

Afterschool Matters

Number 21 • Spring 2015



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Planning Considerations for Afterschool Professional Development | L. Daniele Bradshaw

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Cover, pages 1, 11, 46: WINGS, founded in 1996, serves more than 1,200 children at 10 elementary schools in Georgia, South Carolina, and North Carolina. WINGS weaves a comprehensive social and emotional learning curriculum into a fresh and fun afterschool program. Children living in poverty learn to behave well, make good decisions, and build healthy relationships while at the same time having a fun and safe place to call home.

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L. Daniele Bradshaw



The TEARS framework—time, expertise, access, resources, and support—can help afterschool programs plan to meet their professional development needs.

See the inside back cover for the call for papers for future issues of Afterschool Matters.

WELCOME

Armed with my roof rake, I set out yesterday to meet the challenge of 44 inches of snow. While the scenery is breathtaking, the task of clearing snow from roofs, paths, and concealed vehicles has been daunting to even the hardest of New Englanders. So I am focusing on summer!

Recent research on the “achievement gap” has shown that, although subsets of students show markedly different achievement outcomes, all students tend to progress at a comparable rate, regardless of factors such as socioeconomic status, race, or gender (McCombs et al., 2011; Miller, 2007). However, three months of unstructured summer vacation corresponds to one month’s loss of math skills, as well as a slight drop in reading. By the time students reach ninth grade, two-thirds of the achievement gap can be explained by summer learning loss (Terzian, Anderson Moore, & Hamilton, 2009).

This research suggests that summertime presents a particularly potent opportunity to help youth learn and develop (McCombs et al., 2011; Miller, 2007). Summer programs—even if they simply stimulate and maintain activity rather than educate—tend to slow or halt summer learning loss.

Researchers agree on the core structural components of an effective summer learning experience (McCombs et al., 2011; McLaughlin & Pitcock, 2009; Terzian et al., 2009). The first is time: five or six weeks of full-day programming with three or four hours of academics each day, structured to ensure maximum time on task. Low student-to-adult ratios and consistent youth attendance are also key.

As summer learning programs continue to mature, more rigorous data will help us understand how a blended academic and enrichment summer learning program can contribute to student achievement.

This issue of *Afterschool Matters* points to the diverse population of children and youth served in summer and school year out-of-school programs. It highlights our collective task of creating challenge, upholding equity, remembering culture, and honoring youth voice and choice in everything we do. Happy reading, happy spring.



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Afterschool Matters is a national, peer-reviewed journal dedicated to promoting professionalism, scholarship, and consciousness in the field of afterschool education. Published by the Robert Bowne Foundation and the National Institute on Out-of-School Time, the journal serves those involved in developing and running programs for youth during the out-of-school hours, in addition to those engaged in research and shaping policy. For information on *Afterschool Matters* and the Afterschool Matters Initiative, contact Georgia Hall, Senior Research Scientist, National Institute on Out-of-School Time, Wellesley Centers for Women, Wellesley College, 106 Central Street, Wellesley, MA 02481, asmsubmission@wellesley.edu



Girls' Challenge Seeking

How Outdoor Exposure Can Support Girls in Taking Positive Risks

Kallen Tsikalas and Karyn L. Martin

Challenge seeking is an important component of children's personal and academic development. Defined in this paper as a set of beliefs and behaviors that propels individuals to initiate and persist at difficult ventures, challenge seeking is a key indicator of mastery goal orientation. This orientation has been linked with a number of positive and adaptive behaviors. For instance, research shows that individuals who pursue mastery goals are more likely than others to value cooperation, seek help when confused, and use deeper learning strategies such as monitoring their comprehension and actively trying to integrate new information with prior knowledge. They are also more likely to negotiate decisional ambiguities and experience positive emotions (Dweck, 1986; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Senko, Hulleman, & Harackiewicz, 2011).

In Girl Scouts, challenge seeking is an essential element of leadership—a key to girls' discovery of themselves and their worlds. In moving beyond their

personal and interpersonal comfort zones, girls learn their strengths and values as well as ways to interact with others. Enabling girls to seek challenges in the world involves helping them to “develop positive attitudes toward learning, seek opportunities for expanding their knowledge and skills, set challenging goals, and take appropriate risks” (Girl Scouts of the USA, 2008, p. 28).

Despite the importance of challenge seeking, Girl Scouts have not typically reported high levels of this outcome. A recent national evaluation, for example,

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found that only about 40 percent of Girl Scouts in grades 4–8 consistently endorsed positive responses, such as “agree” or “agree a lot,” to statements about taking positive risks (Tsikalas & Martin, 2014). These findings mirror those from other Girl Scouts of the USA studies (Tsikalas & Barnett, 2012). Compared to other Girl Scout leadership outcomes, such as developing a strong sense of self or cooperation and team building, girls are considerably weaker at challenge seeking.

Outdoor experiences often entail authentic tasks that have the potential to foster girls’ challenge seeking. For this reason, we used survey data to explore how the breadth and intensity of their exposure to outdoor activities affected Girl Scouts’ challenge seeking. Our findings have implications for practice not only for Girl Scouts but for any out-of-school time (OST) program committed to girls’ development.

The Outdoors as a Context for Developing Girls’ Challenge Seeking

Outdoor OST programs may play a special role in cultivating children’s challenge seeking, as nature often presents authentic and unavoidable challenges and risks (Kellert, 2005). Authentic challenges in the outdoors can be physical, cognitive, psychological, or social: negotiating a set of whitewater rapids, figuring out how to light a campfire in the rain, dealing with spiders, or taking the chance that others will judge you when you try a physically awkward activity, like rock climbing. These challenges frequently require young people to become more self-aware and to cooperate, communicate, and solve problems (Rickinson et al., 2004). However, due to increased technology use, structured activities, and parental protectiveness, young people in general—and especially girls—may be less likely to spend time outdoors, so that they have fewer opportunities to experience such authentic challenges.

According to Bohnert, Fredricks, and Randall (2010), *exposure* in OST programming (also referred to as youth “involvement”) has multiple dimensions. *Breadth* refers to the number of different activities or activity contexts in which young people participate. *Intensity* refers to how often the young people participate in the programming. *Engagement* relates to the youths’ level of investment—whether behavioral, emotional, or cognitive—in the program (Bohnert et al. 2010).

Each of these dimensions produces benefits in slightly different ways. For example, breadth may provide young people with opportunities to try on different roles and identities (Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003) or

to rotate through different peer groups and find where they feel they best belong (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). Intensity, on the other hand, may give them opportunities to build skills and self-efficacy within a domain (Bohnert et al., 2010; Larson & Verna, 1999) and to develop high-quality, supportive relationships with adults.

We were interested in how girls’ outdoor exposure in Girl Scouts contributed to their challenge seeking. Our study focused primarily on the breadth and intensity of girls’ involvement in Girl Scout outdoor programming. We also wanted to understand whether socioeconomic status (SES) and self-esteem affected girls’ outdoor experiences or challenge seeking. We thought, for example, that girls of lower SES might have fewer opportunities to get outdoors, both in Girl Scouts and in general. Similarly, we thought that girls with lower self-esteem might be less likely to participate in the outdoors and seek challenges, because doing so might threaten their self-esteem even further. Figure 1 illustrates our emerging conceptual model.

Research Methods

The data and analyses reported in this paper are part of a larger study investigating girls’ outdoor experiences in Girl Scouts and the role of these experiences in supporting leadership development, environmental stewardship, and customer satisfaction.

Context

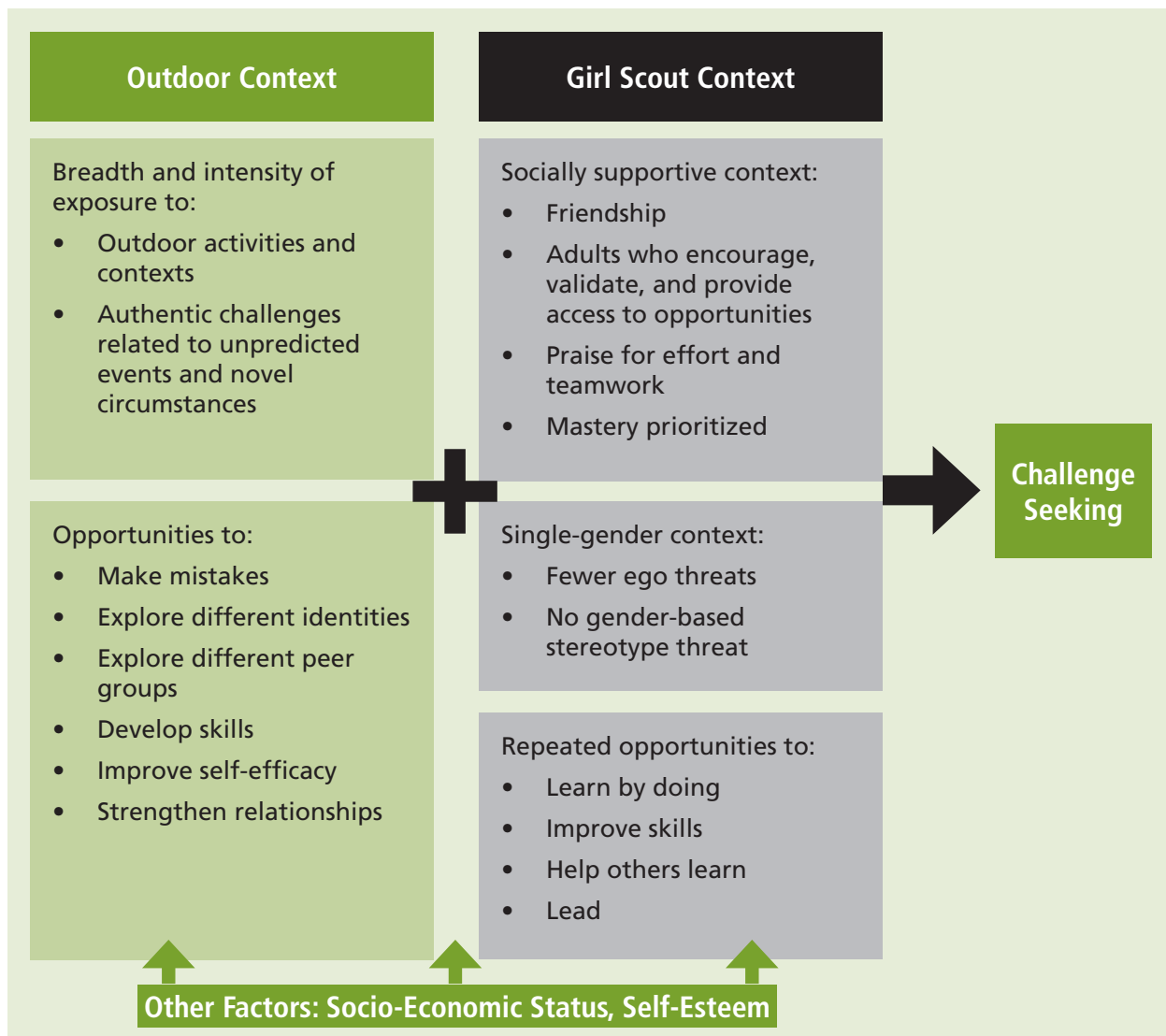
Outdoor programming in Girl Scouts is distinctive in both its goals and offerings. While other outdoor programs for youth may be designed to improve fitness or develop environmental knowledge, Girl Scout programming is fundamentally about developing girls of courage, confidence, and character who make the world a better place. Developing leadership involves engaging girls in three processes: learning by doing, cooperative learning, and girl-led activities (James & Bastiani-Archibald, 2009).

Additionally, Girl Scout programming exposes girls to a variety of outdoor activities, ranging from short-term, casual outdoor experiences to more intense, multi-day experiences. Activities are offered in a single-gender environment that emphasizes friendships.

Design and Participants

The study employed a cross-sectional research design in which girls were surveyed online at a single time point in the spring of 2012. Research participants were recruited from an online panel of Girl Scouts nationwide. The

Figure 1. Conceptual Model



panel exists for research purposes only. All girls in the 15 geographically and demographically diverse councils that participated in the study were invited to join the panel and receive occasional surveys. Parental consent was obtained for girls under age 13.

Nearly 3,000 Girl Scouts ($N = 2,862$) responded to our survey, yielding a response rate of 40 percent. Representing 16 states, 84 percent of these girls were white, 6 percent African American, and 7 percent Hispanic.

Respondents ranged in age from 8 to 14 years, with a mean of 10.8 years. All were enrolled in grades 4–8; 56 percent were Junior Girl Scouts, in grades 4 or 5, and 44 percent were Cadette Girl Scouts, in grades 6–8. Developmentally, Juniors are in Eccles' (1999) middle childhood phase; they are broadening their social worlds by spending less time under parental supervision

and more time with peers and other adults. They are also becoming increasingly aware of their competence. Typically, they are optimistic and enthusiastic about learning (Eccles, 1999). Cadettes have entered early adolescence, a more tumultuous phase with greater potential for both positive and negative outcomes. These older girls are able to think more abstractly, and issues of identity and autonomy may dominate their social interactions (Eccles, 1999).

Community type was determined based on girls' zip codes: 36 percent of respondents were classified as living in urban areas, 40 percent in suburban areas, and 24 percent in rural areas. About one-quarter (27 percent) indicated that their mothers had less than a college education; these girls were classified as having lower SES. Another 26 percent were identified as higher SES.

Surprisingly, in our sample, lower SES girls were more likely to live in rural, rather than urban, areas.

Based on survey items, about one-quarter (24 percent) of girls were categorized as having low self-esteem. These girls did not possess the self-esteem developmental asset defined by criteria of the Search Institute (P. C. Scales, personal communication, May 24, 2013), whose survey items we used with permission (Search Institute, 2012). Self-esteem was not associated with any demographic characteristics—race, ethnicity, or SES. It was, however, negatively associated with age: Younger girls reported higher self-esteem.

Measures

From the online survey, we calculated scores for challenge seeking, exposure to outdoor activities, self-esteem, and perceptions of the effect of Girl Scouting.

Challenge Seeking

Index scores were computed to assess challenge seeking. These scores represented the mean of four items for Cadettes and of three items for Juniors. Representative items were “I avoid doing things that are hard for me” and “I like to try new things, even though I might not do them well at first.” Girls responded using Likert scales of agreement, frequency, or similarity.

Outdoor Exposure: Intensity and Breadth

We measured the frequency of girls’ participation in the past year in more than twenty different Girl Scout outdoor activities, including walking outdoors, field trips to outdoor places, camping, outdoor cooking, canoeing or kayaking, horseback riding, archery, and volunteering for environmental causes. From these data, we created a simple, three-level factor of intensity: (a) monthly participation in any outdoor activity in Girl Scouts, (b) occasional participation, and (c) no outdoor involvement during the past year.

We assessed breadth in two ways: (a) the number of different outdoor activities in which girls participated at least once during the year and (b) the number of different activity contexts that girls experienced. We defined four activity contexts according to their level of adult directedness—or, conversely, girl autonomy—and opportunities for girls to encounter authentic challenges:

- **Casual context.** Outdoor activities such as walking outdoors, playing outdoors, and outdoor field trips involve low adult direction and offer girls high autonomy. Because these casual activities are often relatively unstructured, they provide girls with some opportu-

nity to encounter authentic challenges. For example, girls may have to deal with bugs or natural obstacles during their outdoor excursions.

- **Service context.** Outdoor activities such as volunteering for environmental causes and learning about conservation involve moderate adult direction and offer girls ample opportunity to initiate and participate in projects. The level and type of challenge inherent in the service context vary based on the projects: Some service projects, like trail maintenance, may present considerable physical challenge. Others, like assessing water quality and determining causes of pollution, might be cognitively and socially challenging.
- **Camping context.** Camping-related activities include not only camping but also outdoor cooking, hiking, and backpacking. They require moderate to high levels of adult direction. During specific skill-building portions of camping, such as learning to build a fire, girls may have low autonomy. However, most of the time girls are autonomous and immersed in nature, thereby increasing their opportunities to encounter challenges ranging from coping with unpredictable weather to finding their way in the dark.
- **Directed activity context.** This context includes higher-risk activities such as archery, horseback riding, canoeing or kayaking, swimming, and ropes or challenge courses set up in specific locations. To participate in these activities, girls need special equipment and the supervision of trained, experienced adults. For safety reasons, the behaviors of girls are highly regulated, and girls must act within the parameters of the activity. Although the activities themselves may be physically, psychologically, or socially challenging, girls have little autonomy in directing their own experiences.

Self-Esteem

A self-esteem index score was computed as the mean of four items borrowed from the self-esteem subscale of the Search Institute’s (2012) positive identity measure. An example item is “All in all, I am glad to be me.” Girls responded using a five-point agreement scale; another option was “I don’t know/don’t want to say.” Based on Search Institute criteria (P. C. Scales, personal communication, May 24, 2013), we divided girls into two groups: those who did and did not achieve a minimum score on the self-esteem index.

