make contact with a professional counselor as the need arises.

Frequent contact with mentors and protégés is essential, so that the potential for the youth to perceive any rejection from the mentor is minimized. Some youth (particularly those who may have experienced maltreatment and/or

foster care; Britner & Kraimer-Rickaby, 2005) may have difficulty trusting adults. They may also have little experience with behaviors that establish and maintain closeness and support. As a result, matches with these youth are more likely to disrupt within a month than are matches with youth who have not experienced abuse, trauma, or multiple risk factors (Rhodes, 2002). For youth who have experienced a significant amount of rejection, early termination may be particularly detrimental. Mentors must understand the vulnerabilities of youth if the match terminates prematurely, especially if the child perceives this as a form of rejection (Britner et al., 2006).

The development and implementation of program policies and practices should continually consider the factors that motivate individuals to volunteer – and stay active – throughout their involvement with the program. Praise, support, and periodic recognition may help keep mentors motivated and engaged in their work with their protégés (Britner & Kraimer-Rickaby, 2005).

Integration with Networks of Other Services

Mentoring for most special populations of children occurs in conjunction with other programs. In many cases, there is a need for greater integration of services in order to eliminate "support overload" or redundant or conflicting messages for the youth from multiple adult authority figures (e.g., teachers, social workers, caregivers, parents, foster parents, mentors).

Many of the "special populations" of children served by after-school programs overlap or co-occur; even more share underlying risk factors. Further, many of these special populations are receiving multiple interventions (perhaps even multiple examples of "mentoring"). Thus, we need to design more complex, systemic evaluation research that addresses these overlapping populations, risks, and interventions (Britner et al., 2006). As noted by Kuperminc et al. (2005), we must study mentoring within more comprehensive programs. For example, in the arena of juvenile justice, Blechman, Maurice, Buecker, and Helberg (2000) found skill training to be more effective than mentoring in a juvenile diversion program in terms of recidivism. Similar work must be conducted comparing the effects of mentoring alone and in conjunction with other service programs from – at least – child welfare, educational, mental health, and juvenile justice systems. Similarly, practitioners must coordinate with the other "players" in the lives of the children with whom they are working.

Termination Policy

There are some unavoidable systemic issues that may cause a match to terminate (e.g., child moves or voluntarily leaving the program). In some cases, mentors may decide to end the match due to time management issues and

scheduling conflicts. Program staff sometimes report that mentors who choose to end a match sometimes do so because of a perceived lack of interest on the part of the youth (Britner & Kraimer-Rickaby, 2005); mentors often have a difficult time understanding children's perception of – or expectations for – the relationship (Folan & Britner, 2007). In our experience, it is usually the case that the mentor underestimates his or her impact (which, again, speaks to the need for ongoing support and rewards for mentors).

Some matches will disrupt amicably; others will end abruptly. Termination/closure policies must be in place to assist the protégé and the mentor. Programs must assess reasons for disruption in order to facilitate individual and programmatic planning. It is important to have a comprehensive closure plan that includes an exit interview with mentor, child, and program staff to discuss the mentoring relationship and the mentoring program.

Program Evaluation

Evaluation is the looking glass of program development. It is the most valuable, albeit anxiety-inducing, aspect of program development, providing insight and empirical evidence of a program's successes and failures and holds coordinators accountable for their program and the youth who participate.

The efficacy of a program is measured through needs assessment, process evaluation (what the program is doing to meet the needs of youth and mentors), and outcome-based evaluation (what changed for the youth and whether participation in the program caused the change). Process and outcome evaluation must be deeply rooted in the goals and objectives of the program in order to meet the needs of the child protégés.

Resources for Mentoring Programs

MENTOR/The National Mentoring Partnership is an organization that promotes mentoring and serves as a resource for mentors and mentoring programs nationwide – and through its 25 affiliated state partnerships – to disseminate quality standards that past research has suggested predict better outcomes for mentored youth. They have produced a toolkit, "How to Build a Successful Mentoring Program Using the *Elements of Effective Practice*" (available at www.mentoring.org), which provides step-by-step guidance (in English or Spanish) from program development (funding, recruitment, staff training and development, matching of mentors to protégés) to ongoing support and supervision to program evaluation. There are countless after-school resources related to mentoring at their Web site.

The National Mentoring Center (www.nwrel.org/mentoring) also has a comprehensive guidebook for program development. The Harvard Family Research Project (www.hfrp.org) has a very helpful Out-of-School Time Learning and Development Project Database that tracks mentoring and other after-school programs and summarizes research findings. All of these Web sites are free, easily accessible, and constantly updated, making them important sources of information for after-school program providers and developers.

We conclude the chapter by offering a bulleted list of key issues for mentoring program development, implementation, and improvement.

Key Issues for Mentoring Program Development, Implementation, and Improvement

Program Statement of Purpose

- Describe who, what, where, when, why and how activities will be performed.
- Include input from originators, staff, funders, potential volunteers, and participants.
- Base on assessment of community need.
- Include a realistic, attainable, and easy-to-understand operational plan.
- Explain goals, objectives, and timelines, for all aspects of the plan.
- Identify funding and resource development plan.

Recruitment

- Provide honest expectations and risks/benefits to help mentors understand the vulnerabilities of youth for whom matches terminate early.
- Engage in year-round marketing and public relations.
- Use current mentors as recruiters.
- Involve the community and key stakeholders.
- Provide volunteer opportunities beyond mentoring.
- Conduct targeted outreach based on youths' needs.

Screening

Mentors

- Conduct thorough background checks (motor vehicles; state police; sex offender registry).
- Conduct interviews with potential mentors.

Youth
- Communicate with agencies that refer youth (schools, child welfare agencies). Referring agencies must know eligibility requirements and have clear understandin g of the programs' goals and objectives.
- Counsel out youth who have experienced severe behavioral or social difficulties (if referred). Refer these youth to appropriate organizations or therapeutic mentoring programs.
- Youth who have experienced severe physical, emotional, or sexual abuse should be counseled out of the program (if referred). Refer these youth to appropriate organizations or therapeutic mentoring programs.

Program Staff
- Employ staff who have appropriate training, education, and experience with youth.
- Support program staff to reduce attrition. Staff turnover can be detrimental; program coordinators can serve as mentors for unmatched youth.

Training

Mentors
- Provide a minimum of 4 hours of orientation and prematch training.

Children
- Provide orientation (explanation of program goals, protégé and mentor roles and responsibilities).
- Provide orientation with biological/foster family.

Program Staff
- Conduct ongoing training to ensure program staff is up to date with latest mentoring research.

Matching Policy

- A link with the program's statement of purpose.
- A commitment to consistency.
- A grounding in the program's eligibility criteria.
- A rationale for the selection of this particular matching strategy from the wide range of available models.
- Appropriate criteria for matches, including some or all of the following: gender; age; language requirements; availability; needs; interests; preferences of volunteer and participant; life experience; temperament.
- A signed statement of understanding that both parties agree to the conditions of the match and the mentoring relationship.

- Prematch social activities between mentor and child participant groups.
- Team-building activities to reduce the anxiety of the first meeting.

Match Support/Retention

Staff must be accessible to mentors and protégés. Frequent contact with mentors and protégés is essential for fostering a relationship.

- Contact mentor and protégé within first 2 weeks of match.
- Continue to have biweekly contact with mentor and protégé during the first few months.
- Offer mentor and protégé monthly informal trainings/social opportunities.
- Contact mentor and protégé more or less frequently depending on nature of relationship. In case of children with multiple risks and/or services, contact may need to be more frequent.
- Have a clear checklist of questions, including a list of potential problems, to discuss with mentors and protégés.
- Require mentors to complete a monthly activity/communication log.
- Involve the protégé's family and supports, as appropriate.
- Develop mentor support groups/e-mail/phone lists.
- Group activities with other programs.
- Provide access to resources.

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Chapter 6
Service-Learning: Learning by Doing for Others

Christine I. Celio and Joseph A. Durlak

Did you ever do volunteer work when you were growing up? Did you organize a food drive, serve food at a shelter, or clean up a trail? If so, you are not alone. Many young people do community service of one sort or another, volunteering their time and effort for many worthwhile causes. In 1999, 64% of all public schools had students participating in community service activities, and 32% of all public schools had connected these service experiences to the academic curriculum in some fashion (National Center for Education Statistics, 2006). More recently, Kielsmeier (2004) found that approximately 56,000 public K–12 schools in the United States offer some sort of service opportunities, and roughly 23,000 public schools have formal service-learning projects or programs in place. These numbers illustrate that many school children do community service and that, in many cases, this community service has become a formal part of students' learning.

Service-learning, the integration of community service with an academic curriculum, is the focus of this chapter. The next sections define service-learning (SL) in more detail, indicate its potential benefits, and then offer recommendations on how to plan and conduct such programs effectively.

What Is Service-Learning?

Although many definitions exist in the literature, in general, SL is a way to engage students in the learning process by having them provide meaningful service to others and to connect this service experience with the students' academic curriculum (Fenzel & Leary, 1997; Giles, Honnet, & Migliore, 1991). In other words, providing service is seen as an important part of the educational curriculum. It is a way for students to acquire new knowledge and

C.I. Celio
Department of Psychology, Loyola University Chicago, 6525 N. Sheridan Road, Chicago, IL 60626, USA
e-mail: ccelio@luc.edu

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skills and to learn something about themselves and the communities they serve. Jacoby (1996) suggests this broad definition of SL:

> Service-learning is a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development. Reflection and reciprocity are key components of service-learning. (p. 5)

There is no single standardized approach taken in SL. Programs vary considerably in format, procedures, requirements, and goals. As a result, what students do, what they learn, how long they serve, and who benefits varies from program to program. Therefore, the operational parameters of SL differ depending on their goals, the characteristics, and the educational level of the student participants. For example, SL can comprise an entire course offering at the college or university level, be a minor or major part of such offerings, or be part of elementary, junior high school, or high school classes and count toward a student's grade, depending on the situation. There are different types of SL projects. Some projects are conducted within the students' own schools, like conducting a food drive or recycling program, or doing campus clean-ups. Some projects are designed so that students come into direct and regular interpersonal contact with others in need who might be younger students needing tutoring or mentoring, the elderly, those afflicted with mental health issues or physical impairments, or those requiring help with food, housing, employment, or social services. Still other projects are focused on the physical environment such as community clean-up programs and ecological projects (e.g., creating community vegetable or flower gardens). Finally, some SL has focused on political activities such as voter registration drives. The amount of time devoted to SL and its overall duration varies depending on the situation and may range from of a few to a hundred hours, spanning a single day to an entire school semester or school year.

Community Service Versus Service-Learning

Community service and SL are different. What distinguishes the two is the latter's connection to an academic curriculum that provides an instructional component and context to the service. SL programs create a strong tie to an academic curriculum and reinforce the connection, coupling the hands-on learning with reflection.

The following example illustrates the differences between the two types of programs. An example of community service would be students cleaning up a local trail or stream, a task that might consume one or several days or weekends. A SL example of the same activity would differ from community service by consciously guiding student actions in order to provide various learning opportunities in relation to the task. For example, the project might begin by having

students in a science class read ecological literature that helps them *understand* the problem of littering or pollution. Then the students *identify* trash on the trail or stream as a problem worthy of attention. Further, through class discussions, the students would *decide* to act and then develop *problem-solving and organizational* methods to collect the trash or debris. The SL students would then *analyze* what they found in the stream and trail (e.g., What did you find? What things are more harmful to the environment? Where might the trash come from?). Finally, the instructor might help student summarize what they learned by writing a science report or *sharing their results with the public* perhaps by offering public testimony at a hearing or writing to the local newspapers or city officials about the problem. Most importantly, instructors would encourage students to *reflect* on what they are doing and what they are learning through different stages of the experience (Scales & Roehlkepartain, 2004).

As indicated above, reflection is key to an effective SL program. Reflection before, during, and after the SL program assists students in examining and crystallizing their beliefs, values, assumptions, and practices, and then they can construct their own meaning and significance for future actions (Moon, 1999). Furthermore, researchers have found that students who feel positively about the reflection exercises benefit more from service learning programs (Hecht & Fusco, 1996).

Research on Service-Learning

Although SL programs are growing in popularity, Billig (2000) has noted "research in this field lags behind the level of passion that educators feel for it." Most previous research on SL consists of program descriptions, anecdotal evidence, or discussions of best practices. To correct this gap in the literature, one of the authors recently completed a meta-analytic review of published and unpublished empirical outcome research on SL focusing on the benefits accruing to the student participants (Celio, 2007). Over half of the 65 studies (51%) that were located appeared in 2000 or later and involved students ranging from elementary school through postgraduate training. Forty-four (68%) of the studies had control groups, and 22% used a randomized design. Thus, this review provides an up-to-date assessment of the outcome from SL programs (Celio, 2007). Although the overall experimental rigor of many current program evaluations makes it difficult to reach definitive conclusions, results from the meta-analysis indicated that SL has a significant, positive impact on its participants in terms of personal and social development and academic achievement. In this chapter, we describe many of these findings and data from other studies that were not included in the review, which demonstrate the effect of SL on the students participating in the program. We also

discuss how the local community hosting a SL project and the schools sponsoring SL projects can also benefit.

Benefits for High School and College Students

In reviewing service and experiential education programs for high school students, Conrad and Hedin (1989) noted that personal development is one of the best documented outcomes of these programs. As cited in their overview, the benefits accruing to students participating in SL programs have been increases in self-esteem, empathy, positive attitudes toward the self, beliefs that one can make a difference in the world, increases in self-concept, personal efficacy, and future service intentions (e.g., Allen & Rushton, 1983; Berger & Milem, 2002; Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Eyler, Giles & Braxton, 1997; Giles & Eyler, 1994). Although Conrad and Hedin's review was for high school students, Celio's (2007) review indicates that both social and personal outcomes are obtained in SL programs for students of all ages, from elementary school to medical school.

The impact of SL on students' civic engagement and orientation has been promising. Involvement in SL was found to improve moral reasoning in high school students (Conrad & Hedin, 1982). In college students, Eyler et al. (1997) found that after the SL program, students reported higher levels of community efficacy and community connectedness than did non–SL students. In addition, SL programs have been shown to increase social responsibility. More specifically, the students started to feel more personally responsible for their own lives and their communities and felt a need to take personal action (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Newmann & Rutter, 1983).

SL has positively affected students' attitudes toward those in need and their concepts of social justice. Research suggests that after their service activities, college students are less likely to blame clients for their misfortune, more likely to stress a need for equal opportunity and to report more awareness of societal problems (Eyler et al., 1997). A good example of a college-level SL program is the frequently cited report by Markus, Howard, and King (1993). In a college course on "Contemporary Political Issues," students were asked about their social and political beliefs at the beginning and end of a semester. For the course, students were either randomly assigned to either participate or not participate in 20 hours of service with their choice of community service agencies, including a homeless shelter, women's crisis center, an ecology center, or a tutoring center for at-risk middle and high school students. The students who engaged in service reflected on these experiences in discussion sessions with their peers, gave oral reports, and wrote brief papers on their experiences. The SL students displayed significant increases in their ratings of the personal importance they attached to "working toward equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens," "volunteering my time helping people in need," and "finding a career

that provides the opportunity to be helpful to others or useful to society." Although not statistically significant, these students felt their participation in the SL course component strengthened their "intention to serve others in need," "intention to give to charity," "orientation toward others and away from [your]self," "belief that helping those in need is one's social responsibility," "belief that one can make a difference in the world," and "tolerance and appreciation of others."

The effect of SL on academic outcomes has been similarly positive. Being involved in a SL program has been linked to increased knowledge about the subject and higher reported learning in high school students (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Hamilton & Zeldin, 1987). In the earlier cited study, Markus et al. (1993) found that course grades were significantly higher for those in the SL condition than for those in the control group.

In summary, results from several SL programs for high school and college students suggest that SL shows promise in increasing various social competencies, promoting civic engagement, and enhancing academic achievement for those providing the service.

Benefits for Middle School Students

Although most evaluations of SL have been done with older students, data do suggest younger students also benefit. For example, Stott and Jackson (2005) examined the effects of having middle school students become peer mentors for elementary school students. Through a retrospective, qualitative survey, the authors found that students reported an increase on measures reflecting academic development, life and career development, personal and social development, and multicultural and global citizenship.

Other data suggest that SL can have an impact on academic success and social behaviors. For example, a study by Scales, Blyth, Berkas, and Kielsmeier (2000) investigated the effects of a SL program on sixth through eighth graders in three different middle schools. These students had a choice of many different service opportunities. Some students volunteered as buddies in nursing homes, worked at a center for homeless children, or helped out in preschool and kindergarten classes. Other students developed and delivered lessons on children's charities for younger students, worked on nature trails, taped oral histories of retirees for a museum, quilted lap robes and pillows for elderly people and abused children, or built furniture for an aviary and aquarium in a student center. The involvement with these service activities lasted anywhere from 2 full weeks to 2 hours per week for a semester. Over the school year, students who were engaged in the SL talked to their parents more frequently, felt like they were effective at helping people, and showed increased academic

motivation. Moreover, the SL students were more concerned with the welfare of others than were those not in the SL program.

Positive effects from SL extend beyond social behaviors and can affect a student's connection to their school and feelings about themselves. Another study with middle school students showed positive effects on social perceptions and feelings (Hecht & Fusco, 1996). Eighth graders visited service sites daily through a 10-week intervention, wrote reflection in journals, and discussed their experiences in class twice a week. At the conclusion of the program, students reported that the service experience provided them with different learning opportunities than the ones that they were usually offered by the school, that they felt like they made a contribution, and that they had an opportunity to express important, personal values. Although middle schools students have benefited from SL programs, there are many fewer studies of this age group than of college students and this lack of data can limit the generalizations made from the research.

Long-term Effects of Service-Learning on Students

SL has shown positive effects on the participants immediately after the program, but very little is known about the long-term effects. Jones and Abes (2004) followed students between 2 and 4 years after completing a SL program in which they participated in a 10-week "leadership theories" elective college course and were required to serve at least 3 hours per week at either an AIDS service organization or a neighborhood food pantry. In addition, the students wrote journal reflections. Through semistructured interviews, the authors found that the students' intrapersonal, interpersonal, and cognitive skills had positively changed. First, the participants reported that the experience caused them to reflect on their values, beliefs, and attitudes in a way that few other activities had encouraged. In addition, their motivation for doing service in the future changed from an external orientation (e.g., requirement for a class, peers were involved, good for resume) to an intrinsic motivation (e.g., consistent with their values, sense of who they were and want to become). Overall, the students reported that the SL program gave them a new understanding of themselves as economically privileged. Each of the participants described initially experiencing feelings of guilt around their economic privilege but how that feeling became transformed into a sense of responsibility to use their resources to help others.

Youniss and Yates, in their book *Community Service and Social Responsibility in Youth* (1997), examined the impact of a year-long required SL course in an urban, primarily African American, Catholic high school. Several years later, the students still reported the class was a "clear landmark" in the development of their identity and that the experience helped them develop an

empathetic outlook toward others and realize they were able to help others less fortunate than themselves.

In summary, a few relevant studies suggest that SL can have long-term positive impact on participants' identities, values, and their connections to their community. More information on long-term effects would be helpful in understanding the potentially transforming aspects of SL.

Benefits to Schools and the Local Community

Whereas evaluations of SL programs often report to have a positive impact on students, they frequently neglect to indicate how schools and communities benefit. However, Billig (2002) notes a few findings suggesting that SL programs can positively impact schools. In general, SL can lead to a more positive interpersonal climate in a school, improvement in teaching practices, and heightening of student bonding to school. For example, in her review, Billig (2002) cites Toole's (2000) in-depth study of two schools, which revealed that teachers who included SL in their curriculum were likely to use more cooperative group work, more student self-assessment, more projects that required data collection, and more access to the Internet, all of which has the potential to lead to greater student engagement in learning. In addition, Billig and Conrad (1997) found schools that used SL were likely to be characterized as having more dialogue about teaching and learning among the staff and more mutual respect among teachers and students.

In another study, Hecht and Fusco (1996) found that students in a SL program reported feeling less bored, more grown up, and more important when doing service than when they were at school. These data suggest that SL programs can increase student engagement, feelings of self-efficacy, and respect for their school. In other words, implementing SL projects can have the associated benefit of improving teaching practices, cooperation, and both teacher and student morale, thus enhancing the overall educational environment.

Benefits to the Community

The benefits to the community have also been sparsely reported, although it stands to reason that community life will be enhanced by the influx of students working at different agencies and doing various community projects. Many community-based organizations need dedicated volunteers who can contribute to an agency's mission, and many community organizations are welcoming to SL projects and appreciate students' contributions.

One study surveyed more than 400 community service placements and found that student volunteers helped community organizations reach more people

and improve the quality of their services. In addition, the authors found that agencies participating in SL projects reported feeling extremely satisfied with students and the contributions they made to the agencies' activities (Gray et al., 1999).

The immediate effects of SL on the individual could have positive effects in the long-term on the community. For example, several studies have indicated that SL increases students' future service intentions (Haines, 2002; Kim, Clasen, & Canfield, 2003; Switzer, 1999). These future intentions could be a preview of how students will remain civically engaged when they are adults. As noted in some SL programs, students' increased sensitivity and empathy toward those with problems and for community needs in general suggest that SL can increase the number of local citizens willing to support social justice initiatives aimed at helping those most in need (Markus et al., 1993).

In sum, the early enthusiasm for SL programs is now receiving some empirical support. There is now research indicating that student participants can benefit in multiple ways and that schools and communities can profit from SL programs. More empirical studies are needed, however, to understand which participants derive which benefits and under what circumstances and what specific advantages accrue to schools and community.

How to Achieve a Successful Service-Learning Program: Some Practical Advice

Current research indicates SL programs can be beneficial, so how does one create a sustained and successful SL program? In general, three steps are essential: planning, implementation, and evaluation. The following section offers suggestions to increase the likelihood of a successful SL program by paying attention to several key components in each of these steps.

Planning

For the best results, planning a SL program needs to occur well before a program begins. Four features of planning are important: finding a site, establishing the project's time frame, generating a logic model, and creating a proposal (Stephens, 1995). The following section outlines the importance of these components and the questions that should be answered for each component.

Finding a site: The philosophy of SL assumes that service supports the curriculum and the curriculum provides a context to understand the service. Being mindful about selecting the site is the first important step in creating a

personally, socially, civically, or academically beneficial program for the students and community. Some questions to consider are:

- What needs exists in the local community that can be served through a SL project?
- Are the students interested in addressing these specific community needs?
- How can the curriculum be enhanced through this service site?
- Is this site appropriate for the age and maturity of students in the class?
- Will additional supervision be necessary at the site?
- How can access to the site be gained? Does someone have a contact there?

Establishing the project's time frame: Establishing the project's time frame can assist in finding a project that is right for the circumstances. Determining the right amount time in the curriculum means the SL project can be of sufficient intensity and duration to be effective.

Some questions to consider are:

- How much time will be needed to ensure the service will be meaningful and that it can be integrated into the curriculum?
- Will the SL program be a small or large component of a course or subject area?
- Will the service last a few hours, several hours over several weeks for an entire semester, or for an entire school year?
- If the SL program will be very short, will it leave enough time for reflection and understanding of the service?
- Can multiple class periods (e.g., English, History, study hall, homeroom) be combined to provide more time for more intensive programs?

Generating a logic model: Developing and following a logic model is an excellent way to guide a project, and logic models are helpful for all three essential program steps: planning, implementation, and evaluation. Although various types of logic models exist, in general, a logic model contains clearly identified objectives and goals for a program and the activities that should occur in order to reach the stated objectives and goals. Considering program goals and objectives from the beginning makes the project more cohesive and contributes to a more effective evaluation later. A good logic model is specific. Therefore, some important questions to consider are:

- What exactly are the goals of the project in terms of improving students' skills?
- Is the project intended to promote academic/cognitive skills, personal or social skills, prosocial attitudes and values, or some combination of these?
- In each of the above-named areas, what specific skills are expected to improve? (e.g., critical thinking skills, applying theory to practice, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and so on?)

- Will the project help create a more cooperative learning atmosphere or boost students' self-esteem and self-efficacy?
- How exactly will progress be measured toward these objectives?
- When will progress be measured toward objectives?
- How exactly are the activities of the project linked to achieving goals and objectives?
- Should some activities be emphasized and used more extensively because of their importance?

Several helpful resources exist for writing and following logic models and are found in the Appendix to this chapter.

Creating a proposal: School programs often need funding, and frequently school boards, service placements, and funding agents want a written proposal. This proposal should include the site, duration, goals, objectives, and activities. In addition, other practical information should be included. Special attention should be devoted to how students will travel back and forth from the sites, whether insurance coverage is needed, and if there will be adequate supervision by service agency staff and school staff/volunteers. With regard to funding, more involved, longer-term projects might require a service program director or coordinator, as well as money for supplies (e.g., seeds and soil for a community garden, books for tutoring, etc.). Therefore, a proposed budget should also be included. Some questions to address in the proposal are:

- Where is the service going to occur? For how long? What are the objectives?
- How will arrangements for transportation to the site be handled?
- How much supervision will the students need? Are there adults or older youth who can do this?
- What materials are needed? Can you borrow/buy them?

In sum, many questions need to be answered when planning a successful program. Once the program site, duration of project, logic model, and proposal are completed, the next major phrase of the program is implementation.

Implementation

The second step in successfully running a SL program is implementing it well. Implementation refers to how a proposed program is actually conducted and is important because research clearly indicates that there can be a wide gap between what is planned and what actually occurs (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). Many factors affect the quality of implementation, and the following discussion focuses on two elements that are relevant to many different types of SL programs: training and reflection.

Training: New skills may be required of students who go into service placements. Therefore, training is an important part of implementation and should

start before students begin at the site. The teacher should discuss how students are expected to behave, how to dress, how to greet and communicate with those at the placement, and who will be in charge at the site. Students also need to be informed about the background of the agency: how it is funded, its history, mission, and organizational structure. In addition, discussions about the populations the site serves and the functions of the placement are important. For many students, this may be the first time they are in this situation, whether it is working with the elderly, people with developmental disabilities, or cleaning up a trail. Preparing the students is essential for smooth program implementation, and thought should be given to what type of training to provide, how long training should last, and who will provide the training.

Reflection: As discussed earlier, reflection is an essential aspect of the SL experience and has the potential of increasing students' learning and personal growth. Several methods of reflection have been used in effective SL programs, including journal writing, in-class discussions, small group discussions, and a combination of these methods (Celio, 2007). Depending on the age of the students, one method could be more effective than another. For example, if one is doing a service project with fourth graders, doing long journal entries might not be the most practical, but in-class discussions could work well. Regardless of method, open-ended questions to help guide the reflection can be extremely helpful. For example:

- Did anything about this experience surprise you?
- What was your most and least favorite part of the experience and why?
- What have you learned about yourself through this experience? What have you learned about the people you served?
- Who has been affected by your service?
- Which aspects of the service have been most meaningful?
- If you had to do this experience over again, what would you have done differently?
- What advice do you have for future students doing this or other projects?

In summary, both training and reflection are important components of implementing a SL program. Moreover, careful planning and thoughtful implementation lead to more effective evaluation, which is the third important step.

Evaluation

Evaluation is the last component to a successful SL program for three main reasons. First, it assists teachers, administrators, community members, and potential funders determine if the program has been effective in achieving its goals and objectives. If the effectiveness of the program can be determined, the likelihood of it continuing is higher. Second, evaluating the program helps

create a model for others to emulate. A well-evaluated program that is found to be effective is more likely to be replicated in other schools, which can affect even more community members and students. Third, a chance for feedback incorporated into the evaluation process allows students another forum to indicate what they learned and how they changed.

In the following section, we examine five issues that merit consideration when evaluating a SL program. Setting up the evaluation early, using a control group, using quantitative and qualitative measures, and choosing reliable and valid measures are discussed as ways to create a successful SL program evaluation.

Start early: Although it would be intuitive to think that program evaluation begins after the program ends, evaluation needs to start earlier. Good evaluation begins when the project is first being planned. One crucial question relevant to logic models is "how should we measure program objectives?" Good program evaluation identifies the objectives before the program begins and selects methods that are most suitable in evaluating progress toward those objectives throughout the program. For example, if the SL program intended to (1) help the community, (2) increase self-esteem in fourth grade students, and (3) enhance their mastery of the course, a way to measure all three of those objectives is necessary. Surveying the community members, using a student self-esteem questionnaire, and examining student grades, essays, or test scores could address each of these objectives. However, some information needs to be collected at the beginning of the program, as well as the end, to see if change occurs. In other words, a pre–post assessment is helpful.

Find a control group: Collecting good data before and after a program is implemented will give the program administrators, funders, and community members accurate information about program impact. However, what if many fourth graders increase in self-esteem over a semester? Or get better grades? Because one cannot be sure if it was the program that affected the students or something else, a group of similar students not doing the program (that is, a control or comparison group) should be sampled, too. For example, comparing the grades of fourth grade SL students before and after the program with the grades of another comparable fourth grade class not participating in the SL program, would be much more persuasive information showing that it was the SL experience that affected student learning.

