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Editor's Comments:

Readers of our Spring Issue will be pleased with the variety of feature articles and program articles and innovative evaluation techniques shared by our authors. As we begin our fourth year of publication we welcome you to submit your manuscripts to patricia.dawson@oregonstate.edu

Articles of specific interest include:

- **Feature Articles** are informational, explanatory, or critical analysis and interpretation of major trends or comprehensive reviews. Articles include clear implications for youth development practice and programming and may be grounded in original research or new research from the relevant disciplines.
- **Program Articles** discuss programs and outcomes or describe promising programs and pilot projects that have clear implications for youth development research, practice and programming. These programs and projects are grounded with a strong research-based or theoretical framework.
- **Research and Evaluation Strategies** describe innovative methodologies and strategies in the collection and analysis of quantitative or qualitative research and evaluation data.
- **Resource Reviews** present analyses of materials, such as books, curricula, videos, other audio/visual materials, data management software, and Web sites.

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Feature Articles

We're Here, We're Hopeful, and We Can Do Well: Conceptions and Attributes of Positive Youth Development among Immigrant Youth [Article 090401FA001]

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Using qualitative and quantitative information from Grades 8 and 9 of the 4-H Study of Positive Youth Development (PYD), we describe the conceptions of thriving youth present within adolescent immigrants to the United States, and interrelate these conceptions with quantitative scores for PYD, contribution, and positive future orientation. Conceptions of thriving that included positive future orientation were associated with higher quantitative scores for PYD and Contribution. Conceiving of thriving as making contributions to themselves or their communities was associated with higher quantitative scores for Contribution. These findings suggest that immigrant youth whose qualitative definitions of thriving include the U.S.-based conceptions of PYD show quantitative evidence of positive functioning. We discuss limitations of the present study and directions for future research.

"Growing Without Limitations:" Transformation Among Young Adult Camp Staff [Article 090401FA002]

Garst, Bart A.; Franz, Nancy K.; Baughman, Sarah; Smith, Chris; Peters, Brian

A strong body of research has developed over the last decade regarding the developmental outcomes of camp experiences of children and adolescents. However, few formal studies have taken place to determine how camp experiences lead to deep personal change in young adults. Mixed methods were used to better understand how camp is transformative in lives of young adult camp staff and to identify conditions in the camp setting that facilitate change. A change model and conditions of change model were developed. Recommendations for future research are provided.

Differences in the Experiences of Boys and Girls in a Camp Environment [Article 090401FA003]

Miltenberger, Margaret; Jopling, Jane; Garton, Martha S.

Between the ages of nine and twelve, key developmental differences exist between genders. Boys' and girls' brains simply develop in a different sequence (Sax, 2007) and at a different rate (Hanlon, et al., 1999). Since the 1970's a tendency toward gender blindness and a lack of understanding about the real developmental differences between boys and girls may have limited the ability of youth professionals to best serve all youth. This paper highlights a study of whether boys and girls differ in camp experience and in life skill development as a result of camp? Fifteen counties with 28 individual camps participated in the study which measured (1) camp experience; (2) targeted life skills, and (3) leadership skills. The results showed significant differences between girls and boys. Researchers recommend that gender differences no longer

be ignored when programming and that camp activities and curriculum meet the developmental needs of both boys and girls.

'A Good Friend': The Role of Peer Networks in Juvenile Treatment Courts [Article 090401FA004]

Linden, Pamela; Cohen, Shelly

A primary goal of Juvenile Treatment Courts is participant abstention from the use of alcohol and drugs. The present paper seeks to understand the role of social networks in participant abstention by examining the accounts of peer interactions of 37 current and former youth participants in New York State. This qualitative study found that while severing deviant network ties were involved in abstention in some cases, the dominant theme was the perceived protective role of emotionally close, albeit drug using, peers in supporting abstention. Although most cognitively based adolescent chemical abuse treatment programs explore the role of social networks in youth chemical use and abuse, the findings that youth in Juvenile Treatment Court programs have continued exposure to drugs and alcohol through interaction with their social networks suggest that social network interactions also enter into the discourse taking place within Juvenile Treatment Court settings.

The Use of Expressive Therapies and Social Support with Youth in Foster Care: The Performing Arts Troupe [Article 090401FA005]

Greene, Audra Holmes; Goldenberg, Linda; Freundlich, Madelyn

The Performing Arts Troupe is a program that provides youth in foster care and youth from low income neighborhoods with expressive therapies and social support. The program is designed to assist youth in addressing the effects of trauma and developing competencies as they prepare to transition to adulthood. The article discusses the literature base for the program, the program activities and describes the impact of the program on youth through preliminary evaluations and case studies. The program offers an innovative combination of expressive therapies and social supports that has effectively met the needs of vulnerable youth.

Culturally Authentic Scaling Approach: A Multi-Step Method for Culturally Adapting Measures for Use with Ethnic Minority and Immigrant Youths [Article 090401FA006]

Nicolas, Guerda; DeSilva, Angela M.; Houlahan, Sharon; Beltrame, Clelia

Given the increasing ethnic and racial diversity of youths in the U.S., researchers must be conscious of how youth are being recruited, retained, and assessed in research programs. In this article, we describe an efficient and replicable methodology, the Culturally Authentic Scaling Approach (CASA), which can be implemented to culturally adapt measures for use with ethnic minority and immigrant youths. Specifically, the steps involved in the CASA method are described, including developing community partnership, evaluating the theoretical equivalence, adjusting the selection and administration of measures. Engaging in an on-going dialogue with the community to increase cultural validity and build community relationships is also discussed. Addressing the cultural validity of measures used with ethnic and immigrant youths enhances the probability that the information obtained will be reflective of the cultural background of the participants and an accurate assessment of their experiences

Concept Analysis of Risk Behavior in the Context of Adolescent Development [Article 090401FA007]

March, Alice L.

The term risk behavior is a concept that has been used in the literature for many years, particularly as it relates to adolescent developmental issues and adolescent health behaviors. Currently the literature specific to the conceptual analysis of risk behavior is limited and relates

in general to adults, rather than youths. The purpose of this investigation was to analyze not only the concept of risk behavior, but also its specific relationship to adolescents. Previous conceptual analyses have not considered how those concepts may be affected by the psychosocial development of adolescents. Therefore the specific aim of this analysis is to clarify the concept of risk behavior as it relates to youths. Following the process outlined by Walker and Avant (1995) the critical attributes, antecedents, consequences, and empirical referents for the concept of risk behavior are presented in this article.

Building a Launchpad for Youth Impact and Organizational Change

[Article 090401FA008]

Silliman, Ben

A recent report, *4-H Critical Indicators of Youth Development Outcomes for Mission Mandates*, outlines a nationwide evaluation of youth program quality and impact of three new programming initiatives. The plan is presented as a model for youth development impact and organizational change. Discussion focuses on the three components of the plan, including evaluation context, framework for assessing program quality and outcomes, and implementation issues critical to successful evaluation.

Program Articles

Participatory Evaluation with Youth: Building Skills for Community Action

[Article 090401PA001]

Wells, Elissa E.; Arnold, Mary E.; Dolenc, Brooke

This article describes an innovative training program that combines youth-adult partnerships, social inquiry, and community action as a method for effective youth engagement. Elements of the training are outlined, and program evaluation results are presented. In addition, several strategies for successful program replication are presented.

An Evaluation of the University of Illinois Extension Get Up & Move! Program

[Article 090401PA002]

Halpin, Mary Ann; Farner, Susan M.; Notaro, Stephen J.; Seibold, Sheri; McGlaughlin, Pat; Bosecker, Natalie; Farner, Barbara

Get Up & Move! is a program created by University of Illinois Extension to address childhood obesity. It provides ready-to-use materials for youth leaders to promote healthy lifestyles through physical fitness and healthy eating. The impact of the program on participants' physical activity was evaluated to see whether involvement produces an increase in physical activity to the USDA recommended 60 minutes per day. It was found that a significant increase in minutes of physical activity occurred in participants from an average of 51.88 minutes per day to an average of 58.84 minutes per day.

4-H Donated Meat Program: A Model for Service [Article 090401PA003]

Smith, Justen O.; Wesley, John L.

Meat continues to be the most in-demand food item for the Utah Food Bank. To address this issue, the 4-H Donated Meat Program was started by a 4-H Club in Davis County, Utah. When Utah State University Extension Agents in Davis, Salt Lake, Weber, and Morgan Counties became involved in the program it expanded rapidly. The program was made possible through generous donations from corporations allowing for the purchase of market livestock exhibited by 4-H youth at county fair livestock sales. USDA certified processed meat was then donated to the Utah Food Bank for distribution to hungry families in the counties participating in the program. The program has grown rapidly. In 2005, two counties were involved with 3,000 pounds of meat donated to the food bank. By 2007, ten counties were involved with 70,000 pounds of meat donated. This program has become a model of service for hundreds of 4-H

youth in Utah. This program may be duplicated in other states to meet the demand for meat at food banks across the nation.

Resource Review

Collective Leadership Works: Preparing Youth & Adults for Community Change

[Article 090401RR001]

Dawson, Patricia A.

Collective Leadership Works is the latest resource kit developed by the Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development. The 181 page tool kit is filled with detailed lesson plans designed for youth and adult leadership activities. The resources will benefit groups at any stage of development. Contents have been divided into eight sections including Team Building, Youth-Adult Partnerships, Knowing Community and Place, Creating Ways to Come Together, Leadership and Relationship Development, Planning for Action, Reflection and Spreading the Word. Youth professionals will appreciate this well designed, interactive resource as they engage youth and adults in community building efforts.

We're Here, We're Hopeful, and We Can Do Well: Conceptions and Attributes of Positive Youth Development among Immigrant Youth

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We're Here, We're Hopeful, and We Can Do Well: Conceptions and Attributes of Positive Youth Development among Immigrant Youth

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Abstract: Using qualitative and quantitative information from Grades 8 and 9 of the 4-H Study of Positive Youth Development (PYD), we describe the conceptions of thriving youth present within adolescent immigrants to the United States, and interrelate these conceptions with quantitative scores for PYD, contribution, and positive future orientation. Conceptions of thriving that included positive future orientation were associated with higher quantitative scores for PYD and Contribution. Conceiving of thriving as making contributions to themselves or their communities was associated with higher quantitative scores for Contribution. These findings suggest that immigrant youth whose qualitative definitions of thriving include the U.S.-based conceptions of PYD show quantitative evidence of positive functioning. We discuss limitations of the present study and directions for future research.

Introduction

Immigrants to any nation face multiple adaptive challenges, for instance, to adjust to their new national setting they need to understand what it means to do well, to succeed, or to thrive within the cultural context within which they now live. They need to understand, as well, how to build a positive future for themselves in their new country (Strohmeier & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2008). Arguably, these challenges may be especially complicated in adolescence, when adjustments also have to be made to changing physiological, cognitive, emotional, and social relational characteristics. How do adolescent immigrants fare in the face of their changing individual and contextual circumstances? We address this question by providing initial, descriptive information about characteristics of "positive youth development" (PYD)

among adolescent immigrants in the United States (U.S.) and, as well, the links among PYD, youth contribution, and positive views of their future.

Since the early 1990s, the literature on adolescent development has shifted away from an emphasis on the deficits of youth, a perspective that maintained that young people are “problems to be managed” (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003) because of a biologically-based and universal tendency for storm and stress during this period of life (e.g., Erikson, 1968; Freud, 1969; Hall, 1904). Instead, and based in part on the potential for intraindividual plasticity (for systematic change in the structure and function of organismic and behavioral characteristics) across the adolescent period (Lerner, 2007), a strength-based conception of youth development has emerged, primarily through research within the United States (but see Silbereisen & Lerner, 2007). Termed the PYD perspective, this conception specifies what successful development or thriving means, at least within a U.S. context, and emphasizes the possibility of positive development, or thriving, among *all* youth. The key hypothesis within the PYD perspective is that such development occurs when the strengths of youth are aligned with resources for healthy development found in their homes, schools, and communities (Benson, Hamilton, Scales, & Sesma, 2006; Damon, 2004; Lerner, 2004).

One of the key replicated findings within the PYD literature (Lerner, 2005) is that attributes of PYD – operationalized by “Five Cs,” of competence, confidence, connection, character, and caring – exist in all U. S. youth who have been studied, and that PYD covaries positively within and across the adolescent years with youth contributions to self, family, and community (Jelicic, et al., 2007). In addition, youth with positive purposes or goals in life, and therefore with a positive orientation to their future, are also more likely to show higher PYD and Contribution scores (Gestsdottir & Lerner, 2007; Zimmerman, et al., 2007). Lerner, et al. (2008) reported that youth with positive aspirations and expectations for their futures are most likely to show the highest levels of PYD across the early years of adolescence (i.e., Grades 5, 6, and 7). These relationships have been identified among adolescents of different races, ethnicities, socioeconomic levels, and places of residence (e.g., urban, rural, or suburban) within all geographic areas of the United States (e.g., Jelicic, et al., 2007; Lerner, et al., 2005; Phelps, et al., 2007; Theokas & Lerner, 2006).

There has been, however, an important omission within this literature identifying the presence of attributes of PYD, and their links to “Contribution” and positive goals or future orientation among the diversity of American youth. Literature suggests that immigrant parents come to the United States with hopes for building a better future for their families and for their children’s future success (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Children are often aware of the hopes placed on them by their parents and strive to justify the sacrifices their parents have made and continue to make on their behalf. However, to date, there has been no report of the extent to which samples of immigrant youth, in the United States or elsewhere, show evidence of these Five Cs or, as well, of the “sixth C,” of contribution to self, others, or the community, that theory and research document develops among youth possessing high levels of PYD (e.g., Jelicic, et al., 2007). Similarly, researchers have not explored the extent to which a focus on the future, a notion integral to immigrant families, contributes to the positive development of immigrant youth.

Such a focus is important. There is considerable research documenting the risks and adjustment challenges facing immigrant youth (e.g., Fuligini, 1998; Sirin & Fine, in press; Strohmeier & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2008; Vazsonyi, Trejos-Castillo, & Huang, 2006; Yu, Huang, Schwalberg, Overpeck, & Kogan, 2003). Nevertheless, Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, and Qin

(2006) note that relatively little attention has been paid to the psychological well-being of such youth, especially among adolescents who are immigrants within the United States. Given that the U.S. context defines thriving or positive development in terms associated with the PYD perspective (King, et al., 2005; Lerner, 2005, 2007), for immigrant youth to develop successfully during adolescence and into later life they need, as a foundation, an understanding of the conception of thriving present in their new setting. Therefore, we tested the expectation that, when immigrant youth maintain conceptions of a thriving youth that reflect ideas associated with the PYD perspective, they will in fact show evidence of positive functioning.

By using qualitative and quantitative information available within the longitudinal, 4-H Study of Positive Youth Development (Lerner, et al., 2005), we first describe, in their own words (Fine, Weis, Weseen, & Wong, 2003), the conceptions of thriving, or positive development, presented by adolescents who are immigrants to the United States. We report the results of coding the responses of immigrant adolescents to open-ended questions about their conception of what it means to be a successful, thriving young person in order to determine whether their understanding of thriving includes terms related to conceptions present in the United States, that is, the Five Cs of PYD, Contribution, and a positive future orientation. We seek also to determine whether these conceptions include terms other than those linked to the PYD model. King, et al. (2005) assessed non-immigrant U.S. youth and found that both PYD and non-PYD-related terms were used by adolescents when describing thriving. Finally, we explored whether there is any convergence between their qualitative responses and quantitative scores for PYD, Contribution, and expectations for a positive future.

Providing such preliminary descriptive information about immigrant youth is important for reasons of both theory and application. Given the purported higher levels of adjustment challenges among immigrant youth (e.g., see Strohmeier & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2008, for reviews), one may question whether their development is marked also by the presence of PYD. Evidence that immigrant youth understand the terms of doing well in the U.S., that is, that their conception of thriving includes (in whole or in part) the conception of thriving extant in their new setting and, as well, that indicators of PYD, Contribution, and positive future orientation are related to these conceptions, would suggest that there is reason for adopting a strength-based, PYD conception for the study of the individual and ecological bases of development among immigrant youth, in the same way that such a conception has been able to be adopted for racially and ethnically diverse groups of U.S. adolescents (Lerner, 2004).

As such, practitioners may more reasonably adopt a strength-based approach to enhancing the development of immigrant youth, despite the patterns of risks and problem behaviors they present (e.g., see Strohmeier & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2008). Furthermore, examining the concept of thriving as described by immigrant youth in their own words provides an important opportunity to capture aspects of the concept that might be specific to this population.

In sum, in the present study we asked whether immigrant youth within the 4-H Study sample conceived of thriving in adolescence in terms consonant with the PYD perspective. As well, we assessed if their qualitative conceptions of thriving triangulated with quantitative data about PYD, Contribution, and expectations for a positive future.

Method

The 4-H Study was not designed as an investigation of immigrant youth. Nevertheless, as a consequence of the sampling approach used in the research (i.e., collecting data through

schools in communities across the United States; see Lerner, et al., 2005, for details), immigrant youth became part of the sample. For the present study, youth in Grades 8 and 9 were combined and analyzed together in order to achieve a sufficient sample size. For youth present in both Grade 8 and Grade 9, their 9th Grade data were used.

The sample was thus 45% 8th-Graders and 55% 9th Graders. Data were obtained primarily from a Student Questionnaire (SQ). We also used demographic data collected from parents through a Parent Questionnaire (PQ) that was administered at all waves of data collection. Additional information about the 4-H Study method, including the development and psychometric characteristics of the measures, can be found in Gestsdottir & Lerner (2007), Jelacic, et al. (2007), Lerner, et al. (2005), Theokas & Lerner (2006), Zimmerman, et al. (2007). Below we present the features of methodology pertinent to the present report.

Participants

At Wave 4 of data collection, participants in the 4-H study came from sites located in 24 states that provided regional, rural-urban, racial/ethnic, and religious diversity. Participants were 1143 eighth grade adolescents (39.5% males, mean age = 14.16 years, SD = .57; 60.5% females, mean age = 14.07 years, SD = .54) and 561 of their parents. At Wave 5, participants came from sites located in 25 states that provided regional, rural-urban, racial/ethnic, and religious diversity. Participants were 1208 ninth grade adolescents (41.3% males, mean age = 15.27 years, SD = .57; 58.7% female, mean age = 15.08 years, SD = .48). The participants varied in regard to race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, family structure, rural-urban location, geographic region, and experiences in after-school programs (Lerner, et al, 2005).

The Immigrant Youth Sample

To identify first and second generation immigrant youth, we used existing student and parent questionnaire items that assessed length of residence in the U.S. and use of foreign languages in various contexts. First generation immigrant participants were identified as those who have not lived in the U.S. their entire lives and spoke a language other than English in one of the following contexts: to themselves, with parents, or with siblings. Second generation immigrant youth were those individuals whose parents identified themselves as not having lived in the U.S. their entire lives and as speaking a language other than English in one of the following contexts: to themselves, at home, or with their children. Some of the adolescent immigrants identified through parent data were actually first generation immigrants, i.e. they immigrated into the U.S., just as their parents did. Participants who were second generation immigrants reported speaking a language other than English to themselves, their parents or their siblings. This approach, while possibly omitting some immigrant youth from our sample, provided the most assurance that our sample includes only immigrants rather than American citizens born overseas (i.e., we opted to err on the side of excluding "false negatives" rather than including "false positives").

This categorization process yielded 159 participants across Grades 8 and 9. From this group, we excluded participants who reported poor facility with written or spoken English. This process reduced the sample to a final N of 131 participants.

Accordingly, 131 immigrant youth (54% girls; 45% 8th graders) varied with respect to race and ethnicity (European = 22.4%, Latino/a = 43.2%, Black = 15.2%, Asian = 12.8%, Multi-ethnic/racial = 4.0%, and Other = 2.4%). Youth varied also in religious affiliation (Catholic = 41.7%, Protestant = 17.4%, Muslim = 4.3%, Hindu = 2.6%, Other = 16.5%; and None = 16.5%). Most youth (82.4%) were first-generation immigrants and the rest (17.6%) were

second-generation immigrants. The majority reported that they had lived in the United States for either five to nine years (N = 50, or 38.2%) or ten or more years (N = 46, or 35.1%). Twelve youth (9.2%) reported having lived in the U.S. for one to four years and 23 second-generation immigrant respondents (17.6%) reported that they had lived in the U.S. their entire lives.

Nearly half of the adolescents' parents (45.5%) had attended college, whereas 39% completed high school and 15.6% had greater than a college-level education. Most youth (57.9%) came from families with per capita incomes that fell between 0.0% to 99% of the federal poverty line, followed by families with incomes that fell between 100% to 199% percent of the federal poverty line (23.7%), families with incomes between 200% to 299% percent of the federal poverty line (13.2%), and families with incomes greater than or equal to 300% of the federal poverty line (5.3%).

As a final check on whether these 131 youth were indeed immigrants, rather than children whose parents were in the military or on other out-of-the-country assignments, we assessed whether each child's reported ethnicity matched with the foreign language they reported speaking. An example of a match would be a respondent who reported being Asian American and speaking Chinese with his parents. For 121 (92%) of the participants we were able to establish such a match. Self-reports of ethnicity for some participants in the 4-H sample change over time, and keeping in mind the multi-ethnic nature of many of the families in the sample, we believe that variation in ethnic identification may be linked to a changing (developing) sense of self-identification among some youth. Accordingly, in light of such possible sources of variance in our data set, we were satisfied that the level of match we obtained indicated that our sampling procedures were accurate.

In regard to the languages spoken by the participants, the majority (62.6%) spoke Spanish. In turn, 19.8% spoke Chinese, 5.3 % spoke Vietnamese, 3.8% spoke Creole, 3.1% spoke Russian, and 38.9% spoke other languages. The reason that the percentage of languages spoken exceeds 100% is that 30.5% of the participants spoke two foreign languages and 5.3% spoke three foreign languages.

Procedure

Participants were tested in groups within their schools (in more than 95% of the cases) or in after-school programs. Trained study staff or assistants, who began all testing sessions by reading the instructions to the participants, conducted data collection. Parent data were collected through teachers or program staff giving youth an envelope to take home to their parents. The envelope contained a letter explaining the study, consent forms for the child and his/her parent, a parent questionnaire, and a self-addressed envelope for returning the filled out forms and parent questionnaire.

Qualitative Methods

The SQ includes several open-ended items. One of these items was used to assess a youth's conception of a thriving young person: "Everybody has an idea about how she or he would like to be. If you imagine yourself doing really well in all areas of your life, what would you be like? What sorts of things would you do?" These questions were intended to assess the most salient concepts included in personal definitions of thriving, leaving the participants free to place their thoughts about thriving in the present or in the future.

The qualitative analysis of the responses to this item was designed to assess if the youth used language consistent with the Five Cs of PYD, Contribution, and positive future orientation. We assessed also if terms other than those involved with the PYD perspective (an admittedly U.S.-derived conception; Lerner, 2004) were part of the immigrant adolescents' conceptions of a thriving youth.

Two sets of codes were used to provide these assessments; the final coding scheme is presented in Table 1. Based on the theoretical and empirical work of King, et al. (2005), who found that definitions of thriving by adults and youth could be organized according to the "Five Cs" of PYD, the first set of codes assessed the extent that descriptions of thriving used the terms associated with PYD, such as the "Five Cs," Contribution, and future orientation. Definitions of these codes were based on operationalizations provided through reference to the quantitative items indexing these concepts. Second, additional codes were generated from the data through open coding (i.e., identification of concepts within the data) (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to capture descriptions of thriving that were outside of the framework provided by the terms linked to the Five Cs and Contribution. Definitions of these codes were developed by the authors to ensure consistency in coding. Answers such as "I don't know," nonsensical sentences, such as "It well [sic] not have no bad people there," and sentences that were general and vague or did not contain information relevant to the question were considered uncodable. Finally, we used the responses also to assess also whether immigrant youth demonstrated in their conceptions of a thriving young person a positive orientation to the future.

A codebook was developed by three raters based on the data in the first three waves of data (Grades 5, 6, and 7) in the 4-H Study (e.g., Phelps, et al., 2007). In order to determine intercoder reliability, two of the raters used this codebook to independently code an additional 100 cases. There was a high rate of agreement between the two raters as indicated by Cohen's kappa, $k = .83$. Given this consistency, the immigrant youth cases were coded by one of the coders.

Table 1

Coding categories and response percentages to questions about the characteristics of a thriving youth among immigrant youth, N=102

Category	Percentage of Responses
Theoretically-based Codes	
Competence	22.6
Connection	7.8
Confidence	2
Character	1
Caring	1
Contribution	29.4
Future	52.9
<i>Future: Job/Occupation</i>	44.1
<i>Future: Family</i>	8.8
<i>Future: Financial well-being</i>	8.8
<i>Future: Other</i>	8.8
<i>Future: Education</i>	6.9
Codes Derived from the Data	
Emotion, Personal Characteristic, Behavior/Conduct	21.6
Activity/Interest	18.6
Agency/Independence	8.8
Being Perfect	4.9
Challenging the Concept of Thriving	3.9

Quantitative Methods

As described by Lerner, et al. (2005; also see Theokas & Lerner, 2006), the 4-H data set contains a large set of measures of demographic, individual/behavioral, social relational, familial, and community variables. From this larger set, the following measures were used in the quantitative analyses:

- **The Five Cs of PYD and Contribution.** The Five Cs of PYD – Competence, Confidence, Connection, Character, and Caring – and, as well the “6th C,” of Contribution – are measured in the SQ from items derived from four measures: the Profiles of Student Life-Attitudes and Behaviors Survey (PSL-AB) (Benson, Leffert, Scales, & Blyth, 1998), the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC; Harter, 1983), the Peer Support Scale (Armsden & Greenberger, 1987) from the Teen Assessment Project

Survey Question Bank (Small & Rodgers, 1995), and the Eisenberg Sympathy Scale (Eisenberg et al., 1996). As explained in prior publications, which include the details of measure construction and psychometric information, PYD is constructed as the mean of the Five Cs (Jelicic, et al., 2007; Lerner, et al., 2005; Phelps, et al., 2007). Contribution is measured as a total score (derived from 12 items within the SQ).

- **Positive Future.** An index for positive future (Cronbach's alpha = .96) was created from 10 SQ items that assessed the likelihood positive events would be part of their future. These items were: Have a job that pays well; have a job they like; have a happy family life; be able to live wherever they want; be able to buy the things they want; be able to do the things they want; be respected in the community; have friends they can count on; be healthy; and be safe. All items had a five-point rating scale, ranging from 1 = Very low to 5 = Very high. A composite score was computed as the mean score across items. However, due to a high negative skew in the distribution of these scores (mean = 4.14), a dichotomous variable was created for further analysis. Youth with scores below 4 were coded as 0 = lower positive future expectations, and youth with scores greater than or equal to 4 were coded as 1 = higher positive future expectations.

Results

The purpose of the study was to determine if immigrant adolescent youth had conceptions of a thriving young person that included terms consonant with the concepts involved in the PYD perspective (Damon, 2004; Lerner, 2005, 2007), such as the Five Cs, Contribution, and a positive future orientation. The PYD perspective is a largely U.S.-based conception (Lerner, 2004), and so we sought to assess also if immigrant youth used terms other than those associated with this perspective when discussing their conception of a thriving young person.

Finally, in order to test the expectation that immigrant youth who conceived of thriving in terms consonant with the PYD perspective would show more evidence of positive development than youth who did not have this conception, we assessed the convergence between this qualitatively-derived information about immigrant youth and their quantitative scores for the PYD concepts measured within the 4-H Study data set. We organize our results around the information we obtained in regard to these goals of the research.

Immigrant Youth Conceptions of a Thriving Young Person

To identify the terms immigrant youth use to convey their conception of a thriving young person, we coded responses to the questions, "Everybody has an idea about how she or he would like to be. If you imagine yourself doing really well in all areas of your life, what would you be like? What sorts of things would you do?" Of the 131 youth included in our sample, 21 (16%) did not answer this question, and 8 (6%) gave uncodable answers. Therefore, 102 youth provided codable answers and the analyses below are based on the data from those participants.

Eighty-six (65.6%) of these participants used language consistent with the terminology of PYD in their definitions of thriving. As shown in Table 1, of the Five Cs, Competence was mentioned most often (by 22.6%) and Caring and Character least often (by 1% in both cases). In turn, Contribution was mentioned by 29.4% of the youth. Moreover, a majority of the youth (52.9%) included in their conceptions of thriving ideas about a positive future, for instance, regarding desirable outcomes such as having a job or a family and financial success.

Examples of some of the statements youth made about Competence included being a good student, being smart, and being good at sports or other activities. For example, one participant wrote, "I'd be top of my class and win all my rodeo contests." Another one stated, "I would get all A's at school. Become a better Artist...."

Most of the participants discussed contribution in general terms, such as "helping others," "helping some people," "helping out," or "being helpful." Some participants, however, wrote about specific causes they would contribute to, or specific ways in which they would like to help. For example, one respondent wrote, "I would be in Mexico helping out my people by giving them food and shelter." Another one stated, "I would like to be a doctor to help the people in Mauritania." Some participants wrote about "contribution to self" (Lerner, 2004), i.e. their answers reflected their understanding that taking care of oneself is an important responsibility. For example, one participant said that he would "have a great amount of energy to exercise a lot (not being lazy)." Another one noted that she "...would have good life, and I would do what's good for me and help some people."