Perceptions of the Effect of Girl Scouting

Using a six-point agreement scale, girls rated the extent to which Girl Scouting improved various aspects of their

lives, including their health, confidence, leadership, and academic skills. Representative items were “Because of Girl Scouts, I learned to do things that I thought I couldn’t do” and “Girl Scouts helped me recognize my strengths.”

Procedures

To understand the data, we used descriptive statistics, correlations, hierarchical regression analyses, and thematic coding of comments. We analyzed data separately for Juniors and Cadettes. To interpret findings and develop actionable insights from the study, we worked with an advisory group that included Girl Scout staff and external advisors.

Results: Outdoor Exposure and Challenge Seeking

After analyzing results on challenge seeking and on the intensity and breadth of exposure to outdoor activities, we then investigated the extent to which outdoor exposure explained differences in girls’ challenge seeking.

Challenge Seeking

As previously noted, girls scored relatively low on challenge seeking. The mean score for Juniors was 3.68 out of a possible 6. Only 31 percent met the threshold score we designated as indicating “positive progress” toward the outcome. Middle school girls fared slightly better: 43 percent of Cadettes made positive progress toward the challenge-seeking outcome, scoring a mean of 4.27 out of 6.

Despite these numbers, girls made numerous references in their comments to taking on and surmounting challenges, for example:

- “I was always afraid of camping. Sleeping outdoors was my worst fear. My troop had been planning a camping trip for a couple of months, and I was terrified when the day actually came. My wonderful troop leader and friends helped get me through it, and I realized that I really do love camping.” (13-year-old Girl Scout, Idaho)
- “At first I thought that climbing something so high would be very dangerous, but once I saw all the harnesses and had all of my friends with me, I saw that it was fine.” (13-year-old Girl Scout, California)
- “When we went camping we had to cook outdoors a lot. First I was very scared of the fire. Then I started to learn techniques on how to make sure you cook well, how to contain the fire.... We were also taught all the safety precautions we had to take.” (12-year-old Girl Scout, Florida)

Additionally, 63 percent of Cadettes and 55 percent of Juniors agreed or strongly agreed that “Because of Girl Scouts, I learned to do things I thought I could not do.” Whether or not the girls sought challenges in Girl Scouts, they clearly experienced and learned from them.

Though our data did not allow us to fully explore the discrepancies between girls’ ratings on challenge-seeking items and their comments, we did notice one pattern that might partially explain the differences. Comparison of girls’ comments with their ratings suggests that girls may have recognized physical and cognitive challenges, but not psychological challenges, as “things that are hard for me.” As the previous comments suggest, outdoor challenges for many girls in our sample involved overcoming fears. Thus, the girls may have successfully dealt with challenges—their own fears—that they did not recognize as challenges.

Outdoor Exposure

Nearly all girls in the study (97 percent) indicated having done at least one outdoor activity in Girl Scouts during the year. The activities they did most frequently were:

- Playing outdoors, for example, playing soccer or jumping rope
- Walking outdoors, for example, in a park or through the neighborhood
- Going on field trips to outdoor places, such as a farm, beach, or outdoor festival
- Camping overnight, including troop camping
- Volunteering for a cause related to the environment, for example, being part of a tree-planting, animal rescue, or clean-up day
- Cooking outdoors

Intensity

Nearly four out of 10 girls (39 percent, consisting of 41 percent of Cadettes and 38 percent of Juniors) participated on a monthly basis in outdoor activities in Girl Scouts. These girls tended to participate in the same types of outdoor activities as other girls, such as playing outdoors and going on outdoor field trips, but they did so much more often. About six of 10 girls (57 percent) participated in outdoor programming in Girl Scouts on an occasional basis.

Breadth

The average girl participated in eight different individual outdoor activities and three outdoor activity contexts in Girl Scouts at least once during the year. Tables 1 and 2 display data on girls’ participation in each activity context and overall.

Table 1. Breadth of Girls' Participation in Outdoor Activity Contexts in Girl Scouts

Activity Context	Percentage of Girl Scouts Participating	
	Juniors	Cadettes
Casual context	92%	89%
Camping context	82%	88%
Service context	87%	86%
Directed activity context	62%	73%

Table 2. Breadth of Exposure by Context

Number of Different Outdoor Activity Contexts	Percentage of Girl Scouts Participating
No contexts	3%
1 context	4%
2 contexts	11%
3 contexts	25%
4 contexts	57%

These findings indicate that responding Girl Scouts were most likely to participate in casual, camping, and service-related outdoor activities; they were least likely to participate in directed activities. If they participated in only one context, it was most often casual or service-related. However, about one-fifth of girls (22 percent) who participated in just one activity context took part only in camping or directed activities.

Differences Among Groups of Girls

Girls' participation in outdoor programming in Girl Scouts was related to their demographic characteristics and self-esteem. As expected, we found the most prominent differences between older and younger girls, with older girls participating in most outdoor activities more frequently. However, we also saw differences based on race, ethnicity, and self-esteem. Many of these differences clustered around the camping and directed activity contexts, in which girls of lower SES and girls of color tended to participate less. Rural girls were also less likely to participate in directed activities. Aside from age differences, girls in all demographic categories were equally likely to have participated in outdoor experiences at least monthly and to have engaged in casual and service-related contexts.

Role of Outdoor Exposure in Girls' Challenge Seeking

For older and younger Girl Scouts, both intensity and breadth of outdoor exposure are positively associated

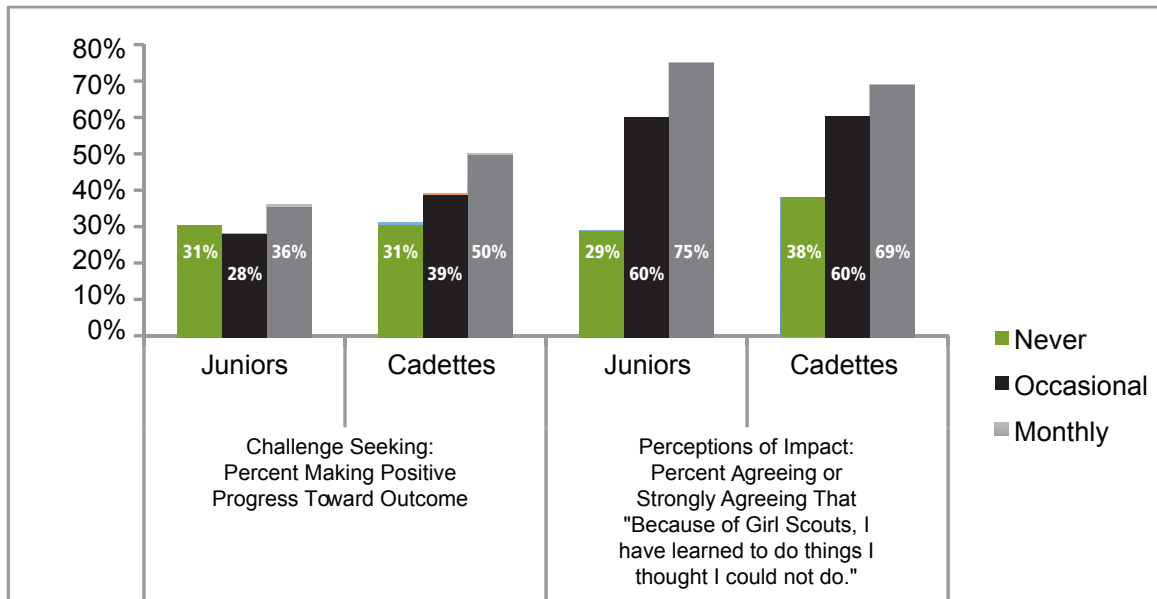
with challenge seeking and with girls' perception that Girl Scouting helped them learn to do things they thought they could not do. Figure 2 displays outcomes by intensity. It shows a strong connection between the frequency of outdoor exposure and challenge seeking, especially for Cadettes.

When we examined breadth of outdoor exposure, we found that the number of outdoor activities and the number of different activity contexts were correlated with girls' positive progress toward challenge seeking and their perception that "Because of Girl Scouts, I learned to do things that I thought I couldn't do." Breadth of outdoor exposure was most strongly linked to Junior Girl Scouts' perceptions that they had overcome negative expectations of their abilities and had learned to do new things.

Indeed, when we take the analyses a step further and control for demographic and personality characteristics in regression models, we find that these two dimensions of outdoor exposure play different roles for Juniors and Cadettes. For Juniors, breadth of outdoor exposure, whether defined as the number of activities or the number of activity contexts, is a strong and significant contributor to challenge seeking. Intensity is only marginally significant. In contrast, for Cadettes, intensity is the most significant predictor of challenge seeking, and breadth is not at all significant.

For both groups of girls, self-esteem strongly influences challenge seeking, with higher self-esteem predicting greater challenge seeking. Demographic factors such as race, ethnicity, community type, and SES are not significant contributors.

Figure 2. Relationship Between Intensity of Girls' Outdoor Exposure in Girl Scouts and Challenge-Seeking Outcomes



Understanding These Results

Three important questions emerge from these findings:

- Monthly involvement in the outdoors clearly contributes to challenge seeking, especially for middle school girls. However, only about 40 percent of girls participate in monthly outdoor activities through Girl Scouts. Why are the majority of girls not getting outdoors regularly?
- Why might breadth of outdoor exposure be more supportive of challenge seeking for fourth- and fifth-grade girls and intensity be more supportive for middle school aged Girl Scouts?
- How can we better support girls with low self-esteem through outdoor programming?

Intensity and the Lost Majority of Girls

What prevents the majority of girls (60 percent) from having monthly outdoor experiences in Girl Scouts? In the study, we did not directly probe for barriers to girls' outdoor participation. We did, however, ask girls who never participated in outdoor activities through Girl Scouts—about 3 percent of the sample—to describe the activities they would like to do. These girls expressed interest in outdoor activities from scavenger hunts to hiking, swimming, and zip lining. Some girls also hinted that their troops might need help in prioritizing outdoor activities. For example, one 10-year-old said, "I would do ANYTHING. My troop doesn't participate in that kind

of stuff." An 11-year-old Girl Scout said that she would do "many of the [activities] you listed. I do them on my own, because my troop has not organized any of this."

Because everything Girl Scouts do outdoors must be supported by an adult, these results speak indirectly to the role of adult volunteers and their preparation to lead outdoor activities. To get outdoors more regularly, Girl Scouts need adult volunteers who encourage and promote outdoor experiences. Anecdotal data suggest that adult volunteers in Girl Scouts have high expectations of outdoor activities, believing that they need to be perfect. The volunteers' expectations seem related to a lack of confidence in their ability to anticipate and troubleshoot problems that might arise outdoors and to perceptions that consequences of missteps are more severe outdoors than elsewhere. Fear of not providing a perfect and memorable outdoor activity can discourage volunteers and therefore lead them to discourage girls' participation in the outdoors.

Because of its noncompetitive, no-grades context, Girl Scouts gives girls a chance to try something new without fear that others will judge them. It is thus uniquely positioned to provide girls the benefits of outdoor experiences—even those that are less than perfect. Communicating to volunteers and parents that casual outdoor experiences are effective ways of giving girls opportunities to build competencies and try new things may be the key that opens the gates for more

regular outdoor involvement. Experiences such as playing and walking outdoors and taking outdoor field trips do not demand specialized equipment or training, but they may provide girls with a positive context in which to experience authentic outdoor challenges and learn to do things they thought they couldn't do.

The Role of Intensity and Breadth of Outdoor Exposure for Older and Younger Girls

Why does it appear that breadth is more important to the development of challenge seeking for younger girls and intensity is more important for older girls? The answer may reflect both age-related program factors and social or psychological developmental trajectories.

With regard to program factors, younger Girl Scouts are offered less varied outdoor opportunities than girls in sixth grade and higher. For example, activities such as archery, hiking, kayaking, low ropes courses, and overnight tent camping are often first available to girls in the fourth grade; more challenging high ropes courses, backpacking, and outdoor cooking competitions begin in the sixth grade. Beyond sixth grade, girls may be offered two-week long camping or backpacking trips and canoe or kayak trips that require planning and skills development. Similarly, girls in fourth grade may participate in a town-wide or community-organized environmental service event, but girls in higher grades may take the lead in planning such a service event.

Additionally, for most Juniors, participation in outdoor activities is heavily regulated by adult volunteers. These adults must, themselves, acquire training and develop confidence in the outdoors. As Juniors and their volunteers gain experience and competence in a variety of outdoor contexts, the doors open for more intense involvement. Within a few years, as girls reach Cadette age, they have learned how to navigate program requirements and access outdoor activities. The adult volunteers, who generally advance with their troops, have also gained experience in navigating programmatic and personal obstacles to outdoor participation and may be better equipped to facilitate. Additionally, older girls who have acquired preferences for participating

in certain activities may have forged relationships with adults other than their troop leaders who support their outdoor participation.

Program factors like these may encourage younger girls to engage in a broad sampling of outdoor activities—ones both they and their troop leaders can enjoy without an extensive commitment of time and training. Experiencing such a breadth of activities provides Junior Girl Scouts with opportunities to encounter multiple challenges and gain confidence in negotiating them. In contrast, older girls, who have tasted a variety of outdoor activities and gained rudimentary skills, are encouraged to deepen their involvement in a few activities. The types or level of challenges they encounter with more intense participation may demand more sophisticated responses. Learning to be more strategic in surmounting challenges—for example, employing both individual and team approaches—may help these girls continue to grow in their challenge seeking.

Developmentally, Junior Girl Scouts are becoming aware of and concerned about their competence; successful experiences in a wide range of activities can provide them with a positive sense of their competence (Eccles, 1999). Most want to try new things to learn what they might enjoy and where they might excel. As girls try these novel activities, they begin to develop challenge-seeking skills: They learn to ask for help, accept that they can learn from mistakes, set challenging goals for themselves, see talented peers as sources of inspiration, and understand that progress means taking on challenges and getting better at them. Hence, breadth of outdoor participation builds beliefs and attitudes essential for challenge seeking.

For Cadettes, who may have already located their activity niches, refining skills and mastering tasks may be more important to their self-efficacy and identities. These, in turn, may motivate the girls to continue seeking challenges and honing associated competencies, such as goal setting. Developing stronger and deeper relationships with peers and adults through regular participation in an outdoor activity or context may also be appealing. Such relationships can gently encourage girls to push themselves further and higher. Intensity of

Experiences such as playing and walking outdoors and taking outdoor field trips do not demand specialized equipment or training, but they may provide girls with a positive context in which to experience authentic outdoor challenges and learn to do things they thought they couldn't do.

outdoor participation therefore builds the relationships, social strategies, and help-seeking beliefs and skills that propel these girls toward greater challenge seeking.

Supporting Girls Who Have Low Self-Esteem

Girls with low self-esteem scored lower than girls with higher self-esteem on challenge seeking, and they rated Girl Scouts as having less effect on them. For these girls, however, some experiences in Girl Scouts stood out as being especially supportive of leadership. In particular, when girls with low self-esteem experienced high-intensity (monthly) outdoor exposure in Girl Scouts or when they felt Girl Scouts afforded them opportunities to become healthier, take on leadership roles, or help other girls learn, they reported levels of challenge seeking on par with girls who had higher self-esteem. More frequent outdoor participation may boost girls' feelings of competence by providing them with opportunities to practice and improve skills as well as to strengthen social relationships.

Limitations

Because this study employed a cross-sectional research design, there are limits to the conclusions we can draw. In particular, we cannot make definitive statements about causality; we cannot claim that participating in outdoor programming necessarily caused Girl Scouts to seek more challenges in their lives. Furthermore, by using an online survey and panel, we run the risk of over-representing girls who have regular and reliable Internet access. Our sample, for example, did include a higher proportion of white girls than was present in the Girl Scout membership at large in participating councils.

The study did not address engagement or the duration or consistency of involvement. Girl Scouting is designed as a 13-year program (K–18). We assume that Juniors and Cadettes have varying levels of engagement and perhaps consistency; that is, they may be more involved some years than others. However, we could not assess these factors with these data and this methodology. Another factor we could not address is *how* adult directedness (as opposed to girl autonomy) and opportunities to experience authentic challenges contributed to girls' outcomes. Finally, we did not investigate cultural or family factors that may have influenced girls' outdoor participation and challenge seeking. Future longitudinal and more nuanced research of Girl Scouts and the outdoors may consider these factors.

Implications

This research has many implications for practice.