Evaluation methods: The two general strategies of evaluating programs are through quantitative or qualitative methods. Quantitative evaluations usually consist of questionnaires and surveys that provide a specific numerical representation of what occurred. Qualitative evaluations consist of open-ended questions, interviews, and observations that are not easily quantified and that yield more general impressions and ideas of what has occurred.

Qualitative measures are less structured than are quantitative measures and often are created by those administrating the program to fit the population. Therefore, they can be valuable in detecting unique outcomes of a program that

could be overlooked by a quantitative measure. In contrast, quantitative measures that are reliable and valid are often preferred over qualitative approaches because they are seen as providing stronger scientific confirmation of program findings. Moreover, foundations and other funding agents often view quantitative measurement as important criteria when awarding grants.

In the example sited earlier, using a qualitative methodology, like open-ended interviews, could be conducted with community members to assess in what way they felt they were helped by the service. Self-esteem could be quantitatively measured by the Coopersmith Self-esteem Questionnaire (Coopersmith, 1981), a well-established measure. Finally, grades before and after the program could be examined, and students can be asked to complete open-ended questionnaires asking what they felt they learned from being in the program. In other words, quantitative and qualitative methods can be used to complement each other and help the evaluator obtain a more complete picture of program impact.

Measuring Change: Although few measures have been established for SL students overall, some do exist. These measures are aimed at older students and would need to be adapted for the middle school level. Created for college students, the *Community Service Attitude Scale* (Shiarella, McCarthy, & Tucker, 1999) could be adapted to measure attitudes about community service participation. Also *Rokeach's Survey of Values* (1973) can be used to assess whether students' preferences for basic social values have changed in a more socially responsible direction. Another measure of civic responsibility could be the *Scale of Social Responsibility Development* (Olney and Grande, 1995), which measures student development of social responsibility as they progress through phrases of personal development. A measure of cognitive and affective empathy is the *Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI)* (Davis, 1980). The instrument consists of 28 statements rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale with response options ranging from "does not describe me well" to "describes me very well." The IRI has four subscales (Perspective Taking, Empathic Concern, Fantasy, and Personal Distress) from which a total empathy score is obtained. In evaluating self-esteem, many measures exist, one example being the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1976/1981). This measure was developed through research to assess attitude toward oneself in general and in specific contexts: peers, parents, school, and personal interests. Respondents state whether a set of 50 generally favorable or unfavorable aspects of a person are "like me" or "not like me." There are two forms: a School Form (ages 8–15 years) and an Adult Form (ages 16 years and older) (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; Pervin, 1993). Several other self-esteem measures exist, including the Harter Self-perception Profile (1985) and the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (1965).

Measures examining different types of student change are ubiquitous, but unfortunately, no established measure exists to evaluate the impact on the community. However, a Likert-scale measure completed by community staff and created specifically for the project could be useful in assessing how the

project contributed to the local organization (e.g., please indicate how much you agree with the following statements: 1 = not at all, 2 = somewhat, 3 = moderately, or 4 = strongly). Staff can be asked to what extent they felt that their agency was well-served by project activities or how well the students performed in terms of forming relationships with others, completing tasks on time, furthering agency aims and mission, and so on. In addition, open-ended questions can solicit more feedback in areas not tapped by Likert questionnaires, and these questions can be asked of community staff, participating students, and perhaps agency clients. For example, staff could be asked if they would want students to work with them in the future, and why or why not.

In summary, a strong program evaluation is the important last step in creating a SL program. Paying special attention to collecting information on students and the community before and after the project and using a control group are important in determining how successfully the project achieved its goals. Using a combination of reliable and valid quantitative and qualitative measures will also provide strong support for the program.

Helpful Electronic Resources

Many organizations have Web sites that offer information and practical advice for developing and funding SL programs. Table 6.1 provides a listing of several useful Web sites and offers a brief description of their contents. Several sites offer downloadable files and links to other sites that provide additional information on specific topics. Each of the Web sites was visited on January 30, 2007, to check for available information, but the reader should be aware that Web site locations and contents can be periodically changed.

Conclusion

SL is more than just volunteering. It is intended to promote student learning by integrating community service with an educational curriculum that includes guided reflection. In addition to academic benefits, SL can foster personal and social growth in its participants that can include heightened self-esteem, civic engagement, and prosocial values. In addition, it can have positive effects on schools and the community. Ideally, as a result of effective SL project, students become more actively engaged in their education and learn not only how to be continual contributors to their communities, but also how to become responsible, mindful individuals who are able to apply skills learned in the classroom to the real world. Building a well-designed program is a challenge but well worth the effort. Through mindful planning, implementing, and evaluating of these programs, hopefully SL programs will continue to

Table 6.1 Helpful online resources for service-learning programs

Name of resource	Description	Web site
The Idealist	Contains articles, links to service-learning organizations, and examples of SL programs and curricula.	http://www.idealist.org/teachers/servicelearning.html
The Education Commission of the States	Has suggestions for developing citizenship competencies for K–12 students. Also includes a network of school administrators, SL professionals, and other supporters of SL.	http://www.ecs.org/
Learning in Deed	Offers a very useful "map" of SL resources including examples of curricula and/or sample lesson plans.	www.learningindeed.org
The National Service-learning Clearinghouse	Offers a host of resources on SL for elementary, middle, and high school students.	www.servicelearning.org
The National Youth Leadership Council	Develops model programs for schools across the United States, creates curricula and training for youth and educators, and conducts research on youth issues.	www.nylc.org
Youth Service America	Aims to promote youth volunteering and support youth service organizations all across the United States.	www.ysa.org
The State Education Agency K-12 SL Network (SEANet)	Provides useful information on what different states are doing in SL, which approaches might be most effective, and how to put proven solutions to work in the community.	http://seanetonline.org
Volunteer Match	Web site that finds places looking for volunteers near your zip code.	www.volunteermatch.org

produce multiple benefits for the students, their communities, and the schools that offer such programs.

Appendix

- Coffman, J. (1999). *Learning from logic models: An example of a family/school partnership model*. This article published on the Harvard Family Research Project Web site defines and presents steps for creating a logic model: http://www.gse.harvard.edu/hfrp/pubs/onlinepubs/rrb/learning.html.

- Hamilton, J. & Bronte-Tinkew, J. (2007). *Logic models in out-of-school time programs: What are they and why are they important?* A Web report that presents different types of logic models and demonstrates how to use them: http://www.childtrends.org/Files/Child_Trends-2007_01_05_RB_LogicModels.pdf.
- Taylor-Powell, E., Jones, L., & Henert, E. (2002). *Enhancing program performance with logic models*. The University of Wisconsin-Extension Web site offers a free online course on creating and designing logic models: http://www1.uwex.edu/ces/lmcourse/.
- Centers for Disease Control. The Centers for Disease Control offers links to creating logic models for evaluation purposes: http://www.cdc.gov/eval/resources.htm.
- United Way of America. (1996). *Measuring program outcomes: A practical approach*. Item no. 0989. This manual describes how and why program evaluation is important for human, health, family, and child service agencies. Information on this manual may be found on the United Way of America Web site: http://national.unitedway.org/outcomes/resources/mpo/.

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Chapter 7
A Blueprint for Promoting Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning: The Salmon Program

Thomas P. Gullotta, Martin Bloom, Christianne F. Gullotta, and Jennifer C. Messina

The chapters in this volume lead in a literal and figurative sense to this paper and the Salmon program for promoting social and emotional growth and academic learning in school-aged children. The Salmon program is an extension of earlier work undertaken by two of the authors of this chapter and colleagues to promote the social competency of preschool children (Chesebrough, King, Gullotta, & Bloom, 2004). This school-aged effort is an important extension of this previous effort to strengthen positive behavior. It is important because skills atrophy over time unless frequently practiced in a variety of settings. Thus, to maintain skills learned at home and at school requires practice. To learn new skills, exposure and practice is required. And to develop expertise in old and new skills, positive constructive feedback is required.

These seemingly commonsense truisms have escaped many in human services who expect positive lasting results from a relatively short exposure to a health promotion/illness prevention effort. Nowhere else is such an open-ended expectation held. For example, an individual treated for cancer is considered cured if that person is cancer free for 5 years. A flu vaccine has an effective life span of some 4 months and only against a few viruses! Our colleagues in behavioral medicine use a varying rule of 1 to 3 years to describe counseling success. It is our contention that an effective prevention effort with children should not be expected to maintain its positive results for more than 2 years. The reason for this is found in the physical, cognitive, social, and environmental changes swirling about youth from the ages of 5 to 13 years and beyond.

The rationale for this position is that the child's participation in any previous prevention/health promotion program occurred in a particular bio-psycho-social-environmental context (Engel, 1977). With time that context changes dramatically. The preoperational child is now thinking concretely and may be developing some beginning aspects of formal operations. With the pituitary

T.P. Gullotta
Child & Family Agency, 255 Hempstead St., New London, CT 06320, USA
e-mail: tpgullotta@aol.com

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gland's instruction to the gonads to release hormones, the pubescent child enters puberty and the similarities among children in height, weight, and appearance are replaced with a multitude of differences in size, shape, and looks. Socially, the influence of parents and teachers wane and the peer group begins to exert its influence. Gradually, the measures used to evaluate the child's job success (school) become more quantitative. With each passing week, the appropriate expectation is that recognition of new words and their meaning increase, spelling is less phonetic and more in accord with Mr. Webster, and numbers are much more than simply recited. The social competency skills developed in that earlier context will need to be stretched to match this rapidly ever-changing new world.

The team responsible for extending our earlier work in promoting prosocial behavior with preschool children approached this reality with the support of the Salmon Foundation, whose financial support enabled us to develop and test a series of robust processes and activities to encourage the academic skills and positive social behaviors in a group of children from first to fifth grade. This is a "universal" primary prevention/health promotion intervention (Gordon, 1983), and it is a program that is unusual in two respects.

First, it is more a thoughtful staff-driven guided process resulting in a manual of operations rather than a prepackaged product manual. This permits a greater degree of "on-site" tinkering than for most evidence-based prevention programs. Clearly understand that there are principles that must be adhered to, but the activities to achieve those principles provide the flexibility and creativity that line staff increasingly insist on having and properly so. Next, it has a strong environmental focus rather than a script- driven individual focus. To use a food image to explain that last statement, our focus is on creating a rich flavorful stew (the program) filled with ingredients (the various activities) in which a raw potato (the child) is immersed for a significant period of time. The result is that the formerly bland-tasting potato (the child) absorbs the rich flavors, healthy physical color, and alters its texture from hard and inedible ("chip on the shoulder" attitude) to something much more palatable (a good citizen).

Many of the social and emotional learning activities in this program were developed over the past 30 years at the Glastonbury Youth Services Bureau (Gullotta & Plant, 2000). These activities were adapted and others developed at the B. P. Learned Mission (hereafter, Mission), the second oldest settlement house in continuous operation in the United States. Founded by five churches in the City of New London in 1859, it continues in its mission of serving a diverse population of inner city children with a program that is academic, social, and recreational. It should be noted that New London is the third poorest city in the State of Connecticut. Of interest is that the children (ages 6–14 years) who attend the Mission are enrolled by their parents/guardians; there are no fees; and the program operates during the school year, school vacations, Saturdays during the fall and winter months, and over the summer school vacation. Most children in this program are involved for several years.

This chapter is divided into three parts called "Sessions." Session I discusses the construction of an after-school program and provides the template and numerous examples for staff to undertake this process. Session II discusses disciplinary methods and provides the template for staff to develop a fair and equitable approach for improving a child's behavior. Session III expands on the discussion of discipline to consider five core behaviors that we want to nurture within a prevention/health promotion framework. Those behaviors are kindness, the appropriate verbal expression of feelings, respect (for self and others), cooperation, and self-control.

To ground the reader in the scholarship from which the Salmon program emerges from, we urge that Chapter 1 by Bloom, Chapter 2 by Fitzgerald, and Chapter 3 by Durlak, Berger, and Celio be read prior to Session I; that Chapter 2 by Fitzgerald and Chapter 4 by Elias and Gordon be visited before Session II is reviewed; and that Chapter 1 by Bloom, Chapter 4 by Elias and Gordon, Chapter 5 by Britner and Kraimer-Rickaby, and Chapter 6 by Celio and Durlak be studied prior to Session III. Each "Session" can be reviewed and discussed with staff in approximately 2 hours. The formation of an initial program with staff using the templates and sample exercises should take approximately a day. Recognize that this initial program is not the final word. Rather, it is the start of a never-ending template-driven process to create activities rooted in theory and good research, to implement those activities, to observe the success and failure of those activities, and to revise those activities to obtain the desired outcome. The goal of the Salmon curriculum is to establish an after-school program that is enjoyable while encouraging the social, emotional, and academic growth of children in their journey toward becoming healthy, productive, participating members of American society.

Session I: Developing the Program

What do you hope to accomplish in your after-school program? How do you expect to meet the expectations derived from those hopes, and are your expectations achievable given the actual circumstances of your program? The answers to these questions drive every other decision you will make in your program. For example, an after-school program that is "latch-key" in design with a drop-in clientele and unpredictable drop-off and pick-up times should not expect to provide either the dosage or fidelity of a program with required registration and established hours of operation where a child is expected to be in attendance.

What's fidelity? Program developers use the term *fidelity* to describe the degree to which one adheres to a plan of operation. Follow the plan exactly, and you have high fidelity. Completely ignore the plan, and you have no fidelity. We'll assume that your plan of operation is a good one. Thus, high

fidelity is desirable in order that your good program will be administered as intended.

What's dosage? *Dosage* refers to the amount of services in the program a person receives. For example, to develop reading skills requires regular practice (3 times a week), of sufficient time duration (20 minutes per individual session), over a period of time (the 44-week school year) for several years.

These reading skills are additionally enhanced when parents read to their children and discuss articles appearing in daily newspapers or in weekly magazines with their children. These skills are strengthened further when after-school programs engage in the same parental activities and create additional enjoyable opportunities for the written word to be savored and devoured like a favorite chocolate or pastry. Fail to provide the right dosage and the child will not learn to read, or the reading experience will be equated to eating liver and onions – yuck!

What do theories have to offer the program developer of after-school activities? Theory offers direction. Using the imagery of a blueprint, think of theory as a set of instructions for the proper way to lay the foundation, to set the sills, and to erect the structure of higher learning. Huh? Okay, to build a structure in New England so it will not fall down after a few winters requires that the building rest upon a foundation that descends 3 feet below the surface of the ground. Thus, during fickle New England winters, the repeated freezing and thawing of the land will not heave the building off its foundation. Got it? Great! So here's how theory applies in after-school programs.

First, after-school *programs must be developmentally appropriate*. For this, we turn to Piaget who, watching his children and others, observed the way they learned. We'll not repeat Fitzgerald's discussion of his theory (see Chapter 2) except to say that programming including discipline must not be beyond the comprehension ability of the children in the program. To illustrate, we've seen well-meaning staff in programs discipline children between the ages of 5 and 7 years with the threat that if their misbehavior continued they would be prohibited from an event hours, days, even weeks later. What's problematic with this staff behavior? In Piaget's model, these children are at a preoperational state of cognitive development (see Table 7.1). As such, these misbehaving children have little conceptualization of the long-term consequences of their current behavior. Likely, their misbehavior will continue. Discipline will be administered that has little meaning at that time and even less meaning when justice (or is that injustice) is administered at a later date. The point is, treat children in an age-appropriate manner in activities, in expectations, and when disciplining.

Next, *programs should be planned, predictable, and consistent in their outcomes*. Social learning theory offers a clear methodology for achieving this objective. The articulation of the desired behavior, the intentional planning toward achieving that behavior, and the enforcement of desired behaviors are advantages found in this approach.

Table 7.1 Piaget: Levels of knowing

Level 1: Sensorimotor (from birth to about age 2):

To know is to sense, which means acting on some object to feel, taste, hear, smell, as well as see it, all of which are the origin of intelligence. Self becomes distinguished from non-self. Imitative behavior begins. Object permanence occurs (e.g., out of sight is not out of existence). Language develops near the end of this phase, and objects can stand for other things (e.g., a block represents a car).

Level 2: Preoperational (from about age 2 to about age 7):

Symbols are increasingly used. The child has access to the past by the use of words. With a still limited vocabulary, the child has to respond to complex commands from others that may result in frustration, feelings of inadequacy, and conflict with others. "Play" becomes increasingly important for working out problems and growing in self-esteem. The child moves from solo play to play increasingly with others.

As language develops, the child increasingly joins the sound world and decreases his or her egocentrism. The child develops the capacity to reason between the ages of 2 and 4.

Level 3: Concrete Operational (from about age 7 to about age 11):

The young person begins a wide range of mental operations/abstracting and generalizations, but these are directly related to visible events and objects. Eventually, the young person has to take account of new experience by *accommodating*. That is, creating new statements to take these experiences into account, so that his or her mental operations are greatly expanded.

Level 4: Formal Operational (from about age 11 to adulthood):

Although this level is not universally attained, people of this age slowly become capable of full abstract and logical reasoning over a period of several years. They can operate an act on images of past, present, or future events. This is the level of adult cognitive abilities and logical operations.[1]

Frankly, we are not enamored with emergent approaches to providing after-school programming. An emergent approach to programming is predicated on the interests of the children at that moment. At first blush, this approach appears attractive in that if the children are interested in pirates, spiders, or spacecraft, capitalizing on that excitement should result in a quality learning experience. In most cases it doesn't. Recognize the fault rests not with the underlying beliefs but with the overt reality. This reality requires significant planning to stay abreast of children's shifting interests. The funding of most after-school programs does not permit this planning time. The result more often than not is a hastily assembled mishmash of activities with little connection to the goals – thus, effectively canceling the reason why your program exists.

We believe in program themes for a week. Lesson plans for each day. And a schedule that enables staff and children to know what should be happening,

[1] Piaget's research was creative but lacked research rigor. Like many other classic theorists, the population observed to create these theories were white, middle-class children, often raised in nuclear families. Therefore, it must be applied with caution to people of different cultures, ethnicity, socioeconomic classes, and physical locations.

when it should be happening, and where it should be happening. Children don't fall between the cracks in this type of an organizational structure. For those who would protest that creativity is stifled in this manualization of after-school programming, that is not the case. Rather, this approach enables the construction of a wide-ranging cookbook of activities built by your after-school program from books like this that are tied to your teaching objectives. If approached seriously, then in a relatively short period of time, you will have developed numerous weekly themes and multiple effective activities that comprise your daily lesson plans. For those who believe our negative attitude toward emergent learning too harsh, consider this. If you would spend the time systematically developing lesson plans connected to your themes, then the rich repertoire of material resulting from that effort would permit a quality emergent programming approach.

One way to record this recipe book of activities is by using the logic model (see Durlak et al., Chapter 3). The advantage of this format is that it removes ambiguity from programming and replaces it with a purposeful set of actions directed at an outcome that matters. For example, some programs incorporate free playtime as a principle part of the day. Free playtime has a melodious sound to it with images of children skipping rope, playing marbles, and picking wild flowers. Our observations of free playtime are less idyllic and a tad more rambunctious with dodge ball being a deadly assassin's game and tag resembling a professional wrestling free-for-all. If your program objective is not to bloody noses and increased skinned knees, then free playtime is a program area that deserves careful reexamination. Indeed, using the logic model, current operations should be examined against program goals and program refinements or replacements submitted to the same process. Once current operations are examined, we'll look at proposed changes to the program. Let's begin this process by looking at the schedule for a typical week. Table 7.2 provides a sample week and timeline. Our imaginary weekly schedule and timeline provides us with a sense of the flow of each day. It informs us the children will move 3 times during the day. It tells us that we intend to have three planned activities. Further, it tells us that the opportunity for chaos is highest during arrival and departure when organized activity is weakest.

The next step in critically assessing our after-school program is to examine each time slot and its activity for each day. To illustrate this process, we'll look at Monday, Tuesday, and Friday. On Monday as with other days, the children arrive at different times making planful programming a nightmare. The challenge is to gradually add children to the first planned event without disrupting that event with each new addition. We might approach this issue by providing healthy snacks at the time of arrival and ensuring that the supply of snacks is adequate to ensure seconds. We might then offer a choice of supervised physical activities that foster group cooperation until enough children have arrived to begin the first activity. Those arriving late would be fed first and then accompanied to the event by a staff member or volunteer being rehearsed on the way

Table 7.2 Weekly schedule

Monday
Children arrive between 2:15 and 3:00 p.m.
3:00 p.m. planned activities begin
3:00 p.m. to 4:10 p.m., homework/reading/math/computer usage/board games
4:10 p.m. to 4:15 p.m., change activities
4:15 p.m. to 5:25 p.m., crafts
5:25 p.m. to 5:30 p.m., change activities
5:25 p.m. to 6:30 p.m., physical activity
From 5:30 to 6:30 p.m., parents arrive to pick up children
Tuesday
Children arrive between 2:15 and 3:00 p.m.
3:00 p.m., planned activities begin
3:00 p.m. to 4:10 p.m., homework/reading/math/computer usage/board games
4:10 p.m. to 4:15 p.m., change activities
4:15 p.m. to 5:25 p.m., Children's Museum visits with a program
5:25 p.m. to 5:30 p.m., change activities
5:25 p.m. to 6:30 p.m., physical activity
From 5:30 to 6:30 p.m., parents arrive to pick up children
Wednesday
Children arrive between 2:15 and 3:00 p.m.
3:00 p.m., planned activities begin
3:00 p.m. to 4:10 p.m., homework/reading/math/computer usage/board games
4:10 p.m. to 4:15 p.m., change activities
4:15 p.m. to 5:25 p.m., crafts
5:25 p.m. to 5:30 p.m., change activities
5:25 p.m. to 6:30 p.m., physical activity
From 5:30 to 6:30 p.m., parents arrive to pick up children
Thursday
Children arrive between 2:15 and 3:00 p.m.
3:00 p.m., planned activities begin
3:00 p.m. to 4:10 p.m., homework/reading/math/computer usage/board games
4:10 p.m. to 4:15 p.m., change activities
4:15 p.m. to 5:25 p.m., crafts
5:25 p.m. to 5:30 p.m. change activities
5:25 p.m. to 6:30 p.m., physical activity
From 5:30 to 6:30 p.m., parents arrive to pick up children
Friday
Children arrive between 2:15 and 3:00 p.m.
3:00 p.m. to 4:10 p.m., homework/reading/math/computer usage/board games
3:00 p.m., planned activities begin
4:10 p.m. to 4:15 p.m., change activities
4:15 p.m. to 5:45 p.m., Books into Film
From 5:30 to 6:30 p.m., parents arrive to pick up children

that rude boisterous behavior was not acceptable and will result in their removal from the activity.

The first planned event in our schedule is homework. Our experience is that parents highly value this exercise. At the end of their busy workday, they appreciate that on arriving home with their child this is not an issue to struggle over. That said, most youth are not huge fans of homework, but they do understand the need for its completion. Indeed, Durlak and his associates (Chapter 3) report that homework completion is a reoccurring outcome of good after-school programs. By placing this activity first, we reduce a child's homework resentment for being drawn away from a pleasurable activity later in the day.

Because of the wide variability of the learners in this activity, the time set aside for homework may be excessive for some youth. Thus, the word *homework* is followed by other words like reading, math, computer usage, and board games. Provided volunteers are available with whom a positive relationship with the child has been established, weaknesses in the student's educational performance might be addressed briefly each day. What's briefly? No more than an additional 10 minutes building word recognition, math facts, learning or rehearsing a phonic sound should be taken. There is more to life than verbal and mathematical intelligences, and those several other intelligences are deserving of attention.[2] For other children, a variety of high-interest reading material across a range of abilities connected to other parts of the program should be available to fill the unexpended time for this activity. Other activities could include access to the Internet (with controls in place) or board games that can be completed in 20 minutes or less.

At 4:10 p.m. in this imaginary day, the space has been cleaned and the children ideally move to a new location. Beginning at 4:15 under the rubric of crafts, a multitude of activities can occur. These might include cooking, board games, art projects, pottery, and the list is as long as your budget is short.

At 5:25 p.m., the space is again cleared and the children moved to the final activity for Monday. We end the day with physical activities for two reasons. The first is that young people need to stretch their muscles lest they turn to fat. And practically speaking, with parents arriving at different times at the end of the day, cooperative games have the capability to adjust to new members being added and subtracted with minimal distraction.

On Tuesday, the schedule changes and the craft period is replaced with a program from the local children's museum. Advanced planning with the museum staff makes them aware of the number of youth, their interests, space constraints, and the time allotted for the program. Short, focused, high-interest programs are appealing to young people and can significantly enrich after-school

[2] What if a child repeatedly cannot complete his or her homework in 1 hour and 10 minutes with your positive constructive coaching. Something may be wrong? Speak to the parent. Ask to speak to the child's teacher. There may be a learning issue that needs to be identified and addressed to enable this child to succeed.

programming. Whereas in this imaginary exercise 1 day per week is given to this special event, depending on reliable partnerships with meaningful programmatic content, this community collaboration can be expanded to other days of the week.

On Friday, the afternoon activity is "Books into Film." Imagine the following. In the homework area are Shrek, Spiderman, and Harry Potter short storybooks intermingled with tales of pirates, princesses, animals, and other tales of history, science, and music. Each Monday, the children know that Friday a film is shown related to that reading material in the homework and other areas. Before each film, a short contest in which all can win is held in which questions are asked, the answers of which are found in that reading material. For example, what is the name of Shrek's donkey friend? Is Shrek really a mean ogre? Would Shrek be nice if treated nicely? Winners all, the film is shown and discussed in regard to the book. Were there differences between the book and film? What were the similarities? Let's have a show of hands to whether we'd like to read and see another Shrek story? Does anyone have another suggestion for a book to read and a film to view?

Having developed the weekly schedule, the real work begins. The activities within each time period should be intended and meaningful. To ensure this requires both a vision tied to a theoretical model of where the after-school program should be heading and its articulation through the logic model. In this example, we envision a program that compliments the academic learning of the school system, promotes healthy living through good nutrition and exercise, and develops the social and emotional skills of the children in the program.

The theoretical model to accomplish this best is Gardner's (1983) theory of "multiple intelligences." Its developer, Howard Gardner, contends that each of us possess in varying degrees several types of ability or intelligence (Lazear, 1991; see Table 7.3).

Whereas in theory each ability is equivalent in value, in practice it is society that assigns varying weights to abilities. For example, in the U.S. school system, logical/mathematical and verbal/linguistic intelligence are prized highly to the extent that statewide tests are administered to determine student fluency in these areas. Indeed, we suspect that 99% of the time a student's homework can be categorized as either verbal or mathematical. But there are other intelligences like body/kinesthetic expressed by ability in dance, sports, and drama, or naturalistic intelligence with intimate awareness of flora, fauna, and the environment. Depending on the society and the circumstance, different abilities at different times are more highly valued.

For example, imagine you are driving a vehicle that has broken down with two passengers in the blistering heat of the Australian outback. One passenger is a Nobel prize winner in literature. The other is an Australian aborigine with an intimate knowledge of the area. The two disagree on which direction to head for safety. Who would you listen to and why? Assuming you chose the Australian native, you based this decision not on the literary ability of the

Table 7.3 We all possess these eight intelligences

1. Verbal/linguistic intelligence: Examples of which are the ability to read, write, debate, and tell stories well. Authors, poets, songwriters, and humorists are individuals with strong verbal/linguistic intelligence.
2. Body/kinesthetic intelligence: Examples of which are the ability to dance, play sports, martial arts, and pantomime well. Dancers, athletes, and actors are individuals with strong body/kinesthetic intelligence.
3. Musical/rhythmic intelligence: Examples of which are the ability to sing, play a musical instrument, compose music, and create patterned sounds (beats) well. Musicians, composers, singers, and tap dancers are individuals with strong musical/rhythmic intelligence.
4. Logical/mathematical intelligence: Examples of which are the ability to draw graphs, calculate, create formulas, problem solve, and do pattern games (puzzles) well. Engineers, draftsmen, electricians, and carpenters are individuals with strong logical/mathematical intelligence.
5. Visual/spatial intelligence: Examples of which are imagination, painting, sculpture, photography, and designing well. Architects, painters, sculptors, and photographers are individuals with strong visual/spatial intelligence.
6. Naturalistic intelligence: Examples of which are predicting the weather, identifying geological formations, identifying plants and animals, star gazing, and studying microscopic creatures. Gardeners, farmers, landscapers, biologists, geologists, astronomers, and foresters are individuals with strong naturalistic intelligence.
7. Interpersonal intelligence: Examples of which are understanding others' feelings, the ability to speak to others, collaborate, and work in groups well. Counselors, ministers, and coaches are individuals with strong interpersonal intelligence.
8. Intrapersonal intelligence: Examples of which are meditation, concentration and focusing skills, and guided imagery. Philosophers and gurus are individuals with strong intrapersonal intelligence.