In regard to statements about a positive future, many youth described their idealized futures as having a college education, a job, a family, or financial success. For example, one participant stated, "I would first of all go through medical school as I planned. I see myself as a surgeon in Ireland." Another participant wrote, "Well I would be a top-class attorney fighting for people's rights and live in an expensive apt. in downtown Boston," while another one wrote, "I would be rich and help Animal Shelters every where in Arizona." As exemplified by the latter two quotes, for many respondents financial success was tied in with the ability to make a contribution, i.e. with being able to use their imagined future success to help their families, communities, or other causes.

However, 42 (32.1 %) of the immigrant youth did not restrict themselves to the use of terms embodied within the PYD perspective. One salient additional theme included in participants' conceptions of a thriving youth was positive personal characteristics, emotions or behaviors. These topics were found in the statements of 21.6% of the youth. For example, referring to themselves, participants wrote that they would "change my behavior," "do harder and challenging things," and "not lose my temper so much." In addition, the participants discussed such concepts as being a "good" or "perfect" person, and being "happy" and "social." King, et al. (2005) also reported that U.S. youth respond to questions about the meaning of thriving by using terms that fall outside of the frame provided by the PYD perspective. The terms found within the present sample correspond to those reported as well by King, et al.

Interestingly, a small number of participants (3.92% of the sample) questioned the value of doing well in all areas of their lives either as impossibility, or as a situation that would not be beneficial for them. For example, one participant wrote, "Well if I was doing well in all areas of my life then I guess this world would be perfect no? So basically I can't even begin to imagine that for it would never happen so why waste time on even trying to?" Another participant stated, "I don't feel that I would be as mature as I am now. I have gotten where I am today by learning from my mistakes and failures, and have gained a sense of appreciation for the areas in my life that I am good at."

Correspondence between Immigrant Youth Conceptions of a Thriving Young Person and Quantitative Scores for PYD-related Variables

To better understand whether the conceptions of immigrant youth that included ideas pertinent to the PYD perspective indicated anything about the status of their positive development, we

interrelated information about their statements regarding thriving youth with their quantitative scores for PYD (mean = 69.0, SD = 13.2), Contribution (mean = 47.5, SD = 15.5), and positive future (mean = 4.1, SD = 0.8).

Immigrant youth whose conceptions of thriving included a future orientation had significantly higher scores on PYD, $t(124) = 4.919, p < .001$ and Contribution, $t(121) = 4.005, p < .001$, compared with youth who did not include a future orientation. However, there were no significant differences between these youth in terms of their quantitative scores for positive future.

In turn, youth whose conceptions of a thriving young included Contribution had significantly higher quantitative Contribution scores, $t(121) = 2.431, p < .05$, than did youth who did not discuss Contribution in their definitions of thriving. However, adolescent immigrants whose definitions of thriving included at least one of the Five Cs did not differ from adolescents who did not discuss any of the Five Cs in regard to their quantitative PYD scores.

In short, conceptions of a thriving youth that included ideas about a positive future were associated with higher quantitative scores for both PYD and Contribution. In addition, conceiving of thriving youth as making contributions to their selves or their communities was associated with higher quantitative scores for Contribution. Thus, there is evidence from these analyses that immigrant youth whose understanding of thriving includes PYD show evidence of positive functioning during their adolescent years.

Discussion

Immigrant adolescents face challenges associated with both adjusting to the individual and social transitions of their age period and, as well, challenges of adapting to their new national context while maintaining a connection to their cultures of origin (Suarez-Orozco, & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). This study provides initial descriptive information about how adolescent immigrants are faring in regard to their changing individual and contextual circumstances through using the conceptual lens provided by the "positive youth development" (PYD) perspective (Damon, 2004; Lerner, 2005, 2007). Using data from the 4-H Study of PYD (Lerner, et al., 2005), we found that immigrant adolescent youth had conceptions of a thriving young person that included terms consonant with the concepts involved in the PYD perspective (Damon, 2004; Lerner, 2005, 2007), such as the Five Cs, Contribution, and a positive future orientation, as well as other terms not linked to these ideas.

However, in that the PYD perspective is a largely U.S.-based conception (Lerner, 2004), we argued that immigrant youth use of terms associated with this conception when describing what they believed a thriving young person to be might be an indication that they have adjusted well to their new national context. Of course, it is also possible that the conception of thriving in their culture of origin might be at least to some extent aligned with the U.S.-based definition of thriving. However, given the paucity of PYD research that has been published in other than U.S. settings (see Silbereisen & Lerner, 2007), this possibility cannot be tested at this writing.

Accordingly, we explored whether qualitative conceptions of a thriving young person among immigrant adolescent youth covaried with quantitative scores indicative of positive youth development and contribution. Our analyses of the convergence between the qualitative and quantitative data were used to address this issue and provided evidence that immigrant youth who include in their conception of thriving (in whole or in part) the ideas associated with the

PYD perspective (the Five Cs, Contribution, and positive future orientation), had higher quantitative scores for both PYD and Contribution. Given the well-documented future orientation of immigrant youth (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001), immigrant adolescents may possess an important strength in their potential for positive development. These data provide preliminary empirical reason for adopting a strength-based, PYD framework for studying the individual and ecological bases of development among immigrant youth. In addition, our findings provide a rationale for practitioners to develop programs based on a strength-based approach to enhancing the development of immigrant youth.

Of course, these implications are constrained by the limitations of the present study. The 4-H Study was not designed to be a study of immigrant youth, and therefore our sample was gathered in an ad hoc manner instead of intentionally. Due to the above limitations, we were not able to consider the length of residence in the U.S., acculturation (Motti-Stefanidi, Pavlopoulos, Obradovic, & Masten, 2008; Oppedal, Roysamb, & Sam, 2004), and other factors relevant to the positive development of immigrant populations in our research. Considering immigrant adolescents coming from various countries (Lien, Dalgard, Heyerdahl, Thoresen, & Bjertness, 2006; Pong, Hao, & Gardner, 2005) and belonging to first and second generation (Driscoll, Russell, & Crockett, 2008; Harker, 2001; Portes & Rumbaut, 2005) as a combined, homogenous group presents another limitation of this study.

In addition, our results are limited by the definitions of immigrant status we employed and by the particular qualitative and quantitative indices included in our measurement model. For example, these limitations precluded investigation of important nuances and possible negative cases (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) in our findings, such as a more in-depth look at youth who challenged the concept of thriving. As well, the definitions of thriving provided by the participants may not be complete, as we were not able to probe for additional relevant concepts and meanings. Nevertheless, we consider their answers to be indicative of the most salient concepts included in personal definitions of thriving. In addition, it is reasonable to question the extent to which immigrant youth are able to express their thoughts in what may be for many participants their second language. To address this concern, we included in the analyses only those youth who indicated that they knew English well or very well. Furthermore, both of our coders were European American and their understanding of participants' written responses might have been limited by their cultural biases.

Moreover, in that the information we extracted from the longitudinal data set was cross-sectional information about eighth and ninth grade youth, our findings cannot be generalized to other adolescent age groups or across ontogenetic time. Nevertheless, in that the 4-H Study is a longitudinal investigation, this latter limitation can be addressed in future analyses of the present data set.

Future research should assess not only larger and more intentionally gathered groups of youth who are immigrants to the U.S. but, as well, should assess youth immigrants in other nations, especially because of the contemporary social, economic, and social justice issues challenging their healthy development (Strohmeier & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2008). Such research would also be valuable if it assessed whether the PYD perspective generalizes to national settings other than the U.S. Such cross-national comparisons are only beginning (e.g., Silbereisen & Lerner, 2007), but it may be that there are important interactions between particular ethnic, racial, and religious immigrant groups in particular nations that make conceptions of PYD and their implications for thriving different across groups. In addition, along with studies using quantitative approaches, in-depth qualitative studies are needed that would provide rich and

contextualized descriptions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) of culture-specific, as well as universal, aspects of conceptions of thriving and their relationship to quantitative indicators of PYD in both in the Western and non-Western world.

The present data are neither powerful enough nor sufficiently nuanced to elucidate these possibilities. Nevertheless, the findings we have presented do suggest that, in trying to depict the status of positive development among immigrant adolescents, there is merit in asking whether their conceptions of thriving youth correspond to ideas about such development within their new nations of residence.

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“Growing Without Limitations:” Transformation Among Young Adult Camp Staff

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Abstract: A strong body of research has developed over the last decade regarding the developmental outcomes of camp experiences of children and adolescents. However, few formal studies have taken place to determine how camp experiences lead to deep personal change in young adults. Mixed methods were used to better understand how camp is transformative in lives of young adult camp staff and to identify conditions in the camp setting that facilitate change. A change model and conditions of change model were developed. Recommendations for future research are provided.

Introduction

The positive impacts of the camp experience on positive youth development in children and adolescents is well documented (Bialeschki, M. D., Henderson, K. A., & James, P. A., 2007; Thurber, C., Schuler, L., Scanlin, M., & Henderson, K., 2007). This body of research links involvement in day and resident camps and exposure to specific elements that promote youth development with enhanced developmental outcomes. Research has also documented how camp experiences contribute to leadership-related life skill outcomes in staff (Ferrari & McNeely, 2007; Garst & Johnson, 2005; Garton, Miltenberger, & Pruett, 2007).

Although helpful as a basis for understanding how camp influences staff outcomes, these studies have not examined how camp may be transformative in the lives of young adult leaders

who work in camps. Specifically, research to determine the degree to which the camp environment promotes transformative learning or deep change in young adult staff is limited. The purpose of this study was to examine how young adult camp staff experience transformative learning and how the camp context influences personal growth. The following research questions were explored:

1. How does camp involvement promote transformation in young adults?
2. What conditions in the camp environment promote personal change?

Positive Youth Development

Youth development includes the processes that prepare young people to meet the challenges of transitioning into adulthood by providing the supports and opportunities that are needed for healthy social, cognitive, emotional, and spiritual growth. The concept of "positive youth development," emergent over the past decade, is based on human development theories that associate positive youth outcomes to specific conditions in a child's environment (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Lerner, Lerner, Almerigi, & Theokas, 2005). The positive youth development approach recognizes that all youth have strengths and that they will develop in positive ways when their strengths are aligned with appropriate family and community resources (Zarrett & Lerner, 2008).

Positive youth development models move beyond the short-term outcomes that youth may receive from program participation to examine the characteristics of program settings that contribute to appropriate, healthy development (Witt, 2002). The National Research Council and Institute of Medicine summarized the features of positive youth development settings (Eccles & Gootman, 2002) as: physical and psychological safety; appropriate structure; supportive relationships; opportunities to belong; positive social norms; support for efficacy and mattering; opportunities for skill building; and integration of family, school, and community efforts.

Developmental Impact of Camp Experiences on Children and Adolescents

Research indicates that children and adolescents involved in several out-of-school activities are developmentally healthier than their peers who are not involved at all or who participate in only one activity (Zarrett & Lerner, 2008). Camp is unique when compared with other youth development settings in the following ways: youth live outdoors rather than merely visiting it, youth attend one to eight week periods of intense experiences rather than short experiences spread out over time, staff and campers are with one another for long periods of time, and ratios of staff to campers are low (Henderson, Thurber, Scanlin, & Bialeschki, 2007). Thus, camp is a particularly impactful out-of-school activity due to the duration and intensity of the experience for children and adolescents (Ferrari & McNeely, 2007).

The American Camp Association (ACA) (2006), conducted a national benchmarking study using a developmental framework created by Klem, Gambone, & Connell (2002) that included four support and opportunities areas: supportive relationships, physical and emotional safety, youth involvement and decision-making, and skill building (Henderson, Thurber, Scanlin, & Bialeschki, 2007). ACA found that camp experiences lead to positive developmental outcomes in children and adolescents, particularly in the area of supportive relationships. These results are affirmed by state-level studies showing that camp participation promotes positive outcomes in children and adolescents (Arnold, Bourdeau, & Nagele, 2005; Garst & Bruce, 2003; Garst & Johnson, 2005; Garton, Miltenberger, & Pruett, 2007).

Developmental Impact of Camp Experiences on Young Adults

Across the United States each year, thousands of late adolescents and emerging adults work as staff in day and resident camp settings. Approximately 65% of these young staff members return to work in camps over multiple summers (American Camp Association, 2007). Trained as front-line mentors, counselors, and leaders, these staff members ensure the safety of youth and bear much of the responsibility for making camp a setting for positive development.

Although research has documented the youth development outcomes received by campers, very little attention has been paid to the impact of the camp experience on camp staff development; particularly as it relates to helping this group of late adolescents and emerging adults grow to be “fully functioning adults.” Furstenberg (1999) suggests that being a fully prepared and fully functioning adult includes the ability to find remunerative employment, form a lasting and gratifying partnership, and become contributors in a community. The concept of a fully functioning adult is supported by Erikson’s (1963) life cycle model of human development. Erikson proposed that as a young person moves from childhood to adulthood, they consciously create a multi-dimensional image of their self, and they look to have their identity validated by others. Furthermore, as a person moves into young adulthood, they seek companionship and love with another person.

Powell (2004) suggested camp professionals know that many young adults who have worked at camp gained the skills and confidence that made major impacts in their personal lives, careers, and the leadership roles they hold in their communities. Limited research has explored these impacts. Garst and Johnson (2003) conducted focus group interviews with camp staff, who expressed developing an increased awareness of themselves and a wide range of social and life skills related to leadership and understanding children. The life skill outcomes of the camp experience for camp staff is supported in studies by Dworken (2004) and Forsythe, Matysik, & Nelson (2004). Too often, youth outcomes research, such as the studies previously cited, focused on short and medium-term outcomes rather than exploring long-term conditions that can positively change as a result of providing youth with the developmental supports and opportunities they need. It is particularly important for youth development providers to understand the long-term impacts of youth programs such as camps, to better understand these conditions of change.

Contribution of Transformative Learning Theory

Transformative learning theory may inform our understanding of the long-term impacts of camp experiences for young adult staff. Transformative learning is defined as, “the development of revised assumptions, premises, ways of interpreting experience, or perspectives on the world by means of critical reflection” (Cranton, 1994, p.vii). Thus the process of transformation, or deep personal change, occurs when individuals, groups, and/or organizations arrive at new perspectives and actions that greatly differ from their past views and actions. Transformative learning contrasts with instrumental learning, defined as technical and skill-based, and communicative learning, which focuses on understanding others (Kreber & Cranton, 2000; Merriam & Cafferella, 1999).

Transformative learning requires shaping over time (Cranton, 1994; Daloz, 2000) and interactions between individuals different from each other (Daloz, 2000). Camp experiences are powerful because they involve prolonged exposure to persons, places, and spaces in an experience-based learning environment. If camp experiences are contexts for positive development in young adults, then it seems likely that transformative learning may also be influencing received outcomes. Unfortunately, little research has explored how transformation

among young adults occurs in a camp setting. The purpose of this research was to explore how camp experiences promote transformation in young adults and to identify conditions in the camp environment that promote personal change.

Methodology

Participants and Data Collection

Data for this two-phase study were collected during the summer of 2007 from summer camp staff employed at six residential camps in Virginia. In phase 1, male and female camp staff ages 18-28 years old with at least five years of summer camp experience were selected to participate in a series of focus groups. Phase 2 consisted of a survey of experienced male and female camp staff ages 18-28 employed at six residential camps in Virginia.

Four focus groups with 33 camp staff were conducted using a semi-structured approach. Sample questions included, "How does the camp experience change how you see/act in the world and who you are?" and "Describe critical events that take place at camp that changed who you are/how you see/act in the world." The focus group questions were pilot tested with a group of camp staff prior to the study.

An on-line survey was developed using SurveyMonkey and pilot-tested with a small group of camp staff. Eighty-four members of the Virginia 4-H Camp Staff Alumni Association were invited to participate in the survey via direct email and link from the Association's MySpace webpage. The survey included questions related to transformative learning that were developed based on data collected in the focus groups. Twenty one staff members completed the survey for a response rate of 25%.

Data Analysis

Focus group data were transcribed by research team members. Content analysis (Patton, 2002), the process of breaking down large portions of text into meaningful blocks of words, was used to analyze the transcribed interviews. Blocks of words were then conceptually grouped into categories using a coding process to capture how participants described their camp experiences and associated personal transformation. Themes based on category groups were identified by individual researchers and then by the research group. Common themes were organized across focus groups into two theoretical models. The first model addressed individual changes and the second addressed conditions of change.

Survey data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and triangulated with focus groups transcripts, focus group facilitator notes, and research team observations. A participant review of the results was used as a trustworthiness procedure (Patton, 2002).

Results

Personal Changes Associated with the Camp Experience

The first research question was, "How does camp involvement promote transformation in young adults?" See Table 1 for the list of emergent themes related to this question.

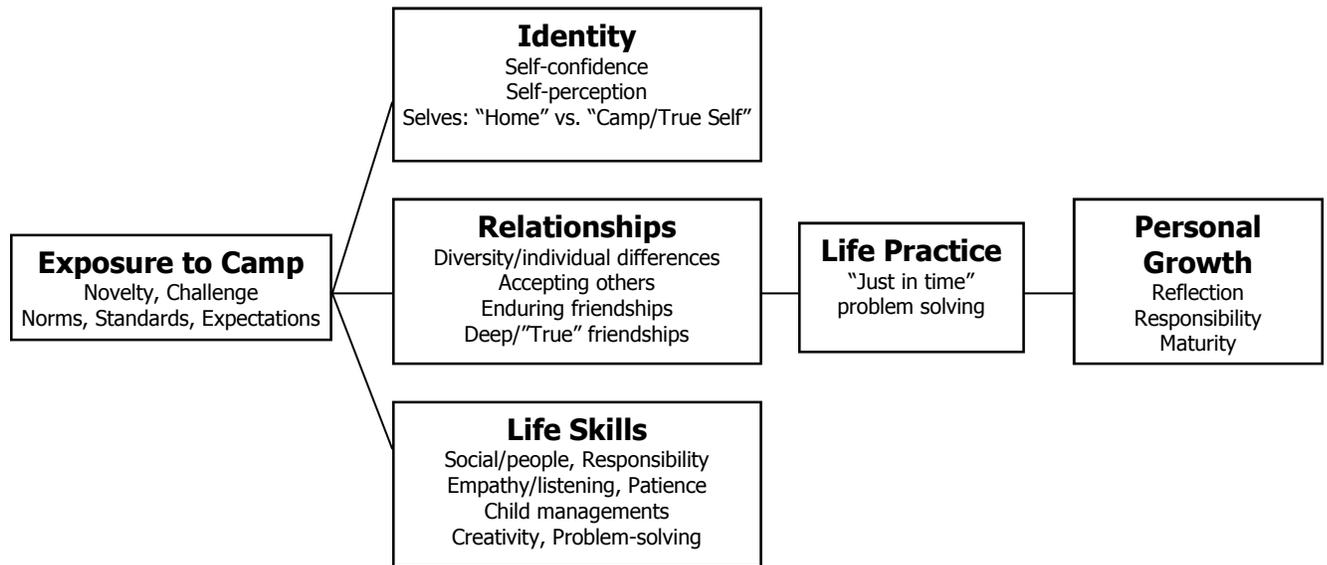
Table 1

Emergent Themes Related to Personal Transformation Resulting from Camp Experiences

<p>Transformation (Deep Personal Change) Associated with Camp Experiences</p>	<p>Increased confidence Skills Closer relationships Working with Children Camp as an entity/identity True self Respect/trust-mutual contract with self and others Belonging Broaden horizons Hold self to higher standards Solve problems Enhance learning Enhanced reflection Maturity/responsibility/growth/independence Career direction</p>
<p>Camp Conditions That Promote Transformation (Deep Personal Change)</p>	<p>Relationships Common group goal Camp culture Traditions/ritual Success with challenges Camper focus Simple lifestyle Context comparisons/high standards Life practice Safe environment Short period over several years Escape/disconnect Support development of mastery</p>

An exploratory change model was developed based on common themes across the four focus groups (Figure 1). The model describes how the camp experience in this study transformed the lives of young adult staff (ages 18-28).

Figure 1
Change Model for Transformative Learning in Camp



Young adults are exposed to the camp experience, which includes unfamiliar settings, challenging experiences, and diverse relationships. As one focus group participant shared,

“I also think it’s the diversity because we are bring a whole bunch of different counties together so that kids from different backgrounds, different communities, are interacting with each other so they are meeting people they wouldn’t meet before and for them to get used to different types of cultures...”

The camp community contrasts most staff members’ home communities, particularly the camp environment as an emotionally safe place. For example, 86% of respondents to the survey indicated as a result of camp, they are more willing or able to include and accept others who are different than them. The camp community brings with it norms, standards, and expectations that immediately create dissonance for many staff. Eighty-six percent of staff responding to the survey “agree” or “strongly agree” that as a result of camp they are more willing or able to hold themselves to higher standards of behaving and talking.

Staff bring with them an identity, yet this identity is modified through camp experiences as staff learn that they can “be themselves” at camp. In the survey, 82% of the respondents agree or strongly agree they are better able to show their identity—“their true self”—at camp. One participant said, “I’m accepted at camp and now am not afraid of showing my ‘true’ self at camp.” Staff gain confidence showing this “self” (86% of those surveyed agreed or strongly agreed) and enhance self-perception. As one focus group participant said, “It boosted my confidence so much in the...years to come because my kids and my fellow counselors had so much confidence in me.”

Within this environment of trust and belonging, a range of life skills are learned, practiced, and sometimes mastered, including: public speaking, leadership, followership, listening, empathy, self-responsibility, problem solving, reflection, working with children, and people skills. Staff explore new ways of talking, behaving, and expressing themselves. New friendships are created, and some eventually become what participants described as “true” or deep friendships. One focus group respondent explained, “Camp has helped me create a second family...that I know I can depend on whenever and wherever.”

Thus, staff described that personal change at camp was related to the developmental outcomes they experienced around the dimensions of identity, skills development, and trust-based relationships that led to significant impacts on maturity, responsibility, and independence. A focus group participant shared, “...my life at camp was like a microcosm of the world. I grew as a leader and developed other skills that will carry me through life.” Another focus group member described, “Camp has helped me develop into my adult self. I can better make decisions for myself as well as for a group. I have a better sense of self.”

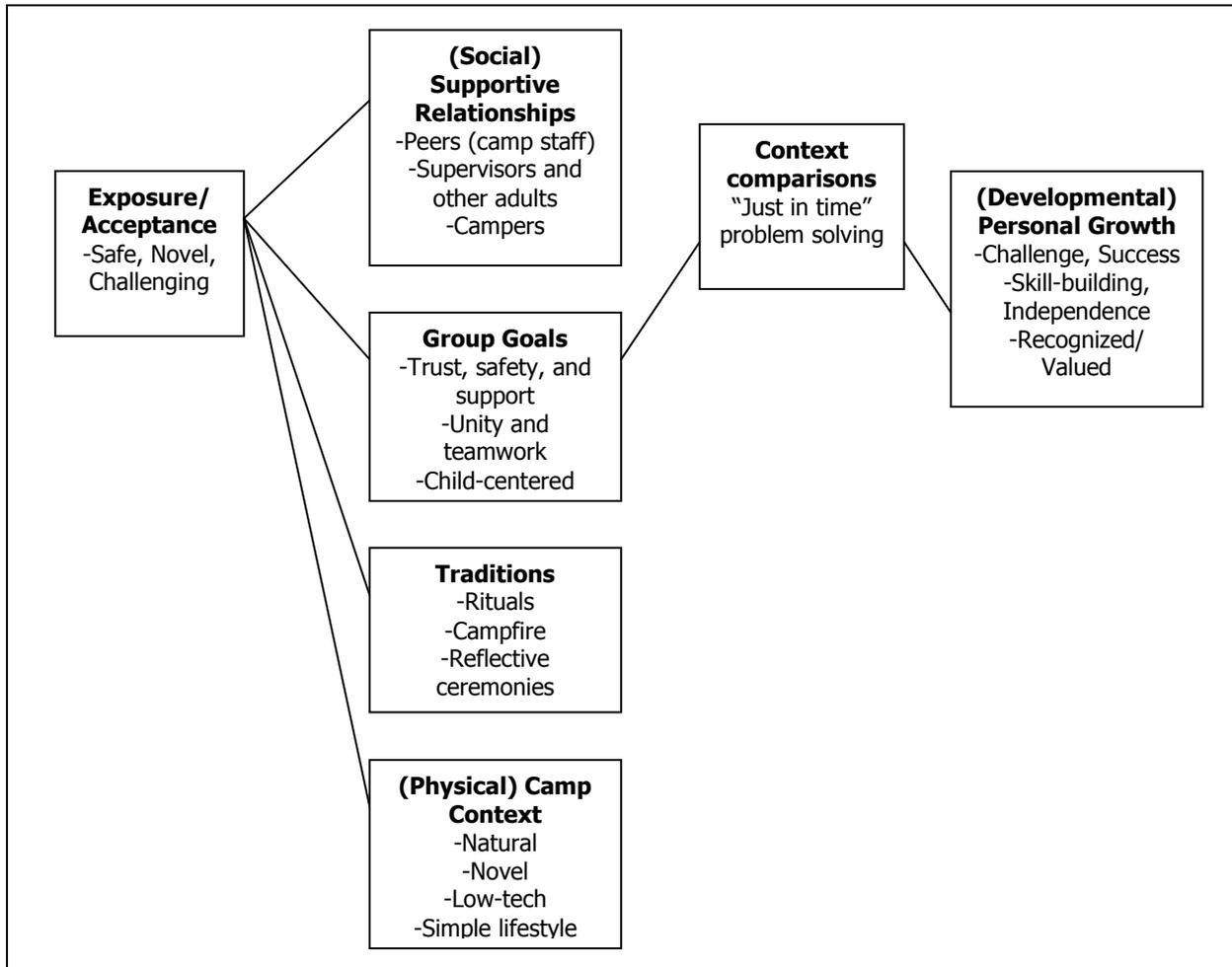
Some staff also changed occupational goals or involvement in school and civic groups based on their camp leadership experience. Seventy-two percent of survey respondents said that as a result of camp, they are more aware of what they want to do for a career. In addition, 52% said they are more likely to change what they plan to do for a career due to their camp experience. For example, several focus group participants mentioned they switched from a career path based on financial gains to one focused on positively impacting youth.

Conditions in a Camp Setting that Promote Personal Changes

The second research question was, “What conditions does a camp environment provide that promote personal change? See Table 1 for the list of emergent themes related to this question. The “Conditions of Change” model (Figure 2) describes conditions a camp provides that impact how the camp experience is transformative in the lives of young adult staff. In order for transformative change to occur, focus group participants explained that staff must be exposed to and accept a camp culture and a group identity.

Figure 2

Conditions of Change Model for Transformative Learning in Camp



Staff must also develop supportive relationships with peers, supervisors, and campers that provide safety, belonging, membership, and self validation. Eighty-nine percent of survey respondents said they received support and encouragement from their supervisor at camp. Eighty-three percent said camp was a safe place that supports personal change. One staff member said,

"I've told my non-camp friends about how camp has changed me and they tend to not fully understand. My camp friends and I, however, talk often about how camp has changed us and how it has impacted our lives. It's not something we can easily explain because it truly affected our very person. I tried to tell friends that camp has been a positive experience and that once you work on staff, you're a family and you can never change that."

The camp setting is unique compared to the stimulus-rich settings where most young adults spend their time. The low-tech, nature-based, and comparatively simply environment at camp provides a place where staff focus on relationships with peers and children. One focus group participant said, "I [learned] a lot from the experience by having to live a simple life at camp.

That is something I have brought with me to college.” In this simplified, context, staff often come to consider the needs of the camp community over their own needs. Ninety-five percent of survey respondents indicated that being part of a group working towards a common goal enhanced personal change at camp, and 83% believe being part of a unified camp group promotes personal change.

Staff learn and adopt the camp culture, including its norms, standards, goals, and traditions. The vast majority of staff believe elements of the camp culture including: feeling welcome, being part of a group that respects them, reflection, being part of a diverse group, being part of a group that supports new ideas and openness, and being part of a group that does not have cliques promotes personal change. Ceremonies like campfire programs enhance personal reflection and recognition that strengthen staff members’ connection to the camp community. They also believe camp traditions and rituals such as camp fire programs, singing and song leading, and meeting campers’ needs promotes personal change. One focus group participant said, “I wish the rest of the world was like camp so I could be the person I am at camp everyday: very high energy, always singing, and always laughing.”

Staff adopt the often higher standards of talking and behaving that differ from how they act in settings (such as school, work, and home) outside of camp. Eighty-four percent of survey respondents indicated camp surrounds them with others who have similar high standards. In addition, 78% said camp gives them an opportunity to compare camp life with home life. Focus group participants mentioned that they hold themselves to this higher standard outside of camp due to the camp experience.