Program Design and Implementation

Findings from the study suggest some immediate steps to enhance girls' challenge seeking. For girls in fourth and fifth grades, breadth of experiences may deliver the most benefit to challenge seeking. For older girls, opportunities to experience intensity in one or more activity contexts may lead to the most benefit. OST programs might implement the following practices to promote girls' challenge seeking:

- Provide girls with opportunities to get outdoors at least once a month, in the style of Girl Scouts
- Promote casual outdoor activities—playing outdoors, walking outdoors, going on outdoor field trips—as ways both to get girls outdoors and to help adults feel more comfortable with facilitating less-than-perfect outdoor experiences
- Emphasize Girl Scout processes—learning by doing, cooperation and team building, and girl leadership—to increase the effect of outdoor experiences for all girls, but especially those with low self-esteem

Volunteer Preparation

Because adult volunteers are often the gatekeepers of outdoor experiences, Girl Scouts and other OST programs need volunteers who value and encourage girls' participation in outdoor activities. Organizations may need to focus on increasing the value of outdoor participation for adult volunteers and decreasing its social and emotional costs by:

- Immersing volunteers in fun, adult-oriented outdoor experiences that progress from easier to more challenging in order to help them develop friendships as well as skills
- Providing volunteers with outdoor training or experiences alongside girls, for example, in situations where girls and adults participate in separate activity tracks but come together to share their experiences
- Educating volunteers about the benefits to girls of outdoor exposure—including those detailed in this report

To reduce the costs of participation, especially those related to low confidence, discomfort, and inconvenience, organizations might provide adult volunteers with easy access to the stories of other volunteers who demonstrate how to attain outdoor proficiency and who inspire persistence even when things don't go perfectly. Another way to increase participation is to provide external facilitators or other adults specifically trained to lead troop camping or other outdoor activities.

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Toward More Equitable Outcomes

A Research Synthesis on Out-of-School Time Work with Boys and Young Men of Color

Jon Gilgoff and Shawn Ginwright

“We believe they have a lot of the answers within themselves,” says Keith Bennett of Detroit’s Flip the Script. This afterschool program offers academic support, leadership development, and guidance from positive male mentors to young men of color ages 11–15. At Male Leadership Academy, another program in the city’s West Side, youth receive similar services, including life lessons from peers and adults provided in a guest speaker component titled “Calling All Men: Truth Sessions” (Allen, 2009).

What is “the truth” about out-of-school time (OST) work with boys and young men of color (BYMOC)? How has the literature that documents the increasing public consciousness of this work influenced program centers and policy debates? Recent local and national attention on the crisis facing BYMOC has contributed many insights to this discussion. Although My Brother’s Keeper was not the first call to action on this issue, this White House initiative has raised awareness and re-

sources, some of which have been directed toward developing and documenting efforts undertaken outside the academic day.

This article contributes to a growing conversation by identifying trends in an expanding body of research on practices used to support BYMOC. As the field moves toward clearer recognition of what constitutes “effective” practice, afterschool professionals are playing an important role in empowering and organizing BYMOC to achieve more equitable educational, economic, health, and life outcomes.

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From Problems and Prevention to Assets and Advocacy

Early OST research focused overwhelmingly on risk prevention (Dryfoos, 1990; Glasgow, 1981; Jessor & Jessor, 1977). The underlying thesis was that behaviors of “at-risk” youth, especially African-American and Latino young people, could be understood as maladaptive responses to challenging life circumstances. The empirical study of problems and pathology were thus deeply woven into the theoretical fabric of these perspectives. Numerous studies attempted to explain high levels of drug use, school dropout, violence, early sexual activity, and other behaviors that jeopardize healthy development among “at-risk” youth. In fact, during the decade between 1985 and 1995, nearly 70 percent of all articles in leading youth and adolescent research journals focused on problems, pathology, or prevention, primarily among African-American and Latino youth (Ayman-Nolley & Taira, 2000). Research reflected practice. Afterschool programs targeting “at risk” youth were narrowly focused on addressing negative behaviors, including aggression and idleness (Anderson, 1990, 1999; Wilson 1996).

Fortunately, in the early 1990s, the youth development field began to break this long-standing social science tradition, helping researchers, policy stakeholders, and practitioners to better understand the strengths and resiliency of disenfranchised youth, including BYMOC. Positive youth development emphasized the strengths of youth and the responsibility of youth workers to develop young people’s skills and assets (Pittman & Fleming, 1991). By concentrating on assets instead of problems, scholars helped to reconceptualize policy and practice from prevention-focused approaches to more holistic models integrating emotional health, empowerment, and exploration (Zeldin, 2000). Practitioners also began to reframe their basic assumptions about disenfranchised youth in ways that viewed young people as change agents and acknowledged their self-worth and self-awareness.

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Since the mid-1990s, as the afterschool field has adopted positive youth development as a core framework, researchers and theorists have contributed to a more critical analysis of the challenges facing BYMOC. They have helped to shift the “problem statement” away from individual circumstances toward greater understanding of how environmental stressors, structures, and systemic injustices disproportionately affect BYMOC.

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Examples of early literature in this vein include Wilson’s (1996) well-known study on how macro-level economic changes influence choices made by the poor. Wilson explained how a decrease in the availability of manufacturing jobs, the migration of middle-class African-American families from inner cities to suburbs, and other structural forces contributed to caste-like poverty, high unemployment, low levels of school success, and high rates of school suspension or expulsion. Taking a sociological approach, Anderson (1999) examined high levels of violence and other high-risk behaviors at a Chicago housing project, looking particularly at how conditions affected young African-American and Latino men. He explored the development of “codes of the street,” local rules or values that he saw as adaptations to economic deprivation.

Such rules, a heightened version of what Pollack (1998) calls the “boy code,” show how gender socialization, environmental stressors, and structural inequities combine to make situations for BYMOC more dire and difficult to manage. Referring to these pressures as “commandments of the street,” Dr. Joe Marshall describes in *Street Soldier* (Marshall & Wheeler, 1996) how his Omega Boys Club helped male youth navigate the minefields in their lives to emerge not only “alive and free” but also securely on a path to educational and economic success.

More recent literature has acknowledged the systemic barriers to academic achievement, economic mobility, and well-being BYMOC face (Littles, Bowers, & Gilmer, 2008; Noguera, 2008; Young, 2004). These findings have increasingly informed the afterschool program and national policy landscape. Extensive research has shown how zero tolerance policies, school suspensions and expulsions, policing practices, and public policy have all served to disconnect large numbers of Black and Latino young men from school and expose them to risky behavior (Bryant, 2013; Edley &

de Velasco, 2010; Phillips & Bryant, 2013). These challenges become even more difficult as BYMOC are bombarded with strict gender-role messages such as “big boys don’t cry” that make it hard for them to express themselves (Johnson, Pate, & Givens, 2010).

Some afterschool strategies for BYMOC, such as rites of passage programs, have been grounded in empowerment from the beginning. Others, like “midnight basketball,” were designed simply to keep BYMOC safe and positively occupied. These strategies have generally been supplemented or replaced by more comprehensive and critically informed approaches that empower youth as individuals, while engaging them, their families, and their communities in policy change to address systemic inequities.

Recently, as indicated by President Obama’s 2014 launch of My Brother’s Keeper (White House, 2014), philanthropists, researchers, and policy advocates have directed considerable attention toward expanding promising practices that promote the development of BYMOC. These efforts not only provide critical financial support for targeted initiatives but also catalyze much-needed research about the status of this demographic group.

As longitudinal and other evaluation studies document the efficacy of endeavors designed to empower BYMOC, foundation-funded reports are giving OST professionals useful guidance. Examples include the Ford Foundation’s 2008 *Why We Can’t Wait* (Littles et al., 2008) and the California Endowment and Rand Corporation’s solution-focused *Repairable Harm* (Davis, Kilburn, & Schultz, 2009). In a valuable report published by the Movement Strategy Center in Oakland, CA (Lahoud, 2013), the California Alliance for Boys and Young Men of Color recognized the increase in coordinated efforts on the local, state, and national levels in the following declaration: “There is a movement building.”

Methodology and Guiding Questions

For this research synthesis, we examined empirical research published from 1990 to the present. Our literature review focused on studies of OST initiatives with an intentional focus on BYMOC. In all, we reviewed approximately 55 articles and categorized them into themes according to their findings and strategies. Because OST initiatives that specifically aim to empower BYMOC are relatively new, there are few long-term evaluation studies providing clear and convincing evidence of effective practice. This article therefore focuses on general trends, which we call “prevailing” practices in the field.

Besides journal articles, we gathered key reports and documents from foundations, community-based programs, and advocacy groups. This inclusive approach was based

in part on the newness of OST work with BYMOC as a formal field of practice. Perhaps more importantly, our approach recognizes that the forces that can leave BYMOC marginalized and even criminalized are the same forces that may exclude practice- and community-based evidence from traditional research.

Our research synthesis focused on three guiding questions, the first of which we explored above:

1. What is the historical context of BYMOC OST work?
2. What are trends in the literature on current OST opportunities for BYMOC?
3. What constitutes gender- and culture-appropriate practice, whether delivered to males only or to mixed-gender groups?

Below we highlight the answers to these questions, with examples of how key strategies are being implemented, particularly in the Bay Area of Northern California, our home base. We then summarize our findings and identify gaps in the literature that indicate a need for further research.

Prevailing OST Practices

The first two categories of practices outlined below—rites of passage and mentoring—are drawn from Woodland’s (2008) review of the influence of afterschool programs on young Black males. The third, which we call enrichment, is similar to the one Woodland calls “extracurricular activities.” To these we have added two more categories, based on recent trends in OST programming: academic strategies and policy advocacy. We have also expanded on Woodland’s findings to include male youth from ethnic backgrounds other than African American. Rites of passage programming, which has been documented as a gender- and culture-specific practice for the longest time, is generally implemented in single-sex groups. The other four strategies may be delivered in single-sex or mixed groups; they therefore offer the opportunity for more OST professionals to apply them. As Noguera (2012) points out, male-only interventions are not the only way to empower BYMOC, nor have they been proven the most effective.

Although these five strategies are conceptually distinct, in practice effective programs avoid a “magic bullet” approach. Instead, they often combine one or more strategies holistically to build resiliency and facilitate success (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

Rites of Passage

Rites of passage (ROP) programming addresses the needs of BYMOC by focusing on restorative strategies rooted in youths’ culture of origin. ROP programs generally focus

on cultural principles and practices that help boys develop into men. ROP programs posit that, whatever the ethnic background of the youth served, rediscovering their culture builds ethnic pride; strengthens knowledge of their history; and fosters a worldview that values community, balance, and harmony.

One seminal book that helped to spawn ROP programs for African-American youth is *Countering the Conspiracy to Destroy Black Boys* by Jawanza Kunjufu (1990). Afrocentric ROP models draw on the Seven Principles of Nguzo Saba (Karenga, 1998, cited in Boyd-Franklin, 2003). In such programs, rituals play a predominant role, including the pouring of libation to honor personal and historical ancestors (Harvey & Hill, 2004). Afrocentric ROP programs have been widely implemented in OST and have been written about for decades.

The spread of gender-specific ROP programming for other cultural groups is a more recent phenomenon. As Latinos are the fastest-growing minority group in the U.S. (Riggs, Bohnert, Guzman, & Davidson 2010), and inequitable outcomes for them are a major concern, culturally based initiatives for Latino males have been sprouting up in OST settings and the literature. Like Afrocentric programs, ROP programs for Latino males emphasize ritual, including burning sage and facing different directions as a group to honor males, females, children, ancestors, and the earth. The National Compadres Network has various ROP curricula, including one called *La Cultura Cura*, which facilitates traditional community healing and cohesion (National Latino Fatherhood and Family Institute, 2012). *El Joven Noble*, a nationally recognized evidence-based ROP curriculum (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2012), uses indigenous principles and practices to develop leadership and guide male youth along their path to manhood. The curriculum also helps prevent unhealthy behaviors such as substance abuse, gang violence, relationship violence, and school failure (Tello, Cervantes, Córdova, & Santos, 2010).

One program that is grounded in ROP but also integrates academic support, mentorship, health and wellness, and career development is Latino Men and Boy's Program of the Unity Council, in Oakland, CA (Community Crime Prevention Associates, 2012). Using the *Joven Noble* cur-

riculum, this program helps ground Latino youth in their culture, developing core personal and interpersonal values such as respeto, familismo, personalismo, and colectivismo. Located in school-based health centers, it also facilitates males' comfort with and access to other needed assistance in a full-service community school model.

Mentoring

Mentoring strategies aim to provide positive and consistent male role models for BYMOC. Mentoring is one purpose afterschool programs have historically been able to fulfill for youth generally (Bulanda & Tyson McCrea, 2013). Mentoring programs for BYMOC supplement the efforts of fathers and other positive male role models. While many men serve this role, both inside and outside of the family, researchers have found that African-American and Latino boys and teens were three times less likely than their white counterparts to identify a male role model in their lives (Washington, Johnson, Jones, & Langs, 2007).

As one-on-one adult-child off-site mentoring programs often have long waiting lists for male mentors, OST programs are increasingly offering group mentoring. Such efforts not only facilitate connection with a caring adult role model, but also have been shown to build social skills, relationships with people outside the group, and academic performance and attitudes (Herrerra, Zoua, & Gale, 2002).

One Bay Area organization uses a cascading group mentoring model: Adult men offer manhood training to older male youth, who in turn mentor younger boys. Grounded in ROP and youth development strategies, Brothers on the Rise uses daily rituals such as recitation and analysis of culturally based "words of wisdom," including proverbs, Spanish-language *dichos*, hip-hop lyrics, and youths' digital stories. As a model program for BYMOC (Davis, 2009), Brothers on the Rise combines mentoring strategies, leadership development, job training, parent education, and staff training. It also helps diversify the human services workforce by providing career pipeline programming for young men focused on these professions, while building cultural competence to help schools and agencies serve this population more effectively (Gilgoff & Seals, 2013).

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Enrichment

Enrichment strategies offer skill building and leadership development through engaging modalities such as sports, media, arts, and technology. These initiatives are grounded in learning strategies that both research and practice have shown to be particularly effective for males, including kinesthetic and project-based strategies (Gurian & Stevens, 2011). Although most OST enrichment activities are typically mixed gender, some, such as boys' writing clubs or sports teams, present opportunities to infuse gender-specific strategies.

Practitioners looking to make mixed-gender programs more responsive to males may learn from Youth Radio. This Oakland, CA, organization serves high school aged males and females with media production classes, case management, academic and career advising, and nutrition education. Besides using a media-based modality that many BYMOC find engaging, Youth Radio facilitates gender-specific groups. Its award-winning radio pieces have explored issues of concern to BYMOC, including cyberbullying and work-life-school balance. With their multi-layered book title *Drop That Knowledge*, Soep and Chávez (2010) convey how Youth Radio gives voice to youth wisdom and analysis while encouraging staff to “drop” the expert posture that interferes with empowerment.

Academic Strategies

Academic strategies aim to increase and support school success for BYMOC. Academic initiatives help to bridge the achievement gap, which, although it is greatest for African-American males (Kirp, 2010), also affects Latino males and other ethnic minorities. Academic support, particularly for high school youth, often includes college preparation activities. Recognizing that BYMOC need jobs—a need that is particularly great because of gender socialization to be a breadwinner, media images promoting financial excess, peer pressure to engage in illicit money-making activities such as the drug trade, and requests for contributions to the family income—many college prep programs also integrate career readiness activities (Smith, 2012), including paid internships.

A catalyst in the BYMOC movement, particularly around academic success for African-American boys,

Such initiatives build awareness and engage youth in personal and political transformation through consciousness raising, research, and organizing. In this context, a personal discussion about coping with obstacles becomes a form of political education, contributing to the radical healing that can occur alongside an activist approach.

the Schott Foundation for Education has been active in identifying practices to close the achievement gap and providing tools for youth constituents and adult allies to organize for systemic change. Key characteristics of model high schools named in the foundation's report *A Positive Future for Black Boys* (Sen, 2006) include a college prep curriculum accessible to all students, fair discipline policies, and a strong focus on teacher quality, including selective hiring and ongoing staff development.

Two Bay Area programs addressing academic achievement are the Oakland Unified School District's African American Male Achievement Initiative (AAMA) and the College Bound Brotherhood. The AAMA provides manhood development programming to middle and high school young men, while working at the systemic level to facilitate success and disrupt the school-to-prison pipeline. The College Bound Brotherhood is a network that facilitates information sharing, outreach, joint events, and technical training for agencies working to facilitate African-American males' entry into and completion of higher education. Both programs use media and the arts, including oral histories created with modern tools such as spoken word poetry and video, to give voice to the African-American male struggle.

Policy Advocacy

Policy advocacy strategies engage BYMOC in exploring the root causes of structural barriers to their success, such as poor-quality schools, limited job opportunities, sentencing laws, and policing practices. Such initiatives build awareness and engage youth in personal and political transformation through consciousness raising, research, and organizing. In this context, a personal discussion about coping with obstacles becomes a form of political education, contributing to the radical healing that can occur alongside an activist approach (Ginwright, 2010).

In the Movement Strategy Center report on *What Works* to improve conditions and health outcomes for BYMOC, Lahoud (2013) highlights the need to “change the conversation” (p. 8), shifting from “marginalization to stepping into power” (p. 10). As a best practice from California's Alliance for Boys and Men of Color, the article cites

networks of youth in cities throughout the state who are organizing peers and working with local leaders. Through these efforts, male youth are taking action and advocating for policies and programs that not only meet their needs but also create more just and equitable communities.