Nobel winner but on the naturalistic intelligence of the aborigine. If you didn't, we admire your love of literature but remind us to travel with someone other than yourself.

In this after-school program example, we are making the conscious decision that exercising all intelligences is good. In so doing we wish to create a synergy among intelligences and create opportunities for abilities to strengthen each other. To illustrate, musical ability found in song is an intelligence. Knowledge of the alphabet is a verbal intelligence. Learning the alphabet through song is combining intelligences to achieve a desired outcome. Table 7.4 provides a variation of the logic model Durlak et al. shared in Chapter 3 to be used to examine activities within the daily schedule created earlier.

Start to use this chart by identifying the goals for the program and listing one goal per chart. It is likely that your program has multiple goals like education, physical activity, social and emotional learning, nutrition, and others, so you will have more than one chart to complete. Let's begin by taking the schedule of activities for Monday. From 2:15 to 3:00 p.m., the children arrive. Our goals during that time might be nutritional and safety. The logic model chart for nutrition from 2:15 to 3:00 might look like this:

Table 7.4 Logic model

Activity:
Goal:
Learning Objective:
Instructions:
Time needed:
Resources needed:
Staffing assigned:
Outcome expected:
Evaluation of outcome:

Logic Model for Nutrition from 2:15 to 3:00 p.m.

Goal: Increase knowledge of healthy eating habits.

Learning Objective: Learn the healthy food pyramid.

Instructions: Provide ingredients from the healthy food pyramid that when combined create the snack for the day.

Time needed to assemble a snack: 2 minutes.

Resources needed: Apple slices, whole wheat crackers, sliced cheese, sliced meat (like pepperoni), hummus, and beverages like water, milk, and 100% fruit juice.

Staffing assigned: 3 (one to assist children in assembling snacks, one to pour beverages, and one to rehearse the food pyramid) with the children as they assemble their snack.

Outcome expected: First, the children's insatiable appetite has been temporarily satisfied. Second, foods are associated with specific food groupings.

Evaluation of outcome: First, sufficient food was available for seconds. Next, over a period of 1 month, the children can identify what foods belong to what food groups. With time, additional outcomes should be added such as what foods must be consumed in moderation (pepperoni) to prevent obesity.

Concurrent with snacks will be the need for peaceful activities that occupy the time between arrival and the start of programming. Remember that assassin dodge ball, body slam tag, and other activities that increase the likelihood of fights and injuries is not the way to begin a smooth-running after-school program day. Rather, with supervision, children might be directed to the playscape, to play catch, basketball, kickball, or soccer. Field events might be started. Establish a never-ending field contest! Here's the concept! Exercise is good. Let's establish baseline data for each child in the program for their ability to run a 10-yard dash, to walk backwards straddling a line for 5 yards, the distance a softball can be thrown and a soccer ball kicked. Plan to record this information for each child 3–5 times a week by devoting Monday to the 10-yard dash, 5-yard backwards walk, and softball throwing, Tuesday to dash, walk,

and soccer ball kicks, and so forth. Before "events" begin, have the children gather in a group to loosen up by running in place for a few moments, stretching arms and legs, and deep breathing. At the end of each month, reward each child who has improved his or her performance in each area with an after-school program prize point that can be redeemed at some point for a goodie. Indeed, once established as a looked-forward-to activity, nothing breeds success as progress, you should incorporate other health concerns into this activity like weight control and healthy eating. The logic model for the never-ending field trial is

Logic Model for Never-Ending Field Trial from 2:15 to 3:00 p.m.

Goal: Improved health through planned physical exercise.

Learning Objective: Develop throwing, running, and walking skills (gross motor development).

Instructions: Ten-yard forward run or walk, 5-yard backward walk, throw softball, kick soccer ball, and so forth.

Time needed to complete warm-up and 3 exercises: 15 minutes or more.

Resources needed: Paced off area, stop watch or watch with a second hand, softball, soccer ball.

Staffing assigned: 3 (one to go through warm-up exercises, one at the finish line to time the run/walk event, and one downfield to measure the kick or throw).

Outcome expected: Arms, legs, and lungs are exercised. Over a 1-month time period, gradual improvement in speed, accuracy of throw or kick, and distance should be observed by improvements in timed runs, length and accuracy of throw, and length and accuracy of kick.

Evaluation of outcome: Baseline data for each child should trend in the direction of improvement.

From 3:00 to 4:10 p.m., the children are in assigned areas completing homework. Although you have no control over the assigned homework, your positive attitude and willingness to help a child encourages a better environment than the look of boredom and irritation that we have seen on occasion by tutors in study centers. Clearly, verbal and mathematical intelligences are exercised during the homework period; whether those exercises are leading to improved academic skills is questionable.[3] If there is one clear value, it is that the parent and child will not come to loggerheads over unfinished homework later in the

[3] Interestingly, the research on the educational value of homework is questionable. There is no empirical support for its increasing student's mastery of a subject. Whereas this seemingly flies in the face of common sense, namely practice should make perfect, it may be that homework is so hastily completed and so onerous an activity that its learning value is negligible (Kohn, 2006).

evening. Where the after-school education specialist might decide to intervene is with the free time remaining after homework completion. The possible points of intervention include strengthening academic weaknesses, encouraging reading, developing thinking skills and applying other intelligences. To revisit the programming suggestion of Friday afternoons at the cinema, why not post on a board the questions to be asked before the showing of the film in the homework area indicating that a mystery question exists to ensure the reading of the material. For younger children, coloring sheets (fine motor skills with coloring between the lines); or for older youth, creating an imaginary map from the reading of the land of Shrek or Peter Pan's Never Never Land (visual/spatial intelligence). Completed projects will be displayed in the after-school's "Art Gallery." The logic model for coloring and mapping is

Logic Model for Coloring and Mapping

Goal: Improved visual/spatial intelligence.

Learning Objectives: For coloring, to apply those colors within the figure's outline, thus developing fine motor skill ability. For mapping, to use one's imagination to visualize the land in which a story occurs and drawn a representation of that area.

Instructions: Color a supplied picture or draw a picture from ones imagination or from a supplied model.

Time needed to complete exercises: 15 minutes to an hour.

Resources needed: Large-sized paper, colored pencils, pencils, rulers, protractors, perhaps collage materials.

Staffing assigned: 1 (to ask thoughtful questions encouraging the child's active imagination and visualization process and to actively demonstrate interest in the developing art work).

Outcome expected: A finished project that shows visualization, imagination, color schemes, patterns, designs, drawing, and a visual picture.

Evaluation of outcome: From the first project to the most recent, each child should display growth. For example, with young children the choice of colors increase as does staying within the picture lines. For our mapmakers, more details and intricate patterns are displayed with each new imaginary exploration.

From 4:15 to 5:25 p.m., the schedule indicates a "crafts" activity. Actually, crafts is a poor rubric for any number of undertakings that exercise other intelligences. For example, dance and marital arts classes or a game of charades (to be technical, mime) are body exercises. Singing is musical intelligence. Progressive relaxation or yoga is intrapersonal intelligence. That is, knowing yourself better. Cooking involves reading the recipe (verbal intelligence), properly measuring the ingredients (mathematical intelligence), and, when undertaken with a partner, engaging in person-to-person communication, division of

labor, and collaboration – all aspects of interpersonal intelligence. The logic model for cooking is

Logic Model for Cooking

Goal: Improved interpersonal intelligence (one of several possible intelligence goals)

Learning Objectives: To collaborate, communicate, divide labor, give and receive feedback with a partner.

Instructions: Prepare a batch of cookies by following a recipe from a cookbook.

Time needed to complete: 1 hour with clean-up.

Resources needed: Recipe, dry and wet ingredients, utensils, aprons, oven timer, microwave or toaster oven if a "real" oven is not available.

Staffing assigned: 1 (to ask thoughtful questions encouraging the children in the activity and to *very carefully* supervise the use of the oven).

Outcome expected: A finished project that is edible. Sufficient cookies for all are made. Team behavior was cooperative.

Evaluation of outcome: From the staff and child's perspective, how successful were the children in deciding what extra ingredients like chocolate chips, nuts, raisins, other fruits, and so forth, should be added to the mixture. Did the children team or solo in the activity. Over time, cooperative behavior should increase.

As few after-school programs have access to large kitchens, this exercise is intended for very small groups with a ratio of one adult to two children. Indeed, this might be an activity for just two children a day with one adult, or you might operate with a larger group and do the actual baking in another space, thus removing the children from the potential hazard of a hot oven. The essence of this cooking activity is encouraging cooperation within the team, so do not sacrifice that learning opportunity for numbers. Doing so loses the activity's meaning. In this exercise, the staff member's role is nudging along the development of cooperative learning. Fitzgerald (see Chapter 2) would describe "nudging" as *scaffolding*, a term that Vygotsky (1978) used to describe how children learn. Scaffolding works by watching a young person come close to demonstrating a new behavior and then helping them move ahead to demonstrate that behavior. For example, a young child counting to 10 might say, "1, 2, 7, 8, 10!" We'd respond, "Wow, can you do that again? The child says," 1 (we repeat 1), 2 (we repeat 2, and before the child gives a wrong answer 7 we start to sound out 3 – thrrr), 3 (we say, that's right 3 and so forth). The same principle is applied to our cooking partnership nudging cooperation, praise, and good feeling until those behaviors are practiced routinely.

The last activity of the day occurs from 5:25 p.m. to approximately 6:30 p.m. with the departure of the last child. Our schedule indicates that this time is for

physical activity and, in light of the previous cooking exercise, a carton of cold 1% milk and a couple of warm cookies. The intelligence to be developed is body/kinesthetic. This includes the never-ending field meet discussed earlier in this chapter, sports games, exercises, and so forth. Remember that from the start of this activity to the close of the day, children will be departing. Thus, the physical activities need to be highly flexible. One such activity is pick-up softball. If the children are too young to swing at a pitch, a "T ball" stand is used. If able to hit an underhanded slow-pitched ball, the adult supervising the game is the pitcher. The game can be played with nine children or fewer and one adult (the pitcher). Each of the fielding positions is covered and the ninth position is the batter. The pitcher slow-pitches the ball and the batter swings until making contact. Having hit the ball, the batter runs to first base to beat the throw. Whether safe or out the hitter takes the position of the next batter up. This game can be successfully played with as few as three children. Countless variations on this format can be developed such that within a few months, children can develop throwing, hitting, and other team skills. The logic model for this game is

Logic Model for Slow Pitch Softball

Goal: Improved physical intelligence (one of several possible goals).

Learning Objectives: To improve hand eye coordination, strengthen the body (running), improve gross motor skills (throwing).

Instructions: Assemble the youth and adults into teams. We strongly recommend that the adults choose the teams to avoid hurt feelings and ensure balance with regard to skills. Assign positions with a good flexible ball catcher playing first and have an adult pitch to maximize the ball being hit.

Time needed to complete: 15 minutes to 1 hour.

Resources needed: Balls, gloves, bats, bases, "T ball" base.

Staffing assigned: 1 (pitcher).

Outcome expected: Improved hand–eye coordination, improved running times, improved gross motor skills.

Evaluation of outcome: This activity compliments the never-ending field trials. Thus, over a month's time, improvement in field trial events should be observable.

Before leaving this activity, we want to bring to your attention the importance of children being given medical clearance to engage in activities. A child with an undetected heart defect, allergy to peanuts, or, unbeknownst to you, asthma condition could experience a tragic outcome in what would otherwise be an enjoyable activity. All children in your program *must* have a physical before being permitted to enroll in the program.

Recall that our schedule of weekly activities had staff from the Children's Museum visiting on Tuesdays. In many programs, this arrival is joyfully greeted by child and staff alike. For the child, the museum brings new and novel learning experiences. For the staff, it is welcome relief from programming. Not so, in the Salmon program! Remember, we are focused on programming that encourages multiple intelligences and that can be integrated into an overall experience that is coherent for the child. To achieve that outcome in the Salmon program, a staff member from the museum and staff from the after-school program meet to discuss the variety of activities the museum can offer. Activities are selected that fit into the plan of the after-school program for the coming month. Thus, the visit of staff from the Children's Museum or any other group is never permitted to be an outlier. Rather, all after-school experiences relate to the promotion and integration of multiple intelligences that serve to enrich the academic growth and social/emotional intelligence of enrolled youth. The logic model for the Children's Museum visit is

Logic Model for Children's Museum Visit (*Healthy Bodies*)

Goal: Improved physical intelligence (one of several possible goals).

Learning Objectives: To understand the effects of exercise on the human body.

Instructions: Through film, discussion, activity, and models of the circulation system to develop a beginning age-appropriate understanding of the effects of exercise on the body.

Time needed to complete: 1 hour 10 minutes.

Resources needed: Blood pressure cuff, watches with second hands to time pulse rates, anatomic models, videos.

Staffing assigned: Museum staff and after-school staff.

Outcome expected: Through exercises like running in place, and a "fright" (a sudden unexpected Boo!), increase heart rate and the flow of blood through the body, measure that rate (pulse rate/heart), and discuss the health implications of these actions on the body.

Evaluation of outcome: This activity complements the never-ending field trials and the emphasis on healthy snacks and food knowledge. Thus, in physical activities and at times when youth prepare or consume food, staff can revisit this Children's Museum visit on the human body with, "Remember when people from the Children's Museum came and discussed heart rate and the importance of cardiovascular exercise? Does anyone remember the amount of time running it takes to burn off this cookie? (Answer is given.) What do you think? One cookie and an apple for snacks – that way we'll have fewer calories to work off after snacks?" This question makes a real-life connection between that visit and unfolding events. Learning is more likely to be retained when events are linked in real-life situations.

The final event in our weekly schedule to examine is Friday's "Books into Film" series. Let us begin with the warning that good after-school programs *do not* rely on the television to entertain young people. Children are overexposed to the media in all its manifestations from video games, to iPOD, and television. That said, our desire is to use the media to encourage youth to rediscover the power of the written word to fuel one's imagination for journeys that excite emotions, stir passions, and re-create in the mind's eye worlds beyond those found on any screen. In this process, we want to encourage youth to compare and contrast their impressions of the written word and visual images found in the reading material made available to them and the film images projected on the screen or television. To avoid being told, "The film was better," begin with questions like, "What did you like about the book, the film? What did you not like about the film? Is there anything you would have changed in the film? Why? Could the film have been made better? Is there something in the book that you would have wanted in the film? How was the book different from the film?" At the appropriate point in the discussion consider saying, "Books are great because they can be brought anywhere, opened anyplace, and Oz revisited anytime." The logic model for the Books into Film is

Logic Model for Books into Film

Goal: Improved verbal intelligence (one of several possible goals).

Learning Objectives: To encourage reading beyond that required by the school system, using high-interest reading materials that are available. To nurture the ability of children to compare and contrast information (the story) from different perspectives (that found in print and picture from that on film).

Instructions: From Monday to Friday, sufficient print copies of the story to be depicted on film on Friday are made available to be read. Respecting the different reading abilities of the children in the program, different versions of the story are available. Questions for the pre-showing contest are posted, which can be answered by reading the book or, if illustrated, by studying the pictures. Depending on the size of the group, questions can be asked verbally or answered on a sheet of paper. Children who answer three of the four questions correctly are awarded an after-school bonus point redeemable for a goodie at some point. After the film, discussion ensues exploring the story, and the children are asked for suggestions for future Books into Film.

Time needed to complete: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Resources needed: Books paying attention to the range of reading abilities in the group, DVD/video/film, LCD projector or television.

Staffing assigned: 1 person to operate equipment and 1 person to lead the discussion.

Outcome expected: Each week. the children will have read one book in addition to school-assigned reading. Each week, the children will have been asked their

opinion about aspects of the story and asked to compare and contrast elements of the story.

Evaluation of outcome: At the simplest of levels, a list can be kept of the new books read by the children in the program. Depending on time and resources, you can consider tracking the higher intellectual development of youth as your discussions focus not on facts but factual opinions derived from their reading and film viewing.

From this set of exercises and a rereading of the chapters by Fitzgerald and by Durlak et al., you have a fundamental understanding of how a schedule is constructed and purposeful activities inserted into that schedule. You appreciate that programming and discipline must be age appropriate. You realize that everyone possesses several types of intelligence and that each type is important to nurture. You recognize that one intelligence, say musical, can be used to improve another intelligence, say verbal, as in singing the alphabet. Finally, purposeful programming to achieve gains in multiple intelligences is necessary if children are to grow into productive citizens. To help in that process, the material in the Appendix to this chapter offers a multitude of activities using different intelligences to promote academic learning and social competency in school-aged youth. These tested examples are a start to the development of your own never-ending book of activities.

Session II: Establishing a Discipline System

Experience and the literature tells us that equally important to the design and implementation of the program is the relationship between the staff and the children in the program. Indeed, Durlak et al. (see Chapter 2) are clear that "close staff–child relationships" are essential to having a quality program. Within the context of this relationship, children learn countless lessons – some intended and some not. For example, whereas the program discourages the development of unhealthy habits like smoking, children observing staff puffing away on those cancer sticks conveys a still stronger message that negates any classroom lesson. As Fitzgerald (see Chapter 2) shared earlier, children learn by observing the world around them, watching the consequences to behaviors as they occur, and modeling behaviors they wish to incorporate into their own behavioral repertoire.

Recognize that the staff of your after-school program learned to discipline (parent) the same way! Incidentally, what's discipline? The Salmon definition for *discipline* is training that develops self-control, orderly conduct, kindness, respect, and cooperation. Interestingly, the near universal opinion of staff is that they are well-versed in raising (that is training) children. Why, were they not once children themselves who underwent a child-rearing experience, and is not experience the best teacher? If parents, have they not raised sons and

daughters or extended kin? With these experiences, staff arrive at the after-school program ready to apply those learned lessons to a new generation of youth. Only there is a problem with this home-schooling approach to applying discipline to others; there is more than one discipline approach. Thus, children will be exposed to not one but several contradictory disciplinary styles. There goes the routine, the structure, and the consistency that are the hallmarks of effective programs. Further, there is information that establishes one disciplinary (training) style as preferable to others.

Approximately 40 years ago, Diana Baumrind (1967, 1971) published a series of seminal papers describing three parental approaches to interacting with children involving forms of discipline. Whereas after-school programs are not families and the staff are not parents, after-school programs often describe themselves as offering a family atmosphere, and certainly for the time the child is in attendance the staff are legally responsible for the child's health, safety, and welfare. Given that, it is enlightening to examine Baumrind's typology and its usefulness for developing a system-wide disciplinary approach in after-school programs.

The first approach Baumrind described was *permissive*. Permissive parenting could be either indulgent or uninvolved. In either instance, parents who used this approach exercised little control over their children. The *indulgent* parent strived to satisfy the child's wants without regard to the merit of that desire, whereas the *uninvolved* parent ignored, by neglecting or rejecting behaviors, the wants of their children. Following this parenting behavior over time, Baumrind and her colleagues observed that children in indulgent permissive families were immature, demanding, dependent, and, not surprisingly, disobedient. Later research by other researchers described the second subtype of children in permissive uninvolved families as having academic difficulties, being easily frustrated, and prone to delinquency (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991). To illustrate this parenting style, let's assume a first-grade child (about 7 years old) in a permissive indulgent family wants to watch *American Idol*. The child declares, "Mom, I'm staying up tonight to watch *American Idol*. Everyone in class is talking about it." Mom answers, "Okay, honey. Be sure to turn off the lights before you come to bed." In a uninvolved permissive home, the conversation might go, "Mom, I'm staying up tonight to watch TV" (*American Idol*). Mom responds, "Whatever."

The second parenting approach was *authoritarian*. Here, behavior was administered as an order expected to be followed without question. Rigid top-down decision making did not allow for reconsideration, and any deviation by the child from the order was seen as a power struggle. Parents behaved in a business-like manner with their children, reacted punitively to discipline violations, and expected more mature behavior from their children than, perhaps, their age suggested. Children raised in authoritarian families were found to be more withdrawn, mistrusting, and unhappy than were other children. Later research suggests these youth have poorer social skills and may be more

aggressive. Our *American Idol* conversation might go like this, "Mom, I'd really really like to watch *American Idol* tonight. Please, everyone in class is talking about it. Please, I'll take my bath now and get everything ready for . . ." Mom curtailing the child's attempt to negotiate responds, "Absolutely not! You are well aware of the bedtime rules in this house. There are no exceptions. Bedtime is 8:30 p.m. period."

The third parenting approach described by Baumrind was *authoritative*. This parenting approach has firm rules with some written in proverbial stone. Others, however, can flex on occasion for good reason. Children's input into the family's operating structure is both permitted and valued. Warmth, care, and attention are obvious in these families. Children raised in this family type are found to be the best adjusted of the three types. That is, they were more mature, friendly, possessed good social skills, and were well-behaved. In this family, the *American Idol* conversation might sound like, "Mom, I'd really really like to watch *American Idol* tonight. Please, everyone in class is talking about it. Please, I'll take my bath now and get everything ready for tomorrow. My homework is already done. And I promise to get right up in the morning on the first call." Mom responds, "Sounds like this is a pretty important show." Child: "Mom, it's the biggest night of the year." Mom: "Well, you know the rules on school nights, bedtime is 8:30 p.m., but this sounds pretty important." Child: "Oh Mom, it is." Mom: "Well, your homework is done. Bath to be taken now and no sleeping in tomorrow, right?" Child: "I promise!" Mom: "And right to bed after the show, right?" Child: "Right!" Mom: "You know, I was kind of wondering who was going to be the next *America Idol*. Okay, I'll approve this but this one time only. Let's understand that if you have trouble tomorrow having not gotten enough sleep this will not happen again until you're 8. We'll watch it together." In this instance, *with conditions* and *good cause*, the rules flex to permit an exception to bedtime. We could create a scenario where the answer would be no. The "no" would be placed in a context that might go like this, "I wish I could permit that but tomorrow we have to get up much earlier than usual;" or "Do you recall the last time we stayed up past 10:00 p.m. on a school night? You fell asleep in class. I explained to you then that you would need to be older before we could try staying up past 8:30 again on a school night. And, sweetheart, you did agree with me. Remember?" In either instance, there is a clear respectful dialogue between the child and the parent.

The challenge confronting us is to what extent do we extend this research to the discipline format of the after-school program. We can begin this exercise by again observing that an after-school program is not a family. It is a voluntary program in which a child willingly attends. Staff are not parents. The need for disciplinary actions beyond verbal corrections, time out, suspensions and removal from the program does not exist. *Thus, a child in an after-school program shall never be physically disciplined in that program by a staff member even if that staff member is the parent of the child.*

Next, whereas we have observed after-school program staff behave unconsciously in a permissive indulgent or neglectful disciplinary manner, a permissive approach with a group of children is an open invitation to disaster. Simply put, the staff is legally responsible for the health, safety, and welfare of the children in their charge. A permissive approach places the children in charge, and this is not acceptable in any manner, way, shape, or form.

Does this mean that we are endorsing an authoritarian disciplinary format? Let's consider the advantages to this style of interaction. With respect to Gertrude Stein, a rule is a rule is a rule. No exceptions are allowed. Discussion is minimal. What I say goes! There is clearness in these definitive statements. Once established, procedures carry clear consequences for children and staff who ignore them. However, this clarity comes at a price. Rules may be perceived as both arbitrary and capricious by staff and children. In public, compliance to the rules occurs, but away from supervision they are defied without regret in a declaration of rebellion by children and possibly staff who may negotiate a separate code of conduct with the children in their care. Our use of the words "without regret" in the above sentence is intentional. A conscious intention of the Salmon program is developing the next generation of healthy, socially competent, participating members in our society. One aspect of this community membership is to feel regret over violating a reasonable rule of that group, not pleasure.[4] Mind you, rules will be broken. As humans, we are most certainly flawed. But healthy individuals in healthy societies, despite their ever-occurring mistakes, recognize that these violations are wrong not right. Thus, establishing a code of discipline that is absolutely black and white all the time is unwise.

The best discipline model to compliment the structured curriculum you are developing for this program that will encourage socially competent, academically achieving youth is an *authoritative* model. Authoritative staff behavior will be warm, caring, attentive, and open to listening to the children. Staff will also be firm and consistent in administering the rules of the after-school program. To do this requires that: (1) absolute rules be established, (2) flex rules be established, and (3) an appeal process is developed.

Simply, absolute rules are never to be broken – period. Look both ways before you cross the street is an absolute rule. Physical harming another person or animal is not allowed. Flex rules should not be broken – except. Healthy foods are to be served at snack time. Except that it's a child's birthday and staff want to have a birthday cake and ice cream for the children in celebration of that event. Schedules are to be adhered to. Except during the summer on a field trip to the shore, the children who have been well-behaved all day politely ask if they can stay just one-half hour longer to see a fishing boat unload its catch. Both examples are not everyday occurrences and, providing the reason for the

[4] Sociologists would call these norms and mores.

exception to the rule is clearly explained to the children, should be considered. The third element to our rule development process is an appeal process. This enables children to question the validity of a rule without defying that rule. For example, consider the healthy foods are to be served at snack time rule. Let's assume that this is an absolute rule in your program. With food, never is a difficult position to maintain. Children and staff resentful of the inflexibility of this rule might sabotage your attempts to promote good nutritional habits. Rather than sneak a sweet, the children petition a change in that absolute rule and explain the reasons for exceptions to that rule. If you are wise, you will carefully deliberate your decision, erring on the side of flexibility when possible.

STUDENT APPEAL FORM

Student_____ Date_____

I would like to appeal a decision made by my teacher, Miss/Mr. _____, regarding the following situation:

_____

_____

My teacher acted in this way: _____

_____

which I believe was not fair, for the following reason(s): _____

_____

_____

REVIEWED BY_____. Supervisor

Rule that applies in this situation: _____

_____

Exceptions that are reasonable: _____

_____

DECISION BY SUPERVISOR:_____

Copy to Student, Teacher, File

A Process for Establishing Rules

Notice that in the disciplinary process, the staff are mentioned as frequently as the children as potential violators of the process. Remember that children learn by observing behavior, watching the consequences of that behavior, and modeling behaviors they see as desirable. Those behaviors a child defines as

"desirable" may be socially very undesirable. Thus, staff noncompliance with the rules of the organization is a guaranteed assurance that your program to promote social competency and academic achievement will utterly fail!

It is absolutely essential that the staff agree to the rules of discipline within the organization and that they administer those rules fairly and consistently. How best to achieve this staff consensus? Involve the staff in the development of these rules as a group. Once a first draft of the program's rules is developed, review those rules with the staff in a group setting.

A useful way to review those rules is to role-play behaviors and the application of rules to those behaviors. When possible, use situations that occurred in the program as they have more meaning and learning power than do imaginary scripts. Encourage other staff to participate in the role-plays as you review the rules. Consider breaking the staff into groups of four and provide them with situations to handle within the new rule structure.

Encourage staff to identify those times when a rule may need to be flexed. Notice that reoccurring factors appear to suggest flexibility. Those factors may be the good behavior of the children that day, the special interest the children have in one non-reoccurring event, and that it is a non-reoccurring event. Use this information to develop guidelines for flexing rules and importantly explaining to the children why an exception to the rule is being made in this one case. Tell a group of children that a rule exception is being made because of their most excellent behavior at the museum today, describing to them what that good behavior was. Doing this is likely to increase the probability this good behavior will be repeated in the future. Your explanation is what behaviorists call positive reinforcement. Don't lose the opportunity to use it!

Finally, before your new rules go into effect, ask each staff member if she or he can abide by the new structure. Make sure you get a clear "Yes" in response to that question. Why? With very few exceptions, children quickly come to understand the rules of any organization. They also learn quickly, too quickly in fact, who on staff is the absolute enforcer, the reasonable soul, and the marshmallow.

To illustrate, at the Mission there is an absolute rule that when food is served in the gym, games cannot be played – period. The reason for this rule is that a child may accidentally throw a basketball into a platter of food – not good. Or in a tag game a child may run into a table not only hurting themselves but spilling utensils, beverages, and food everywhere – also, not good. On one recent occasion after a visiting theater performance, the children left the theater to enter the gym to meet the actors and enjoy refreshments. A small group of children were shooting basketballs. Their play was quiet and focused. Any other time this practice would have been appropriate but not now. People entering the gym needed to pay attention to the basketball practice lest they catch a ball in the face.

A staff member asked, "Jacob, you know the rule. When there is food being served in the gym, basketball is not permitted. Did anyone give you permission

to play basketball?" Jacob answers, "Yes, Miss Jen." The staff member then breaks off the conversation and joins the reception. Later as another staff member describes this incident, Miss Jen says, "Jacob never asked for my permission, and I would not have given it if he had." This is a wonderful example of all our careful discussions and planning with staff crashing and burning. Incidentally, expect failure. It's a part of life. Our expectation is that we will learn by our failures and over time reduce the number of failures in our program. To achieve that requires a postmortem of the failure to apply a rule. Let's examine that gym occurrence with that in mind.