The combination of these conditions, along with the new, challenging tasks, successful experiences, and many opportunities to be recognized, valued, and validated, lead to personal growth and development. The vast majority of survey respondents indicated that camp provides opportunities to be challenged and pushed outside their comfort zone that enhances personal change. As one focus group participant explained,

“...I understand myself in ways I never thought I could. I actually enjoy pushing myself as far as I possibly can now. I can even see a huge difference in my grades from before and after camp. My time management skills are amazing. If I need to do something on the spot it’s not a problem at all. Like most other staffers, improvising is a new way of life. I’m not as strict to a schedule anymore either. They’re more “guidelines” than schedules now. I’m a lot more efficient in the work that I do, as well. I’m more outspoken and not afraid to ask for help when I need to. Camp has changed me in too many ways to write down. There are probably things that changed that I don’t even notice. Camp staff is a life-altering event.”

Discussion

Camp as a Change-Agent

Camp has always been a place for young people to learn and grow as individuals. This study suggests that young adults do experience deep personal change and development as a result of long-term camp experiences. Along with this transformative learning, young adult staff gain an enhanced sense of self, confidence, and a drive for success that may not have been present prior to their involvement in camp.

This study supports the body of knowledge that has developed around the developmental outcomes of camp experiences for camp staff. Comparing the results of this study with recent studies of the outcomes of camp experiences for adolescent camp staff, it seems that the outcomes for young adult camp staff are similar. Given the expansion of the definition of adolescence into the mid-to-late twenties into what was once young adulthood (Arnett, 2004; Bynner, 2005), these results are not surprising. What seems interesting is that the outcomes for young adult camp staff are being received and perceived within a context of greater experience, maturity, and perhaps wisdom. Furthermore, the additional camp exposure over multiple years provides a comparative context for the identification of personal change characteristics.

Camp was a positive developmental setting for young adult camp staff. Many of the elements or features of positive youth development settings found in the child and youth development literature, such as confidence, supportive relationships, safety and belonging, competence and mastery, also emerged from this study. Other important elements for positive development emerged, including life practice and just-in-time problem solving. The "conditions of change model" suggests how these real-world situations facilitated personal growth. Also suggested by the model was the importance of transformative learning conditions, including the role of rituals, traditions, and a simple lifestyle. These conditions need further study to determine how they catalyze transformation.

The importance of camp experiences for identity development was particularly impactful for young adults in this study, supporting other evidence of the influences of camp experiences on self-identity. The American Camp Association's (2005) national camp outcomes study found that impacts on campers' positive identity were one of the most salient. Adolescent camp staff in Garst and Johnson's (2005) expressed how they were able to show their true personality at camp when compared with other settings. Identity impacts appear to continue to be salient for staff as young adults.

In this study participants explained how they were profoundly changed from the person they were before camp to a more grown-up and well-rounded individual. Recalling Furstenberg's (1999) concept of a fully functioning adult, there appears to be evidence from this study that camp experiences facilitate in young adults the transition into becoming fully functioning adults. Camp provides an opportunity for the development of deep friendships with peers and other adults, supports a focused and positive self-identity, provides multi-faceted skill development, stimulates career exploration and reflection, and provides opportunity for young adults to be a contributing part of a community. This by no means suggests that camp is the only setting that can facilitate such transformation, but the duration and intensity of camp experiences may be particularly critical in influencing this growth towards adulthood.

Study Limitations

Several limitations were identified in this study. First, due to the confidential nature of data collection we do not know to what degree there is overlap between focus group and survey participants, which may bias the results. Second, the impacts identified in this study may be attributed to normal maturation effects in the young adult participants rather than to personal transformation. Third, since this study was conducted with a small sample of camp staff, caution should be exercised when generalizing the findings to other camp contexts and young adult camp staff populations.

Implications

A positive trend has been slowly emerging in camp research, a trend away from short-term outcomes towards structural and programmatic factors that result in intentional short, medium, and even long term outcomes. For example, Henderson, Thurber, Scanlin, & Bialeschki (2007) recommended that researchers determine “how different program formats within camps and among other youth development organizations result in greater developmental growth” (p. 9).

This study, particularly with the exploration of conditions of change, makes a contribution to what we know about social, physical, and contextual elements of positive change settings. However, much more needs to be understood. If the camp experience can be so impactful, can we somehow let the “genie out of the bottle” so that other youth development programs and settings can benefit from the qualities that make camp unique? What qualities about camp settings may be replicable in non-camp settings? If there are certain conditions in camp that lead to deep personal change, how might this information translate into recommendations for changes in practice via the standards, such as those developed by the American Camp Association?

An opportunity also exists to explore transformative learning among larger samples of young adult camp staff, and to explore the influence of demographic and related variables on perceptions of deep learning. Do male and female young adult camp staff members experience transformative learning similarly? Do certain leadership roles make transformation more likely to occur? Why might some young adult camp staff experience transformation while others do not?

Conclusions

This study explored how young adults experience transformative learning in the context of the camp setting and how camp promotes deep personal change in young adult staff. Pittman, Martin, and Yohalem (2006) argue that “achieving long-term positive outcomes for adulthood (e.g., young people who are ready for college, work, and life) requires systematically defining more immediate outcomes (eg, offering key supports and opportunities)” (p. S24). Based on this study, camp can be an important setting for key supports and opportunities for young adults, suggesting the important role that camp experiences play, in conjunction with well-rounded experiences in other aspects of community and family life, in helping young adults to become productive, successful, contributing citizens.

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Differences in the Experiences of Boys and Girls in a Camp Environment

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Differences in the Experiences of Boys and Girls in a Camp Environment

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Abstract: Between the ages of nine and twelve, key developmental differences exist between genders. Boys' and girls' brains simply develop in a different sequence (Sax, 2007) and at a different rate (Hanlon, et al., 1999). Since the 1970's a tendency toward gender blindness and a lack of understanding about the real developmental differences between boys and girls may have limited the ability of youth professionals to best serve all youth. This paper highlights a study of whether boys and girls differ in camp experience and in life skill development as a result of camp? Fifteen counties with 28 individual camps participated in the study which measured (1) camp experience; (2) targeted life skills, and (3) leadership skills. The results showed significant differences between girls and boys. Researchers recommend that gender differences no longer be ignored when programming and that camp activities and curriculum meet the developmental needs of both boys and girls.

Background

Has programming since the mid 1970's been so neutral toward boys and girls that we have been gender blind? Has the goal to be politically correct and offer equal opportunity caused youth professionals to ignore basic differences in boys and girls? Has ignoring the very real underlying developmental differences between boys and girls limited the ability to make desired positive changes in youth development?

Imaging technology is giving scientists new insights into boys' and girls' brain development. This evolving research is showing that girls and boys differ considerably in social, biological and physical development (Armstrong, 2002). The key finding from the past five years in neuroscience brain research is that various regions of the brain develop in a different sequence in girls compared to boys (Sax, 2007).

An earlier study, the largest and most carefully executed of its type, demonstrated striking and consistent differences in the speed with which the brain matures (Hanlon, Thatcher & Cline, 1999). The researchers concluded that the areas of the brain for language, spatial memory, motor coordination, and getting along with other people develop in "different order, time, and rate" in girls compared to boys.

One study focused on the rate of processing information. Tyre found that in kindergarten, boys and girls process information at about the same speed. Between ages nine through the twelve the rates of processing information are different. Teenage girls process information faster and middle school boys react to things in a less mature brain location. By 18, boys and girls were processing with the same speed and accuracy (Tyre, 2005).

Extension and camping programs have not studied in-depth gender differences that may affect best practices. A better understanding of gender differences will give educators another set of tools to support positive youth development. Understanding basic biological and sociological differences will help improve overall camp programs for both genders.

Life Skills Description

A variety of studies have assessed 4-H program delivery modes using the Targeted Life Skills model. Several have focused on camping: Arnold, Bourdeau, & Nagele, 2005; Ellerbusch, Callkins, & Schwarz, 2005; Forsythe Matysik, & Nelson, 2004; Garst & Bruce, 2003; and Garton, Miltenberger, & Pruett, 2007. Among these, only Arnold et al. (2005) discusses at length gender differences discovered in the areas measured.

The Oregon camping study (Arnold, et al., 2005) found statistically significant gender differences in three areas – personal growth, life skill development, and camper satisfaction. Because little has been done to understand gender differences in 4-H programming, the researchers recommend further study.

Camping Program Description

The camps studied were between four and five days long with campers ranging in age from 9-14. Camps varied as to program content and theme; however, several basic elements were present: classes, assembly programs, four experiential youth-led learning teams, and an evening campfire program. Campers belonged to the same group year after year and may move up to leadership positions. These teams functioned with a minimum of adult intervention to complete daily camp maintenance responsibilities, participate in team recreation, and prepare for the evening campfire program.

Differences in the experiences of campers based upon gender were unintentional. Males and females were only separated during cottage time at night. Only one of the camps in the study had more male campers than females.

Research Questions

Do boys and girls differ in life skill and leadership development as a result of camp?

Research Design

In the summer of 2002, a team of extension agents, in collaboration with researchers at West Virginia University Extension Service, conducted a survey in eight county residential 4-H camps. In 2003 a slightly revised survey was conducted in twenty-eight county residential 4-H camps.

The results for both studies were very similar. The results reported here focus on younger (ages 8-13) campers' responses to the 2003 study. There were a total of 812 valid surveys (62.34 percent) returned by younger campers.

Instrument

The survey measured four areas (1) overall camp experience; (2) targeted life skills; (3) leadership skills; and (4) camper demographics. This article focuses on differences between boys' and girls' camp experiences and life skills learned during 4-H camp. The life skills questions selected were drawn from the Iowa Targeting Life Skills Model (Hendricks, 1998 & Targeting Life Skills, 2008) and related to a camping environment. The validity of the life skill model was demonstrated by Bailey and Deen in 2002.

An age appropriate survey was developed for younger campers (ages 8-13). The instrument was piloted in 2001. The research was conducted with WVU Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval which included parental consent letters for minors and assent letters from youth. The questions were organized around nine life skill categories:

- Learning to Learn
- Decision Making
- Wise Use of Resources
- Responsible Citizenship
- Communication
- Accepting Differences
- Leadership
- Marketable Skills
- Healthy Lifestyles

A Likert Scale was used to measure leadership and team work skills among campers. These skills were:

- Working well with others,
- Working as a member of a team,
- Leading a group or team,
- Taking charge of an activity,
- Knowing how to prepare and lead an activity,
- Sharing leadership with others, and
- Knowing my responsibilities as a leader.

Procedure

Extension Agents followed outlined procedures for obtaining consent and administering the survey on the last day of each camp. Campers completed the confidential surveys independently. Campers ranked themselves on 10 life skill questions using a four-point Likert scale.

Data was coded and SPSS 10.0 was used for the statistical analysis of the Likert Scale responses to the life skill measures. Frequencies, percentages, central tendency measures, and variability were used to describe the data. One Way ANOVA statistical tests were run to learn if there were gender differences related to camp experience, Life Skills, and leadership skills.

Research Findings

Demographics

Approximately 60 percent of campers were female. Most participants were white/Caucasian; however participants represented a variety of ethnic backgrounds, which were more than representative of the state's minority populations. The relatively high percentage of Native American responses may have been due to youths misunderstanding the ethnic term "Native American."

Table 1

Demographics of Participants – Sex and Ethnicity

4-H Camp Participants		
Sex	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Female	505	62.1
Male	297	36.6
<i>Total</i>	812	100
Ethnicity		
White/Caucasian	621	76.5
Native American	96	11.8
African American	21	2.6
Racially Mixed	41	5.0
Hispanic	9	1.1
Asian American	7	.9
Missing	17	2.1
<i>Total</i>	812	100

The majority of campers were between the ages of 9 and 11 years and over 40 percent of participants were attending 4-H camp for the first time.

Table 2

Demographics of Participants – Age and Years in Camp

2003 4-H Camps for Younger Participants		
Age	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
8 and under	18	2.2
9	143	17.6
10	221	27.2
11	221	27.2
12	139	17.2
13 and older	53	6.5
Missing	17	2.1
<i>Total</i>	812	100
Years in Camp		
First Time	349	43.0
1-2 years	224	27.6
3-4 years	185	22.8
5-6 years	35	4.3
Over 6 years	5	.6
Missing	14	1.7
<i>Total</i>	812	100

ANOVA Result Tables*Differences in Camp Experiences*

There were statistically significant differences between male and female campers. All areas measured had a mean score of 3.62 or higher indicating that both groups had a positive experience. However, in each case, girls had a higher average mean score. Girls had significantly more positive council circle, cabin, and overall camp experiences. There was no statistical difference between groups for camp meals, tribal classes, recreation or assemblies.

Table 3

Comparing Camp Experience (Activity) Items for Boys & Girls

	Boys	Girls	Df	F	Sig.
Camp Meals Experience	3.87	3.85	1, 762	.039	.843
Tribal Classes Experience	3.87	3.80	1, 733	.817	.366
Recreation Experience	4.05	4.03	1, 751	.059	.808
Council Circle Experience	4.38	4.60	1, 763	12.681	.000
Cabin Experience	3.97	4.14	1, 752	4.929	.027
Assemblies Experience	3.62	3.74	1, 745	2.331	.127
Overall Camp Experience	4.38	4.59	1, 743	13.347	.000

p<.05.

Differences in Leadership and Teamwork

There were statistically significant differences between male and female 4-H campers related to leadership and teamwork items. Girls had significantly more positive results on 5 of the 7 areas measured. There were no significant differences related to taking charge of an activity or knowing how to prepare to lead an activity.

Table 4

One Way ANOVA Comparing Leadership and Team Work Items for Boys & Girls

	Boys	Girls	df	F	Sig.
I work well with others.	3.22	3.32	1, 767	4.682	.031
I am able to work as a member of a team.	3.43	3.54	1, 763	5.134	.024
I can lead a group or team.	3.04	3.21	1, 753	7.401	.007
I can take charge of an activity.	3.00	3.08	1, 758	1.613	.205
I know how to prepare to lead an activity.	3.03	3.13	1, 756	2.476	.116
I am able to share leadership with others.	3.33	3.49	1, 753	8.939	.003
I know what my responsibilities as a leader are.	3.30	3.43	1, 761	4.662	.031

p<.05.

Differences in Life Skills

There were statistically significant differences between girls and boys in certain Life Skill measures. On the Life Skill measures girls had significantly more positive gains in areas that required more social/emotional skills:

- respecting other campers,
- considering how my actions affect others,
- listening carefully to what others say,
- accepting ideas different than mind,
- making friends with people different than myself, and
- participating as a member of a team.

There was no statistical difference between girls and boys when the Life Skill area was a specific learning topic.

- learning to be more interested in learning,
- learning ways to improve the earth,
- learning to live a healthy lifestyle, and
- learning to never use drugs or alcohol.

Table 5

One Way ANOVA Comparing Life Skills Learned by Boys with Life Skills Learned by Girls

	Mean Boys	Mean Girls	df	F	Sig.
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To be more interested in learning.	2.32	2.31	1	.008	.927
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... Ways I can help improve the earth.	2.42	2.39	1	.505	.477
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To respect the other campers.	2.73	2.87	1	18.331	.000
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To consider how my actions affect others.	2.47	2.65	1	15.886	.000
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To listen carefully to what others say.	2.62	2.80	1	21.441	.000
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To accept ideas different than mine.	2.59	2.74	1	12.573	.000
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To make friends with people different than myself.	2.75	2.86	1	11.482	.001
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To participate as a member of a team.	2.71	2.83	1	10.941	.001
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To live a healthy lifestyle.	2.56	2.64	1	3.198	.074
During 4-H Camp I have learned ... To never use illegal drugs or alcohol.	2.63	2.69	1	1.698	.193

p<.05.

Limitations and Critique of the Assessment

All of the camps except one in this study had 60 percent or more girls in camp than boys. Although there were no intentional differences in camp programming, the fact remains that a larger number of girls attended the camping programs. The camping program (and perhaps the entire 4-H program) may be more attractive to girls than boys. Even if the program initially appeals equally to boys and girls, the very fact that more girls are present could cause boys to be reluctant to participate with equal enthusiasm, reducing their enjoyment and their life skill gains.

The reliance on self-reporting to measure change may not be the most accurate method of gathering reliable information. The evaluations were conducted during the last day of 4-H camp. Youth are usually feeling great about camp at this time, so they may over-estimate skills learned.

Another limitation of this study is pointed out by Stossell (2007) in an article for ABC News. Girls are much more likely to be polite and boys are more likely to be honest. There is some possibility that the girls who were surveyed gave the items a higher rating than the boys who were surveyed.

Conclusions

Camp experiences. Significant gender differences were found in the basic camp experience. Girls had a significantly more positive experience among three of the seven areas measured. In comparison, the Oregon camp study (Arnold, et al, 2005) also found significant gender differences among four of the five items measured related to camper satisfaction.

Leadership and teamwork skills. Girls had significantly more positive results on five of the seven areas measured relating to leadership and teamwork. Stafford, Boyd & Lindner (2003) also found significantly more positive results on leadership skills among girls. T-tests revealed that gender had a significant influence on the "effective team skills" subscale group of questions. Females perceived themselves as possessing more effective team skills than males ($t = -2.31$) on one subset. Both studies indicated that boys and girls are comfortable taking on a leadership role.

Life skills. Research over time has shown that the language skills of most girls develop earlier than boys. Girls also have emotion processed with that language development (Sax, 2007). Given that many of the life skills identified by Hendricks (1998) are relational in nature it makes sense that there may be significant differences in development between boys and on some of the life skill items (Arnold, et al., 2005). In this study, girls had significantly more positive gains in the life skill measures that required more social/emotional skills.

- I work well with others.
- I am able to work as a member of a team.
- I can lead a group or team.
- I am able to share leadership with others.
- I know what my responsibilities as a leader are.

Arnold, et al. (2005) also found statistically significant differences using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) between boys' and girls' reported life skill development as a result of camp on three of the eight measures. Although difficult to make a direct comparison, this study did show a mix of significant results related to social emotional skills.

Discussion

1. *Gender differences should no longer be ignored when programming.* The practice of gender blindness must be replaced by efforts to understand gender differences and ways to avoid stereotyping youth. (Sax, 2007). Youth educators must continue to measure the relative numbers of boys and girls involved and use the most current gender research for optimum program opportunities. Tyre says, in her 2006 Newsweek article, "Boys measure everything they do or say by a single yardstick: does this make me look weak? And if it does, I am not going to do it!" If this is true, then we must provide boys with the means to calibrate how hard the social and emotional challenges at camp are going to be and help them determine that they can succeed.

2. *Camping activities and curriculum should meet the developmental needs of both genders.* To do a better job of teaching life skills to boys such as citizenship, communication and accepting differences, educators must develop activities which cater to their different developmental needs.
3. *The camping environment provides the large space boys particularly need to allow for plenty of physical activity.* Camp has a marvelous advantage over the traditional school system which emphasizes sitting quietly and expressing thoughts and feelings through language. The mismatch between boy behaviors and classroom expectations is often obvious. Camp is typically more active and faster paced. These attributes cater to the information about the differences in the male brain (Armstrong, 2002) and support a positive learning experience for boys.
4. *Activities which enhance relationships and social interaction should be intentionally planned* (Huston, Carpenter, Atwater, & Johnson, 1986). Boys prefer interactions in large groups as opposed to triads and dyads which girls prefer (Gurian, 1996). Educators need to learn how to take advantage of these differences, and provide programs which intrigue and involve both genders.
5. *Camp activities must offer adventure and a sense of mission.* Gurian's *The Wonder of Boys* advises: "When we work with boys, we do them and ourselves a great service by opening up to them an equal measure of adventure and mission. Their individual lives must become an adventure in which they discover and experience who they are and in that discovery get 'hooked up' with their own power."
6. *Activities should allow for healthy competition and a chance for youth to perform well.* Competition is a form of nurturing behavior for boys. Gurian maintains that "A boy who is not being taught skills, shown to compete successfully, and given praise for his success, feels lost. Boys compete verbally and physically and base some relationships on competition. They have formed cultural and linguistic constructs in which to gain self-image through this strategy." (Gurian, 1996). Sports are an important part of most camping programs. When a boy hears, "Be on our team, you're one of us," he feels he has a place to belong. Large group sports allow boys to express male aggressiveness with structure, skill and focus. Too often in community and school sports, parents and coaches don't seem to perceive what kids are experiencing and what they really need (Wiersma & Sherman, 2005). Adults often misunderstand the important role that the sports program has in developing self esteem, teamwork, and respect for authority. In order to maximize the power of the camping sports programs, counselors must be trained to provide skill training, compassion and the positive role models that are needed for youth to benefit from sports programs at camp.
7. *It is important that trained counselors serving as role models understand and respect the gender differences and can interact effectively with both boys and girls.* Tyre (2006) reports that one of the most reliable predictors of whether a boy will succeed or fail in high school rests on a single question: Does he have a man in his life to look up to? A comparison of gender differences among volunteers, agents, and specialists (Culp, McKee, & Nestor, 2005) indicated that the total percentage of females serving the 4-H program outnumbered the percentage of males by four to one. An implication of this study is the need to recruit and train counselors to provide the kinds of role models necessary to maximize the power of the camping situation for both boys and girls.

Recommendations

This study and a growing body of research and literature about the differences between boys and girls point toward a need to increase the knowledge about gender differences among youth development professionals. Researchers recommend that youth development professionals:

- consider gender differences when developing programs;
- plan camp activities and use curriculum that meets the developmental needs of both genders;
- take advantage of the camping environment which provides the large space boys particularly need to allow for plenty of physical activity;
- intentionally include activities which enhance relationships and social interaction;
- use experiential learning to create a sense of adventure in camping programs;
- plan activities which allow healthy competition and a chance for youth to perform well; and,
- recruit, screen and train counselors to serve as role models who respect gender differences and interact effectively with both boys and girls.

Recommendations for Research

Further research is needed to determine what attracts boys to certain activities and what attracts girls. Focus groups might help better understand camp experiences and youth organizations in relation to gender. For instance, is it true that boys choose activities that will make them appear strong and "male"? How can we market camp and youth activities to appeal to boys as well as girls? How can we enhance the cabin experience of boys? Do more hazing activities happen in the boys' cabins and with organizations that cater primarily to boys? How can we train male cabin counselors, coaches, and adult volunteers so that strong positive relationships are formed?

Even now, according to the National Center for Education Statistics (2004) the college going rate is skewed about 57/43 toward women. Research is needed to clarify what draws each gender to organizations and what elements will maximize leadership and skill development for all youth with regard to gender. Youth development organizations concerned with increasing college going rates must look carefully at how they are relating to both boys and girls and discover ways to enhance effectiveness across genders.

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'A Good Friend': The Role of Peer Networks in Juvenile Treatment Courts

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'A Good Friend': The Role of Peer Networks in Juvenile Treatment Courts

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Abstract: A primary goal of Juvenile Treatment Courts is participant abstention from the use of alcohol and drugs. The present paper seeks to understand the role of social networks in participant abstention by examining the accounts of peer interactions of 37 current and former youth participants in New York State. This qualitative study found that while severing deviant network ties were involved in abstention in some cases, the dominant theme was the perceived protective role of emotionally close, albeit drug using, peers in supporting abstention. Although most cognitively based adolescent chemical abuse treatment programs explore the role of social networks in youth chemical use and abuse, the findings that youth in Juvenile Treatment Court programs have continued exposure to drugs and alcohol through interaction with their social networks suggest that social network interactions also enter into the discourse taking place within Juvenile Treatment Court settings.

Background

Interviewer: Was it hard for you to stop smoking weed?

Respondent: It was hard in the beginning because I would always be around it.
(Hope, Phase 2, PINS)

A common adage within the chemical abuse treatment field is that in order to achieve and maintain sobriety, an individual must "change people, places and things." That is, to avoid environmental cues that may initiate relapse. How does this adage apply to adolescents in Juvenile Treatment Court settings? Unlike adults who have the autonomy to change their living locations, jobs and communities, adolescents have little, if any, control over where they live and go to school.

Studies have consistently found that the delinquency of a person's friends is among the strongest correlates of his or her own delinquent behavior (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Haynie,

2001; Warr, 1996). Delinquent peers have been implicated in initial use of drugs in preteens, with curiosity, external influences and a desire to conform interacting in a complex dynamic (McIntosh, et al., 2003). Affiliation with deviant peers has also been shown to predict the development of substance use disorders (Moss, Lynch, & Hardie, 2003).

Social pressure from peers, along with withdrawal and negative affect, has been found to play a role in relapse after treatment, with close to two thirds of adolescents relapsing within six months of discharge (Cornelius et al., 2007). In contrast, Bauman & Ennett (1996) recommend a "more critical look at the power of peer influence" (p. 194), suggesting that peer influence plays a more limited role in adolescent drug use and that selection and influence make equal contributions to drug behavior homogeneity of peer groups.

During the transition into adolescence, adolescents spend increasing amounts of time alone and with friends, and there is a dramatic drop in time adolescents spend with their parents (Larson & Richards, 1991). Adolescents choose friends with similar behaviors, attitudes, and identities (Akers, et al., 1998, Hogue & Steinberg, 1995), and peers are considered to be among the strongest proximal influences of substance abuse (Fite, et al., 2006). The objective of this study was to understand the role of peer networks in the lives of Juvenile Treatment Court participants using a qualitative study design.

Juvenile Treatment Court Programs

Family Courts in New York State (NYS) handle a much younger population than most states. In NYS, the family court has jurisdiction over children under the age of sixteen who commit a crime and are adjudicated as a juvenile delinquent (JD). Offenders over the age of sixteen are deemed adults and are prosecuted in criminal courts. Persons in Need of Supervision (PINS) can be adjudicated in New York State up to the age of 18 for status offenses.

Juvenile Treatment Court (JTC) programs are specialized Family Court programs implemented by a cohesive team usually consisting of a judge, presentment attorney, law guardian, program coordinator, probation officer, education representative, and mental health/substance abuse treatment professional. Some programs include innovative corollary services designed to provide prosocial youth development, such as mentoring, or adventure-based programming.

In the initial phase of the program, youth usually make weekly appearances before the judge, are drug tested a minimum of once per week, have court-imposed early curfews and, in some court programs, house arrest with electronic monitoring. Strict monitoring is generally achieved through a probation officer's home and school visits. Most JTCs have a progressive three-phase structure – as youth meet program requirements, they regain freedoms in the form of reduced frequency of court appearances and drug tests, and later curfews. JTC programs require youth to abstain from drugs and alcohol, attend school, achieve passing grades and follow parents' rules at home.

JTC programs employ a schedule of graduated sanctions in response to non-compliance events, ranging from verbal admonishment from the judge to placement in detention centers. Although JTCs investigate, intervene and monitor the youth's major life domains such as school, home and treatment, most courts do not inquire about activities that youth engage in with their social networks.

This study attempted to address one of the research questions posed in the article The Challenges of Conducting Research in Drug Treatment Court Settings (Belenko, 2002): "*How does the role of peer influence on drug use and criminal behavior operate in a drug treatment court setting to reinforce abstinence?*" Unlike the vast majority of research on JTCs which are quantitative and focus on outcome measures such as correlates of success and failure and participant recidivism, the overall aim of this study was to gain an in-depth understanding of the experience of being in a JTC program through the voices and perspectives of the youth themselves.

Methods

As part of a larger research project conducted to develop a JTC curriculum for NYS family court teams, interviews with 37 current and former adolescent participants within four JTC programs in NYS were completed over the course of two years (2004-2006). Participants were purposefully selected from various phases of court program participation. Each interview lasted between one and two hours. The majority of these interviews took place in private consultation rooms generally used by attorneys and clients in the courthouses. Participants were compensated with a \$10.00 gift certificate to a local discount store.

Subjects. Of the 37 current and former JTC participants interviewed, 18 were male and 19 were female. The youth ranged in age from 13 – 18 years, with the mean age at time of interview being 16.1 (\pm 1.2). Of the 37 interviewed youth, 24 were Caucasian and 13 were African-American. Ten were PINS, 22 were adjudicated as a JD and 5 were petitioned to appear before a judge for a low level offense (such as graffiti, fighting in school, vandalism). Program status at the time of the interview was 7 in Phase One, 13 in Phase Two, 5 in Phase Three, 7 Graduated, 1 Failed and 4 Active participants in a Juvenile Intervention Court which did not use a progressive phase structure. While the majority (32) were participants in court programs for which the specific target population was chemically dependent or abusing adolescents, 5 were affiliated with a Juvenile Intervention Court and did not have a substance use or abuse diagnosis.

Prior to participation in the study, written informed consent was obtained from parents/guardians, and assent was obtained from minor children. The study was approved by the Stony Brook University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects. A Certificate of Confidentiality for the study was obtained from the National Institute of Drug Abuse (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2007).

Semi-structured Interview. The 21-item semi-structured interview guide items explored youth major life domains, including home, school, court, social networks and treatment. The open-ended questions aimed at exploring the youth perception of the specialized court from several vantage points. Social networks were explored by asking youth to talk about friends- "Tell me about your friends." Probing questions and prompts clarified responses and generated new inquiries based on the youth narratives.