One program that engages BYMOC in this way is the Los Angeles County coalition Brothers, Sons, Selves, organized by Liberty Hill. This initiative validates participants' feelings of being pushed out of schools and their assertion that, if they and their peers had jobs, they would not be pulled toward gangs. The organization helps catalyze BYMOC not only to succeed as individuals but also to address inequities such as disproportionate suspension rates and minority contact with the police. Using participatory research, youth identify issues they'd like to change. Then, through organizing efforts, they join with adult allies from community-based organizations and with other local leaders to take collective action. One victory the group achieved in 2013 was the "School Climate Bill of Rights" passed by the Los Angeles and Long Beach school districts (Liberty Hill, n.d.).

In the Bay Area, the Urban Strategies Council coordinates the work of the Oakland-Alameda County Alliance for Boys and Men of Color, which has also worked with youth-serving organizations to rally BYMOC around policy initiatives crafted by the Assembly's Select Committee on the Status of Boys and Men of Color (2012). Participating youth helped inform recommendations and built local coalitions that continue to advocate for state laws affecting BYMOC in the education, employment, and criminal justice systems.

Conclusions, Cautions, and Needs for Further Research

The evolution of OST programs serving BYMOC and the research documenting such initiatives has involved shifts in both approach and implementation. While earlier programs focused on problems and prevention, more recent ones are grounded in assets and empowerment. In the past, individual behaviors were targeted for change, and environmental conditions were cited as predominant influences. In the present, issues are often understood more systemically. Accordingly, goals and activities center not just on personal growth and effective programs, but also

on organizing youth, partnering them with adult allies, and collectively working toward just and equitable policies.

Similarly, though researchers, practitioners, and funders have focused on establishing evidence-based practices since the 1990s (Lieberman et al., 2010), they have increasingly recognized the need to document community-defined and practice-based evidence. This kind of evidence has been relevant in our synthesis because it incorporates the traditions of diverse communities. Moreover, practice-based evidence is particularly useful for exploring issues that have not been studied extensively using traditional empirical science. To capture practice-based evidence, our synthesis included not just books and journal articles, but also web sites and reports from foundations and OST organizations. Mirroring our field's evolution towards a youth empowerment approach, we intentionally included sources

that feature youth voice. Though most of the prevailing practices outlined in this article may not be labeled as "evidence-based practice," they do hold the promise to improve millions of lives.

With the stakes so high, researchers, including those affiliated with funders, need to consider the balance between documenting evidence-based approaches and highlighting practice- and community-based evidence, emerging practices, or simply innovation. The complexity, severity, and urgency of the issues affecting BYMOC make it critical that strategies be tested

and documented without fear of failure. Because practice-based evidence is inherently inclusive of cultural norms (Lieberman et al., 2010), it should be included in plans for program replication. Uplifting practice-based evidence will help counteract the unfair privilege that evidence-based practices continue to enjoy.

Still, although researchers must capture grassroots practices in the emerging field of practice with BYMOC, OST programs working with BYMOC must also emphasize results to maximize the impact and longevity of their efforts. Program managers, site coordinators, and frontline staff must be committed to achieving meaningful goals. Their results will enable researchers to document successes and lessons learned. This documentation can lead in turn to informed funding decisions, which have proven difficult to achieve without sufficient evaluation evidence (Lindsey, 2010).

With the stakes so high, researchers, including those affiliated with funders, need to consider the balance between documenting evidence-based approaches and highlighting practice- and community-based evidence, emerging practices, or simply innovation.

Organizations serving BYMOC, which may be small and grassroots, must partner with the research community, including large and well-resourced universities, to launch longitudinal studies that document program models and further establish what works. Participatory action research offers promise as a youth-centered research methodology (Randolph-Back, 2005) that helps to ensure that recognized best practices are established at least in part by the BYMOC themselves.

When researchers and organizations jointly dedicate themselves to establishing proven models, they are more likely to sustain long-term focus on the needs and contributions of BYMOC—though, like increased attention to other causes, this focus is not guaranteed to last forever. Serving the needs of BYMOC must not become a passing fad. Funders—who increasingly contribute to this literature, drive discourse, and affect decision making—should heed the warning of the Cornerstone Consulting Group (cited in Weiss, Coffman, & Bohan-Baker, 2002) against “foundations that too often fail to do enough, early enough, to ensure sustainability” (p. 9).

Looking more closely over time at the still-developing field of positive youth development, researchers will have the opportunity to create a more coherent framework for understanding gender differences, an issue that still lacks clarity at this point (Vo & Park, 2009). With a better idea of how young men develop differently from young women, gender-specific and responsive programs for BYMOC could be further strengthened. A deeper exploration of gender must include finding strategies to engage and empower BYMOC who identify as gay, bisexual, transgender, two spirit, or other identifications that don't fit into traditional gender constructions.

Another need for future research is studies of OST work with cultural groups that have not received as much attention as African Americans and Latinos in the emerging BYMOC literature, including the Native American and Asian-Pacific Islander communities. “Widening the lens” on BYMOC (Ahuja & Chlala, 2013) will lead to further exploration of how the field works with youth from these and other cultures, including youth who identify as Arab, Middle Eastern, Muslim, or South Asian.

Developing a more robust and diverse literature that both examines under-researched populations and raises new questions about BYMOC groups that have received more attention will help the OST field to inform and inspire a new generation of important practice and policy initiatives. Though our synthesis by no means captures all the available research, we hope it will raise awareness and catalyze action toward more effective practice, more expansive research, and more equitable outcomes for BYMOC.

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Global Kids Organizing in the Global City

Generation of Social Capital in a Youth Organizing Program

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Positive youth development and youth organizing are strengths-based approaches to the lives, needs, and contributions of young people (Damon & Gregory, 2003). These approaches privilege the voices of youth as they engage with issues in their communities and challenge institutions to respond. Few studies, however, have explored the role of positive youth development and youth organizing initiatives among immigrant youth of color.

The challenging terrain of modern urban life requires these youth to navigate the political, economic, and legal demands confronted by their families; to understand the rules for success in public schools; and to steer clear of violence in their communities. Larger issues such as climate change and environmental justice understandably cannot be priorities for youth who are preoccupied with day-to-day survival. The Global Kids Greening Western Queens initiative sought to bridge the gaps between individual and collective concerns and between local and global issues by training immigrant youth of color to become community organizers.

This out-of-school time (OST) program emphasized positive youth development and youth organizing to help New York City immigrant youth of color address key issues in their lives, their communities, and their world. This article describes the initiative and provides an integrated theoretical framework that synthesizes the literature on youth organizing, civic engagement,

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and social capital to reveal the substantive processes that occur in positive youth development and youth organizing. The experiences of 12 Greening Western Queens participants, captured through in-depth interviews, highlight the transformative potential of OST programming for immigrant youth of color.

The Global Kids Green Roof Initiative

The mission of the Global Kids program Greening Western Queens was to develop a cadre of youth activists who were committed to improving environmental conditions in western Queens. Their purpose was to lead community organizing efforts and achieve at least one policy victory. Funded by the North Star Foundation, the initiative successfully developed 100 youth environmental activists during 2011–2013.

The following blog post by Lamissa, a 10th grader, about the opening Greening Western Queens summer institute brings to life the essence of a youth organizing initiative:

The first day we started with the basics, an introduction of the institute's new project and new staff.... The second day the interns were divided into small groups and we went on a human scavenger hunt. On the streets of the community, we asked the people of Astoria and Long Island City about climate change....

On Thursday, we went to P.S. 41's green roof.... We learned how much people contributed to that green roof, especially their students, their teachers, and the rest of the local community. On Friday we had a guest speaker, Dr. Sharon Jay, who provided us with information dealing with New York City public schools' sustainability. After she left Global Kids, leaders [students] were given a school here in the city, and we just researched about it. (Tasmin, 2013)

The summer institute in 2013 involved 25–30 high school students in two weeks of intensive knowledge and skill-building activities focused on environmental sustainability. Designed to involve students who had participated in the afterschool program in further learning

and hands-on experience as environmental activists, the institute was also open to new students interested in environmental issues. It was followed by a two-week internship at a partnering environmental organization.

Global Kids has worked for 25 years with youth from low-income, underserved communities in New York City and Washington, DC. The program helps youth develop their academic and personal skills, increase their global awareness and understanding of critical social issues, motivate them to succeed in school, and prepare them to make contributions to their local communities and beyond.

Greening Western Queens was developed as part of one of Global Kids' core programs, the Human Rights Activist Project (HRAP). HRAP prepares young people to tackle serious issues by developing and implementing public policy campaigns. It gives them skills, support, and opportunities to advocate for the human rights and social justice issues they care about. Participants have addressed complex issues such as racial profiling by police, lack of access to healthy foods in poor neighborhoods, and lack of tolerance in schools. A human rights framework engages students in linking human rights, community needs, and international issues and then connecting all of these with

their own lives. HRAP uses a four-phase process:

1. Research, discussion, and analysis of related policy issues with peers
2. Creation of a human rights campaign
3. Campaign execution, including community outreach and collaboration with advocacy groups
4. Campaign evaluation and formation of a follow-up or sustainability plan

This four-phase process follows a one-year timeline. Continuing into a second year makes the process more robust and builds greater capacity in participants. Youth are trained in organizing strategies, the policymaking process, creation of campaign messages for media and public outreach, coalition building, public speaking, and other leadership skills that make them effective advocates and community educators. HRAP fosters youth decision making and leadership; the youth themselves direct and

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develop each campaign. According to the Global Kids 2012–2013 annual report, HRAP participants led human rights campaigns focused on food justice, racial profiling by the police, and climate change, to name just a few topics. Some campaigns emphasized education and outreach to increase community awareness of specific public policies, while others strategically focused on policy change.

Greening Western Queens, an HRAP initiative, was an afterschool youth organizing program focused on community outreach, education, and mobilization. Participants (see Figure 1) sought to address pressing environmental concerns, including poor air quality, water pollution, and lack of green spaces, that contributed to high asthma rates and other health problems in western Queens. Program activities were conducted after school once a week at each of two high schools during 2011–2013. Reflecting the ethnic diversity of western Queens, participants came from varied racial and ethnic backgrounds. Many were immigrants or children of immigrants.

During the program, youth researched environmental issues affecting their communities, educated their peers on environmental issues, and mobilized with other community groups. They also participated in retreats, meetings with elected officials, field trips to environmental organizations, and community organizing events. The initiative centered on student-led public policy campaigns. In the first year, students led efforts aimed at improving the air quality in western Queens by calling on residential building and commercial business owners to



Figure 1. Participants in the Greening Western Queens initiative

change the type of oil used in boilers.

In the second year, students launched a campaign to persuade New York City school officials to install green roofs on one school in each borough, specifically in communities with high environmental burdens. The students' efforts resulted in a major policy victory: School officials agreed to the installation of a green roof on William C. Bryant High School in western Queens. This result shows that engaging young people in promoting the health and well-being of their communities can not only

develop young activists committed to advancing social change but also lead to real community improvements.

Youth Organizing, Civic Engagement, and Social Capital

Reflecting a positive youth development framework, Global Kids grounds young people in a solid understanding of local and global issues while developing their leadership skills and giving them opportunities to engage as active citizens in their communities and beyond. Such youth organizing initiatives foster civic participation and youth leadership through direct engagement with pressing community problems, action research, and advocacy (Fox et al., 2010; Ginwright & James, 2002; Kirshner, Strobel, & Fernandez, 2003).

Positive youth development and youth organizing models emerged in a shift away from deficit-oriented approaches to youth work. These strengths-based approaches focus on understanding how children influence and are influenced by their contexts and on

creating pathways for youth civic action (Alexander, 2001, as cited in Camino & Zeldin, 2002; Benson et al., 2006; Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005). They emphasize what Watts and Flanagan (2007) call the *sociopolitical development* of youth:

...the evolving, critical understanding of the political, economic, cultural and other systemic forces that shape society and one's status in it, and the associated process of growth in relevant knowledge, analytic skills and emotional faculties. (p. 784)

Youth organizing OST programming fosters networks of relationships among participants, program staff, and community leaders and stakeholders. These social processes relate directly to the concept of *civic engagement*: individuals demonstrating an interest in issues beyond their private concerns by participating in local or national politics, cultural associations, neighborhood groups, and the like (Janmaat, 2008; Triandafyllidou & Vogel, 2006).

Civic engagement in youth organizing is related to the concept of *social capital*, which is broadly defined as a set of resources individuals derive from social networks (Bourdieu; 1986; Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995). As Weller (2006) observes, social capital "is not an 'object' but rather a set of interactions and relationships based on trust and reciprocity that have the potential to be transformative" (p. 562). Participation in youth organizing provides young people opportunities to develop organizational and critical thinking skills as they gain access to people and processes that enable change. They may activate these resources on their own behalf or on behalf of others. Of the six domains of social capital articulated by the World Bank Institute (Dudwick, Kuehnast, Nyhan Jones, & Woolcock, 2006), three are especially relevant to environmental justice youth organizing: trust and solidarity, collective action and cooperation, and empowerment and political action. These domains reflect social capital as it is activated through the youths' participation in Greening Western Queens.

Putnam's (1995) definitions of bonding and bridging forms of social capital has also been applied to afterschool programming for immigrant youth (Camras, 2004). *Bonding* social capital reinforces trust and reciprocity within

homogenous groups, whereas *bridging* social capital reflects relationships of trust and reciprocity across heterogeneous groups (Putnam, 1995, 2000; Reynolds, 2010). As Camras (2004) observes, "While bonding social capital fosters connections to one's own community, bridging social capital fosters connections to diverse others and to the society at large" (p. 22). The concepts of bonding and bridging social capital are useful in understanding how youth organizing helps immigrant youth engage with the broader society, exposing them to resources and opportunities outside their neighborhoods and ethnic communities.

This integrated understanding of positive youth development, youth organizing, civic engagement, and social capital provides a useful framework for analyzing the experiences of participants in Greening Western Queens.

Research Design

In order to gain insight into the experiences of participants in Greening Western Queens, we used a qualitative case study design (Stake, 1994; Yin, 2003). We conducted in-depth interviews with 12 youth participants using a semi-structured protocol that focused on the World Bank Institute's key domains of social capital (Dudwick et al., 2006). Data collection was conducted during the second year of the initiative, in the late spring and summer of 2013. After obtaining human subject approval from the

Hunter College Human Research Protection Program, we conducted six interviews with participants in the school-year program and another six with participants in the Greening Western Queens summer institute.

Of the 12 interviewees, nine had been engaged in the initiative during the academic year, and three had participated only in the summer programming. The youth ranged in age from 15 to 17 and were enrolled in grades 9–11 in one of two western Queens high schools. The sample was

evenly distributed in terms of gender, with six males and six females. The interviewees reflected a diverse range of racial and ethnic backgrounds: Four students identified as Hispanic, three as Asian, two as South Asian, and one each as African, African American, and Middle Eastern.

The guiding question for this inquiry was "To what extent does an OST youth organizing initiative serve to increase the civic engagement of immigrant youth and connectedness to community issues as interpreted through the lens of social capital?"

To what extent does an OST youth organizing initiative serve to increase the civic engagement of immigrant youth and connectedness to community issues as interpreted through the lens of social capital?

How Greening Western Queens Built Social Capital

Interview participants provided rich descriptions of how Greening Western Queens fostered their leadership, civic engagement, and connection to community issues. They described the processes by which they learned about critical environmental issues affecting their communities, worked together to identify policy solutions, and collaborated to educate and mobilize community residents as they worked for their proposed policy change, “greening” school building roofs. Their voices reveal how they developed social capital in three of the World Bank Institute’s domains: trust and solidarity, collective action and cooperation, and empowerment and political action (Dudwick et al., 2006).

Trust and Solidarity

Dudwick and colleagues (2006) define trust and solidarity as “the extent to which people feel they can rely on relatives, neighbors, colleagues, acquaintances, key service providers, and even strangers, either to assist them or (at least) do them no harm” (p. 16). Although it is difficult to define, *trust* in a given context may be a choice, or it may reflect a dependency born out of interaction in familiar networks (Dudwick et al., 2006). Distinguishing between these two levels of trust is important for understanding how trust can influence people’s social relationships (Dudwick et al., 2006).

Participants in Greening Western Queens said that they valued the opportunity to work in groups with diverse peers and staff, all of whom had different perspectives. Although we did not specifically ask participants if they “trusted” their peers, participants spoke about how they relied on one another to research their issue and devise a campaign to achieve their policy goal. Dudwick and colleagues (2006) define this aspect of trust as a learned dependency. Participants developed trust as they shared responsibility, learned leadership, and addressed challenges together.

In the process, participants expanded their network of resources. Some interviewees, for example, said that they connected not only with other participants but also with people in other groups who shared their passion for environmental justice. For example, Jenny, a 15-year-old girl from Egypt, said:

I actually really liked working in groups or teams, because if I work alone it’s only my ideas, my point of view towards things, but working as a group, you don’t only receive one point of view, but you receive many points of view.... So it’s actually been very

beneficial because I don’t only see things or view things from my view, but actually from other people’s views.

Jenny’s observation suggests that she developed bridging social capital by being exposed to new ideas and ways to solve problems. She learned to apprehend the point of view of individuals who were different.