To begin, there is a rule that says food and physical activity in the gym do not mix. Next, there is staff agreement that this rule is reasonable and justified. Third, the children know the rule. Finally, the rule is not applied at the appropriate time. Why is the rule not applied – for three reasons. First, the children chose to ignore the rule. They wanted to shoot baskets. Second, the staff member after her discussion with Jacob chose not to apply this absolute rule believing that Miss Jen's approval somehow superseded an absolute rule. Or it may be that this employee did not want to embarrass Miss Jen by overruling her bad decision. In either case, the child's statement was accepted as fact. Luckily, by chance alone, a potentially embarrassing moment with the basketball floating in the punch bowl adorned with raspberry sherbet and maraschino cherries never occurred. Let's set aside Jacob's dishonesty for a moment and examine what happened, and what might have happened instead.

Decision Making

The staff member who observed Jacob and his friends playing basketball made a series of decisions resulting in the approval of children playing basketball in the gym while food is served – a violation of an absolute rule. By examining the sequence (or decision tree) of bad decision-making in this instance, much can be learned about the institutional health of a program.

The decision tree begins with observing an acceptable behavior (playing basketball) at an unacceptable time (food is being served in the gym). The staff member has several choices or decision-making response branches to follow. Those responses are (1) stop the behavior, (2) encourage the behavior, (3) ignore the behavior, and (4) question the behavior. The staff member chose to combine a small part of 1 with 3 and 4. Here's how: "Jacob, you know the rule. When there is food being served in the gym, basketball is not permitted." This is "Stop the behavior" language – well almost.[5] Her question to Jacob,

[5] Incidentally, whereas the final outcome of this interaction was wrong, the start of it was right. The staff member informed the child that he was not complying with a program rule and explained why.

"Did anyone give you permission to play basketball?" is clearly a questioning of the behavior. When Jacob answers, "Yes, Miss Jen," the staff member weighs the rule (no play) against Jacob's response (Miss Jen says we can play) and decides against an absolute rule – a wrong decision. Let's now examine alternative decision-making branches.

The first is "Stop the behavior." She would say: "Jacob, you know the rule. When there is food being served in the gym, basketball is not permitted." And she would go on to say, "Everyone, listen up, no more shooting baskets. Bring those balls over here right now." Though acceptable, this is not the ideal decision-making path for it leaves unanswered how the game began. Consider this interaction: "Jacob, you know the rule. When there is food being served in the gym, basketball is not permitted." And she would go on to say, "Everyone, listen up, no more shooting baskets. Bring those balls over here right now. Jacob, did anyone give you permission to play basketball?" This question is seeking to place this rule violation in a context and that is important. Jacob answers, "Yes, Miss Jen." Note the next response, "Jacob, the balls still need to be put away because that is the rule, and you and I will need to discuss this with Miss Jen."

In the discussion that ensues, we might find that Miss Jen did give her permission – her bad. Or that she said Jacob and his friends could play after the reception that became twisted into we can play now – still her bad. Why? Universally, children want what they want when they want it. Children's delay of gratification is notoriously underdeveloped. Thus, to be anything but unequivocal in stating now is not an appropriate time is an open invitation to misunderstanding. But that is not what Miss Jen said. She said nothing; she was not asked. Jacob lied.

Consider the two decision-making branches we just followed. The first appropriate branch identified a rule error, explained the rule error to the children, and stopped the inappropriate behavior. However, it did not address how this error happened. The second decision-making branch probed further and identified one of three possible outcomes. Each outcome can be addressed to reduce the likelihood of its reoccurrence. Namely, if Miss Jen gave permission, then she needs to clearly understand in no uncertain terms that absolute rules are never to be broken. If Miss Jen said the children could play after the reception, then Miss Jen and, in fact, all staff should carefully consider our observation that children want what they want when they want it and will misunderstand or reinterpret messages that are intended to delay their gratification to, "We Can Do It. Miss Jen Said So!" Thus, we recommend that staff deal with the children on an absolute here and now basis. To illustrate, "Jacob, right now we cannot play basketball because we are serving food in the gym and that is an absolute rule. *After* the reception come to me and ask me again. But the answer right now is no. Do you understand me? What did I say? Okay, that's right." Notice the clarity of the message given to Jacob. There can be no misunderstanding that basketball cannot happen in the presence of food. In

the next section, we'll discuss Jacob's misbehavior. He lied and the possible consequences for that misbehavior.

Consequences for Rule Violation

Let's begin by repeating several words that are essential to the operation of our good soon-to-be-better after-school program. Those words are *fair*, *consistent*, and *age-appropriate*. The children in your program are at an age when their learning abilities are at their peak. Each of their several intelligences is absorbing every aspect of the world around them. Thus, they are hypersensitive to the injustice of playing favorites or excessive punishments for rule infractions. Develop an unjust discipline system and children will defy that system at every opportunity. Thus, food is never withheld for misbehavior nor does today's minor group misbehavior ever result in future events being cancelled.

Your system must be consistent. Staff must clearly understand the rules and agree to apply absolute rules the same way every time. Staff must clearly understand flex rules and agree to follow the process, without exception, by which a flex rule bends. That is, a flex rule is a rule to be followed unless xyz happens. No xyz – no change in the rule.

Discipline must be age-appropriate. One good way to ensure that you are age appropriate is to rarely, if ever, have a discipline experience lasting longer than the age of the child. Thus, if a child is 7 years old, then the length of time that the child may be in "time out" is 7 minutes. Remember that Piaget linked the age of the child with certain developmental statuses like preoperational (birth to 2), preconceptual (2–6), concrete (6–12), and formal (13 and older). We need not concern ourselves with the first and fourth stage except to state clearly that children under the age of 10 have only a weak sense of the connection between events unfolding and future consequences and children between the ages of 10 and 14 are just beginning to establish these connections. As these are characteristics of formal operations that evolve with age and experience, do not expect these children to fully understand that actions today have future consequences (see Table 7.5)!

The concrete child between the ages of 6 and 12 understands discipline literally. Thus, rules must be clearly stated and consistently applied. If rules are to be flexed, then the reasons for that one exception must be clearly stated. At this age, there is little appreciation for special circumstances exempting one child in a group from a rule. Therefore, if an exception to a rule for a child is being made, then the reason for the exception should be clearly stated lest the other children see unfairness, and rest assured they perceive any difference in rule application between children as unfair. A persistent belief on the part of the group that rules are unfairly applied will encourage group disobedience. With

Table 7.5 How children perceive the world from a Piagetian perspective

This is the way a child sees the world in preoperational terms from ages 2 to about 7:

1. The child can use symbols (words) to represent something that is absent.
2. The child can use words to evoke past events and affect current behavior.
3. The child may not be able to express exactly what she or he wants, which may lead to frustration.
4. The capacity to reason begins in this period of time, but at different rates for different children.
5. "Play" changes from solo to parallel to the beginnings of collaborative play (involving rules of the game). The child is able to distinguish make-believe from real-world events.
6. Self-esteem grows as the child attains greater use of language and social and physical skills.
7. Egocentric thinking and language tends to decline, but social sensitivity is still often limited.

Teachers' responses to children who are preoperational thinkers:

1. With symbols: The teacher can talk in simple terms about an object, situation, or event.
2. With past events: The teacher can help the child recall similar behaviors in the past and what happened.
3. Expressing wants/needs: Teachers should listen carefully to the child's view of the situation, offer clarifying remarks as needed, and provide feedback on how well the child is beginning to express these ideas.
4. With reasoning: The teacher can make some simple cause/effect statements and ask whether the child understands what she is saying.
5. With play: The teacher should gently encourage whatever is the highest level of play a child can attain, while allowing solo or parallel play at times.
6. With self-esteem: The teacher should provide validation and confirmation of the small gains a student makes, to encourage self-esteem.
7. With egocentrism: The teacher should encourage sociocentric thinking, taking the point of view of others into account.

This is the way a young person sees the world in concrete level terms from ages about 7 to about 11:

1. Young people increasingly spend time with peers (same-sex groups, usually) and become increasingly sensitive to social relationships over the course of the Concrete Level.
2. Young people can use language that allows them to reflect and to manipulate thoughts and actions that are not immediately present, but are about concrete things.
3. Young people can increasingly function independently, while schools (as institutions) increasingly impose collective standards on young people's behavior.
4. Young people need physical activity as an outlet for their growing energy level.
5. Humor develops along with cognitive ability, with more jokes, puns, and riddles.
6. Young people may be afraid of a variety of things, the dark, snakes, monsters, as well as real-life fearful things, violence, war, and so forth.
7. Young people learn quickly, but may tire easily and be anxious about new experiences such as school transitions.
8. Young people can categorize (involving logic) and often become collectors of things.
9. Young people may be outgoing, curious, sensitive, and critical (of self or others).

Table 7.5 (continued)

Teachers' responses to children who are concrete thinkers:

1. With peers: The teacher should provide small groups, usually same-sex groups unless the opportunity arises to mix groups, dealing with specific tasks, like making cookies, or building a bridge for toy cars, for example. The teacher should be on the watch for rough spots in these small groups, and, talking privately to the transgressor, try to interpret how others feel regarding one child's inappropriate behavior and how that child might handle the same situation in the future. (This is not putting blame on the child, just a friendly discussion of how others feel about some action.)
2. With reflective language: The teacher should help a child reflect on some situation, either positive or negative, and help the child to imagine doing more of that activity (or less) in the future. (This is not praising or blaming on the child, but only emphasizing the positive and minimizing the negative.)
3. With independence: The teacher should encourage independent thinking and action as she or he becomes aware of it in the child. At the same time, the teacher should reflect how the rules on manners are useful for everyone to follow. Independence is good but it should not interfere with another child's independence or rule-following behavior.
4. With physical activity: The teacher should encourage physical activity in the right time and place, but when it occurs at the wrong time, gently remind the child that he or she will have time to do that kind of activity at another time of the school day. Make the time schedule for outside or physical activity clear on the daily calendar.
5. With humor: The teacher should be on the lookout for children's humor in a variety of forms, and laugh and praise the children who provide it. Activities like humorous plays and skits may be useful to get the children to act out their humor to the applause of peers.
6. With fears: Many things are validly fearful, and some things are feared by children because of their own personal experiences, so the teacher should take any indication of fear seriously, without making fun of a particular child, and provide a support while trying to reduce the idiosyncratic fear in an individual child.
7. Fast learners but tired and anxious: The teacher should provide learning experiences as much as a child can absorb, but keep these intense learning activities short with pleasant breaks in between activities. Major transitions, like changes of teacher or classroom, might involve more careful attention to the appearance of anxieties, for which personal reassurances (or reassurances to the whole class) would be appropriate.
8. Categorizing (developing logic): The teacher should provide materials that need categorization, like batches of picture postcards of different topics, and ask some children if they would like to sort these into good categories. Or, the teacher could ask children to bring in their own collections on certain days for class presentations – and to build relationships among fellow collectors.
9. Developing personality characteristics like curiosity and sensitivity: The teacher might provide activities that encourage different types of outgoing characteristics, like taking parts in plays or being a peer tutor for others. Likewise, the teacher should have a variety of activities that stimulate curiosity in children. On the other hand, teachers should be careful in talking about individual differences in a negative manner. Remember, each of us possesses several intelligences in varying degrees. Our aim as a teacher is to develop each intelligence to the extent possible. Negativity will discourage that from happening.

this broad understanding, let's look at Jacob's behavior (breaking an absolute rule and lying) and other rule infractions against the model of discipline found in the Box 7.1.

Box 7.1 Discipline model
Underlying Principles
1. Types of rules: Absolute and Flexible
    a. Absolute rules are never broken.
    b. Flex rules have exceptions
    c. An appeal system to review rules exists

Misbehavior can range from minor infractions like rudeness to very serious like pushing a classmate down a flight of stairs. Discipline corresponds with the seriousness of the infraction. We recommend the "Rule of 3." Upon observing a negative inappropriate behavior, give the child a verbal warning (including an explanation of what the exact negative behavior is, that they need to stop, and that if they do not they will receive a time out). If the behavior resumes, the child receives a time out for the length of their age (i.e., if a child is 8 they would receive an 8-minute time out), and if the behavior is performed a third time, the child is sent to the office where, if the behavior is serious enough, their parent(s) are called or the child is sent home for the remainder of that day.

Remember when using the Rule of 3 that children (and staff) must be constantly reminded of the system. We found that going over the Rule of 3 on a daily basis improved child behavior, and staff implemented the system more consistently. Note also that if a child engages in a behavior that is a *major* infraction of the rules (i.e., striking another child, verbal profanity, etc.), we recommend immediately sending that child to the office. This action removes the child from the space where the behavior occurred, keeps other children safe, and sends a clear message that such negative behaviors are not tolerated by program staff.

Further, staff must use "common sense" when it comes to children's "normal" developmental behavior and recognize that children will argue with one another, test the limits of adults, and try to "get what they want." Program staff must apply common sense when it comes to determining which behaviors warrant which type of disciplinary action (i.e., warning, time out, sent to office).

Apply the Rule of 3

1. A child is given a *verbal warning* at the onset of a negative behavior; warning should include description of behavior, suggested alternative behavior, and child should be told if it continues, she or he will be put on a time out.
2. If the behavior continues, the child is put on a *time out* the *length of the child's age*.
3. If the child rejoins the group, and the misbehavior continues, the child will be sent to the "office."

Remember:

1. If a child performs a *major* infractions (i.e., hitting, verbal profanity, etc.), she or he is sent immediately to the office. Depending on the severity of the behavior, staff may call the parents or send the child home for the day.

Disciplinary Options of Staff:

1. Classroom staff are authorized to warn a child about his or her behavior, institute time out, or send a child to the office.
2. Office staff are authorized to extend time out (but not beyond the age of the child) before meeting with the child, calling home, and suspending a child from the program for the rest of that day in consultation with administration.
3. Longer suspensions and expulsion from the program requires a meeting of administration and program staff to review the child's involvement in the program and develop a plan for helping the child succeed.

The first elements of this discipline system identifies absolute rules, flexible rules where rare exceptions can be made, and an appeal process to review a rule. Here is an example of how the Rule of 3 works.

Jim (age 10) is bothering a boy next to him by bumping his body against that boy's body. The boy asks Jim to stop, but Jim persists. As you observe the situation, you determine that Jim's behavior is annoying, inappropriate, and that he has no intention of stopping. After failing in trying to interest him in diverting activities, you *give him a warning* (step 1) and say, "Jim, Alex asked you to stop annoying him; please do so now. This is your warning and if you continue to pester him, you will be put on a time out." Jim stops but soon resumes the behavior. You say, "Jim, I gave you a warning but since you continued to annoy Alex on purpose, I am putting you on a *time out*. I'm disappointed in your not respecting Alex's right to work quietly. Please have a seat here next to me for the next 10 minutes" (this is step 2). Let's continue with this example and apply the final step in the Rule of 3. Jim ends his time out with your saying time is up, and he rejoins the group. This time he continues to pester Alex. You say, "Jim, please come over here. Today is not going well for you is it? You seem to be in everybody's work but your own. I have asked you to obey my requests but you seem unable to. Miss Karen, I think Jim needs to visit Mr. Vin in the office. Please take him there."[6]

Once Jim arrives at Mr. Vin's office, Mr. Vin has the option of seeing Jim immediately or having Jim sit for a few minutes but never longer than his age.

[6] It is important to note that in your opinion should a child's behavior be so unacceptable that at *any* point in this process you can direct that child to the office. This is the rule of *common sense*!

Mr. Vin explores the reasons for Jim's misbehavior. Mr. Vin can then: (1) Ask Jim if he can return to the classroom making it clear that if he is sent to the office a second time then his parents will be called to take him home. (2) Determine that it might be in Jim's and the group's best interest to remain with Mr. Vin for the rest of this period. Jim will rejoin the program at the start of the next period. (3) Call Jim's parents to take him home. Should Jim rejoin the group and be sent to the office a second time that day, his parents are called to pick him up.

When this process was first shared with the Mission staff, Miss Paula remarked that Jim was certainly entitled to fairness but wasn't this a bit much. Jim, being a bright boy, would quickly learn that on the first occasion he had two chances before time-out occurred provided his troublesome behavior was minor in nature. A good observation, so staff developed a variation for repeat offenders. Here's how it works. After going through the process once, Jim is told that this behavior must stop. Jim is asked if he understands the request being made of him. If Jim says yes, he is asked to explain the request. Jim says, "I need to stop bugging Alex and Alisha." Miss Paula adds, "And the other children. Jim, we want you in the group and to be in the group means to respect other children. Do you agree?" Jim sort of nods his head. Miss Paula says, "Jim, if that nod is a yes then you need to say, 'Yes, I agree.'" After several seconds, Jim says, "Yes, I agree." If Jim complies, all is well with the world. If Jim returns to old habits, then, at the discretion of the staff member, there is one or no warning and misbehaving Jim is off to the office. Given a typical population of young people in grades 1 through 8, once a few children go through the Rule of 3 and its variation for repeat offenders, rule compliance increases dramatically. When it does not, the fault lies more often than not with staff's inconsistent behavior with the children, for rarely does a child have serious behavioral issues needing a more intensive intervention.

To summarize, the key to success of this approach is (1) staff agree on the absolute rules of the center; (2) staff consistently apply the rules; (3) staff are fair in determining those rules; (4) staff apply those rules fairly to all children (no favorites!); and (5) children can appeal a rule, if they believe it unfair, to the head of the organization.

Let's revisit Jacob's behavior of breaking an absolute rule and lying. As soon as reasonably possible, Miss Karen, Miss Jen, and Jacob meet and discuss the sequence of events. After initially denying everything, Jacob admits that he fabricated the story. What are the consequences of his breaking an absolute rule, lying, and then denying he said anything? First, he apologizes to Miss Jen. Next, he loses the opportunity to play basketball for the remainder of that day. Third, the incident is discussed with his parents, not from the perspective of playing ball, but from the perspective of safety and lying. Should the incident occur anytime soon (within the next month), then Jacob will be suspended for 1 day from the after-school program.

We conclude this section with a seeming anomaly. What if Jacob had immediately admitted that he had gone into the closet to get a basketball, that he knew

that was wrong, and that he screwed up? Jacob is telling the truth. Do you still institute the same corrective actions? If you still institute time out, withhold basketball, and inform Jacob's parents, then what is the difference between lying and hoping to escape the consequences, and telling the truth and being assured of the consequences? Indeed, lying may be the better decision if you can bluff your way through the inquisition. Is that the lesson you wish to teach?

As you struggle with that issue, consider that behavioral theorists have developed a variety of reinforcement schedules. Our discipline approach to now has been a continuous reinforcement schedule. That means every time a behavior occurs, we respond in the same fair and predictable way. This is a powerful learning tool. But what we are teaching needs to be carefully considered. An absolute rule is an absolute rule is an absolute rule. Break an absolute rule and there must be consequences. But Jacob's honesty needs to be factored into this equation.

Consider this exchange of dialogue. Miss Karen: "Jacob, who said you could play basketball with food being served in the gym?" Jacob: "Miss Karen, No one. I just wanted to play. I know I did wrong, and I am sorry." Miss Karen: "Jacob, I admire your honesty. It takes a brave man to own up to his mistakes. Let's put these balls away, and we'll discuss this further after the event." Miss Karen consults with a supervisor and both meet with Jacob and review the event with him. Miss Karen: "Jacob, what you did was wrong but telling the truth was right. We've decided this one time and one time only to place you in that chair over there for 10 minutes. You should know that if you had lied to me you would have sat in that chair, lost the right to play basketball, and your parents would have been called. Do we understand each other?" Jacob: "Yes, Miss Karen." Miss Karen: "What do we understand?" Jacob: "Playing basketball when food is out is bad." Miss Karen: "And telling the truth is good." Jacob: "Yeah, and telling the truth hurts less than lying." In this exchange, the behavior is clearly identified as wrong. Jacob's honesty is praised. The consequences of lying versus honesty are spelled out. Measured discipline tempered by circumstances is administered.

To conclude, your staff needs to determine what are the absolute and flex rules within your program. They need to discuss, and all must agree to the discipline Rule of 3 described earlier. Should staff want to develop a variation on the Rule of 3, it must be age appropriate, fair, and predictable in its consequences. Finally, an appeal policy should be developed.

Session III: Promoting Prosocial Behavior

What does it mean to be socially competent? In the chapters leading to this one, Martin Bloom understood the socially competent child to demonstrate behavior in six realms, namely (1) working well, (2) playing well, (3) loving well,

(4) thinking well, (5) serving well, and (6) being well (see Chapter 1). Maurice Elias and Jennifer Gordon conceptualized prosocial behavior as social and emotional learning (SEL) and see it, "as the process of acquiring the skills to recognize and manage emotions, develop caring and concern for others, make responsible decisions, establish positive relationships, and handle challenging situations effectively" (see Chapter 5).

These definitions are embraced within the broader concept of "interpersonal intelligence" (Gardner, 1983). Recall that we all possess multiple intelligences in varying degrees. Thus, no one is devoid of the ability or lacking the capacity to be prosocial, which is a major component of interpersonal intelligence. Rather, a child may be weak in interpersonal intelligence because that child has not had a sufficient opportunity to practice that intelligence. As the Salmon program is all about multiple intelligences and about developing those intelligences through a variety of methods, practice is available. In particular, the Salmon program practices five interpersonal behaviors: kindness, the verbal expression of feelings, respect for self and others, cooperation, and self-control.

The encouragement of social competence is one of five interventions or tools to promoting healthy behavior and preventing the development of unhealthy behavior. This overall effort is commonly called primary prevention or health promotion.[7]

What's *primary prevention*? Simply put, it is actions taken to reduce the occurrence of illness and to encourage good health – physically and emotionally. In the Salmon program, those actions are applied to all the children enrolled in the program. Further, the Salmon program uses all five of prevention's tools. Those tools are education, social competency promotion, natural caregiving, systems intervention, and environmental change (Gullotta & Bloom, 2003). Examining each of these tools and their application in the Salmon program offers a clearer understanding of how our actions and the structure of the program work together to achieve the desired change, namely, children who behave prosocially and grow academically.

Education

Primary prevention's first tool uses information to increase knowledge. Knowledge can be increased in three ways. It can appear as public information to be found in taped recordings, visual images, and as old a technology as the written word. It can be offered as a lecture, on a Web site, as a label on a package, or through headphones. The material your after-school program provides to enrolling families and the student handbook are examples of information *to*

[7] For our purposes, when we use primary prevention, we are including health promotion as well.

prevent misbehavior by clearly explaining to parents and children unacceptable behaviors and to *promote* good behavior by sharing examples of expected positive behavior.

Next, education can be used both to anticipate a future event and to prepare for that event. "Be prepared" is good advice not only for Boy Scouts but for everyone, as anticipatory guidance makes known the unknown and in so doing reduces anxiety. Thus, the Open House your after-school program operates during open enrollment provides children and parents with an opportunity to sense your program culture, to make familiar unfamiliar faces, and to reduce the awkwardness that accompanies any new beginning.

The final education tool involves increased self-awareness. This intrapersonal intelligence can be increased, for example, through yoga, TM, biofeedback, and Tai Chi. You might incorporate this intelligence in your program through progressive relaxation exercises prior to the start of the program day. You could incorporate yoga as a second period event 1 day a week, or practice Tai Chi as an end-of-the-day physical activity thus developing two intelligences (body/kinesthetic and intrapersonal). Practicing self-awareness reduces impulsivity, increases delay of gratification, and teaches self-discipline – all good things.

Before we leave education for the next tool, it is important to acknowledge that education is the most commonly used of all prevention's tools and it is the weakest. Why weakest? Remember, we said that education increases knowledge. It also occasionally changes attitudes. It rarely, if ever, changes behavior. Consider this: cigarette smoking is a causal factor in the development of lung cancer. For cigarette smokers diagnosed with cancer that had a diseased lung removed, 50% continue to smoke! To strengthen education's effectiveness, it must be combined with the following prevention technologies.

Promoting Social Competency

Regardless of the underlying conceptual principles, social competency is an essential element to an individual's and community's well-being (see Chapter 1 and Chapter 5). This prevention tool involves exercises in conjunction with experiences to nurture interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. The desired outcomes are individuals who are cooperative, kind, self-controlled, and verbally able to express feelings. These are people who will have a positive view of themselves (good self-esteem), accept responsibility for their lives (an internal locus of control), and are both civil (well-mannered) and civic (participating members of their group). These socially competent individuals are acknowledged members of their society. They are valued group members, and they make a meaningful contribution to the maintenance and future development of their group. As a group, socially competent individuals are emotionally and physically healthier than are others (Gullotta, 1997).

In the Salmon program, attention is given to developing five specific behaviors that we believe are the essence of a socially competent individual. The first is *kindness*. Kindness is paying attention to others. It is the ability to express approval of others' good work and efforts. It is offering emotional support to others and expressing affection at appropriate times in appropriate ways. Lastly, kindness encompasses altruistic behaviors such as helping others and sharing. Identified activities in the Appendix to this chapter offer opportunities to practice person-to-person communication, empathy skills, sensing others' motives and feelings. These activities are group in nature and involve cooperative learning strategies, collaboration, and soliciting and giving feedback. For example, whereas we often think of mentors as older adults working with youth, the concept can be extended to much younger people.

Consider matching middle school youth with children in the early elementary grades to practice reading 3 times a week for 20 minutes. The middle school children will need to be well orientated through role plays to the civil way of giving positive constructive feedback and coaching a child's budding reading skills. Obviously, the books chosen for this exercise need to be easily read by our middle school student and age appropriate for our younger reader. This reading exercise might begin with the middle school student reading the title and the back cover of the book. The child then reads the first page with the older student using Vygotsky's scaffolding method to help children sound out new and difficult words. The middle school student reads the next page and so forth. Clearly, one should not be choosing massive tomes for this exercise, and close adult proximity is absolutely necessary to ensure that kindness and not ridicule is the dominant behavior of the moment. This approach can be used for a variety of activities involving intelligences other than verbal and illustrates, again, how a synergy can be developed to promote several intelligences simultaneously.

The next behavior of interest involves *feelings*. The Salmon program encourages young people to appropriately verbalize their feelings using "I" statements and to consider a situation from another's perspective (empathy). The rationale behind this effort is grounded in a theory of behavior called frustration – aggression (Dollard & Miller, 1950). At its essence, frustration – aggression theory posits that when people are unable to relieve frustration over an event or series of events, they may respond aggressively. Aggression may be expressed verbally (name calling), physically (shoving, hitting), or, as in road rage, both (using one's car as a weapon to cut off another driver while screaming obscenities at that person). Thus, strengthening one's interpersonal intelligence to improve communication, seeing another's feelings, and understanding others' motives are approaches to preventing frustration from reaching the flashpoint of aggressive behavior. Likewise, developing intrapersonal intelligence skills like meditation, problem solving, and "centering" practices are equally useful ways to manage frustration.

The logic model exercises in the Appendix of this chapter are a starting point in developing these intelligences. A number of effective skill-building curriculums like Interpersonal Cognitive Problem Solving (Shure, 1997), Lion's Quest Skills for Growing (Quest International, 1990), and Social Decision Making Skills (Elias & Clabby, 1989) are excellent add-ons once the staff has mastered the basic principles contained in the Salmon program. If your program can afford to incorporate a yoga or Tai Chi instructor to work with the children during the second or third period of the day once a week, do it. The insightfulness children gain from this activity is very helpful in calming oneself before frustration reaches the flashpoint of unacceptable behavior.

The third behavior, *respect*, encompasses proper manners, appreciating diversity, and socially appropriate behavior. Please, Thank You, and May I are good words for children to learn as they develop their interpersonal intelligence and should be insisted upon in your after-school program. Waiting for your turn, holding the door open for another, saying "Excuse me" should you unintentionally bump into someone are equally good behaviors for children to learn. Staff must model these behaviors if they wish to see children imitate them. Staff must compliment children who display those behaviors if they wish to see those behaviors "take root."

At the B. P. Learned Mission, youth address staff with either Miss or Mr. and their first name. Using "Miss Megan," "Mr. Dave," and "Miss Paula" visibly demonstrates respect. At the same time, using the staff's first name rather than their last name projects the friendly warm feeling the Mission wishes as an essential part of its culture.

Diversity is the current buzzword. One of the strengths of this country is its ability through its language, food, and popular culture to incorporate the complexity of the world into the "melting pot" that is the United States. Yes, we know that "melting pot" is no longer a buzz phrase and is seen by many as passé, but consider this. The literature clearly discerns a tendency across all ethnic groups that in the second generation, conflict over home cultural values versus new-home U.S. values is apparent between parents and their children. By the third generation, this tension relaxes as family members accustom themselves to life in the United States. Consider also that inspiration for clothing comes from every corner of the world, dance, music, and other forms of entertainment are "infused" with the colors, sounds, and movements of our brothers and sisters across the globe. And, of course, there is our food "infused" with tastes borrowed from across the planet. What better way to teach diversity than through our taste buds (touch), the aroma (smell), the sound of food being prepared, and best of all the taste of food.