Qualitative analysis. Qualitative research methods are the most appropriate for understanding the quality and types of information regarding the subjects' worldview. This study utilized a modified grounded theory approach (Straus & Corbin, 1998), which focuses on description and discovery, rather than theory testing or verifications (Hoshmand, 1989). Using qualitative methods of observation and interviews, data is presented in the context of participant's experience, adding richness and credibility to the results. Miles & Huberman's (1994) analysis

procedures, detailing analysis sequence from descriptive to inferential, were employed. First, initial descriptive codes were identified, then interpretive codes were applied based on identified patterns, and lastly, categories of patterns of descriptive codes were identified and are presented below.

Results

Several noteworthy themes regarding JTC participant peer group interactions emerged from the youth narratives, but the most prevalent theme was frequent community exposure to drugs and/or alcohol. For some abstaining youth, severing deviant network ties and establishing new, non-drug using peer groups supported abstinence efforts. However, peer network abstinence reinforcement also emerged in the form of youth perceptions of protective functions of drug using peers. Youth described several types of social network relationships, from emotionally close friendships to superficial, acquaintance "clique" groups.

Peer Influence: Exposure to drugs and alcohol

All but 15 interviewed youth reported opportunities to use illegal drugs by spending time with drug using peers throughout their participation in the court program. When abstaining youth were asked if it was hard to maintain sobriety, many indicated that it was hard for them at first because they were frequently exposed to drugs and alcohol. As one youth said:

Interviewer: Was it hard being clean, getting clean?

Respondent: At first, just because all my friends were using.

(Briane, Graduate, JD)

Youth described peer groups that were non-homogeneous with regard to drug and alcohol use when they explained that they continue to maintain pre-treatment friendship networks with drug using peers. This reported abstinence in the face of frequent exposure to drug and alcohol use by friends suggests that youth select and maintain peer networks on the basis of other factors than solely shared drug and alcohol use.

Intuitively, the JTC setting would provide a ready-made sober support group for participants because they are all under the same court mandated expectation of abstinence. Seven interviewed youth provided unsolicited comments regarding other court program participants, indicating a suspiciousness of others' motivation to abstain from drugs and alcohol, commenting "Cause I like I know a lot of kids who just are in this just to get it over with," and "A lot of them there like pretend that they're gonna stop doing drugs and stuff like that and then they like really do coke like half the week and stuff like that." One participant spoke about others who cheat drug tests, saying:

There are a lot of people who are on drug court who cheat on their tests, who drink every night or something and just don't drink before they come to court or something...there's always going to be people who try and cheat the system and stuff.

(Kelvin, Phase 3, JD)

A female graduate reflected, "They were all still getting high. The kids that I knew that were in it, they were all still doing their thing, on the low." One youth, who graduated from the court program one week previous, shared his expectation that many youth graduating from the program go on to use drugs again. He said, "I guarantee you at least fifty percent of those kids [graduated] already used since a week ago...a kid right next to me was like 'yeah, I'm smoking tonight.' Right after he graduates, and I'm just like 'what an idiot.'" Another youth, about to

graduate and who had no violations throughout the court program, conspiratorially shared with the interviewer the secret to cheating drug tests, saying:

Honestly, I gotta tell the truth, alright? Going to court every three weeks, ok, you know a lot of kids could just smoke weed and come back clean. All they have to do its smoke as soon as they get out of court that night. They could probably do some the next day too and be able to come back dry as a bone."

(Sam, Phase 3, JD)

James, a JD who graduated from the court program one year previous to the interview, shared that he "made connections for drugs while I was in detention." After being clean for one year, he and another JTC youth participant relapsed. He explained:

Interviewer: So do you have a new group of friends that you hang out with now?

Respondent: Ah, not now. I don't really I mean I got a new group of friends but they're (laughing) also like the bad crowd and I ended up getting into more trouble after drug court... then started drinking again here and there with this one kid who was going to drug court and...we got into so many drugs and we came back and got into more trouble. ...I need to remember what I learned just stay away from the bad crowds and try and you know try and stand on your own two feet instead of relying on friends for a while and rely on family.

Severing Ties with Drug Using Peer Network

Of the 37 interviewed youth, 14 made the conscious decision to sever ties with drug using peers altogether, citing reasons including not wanting to get into any more trouble, not wanting to jeopardize their own recovery, and the conscious recognition of the destructive role peer drug use has on their own recovery. Some youth said that they "cut off whole groups of people" to reduce the temptation to relapse and others shared that they severed ties because they no longer wanted to belong to a deviant peer group.

Sandra, Phase 2, JD, agreed with her mother's sentiment that she "was with the wrong people." She said that although she still sees the people that she used to do drugs with, she doesn't spend time with them. Rather, she spends her time with non-drug using friends. She explained her decision to sever ties: "Well, it's just easy because, I don't know, I just don't want to do it no more – I don't want to get in trouble."

Another abstaining youth with concerns about getting into more trouble said:

I already had my strikes, I'm already in trouble. I can't afford to get in trouble again. I don't want to say you know the friends I chose to have are bad but you know everybody has you know knows somebody that's a little wild, you know...because the people you surround yourself by, you know, rub off on you so. Just stick to myself and if I do you know like I'll talk you know, I mean I do associate myself with them, but not like how I used to.

(Robert, Phase 2, JD)

One sober program graduate (Carlos, PINS), said, "I always had friends. I just hung out with the wrong crowd you know? Sooner or later you're going to start doing what they're doing. Just a matter of time." Another abstaining youth whose mother moved to a new community while she was in a substance abuse rehabilitation facility in an effort to support her daughter's recovery, expressed her fear of relapsing if she continued to interact with her pre-treatment social network. She said:

Like it's really hard to make new friends and stuff but it was good because it got me away from people that I got in trouble with, because I know if I was back home hanging out with the old people, I'd probably get talked into going shoplifting or drink or something like that.

(Debra, Phase 2, PINS)

Abstaining youth who severed ties with pre-treatment peer groups described them as "using me for drugs," and described those relationships as "acquaintances" rather than "friends." These relationships were not based on mutual caring. Youth said that those friends "don't care" if they do drugs or not. Another youth (Mark, Phase 1, JD) who only had four weeks clean after being in the program for one year, said that his friends are "more like acquaintances." When asked what he thought he needed to do to stay clean, one youth struggling with sobriety recognized that he needed to sever ties with delinquent peers who he believed did not have his best interests in mind. He explained:

Respondent: Stay away from my friends no matter how much you know I want to hang out with them or talk to them or whatever. If I need friends here I got to find new ones. I can't be hanging out with the same people or else I'm going to be dragged back in.

Interviewer: Do the friends that you hang out with now, do they know you are trying to stay clean?

Respondent: Yeah.

Interviewer: Do they care? I mean, do they still smoke in front of you?

Respondent: Well, I don't go around them anymore. They would be, they would be smoking in front of me.

Interviewer: They would smoke in front of you.

Respondent: Yeah. So, they're not really friends.

(Frankie, Phase 2, PINS)

Selecting New Peer Group

Nine of the interviewed youth severed ties with their former drug using peer networks and established new non-drug using friendships. Two youth found satisfying new peer relationships with individuals they met through AA and NA meetings. One youth explained:

Interviewer: Now the people that you started using with, are you still friends with that crowd?

Respondent: No. I'm not friends with any of them...they really never even called me like when I went to rehab, you know? They really weren't real friends. They were just kids I got high with. You know and most of them now are doing cocaine you know they're not smoking pot anymore. And that probably would have been me if I kept going down that road...I have a lot of friends from the meetings...It's awesome. We go out to dinner, go out to eat you know my friend [from the meetings] has a Mustang...We have fun in it.

(Carlos, Graduate, PINS)

One youth explained her expectation that her new peer group would disapprove of her using drugs. Implicit in her statement was the belief that her new friends would have her best interest in mind. She said:

So I don't hang out with people that I know are going to influence me in a bad way. I mean any of my friends, if they even found out that I smoked weed right now they wouldn't even talk to me. Cuz they know what kind of situation I'm in.

(Sally, Phase 2, PINS)

Several youth expressed direct assertiveness when confronted with peers offering them drugs or alcohol. One youth told peers, "No, man, I don't do that shit." Another youth described assertiveness by making sure that "When I want to date a guy I make sure they're not doing drugs. I don't care if it's smoking weed or drinking everyday." Many described finding new non-drug using friendship networks in which they spend time doing enjoyable non-drug using activities.

Nature of Peer Relationships

While those abstaining youth who severed prior relationships described these as superficial acquaintances based on mutual drug and alcohol use, youth who made the conscious decision to maintain pre-treatment social networks described those relationships as "tight," "caring," and "best friends." One youth in Phase Two of the court program said that it's "a little bit hard" for him to stay clean. He shares that he got into legal trouble when he and his friend were caught with a large amount of marijuana and a scale. He differentiates between close friends and acquaintances, saying:

Interviewer: Are you still friends with folks you hung out with at that time or no?

Respondent: Yeah. They tell me I'm not supposed to, but those are my friends. I only got like two good friends I consider, or everybody else I don't care about.

...And then, then a lot of people that I hang out with. I know, I know a lot of people. I don't consider them friends.

(Rick, Phase 2, JD)

Other youth described protective emotionally close dyads, such as a romantic partner or "best friend" who does not use drugs or alcohol, as integral to the maintenance of their sobriety.

I had more groups of friends than pretty much anybody I know. I hung out with this group, I hung out with that group, and I hung out with every group of people. So I just stopped that. Pretty much the only people I hang out with is my girlfriend and my best friend that lives next door. We have been friends since we were kids little kids. We lived next door to each other my whole life and his whole life.

(Matt, Phase 3, JD)

One youth explained that her best friend warns her not to use drugs or alcohol, saying:

My best friend...she doesn't do drugs and before she used to be like "You're gonna go to jail, get sent away again." Like she's always been there like she's a big sister kinda like, looking out for me. So and like a few weeks ago we were watching a football game at her friends house and everybody was around us smoking weed and stuff, and [she] doesn't smoke weed and she was like " you guys, can you guys go smoke weed in the next room so we can watch the game, You know?" she's like " [She] doesn't want to be around this, I don't want to be around this" so then they... like she's looking out for me all the time. She's a good friend.

(Briane, Graduate, JD)

Retaining Drug Using Acquaintance Groups

Five youth stated that although it was recommended that they change their friends, they made the decision to retain those friendships, believing that their peer networks were 'protective' of them. One youth who graduated from the court program said:

Interviewer: Was it hard being clean, getting clean?

Respondent: At first, just because all my friends were using and I refused, I totally refused to change my friends. But the whole time, the whole time I was clean, it was hard at first but after like about the first month I was fine. I didn't care...cause like in treatment they try, they suggest you change like the places you go to and you change your friends and all that but I wouldn't change my friends because I didn't feel like I should have to you know I didn't want to change everything. I changed parts of my lifestyle like my behavior but I just I couldn't leave my friends cause they're a part of the reason, you know people who were helping me. Yes, they were using but like they would go into a different room or they would like, they were proud of me I could tell they were proud of me even though they were still using.

(Briane, Graduate, JD)

Youth believe that their drug using friends supported their efforts toward sobriety and engaged in physical, cognitive and emotional 'protections.' Youth understood peer behaviors as protective when friends announced their intention to use drugs, thus giving the youth a warning and the opportunity to remove themselves and by stating their intention to leave the area themselves to use drugs with the expectation that they youth would not join them. Some youth expressed the expectation that 'protective' friends would verbally warn them not to use drugs and remind them of the severe consequences they would receive as a JTC program participant. One youth shared:

Most of them, mostly everybody I hang with now, they all know, like they be telling me, like before when I was like lying and smoking and stuff, they was telling me like, 'Man you gonna get in trouble, you better stop.' Then like the people I hang with now but like the people that was smoking with me while I was on probation I don't hang with them no more because they knew I was on probation but they were still you know [smoking with me].

(Mike, Phase 3, JD)

Some youth felt supported in their sobriety maintenance by drug using friends. One youth explained:

They'd [friends] like brag to other people how long I'd been clean for and that kind of stuff and so like they made me feel good and so I was like you know I can handle it and its like if they were around and we were in a car or something like that and they were like driving and wanted to smoke I could be just like no and they wouldn't so they totally respected how I felt.

(Briane, Graduate, JD)

Charlie, a JD who failed out of the program two years previous to the interview and has since maintained two years of sobriety described stopping by the park to say hello to long-time drug using friends "like cause we all, all grew up friends, we best friends, like we all grew up together." He reported that when his friends go to smoke marijuana, they let him know first. When asked if his friends know that he's being trying to get clean, he said:

They used to like, have like help me strive for... Like when they smoke they'd be like, 'we about to go outside and smoke' they'll leave or something like that, like 'we going around the corner to go smoke' and I be like all right...when I be like I wanna come with them. They be like nah man... [my parents] thinks that my friends like pulling me into doing negative stuff. And they're not. They like, they keep me out of most of this stuff that I should be getting in trouble for.

Another youth, still in the first phase of the court program and with only four weeks clean time, described his perspective that drugs aren't all that bad. He described the quality of his relationship with his drug using social network as "hanging out" rather than in terms of emotional friendship bonds. When asked if it bothers him that his friends continued to use drugs around him, he said:

Respondent: It's no big deal to get high really, it's just not what everybody thinks it is, (who) That doesn't really do it, its just it's just something to make you feel better it's not like you don't even know what the hell you're doing. Its just you do it cause it makes you feel better. It's just what it does, I don't know.

Interviewer: So does it bother you at all that they use when you are trying to stay clean?

Respondent: They're doing their thing and I'm doing my thing, you know? So

Interviewer: Do you feel like your friends care about you, are they close friendships or

Respondent: No. No, they're just, hanging out
(Mark, Phase 1, JD)

Ryan, a JD in Phase 3, said that it does not bother him anymore when his friends use drugs around him. He believed that his friends do not intend to pressure him into using drugs and respect his wishes when he declines the offer to use drugs with them. He said:

You know like they knew that I was on probation and stuff like that and you know, they might ask like in the beginning they'd ask me if I want some and if I told them nah I can't then they wouldn't ask me again, you know, they.. I told them it didn't...it doesn't bother me anymore for them to smoke in front of me like, I can smell it now and it really doesn't make me want to smoke at all like I can sit there and watch them it doesn't do anything to me. So, just, if I tell them I don't wanna smoke they understand and they don't wanna they don't pressure me into it.

Discussion

Research on normal adolescent development suggests that primary groups shift during adolescence from family and parents to peer networks (Fuligni & Eccles, 1993). The development of a separate identity is a major task while youth are going through this normal developmental process. They still want to be seen as "normal" by going to parties and socializing with peers. Nevertheless, while strictly monitoring youth behavior in the major life domains of home, school, treatment and community supervision, most JTC's do not explore with youth their thoughts about their social networks.

The finding that nearly half of interviewed youth reported being exposed to drug use by their social networks while in the JTC program should be a concern to courts. Although courts emphasize the roles of parents and families in youth rehabilitation, these data show that social networks play a major role in youth initial substance use, continued use and relapse episodes.

Youth interviews suggest that friendship networks can be understood to be risk factors for relapse and continued delinquency or protective, depending upon the degree of emotional closeness that the individual experiences in these relationships. Courts should consider conducting a social network analysis with youth upon entering the court program and routinely

ask youth who they are spending time with. Court programs can use the leverage of the courts to link youth with opportunities for prosocial development.

Policy Implication

JTC's emphasize parent involvement in the lives of youth. Our findings support previous research demonstrating the developmental importance of social networks in the lives of youth. It may be beneficial to youth and families if JTC professionals incorporate inquiries regarding friendship networks as part of the routine intake protocol and make frequent periodic inquiries, such as during regular court appearances, about who is in their friendship network and what type of activities they engage in with friends. Simply asking the question may serve to stimulate youth to reconsider what they are doing and with whom.

Some JTC's have formed partnerships with youth development organizations such as mentoring and therapeutic recreational activities in addition to mandated chemical abuse treatment services. Courts should increase efforts to expose youth to pro-social youth development opportunities to increase the likelihood of achieving juvenile justice goals.

Limitations to the Study

There are several limitations to the research design that should be noted when interpreting the present findings. First, given the qualitative methodology utilized, the sample was not intended to be random and the results are not intended to be generalized. The study was limited to four operational JTC's in NYS. In addition, interviews included only one youth who had failed out of the JTC program. Due to time and resource limitations, a follow up study of youth outcomes could not be conducted. Further studies are warranted to reveal the longer term differential effects of diverse peer group affiliation for adolescents in recovery and involved in the juvenile justice system.

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The Use of Expressive Therapies and Social Support with Youth in Foster Care: The Performing Arts Troupe

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Abstract: The Performing Arts Troupe is a program that provides youth in foster care and youth from low income neighborhoods with expressive therapies and social support. The program is designed to assist youth in addressing the effects of trauma and developing competencies as they prepare to transition to adulthood. The article discusses the literature base for the program, the program activities and describes the impact of the program on youth through preliminary evaluations and case studies. The program offers an innovative combination of expressive therapies and social supports that has effectively met the needs of vulnerable youth.

Introduction

Over the past decade, attention has increasingly focused on the needs of vulnerable youth, including youth in foster care. There has been a growing understanding of the developmental needs of youth who have been maltreated or experienced family- or community-based violence (Bussiere, Pokempner, & Troia, 2005; Cook, Spinazzola, Ford, Lanktree, C., et al., 2005). There also has been a recognition of the limited opportunities that vulnerable youth may have to develop competencies that will serve them well through adolescence and into adulthood (Arnett, 2000, 2001). New approaches have been proposed to meet the psychosocial and life skills needs of vulnerable youth who have not been well served by traditional programs (Massinga & Pecora, 2004).

The Performing Arts Troupe is a program developed by Casey Family Services, the direct service agency of the Annie E. Casey Foundation, in its Bridgeport, Connecticut Division. The program was designed to meet the developmental, psychosocial and life skills needs of youth in foster

care and other youth in the Bridgeport community. Building on research and practice literature that suggests the effectiveness of expressive therapies and social support in promoting positive outcomes for vulnerable youth, the Performing Arts Troupe provides youth with opportunities to develop and implement a range of youth-driven expressive art activities within a supportive environment.

This article describes the literature that has guided the development of the program model and implementation of the program. It then discusses the history of the program and its current structure and activities. The article reviews the results of preliminary evaluations with youth participants and provides short descriptions of the experiences of five youth in the Performing Arts Troupe program. It concludes with a discussion of factors associated with the replication of this program in other settings.

Literature Review

The Performing Arts Troupe program is grounded in the growing body of knowledge about the effects of urban poverty on youth and the impact of trauma on youth who have experienced abuse and neglect and who subsequently enter foster care. The program is shaped by research that has demonstrated the effectiveness of interventions that promote youth resiliency, provide healing from trauma through the use of social support and expressive therapies, and support youth in developing competencies that prepare them to transition to adulthood.

Urban Youth and Hopelessness

The ethnographic literature indicates that adolescents who live in low-income, urban neighborhoods are particularly susceptible to hopelessness and its consequences (Bolland, 2003). Joiner and Wagner (1995, p. 778) define hopelessness as “an expectation that highly desired outcomes will not occur or that negative ones will occur... and that nothing is going to change things for the better.” Children who live in impoverished neighborhoods “may despairingly conclude that... they have neither the resources nor the likelihood of achieving lasting or socially approved outcomes” (Lorion & Saltzman, 1993, p. 56). Studies have contributed to a fuller understanding of the consequences of hopelessness for youth in inner city neighborhoods. Bolland (2003), for example, studied the experiences of 2,468 adolescents in 12 low-income neighborhoods in an urban community, and found that feelings of hopelessness were associated with multiple domains of risk behavior, including violence, substance use, premature sexual activity, and accidental injury.

The literature suggests that hopelessness can be viewed as a cognitive style (Abramson, Metalsky, & Alloy, 1989; Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Allen & Tarnowski, 1989) and, as such, can be addressed through individual and group therapeutic interventions. Studies indicate that adolescents can overcome the limitations of hopelessness with the help of interventions that assist them to better understand their cognitive-affective responses to adversity and that provide them with the ability to take advantage of positive life opportunities (Bolland, 2003). Specifically, youth’s experiences of hopelessness as well as helplessness can be effectively addressed through skill-building and efficacy-enhancing interventions (Bolland, 2003). These interventions, which have both therapeutic and competency-building goals, are integral to Casey’s Performing Arts Troupe program.

The Impact of Trauma on Youth in Foster Care

The recognition of the association between maltreatment and post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Buckner, Beardslee, & Bassuk, 2004; Carrion, Weems, Ray, & Reiss, 2002) informs the

design of the Performing Arts Troupe. Many youth who enter foster care have experienced significant levels of abuse or neglect, and as a result, struggle with the impact of trauma and loss (Henry, 2005; Kimball & Golding, 2004). Issues of loss, identity, attachment, safety and a sense of belonging are often paramount (Henry, 2005). Research indicates that chronic exposure to trauma may affect children's and youth's cognitive, physiological, social, emotional and behavioral development (Anderson, 2005). Because they often redirect resources that would be devoted to growth and development to survival, maltreated children and youth may be at risk for poorer developmental outcomes and challenges in emotional regulation (Cook, Blaustein, Spinazzola, & van der Kolk, 2003). Socially, they may isolate themselves from others, including peers (Armsworth & Holaday, 1993).

Based on research findings that indicate that trauma predicts increased emotional distress during adolescence (Garber, Keiley, Martin, 2002; Ge, Lorenz, Conger, & Elder, 1994), the Performing Arts Troupe focuses on the developmental tasks of adolescence, including the development of coping skills and competencies that will serve them as they transition to adulthood and the cognitive processing of complex and abstract ideas. Youth who have experienced chronic trauma may have poor language and communication skills and learning disabilities (Armsworth & Holaday, 1993), difficulties which, in turn, may affect youth's functioning in social contexts (Armsworth & Holaday, 1993) and their ability to become involved with others and learn from past experiences (Anderson, 2005). An understanding of the impact of chronic trauma on youth's cognitive processing, social functioning and ability to relate effectively to others provides a critical foundation for the development and implementation of the Performing Arts Troupe.

Interventions to Promote Resilience

Resilience is the focus of much of the literature that describes effective interventions with youth who face the challenges associated with poor, urban environments and youth who have experienced maltreatment. Resilience has been defined as "the process of, capacity for, or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances" (Masten, Best, & Garmezy, 1990, p. 426). Research suggests that many youth, despite experiences of complex trauma, demonstrate resilience and function competently and effectively across many domains (National Child Traumatic Stress Network, 2003).

The research has identified a number of factors as critical in promoting resilience, each of which is relevant to the design of the Performing Arts Troupe program. Studies indicate that the following factors are among the most important in promoting resilience:

- positive attachment and connections to emotionally supportive adults within the family or community,
- development of cognitive and self-regulating abilities, positive beliefs about oneself, and
- motivation to act effectively in one's environment (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000; Masten, 2001; Werner & Smith, 1992; Wyman, Sandler, Wolchik, & Nelson, 2000).

The Performing Arts Troupe activities integrate each of these factors in order to promote youth's resilience in relation to their current life circumstances, and these activities provide them with opportunities to develop the core competencies needed as they transition from adolescence to adulthood.

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This article describes the literature that has guided the development of the program model and implementation of the program. It then discusses the history of the program and its current structure and activities. The article reviews the results of preliminary evaluations with youth participants and provides short descriptions of the experiences of five youth in the Performing Arts Troupe program. It concludes with a discussion of factors associated with the replication of this program in other settings.

Expressive Therapies

Research supports a range of expressive interventions that promote positive outcomes for youth who have experienced chronic trauma. Non-verbal therapeutic approaches, which constitute the heart of the Performing Arts Troupe, have been found to be particularly effective with children and youth who have experienced significant maltreatment and who exhibit attachment difficulties (Klorer, 2005). Studies suggest that creative therapies, including art and writing, are effective in helping individuals heal from traumatic experiences (Kaduson & Schaefer, 2001; Pennebaker, Colder, & Sharp, 1990; Yamaguchi, 1997). There also is evidence that writing therapy reduces stress, improves health, increases positive affect, and promotes coping skills (Harber & Pennebaker, 1992; Pennebaker & Francis, 1996; Smythe, 1998).

Art therapy has long been used with individuals who have experienced trauma (Rubin, 1999). Art offers specific advantages as it does not require literacy or verbal fluency. Art allows the individual to communicate emotion and tell a story, and it stimulates verbal expression (Pizarro, 2004). Studies have shown that creative expression through art contributes to a positive change in self-esteem (Reynolds, Nabors, & Quinlan, 2000). In particular, visual art therapies have been found to be effective in the multidimensional treatment of PTSD (Avrahami, 2006). Consistent with work that has demonstrated the positive effects of social support, drumming groups have been found to enhance health through their effects on social support and social networks (Winkleman, 2003). Although drumming has not been the subject of empirical research, practitioners find that it can be effective in addressing some of the effects of emotional trauma; alleviating self-centeredness, isolation, and alienation; and creating a sense of connectedness to self and others (Winkleman, 2003).

The Performing Arts Troupe

The Historical Roots of the Program

The Performing Arts Troupe had its beginnings in 1999 when Casey Family Services offered youth in foster care an opportunity to participate in a choir directed by two community musicians. The program later added percussion instruments and a dance component. Adults initially designed and directed the activities, but as youth continued to participate in the program, they began to express their need for greater input. In September 2005, participating youth made clear to Casey Family Services that they wished to “own” the program and make decisions about the activities that would be offered.

This pivotal development changed the nature and course of the Performing Arts Troupe. At that point, youth began to take leadership roles in decisions regarding the types of activities that the

program would offer. When youth voiced interest in drumming and other expressions of their African American cultural heritage, Casey Family Services recruited an African American drumming instructor and a consultant who assisted youth in developing a play that traced African American music from the time of slavery to the present. Drumming, drama, music, art and dance – all of interest to the participating youth -- became the key activities of the program. In 2006, in response to budget reductions in city-funded services for youth, the eligibility for the program was opened to youth who resided in the community at no charge for participants. As the program continued to evolve, older youth began to express interest in participating, and activities were developed to respond to the interests of these youth.

The Performing Arts Troupe: Goals and Key Structural Features

The Performing Arts Troupe, in its current form, uses a youth development framework that integrates therapeutic approaches designed to address the impact of trauma on youth, promote resilience, and provide life skills training related to the developmental tasks of adolescence. Clinically, the program draws from Henry's (2005) "3-5-7 model" that identifies seven critical practice elements: engaging youth, listening to youth's words, speaking the truth, validating the youth's life story, creating a safe space, going back in time, and recognizing pain as part of the process. Within the context of that clinical framework, the program has four goals:

- Provide youth with opportunities through which they can address the effects of trauma in their lives;
- Promote youth resilience through experiential learning;
- Provide youth with life skills that they will utilize as they transition to adulthood; and
- Provide youth with opportunities to celebrate art and culture through diversity activities.

The Performing Arts Troupe draws on research that has documented the impact of trauma on adolescents' psychological and social functioning and the benefits of expressive therapies in addressing the impact of trauma. Based on this research, the Performing Arts Troupe provides a range of creative opportunities that complement and add to the benefits of cognitive and behaviorally oriented therapies. The program focuses on youth's strengths, which in the past may have been overshadowed by experiences of trauma and the behavioral and emotional problems sequelae of trauma. It provides youth with avenues to increase verbal and non-verbal expression and work through anger and disappointment associated with past losses and trauma. Through experiential learning, youth become able to recognize, appreciate, and more fully develop creative talents of which they may not have been aware.

Youth participants in the Performing Arts Troupe engage in skill-building and efficacy-enhancing activities. Through these activities, youth are able to strengthen their cognitive and self-regulating abilities in social settings and develop a positive self-concept, strong relationships with their peers, and a desire to act in ways that contribute to the welfare of the youth themselves, other youth and the group as a whole. Youth are provided with opportunities to "learn, voice, and demonstrate," tasks that Casey's direct practice with youth demonstrates to be normative to healthy adolescent development. Activities focus on strengthening youth's self-esteem, their ability to be self-directive and self-reliant, and their capacity to follow through with goals and plans. Importantly, activities offer youth opportunities to develop positive relationships with peers and adults. These relationships provide an interpersonal environment in which youth can develop trust, take risks in their relationships, and experience healthy separations. The social and emotional functioning skills learned are transferable to other areas of youth's lives.

Staffing

Adult consultants from the community, three Casey Family Services social workers, a Casey Family Services supervisor, and a support person staff the Performing Arts Troupe. In addition, youth are recruited from the Casey's volunteer program to serve as "junior" consultants, providing youth with an opportunity to serve as leaders with other youth. The consultants and staff provide youth with the structure, guidance, praise, and recognition for their achievements that they may not have experienced with other adults in their lives.

The adult consultants are recruited through Casey's established community relationships. The following criteria guide the selection of these consultants:

- Understanding of the impact of trauma on youth
- A genuine desire to assist youth to achieve and develop
- A desire to contribute to the community
- An ability to create and sustain a structured and controlled environment
- An ability to relate effectively to youth and counteract the potential influence of negative social factors (drugs, gang involvement, and early sexual experience) on youth
- A history or characteristics similar to those of the youth served, which they have overcome
- An ability to articulate and demonstrate their experiences through practice or intervention
- Creativity and ability to think "outside the box"
- Compliance with requirements regarding criminal and child abuse background checks

Budgeting

The program has an operating budget of approximately \$5,000 for each session, which includes the costs of supplies, equipment, and food for youth at each meeting and an allocated portion of staff salaries. The per-youth cost is approximately \$125.