Other participants described gaining access to new knowledge through contact with Global Kids staff and with other environmental groups and activists. David, a 17-year-old from China, observed, “We [went] to different schools and different gardens, and worked with their workers. In my opinion, we got more power and more knowledge.” Linda, a Latina 10th grader, described the new organizations she had visited:

I have been introduced to ... Build-it Green. They save up scrap and all that and then they make new things out of it. And then, the Brooklyn Grange—it’s an actual green roof.

The participants said that these visits not only helped them make new connections but also gave them confidence to reach out and speak about their work.

Youth participants also discussed how these new connections could benefit their future academic and career goals. For example, Linda observed that she met “important people from the government” through Greening Western Queens. She commented that she has kept these individuals’ contact information with the intent of applying for internships in the near future. Work on the green initiative gave participants opportunities to extend outward, to develop a sense of fitting in, and to connect with communities and resources they would not otherwise have been able to access. As they made these connections, they were developing political power to influence policy change.

Collective Action and Cooperation

Collective action and cooperation is closely related to trust and solidarity. This dimension of social capital examines the extent to which people feel they can come together to address community problems (Dudwick et al., 2006). To understand how Greening Western Queens participants experienced collective action and cooperation in their communities, we asked interviewees to define the term *community* and to describe the community in which they lived.

Interview responses suggest that participants’ notions of community were complex, transcending geography. Important concepts included not only bridging and

bonding social capital but also issues of safety, trust, and diversity. Definitions of *community* varied widely, for example:

- “Where there is a diverse group of people, they can all come together even despite different cultures ... and help out where they live.”
- “Neighbors around my community... people with ... stores; neighbors, friends, and family around me.”
- “Everyone uniting ... if they want to solve a problem ... or helping each other.”

Some participants said they felt safe in their home communities, while others did not. Many valued the friendliness of community members and their willingness to help one another, a notable finding in light of the fact that all the youth described their communities as ethnically diverse. One girl observed that residents in her community “get along.... If there’s any kind of problem ... they talk to each other; they come up with the solutions.”

Respondents strongly suggested that where one lives does not define one’s community. Community, they said, is defined not by geography but by safety and comfort—where they felt they could be themselves. Anna, a Latina 11th grader, stated, “I believe community is where there is safe space and where [people] can really come together. Safe space is just being able to express yourself without being judged.” Anna did not consider the community where she lived to be a safe space because of neighborhood violence and drug use. She observed that residents in her neighborhood “stay in their own lane.” She thought they would not “mix in” or come together to help solve community problems.

This sense of distance or apathy on the part of community residents was shared by many study participants. Abby, an African-American 11th grader who identified gang violence and high asthma rates as her community’s most pressing problems, said that existing mechanisms for addressing community issues were underutilized:

We do have monthly meetings with our community board, but not a lot of people show up. So ... I guess

people don’t care. But the community board ... they’re trying to reach people, but no one wants to take the time, and, you know, solve these problems so—I don’t think it’s our community board’s fault or the officials. It’s pretty much the community, ’cause they’re not taking the time to go to the meetings and listen to what everybody has to say.

Abby holds residents responsible for the low level of civic engagement she describes. She may not recognize that community officials sometimes operate in ways that diminish community participation because they realize benefits from low participation levels. In her study of Hispanic immigrant communities, Cheong (2006) stresses the importance of contextual dimensions that pose major challenges to the development of social capital. These social, cultural, and political contexts, Cheong finds, “may limit

the operation of cooperative norms, participation in voluntary associations and activation of shared values that are currently promoted as good social capital” (p. 383). The unwillingness to participate in community building that Abby observed may be related to structural constraints that hinder the development of social cohesion and civic engagement, especially in immigrant communities. Still, her statement reveals that this Greening Western Queens participant had become politically engaged and understood the value of collective action.

Youth participants identified a variety of problems in their communities, including noise pollution, drug abuse, domestic violence, high

rents and poor living conditions, truancy, health problems, and high rates of violence. One said, “I just wish that we could do community services there and help clean the streets.” Respondents cited a lack of awareness among community residents of the impact of environmental conditions on their quality of life. Larry, a 16-year-old boy from Ghana, said:

Nobody [in the community] actually has more knowledge about the environment and what causes pollution.... I don’t think [anybody] actually is more aware of [the] environment, because you got a lot of things which you have to think about. So the environment is the last thing which is on people’s minds.

Work on the green initiative gave participants opportunities to extend outward, to develop a sense of fitting in, and to connect with communities and resources they would not otherwise have been able to access. As they made these connections, they were developing political power to influence policy change.

Participation in Greening Western Queens inspired most of the youth to be more active in educating their family members, peers, and community residents about environmental problems. Interviewees directly linked their experience in the program to actions they could take to make changes in their communities. For example, Connie, a 16-year-old South Asian girl, said that she was “really thankful” that she was involved in the Global Kids program. She went on to say, “So, for my community, if I know more about this, I could spread the news around and they would be more engaged.” Participants reported that being part of the initiative made them feel involved with their community, helped build friendships with their peers, and gave them a broader cultural perspective because the group was so diverse. Jenny observed:

I’ve met people from different ethnicities, from different religions, and from different communities. It’s actually benefitted me a lot, because I got to know more about the place they lived in or what has happened to them. And [that experience] actually made me aware of ... other things I didn’t even know existed before.

Youth participants identified as an important outcome of their learning experience a recognition that all community members need to cooperate in order to improve living conditions for all.

Empowerment and Political Action

Dudwick and colleagues (2006) observe that the social capital dimension of empowerment and political action involves “a sense of satisfaction, personal efficacy, and the capacity of network and group members to influence both local events and broader political outcomes” (p. 25).

The campaign planned and implemented by participants in Greening Western Queens, in which they advocated for green roofs on NYC public schools, centered on obtaining signatures on a petition to be presented to the chancellor of the NYC Department of Education. One theme that emerged as the youth spoke about this campaign was their commitment to improving the quality of life in their communities. Linda keenly felt how the initiative addressed problems in her community:

When it comes to employment and financial problems, it would help a lot. Greening Western Queens would help them a lot because ... right now we’re thinking about green roofs and that would help because ... to maintain green roofs, to even construct them would be a whole different area of employment, which would help a lot the people in my com-

munity to get some kind of employment. And ... I know a lot of times, when you have financial problems, when you don’t know what to do, you get under a lot of stress. Having a greener area—that actually helps the mind relax.

The participants’ responses also promoted the value of advocacy, education, and the need for cooperation to effect change. Larry said:

The more people know about certain things, the more curiosity it brings. The more curiosity, the more people will research. More research, more planning. More planning, more action.

All of the interviewees expressed a desire to educate family members, classmates, neighbors, and community leaders about the green roof initiative. Jenny, for example, said:

The whole concept of green roofs, it actually made ... other people mostly aware of what was happening.... I actually saw how much of a difference the idea and the concept [made], with not only me but many other people.

Study participants also demonstrated a common understanding of government and the process for policy change. The majority demonstrated an understanding of civics in discussions of their meetings with politicians, lobbyists, and government employees. They appreciated the interest and encouragement they received from these representatives. They also learned that implementing policy change is a difficult process that requires persistence and patience.

Getting signatures on the petition opened up opportunities for youth to reach out beyond their own communities and groups with which they regularly associated. Jenny also shared:

If you actually get enough signatures, you could make a change. So the idea of a petition was good in both ways, that not only are you getting someone to sign ... but you’re actually informing them about what you’re talking about.... So you’re basically not only getting a school or a club or an organization to participate in this act, but anyone else who would like to.

Another valuable lesson youth learned was the power of using their voice to advocate for change. Fanny, a 15-year-old Puerto Rican girl, stated:

Your voice can make a difference. ‘Cause you

wouldn't think that some people are interested, but sometimes, when you would walk around your community, people feel really passionate about it: "Oh, my goodness, yes, someone is finally talking about this."

Youth Organizing Makes a Difference

Greening Western Queens showcases the power youth can have when engaged in meaningful and well-planned activities that support civic engagement and the development of social capital. Our interviews strongly suggest that youth participants developed both knowledge of the effects of environmental degradation on their communities and skills that enabled them to persuade community stakeholders to support the development of green roofs on city schools. More importantly, the initiative helped the youth to feel connected to community concerns and to believe that their involvement could make a difference in the well-being of their schools and communities.

Youth described how they built both bonding and bridging social capital in relationships with other youth participants, program staff, and community stakeholders and other residents. They directly linked their program experience to actions they could take to make changes in their local communities, even as they demonstrated how these changes affected the "global city" and the rest of the world. While our findings are not generalizable to other youth organizing programs, they offer useful insight into the activities and processes that enable immigrant youth of color to claim their communities and empower them to shape their destiny.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Robert Bowne Foundation for its generous support of this study through the Edmund A. Stanley, Jr., Research Grant. We would also like to extend our gratitude to the Global Kids students and staff who made this important work possible. Global Kids would like to thank the North Star Fund for its generous support of the Greening Western Queens initiative.

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Should Rey Mysterio Drink Gatorade?

Cultural Competence in Afterschool STEM Programming

Kathryn Ciechanowski, SueAnn Bottoms, Ana Lucia Fonseca, and Tyler St. Clair

The afterschool hours offer children unscripted and flexible time to explore their spaces and interests so they can learn in and from their surroundings. They engage with the world, exploring natural environments and connecting with others through social relationships. For example, during informal fútbol games with friends, children learn how to position their bodies to block opponents and take shots on goal. At home, they view cartoons on television and delight in characters that float by escaping from gravity. With their families, they prepare the garden in spring by collecting earthworms and expelling slugs. While interacting with the world, they build relationships with family, friends, and community members to co-construct understanding and share knowledge.

Although teaching Western science gives children access to science professions, this education should take place in socioculturally relevant ways using the contexts of children's lives. According to the U.S.

Department of Education, students of color comprised 42 percent of public school students in 2007; they are projected to reach majority status in the next few decades (National Center for Education Statistics,

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2007). Latino/as, the fastest-growing and youngest demographic group, will constitute nearly 30 percent of the entire U.S. population by 2040 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008). However, the teaching force in the U.S. is predominantly white and middle class (Castro, 2010). Researchers have found that school educators are not fully prepared to meet the learning needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students (King, Shumow, & Lietz, 2001; Lee, Hart, Cuevas, & Enders, 2004).

Connections to children's lives and resources in children's communities can be used to foster science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) learning when educators pause to notice children's ideas and questions. Families Involved in Education: Sociocultural Teaching and STEM (FIESTAS) creates space in which educators can look for and use these connections. FIESTAS is a model of collaboration between a teacher education unit and a STEM afterschool program. FIESTAS educators develop sociocultural competency that encourages them to position young people as experts and to ask questions to explore children's thinking. The afterschool program provides the opportunity to deepen how preservice teachers and afterschool staff explore children's funds of knowledge, notice children's thinking, and weave standards-based STEM content into rich learning environments for elementary-age youth.

Funds of Knowledge and Culturally Competent Approaches to STEM

Barton (2000) claims that "it is not enough to teach students rules for participation in science if those rules do not connect to the students' out-of-school lives" (p. 799). Sociocultural approaches to science intentionally notice children's ways of being and knowing (Rosaen, Lundeberg, Cooper, Fritzen, & Terpstra, 2008), such as telling stories, exploring their environment, or practicing *fútbol* moves—even when these actions are not obviously connected to science. Sociocultural approaches purposefully ask guided yet open-ended questions to nudge children to use their knowledge of the world to think deeply about scientific concepts and processes (Rosaen et al., 2010).

Sociocultural approaches also recommend that educators interrogate the ways in which societal inequalities are implicated in science education (Barton, 2000). Practitioners should question how traditional science education stifles children's voices, reproduces prejudice and inequity, and disempowers children and families. They can then actively reflect on ways to broaden children's opportunities and harness cultural resources to empower youth in science. Focusing on sociocultural processes, studies of effective afterschool programs demonstrate how children actively build relationships with adults and peers; co-construct knowledge in their experiences and networks of people; and live and play in culturally specific contexts (Honig & McDonald, 2005).

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When educators leverage sociocultural contexts, they become more culturally competent and responsive to children and families. According to Ladson-Billings (1995), culturally competent educators create learning environments that affirm students' identities and backgrounds, thereby providing "a way for students to maintain their cultural integrity while succeeding academically" (p. 476). Using *funds of knowledge* is one way to draw on communities' sociocultural assets as resources for teaching and learning. Moll, Amanti, Neff, and Gonzalez (1992) describe funds of knowledge as "historically accumulated and culturally

developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential for household or individual functioning and well-being" (p. 133). Funds of knowledge in mathematics and science, for example, come from activities including farming, carpentry, automobile maintenance, and household budgeting. According to Moll and colleagues (1992), children are part of "flexible, adaptive, and active" networks in which they interact with people across multiple contexts to become known as whole persons.

Through careful listening and observation, educators can develop an understanding of children's knowledge and skills. They can then harness that understanding to connect deeply to children's worlds and to see families as valuable intellectual resources. Noticing and questioning strategies enable them to discover science- and math-related cultural practices and position children as experts

in a co-learning process. This culturally competent approach enhances collaboration and participation on the part of children from many cultures.

Out-of-school time (OST) programs provide flexible and open-ended opportunities to notice children's observations and thinking, ask provocative questions about science, and focus on disciplinary practices in science while engaging youth (MacEwan, 2013). Bevan and Michalchik (2013) posit that OST programs give children opportunities to capitalize on their interests to learn STEM concepts and other enriching topics.

To build cultural competence and critical thinking, Van Sluys, Lewison, and Flint (2006) propose a four-part framework for use with educators. A key component is the idea of *disrupting the commonplace*. This disruption requires educators to critique the world and to interrogate everyday ways of seeing it. Practitioners develop ways of speaking and thinking that disrupt what is considered to be "normal," "dominant," or "common." The FIESTAS model takes up this concept to disrupt traditional definitions of teaching and learning.

Implementing the FIESTAS Project

FIESTAS is a collaboration between Oregon State University's College of Education and 4-H Youth Development. The 4-H STEM program focuses on enhancing STEM knowledge, interest, and commitment in Latino/a and other youth in grades 3–5. This age range was chosen in an attempt to reach youth, especially those underrepresented in STEM fields, early in their schooling. Dropout rates for Latino/a children are the largest among underrepresented populations, especially in STEM careers (Litow, 2008). In keeping with these goals, the FIESTAS project has two primary purposes: to expose Latino/a youth to STEM-related programs and to engage preservice teachers in culturally and linguistically diverse settings.

Who Participated

Through courses in science methods, math methods, and multicultural and ESOL/bilingual education, faculty at the College of Education engage undergraduate and graduate preservice teachers in practicing STEM with Latino/a youth and families in local schools. The elementary preservice teachers are mostly from small

towns in the Pacific Northwest; about 90 percent are white and middle class, and most are female.

The afterschool 4-H STEM program began in 2010 at two local elementary schools. Each school has approximately 400 children, high percentages of whom live in poverty, as indicated by provision of free and reduced-price lunch. Both serve culturally and linguistically diverse students, including speakers of English, Spanish, Arabic, and other languages; both offer schoolwide Spanish dual immersion programs. The afterschool STEM program is part of a 21st Century Community Learning Center program administered by the local Boys & Girls Club. The STEM club meets twice a week for 45 minutes, enrolling approximately 15 third through fifth graders at one site and 20 at the other. Most students are Latino/a or other underrepresented youth.

In 2011, the College of Education launched the FIESTAS project and partnered with 4-H to bring preservice teachers into the program. For the last three years, preservice teachers have worked with students in the 4-H STEM program in both schools during fall, winter, and spring terms, six to eight times per term. Each year, 56 preservice teachers worked with teams of youth to engage them

with science and math concepts in classrooms, school playgrounds, neighborhood gardens, an aquatic center, a grocery store, and a movie theater. Activities included a variety of math, physics, nutrition, and technology projects. For example, during one school year, 4-H STEM program participants completed experiments and other experiential learning activities on forms of energy and energy use.

How Staff Were Prepared

MacEwan (2013) states that professional development for faculty and staff is essential for effective afterschool STEM programming, as many OST staff do not feel prepared to lead STEM activities. He suggests that professional development should engage afterschool staff in discussing curriculum and collaborating on pedagogy. This process allows faculty and staff to work through broad conceptual underpinnings and talk about successful engagement with STEM disciplines (MacEwan, 2013).

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In keeping with that suggestion, 4-H afterschool staff became part of FIESTAS. They engaged in weekly meetings, conference presentations, curriculum design, and publications, all connected to the three-part framework outlined below. Weekly professional development meetings included professors, graduate students, and 4-H faculty and staff; quarterly meetings also included staff of the Boys & Girls Club. During these meetings, the team discussed program administration, budgets, short- and long-range planning, grant writing, data analysis, and theories. 4-H and education faculty have been redesigning the College of Education's science and math methods courses based on the three-part framework.