To the multiple approaches that your after-school program uses to promote understanding and acceptance of different ethnic, racial, and religious groups, let us encourage you to add food. You might prepare at the program or elsewhere a different ethnic dish each month. That dish forms the centerpiece of a geography lesson (where is the country from which the dish originated), a

demography lesson (how many people from that country currently reside in the United States and where), and a sharing of the contributions this group of people have made to our culture.

Cooperation is the fourth behavior the Salmon program wishes to encourage among the youth in the program. Cooperation encompasses the ability to share, to negotiate disagreements peacefully, to behave toward others in a fair and just manner, and to work within a group toward a common goal. For some young people, cooperation is a difficult task for two principle reasons. The first is the egocentric view of the world found in most young people. Egocentrism declines gradually with age and when opportunities to see another person's point of view are provided. The second is the competitive nature of U.S. society.

Salmon seeks to focus the child's attention on improving himself or herself. Thus, activities measure their improvement doing something today compared with that something yesterday. They measure the group's success in achieving a project compared with the group's success the last time. They encourage honesty and sportsmanship on the playing field.

The fifth Salmon behavior to be developed is *self-control*. This entails the ability to regulate one's emotions to peacefully solve problems and to express anger without resorting to aggression. Returning to the frustration – aggression theory for a moment – recall that when frustration exceeds a person's individual threshold, she or he will often react aggressively. It is important to note that aggression can be expressed outwardly (striking another) or inwardly (withdrawing from an activity, depression). One key to preventing aggressive behavior is learning behavioral techniques to raise our ability to handle frustration. Another approach (but not always possible) is to know oneself well enough to avoid situations that provoke aggressive behavior.

Consider establishing within every room a "Peace" corner. When a disagreement between two youths develops, staff intervene and offer the contentious youths two choices. Staff can settle this matter, or both youths can have a seat in the "Peace" corner and peacefully resolve their disagreement. The rules for the "Peace" corner are found in Box 7.2 with suggested role plays to help youth develop the thinking strategies and emotional processing skills they will need to give and receive feedback in person-to-person communication in that corner. Incidentally, the "Peace" corner behaviors just described entail the use of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences.

Box 7.2 Peace Table instructions

1. When a conflict arises between children, instruct them to have a seat at the Peace Table where they will "work out" their conflict. Make sure children know there is no yelling, name calling, or blaming at the Peace Table.
2. Tell children that they will take turns explaining what the conflict is about, how it arose, how they are feeling, and so forth.

3. Encourage children to use "I" statements. I-statements are a way of him or her communicating about a problem to another person without accusing them of being the cause of the problem. When two children are having a dispute, you might tell them to say, "I felt bad being called ugly. It really hurt my feelings" instead of "You are a real jerk. You're always saying mean things."
4. Make sure each child gets to talk about the problem from their perspective.
5. An adult *must* be present to facilitate this conversation.
6. Make sure children see that there are two sides to every conflict.
7. After all children have had a chance to speak, brainstorm solutions to the conflict with children. Be sure to emphasize alternate ways of behavior and ways conflict may be avoided in the future.
8. If you choose to have children apologize to one another, make sure they say *what* they are apologizing for.

Natural Caregiving

We live in a society in which dating couples walking down the street hand in hand are using their cell phones to speak to others. We live in a time when pressing emotional issues are scheduled for discussion in a counseling session not to exceed 1 hour. We live in a time when local eateries are now chain restaurants. Neighbors are strangers, and we bowl alone![8] Prevention's third tool changes this unhealthy pattern of behavior.

In a paper written for the National Institute of Mental Health, Gullotta (1987) coined the phrase *natural caregiving* to describe the responsibilities each of us has to ourself and others. Natural caregiving is a call for individuals to become reinvested in the lives of other people. There is an extensive literature that clearly establishes that individuals with significant meaningful social relationships are healthier.

The premise of natural caregiving borrows from the writings of Carl Rogers (1965). If we are genuine, honest, worthy of trust, and empathic in our relationships with others, then the health of those others will increase. Likewise, if we are genuine with ourselves, honest in our self-appraisal, trusting of our intuition, and accepting of responsibility for own actions (an internal locus of control), then our health will increase. In this concept, the staff in an

[8] *Bowling Alone* by Robert Putnam (2001) explores the reasons for the decline of social capital within the United States since World War II. Social capital encompasses civic involvement, group membership in a garden club, Lions, or historical society. It is participating in community events, knowledge of local happenings, and bowling on a team in place of solitary activities like browsing the Internet. Communities high in social capital are healthy communities and the people living in those communities are healthier also.

after-school program are trained indigenous caregivers. Like a minister or school teacher, their responsibility extends (or should extend) beyond offering a physically safe place for youth to providing the commonsense advice found in the pages of this book when asked for advice. But more than common sense, staff should be invested in these youth. Their responsibility should extend beyond the modeling of the behaviors discussed in this volume to a true caring about these young people. As you, the reader, assess your after-school program, ask yourself the following: Are the staff employed to help children grow emotionally, physically, and academically, or are the children there to provide staff with a job? Your answer to that question will tell you much about the challenges you face in implementing the Salmon program.

Mentoring is a form of natural caregiving. Mentoring is developing, over time, a meaningful guiding relationship between a young person and an older person or between an experienced person and inexperienced person. When mentoring works, it is a very powerful form of learning. Reflect for a moment and identify an adult whose presence mattered most in your life. We suspect that their high expectations, their respect and belief in you made for a lasting emotional bond that exists to this day.

In the Britner and Kraimer-Rickaby essay (Chapter 5), the authors examined a mixed literature reporting mentoring successes and failures and identified factors that increased the probability of program success. Those were the following: (1) Mentors must be trained and closely supervised. (2) Successful mentoring took time. The longer the mentoring relationship, the more likely it was to be successful. (3) Mentoring relationships must be active and not passive events. Passive is let's sit and talk. Active is helping with homework, crafts, and athletics.

Identifying mentors for an after-school program is no easy task and requires significant time and staffing resources that your program may not be able to afford. If you are fortunate enough to live in an area with a Big Brother Big Sister program, then we would urge you to use their services.

Volunteering is another form of natural caregiving and, though not as intensive as mentoring, it can extend the capacity of the staff to accomplish its daily program and increase the quality of the overall program. The concept with volunteering is not establishing a single lasting relationship with one child but a positive presence with many. Incidentally, in our experience, volunteers who return on a consistent basis over time do develop mentoring relationships with children suggesting that the development of a quality recruitment, training, and retention program for volunteers should be a program priority.

Systems Intervention

The premise behind prevention's fourth tool is revolutionarily simple. Every system is inherently dysfunctional including after-school programs. Being

inherently dysfunctional, elements of the after-school program actually impede the healthy growth and development of individuals. The challenge for any program is to honestly and critically assess itself to address and correct its dysfunctional elements.

The first way to do this is to provide children with a means to appeal a rule. This should be done in writing, and the process should include a meeting of the youth with the concern and a program administrator. Understand that much can be learned about a system by listening to the clientele that system serves.

Another way to undertake this ongoing important exercise is through a *360-degree self-evaluation*. What's a 360-degree self-evaluation? Imagine the after-school program as a circle. At each point around its circumference, different entities (board, funding bodies, clients, parent/guardians) have contact. A 360-degree evaluation provides these different groups an opportunity to comment on the quality of the product from their perspective. You might begin with small focus groups of children, parents, staff, the governing board, and even funding bodies. Identify factors that are important to each constituency and create a simple 3-point scale (Yes, No, Not able to determine) to determine in the opinion of your clients whether that factor is being adequately fulfilled. Administer the survey on a regular basis to each constituency. Use the findings to congratulate your successes and address your shortcomings.

To illustrate, after a focus group was held with the children at the Mission, certain themes emerged. They were (1) the palatability of snacks, (2) the availability of seconds, (3) if the after-school program was interesting, and (4) whether the staff were nice. These were addressed as follows: Like many after-school programs, snacks were provided in part by the local food bank. That said, the palatability of snacks was improved by having the children identify healthy food favorites with the staff occasionally slipping in a new taste treat to broaden the children's culinary horizons. Old standbys like peanut butter and crackers ensured seconds were available to satisfy hungry stomachs. Whereas the children enjoyed the programming at the Mission, improvements were made to recognize children's interest that were not being met. In this case, a theater program was added. This addition meant that the following intelligences were being regularly practiced: verbal (script reading), body (dancing), musical (singing), interpersonal (collaboration), visual (set design) and intrapersonal (concentration). As a side note, the children loved being on stage. Lastly, the fact that the children perceived some staff differently from others in "niceness" led us to reexamine ourselves and understand that Baumrind's parenting styles applied to the discipline approaches being administered at the Mission. This realization led to the development of the discipline approach discussed earlier. These program corrections and others that will be needed in the future happened because the Mission staff was willing to listen to the children and work to improve staff performance in areas of legitimate concern.

Environmental Change

Prevention's last tool addresses issues of wider concern such as the greenhouse effect, water pollution, and other public health hazards. It is a community mobilization effort to correct the abuses to the environment that contribute in turn to the poorer health of communities. What does this have to do with after-school programming?

First learning about the environment would be increasing knowledge in the eighth multiple intelligence regarding flora and fauna (or naturalistic intelligence). For example, trees are amazing beneficial plants. Their leaves absorb CO_2 and release oxygen as a by-product. Those same leaves shield buildings and land from the blistering heat of the summer. Indeed, trees planted in sufficient number can lower the temperature of an area by 10 degrees or more and can help to break the city concrete oven effect that bakes city residents to a crisp in summer heat waves. Serving as a windbreak from the bitter winds of the winter, trees serve to soften heating bills during that time. In short, trees are good! Why then are there so few trees in cities? Shouldn't there be more trees in urban areas?

Imagine a children's campaign to increase the planting of trees in your community. This is an exercise for children to experience the democratic process and understand how the system can be changed in a representative form of government. All of the multiple intelligences can be used in this project. For example, children might write a letter to the local editor and the city council (verbal intelligence). They might appear in front of the city council and read their letter asking for more trees (interpersonal intelligence). They can take digital photographs of neighborhoods with trees and neighborhoods without trees and compare the photographs on aspects such as the warmth and the attractiveness of the photograph. These visual representations can be included with the letter to the editor and the appearance before the local city council. They can map where trees might be planted on the after-school grounds, in a nearby park, or better yet on the streets where they live (visual/spatial intelligence). They can calculate the consumption of CO_2 by the tree they intend to plant (logical/mathematical intelligence). They can plant the tree (physical intelligence). On May 1st, they can dance around their tree (musical/rhythmic intelligence).

In summary, primary prevention offers a framework to promote good emotional and physical health and prevent illness using five tools. Remember that education alone will not work. It must be combined with at least two of prevention's four other tools (promoting social competency, natural caregiving, systems intervention, and environmental change) to be successful. A word of caution on undertaking activities to promote social competency and in particular the five Salmon-desired behaviors is in order. These activities must be role-played by staff before undertaking them with the children.

Why? To be successful with these activities the staff must be sincere and clearly demonstrating the qualities these exercises seek to bring out in the

children. As these may not be characteristic of a particular staff member, the phoniness of the exercise will be readily apparent to our very perceptive children. Thus, we want to carefully select those staff members who exemplify these characteristics and can conduct the exercises with heartfelt sincerity. Doing so greatly increases the probability of success. That said, all staff can be involved in noticing and rewarding youth for their spontaneous demonstration of these behaviors with verbal praise and, on occasion, an after-school dollar. What's an "after-school dollar"? You'll just have to read the exercises and logic model activities in the Appendix that follows to find out. In the Appendix, you will discover the beginning of your after-school program's successful effort to encourage academic growth and promote prosocial behavior in school-aged youth.

Appendix

The following logic models and activities were developed, implemented, and evaluated at the B. P. Learned Mission and the Creative Experiences Program of Glastonbury, Connecticut. It is important to note that the Mission serves children in grades 1–6, and we are fortunate to operate out of a building that is much like a community center; it is equipped with four classrooms, a gymnasium, a theater, a ball field, an outdoor playground, and a kitchen. Before we moved into this building, however, we operated the program out of the multipurpose room in a city public elementary school, so we can appreciate that programming depends on the space and facility you have at your disposal! We feel that the following activities can be used in a variety of spaces and can be adapted to fit your program's needs. We urge you to remember that children can and *want* to learn, and the period of time after school, regardless of space or facility, is a vital and important time to learning and growth. Creative programming can support and promote academic, physical, and emotional development, and we hope you find the following exercises a beginning for the development of your own program.

Structure of the Salmon Program

- **Homework Assistance/Academic Support**

  Completing homework is usually the focal point of any after-school program. An hour of the B. P. Learned program is usually devoted to homework. Staff aim to ensure that children are not only *doing* their homework but that they are learning from the assignments and doing them correctly.

  One interesting activity implemented at the Mission to support academic growth is called "B. P. Challenges." A B. P. Challenge is a fun *and* educational

game, worksheet, or puzzle that children complete after they are finished with their homework. After completing each challenge, which can be either independent of "Books into Film" or integrated into that activity, the child can redeem it for a "B. P. Dollar" which is a slip of brightly colored paper on which they write their name.[9] Every 3 months, children can exchange their dollars for small toys, school supplies, or jewelry from a B. P. Learned–created "catalog." (We use Oriental Trading, www.orientaltrading.com, to purchase these items.) We find that the B. P. Challenge exercise works wonderfully with children in grades 1 through 5. It is inexpensive, fun, educational, and, most importantly, noncompetitive.

- **Theme-Based Programming to Support Multiple Intelligences**

Once homework is completed, children participate in enrichment activities that are based on predetermined themes. Themes last for approximately 2 weeks, which gives children the time and opportunity to really delve into and learn about a particular theme. All of the activities relate to the theme *and* target one of the multiple intelligences (described earlier in this chapter). The logic models provided later in this section are one, or a combination, of the following activities or subject areas (Fig. 7.1) and target one or more of the following intelligences (Fig. 7.2).

Figure 7.3 is a list of each month (September to June) and the themes on which the activities included in this section are based. If you are looking for additional theme ideas, three good Web sites to visit are Kinderart (www.kinderart.com); EduPlace (www.eduplace.com); and Education World (www.educationworld.com).

- Reading and Language Arts
- Mathematics
- Physical Education
- Theater Arts, Dance and Music
- Arts and Crafts
- Science and Social Studies

Fig. 7.1 Activities or subject areas

[9] The actual value of a B. P. dollar is 10 cents.

- Verbal/Linguistic
- Body/Kinesthetic
- Musical/Rhythmic
- Logical/Mathematical
- Visual/Spatial
- Naturalistic
- Interpersonal
- Intrapersonal

Fig. 7.2 Multiple intelligences

September
All About Me
Autumn

October
Discovery and Exploration
Halloween

November
Celebrate Reading!
Thanksgiving

December
Christmas Around the World
Hanukkah and Kwanzaa

January
Art Appreciation
Peace and Martin Luther King

February
Black History Month
Friendship

March
Music and Instruments
Poetry

April
The Ocean
Gardening and Spring

May
Outer Space
Hispanic Heritage

June
Animals and the Zoo

Fig. 7.3 Monthly themes

Sample Logic Models for After-School Programs

Provided below are a total of 76 logic models to be used to jump start your program. Each theme has a total of four activities that target at least one (but usually several) of the eight multiple intelligences. Nineteen different themes are included for your convenience. Themes are included for the academic year (September to June) but can be used during the summer months if you operate a summer program.

SEPTEMBER

September – Theme #1 – All About Me

"All About Me" is a good theme to use at the beginning of the year, especially if you have new children coming into the program who do not know one another.

ACTIVITY: Time Capsule

Goal: To improve intrapersonal and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will record and graph information about themselves and their classmates.
Resources Needed: Tell About Yourself and My Favorites forms (*see below*), box or other container, large graph paper, pencils, markers.
Instructions:

1. Tell children they are going to make a class time capsule to see how they grow and change throughout the year. Brainstorm with the children the kinds of things to include in the time capsule.
2. Distribute copies of Tell About Yourself (*below*) read it aloud and have children fill out only the top part. Explain that they will complete the sheet at the end of the year. Place them into the time capsule.
3. Distribute copies of the My Favorites (*below*) survey, read it aloud, and have children fill out only the top part.
4. Use the information on the My Favorites survey to make a graph about one of the topics on the form. Place the survey forms and the graph into the time capsule.
5. Allow a few days for the children to collect or create other things they want to include in the time capsule. Then, with the children, seal it and choose a date near the end of the school year to open it.
6. When you open the time capsule, have children complete the Tell About Yourself and My Favorites forms and discuss how they have changed over the year. Add new information to the graphs.

Time Needed: 1 hour at the beginning of the year; 1 hour at the end of the year.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will explore information about themselves and practice writing it, will learn what a time capsule is, and will learn about the mathematical concept of graphing.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children complete the forms, work together to create and bury a time capsule, and can describe and perform the process of graphing. Graph is complete and correct.

Remarks: If you work with different ages, older children may help younger children complete the forms and surveys. Younger children may also need assistance reading the forms.

Tell About Yourself

Name _____ Date _____

Write or draw to tell about yourself.

_____

Fill out this bottom portion AFTER the time capsule is opened in June.

What have you learned this year?

_____
_____
_____
_____

What was the best thing that happened to you this year?

_____
_____
_____
_____

My Favorites

Name _____ Date _____

Beginning of the Year
Color
Food
TV Show
Song
Part of the School Day

End of the Year
Color
Food
TV Show
Song
Part of the School Day

September – Theme #1 – All About Me

ACTIVITY: Getting to Know You Acrostic Poem

Goal: To improve interpersonal and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will get to know their classmates and then use what they have learned to write acrostic poems. For an example of an acrostic poem, see below.
Resources Needed: Paper, pencils or markers.
Instructions:

1. Group students in pairs. Then tell them that each student should ask his or her partner questions to get to know the other better. Students can ask questions about sports, hobbies, favorite bands or music groups, television shows, siblings, pets, and so forth.
2. Tell students that they will be doing an **ACROSTIC** poem. What's an **ACROSTIC** poem? It's a poem that takes a word and uses the letters of that word to create a description about that word (see below). The letters in the partner's name will begin each line of the poem. Then write on the board the acrostic shown below to model the kind of acrostics they will be creating.

Awesome at videogames.
Races on the track team.

Tracy is his sister's name.
Houston is where he was born.
Usually likes math and social studies.
Raisins are his favorite fruit.

3. When the students are finished, have them share their work with the class.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will interact with another child to collect information about them and will use it to create a poem.
Evaluation of Outcome: Poems are created for each person in the class.
Remarks: Stress to the children that poems should be positive and kind! They should show all the good characteristics of their classmates.

September – Theme #1 – All About Me

ACTIVITY: Personal Outlines

Goal: To improve visual/spatial, verbal/linguistic, and intrapersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will engage in an art project to practice writing skills and each will learn about himself or herself.
Resources Needed: Long rolls of paper/butcher paper, markers, crayons, fabric, glue, paint (if desired), pencils, paper.
Instructions:

1. With the help of older students or adults, trace the students' bodies on long lengths of paper.
2. Students decorate the shapes by adding facial details and clothing. They may use markers, paint, fabric, crayons, and so forth.
3. Students label parts of the body and write stories about themselves to accompany their silhouettes. If students are still too young to write, they may dictate their story to an adult or older child.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will write (or dictate) a story about themselves and each will create an art project that is reflective of himself or herself.
Evaluation of Outcome: A story and personal artistic outline is completed by each student.

ACTIVITY: Concentric Circles

Goal: To improve body/kinesthetic, music/rhythmic, and interpersonal intelligences.

Learning Objectives: Children will learn about other students in the class while engaging in a physical activity.
Resources Needed: Concentric Circles sheet (see below), CD/tape player, music.
Instructions:

1. Count students by "2's" and separate them into two circles; the "1's" will make an inner circle and the "2's" will form an outer circle. The two circles should be facing one another.
2. Each student receives the Concentric Circles sheet (see below). This contains a series of questions or sentence starters. For approximately 2 minutes, a pair of students (one from the outer circle, one from the inner circle) will discuss the answers to these questions or sentence starters. An example is "The best movie I ever saw was . . ."
3. After 2 minutes, the teacher/leader will say "Dance – Outer Circle!" and will play music on a CD player (preferably upbeat). The outer circle will dance as they move around the inner circle. When the music stops, students will have a new partner.
4. On the next round, the inner circle should dance and move until the music stops.

Time Needed: Half hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about classmates as they are physically active and dance in rhythm to played music.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students follow directions, move when music is played, and interact with partners in a positive way.
Remarks: If you have wide range of ages in your program or classroom, a helpful technique is to have the inner circle be composed of older children who read the sentence starters and questions to the younger children.

Concentric Circles Sentence Starters:

1. One of my favorite toys is . . . because . . .
2. One of my favorite games is . . . because . . .
3. One of the best movies I ever saw was . . . because . . .
4. When I'm happy I like to . . .
5. One of my hopes and dreams is . . .
6. My favorite book is . . .
7. My favorite TV show is . . .
8. My favorite subject in school is . . .
9. I am scared when . . .
10. I am sad when . . .
11. I am happy when . . .
12. I am mad when . . .

13. When I grow up I want to be . . .
14. My favorite thing to do on a Saturday is . . .
15. My favorite holiday is . . . because . . .

SEPTEMBER – Theme #2 – Autumn

ACTIVITY: Fall Leaf Watercolors

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and naturalistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: This is a two-part lesson that connects the natural world, science, and art. Children will learn about why and how leaves change color in the fall and then create their own beautifully colored leaves.
Resources Needed: Leaves, pencils, heavy white construction paper ($12'' \times 18''$), watercolor markers, brushes, water, markers, chalk, tempera paint.
Instructions: Session 1: Nature Walk and Collecting Leaves

1. Students will take a "nature walk" around your program site or, if possible, in a local park or wooded area that has trees. Tell them to collect a variety of fallen leaves; encourage them to search for different colors and shapes of leaves.
2. After the nature walk, teach children about how and why leaves change color in the fall.
3. Have children identify the different types of leaves they find. A great Web site to find this information is http://forestry.about.com/library/treekey/bltree_key_id_start.htm.

Session 2: Art Project

4. Have children trace 7–9 leaves on the $12'' \times 18''$ white paper.
5. Using watercolor markers, outline with a THICK line the inside of each leaf. Stress to children that this line must be thick!
6. Using watercolor markers, add "veins" and details to the inside of each leaf.
7. When all the leaves are colored in, dip the brush into water and spread over the watercolor marker line. The marker will spread and create different shades and "values."
8. Children can then add color to the background of the paper, behind the leaves, using markers, chalk, or tempera paint.

Time Needed: Two sessions at 1 hour each.
Staffing Assigned: 3 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will be able to describe why and how leaves change color in the fall, will learn about watercolors, and will be able to identify different types of leaves and the trees they come from.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students complete the project and can answer questions, at the end of the two-part lesson, regarding fall foliage and why leaves change color.

Remarks: If you live in an area where there is not an abundance of fallen leaves, you can use patterns of various leaves.

SEPTEMBER – Theme #2 – Autumn

ACTIVITY: Wheelbarrow Race

Goal: To improve body/kinesthetic and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: This is a great activity to promote strength, coordination, and physical fitness.
Resources Needed: Markers (cones, towels, etc.) to designate the start and finish lines.
Instructions:

1. Using markers (cones, towels, etc.) designate a starting line and a finish line 15 feet to 30 feet apart.
2. At the starting line, one person from each pair gets down on her hands and knees and lifts her feet off the ground so her partner can pick up her ankles.
3. When the race starts, the partner on the ground begins "running" on her hands while the partner holds up her ankles.
4. The first team to cross the finish line wins!
5. NOTE – Make sure that the partner who is standing does not push his or her teammate too quickly or too hard. Nobody wants to land face first in the grass!

Time Needed: 20–30 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will work together to "wheelbarrow" to the finish line; both partners will get a chance to be the standing person and the wheelbarrow.
Evaluation of Outcome: All children get a chance to participate and are able to reach the finish line.
Remarks: Choosing partners and teams is often the most difficult part of physical education activities. It's usually a bad idea to have captains pick sides as it just causes spite and hurt feelings, even among mature youth. For ideas on ways to choose teams during your recreation period/physical education games. see Choosing Teams (below).

Ways to Choose Teams

- Biggest shoe sizes versus smallest
- Birth month, starting with January
- Eye color
- First name alphabetically
- Hair color

- Last name alphabetically
- Long hair against short hair
- Tallest – shortest on one team, next tallest – next shortest on the other, and so forth
- White socks versus colored socks

SEPTEMBER – Theme #2 – Autumn

ACTIVITY: Pumpkin Caroling

Goal: To improve musical/rhythmic and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work in pairs or small groups to rewrite and perform familiar holiday songs with an autumn theme.
Resources Needed: Paper, pencils or markers, CDs or cassettes of familiar holiday songs (if desired).
Instructions:

1. Divide children into pairs or small groups.
2. Brainstorm familiar holiday songs (i.e., Jingle Bells, Dreidel, Frosty the Snowman, etc.),
3. Tell children their challenge is to create a "Pumpkin Carol"; choose a familiar holiday carol and make up new words and verses to go along with it.
4. Have children perform their carols for the rest of the class.
5. Stress that each groups needs to be respected and praised after they perform by the rest of the class.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will be able to work together to write and perform a "pumpkin carol." The carol will be set to the tune of a familiar holiday song but will have an autumn theme.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children write the carol down (by themselves or with the help of an older child or adult) and perform it.

SEPTEMBER – Theme #2 – Autumn

ACTIVITY: A Tale of Changing Seasons

Goal: To improve the verbal/linguistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Students will read and learn about Greek mythology and then write and create their own myth.
Resources Needed: Paper, pencils, markers, crayons, Internet access, books about mythology.

Instructions:

1. Ask students why the seasons change. (Earth is tilted away from the Sun, and as it moves around the Sun, different regions receive more or less heat and sunlight.)
2. Tell students that before people had science and technology to understand the relationship between the Sun and Earth, they created stories to explain why the seasons change.
3. Share with the students the Greek story of Hades and Persephone (see below).
4. Tell students they are going to create their own myths about changing seasons. Their stories can be funny or serious. Students can set their stories in a mythological setting or in the present day.
5. Students can illustrate their myths and place the illustrations around the room. Students may also read their myths aloud to the rest of the class.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Students will gain knowledge about what a myth is, they will learn about the story of Hades and Persephone, and they will write their own myth about why the seasons change.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children can answer questions, at the end of the lesson, about myths and Greek mythology. They complete their myths and produce illustrations to go along with them.
Remarks: This activity is most effective with older school-age children (grades 3–5). Children in the lower grades (K–2) should be given the option of drawing pictures and/or dictating stories to an adult or older child of an imaginary reason why the seasons change. Also, you may want to substitute the story of Hades and Persephone with stories from Native American or other groups.

The Story of Hades and Persephone
According to an ancient Greek myth, Persephone was the daughter of Demeter, the goddess of the harvest. Hades, the god of the underworld, fell in love with Persephone and carried her off to his kingdom to be his wife. Demeter searched everywhere for her daughter. Finally, Zeus, the king of the gods, told Demeter where Persephone was. It was decided that Persephone would live with Hades for half the year and with her mother for the other half. During the time that Persephone lived in the underworld, Demeter was so unhappy that all the plants withered and died. But when Persephone returned each year, Demeter rejoiced and plants could grow again. According to the myth, this is the reason for summer, fall, winter, and spring.

OCTOBER

October – Theme #1 – Discovery and Exploration

ACTIVITY: Message in a Bottle

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will create and write an imaginary tale of travel and adventure.
Resources Needed: Maps of the world, atlases, plastic water bottles/soda bottles with caps (one per child), water table or large basin.
Instructions:

1. Tell children that each of them is going to write a tale about an imaginary trip or adventure that has left him or her stranded on a desert island. Explain that the only chance for rescue is to write a message, put it in a bottle, and put the bottle in the water, with the hope that someone will find it.
2. Brainstorm with the children the kind of information they should include in their tales (i.e., who they are, where they were going, where they came from, how they were traveling, where they are, and how they are surviving). Record suggestions on the board or on chart paper.
3. When children are ready to begin writing, make maps or atlases available to them. They can refer to maps as they plan their trips or find the names of places they would like to include in their tales.
4. When they have finished, have them place their tales into bottles (one-half liter water bottles work well) and set the bottles afloat in a container with water.
5. Have each student fish a bottle (not his or her own) out of the water and read aloud the tale within.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will be able to create imaginary tales about where they have traveled and where and how they were stranded on a desert island. Children will also read another student's tale.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students' tales are complete and include "who, what, when, where, why, and how." Students also read another child's imaginary tale.
Remarks: Younger children should dictate their stories to older children or adults OR they can draw pictures to reflect their imaginary adventure.

October – Theme #1 – Discovery and Exploration

ACTIVITY: Make a Compass

Goal: To improve the logical/mathematical intelligence.