The Population Served

The Performing Arts Troupe program serves youth ages 9 to 18 who reside in the Bridgeport, Connecticut community or who are served through Casey Family Services' foster care or other service programs. Each semester, approximately 40 youth participate in the program. In the most recent Performing Arts Troupe session, 88 percent of the youth were referred by Casey Family Services (16 youth from the foster care program; seven youth who lived with their families and were served in other Casey Family Services programs). Table 1 provides the common characteristics of youth who participate in the program.

Table 1

Characteristics of Youth Participants in the Performing Arts Troupe

	Foster Youth	Youth Living with Families in the Community
Family/Living Arrangements	Unrelated foster families, group homes, and homes of relatives	Single head of household family structure
		Low income families, with many parents receiving disability or welfare benefits
Background Characteristics	History of sexual abuse, physical abuse, and sexualized behaviors	History of or exposure to domestic violence, substance abuse, sexual abuse, and/or physical abuse
	History of extensive loss	Have experienced the death of or the impending death of birth parent or sibling
	Multiple placements in foster care	
	Involvement with mental health services over a period of years	
Psychosocial Issues/Needs	Emotional and behavioral difficulties as a result of past trauma	Struggling with academic issues and special education needs
	Struggling with academic issues and special education needs	Many struggling with sexual identity issues
	Many struggling with sexual identity issues	Low self-esteem
	Low self-esteem	

The majority of youth who participate in the program are youth of color. In the most recent Performing Arts Troupe session, 73 percent of the youth were African American, 19 percent were Latino, one youth was white, and one youth self-identified as Portuguese. Youth of color, perhaps because of prior experiences with music and dance at their places of worship or elsewhere within their communities, have expressed high levels of interest in the Performing Arts Troupe since its inception. These experiences may make music, dance and art more accessible sources of healing for these youth than traditional psychotherapy.

Youth who participate in the Performing Arts Troupe may continue in the program in subsequent semesters if they desire, and many do so. In the most recent Performing Arts Troupe session, 61 percent of the participants had previously participated in the program. Youth who continue in the program report that the Performing Arts Troupe is a safe place to express themselves and a form of "group therapy" that they wish to continue over time.

Recruitment of youth for the program takes place broadly through emails and flyers. The Casey Family Services life skills specialist actively promotes the program by providing information on activities, eligibility criteria for youth, the adult “consultants” who will work with the youth, the number of youth who can be accepted into the program, and time frames for referral. Referrals are made to the Performing Arts Troupe by Casey Family Services social workers and team leaders who work with youth in foster care and other Casey Family Services’ programs, including the liaison for the Bridgeport community organization known as “Residents Addressing Community Concerns.” The Casey Family Service Performing Arts Troupe team assesses each youth who is referred to the program. The youth’s needs, in relation to his or her history of trauma, emotional stability, and current developmental competencies (social and emotional), are reviewed in light of the program’s goals and structure. The team also considers each youth’s:

- Desire to enhance his or her self-esteem, coping skills, communication skills, self-advocacy, and leadership skills
- Motivation to learn new or enhance existing skills
- Strengths and needs in relation to peer connections and life skill development
- Ability to interact in a group structure with peers
- Ability to accept adult direction
- History of recent physical aggression (which will disqualify a youth from participation)

In addition, the team explores with the referring Casey Family Service social worker or other referring source the youth’s current status at home, school, and the community and how the experience with the Performing Arts Troupe can both meet the youth’s needs and enhance his or her strengths. Youth who state that they do not have creative expression skills or talents are not turned away and, in fact, are highly encouraged to apply.

The Program Activities

The Performing Arts Troupe is offered three times each year. In each session, activities typically include music, dance, drumming, and art. Youth provide Casey Family Services with information regarding the activities that they would like to have provided. Key to the selection of activities is that youth claim the activity as “theirs” and that the activity reflects “who they are,” including their cultural identity. Youth are actively involved in planning and implementing each activity. The adult consultant or co-consultants provide direction and structure, facilitate the learning, and provide encouragement and support. Each youth selects the activity in which he or she will participate. Youth may participate in a single activity during the session or may rotate through several activities. Youth participate in the program 1.5 hours each week. Because the research and clinical literature suggest the therapeutic efficacy of writing, music, drumming and art, the Performing Arts Troupe has consistently offered these activities.

Writing and Performing Songs with Dance. In each session of the Performing Arts Troupe over the past two years, youth have jointly written a hip-hop song that they then record on a CD and perform, with choreographed dancing, at a community event. The program has found that the culture of hip-hop has been a motivating factor in youth’s lives, and importantly, provides a conduit for youth to access their trauma and therapeutically rewrite and express emotions which they have been cognitively unable to do in formal therapy. Youth who participate in this activity are age 14 and older.

In 2005, Casey Family Services developed a relationship with an African American music producer in Bridgeport who opened his studio to youth in the Performing Arts Troupe and mentored them in their production of the first song that the youth joined together to write. Fifteen youth, who called themselves "The Young Legends," wrote and produced the song, "Dreams." The introduction to "Dreams" reflects the deep experiences that the youth brought to the song:

"I have dreams to make it out of the ghetto
From gun shots, bloody palms, addicts and all the negativity.
But my heart goes out to the people who will never
Come true even by bombs, by bullets
I will miss them, won't forget them.
The ones whose dreams were torn apart,
With school books in my hands, dreams in my heart.
I will never let anyone tear my dreams apart."

In January 2006, while The Young Legends were perfecting "Dreams," the music producer and mentor to the youth was killed. The youth were deeply affected by his loss, and The Young Legends sang at the memorial service. Over a two-week period, the staff of the Performing Arts Troupe facilitated several therapeutic groups on funeral orientation, death, grief and loss, and honoring legacies with the youth and their families as they dealt with their feelings. The program offered the youth an opportunity to express their sadness, anger and grief, a process that many youth, despite many earlier losses, had not been afforded previously.

At this point in the evolution of the Performing Arts Troupe, staff added a clinical component involving group discussion. At the first meeting for each session, youth select the theme for the song that they will write. At each subsequent meeting, youth devote 45 minutes to a discussion of how the selected theme has impacted their lives and is currently affecting them. This process, facilitated by professional social workers and the adult consultants, allows youth to process the meaning of the theme with one another, exploring such issues as abandonment, loss, guilt and shame and more fully recognizing the power of music in the healing process.

Following the death of the producer/mentor, Casey Family Services recruited a new music producer from the community who supported the youth in writing a new song entitled "To the Top." This song includes the lyrics, "Stick to your dreams, don't ever stop; just keep believing, we'll make it to the top." In a recent Performing Arts Session (Fall 2006), youth completed "Dear Mom," a song/letter that examined the theme of youth's relationships with their birth mothers. Youth, with the support of the adult consultants, choreographed a dance to the lyrics of "Dear Mom," and performed the song at an agency holiday celebration. "Dreams," "To the Top," and "Dear Mom" illustrate the capacities of the participating youth to examine challenging issues in their lives.

In November 2006, a Casey Family Services consultant conducted a focus group with the youth who wrote and performed "Dear Mom." Several key themes arose in the discussion regarding their experience with the Performing Arts Troupe:

- Music is a healing tool, especially for youth who find it difficult to verbally express themselves.
- Joining with other youth is comforting and allows youth to be "themselves."
- The group is like a family – with ups and downs – and youth are attached to the "family."
- The group is fun.

When asked whether participation in the Performing Arts Troupe had affected them personally, most youth said that it had. The key themes in this regard were that participation had given them greater confidence; provided them with a sense of belonging and with strong connections to other youth and the consultants; helped them in expressing their feelings and regulating their emotions, particularly anger and "attitude;" and helped them be more open to learning new things. Many youth expressed a sense of success that they had experienced, with newly discovered talents and abilities. There was uniform endorsement of the structure and opportunities provided by the Performing Arts Troupe.

Interviews also were conducted with the consultants for the music activity: two consultant music producers and the consultant choreographer. The consultants described many benefits of the program for the youth, commenting:

- "This program opens kids up. They can be with peers and get over their own problems with one another. They help one another."
- "Music grabs kids' attention. Music gives them the opportunity to develop life skills and music can change their lives."
- "We provide them with a way to cope with their troubles."
- "We help them stick with it and see what they can do."
- "The key is that the music is theirs – they write the songs, it is their words, and the songs mean so much to them."

The consultants also described the benefits of the program for themselves, commenting:

- "I love to see them grow. They will have these skills in the work world. It is a process – kids come in and say that they cannot sing and dance, and then they can't stop singing and dancing. Our positive energy feeds off of theirs and vice versa."
- "They give me more than I give them. I see the breakthroughs – I know that they will be okay if they have confrontations outside of the group. I want to be a small piece of their emotional growth, affecting their work ethic, their relationships, the way they run their lives."

Drumming. Drumming is offered to a younger group of youth, ages nine and older, who have experienced trauma in their lives. Drumming provides youth with social support and social networks, opportunities to deal with emotional trauma, and an understanding of and pride in their culture. Describing drumming "like the heart beat," the adult consultant strives to provide youth with a sense of self. Youth who often enter the activity uncertain of their ability to drum develop a sense of pride as they begin to participate and as they are helped to develop the ability to focus, listen, and follow through. The adult consultant commented in an interview:

"This makes me feel really good. I can see the pride in their faces, their excitement. It is a chance for them to express themselves without a lot of negative forces involved. They learn patterns, everything falls into place and only then do we focus on techniques. They walk away having accomplished something the first time they come."

The youth focus group confirmed the adult consultant's perceptions. When asked about their participation in drumming, youth said, "It makes me feel good," "It gives me a chance to

shine,” “It makes me feel more confident,” and “I was scared at first but now I feel great, I feel nice. I can achieve something. I succeeded.”

Art. The Performing Arts Troupe has offered art projects each year. Youth ages 8 to 17 years participated in the most recent project involving the use of watercolors, oils, metallics and glitter to develop art work based on fragrant frames, floating hearts, African masks, and royal king puzzles. The 20 participating youth had the freedom to choose the media they wished to use. After youth completed their art, a gallery opening, complete with a reception and servers, was held to display their work. The adult art consultant comments that youth often begin by saying, “I can’t draw, but as they see their accomplishments, they develop a sense of pride and accomplishment.”

Preliminary Outcomes

Evaluation Results

In December 2006, youth who had participated in the Fall 2006 Performing Arts Troupe were asked to complete written evaluation forms. Fourteen youth completed these evaluations, which asked them to rate items on a likert scale that ranged from 1 (“not at all”) to 5 (“very much so”). Table 2 provides the percentage of youth who responded “very much so” on these items.

Table 2

Youth’s Ratings of their Experiences with the Performing Arts Troupe

Statement	Percent Stating “Very much so”
I feel proud of my accomplishments in the Performing Arts Troupe (PAT).	100%
By participating in PAT, I learned creativity and courage.	86%
I enjoyed this expressive arts experience where I learned to share my voice and story through music, drumming and dance.	78%
This art and music expressive experience helped me become comfortable with my peers.	71%

Youth rated the adult consultants highly, with more than 50 percent rating the consultants as “very much so” on each characteristic provided. The largest percentage (71 percent) gave “very much so” ratings to the consultants’ helping them “to strengthen and/or develop my existing skills.” Sixty-four percent of the youth gave “very much so” ratings to the consultants’ encouraging or empowering them when they lacked confidence. Other characteristics received “very much so” ratings at slightly lower levels: 57 percent of the youth gave “very much so” ratings to each of three characteristics of the consultants: consultants were respectful of youth’s contributions, consultants made youth feel comfortable in showing the areas that needed improvement, and consultants showed patience when youth were frustrated.

Youth’s Stories

Jamal

Jamal is a 16-year-old African-American male who, because of a very difficult history of abandonment and childhood trauma, found it hard to develop trusting relationships. He typically

isolated himself and had very little interaction with peers or adults. As a result of his participation in the Performing Arts Troupe and the support that he experienced from his peers and the adult consultants, Jamal began to engage with others, proactively reaching out to peers and seeking help from adults. He now exhibits a new level of confidence and self-esteem. The Performing Arts Troupe provided him with skills that strengthened his ability to become actively involved with the "permanency team" that is working with him to identify a new permanent family for him. Jamal specifically requested that a youth leader peer with the Performing Arts Troupe be a member of his permanency team. With this support, Jamal took the lead in identifying a new family with whom he could live while in foster care. That family has completed Pre-Service Training, and Jamal will move to their home at the end of the school year.

Jamal has joined the Casey Family Services Youth Advocacy Group and now regularly speaks with local legislators and representatives of the public child welfare agency about the needs of youth in care and the improvements that are needed in foster care. With the opportunities that he has had to act as a leader in the Performing Arts Troupe, Jamal feels confident that he can obtain a job. He reports that his self expression through music has helped him cope with the recent disclosure of his biological parent's struggles with health issues. The skills gained through the Performing Arts Troupe have prepared him to deal with the trauma of his past and emotionally express "where he has been" through the creation of a life book that tells his story.

Cassandra

Seventeen-year-old Cassandra has been participating in the Performance Arts Troupe for the last year and half. When she became involved with the program, she was having difficulties with her peers. In these relationships, she was either overbearing and aggressive, or reclusive and timid. She had difficulty developing healthy, long lasting friendships. Since her involvement in the program, Cassandra has developed a new calmness and strength. She recently handled a verbal altercation with equanimity, withdrawing to calm herself and then returning with an apology and an explanation as to why she was upset. Her growing sense of self confidence since joining the program played a key role in Cassandra's recent acceptance into a national program for youth in foster care preparing to make a successful transition to adulthood. She is now enrolled in cosmetology training and has access to money-matching opportunities through the national program's individual development account.

Cassandra is viewed as a leader by her Performing Arts Troupe peers. She is an active member of the Casey Family Services Youth Planning Committee for the program. She has strengthened her self-advocacy skills, even seeking out the Casey Family Services division director to request a change in her placement. Since her involvement with the Performing Arts Troupe, Cassandra become more vocal in the permanency planning decisions that are being made in connection with her new resource family. Cassandra speaks of her participation in the program with great pride. Cassandra has stated that the program has given her an opportunity to appear cool and be a leader at the same time.

Donald

Donald has participated in the Performing Arts Troupe for four years. Through joining a group of his peers with similar life experiences, he found a non-threatening peer group in which he was able to grow and creatively express some of the traumatic events of his life in his own words. Hip-hop, as a popular cultural means of expression, has allowed him to articulate his and others' life events. Because Donald is intellectually gifted and creative and loves to use and play with words, he quickly engaged and developed a deep ownership in the music. He was

able to say, "Yes, this is me!" This year, at age 17, Donald was asked to serve as a "youth leader." He has demonstrated a strong ability to lead his peers and has become a peer mentor for a youth who is participating in the program. In conjunction with his leadership role with the Performing Arts Troupe, Donald has become involved in advocacy activities on behalf of youth in foster care, meeting with state child welfare leaders and traveling to Washington, DC to present at a major child welfare conference. Since participating in the Performing Arts Troupe, Donald has improved his grades and obtained a job, surprising some of the adults in his life who believed that he lacked the maturity to achieve these goals. Donald now states that he would like to attend college, in marked contrast to his pre-Performing Arts Troupe desire to simply complete an independent living program.

Enrique

Enrique, age 15, has grown with his participation in the Performing Arts Troupe. Prior to joining the program, he was extremely shy, had difficulty engaging with peers, and was often bullied by them. Since joining the program, Enrique has developed a sense of self-confidence and social skills. Through the program, he has become comfortable expressing his views and actively contributing his ideas. In a group discussion, he was able to "stand alone" in recommending a theme for the group's song, a theme that others did not readily support. Using the skills he developed through the Performing Arts Troupe, Enrique agreed to be a member of a planning committee for the agency's "Camper Corps" weekend. He created and facilitated a very successful workshop about healthy relationships. His peers now view him as a leader and their respect for him has deepened. Last summer, Enrique participated in a summer job program.

Enrique has benefited from a supportive environment in which he can discuss his history. He verbalizes surprise and excitement when he realizes that aspects of his history in foster care are similar to those of the other group members. Enrique actively participated in writing song lyrics to help him cope with the loss that he has felt from not being parented by his biological mother and father. He has included his lyrics in his lifebook, which contains a legacy of memories, experiences, and relationships that symbolize significant people in his life. He has used the lyrics to ask his mother and father difficult questions about why they were unable to care for him.

Amanda

Initially, Amanda, now age 16, wondered if she made the right decision to participate in the Performing Arts Troupe program. Although she enjoyed the social experience, she felt that she could not learn the drumming and dance routines as easily as her peers. Through participating in the program, however, Amanda began to recognize that she has benefited in many ways: She has learned about working as a member of a team, and she has had many opportunities to explore her interests and take risks. She has taken greater responsibility for her own behavior, such as cutting school. She is now able to self-report her truancy, discuss why she cut school, and connect her behavior to her feelings.

Amanda has established connections with other youth and strengthened her interpersonal skills, an area that has always been a challenge for her. With the death of the Performing Arts Troupe mentor, she has focused specifically on building relationships with others. Her connection with other youth has motivated her to participate in other Casey Family Services activities. Using leadership skills that she developed through the Performing Arts Troupe, Amanda served as the chairperson, workshop developer, and facilitator for the agency's Camper Corps weekend. She

obtained employment through the agency's summer employment program, at which she learned job skills and connected with a volunteer who continues to visit with her.

Conclusion

The Performing Arts Troupe program at Casey Family Services has proven to be an effective approach to engaging youth in creative expression activities that address trauma, promote resilience, and provide youth with opportunities to develop core competencies that will support their successful transitions to adulthood. This cost-effective, community-based program addresses a range of youth's needs and strengthens youth's competencies.

The agency's experience in developing and implementing the Performing Arts Troupe indicates that certain elements are essential to the success of this type of program: the commitment and enthusiasm of agency staff; strong connections with community organizations through which youth in the community are referred; the ability to identify and engage community leaders who can effectively serve as adult consultants; and active engagement of youth as peer leaders and participants. The Performing Arts Troupe offers a programmatic approach that can be replicated in other communities, with modifications as appropriate to best meet the needs and cultural interests of the youth served.

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Culturally Authentic Scaling Approach: A Multi-Step Method for Culturally Adapting Measures for Use with Ethnic Minority and Immigrant Youths

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Abstract: Given the increasing ethnic and racial diversity of youths in the U.S., researchers must be conscious of how youth are being recruited, retained, and assessed in research programs. In this article, we describe an efficient and replicable methodology, the Culturally Authentic Scaling Approach (CASA), which can be implemented to culturally adapt measures for use with ethnic minority and immigrant youths. Specifically, the steps involved in the CASA method are described, including developing community partnership, evaluating the theoretical equivalence, adjusting the selection and administration of measures. Engaging in an on-going dialogue with the community to increase cultural validity and build community relationships is also discussed. Addressing the cultural validity of measures used with ethnic and immigrant youths enhances the probability that the information obtained will be reflective of the cultural background of the participants and an accurate assessment of their experiences.

Introduction

Research on ethnic minority and immigrant populations requires instrumentation that is relevant to culture and sensitive to context (Canino & Bravo, 1994). Recent evidence illustrates that research strategies and instruments are most efficacious when compatible with the cultural patterns and experiences of the research participants (Canino & Bravo, 1994; Mezzich et al., 1999).

Researchers have historically utilized methodologies and scales based on the assumptions of the mainstream American culture and not the specific cultural group being researched (Alegria et al., 2004). When standardized instruments from mainstream American culture are used with diverse cultural and ethnic groups, there is a risk that the instruments may lack cultural relevance, leading to measurement errors and misinterpretation of findings (Helms, 2006). Despite these findings, most researchers still do not modify research measures to make them more culturally relevant (Nagayama Hall, 2001). This paper provides a review of the development of the Culturally Authentic Scaling Approach (CASA), with a step by step guide (using research examples) on how to use the CASA method to conduct more culturally relevant and equivalent research.

The Development of the Culturally Authentic Scaling Approach (CASA) Method

The CASA method for conducting culturally appropriate research with ethnically diverse and immigrant groups integrates existing research literature (measurement and cross-cultural research) with ethnic minority and immigrant populations. In addition, the method applies principles from our experiences conducting cross-cultural research with ethnic minority and immigrant groups over the past fifteen years. The method is based on the integration of general cultural adaptation concepts with methodological steps that guide the process of evaluating the cultural sensitivity and appropriateness of measures for use with ethnic minority and immigrant groups.

Figure 1
Model of the Culturally Authentic Scaling Approach

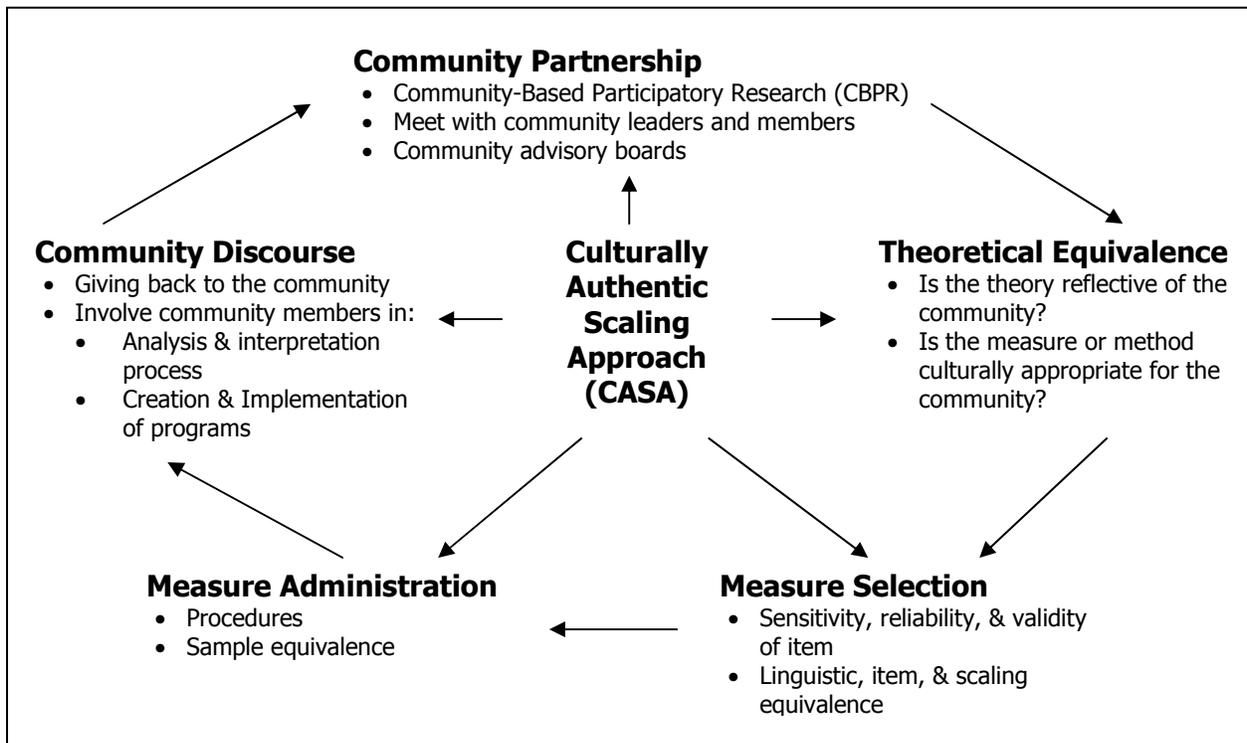


Figure 1 provides an illustration of the specific dimensions of the CASA method (community partnership, theoretical equivalence, measure selection, measure administration, and community discourse). The following sections provide a description of each dimension as well examples from our research illustrating the applicability of this approach.

Community Partnership

In order to conduct effective cross cultural research with ethnic minority and immigrant youths and families, researchers must first develop a partnership with the community in which they want to work (Mohatt & Thomas, 2006). Unfortunately, researchers have often engaged in a “flight in and flight out” model of conducting community research, where individuals engage the community in a research program, collect data, and then leave (Triandis, 1992). There is often minimal commitment to becoming familiar with the values, norms, and experiences of the community members which limits the extent to which research is appropriate, accurate and adequately meets the needs of the communities (Mohatt & Thomas, 2006).

Researchers seeking to include individuals from various cultural backgrounds must develop a clear partnership with these communities prior to the start of research and ensure that a relationship will continue beyond the completion of the current project. Strong ongoing community collaborations are essential for designing and conducting ethical research in ethnic and immigrant communities and are a core component of the CASA method. Although there are several frameworks on effective ways to engage communities in research, Community-Based Participatory Research (CBPR) has recently become the method most frequently employed (O’Fallon, Tyson, & Dearry, 2000). Community-based participatory research (CBPR) is a methodology that promotes “active community involvement” in the development of research and intervention strategies (Cornwall & Jewkes, 1995; Israel, Schultz, Parker & Becker, 1998). An extensive review of CBPR is beyond the scope of this article. Please refer to Freudenberg (1998), Green (1999), Israel and colleagues (1998), and Wallerstein (1999) for additional information.

Example of a community partnership. In order to establish partnerships with the communities in which we wanted to conduct research, we started by scheduling meetings with community leaders to gain their perspective on effective ways of connecting with community members. For example, community leaders suggested that we spend time at local community centers as a way to connect with community members. They also suggested that we attend meetings and events in the community as a way of becoming familiar with the values, norms, experiences, and needs of community members. Once we established connections with community leaders, it was easier for us to reach out to community members. Community members were also more comfortable sharing their experiences and perceptions with us once they knew that community leaders were connected with and trusted us.

Once partnerships were established, we were able to conduct projects and share resources in collaboration with members of the community. For example, members of the community contacted us to connect with experts in particular areas they were interested in learning about and served as resources as we worked on the development of research projects. Researchers working in ethnic minority communities have found community advisory boards to be useful when developing research measures and methodologies (e.g., Brody, Stoneman, Flor, McCrary, Hastings, & Conyers, 1994). Therefore, as part of establishing a community partnership, we created an advisory board, consisting of members of the community, who provided guidance in establishing culturally relevant research designs and procedures. Overall, establishing a connection with the community before the research begins, allows researchers to first ascertain

an understanding of the community's needs (from the perspective of community members) and then partner with community members to develop the research program.

Theoretical Equivalence

After establishing a partnership with the community, it is important to evaluate the cultural relevance of the theoretical framework used to develop the measure for use with the population of interest. It is vital that researchers ensure that the instruments for use in the project are theoretically equivalent across diverse cultural groups. Theoretical equivalence is the extent to which individuals from different cultures maintain universal perceptions of items throughout completion of an instrument (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). In other words, it addresses the extent to which items have the same frame of reference for individuals from different cultures. For example, the word cooking in English may mean a chore or a hobby. The reference point a participant takes will influence how she or he responds to an item that examines the possibility of an analogy between cooking and other activities such as riding a bike (Yu, Keown, & Jacobs, 1993). The lack of attention to theoretical equivalence in cross-cultural research may lead to erroneous conclusions by researchers.

Researchers rely on two basic approaches for examining the theoretical equivalence of measures; an *emic* approach (attempts to discover how a system or community looks from the inside) and an *etic* approach (looks at behavior from the outside for the purpose of comparing cultures) (Gudykunst, 1997; Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). The type of approach selected by researchers might be influenced by a number of factors (including the purpose and meaning of the project, financial limitations, resources, etc.) and the benefits and drawbacks to each of the approaches (e.g., Beals, Manson, Mitchell, & Spicer, 2003; Canino, Lewis-Fernández, & Bravo, 1997). Regardless of the method used, understanding the rationale for the type of approach implemented in a project is critical in improving research with ethnic minority and immigrant populations. Researchers can utilize their community partnerships to help determine which approach is most appropriate for research in their community.

Example of how to assess for theoretical equivalence. Approximately ten years ago, we began a project to understand and examine depression among Black immigrants with a specific focus on Haitians. Given the culture of this ethnic group (Nicolas, DeSilva, Grey, & Gonzalez-Eastep, 2006) it was imperative that we engaged in a conversation with individual members of the community around the main construct. This was especially necessary since we had clinical data (Nicolas, DeSilva, Subrebst, K., Breland-Noble, Gonzalez-Eastep, Manning, et al., 2007) suggesting that female Haitians experience and understand depression differently than commonly observed and reported in westernized literature. We met with mental health professionals and lay members of the community, in focus groups, and shared with them the existing depression constructs.

Through the focus groups, we were able to develop a new framework for understanding depression among Haitians that was specific to their cultural ideas and beliefs. Research recommends utilizing focus groups when dealing with complex clinical issues among diverse populations (Krueger, 1994). Focus groups are particularly useful for garnering information about the cultural values, beliefs, and traditions of a particular population. Focus groups can also be used to facilitate the assessment and development of culturally sensitive and appropriate measures (Krueger, 1994). Therefore, we also utilized the focus group for guidance around the selection of a measure that was most applicable to their understanding and experience of depression and consistent with the newly developed framework.