A Three-Part Framework for Cultural Competence

The FIESTAS three-part framework connects afterschool STEM programming to the school curriculum and standards while tapping the funds of knowledge children bring to science learning. OST staff and preservice teachers facilitate learning in three intentional ways:

- Intentional noticing of what children are saying and doing
- Intentional questioning practices
- Intentional connection to STEM standards

Rosaen and colleagues (2008) describe methods for *noticing* children's thinking and interactions with natural phenomena. Noticing shifts adults' focus from their own behavior and classroom management to children's words and actions. In FIESTAS, *noticing* involved focus on the nuances of discussion-based teaching, using notes and technological tools such as digital video or photography. Preservice teachers recorded their own interactions with children, and the children used digital video and photography to document their thinking about STEM topics. Reflecting on these two sets of digital recordings enabled preservice teachers to note *what* children were thinking in regard to content and *how* they were thinking about it. Educators could also see whether and how they were attending to children's own thoughts on science concepts and approximations of science processes.

As they notice, educators use *questioning* strategies

to facilitate discussion about important science concepts (Rosaen et al., 2010). Questions also give children a model of how to pay attention to their own noticing, so that they can develop questioning as a practice of their own. In FIESTAS, questioning strategies included asking about content in open-ended ways that required the children, rather than the adult, to do the thinking. Preservice teachers and staff used questioning strategies (Elsteeg, 1985) to get at children's thinking about specific science ideas or concepts. Questioning strategies develop scientific thinking by shifting the focus from the adult's preconceived notions of how the activity should go to the children's connections and ideas.

Afterschool programs can *connect to standards* without becoming simply extensions of the school. For years, state and national standards have focused on an inquiry approach to science—an approach that many afterschool programs have long emphasized. Now *A Framework for K–12 Science* (National Research Council, 2011) and the Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS, National

Research Council, 2014) continue this effort by linking knowledge development and scientific and engineering practices with children's interests and experiences. The focus on practices purposefully shifts the focus from what adults say to what children do. Educators can target NGSS by planning problem-based inquiry lessons based on children's thinking about science. While children bring their funds of knowledge from their families and communities, learning remains grounded in practices, vocabulary, skills, and concepts that are essential in school and disciplinary science. The flexible and informal environment of the afterschool program enabled

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Rey Misterio, Gatorade, and Culturally Competent STEM Learning

An incident that took place in winter 2013 demonstrates the use of the three-part framework to bring together children's funds of knowledge and STEM learning. This

case demonstrates how *noticing* and *questioning* can turn a potentially chaotic scene into one focused on valuable science ideas.

Intentional Noticing and Questioning

On this winter day, fourth graders went outside with digital cameras in hand to explore science in their neighborhood. “Bernardo” and “Julian” (all names are pseudonyms) decided that climbing on the playground equipment was their science lesson of the day. They brought a lot of unguided energy and movement to their activity. Demonstrating the action of a professional wrestler, Bernardo jumped off the slide. Julian, who stood alongside the slide, said that some wrestlers are smart because they “fake wrestle” and put on purple makeup to resemble bruises. It seemed impossible just then to teach the boys about science; they were engrossed in re-enacting moves of the popular wrestler Rey Mysterio.

However, Lea, the 4-H afterschool educator, was *noticing* what the boys were thinking about. Rather than adhering to preconceived notions of science and fixating on discipline, she noticed that the boys were thinking about physical activity and how to control body motions to avoid injury and subdue an opponent. With preservice teacher Sid looking on, she then used *questioning* to position the boys as competent experts. Her moves focused their attention and turned wrestling into a resource for learning science.

Lea: Can I ask you something? Can you come a little bit [closer]? Imagine that I’m a wrestler. Bernardo, come. I need your expertise on this topic because I truly don’t know. So if you’re a wrestler and I’m a wrestler, and I am like this, my feet are like this, and yours too, and I push you, could I throw you?

Instead of climbing the slide, Julian stood attentively before Lea and Sid, looked them in the eyes, and confidently answered “yes,” explaining how he would position his body to avoid getting toppled. He explained wrestlers need to take a wide stance for balance and

to bend their knees to keep their weight close to the ground. He had informal everyday knowledge that could meaningfully be connected to science. By referring to his expertise and saying “I truly don’t know,” Lea positioned herself as learner and Julian as a holder of valuable knowledge. Rather than trying to redirect the boys, she showed that she cared about what they cared about and allowed Julian to show what he knew.

It would have been easy to dismiss the boys’ captivation with wrestling as off-task and to classify their behavior as an infraction. A single-minded focus on a pre-scripted lesson would have blinded the educator to what these boys knew. In his journal reflection, Sid, the preservice teacher, wrote:

In my experience with the boys at [school name], I would not have discovered their fascination with Rey Mysterio had I shown up with certain curriculum I wanted to teach them about science. It is entirely too easy to have an agenda and be so focused on it ... that you fail to listen to what your students are telling you.

Had it not been for the lack of focus Bernardo and Julian had that day, we would not have been willing to try anything, and we would have failed to listen to their ranting and raving about Rey Mysterio. Had we missed it, we would have missed an opportunity to teach.

By noticing, listening, and asking appropriate questions, Lea and Sid tapped the sociocultural resources their students brought to science learning.

The questions were an appropriate way to stimulate STEM learning because they were open-ended, interrogated the boys’ science understanding, and positioned them as experts. Using information garnered from intentional noticing, the educators could then craft science activities that would interest Bernardo and Julian (and others) and transform their knowledge into a STEM learning opportunity.

PROMPTS THAT POSITION CHILDREN AS COMPETENT

- I need your expertise on....
- I truly don’t know about.... Can I ask you?
- What do you think? Why do you think that?
- How would you do it?
- What does that do? Why is it better?
- What would happen if...?
- What do you know about this topic?
- Have you ever seen something like that in your life? Where?

Connecting Cultural Competence and Science Standards

The idea of connecting wrestling and science standards was new to everyone. In fact, Lea and Sid had never

heard of Rey Mysterio. So their next step positioned them as lifelong learners: They used the Internet to learn about this area of popular culture. At www.reymysterio.com, they learned that Rey, a wrestling superstar, had been around for 20 years. His uncle Rey Misterio was famous on the Mexican wrestling scene; the younger Rey made his wrestling appearance at 14 under his uncle's guidance. Rey Mysterio thus connected the boys not only to peer and popular culture but also to their national and ethnic identity, as the boys' families were from Mexico.

The concept of body functions in sports resonated for Lea and Sid. They realized that the children's preference for the sports drink Gatorade provided the basis for an engaging project in chemistry and nutrition. The focus on Gatorade tied in to Julian's intuitive understanding of body processes during physical activity. It also engaged more children, including two girls who chose to join this group.

Sid planned an investigation into the differences in ingredients between sports drinks and water. Questions included: What happens when you do exercise such as wrestling? Why would a drink like Gatorade help when doing physical activity? He posed an inquiry problem in a video he made for the children.

[Video begins with Rey Mysterio photos and music. Sid uses an animated voice and facial features and then gets a serious look when questioned.]

Sid: So where does Rey Mysterio go when he needs some liquid? Gatorade. Why? Because Gatorade is the best. Whenever you're drinking something, you need to be drinking Gatorade because it rejuvenates everything you need.

Assistant: What's so great about Gatorade?

Sid: Well, uh, it's Gatorade. It's got everything you need.

Assistant: So what's good about it?

Sid: I don't know. I don't even know what's in this stuff. I have no clue. I guess you guys are going to have to tell me. Bernardo and Julian, that's your goal. You've got to tell me, what's in this stuff? And what's so good about it? I'm going to give you the ingredients, and you've got to find out.

Having watched the video, the children pondered the questions on their own before science class. At lesson time, they bounded into the classroom with enthusiasm, carrying their own bottles of Gatorade and heading straight for the activity table. (See "Activity Design" on page 35.)

Engaging Children Through Meaningful Cultural Practices

Several features of the investigation kept children interested and conceptually engaged. Their funds of knowledge were the basis of an inquiry-based activity in which they linked everyday language to disciplinary terminology and used scientific tools and processes to investigate a culturally relevant topic. The educators used multiple strategies particularly effective with English language learners. They repeatedly linked their lesson to an identity children valued by referencing Rey Mysterio. Throughout, they were guided by the three-part framework for cultural competence.

Noticing

The first step of the framework for culturally competent education is to notice how children interact with their environment, looking for ways in which they experience science in everyday life. Children's everyday cultural practices—their funds of knowledge—can be leveraged for science learning when educators pay attention to the ways in which children act on the world. In our example, Lea and Sid could have dismissed the wrestling moves of Bernardo and Julian as inconsequential, but instead the educators' asset-focused mindset oriented them toward the usefulness of the behaviors. Emdin (2008) claims that "the powerful connection students have with their peers and their distinct cultural understandings ... are points of entry that educators and researchers must use to engage students in science" (p. 773). While Bernardo and Julian were oriented toward each other and toward Rey Mysterio, they were also embodying scientific concepts in their physical positions and movements. This connection became a point of entry to science learning because the educators noticed and used it.

Questioning

After noticing children's cultural practices, educators may use questioning strategies to expand on these cultural connections and to tap children's funds of knowledge. When Lea said, "I need your expertise on this topic, because I truly don't know," she opened an opportunity not only to assess Bernardo and Julian's knowledge of physics but also to empower the boys as holders of valuable knowledge. In addition, she drew out the boys' use of everyday language to explain a scientific concept. When she asked why a wide-legged position was better, Julian replied, "because it's wider, and they might only push over one leg." In everyday language, he demonstrated an understanding of how a wider stance lowers the center of gravity.

ACTIVITY DESIGN

MATERIALS

- Sports drink, paper cups, water, food coloring, salt, sugar, orange juice, paper towels, index cards with vocabulary words
- Children also need access to a science expert on an Internet site, by telephone, or in person.

VOCABULARY

dye, sodium, sugar, citric acid

PURPOSES

1. Students will be able to define vocabulary in their own words and use the words to ask questions about these ingredients' effects on the body during exercise.
2. Students will be able to read the ingredients in a sports drink, discuss the importance of each ingredient and its effect on the body of an athlete like Rey Mysterio, and understand approximately how much of each ingredient is in the sports drink as they formulate their own drink.

PROCEDURES

1. Show photos or video footage of a famous athlete like Rey Mysterio, especially images of the athlete drinking a sports drink.
2. Have children read the ingredients in Gatorade.
3. Provide vocabulary cards of the focal ingredients: dye, sodium, sugar, citric acid.
4. Ask children to define the ingredients in their own words. For example, "What is dye?" Show each item.
5. Lead a discussion of the question, "Is the ingredient good for our body?"
6. Suggest that now children will need to

call on a science expert. Have available an Internet site, a nonfiction book, the phone number of an expert, or a volunteer visitor. Ask children how they might ask the question, for example, "Is dye good for our body?" or "What does dye do to the body?"

7. Select a student or groups of students to gather information from the expert. As a whole group, discuss the findings.
8. Pour water for each child in a cup. Have children choose how much food color to add and then try the drink to see if it tastes like Gatorade. Discuss whether it is a sports drink yet.
9. Repeat steps 4–8 with each ingredient: salt (sodium), sugar, orange juice (citric acid).
10. At the end, discuss what it tastes like. Is it like Gatorade? What went wrong? How much is needed of each ingredient?

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

Review each major vocabulary word and ask students to give thumbs up or down: Is this ingredient good for the body of an athlete like Rey Mysterio?

STRATEGIES TO SCAFFOLD LANGUAGE LEARNING

This activity enhances language learning in several ways:

- Inquiry project around a larger question
- Collaborative group work
- Word cards for vocabulary
- Informal assessment: Thumbs up or down
- Use of real ingredients for hands-on experience
- Oral practice of asking an expert for information

Instead of overlooking the potential of informal talk, educators can use questions to intentionally tease out the richness of children's understanding of natural phenomena. After tapping children's funds of knowledge, they can introduce disciplinary ways of talking about scientific phenomena.

Connecting to Standards

The third part of the framework involves relating children's funds of knowledge to content standards by designing culturally relevant lessons. In our example, Sid related children's passion about the famous wrestler to the science of dietary minerals and electrolytes in Gatorade. The sports drink connected to the children's daily life not only because they saw Rey Mysterio and other sports heroes drinking it but also because they brought bottles to school to drink themselves. The educators designed an investigation that provided opportunities for children to apply concepts, show what they knew, and get continual feedback.

The Gatorade activity connects to the National Science Education Standards (National Research Council, 1996), covering two key goals of Content Standard A: Scientific Inquiry, Grades K–4.

- **Abilities necessary to do scientific inquiry.** Students investigated Gatorade's ingredients by learning about ingredients and then actually using them to construct their own sports drink. They used simple tools such as the nutrition label on a sports drink bottle and a measuring spoon. They practiced inquiry skills by calling a science expert for help with their inquiry question.
- **Understanding about scientific inquiry.** Students asked and answered questions together, supported each other in talking to the science expert, and explored ideas about whether to add more or less of each ingredient.

The activity also focuses on the practices highlighted in the NGSS (National Research Council, 2014):

1. Asking questions: What is the ingredient? What is its effect on the body? How much of it is needed?
2. Planning and carrying out investigations: identifying ingredients, deciding on amounts, measuring ingredients, using sensory data (taste) as evidence
3. Analyzing and interpreting data: analyzing the taste of their sports drink
4. Using mathematics and computational thinking: deciding on amounts of ingredients, exploring ratios for each ingredient
5. Constructing explanations: explaining what each in-

redient does; explaining how ingredient amounts affect taste

6. Obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information: communicating with a science expert to gather information

Finally, this activity used both the children's language and the language of nutrition science. Both kinds of language were involved as children read Gatorade ingredient labels, used vocabulary cards, worded questions for the science expert, received responses, and summarized those responses. The activity was both standards-based and culturally competent because it engaged children in listening, talking, and reading as they investigated a question connected to their cultural passions.

Harmonizing the Parts: Interconnecting for Cultural Competence

Creating a space for learning science outside the traditional classroom shifts the expectations for both educators and children. In the classroom, both groups have preconceived notions of their roles and of what classroom science looks like. In the hybrid space of afterschool, students and educators are free to explore alternative ways of teaching and learning science. In the co-constructed learning environment of FIESTAS, afterschool and preservice educators created new expectations of what it means to study STEM content and of the roles of educators and students in that process. Our three-part framework creates an expectation for cultural competence, making children's cultural practices the basis of science learning when educators intentionally notice, ask questions, and connect cultural practices to science education standards.

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Research-Based Practices in Afterschool Programs for High School Youth

Jenell Holstead, Mindy Hightower King, and Ashley Miller

Structured afterschool programs are often perceived as a service for young children only. Communities often overlook teenagers, expecting more substantial benefits from investments in programs for younger children (Hall & Gruber, 2007). Of about 8.4 million children participating in afterschool programs nationwide, only 1 million are high school students (Afterschool Alliance, 2009b). In addition, only 15 percent of the programs funded by the 21st Century Community Learning Centers (CCLC) program include high school students (Afterschool Alliance, n.d.). Recent budget cuts in many schools have reduced or eliminated high school extracurricular activities such as music and athletics, leaving some teenagers without safe, enriching activities after school (Hall & Gruber, 2007).

Meanwhile, the benefits of afterschool activities for high school youth are well documented: increased academic achievement (Friedman & Bleiberg, 2007; Goerge, Cusick, Wasserman, & Gladden, 2007), prevention of drug use (Hall & Gruber, 2007), and increased likelihood of obtaining work and gaining life skills experience (Barr, Birmingham, Fornal, Klein, & Piha, 2006).

A small body of research identifies characteristics of afterschool programs that enhance the academic and social development of high school youth. Given the relatively small number of afterschool programs that serve high school students, ensuring that the programs that do exist follow these promising practices is critical. If existing programs maximize the academic and social

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benefits of participation by following these practices, more investment in out-of-school time programming for high school youth may be possible.

To determine the extent to which high school afterschool programs followed promising practice research, we studied 19 21st CCLC high school afterschool programs in one Midwestern state. We looked for research-based promising practices in three key areas identified in the literature: program activities, recruitment and retention, and student choice and voice. We found that evidence-based academic practices such as tutoring services and homework help or credit recovery opportunities were implemented more often than were practices related to student choice and voice. Our findings have implications for practice in other afterschool programs serving high school youth.

Three Key Areas of Program Focus

The literature reviewed below identifies three key areas of promising practices for high school afterschool programs: program activities, recruitment and retention, and student choice and voice.

These are not necessarily the only important aspects of afterschool programming for high school youth. For example, some practices found to be effective for younger youth may also be applicable to this population. However, programs that serve high school youth must look different from those serving young children in order to meet high school students' interests and needs. For example, high school students are much busier than younger students. Because they generally have other options and obligations, they must be motivated to attend afterschool programs (Forum for Youth Investment, 2003). The three key areas of promising practice discussed below therefore are specific to afterschool programs serving high school youth.

Program Activities

Previous research suggests that afterschool programs serving high school youth should incorporate such activities as tutoring services and homework assistance, credit recovery opportunities, or opportunities to learn skills necessary for college or the workplace. Academically oriented high school programs should use tutoring to provide targeted assistance (Beckett et al., 2009) and provide homework help sessions to ensure that all students are able to complete their schoolwork.