Learning Objectives: Children will create compasses using everyday items.
Resources Needed: 1 clear plastic cup, pencil, bar magnet, thread, needle or small nail.
Instructions:

1. Stroke one end of the magnet along the needle (or small nail), about 30 times in the same direction. Test to see if the needle or nail has become magnetized by picking up the pin.
2. Tie one end of a piece of thread to the center of your magnetized needle. Tie the other end of the thread to a pencil. Place the pencil on the rim of the cup with the needle hanging down into the cup.
3. Place the completed compass on a table. Once the needle comes to rest, the thickest end of the needle will point north. Move the cup compass to other areas on the table and watch the needle come to rest and point north.
4. For more information on how compasses work, the following link will be helpful: www.howstuffworks.com/compass.htm.
5. Discuss with children how compasses work and how they helped explorers (i.e., Christopher Columbus) and people today. What would we do without compasses?

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Students will learn about how compasses work and how they helped (and still help) explorers.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create compasses and can then discuss how they work.

October – Theme #1 – Discovery and Exploration

ACTIVITY: Compass Tag

Goal: To improve logical/mathematical, body/kinesthetic, and naturalistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will play a game using the cardinal directions (North, South, East, and West) to locate different objects around a room.
Resources Needed: Ten or more pairs of everyday, easily recognizable objects, signs saying North, South, East, and West, compass.
Instructions:

1. Introduce the concept of cardinal directions and the compass and help the children locate where North is. Let as many children as possible take turns doing so.
2. When the children can easily identify North by pointing in that direction, review how they can find other directions when they know where North is. Have them hold direction signs and

stand in the correct place in relation to North. They will need to know these concepts: South is opposite North; East is opposite West.
3. To play Compass Tag, place direction signs and pairs of similar objects in different parts of the room. For example, place one board eraser in the North, another in the East. Then ask a player to tag one of them by saying: "Find the eraser in the East." The player must move to the correct eraser and tag it. Continue until every child has had at least one turn and do this for a variety of objects.
4. After children get used to this game, move the game outdoors and have students again locate north on their compass.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Students learn the cardinal directions, how to find "North" on a compass, and how to follow the cardinal directions (in relation to North) to find various objects around a room.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students are able to locate objects after directions are given.

October – Theme #1 – Discovery and Exploration

ACTIVITY: Fruit Basket – Discovering One Another

Goal: To improve body/kinesthetic and interpersonal intelligence.
Learning Objectives: This is a good game because players have to observe and discover other players' physical attributes carefully or learn something else about them. It promotes listening skills and is a physical activity.
Resources Needed: Chairs.
Instructions:

1. Place chairs in a circle in an open area (can be inside or outside). You need one fewer chair than there are players.
2. Everyone sits in a chair, except the person selected to be the caller for the first round. He or she makes a remark that describes at least two players in the group such as, "I'm grateful for people with brown eyes." Everyone with brown eyes stands and changes places.
3. While everyone's scurrying for a chair, an adult takes one away.
4. The person left standing is out.
5. Repeat until there is only one person remaining, who becomes the caller for the next round.
6. If children are very small, you might want to make an adult the caller.

Time Needed: 30 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 2–3 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will listen to the fruit basket statements the caller makes, will follow directions, and will participate in the game.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students observe one another and themselves, can identify characteristics in themselves and others as they are called, and complete several rounds of the game.

October – Theme #2 – Halloween

There seems to be an endless amount of activities that can be used at Halloween! Included here are just a few of the tricks and treats you can scare up at your program.

ACTIVITY: Jack-O-Lantern Cookies

Goal: To improve logical/mathematical and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Students will work together to follow a recipe, measure ingredients, bake, and decorate cookies.
Resources Needed: 6 ounces softened butter; 3 ounces soft brown sugar; ½ tin apple-pie filling; 1 egg yolk; 1 teaspoon vanilla essence; zest of an orange; 12 ounces self-raising flour; ½ teaspoon ground cinnamon; ½ teaspoon ground nutmeg; 2 ounces dried apricots for decorating.
Instructions:

1. Preheat oven or toaster oven to 375°F.
2. Cream the butter and brown sugar together. Add the apple pie filling, egg yolk, vanilla essence and the orange zest. Mix thoroughly and set aside. In a separate bowl, combine the flour, cinnamon and nutmeg.
3. Gradually add the dry mixture to the wet mixture and stir until mixed. Place the cookie mix in a sealed plastic container and leave in the fridge for 30 minutes.
4. Remove the cookie mix and roll out the dough into a thickness of about 3/8 in. Cut using a cooking cutter. Make a jack-o-lantern face by pushing chopped apricot into the uncooked dough. Bake for about 10–15 minutes and leave to cool on a rack.

Time Needed: 1 hour total.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for 5–6 children (cooking activities work best with very low adult to student ratios).
Outcome Expected: Children will successfully prepare and bake cookies.
Evaluation of Outcome: Cookies were prepared, children interacted in a positive manner, and cleaned the work area after cooking. Oh, and the eaten cookies tasted good!

October – Theme #2 – Halloween

ACTIVITY: Web Weaving

Goal: To improve body/kinesthetic and interpersonal intelligence.
Learning Objectives: This physical activity is a good icebreaker for children of all ages. Teamwork and hand–eye coordination are required in this activity.
Resources Needed: Balls of yarn (one for each student). You may want to check local yarn and/or craft stores for remnants or see if parents/other volunteers have extra yarn they would like to donate.
Instructions:

1. Students should stand in a circle about 7–10 feet in diameter.
2. Give everyone a small ball of yarn, which each child should tie around his or her waist.
3. To start the game shout "My, Oh my, it's a fly! Start spinning!" Each player should then toss the ball of yarn to another child (except their immediate neighbors).
4. Upon catching the yarn, the child again loops it around his or her waist. Once everyone is ready, choose a child to shout the fly rhyme again and throw the balls a second time.
5. Repeat this about 10–12 times and the whole group will be tied up in a complex spider's web. When the game finishes, the first player to get themselves untangled (without using scissors!) is the winner.
6. **DO NOT ALLOW THE WEB TO GO AROUND THE PLAYERS' NECKS AS THIS COULD CAUSE SERIOUS INJURY.**

Time Needed: 30 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will work together to create a "spider's web" and then improve physical dexterity by trying to untangle themselves.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each child is able to untangle himself from the "web."

October – Theme #2 – Halloween

ACTIVITY: Halloween Art and Dance

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and music/rhythmic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will listen to different Classical Music For Halloween (for ideas on music, see below) and will dance and create art reflective of that music.
Resources Needed: Classical Music for Halloween (see the list below), scarves, paper, paint, paintbrushes, CD or cassette player.
Instructions:

1. Play different pieces of classical music that are reflective of the darkness often found at Halloween.

2. First, give children different pieces of orange, black, purple, and green fabric and encourage them to move with the music. This should be done in an open area.
3. Discuss with them how the music feels, what it reminds them of, what they picture when they hear it.
4. Move to an area where children can paint and create artwork. Have different color paper, paints and brushes out on the table. Play the music again and tell the children to "feel the music" and create a painting that shows how they feel when they hear it.
5. Have children share their paintings, what they are about, and how they felt as they painted them.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 3 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will dance and paint while listening to classical music that is Halloween-themed.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students discuss how they felt, why they moved the way they did, and why they painted what they did while they were listening to the "Classical Halloween Music".

Classical Halloween Music Suggestions

- Bach – *Toccata and Fugue in D Minor*
- Grieg – *In the Hall of the Mountain King*
- Brahms – *Piano Quintet in G Minor*
- Mozart – *Requiem "Dies Irae"*
- Ives – *Robert Browning Overture*

October – Theme #2 – Halloween

ACTIVITY: Halloween Role-Playing

Goal: To improve intrapersonal and verbal/linguistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children improvise scenes in small groups to create characters from a box of Halloween costumes and props. Verbal/linguistic skills are improved as children write down their scenes.
Resources Needed: Box, Halloween-themed costumes and props, paper, pencil.
Instructions:

1. Set out a box of several Halloween-themed costumes and props.
2. Ask children to take turns choosing one item each. In pairs or small groups, create and then perform a short skit using the costumes and props.
3. Encourage the students to use the items to create a "character."

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Students will improvise a skit based on a prop and/or costume chosen from a box.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students write down and perform their skit in pairs or small groups.

NOVEMBER

November – Theme #1 – Celebrate Reading!

Celebrate Reading is a great theme to use in your after-school program because the third week in November is National Children's Book Week. The possibilities for integrating books and literature with cross-curricular activities are endless! Below are four examples.

ACTIVITY: Stone Soup

Goal: To improve logical/mathematical, interpersonal, and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will improve reading skills by reading Stone Soup by Marcia Brown, will work together to follow a recipe and create a soup for the entire group to enjoy.
Resources Needed: Stone Soup by Marcia Brown, 3–4 cans vegetable broth, 6 red potatoes (cut in slices about ¼″ to ½″ thick), 3 carrots (peeled and sliced), 1 onion (diced), 3 cloves garlic (mashed through a press), 1 stalk celery (sliced), ½ bell pepper (sliced/diced), 1 cup green beans, 1 large tomato (chopped up), ½ cup peas, ½ to 1 cup corn, salt and pepper, small amount of butter or oil for sautéing the veggies, 1 small CLEAN and STERILE stone, shredded parmesan cheese.
Instructions:

1. Have child place a clean stone in a soup pot.
2. Saute the garlic, onion, green pepper, celery, and carrots until the onion is tender. Add chicken broth, potatoes, and squash.
3. Bring to a boil and then add the rest of the ingredients. Cook over medium-low heat until veggies are tender.
4. Scoop out the stone. Serve with parmesan cheese on the top!

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for every 5–6 children.
Outcome Expected: Children will have the opportunity to practice and promote reading skills and will be able to read and follow a recipe to make soup.
Evaluation of Outcome: Adults will lead children in a discussion about what they learned from the book and entire group will enjoy the "Stone Soup" prepared by students.

November – Theme #1 – Celebrate Reading!

ACTIVITY: Where the Wild Things Are

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will improve reading skills and learn about illustration as it relates to Where the Wild Things Are by Maurice Sendak.
Resources Needed: Where the Wild Things Are by Maurice Sendak, shoe box (one per child), clay, colored paper, feathers, glue, paint, paintbrushes, other miscellaneous craft materials (use your imagination!).
Instructions:

1. Read the book aloud and discuss the illustrations together.
2. Use the illustrations of the land of the wild things to create a diorama (a three-dimensional representation of a scene).
3. Tell children that their task is to be illustrators for another scene in Sendak's book. Encourage them to explore their "wild side."

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will understand what illustrations are and how they help us understand the story. Children will create their own "illustrations"/representations of the story in the form of a diorama.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students can articulate what illustrations are and how they help tell a story. Children complete the diorama project.
Remarks: If you are looking for shoe boxes, you might want to call around to local shoe stores; they often have large numbers of shoe boxes they would love for you to take off their hands!

ACTIVITY: Rhyming Good Time

Goal: To improve music/rhythmic and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will improve reading skills and learn about rhyme as it relates to Oh the Thinks You Can Think by Dr. Seuss.
Resources Needed: Oh the Thinks You Can Think by Dr. Seuss, paper, markers, pencils, crayons, popular fairy tale books (optional).
Instructions:

1. Read Oh the Thinks You Can Think by Dr. Seuss aloud. Discuss the concept of rhyming and have children call out words from the text that rhymed.
2. Have children choose a popular fairy tale (i.e., Cinderella, Snow White, Peter Pan) that they know very well. Have them take a scene from the fairy tale and turn it into a 4- to 8-line (depending on the age of the child) rhyming verse.
3. Have children write their verses on a large piece of paper and illustrate them.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will understand what rhyming is and will practice creating their own rhymes.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students can articulate what rhyming is and can recognize when word rhyme are. Children complete their own rhymes.

November – Theme #1 – Celebrate Reading!

ACTIVITY: Bad Day, Better Day

Goal: To improve intrapersonal and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children improve their reading skills by reading Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day by Judith Viorst. Students will also have a discussion about optimism and how to recognize things that make you happy and content and those things you find frustrating and upsetting.
Resources Needed: Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day by Judith Viorst, paper, markers, pencils, crayons, board or chart paper.
Instructions:

1. Read Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day by Judith Viorst aloud. Discuss the concept of rhyming and have children call out words from the text that rhymed.
2. Make a list with the students of all the things that were terrible in the story.
3. Make another list of things that the students think are terrible.
4. Make a third list of things that the students think are good and positive.
5. Discuss the concept of optimism and brainstorm ways children can make their days better.
6. Have children write "letters" to Alexander about how he could have made his day better, using what was discussed in class.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will promote reading skills, understand what "optimism" is, and explore ways that they can make their own "bad days" better.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students write a letter to the character in the book about how he could make his day better.

November – Theme #2 – Thanksgiving

ACTIVITY: Thankful Trees

Goal: To improve interpersonal, intrapersonal, and verbal/linguistic intelligences.

Learning Objectives: Children explore who and what they are thankful for while practicing writing skills.
Resources Needed: Construction paper (red, orange, yellow, brown), pencils, markers, scissors, tape, large rolls of white paper/butcher paper.
Instructions:

1. Have children trace their hands on a piece of construction paper. Paper should be colored like fall leaves (red, orange, yellow, brown).
2. Have children think about what and who they are thankful for and write it down in the fingers of their hand. Tell children to write their own name in the palm of their traced hand. Cut hands out.
3. Encourage children to share what and who they are thankful for. They can cut out and write on as many hands as they would like.
4. As a group, paint a tree trunk and branches on a large piece of white butcher paper. Help one another tape the hands all over the branches of the tree.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will think about what it means to be thankful and who/what they are thankful for. Children will get practice in writing, spelling and verbal skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students discuss what it means to be thankful and who they are thankful for. Students produce "hands" and write at least five people, places, or things they are thankful for.
Variation of this Activity: Another way to get children thinking about what they are thankful for and to promote writing skills is to have them make thank you cards for people they are grateful for. If this is done it is important to first ask the children (1) What does Thanksgiving Day mean to you?; (2) What will you give thanks for on this day?; and similar questions. After they complete cards, they should be involved in the delivery of them.

November – Theme #2 – Thanksgiving

ACTIVITY: Flag Football

Goal: To improve interpersonal and body/kinesthetic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children become more physically fit, learn about teamwork and cooperation, and learn the skills necessary for this game.
Resources Needed: Flags, football, cones or other "markers."
Instructions:

1. Divide children into two teams.
2. The playing field is divided into two equal halves, one for each team.

3. Players on each side work to get the football to the goal line on the opposite side.
4. If a player grabs the flag off an opposing team member's waist, that is where the play stops.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 4–5 adults (or as many as possible to supervise).
Outcome Expected: Children will improve their throwing and running abilities and will work together as a team.
Evaluation of Outcome: All students participate equally. It is important to observe students' progress in terms of participation, throwing, running, stamina, and so forth. **Baseline measurements should be taken at the beginning of the school year if you have regular recreation time.** Observations can be recorded in a notebook or journal by one of the program staff.
Variation: If you do not have flags, you may engage children in "touch football." Just stress to them not to tackle!

November – Theme #2 – Thanksgiving

ACTIVITY: Pinecone Birdfeeders

Goal: To improve naturalistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about the birds that live in their area and will make birdfeeders out of pinecones to show how thankful they are for the earth and the creatures around them.
Resources Needed: Pinecones, peanut butter, string, birdseed, Internet access (for information about birds in your geographic area and migration).
Instructions:

1. Discuss with the children what kinds of birds live in your area in November. A good Web site for this is www.fi.edu/wright/again/wings.avkids.com. Discuss the concept of *migration* with the children.
2. Take pinecones (collect them with the children, if possible) and have each child attach a string to it.
3. Spread peanut butter onto the pinecone and then roll the pinecone in birdseed so it is covered.
4. If you have access to trees, hang the pinecones up and observe what kinds of birds visit the pinecones to feed over the next several days. (If you do not have trees that you can hang them on, send them home with the children and make sure to ask them if they see birds feeding on them.)

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1–2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about birds that live in their area in November, migration, and will appreciate the life around them.

Evaluation of Outcome: Students are able to articulate what migration is, have a general understanding of what types of birds live in their area, and make birdfeeders. They also make observations about whether or not the birds are feeding off their pinecone birdfeeders.

November – Theme #2 – Thanksgiving

ACTIVITY: Apple Pie Sandwiches – Turn a traditional Thanksgiving dish into a fun afterschool snack!

Goal: To improve the logical/mathematical and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work together to follow a recipe, measure ingredients, and prepare a dish. **Requires adult supervision and use of stove.**
Resources Needed: 2 cups diced peeled tart apples, 1 cup water, ½ cup plus 1 tablespoon sugar, 5 teaspoons cornstarch, ½ teaspoon ground cinnamon, ¼ teaspoon ground nutmeg, 2 teaspoons lemon juice, 12 slices day-old bread, 3 eggs, 2/3 cup milk, 2 teaspoons vanilla extract, confectioners' sugar (optional)
Instructions: YIELD: 6 servings

1. In a large saucepan, cook apples and water over medium heat for 10 minutes or until apples are tender. Combine ½ cup sugar, cornstarch, cinnamon, and nutmeg; stir into apple mixture.
2. Bring to a boil; cook and stir for 2 minutes or until thickened. Remove from heat; stir in lemon juice.
3. Spread six slices of break with 1/3 cup filling each; top with remaining bread.
4. In a shallow bowl, beat the eggs, milk, vanilla, and remaining sugar. Dip sandwiches in egg mixture.
5. Cook on a lightly greased hot griddle until golden brown on both sides.
6. Sprinkle with confectioners' sugar if desired.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for every 4–5 children.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn how to measure ingredients, prepare food for a dish, and improve interpersonal/teamwork skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children follow recipe, prepare dish, and share with other children.

DECEMBER

December is an incredibly busy, exciting and often stressful time for children. It is a time of expectation and hope, busyness and bustle. The following activities are based on the "Holiday" theme and include four "Christmas Around the World" activities, two "Hanukkah" activities, and two "Kwanzaa" activities. We urge that while you are doing these activities with your children, you try to keep your center or program site as calm as possible as children are often riled up (and sometimes

cranky!) during this time of year. We hope these activities will help you make it a special, relaxing, AND educational time for the youth you serve.

Christmas Around the World: A great reference for this unit is Christmas Around the World by Mary D. Lankford, Karen Dugan, and Irene Norman.

ACTIVITY: Christmas in Mexico: Poinsettia Pins

Goal: To improve spatial/visual and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: To create a pin in the shape of a poinsettia using a variety of seeds and small objects. Children will learn about "Christmas in Mexico," the history of the poinsettia and its popularity, and improve fine motor skills. (For more information, go to http://holidays.kaboose.com/christmas/traditions/mexico/xmas-around-mexico.html).
Resources Needed: Poster board, glue, pumpkin seeds, navy beans, red paint, safety pins.
Instructions:

1. Cut a 2″ round circle out of poster board.
2. Apply glue on the outside edge (about a ½″ wide) of circle and start gluing pumpkin seeds around edges. Let the seeds hang ½ ″ over the edge and have the pointed side of the pumpkin seed out.
3. Apply more glue and overlap pumpkin seeds over the first row.
4. Repeat step 3 two more times. This will leave a small circle in the middle of the poster board. Let dry for 20 minutes.
5. Paint pumpkin seeds red and let dry.
6. Glue navy beans in the center.
7. Glue a saftey pin on back.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about a holiday tradition from another country and will improve artistic skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce a poinsettia pin that can be given to a friend or family member as a holiday gift.

Christmas Around the World

ACTIVITY: Christmas in Germany: Where the CHRISTMAS TREE Originated

Goal: To improve music/rhythmic and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn the song "Oh Christmas Tree" to improve rhythm and musical skills.
Resources Needed: CD/cassette player, CD/cassette with "Oh Christmas Tree," copies of words to the song.
Instructions:

1. Play rendition of the song "Oh Christmas Tree" or "Oh Tannenbaum."

2. Explain to children that the Christmas tree originated in Germany and that "Tannenbaum" means "tree" in the German language.
3. Words to the song are included below.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn the words to the song "Oh Christmas Tree" and will improve musical skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students perform the song.

O Christmas Tree – English Version	**O Tannenbaum – German Version**
O Christmas Tree, O Christmas tree, How lovely are your branches! In beauty green will always grow Through summer sun and winter snow. O Christmas tree, O Christmas tree, How lovely are your branches!	O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum, wie treu sind deine Blätter! Du grünst nicht nur zur Sommerzeit, Nein auch im Winter, wenn es schneit. O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum, wie treu sind deine Blätter!
O Christmas Tree, O Christmas tree, You are the tree most loved! How often you give us delight In brightly shining Christmas light! O Christmas Tree, O Christmas tree, You are the tree most loved!	O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum! Du kannst mir sehr gefallen! Wie oft hat nicht zur Weihnachtszeit Ein Baum von dir mich hoch erfreut! O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum! Du kannst mir sehr gefallen!
O Christmas Tree, O Christmas tree, Your beauty green will teach me That hope and love will ever be The way to joy and peace for me. O Christmas Tree, O Christmas tree, Your beauty green will teach me.	O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum! Dein Kleid will mich was lehren: Die Hoffnung und Beständigkeit Gibt Trost und Kraft zu jeder Zeit. O Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum! Das soll dein Kleid mich lehren.

Christmas Around the World

ACTIVITY: Christmas in Australia: Pavlova – Traditional Australian Christmas Dessert

Goal: To improve interpersonal and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work together to create a traditional Australian dessert that is served on Christmas Day. Children will follow a recipe, measure ingredients, and work together to prepare the dish.
Resources Needed: 3 egg whites, 1 pinch of salt, $^{3}/_{4}$ cup of sugar, ¼ cup of white sugar, 1 tablespoon of corn flour, 1 teaspoon of lemon juice, ½ pint cream, kiwifruit or strawberries for garnish.
Instructions:

1. Share with the children the following information about Christmas in Australia:

"Christmas takes place on December 25th, which is summertime in Australia. People often spend part of Christmas day with their families at the beach. Christmas dinner is just as likely to be salads, cold meat and seafood as the traditional meal is roast turkey and plum pudding. Children believe that Santa Claus leaves presents for them under the Christmas tree on Christmas Eve. One popular Australian song states that six white boomers, or large kangaroos, pull Santa's sleigh."

2. Share with children that they will be preparing Pavlova:

"The Pavlova is a dessert invented in Australia and named after the great ballet dancer Anna Pavlova. Pavlova is a wonderful summer holiday dessert – and therefore makes a regular appearance on many Australian Christmas menus."

3. To prepare: Preheat the oven or toaster oven to 300°F. Beat the egg whites to a foam, add salt and beat until soft peaks form that fold over when the beater is removed. Slowly beat in the sugar, beating well after each addition. Keep beating until the mixture is stiff and the peaks stand up when the beater is removed. Mix together the white sugar and corn flour. Lightly fold into the meringue with the lemon juice.
4. Line an oven tray with baking paper. Spread the meringue into a circle and pipe a decoration around the edge or swirl with a spoon if desired. Bake in a cool oven or toaster oven (180 degrees) for 2 to 2½ hours. Turn off the heat and leave in the oven overnight to cool.
5. Top with whipped cream and decorate with sliced kiwifruit, sliced strawberries, passion fruit, or just about any tropical fruit, just before serving.

Time Needed: 1 hour for prep; 2 to 2½ hours to cook; overnight to sit in oven or toaster oven.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for every 4–5 children.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about a holiday tradition from another country and will work in teams while improving measuring skills and ability to follow a recipe.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students make traditional Australian dish and can explain ways that Christmas is celebrated differently in Australia.

Christmas Around the World

ACTIVITY: HOME for the Holidays: How Do You Celebrate?

Goal: To improve intrapersonal and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will think about and write short reports about what holiday (if any) they celebrate in December.
Resources Needed: Paper, pencils, markers.

Instructions:

1. Talk about what a "tradition" is.
2. Ask children if anyone has any holiday traditions they would like to share with the class.
3. Have children write short reports on their own holiday traditions or celebrations.
4. **Very young children can dictate stories or draw pictures to represent their holiday traditions.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about "traditions" and think about their own holiday traditions. They will improve writing skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce stories about their own holiday traditions.

HANUKKAH

ACTIVITY: Hanukkah: Potato Latkes

Goal: To improve the logical/mathematical and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work together to follow a recipe, measure ingredients, and prepare a dish. **Requires adult supervision and use of stove.**
Resources Needed: 2 potatoes peeled, 1 small onion peeled, 2 eggs, 3 tablespoons milk, 2 tablespoons melted butter, ¼ cup flour, ½ teaspoon salt, black pepper, butter (for frying), sour cream.
Instructions: YIELD: 6 servings

1. Grate potatoes and onions into a medium-sized mixing bowl.
2. In another bowl add eggs, milk, and melted butter and blend. Add flour, salt, and pepper, and proceed to mix.
3. Pour over potatoes and onions and stir to mix.
4. Drop by quarter cupfuls on a prepared griddle or skillet.
5. Spread to make a 4″ pancake.
6. Cook until brown on both sides, turning.
7. Serve with sour cream.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for every 4–5 children.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn how to measure ingredients, prepare food for a dish, and improve interpersonal/teamwork skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children follow recipe, prepare dish, and share with other children.

ACTIVITY: Hanukkah: Making Menorahs

Goal: To improve spatial/visual and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: To learn about the Jewish holiday, Hanukkah; to learn about menorahs and to create one using household items.

Resources Needed: Toilet paper rolls (9 per child), tape or glue, cardboard or wood strips (approximately 2″ to 3″ wide), yellow and orange tissue paper.
Instructions:

1. First, share with children the following passage about Hanukkah:

"Hanukkah (Chanuka) is a Jewish holiday celebrating religious freedom. During this festival, a candle is lit at the end of every day. Traditionally, each candle is placed in a Menorah. The middle candle (the shamash) and one other candle are lit on the first night. The middle candle (or shamash) is then used to light the third candle on the second night, the fourth candle on the third night, the fifth candle on the fourth night, the sixth candle on the fifth night, the seventh candle on the sixth night, the eighth candle on the seventh night and the ninth candle on the eighth night. The eighth night is when all the candles are burning at once."

2. If possible, show children an authentic model of a menorah.
3. To make the menorah: Take 9 cardboard rolls (4 pairs and 1 single). Keep one roll the length that it is and cut the other four down approximately 1½″ shorter. The center roll will be the tallest.
4. Tape (or glue) the tubes to cardboard or wood.
5. Color the menorah using markers or paint.
6. Glue pieces of yellow and orange tissue paper at the ends of the tubes to represent burning flames.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about a holiday tradition and create a piece of artwork representative of that holiday.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce a menorah and can articulate information about its meaning and use during Hanukkah.

KWANZAA

ACTIVITY: Kwanzaa: The Seven Principles

Goal: To improve the verbal/linguistic and visual/spatial intelligence.
Learning Objectives: To learn about Kwanzaa and the seven principles of the holiday. Children will learn the principles in both Swahili and English and use a variety of artistic media to create visual representations of each principle.
Resources Needed: Index cards, container, large construction paper, paint, brushes, markers, collage materials (i.e., magazines, glue, scissors, felt, etc.) tissue paper.
Instructions:

1. First, share with children the following passage about Kwanzaa:

"Kwanzaa is a traditional African festival. In fact, the word Kwanzaa is Swahili for "the first fruit". Kwanzaa is a 7-day festival that begins on the 26th of December and celebrates the ties that bind traditional African customs to the cultural history of African American and Canadians. There are seven principles of Kwanzaa." The seven principles (in both Swahili and English are listed below).

The Seven Principles of Kwanzaa

In Swahili	In English
Umoja	Unity
Kujichagulia	Self-Determination
Ujamma	Cooperation
Ujamma	Sharing
Nia	Purpose
Kuumba	Creativity
Imani	Faith

2. Have a discussion with the group about what each of these seven principles mean. Place index cards that each have a principle written on it in a hat or other container. Make sure there are enough cards for each child in the group.
3. Have each child pull a principle from the hat or container. Using a variety of art supplies (paint, markers, tissue paper, collage items), instruct each child to make a poster that reflects the principle they chose.
4. Hang posters around the room.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about a holiday tradition and create a piece of artwork representative of that holiday.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce a poster that is a representation of one of the seven principles of Kwanzaa.

ACTIVITY: Kwanzaa: Kente Cloth

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Students will learn the history of Ghanaian Kente Cloth and will practice using geometric shapes to design their own Kente Cloth shapes.
Resources Needed: Items for demonstration and resources regarding Kente cloth, 18 × 4 strips of heavy white paper, pencils, rulers, tempera paint (red, green, blue, black, and yellow), paintbrushes, water cups, paper towels, black markers (optional).
Instructions:

1. Using dictionaries, encyclopedias, and/or the Internet, have children define and research: ***Kente; Ghana; Geometric***.