Measure Selection

Subsequent to resolving issues pertaining to the theoretical equivalence of the constructs being examined, attention needs to be given to the selection of the specific measures for use in the research project, as certain demographic and contextual factors may impact the appropriateness of the measures (Chikudate, 1997). Focusing on and accounting for contextual and demographic factors may reduce the use of measures infused with ethnocentric attitudes, thereby improving cross-cultural research with ethnic minority and immigrant youth populations.

The scope of this paper does not allow for an in-depth examination of measure selection, but two main areas will be reviewed:

- (a) sensitivity, reliability, and validity of the measure; and
- (b) linguistic, item, and scaling equivalence.

Sensitivity, reliability, and validity of assessment measures. When selecting the assessment measures to use in a research project involving ethnic minority and immigrant youths, it is necessary to consider the sensitivity, reliability, and validity of the questionnaires selected for use in the study.

Sensitivity refers to the extent to which a measure is able to detect differences among participants in a research study (van Widenfelt, Treffers, De Beurs, Siebelink, & Koudijs, 2005). Sensitivity of a measure is important for a variety of reasons, the most important of which includes being able to detect even small effects of and relationships between the variables in a study (Stevens, 1959).

Reliability refers to the consistency, stability, and repeatability of a questionnaire (Heppner et al., 2007). A reliable assessment instrument does not respond to chance factors or environmental conditions and will yield consistent results if repeated overtime or completed by different people.

Validity refers to the extent to which a questionnaire measures what it claims to measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). In essence, validity refers to the accuracy of a measure. Valid assessment measures yield conclusions and inferences that are appropriate and meaningful. Given that perceptions and experiences may vary across cultures, the reliability and validity of questionnaires may also vary. Therefore, it is essential to test the reliability and validity of each measure with each population with which it is intended to be used.

Linguistic, item, and scaling equivalence. The process of translating instruments across languages can pose specific problems for cross-cultural researchers (Holtzman, 1968). One of the primary issues pertains to the semantics of the instrument, where an item can take on different meanings among cultural groups. Researchers must create multiple versions of the instrument and administer it cross-culturally to ensure that the semantic is consistent across various groups. At the end of the translational process, the meaning of each item in the instrument should be the same for participants from different cultures.

Despite many collaborative back translation procedures with linguists to create uniform versions of instruments, success is rare. For example, in translating a scale into Vietnamese dialect, Small, Rice, Yelland, and Lumley (1999) found that one item on the instrument ("I have been looking forward to things with enjoyment") became partially distorted after the back-translation process. The back-translation resulted in two phrases that were not consistent with the original

English version (these were, "I have been hoping/expecting to be happy" and "I have been feeling optimistic"). This example shows that even with careful and thorough translations, it is possible that items will take on different meanings and that can significantly affect how the findings are interpreted (Holtzman, 1968).

In addition to semantic issues, specific words on an instrument can unconsciously induce a cognitive or emotional state which can affect the meaning of the items across cultures (Ortega & Richey, 1998; Ponterotto & Casas, 1991). Schaffer and Riordan (2003) offer the following phrases as examples of cognitive and emotionally induced items, "What do you think about your supervisor?" and "How do you feel about your supervisor?" Although the meaning of these two questions is similar, the former has a cognitive orientation while the latter has an affective one. It is unclear how these factors affect the translation of items into different languages and whether an affective item in one language elicits the same response in another translation. Given the linguistic and semantic issues which may arise when using scales cross-culturally, every attempt should be made to test a new or newly translated instrument with a focus group prior to implementing the measure in a large project (Krueger, 1994).

The majority of instruments in developmental research utilize a Likert scale, yet research suggests that the Likert scale may be perceived and interpreted differently by individuals from various cultures (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). In particular, non-Western cultures have limited exposure to a Likert-response format and this can lead to erroneous results. Research has consistently shown, for instance, that people from collectivist cultures are more likely to use the middle range/neutral or undecided category of a Likert scale compared to individuals from individualist societies (Triandis, 1994). In addition, researchers have found that some participants will complete an instrument out of a sense of duty, whether or not they agree with the items or feel that it reflects their true feelings (Javeline, 1999; Trimble & Mohatt, 2006).

Genuine cultural differences should lead to varying response patterns in individuals, not a misapplication of scales across cultures. Two of the most common methods employed by researchers to deal with issues of scale equivalence are covariance structure analysis (CSA, e.g., Cheung & Rensvold, 1999; Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994; Ryan et al., 1999; Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000) and item response theory (IRT, e.g., Ellis, Becker, & Kimmel, 1993; Hambleton & Kanjee, 1995; Hulin & Mayer, 1985; Ryan, Horvath, Ployhart, Schmitt, & Slade, 2000).

Example of measure selection. In our research design meetings with Haitian community members and leaders, we learned that Haitians are not familiar with standardized measures and thus might not be at ease using them. As a result, we selected the top measures in the field and held several meetings with Haitian professionals (e.g., health care providers, religious leaders, and political leaders) and community members to jointly evaluate the constructs and items in these measures to determine if they are appropriate to use with Haitians. We administered the measures that individuals felt might best represent the cultural beliefs of Haitians to a convenience sample of individuals (i.e., a pilot group). We then evaluated them through a rigorous method consisting of statistical analysis and focus group meetings with the participants who completed the measure. Although a small sample ($n = 25$) completed the measure and a high reliability coefficient ($\alpha = .86$) was obtained, item analysis and our individual meetings with the pilot group participants yielded different results. For example, while the participants answered some of the questions on the depression measure, a number of items were left unanswered. Meetings with the pilot group participants revealed that they left many of the items unanswered because they were not meaningful to them.

Iota Reliability Statistic

Given the inconsistent findings between the reliability coefficient, the item analysis, and focus group discussions, we have since utilized the Iota reliability statistic (Helms & Nicolas, 2008) when selecting measures to use in our cross-cultural research. Traditional measures of reliability examine the extent to which items measure a particular construct consistently for a particular sample (e.g., Cronbach's Alpha and Cohen's Kappa). Unfortunately, these measures are not able to provide information regarding the extent to which a scale consistently measures a particular construct for an individual (Helms, Henze, Sass, & Mifsud, 2006). Therefore, high reliability statistics among a particular population may report nothing more than the fact that the measure is consistently measuring something inconsistently for a particular group of people. Iota reliability is a reliability test statistic developed by Helms and Nicolas (2008), which accounts for variability in responses for any given participant.

The statistic allows for the calculation of new response scores for participants (accounting for variability in their individual responses). Iota coefficients provide numerical indices of the extent to which individual responders, rather than a sample of responders, consistently endorse a set of items intended to assess the same construct (e.g., depression). Response variability among an individual responder is important because that can help to determine whether a particular construct is meaningful for an individual. For example, if an individual does not consistently respond to items that are supposed to measure a particular construct, it is possible (and maybe even probable) that those items are not measuring a meaningful construct for that individual. If the items are consistently not meaningful for each of the individuals in a given sample, a traditional reliability statistic may report high reliability for a scale that, in fact, is not reliable (or consistent) among the individuals responding to the measure.

Administration of Measure

Subsequent to selecting measures that are culturally appropriate for the participants in the research project, researchers should take appropriate steps to ensure that the administration of the measures is culturally sensitive. In particular, the procedures used to collect data must be clearly delineated and consistent across cultural groups in order to detect genuine cultural differences, as opposed to variations in response patterns due to procedural differences. The following is a review of two of the primary administration issues, sample equivalence and procedure, that should be considered when conducting sound cross-cultural research.

Sample equivalence. When conducting research using different samples, it is customary to make every effort to match the samples on potentially relevant demographic characteristics. As many characteristics as possible are matched in order to effectively rule out variation between groups that are not related to manipulation of the independent variable (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). Therefore, when designing cross-cultural research projects, researchers must pay close attention to similarities and differences between samples on dimensions other than the ones studied. For example, in a study of immigrants' mental health, levels of acculturation, migration patterns, number of residence years in the host country, and connection with home country are factors that may significantly contribute to the observed differences on mental health outcomes of the participants (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). Controlling for these factors in research design ensures that the results obtained can be accurately attributed to hypothesized cultural differences and not other individual factors.

In addition to individual differences among the participants, there are differences across samples with regard to social context (e.g., neighborhood or organizational environment) that need to be examined. For example, an ethnic minority adolescent's experience in his or her

neighborhood can significantly contribute to the values, attitudes, and experiences reported, thereby contributing to variation between samples (Beldona, Inkpen, & Phatak, 1998; Bui & Takeuchi, 1992). Going beyond micro-level factors (e.g., demographic variables), to macro-level determinants (e.g., neighborhood climate) is essential to conducting competent cross-cultural research.

When selecting measures to use in cross-cultural research, it is imperative that sample differences relating to individual experiences with the style of the measures be considered and accounted for as experience may differ across cultures (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Geletkanycz, 1997). For example, completing surveys and standardized instruments is a process most individuals in Westernized countries are exposed to by the 3rd grade. Thus, participants with extensive exposure to and experience with this testing format might be more familiar and comfortable with completing paper-pencil instruments compared to individuals with limited exposure to such testing methods (Lonner, 1990). Improving research among ethnic minority and immigrant populations demands that investigators examine individuals' comfort and familiarity with the format of the assessment in order to ensure that differences in scores are indeed a function of culture and not ability to complete the measure (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Geletkanycz, 1997).

Procedure. In addition to ensuring sample equivalence, it is important to attend to the procedure used to administer research instruments. There are three factors particularly relevant to this endeavor. First, when conducting research with ethnic minority youths, it is imperative that data collection procedures are consistent across the samples. For example, if the research questions are read to participants in one community or cultural group due to literacy issues, then they must be read to all participants involved in the project. Using an equivalent procedure across different cultural groups ensures the reliability and validity of the measures and study (Ortega & Richey, 1998).

Second, the timing of data collection is another important consideration in the administration of instruments across cultures. Specifically, researchers should ensure that data is collected from all cultures at the same time or within a reasonable time span (Sekaran & Martin, 1982; Yu et al., 1993) in order to avoid a cohort effect that must be taken into account during the analysis of the data (Roberts & Boyacigiller, 1984; Roberts, Hulin, & Rousseau, 1978).

Finally, attending to levels of rapport between researchers and participants is necessary when administering instruments in a cross-culturally competent manner (Anastasi, 1988). Van de Vijver & Leung (1997) found that when ethnic minority participants were not comfortable with the researchers, they rush through surveys in an effort to avoid further contact with researchers and this may impact the accuracy of the data collected.

Example of measure administration. When conducting cross-cultural research in the Haitian community, there were several steps utilized to ensure that we administered the measures in a way that allowed us to detect cultural differences among the relevant constructs and not differences in other individual or contextual factors. First, we were quite deliberate in our sampling—making sure to collect an equal number of Haitian immigrants (born in Haiti and immigrated to the United States) and Haitian Americans (parents were born in Haiti, but the participant was born in America). We also were cautious to meet with a fairly equal number of participants from community centers, churches, and residencies. Additionally, we designed a demographic form that addressed many of the individual and contextual variables important to understanding ethnic minority and immigrant populations (e.g., birth country, age came to the

United States; languages spoken, etc.). Having information regarding these factors, allowed us to isolate the variables of interest when running our analyses.

When designing our research project, we also created an interview protocol that our trained research team members were required to follow when meeting with each participant. The protocol provided scripts that interviewers were required to read to the participants and clearly documented the procedure for administering each of the measures. In addition to having a protocol to follow, the interviewers went through several rigorous training sessions where they conducted mock interviews to become familiar and comfortable with the interview procedures. As part of the training sessions, interviewers were educated about conducting ethical and culturally sensitive research with ethnic minorities. For example, interviewers were required to read several articles published by leading scholars in the field of multicultural research (e.g., Fisher & Ragsdale, 2006; Helms, Henze, Mascher, & Satiani, 2005; McIntyre, 1997). The combination of providing an interview protocol as well as training sessions helped to increase the likelihood that equivalent procedures were used for each of the participants.

As part of the interview protocol, interviewers were required to spend time getting to know the interviewees in order to establish good rapport with them. The measures were also administered in a very specific order with the more personal measures (e.g., depression measure) toward the end of the interview. This allowed time for the interviewer and interviewee to form a connection prior to administering the more personal measures. Interviewers were also trained to provide time for participants who wanted to move through the interview slowly—telling stories connected to the research questions. As a result, some of the interviews lasted one hour while others lasted over three hours. Importantly, however, the participants were afforded the time necessary to feel comfortable responding to the research questions.

Community Discourse

After collecting all of the necessary information from community members (e.g., via the scales that were selected for the research project), it is appropriate that the academic community give back to the ethnic and immigrant communities, who shared their personal stories and experiences, through the establishment of programs designed to support and encourage positive development. Thus, in conducting cross cultural research, it is imperative that researchers involve community members in the interpretation of the results, discussing next steps for the community and assisting the community in developing and implementing programs based on their needs.

Similar to the first step of developing a community partnership, community discourse is grounded in the CBPR approach. It emphasizes connecting with community members not solely as subjects but as partners in addressing the needs of the community. Through such partnership, community members are involved in the initial steps of the research and projects are generated based on feedback from the community partners. This process ensures that research provides immediate benefits to the community (Chopyak, 1999; Israel et al., 1998; O'Fallon et al., 2000). Below is an example of how we bring the project full circle through a community discourse around the findings from the project.

Example of community discourse. As suggested through the CBPR approach, a vital part of conducting community-based research is continued collaboration with the communities subsequent to the completion of the research project. In an effort to accomplish this, we scheduled a “day of dialogue” where we invited all 150 participants from the project as well as

members of the communities (more than 80 participants and community members attended) to engage in a three hour discussion with us about our research findings. We selected a location that was accessible via public transportation, comfortable and facilitated group discussion (e.g., couches arranged in a circle with food available).

Members of our research team presented preliminary results of the project to the entire group and answered specific questions relating to the data. Subsequently, participants were put into working-groups around specific themes from the project. This provided community members the opportunity to offer feedback around the research process and interpretations of the findings. It also allowed for discussions around ways in which we could continue to support the communities. Through these meetings, members of the community identified specific areas of concern that required immediate attention in the community, including a culturally specific mental health program and academic achievement and mentoring programs for youths. Specific committees were formed consisting of community leaders, community members, and researchers focusing on each of these areas to develop a plan of how to address the concerns. As a result of these meetings, Project Success, a mentoring and academic program for ethnic minority and immigrant youths was developed and implemented.

Finally, we prepared educational materials, free from research and psychology jargon, that the community members could take with them, highlighting the research findings, recommendations for community members based on the findings, lists of resources available to them in their communities (e.g., mental health centers, community centers, educational resources, etc), and our contact information so that they could reach us with additional questions or comments regarding the research.

Summary and Conclusions

Cross cultural researchers, among others, have acknowledged the increasing need to understand and address the needs of ethnic minority and immigrant youths (Alegria, et al., 2004; Mohatt & Thomas, 2006; Trimble & Mohatt, 2006). However, despite their noble intent, there continues to be a paucity of cross-cultural research concerning ethnic minority and immigrant youths. This is especially troubling in light of demographic estimates based on the U.S. Census of 2004 which suggest that ethnic and immigrant minority youths comprise the fastest growing and most diverse segment of the population in the nation (U.S. Census, 2004).

Cultural inadequacy of measures used in research studies plagues the existing literature, compromising the ability of researchers to conduct efficacious cross-cultural research with ethnic minority and immigrant youths (Cauce, Ryan-Finn, & Grove, 1998). Although several new research methods (Cauce & Gonzalez, 1993; Lawson & Swenson, 2006) have been offered to ameliorate these concerns, none provide systemic guidelines to ensure that research is meaningful to the population of interest. Thus, the research field is still in dire need of a culturally appropriate method for conducting research with ethnic minority and immigrant populations.

The CASA method presented in this paper addresses the aforementioned need by providing a five step method that researchers can employ to address the culturally sensitive aspect of measures when endeavoring to conduct competent cross-cultural and cross-ethnic research with ethnic minority and immigrant youths. Specifically, the CASA method recognizes the importance of Community Partnership, Theoretical Equivalence, Measure Selection, Measure

Administration, and Community Discourse, when designing and conducting research with ethnic minority and immigrant youths.

The method provides guidelines and examples that researchers can utilize in conducting research that is meaningful to the specific ethnic minority and immigrant groups represented in their research.

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Concept Analysis of Risk Behavior in the Context of Adolescent Development

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Abstract: The term risk behavior is a concept that has been used in the literature for many years, particularly as it relates to adolescent developmental issues and adolescent health behaviors. Currently the literature specific to the conceptual analysis of risk behavior is limited and relates in general to adults, rather than youths. The purpose of this investigation was to analyze not only the concept of risk behavior, but also its specific relationship to adolescents. Previous conceptual analyses have not considered how those concepts may be affected by the psychosocial development of adolescents. Therefore the specific aim of this analysis is to clarify the concept of risk behavior as it relates to youths. Following the process outlined by Walker and Avant (1995) the critical attributes, antecedents, consequences, and empirical referents for the concept of risk behavior are presented in this article.

Introduction

The term risk behavior is a concept that has been used in the literature for many years, particularly as it relates to adolescent developmental issues and adolescent health behaviors. Walker and Avant (1995) note that concepts are the building blocks of theory and that they change over time, periodically requiring up to date and in depth analyses in order to discover not only their historic uses, but also their current contextual meanings. This allows researchers the opportunity to develop accurate operational definitions of the variables specifically related to their studies. Concepts that are well delineated can then be investigated in a number of different studies and potentially used to explore group differences and responses to interventions that otherwise might not be compared.

The purpose of this investigation is to analyze not only the concept of risk behavior, but also its relationship to adolescents. Full discovery of the meanings and uses of the concept adds to the knowledge base of information about youths, as well as assists in the identification of specific areas to consider for newly developed interventions. Clarification of the concept helps to focus

the search for or development of appropriate tools to operationalize the concept while providing continued conceptual consistency (Walker and Avant, 1995).

Currently the literature specific to the conceptual analysis of risk behavior is limited. A search of the CINAHL data base yielded only five articles presenting concept analyses of risk and none that analyzed the concept of behavior or the combined term of risk behavior. Of those articles, three examined a specific type of risk, including constructive risk (Waring, 2000), forensic risk (Kettles, 2004), and the risk of developing a disease, such as cancer (Jacobs, 2000). The two remaining articles presented discussions of careful analyses of risk (Joseph, 1993; Shattell, 2004).

It was noted that the authors did not specifically relate their findings to the psychosocial development of adolescents. Due to the lack of an in-depth investigation of the conceptual basis of risk behaviors and the conflicting issues of the previous analyses of risk, the aim of this concept analysis is to clarify the concept as it relates to adolescents.

Consistent with the premise by Walker and Avant (1995) that concepts change over time, this author posits that risk behaviors are an excellent example of how historical issues and context influence the use of words in the language of disciplines such as nursing, social sciences, and education. An example of this variation of change in usage of a concept over time is clearly illustrated with regard to risk behaviors. The use of tobacco in the 1950's was not considered a risk behavior, but today it is a known etiological factor for lung cancer and therefore tobacco use is now referred to as a risk behavior. The contextual meaning is also influenced by such factors as age, as in the case of adolescent alcohol use, or lack of condom use in unmarried individuals.

The actual behaviors, however only illustrate the concept, rather than define it. Nursing research cites examples of risk behaviors such as binge drinking, drinking and driving, speeding, illicit drug use, tobacco use, unhealthy dietary practices, physical inactivity, early sexual debut, other risky sexually practices, and behaviors that contribute to intentional and unintentional injury, such as weapon carrying. Yet, those research papers do not define the concept.

In the review of over fifty nursing research studies with titles which included the phrase risk, risk behaviors, or words corresponding to any actions currently considered risky, only one definition of risk behavior was found. Spirito, Jelalian, Rasile, Rohrbeck, & Vinnick (2000) define risk behavior as volitional with no potential for harm, or the possible consequence of actual harm to self or others. Findings from the previously mentioned concept analyses of risk are reviewed throughout the current discussion as they apply. Following the process outlined by Walker and Avant (1995) the critical or defining attributes, antecedents, consequences, and empirical referents for the concept of risk behavior are presented in this article.

The Process of Concept Analysis

This paper presents an analysis of the concept, risk behavior, using the approach outlined by Walker & Avant (1995). They state that concept analysis occurs in eight steps, which may transpire in order or simultaneously. The eight steps addressed in this paper include:

- Select a concept
- Determine the aims or purposes
- Identify all the uses of that concept

- Determine defining or critical attributes
- Construct a model case
- Construct borderline, related, contrary, invented, and illegitimate cases
- Identify antecedents and consequences
- Define empirical referents

Identifying the Uses of the Term Risk

Identification of the attributes of a concept can be discovered through a full examination of all the uses of that term (Walker & Avant, 1995). The etymology of risk is *risqué* from the French language and *risco* from Italian. The word can be found used in English as early as 1661 (Merriam-Webster Online Language Center, 2008). Risk as a noun, is defined as the possibility of harm, loss, or danger (*American Heritage Dictionary*, 1983; Merriam-Webster Online Language Center, 2008).

Webster's New World Dictionary (1972) defines risk as a chance of injury, or the possibility of losing or failing. Merriam-Webster Online Language Center (2008) adds additional definitions of this noun as a person or event that creates or suggests a hazard, the degree of probability of a loss as related to insurance issues, and the chance that an investment will result in a loss of value, rather than a gain.

Risk is also a transitive verb. The meaning of a transitive verb is incomplete without a specific relationship to a direct object, in this case behavior. The transitive verb definitions of risk include; (1) to expose to the chance of loss, (2) to incur the risk of, or put in danger, and (3) to expose to hazard or danger (*American Heritage Dictionary*, 1983; Merriam-Webster Online Language Center, 2008; *Webster's New World Dictionary*, 1972).

Jacobs (2000) who analyzed risk as related to the development of cancer, concludes that the word risk has changed from a neutral concept originally used as a mathematical probability of an event occurring. In the current nursing and medical science fields risk refers to a combination of probability and the expectation of an adverse or dangerous incident.

Another author, combined the term constructive with risk. Waring (2000) notes that risk does not always result in injury or harm and in fact some risk behaviors may result in positive outcomes. For instance removing restraints and allowing elders to ambulate, although a calculated risk may increase self esteem and mobility in institutionalized elderly persons.

Shattell (2004) presents the results of an extensive literature review of nursing, sociology, psychology, philosophy, ethics, business and industry, art, architecture, education, linguistics, statistics, economics, religion, and the lay media. The results include:

- Danger or potential for harm, injury, or loss
- Risk in relation to decision making, such as a risk taker or risk assessment
- Danger to or loss of property
- Insurance risks of people and property
- Forecasting or the possibility of financial loss: for example risk-benefit analysis
- Financial gain related to high risk activity

Identifying the Uses of the Term Behavior

The etymology of behavior is an alteration of the Middle English term *behaven* and can be found in use in the 15th century (Merriam-Webster Online Language Center, 2008). Behavior, a noun, is defined as; (1) deportment or demeanor, (2) the way a person or thing acts, reacts, or functions, (3) anything that an organism does involving action and response to stimulation, and (4) the manner of conducting oneself (*American Heritage Dictionary*, 1983; Merriam-Webster Online Language Center, 2008; *Webster's New World Dictionary*, 1972).

Although behavior is a noun, due to its definition of action it may function more like a verb. The term behavior must be modified in order for it to be meaningful. The term risk behavior uses the transitive verb risk to modify the direct object noun behavior, in order to produce the concept in which there is an action involving danger or the possibility of harm.

Risk is subjective and many other terms are used to modify the word risk or the word behavior. Behavior itself modifies the verb form of risk. Examples of other risk terms include: absolute risk, acceptable risk, relative risk, risk assessment or evaluation, risk factor, risk management, risk aversion, risk capital, risk money, and risk profile. Terms used to modify behavior include: behavior pattern, behavior cycle, behavior study, behavior segment, behavior therapy (*Concise Oxford English Dictionary*, 2006).

Defining or Critical Attributes

Determining the defining attributes takes place after the researcher has examined all of the possible uses of the concept. Those characteristics that are repeated multiple times are the defining attributes and are the ideas most frequently associated with that concept (Walker & Avant, 1995). After extensive review of the definitions and the use of the terms risk and behavior in the literature, this author posits that the three defining attributes of risk behavior are; (1) hazard, (2) action, and (3) possibility.

Kettles (2004) lists the attributes of forensic risk as danger in relation to the cultural system, probability measurement, behavior, and responsibility to protect the public. Shattell (2004) lists the defining attributes of risk as the chance or possibility of harm, and cognitive recognition involving thought and perception, which results in a decision making process. However, a better placement of cognition and decision making in the context of risk *behavior* would be as antecedents.

In each instance of risk behavior a hazard is present that is clearly dangerous in nature. This is the risk portion of the concept risk behavior. Without the peril, nothing bad would be able to happen. Once the hazard is present the person must act. This is the behavior part of the term. If no action takes place, the person is safe from the hazard. Finally a possibility must exist for the hazard to actually occur. This is the part that ties risk and behavior together into a concept that signifies that the potential to act must be at hand, when a hazard is present.

Risk behaviors are not consistent with actions taken in situations where imminent danger cannot be avoided, or when the risk is unknown or not clear, because these circumstances remove the option of a decision, which is an antecedent to the concept. Behaviors that occur without the possibility of hazard are not risky in nature. Finally, when a hazard is present and the possibility of harm exists, but no action is taken, a risk behavior has not occurred.

Model Case

The model case is a real life example and includes all the critical attributes of the concept (Walker & Avant, 1995). Within the context of adolescent development the model case involves adolescents who arrive at a party where alcohol is present.

Tom and Marty drove eight miles into woods to be with their friends that night, in order to enjoy time around the campfire without any adults. No alcohol was mentioned before the gathering, but Steve brought alcohol. Tom and Marty took a short walk and talked about what to do. They decided that it might be OK to drink just a few and then leave. As other people arrived, so did more alcohol. When the time came to leave, neither Tom nor Marty were sure that they really should drive, but they needed to get home by curfew and everyone else was staying. Tom felt sure the he could probably get home without a problem, so he drove.

This case contains all of the defining attributes of risk behavior. The (1) hazard present is alcohol. The (2) action is drinking and driving, and the (3) possibility exists that an accident may occur due to impaired ability of the driver, resulting in injury or death.

Other Cases

Development of borderline, related, contrary, invented, and illegitimate cases help to define the concept and determine what aspects don't fit within the concept. A borderline case is an example of the concept which is missing one or more of the attributes (Walker & Avant, 1995).

Sue and Dave arrive at a party that was expected to have large quantities of illicit drugs. Both were looking forward to the thrill of getting high. However, the supplier did not come and everyone went home disappointed.

In this example action is considered, but not carried out. The hazard is expected, but is missing. Once the hazard is removed there is no possibility of harm left.

The related case does not contain the critical attributes, but must be examined closely to determine which attribute is missing (Walker & Avant, 1995).

Jill and Jack arrived at a party where their friends are in separate rooms having sex. Jack and Jill did not bring any condoms, but they went into one of the private rooms and petted heavily for over an hour before leaving.

At first this appears to be model case. The hazard of unprotected intercourse and the possibility of resulting pregnancy are present, but the action (intercourse) does not take place.

The contrary case is an example of what the concept is not (Walker & Avant, 1995).

Pete and Meg went to an after prom party where no alcohol was served. Chaperones were present all night to ensure that no persons with alcohol or illicit drugs were admitted to the party. There were no private spots to hide in.

In this example, there is no hazard, and therefore no possibility, so no action can result.

The invented case is demonstrated by the concept being taken out of the context of our own experience (Walker & Avant, 1995).

On the planet of Venus the adolescents are gathering for a party where they plan to change into Earthlings. They are aware that not everyone is able to change back, and that some of their friends have actually died from this practice, but they proceed anyway.

Finally, Walker and Avant (1995) define the illegitimate case as a use of the concept that is noted improperly or out of context. This author was not able to find an illegitimate case that contains both parts of the concept. However, the game of RISK is an example of an illegitimate use of risk, but not of behavior.

Antecedents to Risk Behavior

Walker and Avant (1995) note that identifying antecedents may help to focus the concept in the light of the contextual setting and are helpful in further defining the critical attributes. Joseph (1993) infers that autonomy or at least the ability to control what will occur may be an antecedent to risk. Shattell (2004) lists the antecedents of risk as the cognitive ability to reason and make choices, as well as prior knowledge or experience. A decision naturally precedes action and an informed decision about the action must take place before the activity can occur.

The current investigation adds exposure to the antecedents of risk behavior. Exposure brings about the possibility that harm may occur. Without exposure the person would not be at risk. However, there must be a cognitive recognition of exposure and as noted by Shattell (2004) this assumes prior learning or prior knowledge. Cognitive ability or developmental readiness allows the individual to react to exposure.

Consequences of Risk Behavior

Walker and Avant (1995) define consequences as events resulting from or the occurrence of the concept. Shattell (2004) states that a consequence of risk is a decision or action based on the decision making process. The current analysis posits that action is a defining attribute rather than a consequence, due to the combining of the term risk with behavior. Therefore, the consequences of risk behavior include outcome and reinforcement. In the case of risk behavior the outcome may be harm or no harm, but one of these two is always present at the end of the behavior.