According to Deschenes and colleagues (2011), one of the most beneficial academic opportunities afterschool

programs can offer high school youth is recovery of school credits (Deschenes, Little, Baldwin-Grossman, & Arbreton, 2011). Students can earn school credits in afterschool programs by, for example, completing classroom work, taking part in internships, or doing community service (Forum for Youth Investment, 2003). Since most students plan to either enter the workforce or attend college after high school, afterschool programs can help them by teaching life skills and offering assistance with job applications, résumés, and test preparation (Barr et al., 2006).

Recruitment and Retention

One of the most challenging aspects of offering an afterschool program for high school youth is getting youth to attend (Afterschool Alliance, 2009a). It is often difficult for an afterschool program to compete with the many activities to which high school youth have access (Forum for Youth Investment, 2003). As a result, afterschool programs must be flexible with these students and diligent in their recruitment and retention (Afterschool Alliance, 2009a; Forum for Youth Investment, 2003). For example, program staff can extend personal invitations to youth and provide incentives for attendance (Yohalem, Wilson-Ahlstrom, Ferber, & Gaines, 2006), such as pizza parties or raffle drawings. Moreover, efforts to recruit and retain students should not occur only at the beginning of the year but should be ongoing.

Student Choice and Voice

The literature also documents the importance of providing student choice, that is, giving students the opportunity to select activities. Although it can be difficult to plan programming around the diverse interests of high school youth, it is possible to choose activities that will interest the majority of students (Barr et al., 2006). Programs can also offer a choice of various activities that are organized into short blocks of time, such as eight-week intervals (Lauver, 2004). This kind of scheduling both incorporates many different student interests into programming and prevents boredom. In addition, program staff can build flexible program schedules to allow youth to participate in the activities that interest them most.

The Afterschool Alliance (2009a) notes that student voice is one of the most important aspects of afterschool programs serving high school youth. One way to give students input into program matters is to incorporate students in the process of planning activities (Friedman & Bleiburg, 2007). Students should also have the chance

Given the relatively small number of afterschool programs that serve high school students, ensuring that the programs that do exist follow these promising practices is critical.

to make other programmatic decisions. For example, programs can develop student advisory councils to give youth leadership opportunities and representation in staff meetings. In addition, programs can involve students in the process of hiring new staff (Barr et al., 2006).

Methodology

Setting

We studied 19 21st CCLC afterschool programs that served high school youth. They included rural, suburban, and urban locations, representing 11 different counties distributed throughout one Midwestern state. At 17 of the sites, local school districts were the fiscal agents of the 21st CCLC grant; community-based organizations were the fiscal agents at the remaining two sites. All implemented programming on school property. All 19 programs served youth from grades 9–12, with two schools also serving students in grades 7 and 8. Data were collected during the 2010–2011 school year, when all 19 sites were in the second year of implementing 21st CCLC programming.

Because the programs included in this analysis were funded by 21st CCLC grants, they focused on academic outcomes. The program activities we observed therefore were geared heavily toward academic achievement. This emphasis on academic achievement may not generalize to other kinds of programs that have a broader focus.

Data Sources

Working as the external evaluators for the state department of education's 21st CCLC initiative, we developed an inventory form to study the extent to which the 19 sites were implementing research-based promising practices in the areas of program activities, recruitment and retention, and student voice and choice. We developed the tool because no such instrument was available to examine the three target areas in high school afterschool programs. The inventory was used as part of the statewide evaluation of the 21st CCLC program for several years.

Each site was visited on one afternoon in the fall of 2010 by a trained site visitor, a graduate student with a background in education and research methodology. To ensure consistency in their coding of the inventory form, site visitors participated in a three-hour training that included vignettes and role-playing activities. Site visitors completed the inventory form based on interviews with site coordinators and teachers, which were recorded, and on observations of programming.

The visitors also compared interview responses to their observations. Each inventory form submitted by a site visitor was reviewed by an experienced research team member to ensure interrater reliability.

Implementation of Promising Practices

We found that many of the 21st CCLC sites implemented promising practices identified in the literature. However, the extent to which programs implemented the practices varied, with some being more frequently implemented than others.

Program Activities

Table 1 displays the number of 21st CCLC sites that, according to their reports or our observations, offered program activities such as homework help and tutoring, credit recovery, and career and college development or life skills training. As shown in the table, 11 of the 19 afterschool programs serving high school youth reported offering students time to do homework or receive tutoring. These programs offered a much greater level of flexibility in this academic support than is typical in programs serving younger youth, where children are usually required to participate in homework help at set times daily (Johnson & McComb, 2008). To begin with, eight of the 19 programs reported that they did not offer homework help and tutoring at all. At almost half of the 11 sites that did, homework help and tutoring were voluntary for all students. At three sites, this academic support was voluntary for most students but mandatory for some students, based on need. At only three sites was it mandatory for all students. Despite this voluntary status, observations showed that, in nine of the 10 sites that offered homework help and tutoring on the day of the site visit, most program participants engaged in this activity.

Of the 19 afterschool programs, 15 offered students time for credit recovery. Five programs offered credit recovery only, without any homework help or other kinds of activities. As shown in Table 1, almost all of the programs that offered credit recovery did so with computer-based software exclusively; one program provided teacher-led credit recovery. The number of students who attended credit recovery opportunities on the day of the site visit differed dramatically from site to site. At some sites, a limited number of students were able to take part in credit recovery at one time, as only a certain number of licenses to use the software had been purchased. At other sites, students could participate in credit recovery before school, during school, after school, or any time they had an Internet connection. At such programs, afterschool

Table 1. Program Activities Offered by High School 21st CCLC Programs

Program Activity	Number of Sites (out of 19)
HOMEWORK HELP/TUTORING	11
Mandatory for all	3
Mandatory for some, based on need	3
Voluntary	5
CREDIT RECOVERY OPPORTUNITIES	15
Format	
Teacher-led	1
Computer-based	14
Timing	
Before school	2
After school	12
During school	5
Summer	1
Any time online	4
CAREER AND COLLEGE PLANNING	7
Information about colleges	4
College readiness	2
College visits	3
Information about careers	2
Guest speakers on careers	1
LIFE SKILLS OPPORTUNITIES	10
Character development	3
Cooking classes	2
Financial literacy	4
Nutrition & healthy living	5
Self-defense	1
Social skills	3

staff monitored student progress and provided technical assistance, even if students did not attend the program after school. Because of these variations, the number of students engaged in credit recovery activities on site visit days ranged from one to 52.

Activities incorporating real-world application include career and college development and life skills training. Seven of the 19 high school afterschool programs provided opportunities for career and college development, and 10 offered life skills training. Interestingly, only three programs offered these activities on a regular basis, four or five days per week. Examples of program offerings in these areas, as reported by the programs or observed by site visitors, are provided in Table 1.

Recruitment and Retention

Table 2 displays the number of sites that incorporated recruitment and retention strategies into their programming. Recruitment methods ranged from active approaches to passive strategies. As shown in Table 2, passive strategies included having teachers or guidance counselors remind students about the program, sending information to parents, using the morning or lunch school announcements to promote the program, relying on word of mouth, and distributing flyers to students. More proactive approaches were less often reported. Three programs sent program staff into classrooms to promote the program, and four programs sent personal invitations to students who might benefit from participation. Sites reported implementing recruitment strategies anywhere from once at the beginning of the year to daily throughout the year. However, over half of the programs (10) implemented recruitment strategies infrequently: monthly, at the beginning of each semester, or at the beginning of the year only. The remaining nine programs reported implementing

recruitment strategies at least weekly.

Retention tactics included both active and passive strategies to keep students attending. As outlined in Table 2, proactive strategies included using tangible incentives such as pizza parties or raffle drawings, having interesting field trips, and having a formal “bring a buddy” program. Sites also reported using passive strategies. Six relied on students’ intrinsic motivation to graduate or receive academic help. Three sites said that they relied on the positive relationships youth had developed with program staff. Only six of the 19 programs reported that they asked youth about possible retention strategies.

Table 2. Recruitment and Retention at High School 21st CCLC Programs

Strategy	Number of Sites (out of 19)
RECRUITMENT STRATEGIES	
Passive	
School announcements	9
Flyers	8
Communication by school personnel	13
Information to parents	10
Word of mouth	8
Active	
Program staff enter classrooms to describe program	3
Program staff extend personal invitations to students	4
RETENTION STRATEGIES	
Passive	
Building positive relationships with youth	3
Intrinsic motivation	6
Active	
Bring a buddy program	1
Field trips	3
Incentives	5

Student Choice and Voice

Table 3 (on the next page) displays the number of sites that incorporated elements of student choice and voice into afterschool programming, such as opportunities for interest-based choices and involvement in program decisions and development. Fourteen of the 19 programs we studied reported that they offered students interest-based choices. However, on the day of the observation, no opportunities for student choice were observed at nine program sites. Only four programs offered students two or more choices on the day of the observation. Examples of choices included allowing students to choose which activity to participate in, which assignment to complete, or where they would work. Sites reported that they changed program offerings throughout the year to accommodate student interests. The frequency with which activities changed varied anywhere from weekly to once a semester.

Student voice—youth involvement in program decisions and development—was less common. We identified from the literature three formal means of involving youth: surveys, youth advisory boards, and involvement of youth in hiring decisions. Only three of the 19 programs reported that they distributed surveys to gain stu-

dent feedback about the program: one at the beginning of the year only, one at the midway point of the semester, and one at the end of the semester. None of the sites had youth advisory boards to help plan activities and make program decisions. None requested student input on new staff hires. However, 10 sites reported that they used informal communication and solicited verbal feedback as means of including students in program decisions.

Implications for Practice

The extent to which practices in the three key areas identified in the literature were implemented in the

21st CCLC programs we observed varied considerably. Research-based program activities were implemented most frequently, followed by recruitment and retention practices and finally by student choice and voice practices.

Program Activities

The programs in our study frequently provided academic program activities identified in the literature as being important to high school students: homework help and tutoring, credit recovery opportunities, and career and college development and life skills training. This finding is not surprising, as our sample included only 21st CCLC programs, which are geared toward the development of academic skills. Moreover, these activities may be intrinsically motivating to participants, as high school youth are likely to attend afterschool programs because they are motivated to excel, not because they are required to attend (Deschenes et al., 2011) or lack other options after school. In addition, program staff might be able to establish real-world connections for high school youth more easily than for younger children, since high school students will soon embark into the real world (Deschenes et al., 2011).

The homework help and tutoring in the high school programs in this study were structured differently from

Table 3. Student Choice and Voice at High School 21st CCLC Programs

Element	Number of Sites (out of 19)
ALLOWING YOUTH TO CHOOSE ACTIVITIES	14
Number of times students chose activities during site visit	
None	9
One	6
Two or more	4
INVOLVING YOUTH IN PROGRAM DECISIONS	
Methods used to involve students	
Student survey	3
Youth advisory board	0
Involving youth in hiring staff	0
Talking informally with students about program	10

ways they present their programs to youth. They should also consider talking with youth about potential recruitment and retention strategies. Few programs in our study solicited such student feedback.

Student Choice and Voice

A clear challenge for the 21st CCLC programs in the study was student choice and voice. To maximize participation, afterschool programs for high school youth must offer activities based on

what is typically observed in programs serving younger youth. Programs for younger children usually offer homework help and tutoring on a predictable schedule (Johnson & McComb, 2008), expecting students to participate before they go on to other program activities. At many of the programs included in this review, participation in homework help and tutoring was voluntary, reflecting research that identifies flexibility of programming as a promising practice for high school youth. Although homework help was voluntary, numerous students participated on site visit days, suggesting that the youth saw the benefit of completing their homework during program time.

Credit recovery opportunities were also very flexible. Indeed, five programs provided credit recovery activities exclusively. This practice represents a shift from the more customary 21st CCLC model, which provides numerous types of offerings. However, the exclusive focus on credit recovery shows that these programs were tailored to meet the unique needs of high school youth.

Recruitment and Retention

Research-based practices in the area of recruitment and retention were less frequently observed. This area could certainly be enhanced at many of the programs in this study. Although the methods used to recruit and retain students were adequate, the frequency with which programs implemented active recruitment and retention strategies was less than optimal. Program staff should actively recruit students and must be intentional about the

student interests (Friedman & Bleiburg, 2007). Programs therefore must consider ways to incorporate students' interests and allow students to choose activities in which to participate.

Additionally, to enhance the quality of programming, program staff should involve students formally in program decisions and development. Though many of the programs in our study solicited student input in informal conversations, programs for high school youth should be intentional about this element. Giving students a voice in program matters has been identified as one of the most important aspects of a high school youth program (Afterschool Alliance, 2004).

Limitations

Although our study adds to the research on afterschool programs for high school youth, a few limitations must be acknowledged. First, the sample of 19 afterschool programs is relatively small. Results may not generalize broadly to other 21st CCLC programs. In addition, all programs included in this study were funded through the 21st CCLC initiative. Due to the goals of the 21st CCLC program, they may have implemented more academically based content than would other kinds of programs. The great extent to which the programs in this study offered homework help and tutoring, credit recovery, and career and college development may not be representative of programs funded by other means. By the same token, programs in this study may not have incorporated as many diverse student interests beyond academic

achievement as other programs might. However, the study does further the research base on programs serving high school youth by providing information on practices observed and reported in these 19 21st CCLC programs.

Capacities and Challenges

A quality afterschool program is one that can provide safety, positive youth development, academic enrichment, and support to students, no matter their age. For high school youth specifically, regular participation has been found to have academic, personal, and social benefits (Afterschool Alliance, 2009a). However, compared to programming for younger age groups, there is a relative dearth of afterschool programs for high school youth. For this reason, it is critical for the programs that do exist to provide quality programming.

Since afterschool programs can help high school students graduate and prepare for life beyond high school, offering high-quality programming is of the utmost importance. Afterschool programs for high school youth must implement practices aligned with literature. They must provide high school youth with program activities that help them succeed academically. They must also actively recruit and retain students and allow students to choose their activities and have a voice in program development.

Clearly the afterschool programs in our study face challenges. These challenges may also affect other high school programs, even those not funded by 21st CCLC. The big challenge for programs in our sample was providing student choice and voice. As a start, programs should focus professional development on this area. At staff meetings, for example, program leaders could give resources to program staff and facilitate discussions about student choice and voice. In addition, organization-specific professional development workshops could host local youth development professionals to talk about ways to incorporate student choice and voice. Finally, statewide and national leaders should emphasize student choice and voice in selecting conference themes and workshop topics. When program staff are trained to implement research-based strategies in their work with high school youth, the quality of programs serving high school youth can be enhanced.

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Planning Considerations for Afterschool Professional Development

L. Daniele Bradshaw

Professional development is vital to the success of afterschool programs. Effective professional development enhances afterschool program quality by facilitating staff performance and knowledge; in addition, professional development is vital for improving student learning outcomes (Bouffard & Little, 2004; Hall & Surr, 2005; Joyce & Showers, 2002). Well-planned professional development also contributes to increased staff satisfaction and retention (Huang & Cho, 2010).

Some researchers have noted that professional development efforts may be more successful when they fit site context and needs (Joyce & Showers, 2002; King & Newmann, 2000; Shelton & Jones, 1996). Afterschool includes a wide variety of academic, arts, and recreational programs in a wide variety of settings. There are variations in schedules and program offerings. Staff members vary in backgrounds and professional

development experience (Hall & Surr, 2005). Because of these variations, afterschool professional development will be more successful if it is carefully planned and customized to site needs.

Afterschool program staff and leaders are usually well aware of the need for professional development, but they often experience a gap between intention and implementation. To address this issue, this article provides implementation guidelines that can help afterschool staff plan for effective professional development. It also suggests resources that can assist with planning efforts. The TEARS (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998) implementation framework described here can help afterschool professionals evaluate their professional development needs and plan staff training that fits the context of their program or site.

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TEARS Factors for Planning Professional Development

The TEARS framework was originally defined by Leggett and Persichitte (1998) as a set of implementation factors for classroom educational technology. Based on a literature review and practitioner experience, they identified five implementation factors:

- Time
- Expertise
- Access
- Resources
- Support (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998, p. 33)

These implementation factors are comprehensive enough to be applied to many contexts, including afterschool professional development. They offer a simple, easy-to-remember framework that can make the task of planning for professional development less daunting. Although in practice all five factors are interrelated, dealing with each separately can help planners focus on what professional development is needed and what can work in their context.

Time

Effective professional development requires time—a commodity that is often in short supply in afterschool programs. Afterschool staff need time to learn new skills, practices, procedures, or programs. Time is an essential condition for instruction, collaboration, and practice (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998; Shelton & Jones, 1996). In addition to the actual training time, staff members need time for planning, practice, reflection, feedback, and collaboration (Bandy, Bowie, Burkhauser, & Metz, 2008; Joyce & Showers, 2002). Adequate time is especially important when staff need to become comfortable with a new initiative or process that stems from professional development (King & Newmann, 2000).