2. If possible, have items for demonstration (i.e., Kente strips and fabrics, pictures). *A great Web site for resources and information:* http://www.si.edu/nmafa/exhibits/kente/strips.htm.
3. Direct students to design geometric patterns of stripes, squares, diamonds, triangles, and so forth, on paper strips.
4. Pass out trays of paint, brushes, water cups, and paper towels. Have children paint the shapes. When the strips are dry, it is sometimes very effective to use a black marker to outline the shapes and stripes to give the strips an embroidered look.
5. Have children help to display the strips on a black paper–covered bulletin board (or wall) with posters informing the viewer of the history of Kente cloth.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about a historic tradition and geometric shapes and create a piece of artwork representative of that tradition.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce a representation of Kente cloth; the representation includes geometric shapes. Students can articulate the history and meaning of Kente cloth.

JANUARY

January – Theme #1 – Art Appreciation

The following activities involve learning about influential artists and engaging in art activities that use techniques similar to those of the "masters."

ACTIVITY: Art Appreciation: Expressionism and Self-Portraits

Goal: To improve spatial/visual and intrapersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Students will demonstrate an understanding of expressionism* by creating a self-portrait that inspires a mood or feeling. Children will also gain practice in using chalk pastels.
Resources Needed: 16″ × 12″ black (high quality) construction paper, white chalk, assorted chalk pastels.
Instructions:

1. Give students information on artists who were considered Expressionists (Van Gogh, Edvard Munch, Emil Nolde, Der Blaue Reiter).* If possible, use reproductions and/or slides to demonstrate the use of distortion and color to evoke emotions.
2. Assign each student a partner. As one partner makes a face that portrays a certain emotion, the other partner quickly draws him or her with white chalk on black paper. ***Emphasize that this should not be a realistic drawing.*** Use simple lines and large shapes. Try to capture the expression. Make sure the picture fills the page and extends to the bottom.

3. Use pastels to color in the portrait. Use fingertips to blend. Talk about using colors in unusual ways to create a mood.
4. Spray with fixative or hairspray to set the pastel.

**For information on expressionism you might find this Web site helpful:* www.artteacherconnection.com/pages/ffamousartists.htm.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about expressionism and the artists associated with this movement. They will practice using color to portray mood and feeling.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce a self-portrait, using chalk pastels, that conveys a feeling or mood. Students can articulate information about expressionism and about how color can be used to show different feelings.

January – Theme #1 – Art Appreciation

ACTIVITY: Art Appreciation: Abstract Art – Line, Shape, and Color

Goal: To improve spatial/visual and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Students will define and create an Abstract piece of artwork. In doing so, they will also learn about the Abstract artist, Piet Mondrian,* and will review/learn about different geometric shapes and lines.
Resources Needed: Large sheets of white construction paper, glue sticks, scissors, brightly colored construction paper, reproductions/pictures of Mondrian works that depict line, color, and geometric shapes.
Instructions:

1. Discuss the artist Piet Mondrian and how his artwork is considered Abstract* *(art that comes from reality but is not)*.
2. Have children cut strips, rectangles, triangles, and squares out of colored construction paper. Tell them the shapes can be in all shapes, sizes, and widths.
3. Give each child one large sheet of white paper. Discuss how Piet Mondrian used straight and angular lines and geometric (rectangle and square) shapes to create art. Have children glue their shapes on the white paper to create an Abstract work of art.

**For information on Abstract art, you might find this Web site helpful:* wwar.com/masters/movements/abstract_art.html.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about Abstract art and the artist(s) associated with this movement. They will practice drawing, cutting out, and using geometric shapes to create their own piece of Abstract art.

Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce a Mondrian-style print, using geometric shapes. Children can articulate information about Abstract art, Piet Mondrian, and different geometric shapes.

January – Theme #1 – Art Appreciation

ACTIVITY: Art Appreciation: Impressionism and Monet's Garden

Goal: To improve spatial/visual and naturalistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Students will learn about Claude Monet and Impressionism, will develop ability to use different art materials, will observe a natural setting in the world around them, and will practice mixing colors.
Resources Needed: White heavy stock poster board $10'' \times 10''$ or larger, masking tape, scissors, sponges cut into small pieces, tempera paint (green, yellow, blue, pink, purple, white), paper plates for palettes, visuals or reproductions of Monet's artwork (i.e., Waterlilies and Japanese Bridge or Garden at Giverny), Linnea in Monet's Garden by Christina Bjork.
Instructions:

1. Read Linnea in Monet's Garden by Christina Bjork.
2. Show students Monet's paintings and emphasize how they look fuzzy up close but realistic from a distance. Discuss Impressionism* and explain that the students are going to paint an Impressionistic garden.
3. Have children use masking tape to create items in their garden (i.e., Trellis, bridge, bench, etc.). Tape should be placed directly on the paper.
4. Using sponges, create sky, grass, water, trees, flowers, and so forth, by dabbing the colors on the paper.
5. Encourage children to experiment mixing SMALL amounts of color on their palettes. Discuss with them what colors are produced.
6. Tell children to be sure to paint over the tape, too. No white paper should show. When paint is dry, carefully remove tape.
7. It will appear that objects are painted in white and a garden blooms around it! From far away the painting will appear more realistic; close-up it will appear as splotches of paint.
8. **Variation:** If possible, take children to a local park, garden, or wooded area and have them create Impressionistic artwork based on their observations.

**For information on Impressionism you might find this Web site helpful:* www.theartgallery.com.au/kidsart/learn/impressionism/.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.

Outcome Expected: Children will learn about Impressionism and the artist(s) associated with this movement. They will practice using paint and the technique of sponging and negative space to create their own garden artwork.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce an impressionist-inspired picture of a garden, using sponges and tempera paint. Students can articulate information about Impressionism and about how dabs of paint can be used to create natural scenes.

January – Theme #1 – Art Appreciation

ACTIVITY: Art Appreciation: POP Art and Andy Warhol

Goal: To improve spatial/visual and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Students will gain an understanding of Andy Warhol's work and the origins of Pop Art. Students will also learn techniques in the correct placement of facial features.
Resources Needed: Visuals of Andy Warhol's work, $6'' \times 6''$ drawing paper, pencils, mirrors, crayons, glue, $18'' \times 24''$ black construction paper, black markers.
Instructions:

1. Introduce Andy Warhol to the class. If possible, have reproductions of his work to show the students. Explain the term "Pop Art" and how the term applies to Warhol's work. Also point out the use of repetition in Warhol's work.
2. Explain to the students that they will be creating self-portraits, but using Warhol's sense of color and use of repetition. Each student should have a mirror (a picture of them will work also) before working and remind them to use it. Give each student a sheet of $6'' \times 6''$ white drawing paper. Each student should then draw his or her face. Remind the students to keep it simple and not to add to much detail. When each student has finished, they are to outline their drawing in black marker.
3. Before the next class, photocopy each student's portrait 6 times. This is the repetition part of the lesson.
4. Begin class recapping the day before and talk about Warhol's use of repetition. Hand each student their drawing and 6 photocopies. Have students color each portrait using 3 colors. They are to color each section of the portrait (hair, face, shoulders, and background) a solid color. Encourage them to use a color combination once. They can use the same colors again, but not the same combination. Tell students to keep their portraits as bright and colorful as possible.
5. Once the students have finished coloring each portrait, they are to cut them out. They should be cut out to their original

6″ × 6″ size. Give each student a sheet of 18″ × 24″ black construction paper. The students are to arrange and then glue their 6 portraits to the black paper. This should be done horizontally.

**For information on Pop art you will find this Web site helpful:* www.artchive.com/artchive/pop_art.html.

Time Needed: Two class sessions; 1 hour each.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about Pop Art and Andy Warhol. They will learn about how Warhol used repetition in his work and will then make self-portraits using this technique.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students produce a Pop Art–inspired self-portrait using the technique of repetition. Students can articulate information about Pop Art and Andy Warhol and how he used repetition in his artwork.

January – Theme #2 – Martin Luther King Jr.: Creating a Peaceful World

ACTIVITY: A Box of Crayons

Goal: To improve interpersonal and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about diversity and how it is our "special" and individual characteristics that make life so interesting.
Resources Needed: "A Box of Crayons," The Crayon Box That Talked by Shane DeRolf, crayon pattern (see link below), scissors, construction paper, crayons, pencils, markers.
Instructions:

1. Read the poem "A Box of Crayons" (*below*) and the book The Crayon Box That Talked by Shane DeRolf. Discuss with children the meaning behind the poem and book; they are about the different colors getting along and appreciating their differences.
2. Have children decorate crayons cut out of a pattern on heavy cardstock. *For the link to this pattern:* http://www.kinderart.com/multic/mlkjr_crayons.shtml.
3. Have children help place all of the crayons into a giant "box of crayons" that adults/older children can create using construction paper or rolls of paper.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will gain understanding about diversity and appreciate what makes each of them unique.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students decorate a crayon that is reflective of them and work together to display these crayons in a designated area.

Box of Crayons Poem

Wouldn't it be terrible? Wouldn't it be sad?
If just one single color was the color that we had?
If everything was purple? Or red? Or blue? Or green?
If yellow, pink, or orange was all that could be seen?
Can you just imagine how dull world would be
If just one single color was all we got to see?

January – Theme #2 – Martin Luther King Jr.: Creating a Peaceful World

ACTIVITY: I Have a Dream

Goal: To improve intrapersonal and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will listen to (or read) the historic speech made by Martin Luther King Jr., will reflect on what it means, and will engage in a writing project to help them identify their own dreams.
Resources Needed: Recording or written copies of Marin Luther King Jr.'s historic speech, *I Have a Dream,* construction paper (blue and white), pencils, markers.
Instructions:

1. Have students listen to or read Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.'s historic address to civil rights marchers that took place on August 28, 1963, at the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C. *For an excerpt from this speech, see below*.
2. Talk with students about Dr. King's dream for the future. Ask them to think about their own dreams for the future.
3. Have each student draw an outline of a cloud, and inside the cloud, write a sentence or two that tells about one of the student's hopes and dreams.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will gain exposure to Dr. King Jr.'s speech, *I Have a Dream*, and will consider their own hopes and dreams for the future. They will practice their writing skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create "clouds" with their own dreams on them. Students can articulate information about Martin Luther King Jr., what he believed in, and his historic speech.

Excerpt from Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.'s Speech – I Have a Dream

I have a dream.

I say to you today, my friends, so even though we face the difficulties of today and tomorrow, I still have a dream. It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream.

I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal."

I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character.

I have a dream today.

This will be the day when all of God's children will be able to sing with a new meaning, "My country, 'tis of thee, sweet land of liberty, of thee I sing. Land where my fathers died, land of the pilgrims' pride, from every mountainside, let freedom ring."

And when this happens, When we allow freedom to ring, when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God's children will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old spiritual, "Free at last! free at last! thank God Almighty, we are free at last!"

January – Theme #2 – Martin Luther King Jr.: Creating a Peaceful World

ACTIVITY: Cooperative "Cozy" Meal – Triple Cheese Twists

The following activity combines the cooperation and teamwork Dr. King challenges all people to aspire to with the need for "cozy" comfort food during the chilly winter months!

Goal: To improve the interpersonal and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work together to follow a recipe, measure ingredients, and prepare a dish. **Requires adult supervision and use of stove.**
Resources Needed: 1 package (16 ounces) spiral pasta, 1 small onion (chopped), 1 teaspoon minced garlic, 6 tablespoons butter, 6 tablespoons all-purpose flour, 4 cups milk, 1 can (14½ ounces) vegetable or chicken broth, 1 cup (4 ounces) shredded cheddar cheese, ½ cup shredded Parmesan cheese, ¼ cup bread crumbs, ½ teaspoon Italian seasoning.
Instructions: YIELD: 6–8 servings.

1. Cook pasta according to the package directions.
2. In a large saucepan, sauté onion and garlic in 4 tablespoons butter until tender. Stir in the flour until blended.
3. Gradually add milk and broth. Bring to a boil; cook and stir for 2 minutes or until thickened.
4. Remove from the heat; stir in cheeses until melted.
5. Melt the remaining butter; stir in bread crumbs and Italian seasoning. Drain pasta; toss with cheese sauce.
6. Sprinkle with seasoned bread crumbs.

For an extra "math" lesson, have children figure out how much of each ingredient is required to make enough servings for all the children and adults in the program!

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for every 4–5 children.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn how to measure ingredients, prepare food for a dish, and improve interpersonal/teamwork skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children follow recipe, prepare dish, and share with other children.

January – Theme #2 – Martin Luther King Jr.: Creating a Peaceful World

ACTIVITY: Cooperative Relay Races – "Share-A-Pair Relay Race"

Goal: To improve interpersonal and body/kinesthetic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children work together to reach a common goal while improving physical fitness and dexterity.
Resources Needed: A pair of sweatpants for each pair of players.
Instructions:

1. Mark off a starting line that can accommodate however many pairs you have and a finish line 40–50 yards away.
2. Give each team their pair of sweatpants.
3. Each partner puts one leg into a leg of the sweatpants that they are sharing.
4. On "Go!" each team member puts an arm around the other's shoulders and together they race to the finish line.

Time Needed: 15–30 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will engage in a physical activity that requires teamwork and cooperation.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student participates in the activity.

FEBRUARY

February – Theme #1 – Black History Month

ACTIVITY: Aiming for the Flag – Hank Aaron's Speech

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic and intrapersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: To learn about Hank Aaron, his contributions to Major League Baseball, and his accomplishments. Children will consider what it means to them to "reach for the stars" and will then participate in an activity to improve writing skills.
Resources Needed: Large construction paper, markers, pencils.

Instructions:

1. Discuss with students the contributions Hank Aaron made to Major League Baseball. Tell them that Aaron gave a speech to Congress in 1974 called "Aiming for the Flag."
2. Have students draw an outline of a flag and, inside the flag, write a paragraph that explains Aaron's statement. Have them also include ways in which they "aim for the flag" in their daily lives.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about a speech given by an influential African American, will learn about the contributions of Hank Aaron, and will write about their own goals and dreams.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create a flag with a paragraph about their goals and aspirations. Students can articulate who Hank Aaron was and his contributions to Major League Baseball and the African-American community.
Remarks: This is an activity primarily suited to the upper elementary grades (grades 4–6). A variation would be to discuss the concept of goals with younger children and encourage them to articulate a goal or dream they have for their own lives. They can draw these on flags or dictate stories to older children or adults.

February – Theme #1 – Black History Month

ACTIVITY: Langston Hughes to Maya Angelou – Poetry of Black Americans

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic and intrapersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Students will read or listen to poetry by Langston Hughes and Maya Angelou and will then write their own poems.
Resources Needed: Poems, books, paper, pencils, markers, crayons.
Instructions:

1. Read poems by Langston Hughes and Maya Angelou aloud.
2. Encourage children to write their own poems about freedom, equality, or other subjects that are of interest to them.
3. If possible, have children illustrate their poems.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about influential African-American poets, will recognize and discuss what these poets spoke about in their work, and will gain skill in writing their own poems.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students write their own poems and can articulate information about African-American poets.

Remarks: Langston Hughes and Maya Angelou are only two of the many African-American poets that you might wish to teach children about. The sky's the limit!

February – Theme #1 – Black History Month

ACTIVITY: Musical Art – The Music of Black Americans

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and musical/rhythmic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: To learn about and listen to the music of influential African-American musicians and create artwork based on how children feel while listening to the music.
Resources Needed: Music by African-American artists.
Instructions:

1. Play music for children.
2. Give them large pieces of construction paper, paintbrushes, and paint.
3. Have children listen to the music again and, this time, think about how they feel or thoughts they have while they listen to the music. Instruct children to paint their paper while listening to the music.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about influential African-American musicians, will listen to their music, and will create expressive art while listening to the pieces.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create artwork and can articulate information about African-American musicians.

February – Theme #1 – Black History Month

ACTIVITY: Mancala

Goal: To improve logical/mathematical, visual/spatial and interpersonal intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Students will create their own Mancala game (a game that originated in Africa) and improve teamwork and interpersonal skills by playing the game.
Resources Needed: 1 cardboard egg carton, 2 plastic butter dishes, 1 large piece of cardboard that can hold the items above, lots of marbles, buttons, beans, glue, scissors, paint.
Instructions: Making the Game

1. Take the egg carton and cut it in half so you have 12 little containers.

2. Then take the cardboard and on one end place (do not glue yet) one butter dish and place the other butter dish on the other side.
3. The egg carton should fit between the butter dishes.
4. Paint everything from the cardboard to the dishes.
5. Now you are ready to play.

Playing the Game

1. Sit across from your opponent and place game between the two of you so that your collection box (the butter dish) is to your right and your opponent's box is to your left.
2. Fill each egg carton bin with 4 tokens such as marbles, buttons, or beans.
3. The object is to collect the most tokens in your collection box.
4. The youngest player can go first.
5. Play begins by picking up all tokens in any one bin on your side of the game, which is the row facing you.
6. Place a token in the bin to the right of the empty bin and continue dropping tokens one by one counterclockwise.
7. If you reach your collection box, drop a token in the box and continue to your opponent's side until all tokens in your hand are distributed.
8. Do not drop a token in your opponent's box.
9. Gain an extra turn when the last token ends in your box.
10. If the last token lands on your side of the game, take all of your opponent's tokens from his bin opposite that empty bin.
11. Place them in your box.
12. Your opponent resumes play.
13. When bins from one side of the game are empty, the game stops. Count tokens in boxes.

For information on the history of Mancala you might find this Web site helpful: www.game-club.com/cover1/mankrule.htm.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will improve their teamwork skills, will learn how to play Mancala and some of the strategies associated with it.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students make their own Mancala game, play the game with another student, and can discuss the history of the game.

February – Theme #2 – Friendship

ACTIVITY: Cooperative Tag Game – "Chain Tag"

Goal: To improve interpersonal and body/kinesthetic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children work together to reach a common goal while improving physical fitness and dexterity.

Resources Needed: No equipment needed.
Instructions:

1. When a player is tagged, he or she must join hands with the person who is "It."
2. Play continues in this way until all players have been tagged by any player in the chain and have become part of the chain.
3. The last player tagged becomes "It" for the next round.

Time Needed: 15–30 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will engage in a physical activity that requires teamwork and cooperation.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student participates in the activity.

ACTIVITY: Charlotte's Web – An Example of FRIENDSHIP

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will improve reading and writing skills and discuss friendship after reading passages from Charlotte's Web by E.B. White.
Resources Needed: Charlotte's Web by E.B. White, video of Charlotte's Web (optional), paper, markers.
Instructions:

1. Select passages to read from Charlotte's Web. This is especially effective for younger children. Older children may read longer passages aloud.
2. If desired, watch excerpts from the film. Indeed, this may be a Book Into Film chosen for the week.
3. Discuss the friendship between Charlotte and Wilbur. Discuss what it means to be a friend and how we can be friends to ourselves and one another.
4. Have children write letters to someone who has been a friend to them; make sure they include information about why they consider this person a good friend.

Time Needed: 1 hour to 1 week.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will discuss what it means to be a friend, will discuss aspects of friends such as kindness, sharing, and cooperation, and will write letters to a friend.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students can articulate what it means to be a friend and express this in writing.
Remarks: Children can also act out scenes from Charlotte's Web that exhibit themes of friendship (sharing, kindness, empathy, etc.).

ACTIVITY: Pats on the Back

Goal: To improve interpersonal and verbal/linguistic intelligences.

Learning Objectives: Children give other students in the group "pats on the back." This activity reinforces kindness and gives children a chance to practice writing and verbal skills.
Resources Needed: A sheet of easel paper/poster board for each child, markers, colored pencils, or crayons.
Instructions:

1. Give each student a colored pencil, crayon, or marker and a piece of easel paper.
2. Have them put their name in the upper right hand corner.
3. Each child passes their sheet to the right. Then have each student trace their hand on the piece of easel paper they received and write inside of their hand what they like about the person (that they received the easel paper from).
4. Keep passing the sheets until each student writes on everyone's poster.
5. At the end of the activity, each student receives a poster with lots of "pats on the back."

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children practice writing skills while reinforcing kindness toward others.
Evaluation of Outcome: Every student receives a poster with "pats on the back" at the end of the session.

ACTIVITY: Mosaic Hearts

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about the art techniques of mosaics and collage while creating a project to give to a close friend.
Resources Needed: Posterboard, construction paper, old magazines or catalogs, scissors, glue and/or glue sticks.
Instructions:

1. BASE: Cut a piece of poster board to the size you want to work with (i.e., a square foot piece – $12'' \times 12''$). Draw a heart near the center of your poster board then cut out. Trace around your pattern with pencil onto a larger piece of poster board. Draw four lines from the edge of the heart extended outward to the edge of the poster board to divide the background into four sections.
2. Tear out magazine or catalog pages that have a lot of color. Tear or cut into small squares. Keep the colors separated.
3. MOSAIC: Begin with the background colors first. Using glue or a glue stick, apply squares in a tile fashion. Do this for each section until the background is complete. Once the background colors are in place, fill the heart with red squares.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about collage and mosaics.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create a mosaic-style heart that they can give to a friend or loved one.

MARCH

March – Theme #1 – Music and Instruments

ACTIVITY: Coffee Can Drum

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and music/rhythmic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will create a fun-sounding drum while celebrating the cultures of the world.
Resources Needed: Empty coffee can with a plastic lid, construction paper, glue, scissors, paint or markers, paintbrushes, dowels, string, leather, feathers, beads, any other bits of scrap material you have.
Instructions:

1. Children can either paint the coffee can or cover it with construction paper. Leave the plastic lid on the coffee can.
2. If students cover the coffee can with construction paper, they can paint or draw designs and creatures on the coffee can. If students paint the coffee can, they can glue scrap materials onto the drum. Children will benefit from looking at pictures/reproductions of different kinds of drums and the images found on them.
3. Using wooden dowels, have students drum away on coffee can drum.
4. If possible, have children create their very own "marching band"; play music with different rhythms and instruct them to drum to the beat of the music.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about drumming and different types of drums found in various cultures.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create and drum on a "coffee can drum."

March – Theme #1 – Music and Instruments

ACTIVITY: Didgeridoo

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and music/rhythmic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: A didgeridoo is a long, wooden, trumpet-like instrument used by the Aboriginal people of Australia. Children will learn about what a real didgeridoo is made of (a hollow wooden branch with a beeswax mouthpiece) and create one of their own.

Resources Needed: A length of PVC pipe (like plumbers use) OR two cardboard wrapping paper tubes taped together (for children, a didgeridoo is about 3–4 feet long), paint, markers, paintbrushes, string, leather, feathers, beads, glue, pictures of didgeridoos.

Instructions:

1. If students are using a PVC pipe, be sure to sand both ends of the pipe down so there are no rough edges.
2. Using paint or markers, decorate the didgeridoo using bright exciting colors.
3. Have students glue objects to their didgeridoo.
4. ***Optional:*** If desired, students can make a mouthpiece for their didgeridoo using beeswax. The way this is done is by dipping one end of the pipe or cardboard tube into melted wax, again and again until an almost solid mass of wax with a small opening is built up.
5. Students can also create a mouthpiece for their didgeridoo by rolling a piece of poster paper into a cone and gluing it to the end of the pipe or tube.
6. To play the didgeridoo, instruct children to stand or sit with the instrument straight out in front of them, with one end resting on the ground. Place mouth inside the tube (or on the beeswax mouthpiece) and make a loose motorboat sound with your lips.

Time Needed: 1 hour.

Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.

Outcome Expected: Children will learn about a type of instrument from another culture and create their own.

Evaluation of Outcome: Students create a didgeridoo and can articulate information about its origins and history.

March – Theme #1 – Music and Instruments

ACTIVITY: Musical Art

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and music/rhythmic intelligences.

Learning Objectives: This activity will help students identify the similarities between music and art.

Resources Needed: Large paper ($14'' \times 20''$), various types of music (i.e., classical, pop, country, rock, rap), CD player, pencils, crayons, or markers.

Instructions:

1. Students place the tip of their pencil in the middle of the paper and close their eyes.
2. With their eyes closed, begin playing a song on the CD player.
3. Students then begin moving their pencils on the page to mimic the instruments or rhythms of the music pieces. (i.e., a drum solo might be penciled as a jagged heart rate monitor-like line).

4. Alter the music from style to style while the students keep their eyes shut.
5. Eventually (when most of the page is covered in lines) have students open their eyes and trace (darkly) all the penciled lines with a black marker.
6. Finally, have students color each individual shape (that has been created by the penciled lines) in such a way that none of the same colors are touching each other.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will engage in an activity that connects art and color with music and rhythm.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each child creates a poster and can discuss how they felt while listening to the music and how that was reflected in their projects.

ACTIVITY: Musical Chairs

Goal: To improve the music/rhythmic and body/kinesthetic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children move and dance to different types of music while playing a game.
Resources Needed: Chairs, CD player, different types of music.
Instructions:

1. Put chairs in a circle; there should be one less chair than there are players in the game.
2. When the music plays, children should DANCE around the circle to the beat of the music.
3. When the music stops, children sit in the closest chair. The last person standing is "out" and becomes the person who runs the CD player.

Time Needed: 30–45 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will engage in a physical activity that requires dance and moving in rhythm to music.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student participates in the activity.

March – Theme #2 – Poetry

ACTIVITY: Haiku Straw Painting

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about what haiku poetry is, have the experience of writing a haiku, and create an ink painting to enhance the haiku.
Resources Needed: Haiku poems, straws, white construction paper (heavy), black ink with droppers, pink tissue paper.
Instructions:

1. Tell students about HAIKU poetry.

2. The structure of Japanese Haiku poems:
    - Have 3 lines (in classical structure, the first line has 5 syllables, the second has 7 syllables, the last has 5 again).
    - Refer to nature.
    - Use ordinary things to talk about significant issues like finding happiness in the beauty of nature, dying, falling in love, being left alone, not having friends, and so forth.
    - Can be happy, sad, humorous, frightening.
3. Have student write a Haiku poem.
4. Have student neatly write the poem on the top left corner of the white paper.
5. Drop a few (only a little) drops of black ink on the paper (not where the poem is written.
6. With a straw, blow the ink around. Older students can add "raindrops" by dipping a brush in ink, putting it in water to dilute the ink, holding the brush over the paper, and tapping the brush lightly to make drops.
7. Students can add "flowers" to their ink lines by gluing bits of crumpled pink tissue paper to the branches of the dried painting.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about Haiku poetry and its form and will write their own Haiku poem. Students also create a painting using ink drops.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students write a poem and create a piece of artwork to enhance it.

ACTIVITY: Limericks – This is a great activity to use during St. Patrick's Day!

Goal: To improve the verbal/linguistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn how limericks are composed and will write some of their own!
Resources Needed: Construction paper, markers, pencils.
Instructions:

1. Discuss with children the following information about limericks:

Edward Lear invented limericks; they have 5 lines and rhyme. The first line usually begins There was a young (or an old) man (or woman or boy or girl) of Somewhere. The first line rhymes with the second and fifth lines. The third and fourth lines rhyme with each other and are usually shorter.

2. Have children write their own limericks. Stress to them that they can be humorous!

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children reinforce writing skills learning what a limerick is and writing their own.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student writes a limerick that rhymes and follows the traditional format.

March – Theme #2 – Poetry

ACTIVITY: Poetry Pebbles

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic and naturalistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will search for small stones and pebbles and then paint words onto the pebbles. Children will practice forming poems from the stones.
Resources Needed: Small rocks or pebbles, paintbrushes, magic markers, tempera paint, hairspray or spray varnish, shoebox.
Instructions:

1. Make sure pebbles are clean. Have children paint words onto the pebbles (or use markers).
2. Make sure children choose a number of words including people, places, things, verbs, colors, and so forth.
3. Have children draw punctuation marks on some pebbles as well.
4. Spray pebbles with hairspray or spray varnish to seal. Place into shoebox.
5. Play a game of poetry pebbles. Each player chooses a number of pebbles from the box and tries to come up with a poem or story.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children reinforce writing skills by painting words onto stones and putting them together in poems or short stories. Children also explore the natural world around them as they collect stones and pebbles.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students play games of poetry pebbles and form poems using various words.

ACTIVITY: Poetry Slam – A great group activity that can bridge poetry, dance, and music!

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic, music/rhythmic, and body/kinesthetic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will perform poems that they wrote themselves or that are already published. Poems will be put to a rhythm (much like a rap).

Resources Needed: Paper, pencils, performance area, published poetry, video of a Poetry Slam (optional).
Instructions:

1. If possible, show children video of a Poetry Slam.
2. Tell children that your program is going to put on a Poetry Slam. They may perform poetry that is already published or poetry that they write.
3. If any students are uncomfortable performing, have them write a poem for someone else to perform.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children improve their writing, rhythm/music, and performance skills by participating in a Poetry Slam.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students have the opportunity to write and perform poetry.