Reinforcement includes both positive and negative connotations. The risk behavior is positively reinforced by no harm, or the experience is one of thrill, excitement, and enjoyment. Conversely, behavior may be negatively reinforced by injury, illness, death, or other loss. Joseph (1993) and Shattell (2004) also comment on the possibility that there may not be a bad outcome. Shattell states that lack of resulting harm or injury may lead to more risk taking. This possibility of positive reinforcement of risk behaviors has significant implications related to health promotion and education, especially as related to adolescents, who may believe that no true harm can come to them.

Empirical Referents

Empirical referents are classes or categories of events that can be measured and that demonstrate the concept (Walker & Avant, 1995). The empirical referents of risk behavior can

include a multitude of measurements, such as self-reported survey results, observed behaviors, and epidemiological statistics. Sexually transmitted infectious disease (STD) and pregnancy rates are empirical referents of sexual risk behaviors. Accident and injury rates are evidence of risk behaviors such as alcohol or illicit drug use, or risky driving behaviors. Homicide and suicide reflect risk behaviors related to personal violence and weapon carrying. Tobacco use, illicit drug use, and alcohol use rates reflect risk behaviors associated with substance abuse.

Discussion

The original concept analysis work was completed by this author in 2003. This new review and analysis required an updated literature search and consideration of additional work by other disciplines. This resulted in changes to the antecedents. The original two antecedents were exposure and decision. As noted, a youth had to be in a position where a risk existed and then made a choice prior to acting. Clearly, in order to make a decision one must have autonomy. The addition of autonomy fits very well when considering the developmental trajectory of adolescents.

Autonomy results from the need for independent identity and increased separation from parents. This focal social and developmental issue for adolescents may lead to increased risk behavior. Peer values become the normative basis for behavior, rather than family norms, as teens strive to become independent persons. Cultural expectations and perceptual differences resulting from teen culture alter the cognition, decision making, and behaviors of adolescents (Hoekelman et al., 1997). This developmental push towards independence launches many of them into participation in risk behaviors.

Decision making, which requires cognitive ability or developmental readiness, as well as prior knowledge or experience was not specified in the original analysis, but is certainly an important and necessary antecedent. After studying adolescents, Elkind (1984) states that adolescents have reached the cognitive level of formal operations, and are therefore able to consider abstract thoughts. This allows youths to be able to reflect on the actual process of thinking, resulting in the development of a concept called imaginary audience. Frequent thoughts about themselves cause adolescents to be particularly egocentric and believe that everyone is watching them.

This awareness of self works two ways; they want to be watched, yet they are afraid they may act abnormally and therefore be embarrassed. This belief in imaginary audience leads to the assumption that they are actors in their own personal fable. Elkind (1984) explains the concept of personal fable as the belief that because everyone is watching, they are special, and therefore not affected by actions that might be harmful to others, such as STDs or pregnancy from unprotected intercourse.

Research related to risk and protective factors affecting adolescent risk behaviors supports the conclusion that the living environment may actually encourage risk behaviors because of the social context of day-to-day life. Many rural and inner city communities suffer from economic hardship. Focus group work with rural African American adolescents in North Carolina found that racism, limited employment, and social inequality resulted in participation in risk behaviors (Adimora et al., 2001). A study comparing rural and non-rural African American adolescents found that rural females were more likely than any other group to report certain risk behaviors (Milhausen et al., 2003).

The consequences of risk behavior were not changed by the current analysis. However, deeper thought and future research must be devoted to investigation of the effect of positive reinforcement on subsequent risk behaviors. When the outcome of the risk behavior results in no harmful effect, this may reinforce the adolescent's belief in personal fable and make him or her more likely to continue participation in risk behaviors.

Implications

Imaginary audience may be one reason why adolescents participate in risk behaviors, especially if their peers model those behaviors. Personal fable enables the adolescent to believe that he/she is immune to the dangers associated with risky activities such as death in an automotive crash while riding with an impaired adolescent driver. This has bearing on the cognitive decision making ability of adolescents and must be considered when developing program and interventions for adolescents.

As noted, teens are particularly egocentric and their belief in imaginary audience and personal fable resulting in feelings of invincibility, may cause them to be unable to anticipate both the immediate consequences and the long-term outcomes of their actions. Additionally, peer pressure alters the ability to think reasonably about the outcome of the risk behavior (Stanhope & Lancaster, 2006). Clearly, decision-making is influenced by developmental status. Even with the increased ability to cognate and make moral decisions or judgments, adolescents see the world differently than adults and we must investigate these differences.

Conclusion

This article presents the results of a concept analysis guided by the method suggested by Walker and Avant (1995) into the concept of risk behavior as it relates to adolescents. The critical and defining attributes of the concept are hazard, action, and possibility. Adolescents have the highest rate of risk behaviors, most likely resulting from a combination of normal developmental and peer pressure. Alteration of risk behaviors in this age group holds the greatest potential for long-term change in both personal and public health. Therefore, improved understanding of the concept will help guide the intervention planning and implementation needed to modify unhealthy behaviors.

Adolescents come face to face with an increasing array of confusing issues during their journey into adulthood. These real life decisions involve daily choices between behaviors that are healthy and unhealthy. Youths are expected to make decisions and take actions about risk behavior and matters of personal safety, such as sexuality, tobacco use, alcohol consumption, weapon carrying, and illicit drug use when they may not be developmentally equipped to assess all of the possible short-term and long-term consequences of those health risk behaviors.

Our society expects adolescents to develop the skills needed to make responsible life decisions, yet we offer little training or social support. Increasing control over risk behaviors, as well as appropriate decision-making is expected to occur as the adolescent matures and develops the ability to negotiate the adult world. However, self-control, critical thinking, and appropriate problem-solving behaviors may be lacking. Historically, lecturing about avoidance of risk behaviors as a method of teaching young people has been ineffective. This may be due in part to their belief that they are exempt from any harmful outcome because their personal fable protects them. These critical life skills involved in the decision-making process must be reinforced by programmatic content that is specific to adolescents.

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Building a Launchpad for Youth Impact and Organizational Change

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Abstract: A recent report, *4-H Critical Indicators of Youth Development Outcomes for Mission Mandates*, outlines a nationwide evaluation of youth program quality and impact of three new programming initiatives. The plan is presented as a model for youth development impact and organizational change. Discussion focuses on the three components of the plan, including evaluation context, framework for assessing program quality and outcomes, and implementation issues critical to successful evaluation.

Introduction

Community-based youth programs demonstrate their social value and funding merit with evidence for program quality and impact (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Evaluation of quality and impact is a daunting task for local programs, but cumulating evidence across networked youth organizations is even more so. Nevertheless, the prospect of improving program quality and impact and increasing funding support led National 4-H Headquarters to embrace that challenge. 4-H developed a long-term strategy for multi-state collaboration that focuses on National Mission Mandates (MM) in science, engineering, and technology (SET), citizenship, and healthy living.

With funding from National 4-H Council, a white paper was commissioned to review literature and recommend impact indicators and procedures for multi-state data collection in mandate areas. The report is part of a broader federal effort to support state and local 4-H professionals who will organize, implement, and evaluate MM programs across diverse populations and settings.

The purpose of this article is to summarize the rubrics and recommendations of that report (Silliman, 2007) which may be relevant across a variety of networked youth organizations. Specifically, this discussion focuses on the evaluation context, framework for selecting and identifying indicators, and recommendations for implementing a multi-state evaluation.

Evaluation Context

Evaluation of nationwide impacts and program quality is part of a larger process of program development and organizational change (Boone, Jones, & Safrit, 2002). Program development begins with critical assessment of organizational and environmental assets and challenges. In this regard, 4-H mission mandates were congruent with the mission of the larger organization, the Cooperative State Research, Education, and Extension Service (CSREES, 2007). Mandate areas were also consistent with 4-H historical programming priorities (National 4-H Headquarters, 2007) and current goals for increasing enrollment in cutting-edge topics.

Organizational assets for implementing and evaluating mandate programs include a dynamic and experienced network of partners at the federal (CSREES), state (land-grant university-based Extension services), and local (county Extension/4-H offices) levels. The Extension system of community education enables a nationwide reach with state and county-level programming flexibility. National 4-H Headquarters, with the support of the non-profit National 4-H Council, have demonstrated capacity to convene, implement, and evaluate special initiatives including Children, Youth, and Families at Risk (CYFAR), Expanded Foods and Nutrition Extension Program for Youth (EFNEP-Y), 4-H Afterschool, EYSC, and Military Family Programs (National 4-H Headquarters, 2007). CSREES planning and accountability protocols (CSREES, 2007) create a common language and procedure for reporting outcomes of all programs. Additional assets include formal and informal communication and support systems (professional contacts, conferences, committees, training and programming collaboratives) and increasing professional interest in improving evaluation (NAE4-HA, 2006).

Organizational challenges in 4-H include a limited capacity for local program evaluation and limited resources (e.g., planning, training, and management systems, funding, practical instruments) to build capacity. Moreover, state and local autonomy in selecting priority issues and adapting program models fosters program diversity that is not easily assessed by uniform indicators or measures. Although the federal partner has limited authority and few resources to mandate participation (in spite of the connotation of "mandate"), stakeholder "push" for accountability and leadership "pull" toward program improvement creates a climate for collaboration, hence a need for indicators and procedures to guide collective efforts.

Social/Economic Context

State and national environmental scans as well as reviews of research on youth issues confirmed the significance of mission mandate themes. Health, citizenship, and SET problems increase personal, social, and economic risks while increased assets may benefit individuals and communities exponentially. In each field, community-based prevention and education, reinforced early and often, can foster healthy, engaged, prosperous communities. (see Silliman, 2007 for details).

Knowledge Base

Research and practice provides a broad consensus on developmental risks and assets and youth program quality traits (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; SAMHSA, 2007), as well as key outcome indicators in science (Horton, Gogolski, & Warkenton, 2006), citizenship (Brockman, Tepper, & Russell, 2005; Michelson, Zaff, & Hair, 2002; Roebuck, Tepper, & MacNeil, 2005), and health promotion (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006; Healthy People 2010, 2007). However, social indicators of youth well-being tend to be

- incidental (one-time or short-term vs ongoing),
- inconsistent (varying in description or measurement),

- biased toward inadequacies (problem-focused rather than asset-focused), and
- incomplete (focused on one or a few traits) (Moore, Lippman, & Brown, 2004).

Gaps remain in developmental and program research findings in each mandate area. For instance, “typical” patterns of health and nutrition are changing, many strategies for engaging youth in science or citizenship remain untested, and program outcomes may vary across communities. Moreover, research-based program quality and results are rarely sustained in everyday community settings. Thus, the knowledge base provides a practical guide but hardly a precise indicator of expected strategies and outcomes.

Effective youth programs are grounded in a long-term program development process punctuated by evaluation of program quality and impact (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Review of the context for evaluating 4-H multi-state initiatives identified significant organizational assets, societal needs for programming in each mandate area, and a strong research base in each area. Organizational challenges include a decentralized structure and limitations in evaluation capacity and gaps in the knowledge base for each initiative.

Teams of state and local 4-H professionals organizing science, citizenship, and health initiatives require a user-friendly framework for documenting program quality and outcomes across a diverse array of program goals, formats, settings, and resources. That framework, described below, includes promising indicators, measures, and selection criteria to guide planning. The process also provides flexibility for mandate-related teams to refine the process as their goals emerge, resources increase, and networks expand.

Evaluation Framework

Based on current research, summarized below, the *Critical Indicators* evaluation framework targets improvement in *content* indicators as well as life skills such as communication, goal setting, problem solving, self-efficacy, and teamwork (see Silliman, 2007 for details) as primary evidence for program effectiveness. Based on youth development practice (Kress, 2004) and research (Eccles & Gootman, 2002) the report recommends evaluation context indicators as evidence that content outcomes likely resulted from planned programs. Given the complexity of the project, specifying criteria was an important prerequisite to selecting indicators.

Evidence for program effectiveness must specify audience and setting as well as treatment intensity, frequency, and duration (Chaput, Little, & Weiss, 2004; SAMHSA, 2007). Although 4-H programs are implemented differently across a variety of settings, audience and program descriptors were recommended to facilitate grouping and comparison of programs. Guidelines for implementing multi-state program evaluations were also emphasized to improve the quality and consistency of the evaluation process. Finally, the report suggested promising opportunities for more in-depth research in each mandate area.

Each component of the framework, including criteria, indicators, descriptive data, implementation, and research topics, are discussed below.

Criteria for Selecting Indicators

Evaluation of program outcomes and quality begins with selection of appropriate indicators. In their discussion of criteria for selection of indicators of youth well-being, Moore, Lippman, & Brown (2004) pointed to priorities that are also useful for developing outcome indicators for 4-H mission mandate programs. In this view, indicators should:

- 1) represent all domains (e.g., physical, cognitive, social development);
- 2) describe social context (e.g., community or delivery system);
- 3) be sensitive to developmental stages and;
- 4) linkages between stages;
- 5) include positive development as well as risk factors;
- 6) address factors sensitive to short-, medium-, and long-term influences.

The *Critical Indicators* framework addresses several of these criteria (notably 1, 2, 5, and 6). Reviews of research identified the domains and factors appropriate to each mandate-area in the short-, mid-, and long-term time frames. Numbers of youth increasing in outcomes is incorporated, consistent with the 4-H goal of increasing enrollment. Developmentally-sensitive indicators are left to mandate planning teams as they target age-specific audiences.

Review of the evaluation context suggested additional criteria, including:

- 1) consistency across mission mandate areas;
- 2) consistency with national indices such as science education standards, health surveillance systems;
- 3) consistency between routine monitoring (e.g., USDA reporting), evaluation, and research levels; and
- 4) understandable to citizens, practitioners, researchers, and policy-makers.

Uniformity of indicators (items 7-9) would facilitate planning, implementation, and evaluation across the CSREES system, comparisons with similar programs in the field, and increasing efficiency of effort for 4-H staff in completing CSREES reports and evaluating mandate-related programs. The final criterion will enhance implementation and marketing of program evaluation results.

Criteria for selection of program quality indicators include practices that:

- 1) reduce risk behaviors; and
- 2) promote positive youth development;
- 3) are culturally sensitive (Eccles & Gootman, 2002) and
- 4) match the developmental and risk level of the target audience (SAMHSA, 2007).

Model practices are those associated with programs shown to produce positive outcomes in multiple studies and settings (SAMSHA, 2007).

Content Evaluation

Programs demonstrate worth not simply by conducting activities or serving large audiences, but by facilitating meaningful change in the lives of participants. Specifying program outcomes establishes the goals and describes the results of educational programs. In the CSREES evaluation logic model, outcome indicators specify measurable characteristics that can be tracked across time, participants, and location (Bennett & Rockwell, 1995; CSREES, 2007). Following this model, short-term indicators specify changes in knowledge, attitude, skills, or aspirations (KASA).

Over time, application of short-term KASA changes should be evident in behavior changes. Over an extended time, individual and group-level behavior changes may result in long-term social,

economic, environmental, or cultural change. Key indicators and change processes are best determined by research and practice in each mandate area. In the absence of subject-specific data, broader youth development research and/or theory must be applied to select appropriate indicators. Research-based model programs typically specify the degree and timing of change. Without research-based norms, outcome time-frames are relative descriptions; that is, the results of immediate or sustained learning and practice. Within this framework short-term refers to results of one week (intensive) to one year (less intensive) programs. Mid-term describes results of roughly three-month (sustained practice) to three year (extended practice). Long-term outcomes anticipate attitudes and behaviors that extend into late adolescence and young adulthood. Obviously, participant age and capacities, program intensity and duration, environmental supports and opportunities significantly influence the scope of outcomes in a given time frame. These issues are addressed further under Demographics and Descriptors.

Outcome indicators for each mandate area were selected from best practice research. National science education standards (National Research Council, 2007, 2000) recommend outcomes based on research with youth, grades K-16. Horton, Gogolski, & Warkenton (2006) identified key outcomes in these standards as anchors (discipline-base knowledge) and abilities (processes such as observation and problem solving). Juried 4-H curricula already reflect these outcomes. SET indicators (see Appendix A) focus on acquisition of competencies and aspirations for learning in the short-term, mastery and flexible application in the mid-term, and expanded engagement through career and volunteer activity in the long-term.

Citizenship indicators were drawn from reviews of research (Brockman, Tepper, & Russell, 2005; Michelson, et al., 2002; Roebuck, Brockman, & Tepper, 2005) and recommendations on civic awareness and engagement (Civic Indicators Working Group, 2007; North Carolina Civic Consortium, 2003), and volunteer service and leadership (America's Promise, 2007; Corporation for National and Community Service, 2007). Citizenship indicators (see Appendix A) focus on familiarity and activity in the short-term, shift to expanded activity and leadership initiative in the mid-term, and describe sustained involvement in adulthood.

Health indicators, including mental and physical health and safety, are drawn from research and surveillance data of the U.S. Departments of Agriculture and Health and Human Services (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006, 2005; Healthy People 2010, 2007; U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2006, 2005; U.S. Surgeon General, 2001). Short-term indicators (see Appendix A) focus on gaining knowledge and skills for healthy living, mid-term indicators emphasize using knowledge and skills to practice more healthy and safe habits, and long-term outcomes target healthy lifestyles into teen and young adult years.

Life skills represent key competencies across content areas, long valued as outcomes of 4-H and other informal education programs (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Life skills deemed most relevant to target programs include communication (oral, written, interpersonal), goal setting, problem solving (scientific and interpersonal), self-efficacy, and teamwork. Although life skills are frequently cited in youth outcomes research (Elliott, 1999; SAMHSA, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2003), no developmental rubric could be located for monitoring growth and application of these skills over time. Thus, generic indicators, rather than short- and long-term indicators, were used to target outcomes in the Life Skills arena.

Context Evaluation

Program quality is the first evidence of worth and the final evidence for program impact. Programs in a formative or developmental stage typically emphasize program quality or fidelity

as evidence of progress toward targeted outcomes. However, evidence for program quality during summative evaluation strengthens the case that outcomes resulted from a planned program. A National Research Council review of program qualities that promote positive youth development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002) identifies the following criteria:

- 1) physical and emotional safety;
- 2) adult support;
- 3) appropriate structure;
- 4) positive social norms;
- 5) opportunities to belong;
- 6) opportunities to serve and make a difference;
- 7) opportunities for skill-building;
- 8) connections to family, school, and community.

Many of these qualities are reflected in research-based model programs (Elliott, 1999; SAMHSA, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2003) as well as 4-H Essential Elements of 4-H (University of Arizona, 2006), and High Scope Youth Program Quality Assessment (2004). Best practice reviews are also available in disciplines such as science inquiry (National Research Council, 2000), citizenship and volunteerism (Brockman, Tepper, & Russell, 2005; Zaff et al., 2002), and health promotion (Centers for Disease Control, 2007; Kahan & Goodstadt, 2001).

The *Critical Indicators* framework recommends youth-friendly measures of program outcomes and quality. Authentic assessment that informs, engages, and encourages young people contrasts high-stakes testing environments in which evaluation is often impersonal and irrelevant for youth. Even adaptations of knowledge test formats such as adding a debriefing dialogue may help leaders better understand youth needs and affirm youth voice, as well as evaluate program outcomes. Multiple perspectives, including evaluations of youth, leaders, parents, and others also create a fuller picture of the quality or impact of a youth program. Integration of evaluation methods with educational and relational experiences should provide more reliable reports as well.

The *Critical Indicators* framework provides a broad rubric for short-, mid-, and long-term outcomes that each mandate leadership team can refine to fit the type and degree of change expected with each program or curricula. Organizational goals for increasing enrollment through mandate-related programs are also incorporated into indicators statements. Although numbers of participants represents output, rather than outcome-level data, increasing numbers of youth who increase specific skills and behaviors represents a priority goal within the organization. Benchmarks on both enrollment and achievement provide valuable feedback on the success of the initiative.

Demographics and Descriptors

The diversity of people, programs, and settings included in 4-H mission mandate programs commends documentation. Mandate leadership teams may choose to pre-screen participating programs to conduct a more uniform evaluation of a curriculum or program. By contrast, mandate teams may admit any 4-H group that identifies with their theme. In both cases, demographic and descriptive information will aid evaluators in determining the effect of each type of program on each type of participant in each type of setting. Thus, Critical Indicators recommended gathering information about the audience. Participant data might include demographics (age/grade, gender, race, place of residence, disability status, primary language)

and descriptive data (sessions attended, prior knowledge, 4-H experience). Program data must describe the intensity or frequency of training, duration, or length of exposure, depth, or mastery level, and breadth, or diversity of components (Chaput, Little, & Weiss, 2004). Other valuable program data may include information about program format or delivery system (e.g., clubs, afterschool, special interest, camps), traits of the curriculum and/or program, practices, including instruction, experimentation, discussion, or demonstration, or identification as a model program (Elliott, 1999; SAMHSA, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

Descriptions of leader traits such as age, gender, race, experience, and role may also prove useful in evaluating program effectiveness. Descriptions of the setting or environment, including available supports and opportunities (Gambone, Klem, & Connell, 2002) for program goals in families, schools, youth organizations, and communities may contribute to understanding how programs impact participants.

Research Opportunities

Mission mandate programs may provide valuable opportunities for systematic and in-depth research beyond the scope of routine evaluation. The Critical Indicators framework recommends several research topics for each mandate area (see Appendix B). Investigations in both basic and applied research may fill gaps in existing research on science, civics, and health for youth. Research on youth programs may also strengthen links with higher education partners and funding agencies.

Implementation

Implementation represents the final and pivotal stage of the Critical Indicators project. Mandate leadership teams of 4-H professionals will review the report, available curricula, and training needs, then develop plans for engaging community-level programs. The SET team, now mobilized, is reviewing curriculum capacity and conducting an online survey with local 4-H staff on their readiness for SET programming. Similar profiles of program capacity in each area would help target training and resource needs and benchmark program growth. Building on these profiles, leadership teams can deploy packages of programming and evaluation resources that establish and expand upon best practices in the field.

Using the program incubation process developed by Cornell Extension (Hertzog, 2006), mandate program partners should initially focus on program quality and fidelity, recognizing that good practice represents the strongest correlate of and foundation for program impact. Programs at the development phase can begin using pre- and post-tests, targeting short- and mid-term indicators and descriptors. Mature programs, with stable procedures and consistently positive results can conduct in-depth evaluation using quasi-experimental and experimental designs. At each phase, a tool-kit of programming and measurement tools, juried curricula and support resources, program and data management procedures, recruitment and marketing resources will improve community-level programming and evaluation results. Deployment of these systems will provide many opportunities for research on program effectiveness and long-term impact.

Conclusions

The *Critical Indicators* report prepared to support the 4-H national Mission Mandates addresses the context, framework, and implementation steps needed to evaluate multi-state programming initiatives. As the foregoing review suggests, youth development organizations can realize significant benefits from implementing such a plan, including:

- 1) greater focus in program planning, as collaborators “begin with [a shared] end in mind;”
- 2) greater richness in program development, as a variety of strategies are logically linked to a shared outcome;
- 3) greater continuity in curriculum and training as they are aimed toward shared outcomes;
- 4) opportunities to compare delivery methods for specific audiences; and
- 5) more clear and powerful evidence for program impact as all efforts contribute to a single, larger impact statement.

Such a plan also challenges youth organizations to assess and invest in programming and evaluation capacity through:

- 1) upgrading existing systems for program planning, implementation, documentation, and reporting in ways that enhance both innovation and youth worker self-efficacy;
- 2) engaging professionals and volunteers in program development and implementation and enhancing their experience with training, networking, and support experiences;
- 3) building organizational awareness of and commitment to evaluation as a strategy for clarifying mission, communicating with clients and partners, improving programs as well as documenting their results, tracking processes that increase program and organizational effectiveness, and communicating with all stakeholders.

The *Critical Indicators* framework provides a first step toward realizing these benefits for 4-H and a model that may be useful to similar organizations with nationwide reach. Future efforts by 4-H or other youth organizations should address needs for the following:

- 1) establishing more consistent indicators for youth development in general, as well as specific areas of programming (e.g., health, citizenship, SET), program traits and quality, critical participant characteristics, and descriptors of processes for building capacity, evaluating programs, and using evaluation data;
- 2) training and empowerment of youth development professionals and volunteers to engage in collaborative efforts as well as develop indicators and methods to support unique programs of their own;
- 3) developing organizational capacity to lead and support professionals in collaborative efforts; and
- 4) enhanced scholarship to develop and improve the discipline of youth development evaluation especially for community-based programs (vs. research model programs).

The *Critical Indicators* report provides a framework for evaluating 4-H national Mission Mandates and a window to the myriad of challenges and opportunities facing youth professionals, programs, and organizations. As these challenges are documented, discussed, and solutions determined, youth program effectiveness and subsequent support promises to increase.

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Appendix A: **Critical Indicators for 4-H Mission Mandate Areas**

Science, Engineering, and Technology

Short-term measures of progress

- Number of individuals increasing participation in science and technology-specific clubs
- Number of individuals increasing knowledge and/or skills in content and careers (across subject areas ranging from animal science to technology)
- Number of individuals increasing positive attitude and/or aspirations about SET learning and careers
- Number of individuals increasing science process skills, such as mastery of basic skills (observation, comparison, hypothesis), use of the scientific method, or systematic problem solving

Mid-term indicators reflecting application of knowledge and practice of skills

- Number of individuals demonstrating improved behavior in science learning, such as effective participation in school classes, independent study, career exploration, or volunteer experiences
- Number of individuals applying science process skills, including incorporation of science learning in community service, enrollment in SET-related post-secondary education, and/or entrepreneurship/career success

Long-term indicators of personal or social change

- Number of individuals who enroll in SET-related post-secondary education, enter SET-related career fields, demonstrate entrepreneurship/career success in a SET field, or attribute 4-H SET involvement to success in education or career
- Number of individuals who sustain 4-H SET involvement as volunteer leaders, community or corporate SET decision-makers, and/or adult sponsors of 4-H SET activities

Citizenship and Volunteerism

Short-term measures of progress

- Number of hours in civic involvement
- Number of hours in community service
- Number of individuals increasing knowledge and/or skills in civic education, including the elections process
- Number of individuals gaining knowledge and/or skills related to volunteerism
- Number of individuals reporting positive attitude change and/or aspiration related to volunteering for civic activities, community service, and/or philanthropy
- Number of individuals indicating knowledge and/or skills learned related to leadership
- Number of individuals reporting positive attitude change and/or aspirations related to leadership
- Number of individuals indicating knowledge and/or skills gained related to effective youth-adult partnerships
- Number of individuals indicating positive attitude change and/or aspirations related to participate in youth-adult partnerships

Mid-term indicators reflecting application of knowledge and practice of skills

- Number of individuals engaged in the political/governance process, including registering to vote, attending meetings or governmental or civic organizations, presenting on civic boards, writing to elected or civil service officials, meeting with legislators, seeking office in a club or school, publishing letter(s) to the editor, or participating in the election process
- Number of individuals who increase volunteer responsibilities, including leading a community service project
- Number of individuals engaged in youth-adult partnerships, such as serving on a policy-making and/or advocacy board

Long-term indicators of personal or social change

- Number of individuals who enroll in a public service-related post-secondary education discipline, enter public-service-related career fields, demonstrate career success in a public service field, or attribute 4-H citizenship involvement to success in education or career
- Number of individuals who continue civic engagement as adults, including voting, working in the elections process, community or corporate service, and youth-adult partnership boards
- Number of individuals who serve as volunteers in youth civic engagement as leaders, community or corporate advocates for citizenship, and/or adult sponsors of citizenship activities

Healthy Living

Short-term measures of progress

- Number of individuals increasing knowledge of and/or skills for selecting healthy foods, including understanding food labels, personal dietary habits, portion sizes, and preparation of foods with reduced fat and/or calories
- Number of individuals improving attitudes toward and/or aspirations to improve nutritional habits such as eating healthy foods, decreasing sugar-sweetened beverages
- Number of individuals increasing knowledge of and/or skills in physical activity and reducing risk behaviors such as excessive screen time
- Number of individuals improving attitudes toward and/or aspirations to improve physical activity habits and reduce risk behaviors
- Number of individuals increasing knowledge of and/or skills in practicing healthy habits, including adequate sleep, personal hygiene, dental care
- Number of individuals improving attitudes toward and/or aspirations to improve health habits related to sleep, hygiene, dental care
- Number of individuals increasing knowledge and/or skills related to safety, including ATV, bike, hunter, and water sports
- Number of individuals increasing stress coping skills
- Number of individuals increasing refusal skills related to substance abuse and violence
- Number of individuals increasing knowledge of personal and community resources for mental health including where to seek help when facing depression, anxiety, suicidal thoughts, violence, addiction, or eating disorders

Mid-term indicators reflecting application of knowledge and practice of skills

- Number of individuals maintaining positive nutrition habits (identified via short-term indicators), with positive consequences such as weight control, reduction in health-related problems
- Number of individuals maintaining physical activity habits (identified via short-term indicators), with positive consequences as noted above

- Number of individuals maintaining safety practices (identified via short-term indicators) and decreasing injuries in targeted activities
- Number of individuals maintaining positive health habits (identified via short-term indicators) and decreasing risk behaviors

Long-term indicators of personal or social change

- Number of individuals who enroll in Health-related post-secondary education, enter Health-related career fields, demonstrate entrepreneurship/career success in a Health field, or attribute 4-H Healthy Lifestyles involvement to success in education or career
- Number of individuals who maintain healthy lifestyles into adulthood, including good nutrition, weight control, regular exercise, good mental health habits, safety habits, and risk avoidance
- Number of individuals who sustain involvement with youth health programs as volunteer leaders, community or corporate health decision-makers, and/or adult sponsors of 4-H healthy lifestyles activities

Life Skills Indicators across *all* mission mandates

- Communication
 - Number of individuals increasing skills in public speaking (short-term), then applying public speaking skills in another setting (long-term)
 - Number of individuals increasing skills in record-keeping (short-term), then applying writing skills to a more complex task (long-term)
 - Number of individuals increasing skills in interpersonal communication (short-term), then demonstrating competence in communicating as a leader (long-term)
- Goal-setting
 - Number of individuals increasing skills in setting and completing goals on a project (short-term), then applying skills to a self-directed or community leadership project or teaching skills to others (long-term)
- Critical thinking, Problem solving, Inquiry skills
 - Number of individuals increasing skills in reasoning on a project (short-term), then applying skills to a self-directed or group leadership project or teaching skills to others (long-term)
- Self-efficacy
 - Number of individuals increasing self-efficacy (confidence to perform), then attribute their confidence in a career or community service task to 4-H (long-term)
- Teamwork
 - Number of individuals increasing skills as a team member (short-term), then applying skills as a team leader (long-term)

Appendix B: Research Topics in Mission Mandate Areas

Science, Engineering, and Technology

- Comparative benefits of experiential, didactic, and mixed methods for youth of different ages, genders, or learning styles
- Comparative advantages of delivery systems in fostering learning
- Effectiveness of youth mentors in teaching science as inquiry
- Incidental and cumulative effects of 4-H in informal learning experiences relative to subject matter learning, process skills, and career interests

Citizenship and Volunteerism

- Patterns of participation and leadership in volunteerism and civic engagement
- Ecological factors that facilitate or inhibit volunteerism or civic engagement
- Understanding the effects of service on many youth outcomes

Healthy Living

- Short-term or long-term strategies or programs that are particularly effective in reduction of risk behavior or promotion of health behavior
- Understanding readiness to change in physical and mental health promotion

Participatory Evaluation with Youth: Building Skills for Community Action

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Participatory Evaluation with Youth: Building Skills for Community Action

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Abstract: This article describes an innovative training program that combines youth-adult partnerships, social inquiry, and community action as a method for effective youth engagement. Elements of the training are outlined, and program evaluation results are presented. In addition, several strategies for successful program replication are presented.