Explore Forms of Professional Development

One suggestion based on Leggett & Persichitte's (1998) TEARS framework is to analyze different forms

of professional development to find creative ways to tackle the time problem. Hall and Gannett (2010) list a wide range of approaches to afterschool professional development: “single workshops, seminars, coaching, learning communities, technical assistance, professional networks, distance training, and higher education” (p. 14). Afterschool programs deal with high staff turnover and transition rates, in part because of low wages in some programs and unclear career pathways in the profession (Gannett, Mello, & Starr, 2009). As a result, program directors or others who want to facilitate professional development must research training approaches and plan well in advance for the necessary time requirements.

Develop a Professional Development Schedule

Sustained scheduling provides opportunities for developing and planning student instruction (King & Newmann, 2000; Leggett & Persichitte, 1998; Shelton & Jones, 1996). It is important to schedule opportunities for sustained professional development. Planning a schedule helps to identify time requirements.

Afterschool program managers and site coordinators can look for options to add time. They can, for example, use approved substitutes or volunteers to cover classes during professional development times, plan professional development during evenings and summers, or incorporate professional development into existing meeting times (Watts & Castle, 1993). These options can be customized and applied to the particular afterschool setting, as needed.

One option that provides opportunities for collaboration is to schedule in-service work days (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998; Raley, Grossman, & Walker, 2005; Watts & Castle, 1993) during the regular

afterschool hours on days when the students are not attending the program. In-service workdays provide a substantial block of time for reflection, discussion, and activities, without requiring staff members to work extra hours. In a school-based afterschool program, afterschool in-service days can be scheduled at the same time as school in-service days.

Afterschool programs deal with high staff turnover and transition rates, in part because of low wages in some programs and unclear career pathways in the profession (Gannett, Mello, & Starr, 2009). As a result, program directors or others who want to facilitate professional development must research training approaches and plan well in advance for the necessary time requirements.

A yearly professional development schedule (including summer options) helps afterschool staff members to plan and select their learning opportunities (Partnership for Afterschool Education [PASE] & Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, 1999; Raley et al., 2005). Calendars maintained by intermediary organizations or statewide networks provide information on various professional development options and allow for long-term planning. For example, the North Carolina Center for Afterschool Programs (NC CAP) offers a comprehensive calendar of professional development opportunities organized by date, event, time, location, and county. Online professional development sessions are also included (NC CAP, 2014a). As another example, the California Afterschool Network's Training and Event calendar provides a variety of professional development opportunities for participants in California (California Afterschool Network, 2014). Afterschool managers can locate calendars of events available in their area and discuss the options with afterschool staff, giving staff members advance notice and the opportunity to provide their own input.

Expertise

In planning for expertise, it is important to consider the specific knowledge requirements of the site and its staff (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998). Afterschool staff members should have opportunities to discuss which professional development models are appropriate for the program's needs. In determining the expertise needs, it is important to discuss site needs, collaboration models, and evaluation plans.

Base Training on Site Needs

Input from staff members provides valuable information that can help managers customize professional development offerings (Huang & Cho, 2010; King & Newmann, 2000). Frontline staff members are directly involved with student learning goals, which should be a primary concern in planning professional development (Guskey, 2014; Joyce & Showers, 2002). If administrators seek staff input, the professional development is more apt to fit the program's context and needs. Through discussions, surveys, or interviews, managers can ask for input on potential planning issues, desired program changes, and student development goals (Huang & Cho, 2010). Identifying site needs helps to identify the necessary expertise for professional development.

For effective alignment of knowledge expertise, afterschool professional development can address school-

day curriculum and content linkages (Huang & Dietel, 2011). Afterschool programs that serve as partners to K–12 schools or districts can benefit from dialogue with K–12 staff on program purposes, activities, and vocabulary (PASE & C. S. Mott Foundation, 1999). With input from school partners, the afterschool curriculum and professional development can be aligned with school learning goals. Also, schools or other partners, such as businesses or community organizations, may provide valuable expertise by including afterschool staff in existing professional development initiatives (Huang & Cho, 2010; Raley et al., 2005).

External consultants can also expand professional development options by providing outside expertise and knowledge (King & Newmann, 2000). For example, the National Institute on Out-of-School Time (NIOST) provides professional development and assistance including on-site training with expert consultants. NIOST also offers the Afterschool Program Assessment System (APAS), which can be used to identify needs for professional development (NIOST, 2014).

Encourage Staff Collaboration

Professional development does not always have to come from the outside; staff members already have expertise to share. Professional development efforts benefit from staff participation, communication, reflection, and discussion (Bandy et al., 2008; Joyce & Showers, 2002; Shelton & Jones, 1996). In a collaborative environment, professional development participants gain knowledge by asking questions and exchanging ideas (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; King & Newmann, 2000; Lieberman, 1995). When staff members collaborate to train one another, the professional development is more likely to be relevant to site needs (Shelton & Jones, 1996).

Different training models offer different opportunities for collaboration. Regular mentoring, modeling, and evaluation sessions can become collaborative learning opportunities (Huang & Cho, 2010; Raley et al., 2005). In another example, an individual or a small group of staff members can learn about a topic and then share the information with others through an in-house training program. This approach not only reduces professional development costs but also allows staff members to share their interests and knowledge with their peers (Bowie & Bronte-Tinkew, 2006; Huang & Cho, 2010). Intentional learning communities are another example of collaboration. In these groups, afterschool staff members collaborate to develop their own learning goals, research educational initiatives or practices, and facilitate one

another's knowledge development (Raley et al., 2005). Another option is to create teams of skilled staff members to become trainers (Bowie & Bronte-Tinkew, 2006).

Build Evaluation into the Planning

In planning for professional development, afterschool staff members should build evaluation into the process. They must know what they intend the professional development to achieve and how they will measure its effectiveness in order to determine what expertise they need to meet their goals. In the planning phases, facilitators can collaborate with participants to plan selected quality and evaluation measures (such as tests, observations, or rubrics) based on program goals and intended student outcomes; this planning also includes preliminary measures of the intended results (Bouffard & Little, 2004; Guskey, 2000, 2014; Joyce & Showers, 2002).

The evaluation process must be designed as a long-term and collaborative effort; it should not be reserved for the end of the professional development initiative (Bouffard & Little, 2004; Guskey, 2000; Joyce & Showers, 2002). All stakeholders in the professional development, from administrators and facilitators to participants, can use information from ongoing evaluations to examine and reflect on what the professional development is accomplishing and still needs to accomplish. Staff members also benefit from receiving regular feedback on their performance and student outcomes from the professional development (Bandy et al., 2008; Huang & Cho, 2010; Guskey, 2014). Ongoing evaluations provide information on current practices, current progress, future needs, and necessary adjustments (Huang & Cho, 2010; Guskey, 2000).

Evaluation resources are important in the planning stages. The University of Pennsylvania Out-of-School Time Resource Center (OSTRC) Document Library webpage is one source for professional development evaluation resources (OSTRC, 2010a). Though the webpage is organized around the Philadelphia Out-of-School Time Staff Competencies and Content Areas, these research-based practices are relevant across the field (K. Okigbo, personal communication, June 17, 2014).

Access

Afterschool staff members need access to professional development opportunities that are easily available to them. One way to facilitate access is through strategic partnerships. In planning access needs, afterschool staff members need to think of long-term follow-up issues. A long-term approach to access ensures professional development continuity.

Seek Partnerships

Partners can provide enhanced access to professional development for afterschool programs. Partnerships can be formed with schools, community associations, colleges or universities, national organizations, businesses, funding entities, and more (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998; PASE & C. S. Mott Foundation, 1999). Including afterschool staff in training sessions that are already offered by program partners reduces the cost of professional development (Raley et al., 2005). For assistance, afterschool leaders can consult the Afterschool Alliance's information on facilitating partnerships (Afterschool Alliance, n.d.c).

Partnerships with institutions of higher education can expand professional development offerings (Afterschool Alliance, 2007). For example, NC CAP collaborates with North Carolina State University and the NC Afterschool Professional Development Work Group to offer the NC CAP Leadership Institute. As part of this intensive professional

development opportunity, participants attend NC CAP's annual SYNERGY conference, along with seminars and workshops. Participants extend their learning by constructing an e-portfolio and participating in online meetings. On completing the program, participants receive continuing education credits (NC CAP, 2014b).

The Afterschool Alliance's Issue Brief No. 61 covers partnerships with STEM-rich institutions, which provide a potential source of professional development access (Afterschool Alliance, 2013).

Plan for Follow-up

Long- and short-term plans should be developed (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998). It is important to plan for the proper long-term professional development

An individual or a small group of staff members can learn about a topic and then share the information with others through an in-house training program. This approach not only reduces professional development costs but also allows staff members to share their interests and knowledge with their peers.

access and assistance (Bandy et al., 2008; Joyce & Showers, 2002). Planning for long-term access supports the positive outcomes of professional development initiatives. For example, continued technical assistance can enhance professional development implementation (Joyce & Showers, 2002). Afterschool staff members need to be informed about ongoing resources that will support initial efforts, encourage changes in practice, and enhance student learning outcomes.

Resources

In planning professional development, afterschool leaders must assess current resources and locate additional resources. Essential resources include financial support, specific teaching strategies, time, teaching materials, and technology (Guskey, 2014; Leggett & Persichitte, 1998; PASE & C. S. Mott Foundation, 1999; Shelton & Jones, 1996). Funding is one of the major factors for a resource analysis; therefore, a long-term planning approach is beneficial.

Assess Available Resources

Afterschool program managers should research external resources to guide professional development. Knowledge based on research and theory is an essential consideration when choosing resources (Bandy et al., 2008; Bouffard & Little, 2004; PASE & C. S. Mott Foundation, 1999). External professional development resources from reputable entities are valuable for providing broad perspectives, research-based information, and knowledge that can be adapted to the particular afterschool site. As one example, program managers can explore options for comprehensive professional development systems (Dennehy, Gannett, & Robbins, 2006; Gannett et al., 2009; Hall, Yohalem, Tolman, & Wilson, 2003) like those offered by some statewide organizations. Also, credentialing programs facilitate professional recognition, training information, and skill development (Dennehy et al., 2006; Hall & Gannett, 2010; Gannett, et al., 2009).

State afterschool websites are a resource for locating external professional development resources. State websites may provide links and suggestions for recommended local, state, national, and international resources. The Afterschool Alliance also offers information on statewide afterschool networks and resources; it provides state-specific information including contacts, network

information, and state and other websites (Afterschool Alliance, n.d.a). Joining afterschool organizations and networks is another way program staff can access updated external resources. Websites like those of the NAA and NIOST provide external resource information.

The resources should be aligned with core competency standards for afterschool staff (Bouffard & Little, 2004; Starr, Yohalem, & Gannett, 2009). Core competencies help to define programming goals, which, in turn, clarify professional development goals. Core competencies can help in assessing the knowledge, values, and skills of the staff members, thus providing guidance on needs assessments and resource research (Astroth, Garza, & Taylor, 2004; Quinn, 2004; Vance, 2010). As one example of how core competencies can guide resource research, the University of Pennsylvania's OSTRC organizes its list of state and national websites around Philadelphia's OST Staff Competencies and Content Areas (OSTRC, 2010b). Similarly, the NAA professional development website provides information on the NAA Core Competencies, available webinars, and Talk Tuesday information (National Afterschool Association, n.d.).

Core competencies can help in assessing the knowledge, values, and skills of the staff members, thus providing guidance on needs assessments and resource research.

Another resource to help with afterschool professional development planning comes from the American Institutes for Research (AIR, formerly Learning Points Associates). AIR's Beyond the Bell Toolkit helps expanded learning and afterschool staff members to develop and maintain high-quality programs. The Beyond the Bell Toolkit includes information on program management, design, delivery, partnerships and collaboration, evaluation, and program improvement. Each kit comes with email templates for communicating with principals and parents, sample professional development sessions, program job descriptions, program activity ideas, and more. While the toolkit may be used as a standalone resource, AIR also trains afterschool and expanded learning professionals on how to use it. Users can choose from a list of available trainings or contact AIR to customize a workshop or training session to meet specific needs (F. Lopez, personal communication, March 19, 2014; McElvain, Moroney, Devaney, Singer, & Newman, 2014).

Additional resource information is provided by the SEDL National Center for Quality Afterschool, which offers professional development guides for site leaders (SEDL National Center for Quality Afterschool, 2014)

and the Afterschool Training Toolkit (WGBH Educational Foundation & SEDL National Center for Quality Afterschool, 2008). The toolkit includes lesson plans, videos, and other resources. SEDL also provides *A Resource Guide for Planning and Operating Afterschool Programs*, which provides information on afterschool programming and organizational development resources (Bagby, 2008).

One resource option that might help with the time limitations inherent in the current afterschool landscape is online professional development (PASE & C. S. Mott Foundation, 1999). Online professional development can provide consistent, high-quality training in a cost-effective way. Online professional development can also be used along with traditional training efforts for an integrated or “blended” training approach (Marquart, Rizzi, & Parikh, 2010). Online training helps with time flexibility in completing professional development requirements.

Online professional development modules developed by reputable intermediary organizations can help with the time factor, since the modules are already developed by the intermediary organizations and travel is not required. Another resource is the National Out-of-School Time Professional Development Center (OSTPD). Developed through a partnership among NAA, Child Care Aware, and Cypherworx, the OSTPD provides web-based professional development on a variety of relevant topics (Cypherworx, 2013). As an example of online STEM professional development resources geared toward out-of-school providers, the Click2SciencePD website provides information on online STEM professional development. Click2Science covers 20 skills that were cross-walked with Dimensions of Success, National 4-H standards, and others (Click2SciencePD, 2014; K. Lodi, personal communication, May 12, 2014). In another example, the Y4Y (You for Youth) website provides online professional development and online community information for all levels of 21st CCLC afterschool practitioners (You for Youth Project Team, 2010).

Assess Available Funding

Funding limitations obviously affect the availability of resources for professional development. Planning in advance for long-term availability of funding is essential for sustained professional development. Financial planning should include the need for upgrades in materials, technology, hardware, software, and support (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998; Shelton & Jones, 1996).

One source of financial resources is grants (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998). Afterschool programs looking to identify and apply for grants can consult the Afterschool

Alliance’s resources on funding and sustainability. The organization’s website includes writing tips, a funding database, and information on partnerships (Afterschool Alliance, n.d.b).

Professional development resources can be influenced by the availability of funding. For example, STEM education is being promoted in school and afterschool settings. Therefore, afterschool programs may want to pursue funding designated specifically for STEM professional development. If so, they should consult *Know Your Funders: A Guide to STEM Funding for Afterschool*, in which the Afterschool Alliance provides information on sources of STEM funding and tips for achieving grant-writing success (Afterschool Alliance, 2012).

Support

Staff members benefit from administrative support (Leggett & Persichitte, 1998; Shelton & Jones, 1996). Support involves helping staff members to accept professional development initiatives and to view them positively. Staff members need information on conceptual theories and rationale that give purpose to the training (Bandy et al., 2008; Joyce & Showers, 2002). Afterschool administrators can also support professional development by joining in the professional development and by providing incentives.

Promote a Positive View of Professional Development

One form of support involves providing professional development to all staff, including administrators and volunteers (Bandy et al., 2008; Huang & Dietel, 2011; Quinn, 2004). By participating with the staff, administrators can better support staff learning and understand staff needs (Bandy et al., 2008). Staff members should be able to see that administrators value the professional development and their participation in it. As supporters of professional development, afterschool administrators should provide leadership, address concerns, and procure resources. In addition, they should also participate in their own professional development that teaches them to support staff members and to develop their leadership knowledge and skills (Bowie & Bronte-Tinkew, 2006).

Provide Incentives to Promote Participation

Afterschool administrators can communicate with their staff members in order to ascertain what resources to use to promote participation in afterschool professional development. Incentives must be available and clearly articulated; also, staff members need to understand the benefits of participating in professional development (Hall

& Surr, 2005). Incentives can include positive recognition and rewards for efforts (Leggett & Perschitte, 1998; Shelton & Jones, 1996). Afterschool staff members may be interested in specific incentives such as certificates, degree programs, compensation, continuing education credits, and credentials (PASE & C. S. Mott Foundation, 1999). Assistance with professional requirements, such as certification credits, may make participation more attractive. Credentialing programs not only provide structured training levels but also offer career legitimacy that recognizes staff members' knowledge and skills. Credentialing programs can serve as incentives and assist in reducing staff turnover (Gannett et al., 2009).

Why Professional Development Planning Matters

Afterschool programs have unique schedules, programs, and needs. Professional development should help afterschool staff members to address program needs and student learning needs. An intentional planning process can identify any areas that may assist or hinder professional development efforts, thereby ensuring that the professional development is of high quality.

Leggett and Perschitte's (1998) TEARS implementation factors provide a concise framework to guide multifaceted planning efforts. Each one of the factors supports the others, so all factors should be considered together. By addressing each of the TEARS factors, afterschool administrators and staff members can plan for professional development success.

Afterschool staff members can use this framework to conduct detailed, long-term professional development planning. The goal of such planning ultimately is to benefit the students in the program. The fact that staff preparedness affects student learning outcomes makes the process of planning afterschool professional development a worthwhile endeavor.

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