APRIL

April – Theme #1 – Oceans

ACTIVITY: Swimmy – Creating Underwater Scenes

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic and visual/spatial intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will read the book Swimmy by Leo Lionni, they will learn about the illustrating style of Lionni, and they will create an underwater scene.
Resources Needed: Large art paper, wax crayons, blue tempera paint, water, big paintbrushes, Swimmy by Leo Lionni.
Instructions:

1. Read the story Swimmy by Leo Lionni.
2. Study and discuss the illustrations with the children.
3. Have children draw fish and underwater detail with wax crayons. Encourage them to draw many fish.
4. Cover the paper with a blue paint wash (watered down tempera paint).

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children learn about Leo Lionni's writing and illustrations and connect what they learn to the creation of an underwater scene.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students can discuss what illustrations are and the style of illustration in Swimmy. Students create a mural that is an underwater scene.

April – Theme #1 – Oceans

ACTIVITY: Swimming Through Space – Fish Mobiles

Goal: To improve verbal/linguistic, visual/spatial and naturalistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will research different types of fish and ocean life and use what they learn to create a mobile.
Resources Needed: Encyclopedias, Internet access (optional) or books about the ocean, heavy construction paper or cardstock, markers, pencils, index cards, string, hangers (two wire hangers for each child).
Instructions:

1. Discuss with children the types of ocean creatures that exist on our planet; have them volunteer information and write it on the board.
2. Have encyclopedias and/or Internet access available to the students. Tell them to choose five sea creatures that they will research.
3. Instruct children to draw, color, and cut out pictures of each sea creature they choose. Color both sides and tape a piece of string onto one of the sides.
4. Have children write some information they researched about each sea creature on an index card. Tape one end of a piece of string to the bottom of the sea creature and tape the other end to the top of the index card.
5. Take two hangers and tape them together with duct tape (so that there are four "arms" to the mobile). Have students tie each of their sea creatures to the mobile so they hang down. Tie one sea creature in the middle of the mobile, where the two hangers meet.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will gain skill in research, writing, and making mobiles.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student makes a mobile that has information about and a picture of at least five sea creatures.

ACTIVITY: Field Trip – Aquarium

Goal: To improve naturalistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will take a visit to an aquarium and have a real-life view of ocean and sea creatures.
Resources Needed: Transportation, admission to the aquarium, snacks/food, first aid kit

Instructions: During and after the field trip, be sure to ask children open-ended questions about what they are seeing and observing. You might want to have students write short reports about what they learned when the trip is over.
Time Needed: 3 hours.
Staffing Assigned: Ratio of 1 adult to 4 students is ideal.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about the ocean and the animals that live in the ocean during an educational field trip to the aquarium.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students participate in the field trip, are able to talk about what they are observing while on the field trip, and can write short reports about what they saw after the field trip.

April – Theme #1 – Oceans

ACTIVITY: Hoppin' H_2O – A Water-Themed Cooperative Game

Goal: To improve body/kinesthetic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will engage in a novel form of jump rope that is a great form of aerobic exercise and also builds confidence and coordination.
Resources Needed: Long jump rope, two small paper cups for each contestant, garden hose, clothes that can get wet or bathing suits, old tennis shoes or water shoes (no flip flops or bare feet).
Instructions:

1. Decide who will turn the jump rope – this person should be good and consistent so each child has a fair turn.
2. Fill the water glasses and decide the jumping order. This should also be fair!
3. One at a time, players attempt three jumps in a row holding two cups of water.
4. Whoever has the most water left in his or her cups when everyone has had a turn wins. Or, you can keep playing until only one contestant has water left in a cup.

Time Needed: 25–45 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will improve balance, dexterity, and coordination. They will also take turns to reinforce sharing and cooperation.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students play this game fairly and HAVE FUN!

April – Theme #2 – Gardening and Spring

ACTIVITY: Plant a Garden

Goal: To improve naturalistic and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children work together to plant a garden. They learn about the different types of plants that can grow in their area, when they will be ready to harvest, and how seeds germinate. An ongoing part of this activity is to make observations of the garden two times per week in a garden journal.

Resources Needed: Soil, seeds or plants, books and/or information about gardening, shovels (if desired), garden journals, rulers (for measuring), small pots (if planting is staying inside).
Instructions:

1. Discuss with children what plants, vegetables, and so forth, can grow in your area. Decide together which ones you would like to plant.
2. If possible, create an actual garden outside and plant seeds.
3. Another alternative is to plant single plants in pots and to keep them inside.
4. Make sure children are involved in the watering and caring for the plants.
5. Have children make observations about the growth of their plants at least two times per week.

Time Needed: 1 hour for lesson and planting; 10 minutes, 2 times per week for observations.
Staffing Assigned: 3 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about gardening, seed germination, and how plants grow. They will also gain skill in making observations and recording data.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student is involved in planting/gardening and makes observations as the plants grow.

April – Theme #2 – Gardening and Spring

ACTIVITY: Egg Relay Race – Perfect at Easter Time!

Goal: To improve body/kinesthetic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children have to cooperate with one another to complete a task. They will also improve their balance and coordination and will get an aerobic workout.
Resources Needed: Eggs, spoons (plastic will work fine).
Instructions:

1. Divide children into small groups or pairs.
2. Give each group or pair an egg and a spoon for each person.
3. When the caller yells "GO!" each person must quickly walk, balancing the egg on their spoon, from one line to the other. When they return to their partner or teammates, they must hand off the egg and the process repeats.
4. If a child drops their egg, they can either go back to the starting line and repeat or pick up the egg and keep racing. (This should be determined by program leaders depending on students' ages and abilities.)
5. NO HANDS ON THE EGGS!!! Remind students to only touch the spoons!

Time Needed: 25–45 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 5–6 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will improve balance, dexterity, and coordination. They will also take turns to reinforce sharing and cooperation.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students play this game fairly and HAVE FUN!

April – Theme #2 – Gardening and Spring

ACTIVITY: Van Gogh's Flowers

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and verbal/linguistic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will create pictures of flowers, using chalk pastels, as they learn about Vincent Van Gogh.
Resources Needed: Pastels, 12″ × 18″ dark, dull construction paper, pencil, paint shirts, fixative (such as hairspray; only adults should use this).
Instructions:

1. Read Camille and the Sunflowers, by Laurence Anholt, to the class. Show the pictures and point out posters/visuals of pictures hung about the room at the appropriate times. Discuss the story and the artist Vincent Van Gogh.
2. Distribute pastels and paper. Have students write their name on the back of the paper in pencil or crayon. Then roll up long sleeves, as pastels can be messy!
3. Place paper vertically on the table. First create large bright sunflowers on the top half of the paper, so as not to smear the pastels. Students choose their own favorite colors, as Vincent didn't always use the "correct" colors, either!
4. After coloring in their own bright sunflowers, have them create a vase below the flowers. This vase may also be colored in. Don't forget to add stems and leaves. Try not to rub arms across the pastels.
5. Collect finished work. Staff member or teacher must use fixative on the work, which is best done outside.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about the Impressionist Vincent Van Gogh as they create artistic pictures of sunflowers. They will gain skill at using pastels and vibrant colors.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create sunflower pictures using pastels and can articulate information about Vincent Van Gogh.

April – Theme #2 – Gardening and Spring

ACTIVITY: Garden Tag

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and verbal/linguistic intelligences.

Learning Objectives: Children will create decorative signs to keep in the garden or in small pots. Tags will have the name and a picture of the plant on the front and a description of the plant on the back.
Resources Needed: Cardboard from a gift box or shirt box (so it has a coating), popsicle sticks, catalogs with flowers or vegetables in them, glue, markers, pens, decoupage.
Instructions:

1. Cut cardboard into $8'' \times 6''$ pieces.
2. Cut flowers or vegetables from a catalog and glue onto the cardboard. Have child write the name of the plant underneath the picture.
3. On the back of the cardboard, have child write short description of the plant. Include information such as: how tall the plant gets; how much sunlight and/or water it needs; when it can be picked, and so forth.
4. Glue a popsicle stick to the back of the cardboard. When the glue is dry, coat the entire tag with decoupage.
5. Stick the tags into the garden or pots!

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about plants, vegetables, and flowers.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student makes at least one tag for the garden.

MAY

May – Theme #1 – Cinco de Mayo

ACTIVITY: Mexican Poncho

Goal: To improve the visual/spatial intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about the Mexican holiday, Cinco de Mayo, and will create a paper bag OR fabric poncho.
Resources Needed: Paper Bag Poncho: Large paper grocery bags, bright markers, paint, crayons, paintbrushes.
Fabric Poncho: Three square feet of blanket, heavy fabric, or old bed sheets, scissors, waterproof fabric markers.
Instructions: Paper Bag Poncho:

1. Cut a hole in a paper bag so the student's head can fit through it and cut slits up both sides of the bag.
2. Decorate the paper bag poncho with brightly colored markers, paints, or crayons.
3. Children can also glue bits of fabric scraps, ribbons, beads, and so forth, onto the paper bag as well.

Fabric Poncho:

1. Fold the fabric in half.
2. Cut a V-shaped slit in the middle of the fold. The slit should be large enough to let the child's head push through it.
3. Cut fringes at the bottom of the poncho.
4. Draw geometric designs on the bottom edge.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about Cinco de Mayo and make a brightly colored poncho to enhance the lesson.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student makes a poncho and can describe why Cinco de Mayo is celebrated.

May – Theme #1 – Cinco de Mayo

ACTIVITY: Mexican Metal Tooling

Goal: To improve the visual/spatial and naturalistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about the art of Mexican metal tooling. Children will also be able to identify different types of metals.
Resources Needed: 36-gauge aluminum-tooling foil or disposable pie pans, tape, wooden clay tools or the ends of wooden paintbrushes, $4'' \times 4''$ paper for rough draft, pencils, permanent markers, wire, beads, a soft, giving work surface (e.g., several layers of paper or a computer mouse pad), map.
Instructions:

1. Show students examples of Mexican metal tooling. Information located at: http://www.directfrommexico.com.
2. Have students locate Mexico on a map. Ask them, "What are some types of metal?" *Examples would be gold, silver, copper, and aluminum*.
3. Continue to ask students, "Why are some metals more expensive than others?" Discuss natural resources and why we should recycle because there is a limited supply of resources on our planet.
4. Demonstrate in front of small groups how to emboss using the tool on a giving surface.
5. Discuss some potential images such as chili peppers, maracas, birds, sunshine, lizards, and sombreros that could be "tooled" onto the metal. Give the students a small piece of paper and a pencil to do their rough draft.
6. Have students use wooden clay tools or the ends of wooden paintbrushes to emboss their design onto the metal and color it

with permanent markers. The following tips are a few things to remember during this activity:

- The design needs to be bold and simple thinking about the elements of art and principles of design.
- Make sure a stack of paper or a magazine is under foil when tooling.
- Either trace the design by putting it on top of the foil or draw it free hand with wooden tool.
- Emboss by rubbing larger areas to make it pushed out on the other side.
- Turn it over and emboss using the other side, also.
- Color the metal by using permanent markers.
- Finish by putting these together as a group project with beads and wire. They can also be finished individually as a small wall hanging.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will be able to identify Mexican tooling art and practice this art form.
Evaluation of Outcome: Each student makes at least one example of Mexican metal tooling art and is able to name different types of metal.

May – Theme #1 – Cinco de Mayo

ACTIVITY: Chili con Carne

Goal: To improve the logical/mathematical and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work together to follow a recipe, measure ingredients, and prepare a dish. **Requires adult supervision and use of stove or microwave and hot plate.**
Resources Needed: 2 cans (15 ounces each) red kidney beans or small red beans, drained, 1 tablespoon vegetable oil, 1 large onion quartered and sliced, 1 green bell pepper chopped, 1 pound ground round, 1 can (14.5 ounces) tomatoes, 1 can mild green chile peppers, 2 teaspoons finely chopped jalapeno chili pepper (optional), 1 can (8 ounces) tomato sauce, 1 tablespoon chili powder, 1½ teaspoons salt, dash cayenne pepper (or to taste), dash ground cloves, 1 small bay leaf
Instructions: YIELD: 6 servings.

1. Prepare beans (unless using canned beans). Rinse dry beans, cover with cold water, and let soak overnight. Drain, transfer to a large saucepan, and cover with fresh water. Cover and simmer for about 1 hour, or until tender. Drain.
2. In a large skillet, brown the onion, pepper, and ground beef in oil.
3. Add the tomatoes, tomato sauce, peppers, and seasonings.

4. Cover and simmer for 1 ½ hours, adding a little water if needed to keep from sticking. Check and stir frequently. Add the cooked or canned beans and heat through.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for every 4–5 children.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn how to measure ingredients, prepare food for a dish, and improve interpersonal/teamwork skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children follow recipe, prepare dish, and share with other children.

May – Theme #1 – Cinco de Mayo

ACTIVITY: Mexican Hat Dance
A Perfect Version for a Children's Cinco de Mayo FIESTA!

Goal: To improve body/kinesthetic and music/rhythmic intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children have to cooperate with one another to participate in a dance. They will improve their dance/rhythmic skills and will get an aerobic workout. This version gives children who are inhibited the chance to dance with a group.
Resources Needed: Construction paper, scissors, markers, recording of the "Mexican Hat Dance" or another festive song from Mexico.
Instructions:

1. Cut a large circle from construction paper and use a marker to draw the features of a Mexican sombrero. Lay the drawing in the center of the floor and ask the children to stand around it.
2. Play the "Mexican Hat Dance" on a recording and have the children move in a circle around the hat.
3. Clap to emphasize the beat of the music and encourage the children to clap along.

Time Needed: 25–45 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 5–6 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will improve coordination and rhythm while participating in a version of this popular Mexican dance. They will also take turns to reinforce sharing and cooperation.
Evaluation of Outcome: All children have the opportunity to participate in an enjoyable dance.

May – Theme #2 – Outer Space

ACTIVITY: Postcards from Outer Space!

Goal: To improve the verbal/linguistic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will write postcards to someone on Earth about what life is like on one of the nine planets. They will include information about items like atmosphere, terrain, "daily life", and so forth.

Resources Needed: Construction paper or cardstock, scissors, pencils, markers, crayons, encyclopedias, Internet access and/or books about the planets.
Instructions:

1. Give children access to encyclopedias, the Internet, or books about the nine planets.
2. Instruct children to choose a planet that interests them.
3. Have students write postcards to someone on Earth about what life is like on that planet.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will practice writing skills as they learn about aspects of the nine planets in our solar system.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students write at least one postcard that contains information about "life" on a planet they are interested in.

May – Theme #2 – Outer Space

ACTIVITY: Orbiting the Sun

Goal: To improve interpersonal and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work together to understand why the planets take different amounts of time to go around the Sun.
Resources Needed: Construction paper, butcher paper, poster board, markers or crayons, large playing area.
Instructions:

1. Make a large yellow sun from butcher paper. Have students make "planets" out of construction paper or poster board; instruct them to color in the planets the same colors that scientists and astronomers believe them to be (i.e., Mars would be colored red).
2. Assign one planet to each student. If there are students left over, tell them that they are astronomers studying the planets.
3. Take the group outside or into a large open area. Have the "Sun" stand in the center. Place the "planets" with their paper representations in the correct order from the Sun with "Pluto" being near the edge of the area. Have the "planets" walk around the Sun.
4. Ask the astronomers to explain what they saw. *(It took some planets longer to go around the Sun than others)*. Ask them why this is true. *(Some planets had to go farther than others.)*
5. Ask students to identify which planet had the shortest trip, the longest, and so forth.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.

Outcome Expected: Students will understand why it takes some planets longer to go around the Sun than others.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students participate in the activity and can answer questions about the different planets orbiting the Sun.

May – Theme #2 – Outer Space

ACTIVITY: Papier-Mâché Planets

Goal: To improve visual/spatial and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about relative sizes and qualities of different planets by making papier-mâché replicas.
Resources Needed: Balloons, newspaper, flour, water, tempera paints, paintbrushes.
Instructions:

1. Help children blow up balloons to sizes relative to the sizes of the planets (i.e., Jupiter would be the largest balloon; Mercury and Pluto would be the smallest).
2. Cut strips of newspaper and mix the papier-mâché solution (flour and water) until it is relatively thick.
3. Instruct children to dip the strips of newspaper into the solution, wiping away any excess with their fingers.
4. Have children lay strips, one on top of the other, onto the balloon until it is covered.
5. On the second day (after the balloons have dried), paint the "planets" their respective colors. Add any details to the planets that are necessary (e.g., the "spot" on Jupiter).

Time Needed: Two sessions at 1 hour each.
Staffing Assigned: 2 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn about the relative sizes and characteristics of different planets in our solar system while practicing the art technique of papier-mâché.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students create an accurately sized and decorated "planet" using papier-mâché and balloons.

May – Theme #2 – Outer Space

ACTIVITY: Out-of-This-World Grilled Cheese

Goal: To improve the logical/mathematical and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will work together to follow a recipe and prepare a dish. **Requires adult supervision and use of stove or toaster oven/hot plate.**
Resources Needed: Bread, butter, cheddar cheese slices, cookie cutters in the shape of stars and moons.

Instructions: YIELD: 12 servings.

1. Spread butter on 24 slices of bread (one side only).
2. Have children place 1–2 slices of cheese in between two slices of buttered bread.
3. Grill the sandwiches until each side is golden brown.
4. Cut star and moon shapes out of the sandwiches using cookie cutters.
5. **Have children make sure there are enough servings for every child in the program; this will require them to count, multiply, and add.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult for every 4–5 children.
Outcome Expected: Children will learn how to measure ingredients, prepare food for a dish, and improve interpersonal/teamwork skills.
Evaluation of Outcome: Children follow recipe, prepare dish, and share with other children.

JUNE

June – Theme #1 – Animals

ACTIVITY: Place Value Snakes

Goal: To improve the visual/spatial and logical/mathematical intelligences.
Learning Objectives: This art project provides students with a creative way to explore place value.
Resources Needed: Egg carton, glue, markers, stapler, small counters of any kind, arts and crafts materials for decorating (i.e., googly eyes, sequins, pipe cleaners, felt, paint).
Instructions:

1. Cut the lid off the egg carton. Cut the base of the egg carton down the middle so there are two rows of six holes.
2. Cut two holes off one end of a row of six. Staple these two holes to the other row, so that you have a row of eight holes.
3. Cut off one more hole from the short row. Glue it on top of the first hole in your long row. This will be the head of the snake. Decorate with eyes and tongue.
4. Label the holes of the snake from “millions” all the way down to “ones” with a marker. If possible, have children decorate the place value snake!
5. Each counter that the student drops into a snake’s hole stands for one unit in that place. For example, two counters in the “tens” hole stands for two tens, or 20.
6. Give students several sample numbers to make with the snakes and counters.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will engage in an art project that will help them explore place value.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students make a "place value snake" and practice placing counters into the various holes to learn about place value.

June – Theme #1 – Animals

ACTIVITY: Duck, Duck, Animal

Goal: To improve the body/kinesthetic intelligence.
Learning Objectives: In this variation of "Duck, Duck, Goose," children play a common game while acting like different animals.
Resources Needed: No supplies needed
Instructions:

1. Have children sit in a circle. One child is "It."
2. He or she walks around the circle saying, "Duck, duck . . ." until they choose a child. When he or she chooses a child, they tap him or her on the head and say (for example) "PIG." The children then run around the circle in the OPPOSITE directions while both act like pigs.
3. The last person to sit down at the missing spot is "It" and the game repeats.

Time Needed: 25–45 minutes.
Staffing Assigned: 5–6 adults.
Outcome Expected: Children will improve coordination and physical fitness. They will also take turns to reinforce sharing and cooperation.
Evaluation of Outcome: All children have the opportunity to participate in the game and try to act like the animals that are called out.

June – Theme #1 – Animals

ACTIVITY: Rainforest Murals

Goal: To improve spatial/visual and interpersonal intelligences.
Learning Objectives: Children will learn about the rainforest and the animals that live in it. Using different art materials, they will create a mural that is a depiction of the rainforest.
Resources Needed: Books, pictures, and information regarding the rainforest, long white art/mural paper, markers, tempera paint, tissue paper, glue.
Instructions:

1. Have books, pictures, and information regarding the rainforest available to students.

2. Discuss with children the different animals that live in the different levels of the rainforest.
3. Spread white art paper over a long table or other large area. Provide children with markers, paint, tissue paper, and so forth. Have them first divide the paper into the 4 levels of the rainforest (*floor, understory, canopy, emergent* layers).
4. Encourage children to draw different animals, birds, and insects in the different layers of the picture.
5. After animals and other creatures are drawn, use paint and tissue paper to fill in the different layers of the rainforest mural.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will create a mural, as a group, that reflects the different layers of the rainforest and the animals that live there.
Evaluation of Outcome: Mural is produced with correct labeling of the different rainforest layers.

June – Theme #1 – Animals

ACTIVITY: Owen & Mzee – Unlikely Friends!

Goal: To improve the verbal/linguistic and interpersonal intelligence.
Learning Objectives: Children will read Owen & Mzee by Craig and Isabella Hatkoff and discuss what it means to be a friend. They will recognize that sometimes even the most UNLIKELY pairs can make the best of friends.
Resources Needed: Owen & Mzee by Craig and Isabella Hatkoff, construction paper, markers, pencils, crayons, Internet access (optional).
Instructions:

1 Read Owen & Mzee by Craig and Isabella Hatkoff to the children. Have a discussion about its themes and underlying principles (i.e., friendship, acceptance, empathy, kindness).
2. Have children think about other animal pairs that would be "unlikely friends."
3. Instruct children to draw these two animals (or find pictures of them on the Internet, if possible) and write a short story about when, how, and why the pair became friends.

Time Needed: 1 hour.
Staffing Assigned: 1 adult.
Outcome Expected: Children will practice reading and writing skills and will explore what it means to be kind and empathetic.
Evaluation of Outcome: Students make a poster that displays an "unlikely" pair of animal friends. Students write about the two animals and their friendship.

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Postscript: A Promising Beginning

Martin Bloom, Thomas P. Gullotta, and Christine Miskell

In this final chapter, we offer several tentative findings from our ongoing work to answer the fundamental question: What happened as a result of the Salmon program? Prior chapters presented materials on what that program was, what is the evidence on which we based the program, what principles guided its development, and what practice principles we evolved.

We are currently collecting new data and analyzing the data in hand as this book goes to press. Therefore, we offer here only limited data, in two parts. First, we present some impressions of the long-term effects of the Salmon experience on students who had graduated from the program a year ago. Next, we examine students still in the program.

Sample

The first sample of sixth graders consisted of nine experimental students (six girls and three boys) who had received 1 year of the Salmon program at the Mission and nine control students (six girls and three boys) who did not.

Measures and Hypotheses for Group

Measures for this group of 18 students were school report cards, middle school teacher comments, and school attendance records.

From the literature, we predicted (1) that youth who had the Mission/Salmon experience would attend school more frequently than children who did not. (2) Youth who had the Mission/Salmon experience would have higher academic performance as measured by school report card grades than children who did not—particularly in subjects that required reading, which was a program emphasis of the B. P. Learned Mission, the site at which the program was developed and implemented.

Results for Group

1. The hypothesis that students who had participated in the Mission/Salmon program would have better attendance than students who did not was not supported. Unverified absence from school ranged from 1 day to 31 days for Mission/Salmon students (mean, 7.6 days) and from 1 day to 16 days for students in the control group (mean, 5.6 days).
2. The second hypothesis that students who participated in the Mission/Salmon program would perform significantly better in school than controls was supported in reading ($p < 0.05$), English ($p < 0.05$), and science ($p < 0.05$). Whereas students in the Mission/Salmon program outperformed controls in math and social studies, this performance did not reach statistical significance.
3. The brevity of teachers' comments did not permit a comparison of student behavior on prosocial behavior.

Discussion

First, a cautionary statement is warranted on the small size of this exploratory sample. With this caution in mind, children who graduated from the Mission/Salmon program appeared to perform better academically in the year after their departure from the program than their peers who did not have the same opportunity. This was an encouraging finding, but given the size of the sample, merely invites further study.

Interestingly, school attendance of former Mission/Salmon students was not better than that of controls. Having the benefit of knowing the children in the Mission/Salmon program, we explored the reasons for this high absentee rate. The reason given by the students and parents/guardians for most absences was the need to care for other family members, such as younger siblings, so that the parent/guardian could go to work. Thus, this interpretation of some of the absences turns out to have a prosocial and family-oriented meaning. However, we accept the negative findings and are prompted to explore ways of aiding families in need of caring for family members.

Sample

The second sample of first through fifth graders consisted of 28 students (14 girls and 14 boys) who were active in the Salmon program at the Mission. This sample consisted of all children enrolled in the program who did not leave prematurely.

Measures for Group

Teachers in the New London schools complete report cards on individual pupils each quarter. Portions of this information are relevant to our work promoting the prosocial behaviors of respect, cooperation, kindness, and self-control. In addition, this program had a specific focus on improving reading skills and work habits. Thus, a content analysis was preformed on the written statements by teachers with regard to the four prosocial behaviors plus reading and work habits.

1. From the literature, we hypothesized that children who had the Mission/Salmon experience over the course of the school year would show measurable improvement in work habits.
2. We hypothesized that children who had the Mission/Salmon experience would show over the course of the school year measurable improvement in their reading skills, which was a program emphasis of the B. P. Learned Mission, the site at which the program was fully developed and implemented.
3. We hypothesized that over the course of the school year, we would see school teacher comments supporting the appearance of the certain prosocial behaviors. Those behaviors were kindness, respect (for self and others), cooperation, and self-control.

Results for Group

In undertaking the content analysis of teachers comments, we observed that teachers did not always focus on academic and social behaviors or comment on the variables of interest to us. However, reading the entire paragraph directed to parents or guardians, we were able to make some relevant inferences and establish coding rules in regard to those inferences.

These rules were the following: First, we used the school's system of providing information for parents, but attached numbers to it for ease of analysis:

Unsatisfactory; U = 1

Minimum/insufficient performance; M = 2

Progress (appropriate to grade level); P = 3

Good [some behavior is identified positively by name]; G = 4

Very good [that behavior is further described by the teacher as more than Good]; V = 5

Excellent [that behavior is given the highest accolade by the teacher]; E = 6

Second, if no mention was made about a given prosocial behavior, we assumed that it was not poor enough to call attention to the need for improvement nor

good enough to receive a positive description. We gave such behaviors the score of 3, progressing at grade level.

Third, if the teacher did not mention a given prosocial behavior in the following quarter, then we assumed that the same level of grading was maintained as before for that behavior.

Fourth, in some instances, no information was available. Perhaps the pupil moved into the class in midterm; other times, a pupil may have been discussed directly with the parent and no notes made on the report card. In these cases, we entered a dash, no information, and computed mean scores over the remaining grades.

Thus, we read the teacher's notes on a pupil and looked to see if there were any direct mentions of the four prosocial behaviors of interest to us as well as references to reading and work habits. We made a determination of the level (1 to 6) for a given pupil over each of the six variables. Then we averaged these scores over the entire experimental group of 28 pupils and placed these figures in a table:

Variable	1st quarter	2nd quarter	3rd quarter	4th quarter
Respect	2.89	3.15	3.04	3.42
Cooperation	2.84	3.07	3.14	3.17
Kindness	3.11	3.37	3.32	3.32
Self-control	2.84	3.11	2.96	3.04
Reading	2.65	2.75	3.46	3.46
Work habits	2.50	3.00	3.29	3.36

1. The hypothesis that students who participated in the Mission/Salmon program would show measurable improvement in the development of work habits was supported ($p < 0.05$).
2. The hypothesis that students who participated in the Mission/Salmon program would show measurable improvement in their reading ability was supported ($p < 0.05$).
3. Of the four prosocial behaviors that the Salmon program emphasizes, only one behavior, respect, reached statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). Results for the other three prosocial behaviors were in a positive direction but did not reach statistical significance.

Discussion

We would interpret these data as being encouraging with regard to the experimental intervention, although we do not have any explanation for why respect should reach statistical significance, where the other prosocial behaviors only

show trends in that direction. It may be that we are observing generally positive changes in these young schoolchildren as part of their ordinary progress in school. On the other hand, these children are from very disadvantaged homes for the most part, and any positive changes, especially statistically significant ones, are worth paying attention to. Until we do further data analysis, including the other bodies of data we have on these students, all that we can say at this moment is that these data are encouraging and that the experimental intervention should be continued.

Summary

We close this postscript with a fragment of conversation among several students that was not intended for the ears of any adult and represents a miniature picture of the kind of outcomes we sought. Several students were lying in the dark on the Mission's theater stage after a rehearsal, where several softly lit Christmas trees cast their colored light; one of them was heard to say, "I wish, right now, I could live here forever. I don't have to worry about nothing. I can be me and respected for that here. I don't have to prove nothing to nobody. Here, we are different. We respect each other. Outside, it's different." The grunts emanating from others on the stage echoed these remarks.

The objective data suggests that something good may be happening with the Salmon program. But it is these kinds of anecdotal comments that make our entire effort worthwhile, that the youths themselves understand something special is going on here, and they have a rare and beautiful chance to become a respected member of the B. P. Learned Mission and, indeed, of society. Further evaluation will better determine the extent to which this may be happening.

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