Introduction

Providing opportunities for youth engagement is a critical element of positive youth development programs (Gambone & Connell, 2004). At the same time, a lack of understanding of how to engage youth effectively persists. O'Donoghue, Kirshner, & McLaughlin (2006) outlined four common errors in understanding effective youth engagement:

- (1) placing youth on a board or committee is effective practice;
- (2) adults have to surrender all responsibility for guiding and mentoring youth;
- (3) adults are ready for active youth participation; and
- (4) youth are ready to participate.

While general consensus is that engaging youth is important, misconceptions of what youth engagement means, and a lack of training in effective youth engagement practices still linger. *Participatory Evaluation with Youth: Building Skills for Youth Community Action* (CYA), however, provides a good example of a training program that prepares youth for community engagement. The program trains youth and their adult partners to plan and host community forums in order to identify a community need that can be addressed by an action project.

Research and Evaluation as a Method for Youth Engagement

The CYA program is organized around the cycle of social inquiry, thus participants also gain skills in research and evaluation. Recent work by the Kellogg Foundation (2005) outlines eight pathways for youth civic engagement, including youth research and evaluation. Involving youth in participatory evaluation as a method for youth empowerment and engagement has received considerable recent attention (Checkoway & Gutierrez, 2006; Delgado, 2006; Sabo Flores, 2008). The benefits to youth participating in evaluation include developing social and civic competencies and self-confidence. Such participation also allows youth opportunity for identity exploration and building social capital. The handful of existing models and materials available to train youth and adults in participatory evaluation still need to be augmented and strengthened (cf. Camino, Zeldin, Mook, & O'Conner, 2004; Checkoway & Richards-Schuster, 2006; The Innovation Center, 2005). Thus, the CYA program was developed specifically to help youth and adult teams gain research skills, and at the same time, provide a model for effective civic engagement.

Program Outline

The CYA training schedule and activities follow Arnold and Wells (2007) participatory evaluation with youth curriculum. Training activities are highly interactive, hands-on and match the cycle of social inquiry. An outline of the training is provided in Table 1.

Table 1
Participatory Evaluation with Youth:
Building Skills for Youth Community Action Curriculum Outline

Topic	Purpose	Social Science Skills Developed
Youth-Adult Partnerships	To prepare youth and adults to work effectively as a team	Collaboration, Data collection, organization, analysis, and interpretation
Framing Community Issues	To determine a topic for a community forum	Develop research questions, Data collection and analysis
Community Forums	To prepare teams to plan and host a community forum	Data collection
Data Analysis	To develop skill in organizing, summarizing, and analyzing information	Data organization, analysis, and interpretation
Reporting and Action	To prepare youth to report results and plan an action project	Data interpretation, Reporting, Action planning

Youth-Adult Partnerships

Having youth work together in partnership with adults is a key strategy for building youth empowerment and engagement, but in order for these partnerships to be positive and productive it is necessary for youth and adult teams to receive training in how to work together

in a meaningful way. Research indicates that effective youth-adult partnerships have been shown to have a powerful affect on the youth and adults who enter into them; each party develops a deeper appreciation for the contribution the other can make (The Innovation Center, 2003; Zeldin, Petrokubi, & MacNeil, 2008). In addition, programs and communities uniquely benefit from the involvement of youth in projects designed to evaluate community needs and potential actions.

The CYA training begins with activities designed to help youth and adults work together as teams. Activities build on each other to help teams explore benefits and challenges of working together, assessing differences and similarities, and exposing potential problems (such as adultism). Each activity is debriefed before the next one is introduced. At the end of the session, participants are invited to reflect on their personal experience and learning and share their thoughts with the rest of the group. The session on youth-adult partnerships increases understanding between youth and adults and sets the stage for clear communication during the rest of the training and for future youth-adult interactions.

Preparing to Plan and Host a Community Forum

The majority of the training prepares teams to plan and host a community forum. To set the stage, the trainers host a "mock forum," where training staff are the hosts and moderators and training participants are the forum attendees. At the end of the mock forum, training staff highlight the various processes that contribute to the success of the forum, including moderator and recorder skills and techniques for facilitating audience participation. Following the mock forum, activities focus on helping participants identify appropriate forum topics, and each team brainstorms a potential topic for their forum. Later, the youth practice moderating and recording techniques during actual mini-forums held during the training. A debriefing session at the end of the mini-forums allows youth and adults opportunities to discuss possible solutions to problems that may arise during the forum.

Data Analysis, Reporting, & Action Planning

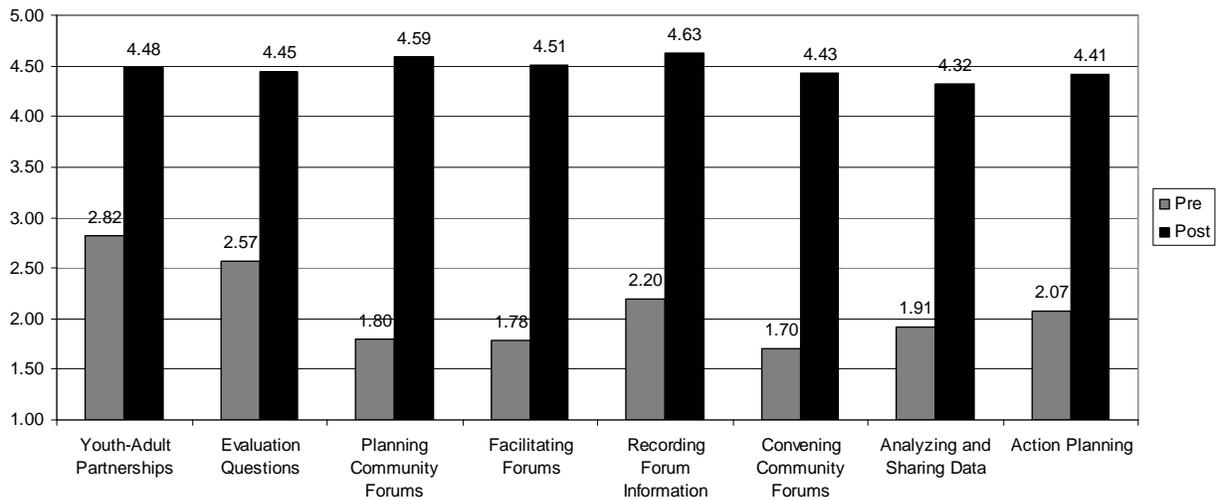
In addition to preparing for a community forum, a series of training activities teach youth how to organize and analyze the information gathered at a forum through a hands-on content analysis exercise. Each team completes a separate analysis of data gathered through a brainstorming exercise and shares their results with the larger group through a poster presentation, allowing an opportunity to practice reporting research findings. The training ends with a session on team action planning, providing participants with an understanding of the steps and strategies for effective action planning.

Program Evaluation and Impact

The CYA curriculum has been used to train 16 teams of youth and adults over the past two years. A formal evaluation conducted at the end of each session measured participant knowledge in each of the 8 topics covered in the training. As Figure 1 shows, there is a significant increase in participant learning for all topics as a result of the training ($p < .01$).

Figure 1

Change in participant knowledge of training topics pre to post (n = 56)



In addition, many of the teams have gone on to hold forums and complete action projects. These include refurbishing bleachers at a local high school, planning and hosting a series of community youth and family activity nights, and planting flowers to enhance a community in preparation for hosting the U. S. Olympic track and field trials.

Program Replication

The CYA curriculum outlines each of the training activities, including time, material, and space requirements, and is available for purchase from the authors. In addition to the curriculum, specific strategies are recommended for successful replication of the program in other areas:

1. Recruitment of youth-adult teams who are committed to the project is essential. We recommend at least 1 adult for every 5 to 7 youth. Adults need to be prepared to take an active role in supporting and mentoring the youth and share an enthusiasm to make the project happen. Adults need to attend every part of the training with the youth as a team, and not see themselves as just a chaperone.
2. Since activities build on each other, the training needs to take place in an intensive and extended format. We typically conduct the training over a weekend, beginning Friday evening before dinner and ending mid-day on Sunday. The training site needs to have adequate space with tables for team work and room for a semi-circle of chairs for a forum. There also needs to be ample wall space for each participant to have his or her own sheet of poster paper on which to write. In addition, it is helpful to train groups of teams together. Doing so allows for more interaction and sharing of ideas between teams as well as providing an overall more enthusiastic atmosphere.
3. Post-training support is essential; the most successful teams have been those who also have the participation and support of a paid staff person from a local youth-serving organization. In addition to supporting adult and youth members of a team, the paid staff person often has access to other resources for the project, such as meeting space, community connections, photocopying, and financial opportunities.
4. The weakest link in the program appears to be attendance at the community forum event. Despite widespread publicity, personal invitations, and promises to attend, it is

not uncommon that the forum audience is rather small. The most successful forums have been those held in conjunction with other events (like a school assembly). Even when the forum audience has been small, however, teams report the process of planning and hosting a forum to be valuable, with many indirect benefits, such as an increase in confidence and strengthened connections among team members.

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An Evaluation of the University of Illinois Extension Get Up & Move! Program

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An Evaluation of the University of Illinois Extension Get Up & Move! Program

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Abstract: Get Up & Move! is a program created by University of Illinois Extension to address childhood obesity. It provides ready-to-use materials for youth leaders to promote healthy lifestyles through physical fitness and healthy eating. The impact of the program on participants' physical activity was evaluated to see whether involvement produces an increase in physical activity to the USDA recommended 60 minutes per day. It was found that a significant increase in minutes of physical activity occurred in participants from an average of 51.88 minutes per day to an average of 58.84 minutes per day.

Introduction

The prevalence of obesity in children has been rapidly increasing in the last two decades, reaching epidemic proportions (National Center for Health Statistics, 1999-2002). There are many reasons cited as the causes of obesity in children. Genetic conditions such as Prader-Willi, Bardet-Biedl, and Cohen syndromes can also be associated with obesity, however these and endocrine conditions contribute only a small amount to the rising rates of obesity. (Greaser & Whyte, 2004; Philippas & Lo, 2005). It is speculated in children and adolescents that because the rate of childhood obesity has increased so quickly in recent years, changes in behavior of children are most likely a major cause of childhood obesity (Greaser & Whyte, 2004). The two main risk factors associated with overweight and obesity in children are poor eating habits and decreased physical activity (Nicklas & Johnson, 2004).

Children's lack of physical activity contributes significantly to the increased prevalence of obesity. In a study done by Trost, Kerr, Ward, and Pate in 2001, it was determined that obese children exhibited significantly lower daily amounts of moderate and vigorous physical activity (2001). Participation in sedentary behaviors, especially television viewing, video game playing, and computer usage, has been associated with increased risk of obesity in childhood (McMurray et al., 2000).

The Get Up & Move! program is part of an initiative created by University of Illinois Extension to address childhood obesity. The program was created as an optional educational programming activity for Illinois 4-H clubs. Program delivery through 4-H club meetings was chosen because of the following:

- 4-H clubs usually meet monthly and are required to meet at least six times per year.
- 4-H clubs traditionally have an education component delivered in a group setting that is prepared by club leaders, members, or provided by guest speakers. 4-H club leaders have expressed concern about providing education activities due to a lack of personal preparation/planning time, difficulty establishing a theme or on-going education component with the club.
- Most 4-H clubs serve refreshments at club meetings. The refreshments served often included high sugar, low-nutrient foods and beverages.
- 4-H club leaders are encouraged to include recreation (physical activity) as part of the club meeting. Club leaders and Extension staff were interested in new ideas for recreational activities.

Program Design

Each Get Up & Move! series includes information for leaders and/or volunteers to teach youth simple principles during a 10-15 minute educational segment on a nutrition or fitness topic. This is a 15-20 minute physical activity related to the topic. While nutrition and fitness topics change each month, they build upon each other during the year.

The objectives of the Get Up & Move! program are as follows:

- provide 4-H clubs/groups with ready-to-use materials
- promote healthy lifestyles through physical fitness and healthy eating
- provide youth leaders the opportunity to teach and model behavior with their peers
- provide fun, easy-to-use activities for club programs
- increase the number of minutes spent in physical activity for participants to average at least 60 minutes each day
- encourage healthy snacks at club/group meetings.

Lesson topics of the Get Up & Move! program include:

- MyPyramid
- healthy snacking
- building healthy bones
- protein and muscle
- whole grains and fiber
- nutrition facts labels
- aerobic activity
- outdoor exercising safety
- sports nutrition

Families and communities are so important in fostering healthy habits, thus, a new component was added to the third series of Get Up & Move! Each month, additional physical and social

activities are suggested in the forms of family activities and community activities. In all series, roll call suggestions related to the month's topic are offered and nutritious snack recipes are provided for use as a club snack. Members are informed about different 4-H project ideas and opportunities that involve that month's topic. 4-H youth are also provided with a monthly calendar where he or she can record physical activity (in minutes) each day, with space for weekly and monthly totals. Club members are encouraged to bring these monthly totals to club meetings, where the club leader will record the totals on the club's monthly total poster.

Methods

In order to evaluate the Get Up & Move! program and its impact on the involvement in physical activity of its participants, data was collected from children ages eight to eighteen from 4-H clubs in Illinois. This project was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Clubs were self-selected by their club leaders, and clubs were enrolled in one of three installments of the Get Up & Move! Program. Incentives for study enrollment were offered to club leaders in the form of activity equipment. The time frame for the study was twelve months.

Minutes of daily physical activity were self-reported by each club member onto a monthly calendar. Club leaders collected the calendars from club members and totaled each member's minutes of physical activity each month. Also collected from club leaders was a data sheet that indicated which components of the Get Up & Move! program the club utilized each month of the study. Data was analyzed using the SPSS program (SPSS, 2005).

Results

Data was collected from 104 children from ten 4-H clubs in Illinois for a period of twelve months, although not all clubs collected data for all of the months of the study. The mean minutes of physical activity for all participants in the first month of the program was 1556.69 minutes (51.89 minutes per day). In the last month of the program, the mean minutes of physical activity for all participants was 1765.26 minutes (58.84 minutes per day). This increase of 208.57 minutes was statistically significant at the .05 level ($\text{sig}=.022$), and participants became significantly closer to the USDA recommended goal of 60 minutes of physical activity per day (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services & U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2005). Further, the females in the sample ($n=69$) showed an increase in minutes of physical activity from first month to last month, and this difference was significant at the .05 level. ($\text{sig}=.035$). Males in the sample ($n=35$) showed an increase in minutes of physical activity from first month to last month of participation; however this was not a significant increase at the .05 level ($\text{sig}=.401$).

When participants were divided by club, eight of the ten 4-H clubs showed an increase in mean minutes of physical activity from the first month of participation to the last month of participation, and two of these clubs showed a significant increase ($\text{sig}=.041$, $.025$). Two clubs showed a decrease in mean minutes of physical activity, with one of these clubs showing a significant decrease ($\text{sig}=.007$). There seemed to be no significant relationship between the number of months using the Get Up & Move! program and change in physical activity minutes over time.

Feedback from parents indicated that families attempted to get more physical activity after their children became involved in Get Up & Move! Parents reported an increase in physical activities

done together with their children and less time spend participating in sedentary activities such as watching television.

Limitations

From the results of this study, participation in the Get Up & Move! program results in an increase in the amount of physical activity over time. However, since this study consisted of a small sample size (n=104) from only ten 4-H clubs from the state of Illinois who were participating in the Get Up & Move! program, the results may not be generalizable to all groups using this program.

It is not required for any 4-H club to enroll in the Get Up & Move! program. The clubs enrolled in Get Up & Move! study may be more interested and concerned with combating childhood obesity than those not enrolled in the program. Since the clubs involved in this study were self-selected from the clubs enrolled in Get Up & Move! the results showing an increase in physical activity may be falsely elevated.

Clubs who enrolled in the research study were offered an incentive in the form of an activity kit containing equipment for the program's activities. Perhaps clubs in an area of lower income or with a lower budget may be more inclined to participate because they need the incentive more than other clubs might. This would cause a difference in the clubs that participate compared to those who do not.

With the method of data collection utilized, other biases are introduced. The minutes of physical activity are derived by a self-report method from children aged eight to eighteen. This can introduce sources of error because subjects may inflate their data for many reasons, such as wanting to seem more active than they actually are. Parents of the children are encouraged to supervise this activity to ensure accuracy, but there is no way for the research team to enforce this. Therefore, there may be incorrect reporting of data.

Program Strengths

The success of the Get Up & Move! program in increasing participant's physical activity can be attributed to many factors. The nature of the program itself gives club leaders ready-to-use materials and scripts for lessons and activities, which minimizes the preparation leaders must do and allows for consistent dissemination of information to all groups. This ease of administration increases the likelihood that leaders will use the program with their clubs. Members participating in Get Up & Move! are also accountable for their physical activity levels in that they are encouraged to report physical activities they have done or tried at each club meeting.

The activities presented in Get Up & Move! were chosen to appeal to a wide range of ages, as 4-H clubs are comprised of members aged eight to eighteen. Many of the activities can be modified to be less or more challenging to accommodate groups with older or younger members. Activities were also chosen that do not require much equipment or special accommodations so that they are applicable to a variety of settings and spaces. Most activities can be held indoors or outdoors, eliminating the reliance on weather. Individual and group activities were included that can be modified for different-sized clubs. Informal interviews with school physical education teachers, coaches, and children were conducted to assess the feasibility and appeal of activities for club meetings.

The Get Up & Move! program also provides ideas to leaders, club members, and members' families about how to incorporate more physical activity into their lives. Feedback from parents shows that families attempted to get more physical activity after their children became involved in the program. In this respect, the sustainability of the program is promising, as behavior changes much be incorporated into one's life to be effective on a long-term basis.

Conclusion

This program can be readily implemented by other groups wishing to increase the physical activity levels of children. Based on the results of this study, children who participate in Get Up & Move! will show an increase in their levels of physical activity. In turn, these children will lead more healthy and active lifestyles, combating the increasing prevalence of overweight and obesity in this age group. The Get Up & Move! program materials are available at <http://www.4-h.uiuc.edu/opps/move/index.html>

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4-H Donated Meat Program: A Model for Service

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4-H Donated Meat Program: A Model for Service

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Abstract: Meat continues to be the most in-demand food item for the Utah Food Bank. To address this issue, the 4-H Donated Meat Program was started by a 4-H Club in Davis County, Utah. When Utah State University Extension Agents in Davis, Salt Lake, Weber, and Morgan Counties became involved in the program it expanded rapidly. The program was made possible through generous donations from corporations allowing for the purchase of market livestock exhibited by 4-H youth at county fair livestock sales. USDA certified processed meat was then donated to the Utah Food Bank for distribution to hungry families in the counties participating in the program. The program has grown rapidly. In 2005, two counties were involved with 3,000 pounds of meat donated to the food bank. By 2007, ten counties were involved with 70,000 pounds of meat donated. This program has become a model of service for hundreds of 4-H youth in Utah. This program may be duplicated in other states to meet the demand for meat at food banks across the nation.

Introduction

The United States continues to be one of the wealthiest and most prosperous countries in the world. Although America continues to prosper, there are people in this country that go hungry every day. In 2006, statistics for the United States reported 35.5 million people lived in households considered food insecure and 12.6 million of the 35.5 million were children (Food Research and Action Center, 2007).

The statistics on hunger in Utah are sobering. One out of ten people live in poverty. A family of four living in poverty makes just over \$20,600 a year to cover health care expenses, shelter, food and other household expenses (DeNavas, Proctor, & Smith, 2007). Utah is ranked 5th in the nation for the highest rate of food insecurity. More than 345,700 individuals are at risk of missing or skipping a meal due to a lack of resources (Nord, Andrews, & Carlson, 2007).

Household food insecurity is a serious concern with many implications for nutrition and health. Food insecurity has been associated with inadequate intake of several important nutrients, cognitive developmental deficits, behavioral and psychosocial dysfunction in children and adults, and poor health in children and adults (Cook, et al., 2006). Inability to purchase enough nutritious food and the resultant emotional or psychological stresses can contribute to adverse health effects or exacerbate poor health caused by other factors (Cook, et al., 2006).

Service is a major component of the 4-H program. In fact, part of the 4-H pledge identifies service, "I pledge... my hands to larger service, for my club, my community, my country and my world." 4-H experiences become transformational when youth are provided opportunities to belong, master skills, lead, and learn the meaning of service (Kress, 2003). 4-H youth enrolled in the 4-H Club in Davis County, Utah, wanted to find a way to incorporate the concept of service while helping to feed the hungry families of Utah. In 2005, under the leadership direction of 4-H leader, corporate donors, and Utah State University Extension, a model of service was created and implemented to make this concept become a reality.

Program Objectives

In order for this model of service to become successful, a number of objectives had to be identified. The 4-H Donated Meat Program objectives include:

1. Serve as a model of service for 4-H youth involved in Junior Livestock programs;
2. Supply much needed meat to hungry families in Utah;
3. Provide an avenue for corporations to fund both 4-H youth and the Utah Food Bank;
4. The distribution of donated meat would be based on funds collected from counties contributing;
5. All groups involved would claim ownership.

Program Methodology

During the first year of the program, the following steps were taken to implement the 4-H Donated Meat Program.

1. Corporate sponsors (businesses and individuals) were approached with the concept of supporting 4-H youth at the Junior Livestock Sale.
2. Corporate sponsors donated money to the 4-H Donated Meat Program fund. This fund was created under the umbrella of the Davis County Junior Livestock Program for management.
3. Donated funds were used to purchase livestock from 4-H youth at Junior Livestock Sales held at County Fairs. Livestock are either purchased directly from youth or funds are used to pay the "floor" or market price for those animals not purchased directly by buyers.
4. Livestock purchased at sales using Donated Meat Program funds were sent to packing houses to be processed. Beef, swine, and sheep were the livestock species used. The program requires that the packing houses must be USDA certified.
5. Utah State University Extension Agents in each participating county provided leadership for the logistics of getting the donated animals from the livestock sales to the packing houses.

6. Processing (slaughter and cut/wrap) fees for the livestock were paid by funds from the Donated Meat Program.
7. The Utah Food Bank transported the processed meat from the packing houses to their main warehouse in Salt Lake City using refrigerated trucks. Processed meat consists of primarily steaks, chops, roasts, and ground meat. Processed meat is stored at the Utah Food Bank in large freezer rooms until September.

In September, after all the fairs have ended and all of the meat has been processed and transported to the food bank warehouse, a media event and service project takes place. 4-H youth from the participating counties, travel to the Utah Food Bank warehouse. They then complete a service project during the event by sorting thousands of pounds of the processed and packaged meat into smaller boxes that are shipped to smaller county food bank pantries throughout the state. News channels, newspapers, and other media outlets attend the event to showcase the generous contributions made by corporate donors and 4-H youth.

Program Results

The outcomes of the 4-H Donated Meat Program have exceeded all expectations. In 2005, only two counties in Utah were involved in the program. In 2007, the program expanded to include nine counties in Utah and two counties in Wyoming. Table one lists the amount of meat donated to the food bank since 2005, along with the corresponding number of meals that were provided as a result of the donations.

Table 1

Amount of meat donated 2005-2007

Year	Pounds of meat donated	Number of meals provided
2005	3,000	12,000
2006	27,000	108,000
2007	70,000	280,000

As a result of this program a model of service was created called the "circle of service." The "circle of service" is outlined as follows:

- Businesses and organizations contribute funds;
- 4-H youth receive money from the sale of animals;
- Funds are then used for worthwhile causes;
- Meat is donated to families in need; and
- Gratitude is expressed to organizations and businesses.

The "circle of service" is now complete and can begin again each year.

One family that benefited from the donated meat program wrote the following in a "thank you" letter:

"We enjoyed eating the lamb meat given to us. Also, as you know it is part of our tradition as Latinos to prepare many kinds of delicious plates with lamb meat. Thanks to your generous donations, we had the chance to feed our family and to remember our rich culture."

Conclusion and Discussion

The 4-H Donated Meat Program can be replicated anywhere a Junior Livestock program exists. Businesses and individuals already contribute funds to support youth at county fair livestock sales. Instead of taking the animal home or sending the animal with the market or "floor" buyer, they simply need to donate the animal back to a local Donated Meat Program. Donated Meat Programs can be set up through their Junior Livestock program. Further funding may be solicited from corporate sponsors so that the animals may be processed and packaged into retail cuts at USDA certified facilities. University Extension is included as a partner for facilitating the program in each county. State food banks are included in the process early on because of their years of experience in obtaining and distributing food donations. The program continues to grow rapidly each year in Utah and the same results are possible in other states.

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Collective Leadership Works: Preparing Youth & Adults for Community Change

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Collective Leadership Works: Preparing Youth & Adults for Community Change

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Abstract: *Collective Leadership Works* is the latest resource kit developed by the Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development. The 181 page tool kit is filled with detailed lesson plans designed for youth and adult leadership activities. The resources will benefit groups at any stage of development. Contents have been divided into eight sections including Team Building, Youth-Adult Partnerships, Knowing Community and Place, Creating Ways to Come Together, Leadership and Relationship Development, Planning for Action, Reflection and Spreading the Word. Youth professionals will appreciate this well designed, interactive resource as they engage youth and adults in community building efforts.

Review

Collective Leadership Works (2008) is the latest tool kit published by the Innovation Center. This resource was designed as part of a Kellogg Leadership for Community Change initiative. The designers worked with five sites across the United States exploring the potential for collective leadership as they developed this highly interactive resource.

The 181 page tool kit is well designed with appropriate discussion topics, lesson plans, timelines, supply lists, handouts and reflection pieces. Youth professionals will appreciate the step-by-step guidelines included within each module as well as the individual and group activity components. The user friendly format was designed for use by youth and adult audiences who are working in community development, community building, and social justice efforts. The lessons can benefit groups at any stage of development from building a team to strengthening existing groups.

The contents have been divided into the following sections:

1. Building a Team
2. Youth-Adult Partnership skills
3. Know Community and Place

4. Creating Ways to Come Together
5. Individual leadership and Relationship Development
6. Planning for Action
7. Keeping Healthy: Strategies for Reflection and Learning
8. Spreading the Word

The *Collective Leadership Works* kit may be purchased from the Innovation Center for Youth and Community Development <http://www.theinnovationcenter.org/store/164> for \$39.99 or may be downloaded as a PDF attachment free of charge.

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