School's Out California

An Out-of-School-Time Program Guide

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A Message
from the State Superintendent of Public Instruction

I am delighted to present *School's Out California: An Out-of-School-Time Program Guide,* a publication that I believe will be instrumental in offering guidance to teachers, instructional aides, front-line staff, administrators, and families to ensure high-quality learning opportunities for all school-age children in before and after school programs. Everyone agrees that school-age children are energetic and enthusiastic learners. Developing their talents, interests, and motivation through before and after school programs will facilitate their capacity to be engaged, lifelong learners in academic, occupational, and personal undertakings.

School's Out California serves as a helpful tool for improving the academic achievement and well-being of California's school-age children. The guide was developed through a collaborative effort of many individuals and constituencies committed to quality school-age care. It represents the California Department of Education's ongoing commitment to out-of-school-time and after school programs.

Research shows that the time students have outside of the regular school day is critical to academic achievement. Before and after school programs offer a range of opportunities for recreational and academically enriching activities that are developmentally appropriate. It is my hope that this document will guide programs as they expand activities to promote the skill development of school-age children. Research-based strategies are offered throughout the guide, and they can be used to support all school-age children in California as they participate in a range of activities—including those that support the development of academic skills, character, and other cognitive and social–emotional capabilities.

This guide also serves to support the ongoing professional development of employees in out-of-school-time programs. The everyday actions of those on the front lines of quality care create the positive climate necessary for the benefits of personal and academic development activities to take hold. In turn, the everyday actions of supervisors and administrators support the ability of front-line staff, instructional aides, and teachers to bring about positive outcomes among school-age children.

Finally, this guide advocates a community approach to quality out-of-school-time programs. Positive outcomes are brought about by a coming together of caring and diverse individuals including parents, teachers, before and after school staff, community residents, and other stakeholders. It is my hope that the *School's Out California* program guide will be used as a resource for strengthening existing collaborations and forming new ones.

Tom Torlakson

Tom Torlakson
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

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CHAPTER 1

An Introduction to Out-of-School Care

The purpose of the *School's Out California* program guide is to provide direction to child and youth development professionals who work in out-of-school-time programs. The guide was written to help ensure that school-age children in California experience high-quality out-of-school-time programs wherever these types of programs are offered.

For the purposes of this guide, the term *school-age* refers to children and youths in kindergarten through eighth grade. Hence, the terms *children* and *youths* are often used interchangeably. However, as children approach and enter middle school they are more commonly referred to as *youths.* Out-of-school-time programs encompass all types of structured activities outside of the regular school day; they include organized activities such as sports and creative activities, as well as participation in youth-oriented clubs or chapters such as 4-H programs and Boys & Girls Clubs. Some programs operate before and after school, while others operate on weekends or during summer or intersession periods. Not all programs provide services for all age groups; some programs serve elementary school students, while others serve only middle school youths.

The Need for a Guide

To provide high-quality services, out-of-school-time programs must take into consideration many different issues. Out-of-school-time programs must provide effective behavioral guidance and coordinate strategically with parents. Programs are expected to support participants' academic achievement directly (for example, through homework assistance) and indirectly through various kinds of enrichment activities, including character develop-

ment, service-learning, sports, and creative projects. These programs are also expected to engage children and youths through interest-based activities. This requires informed, well-trained, and dedicated staff members at all levels. This guide provides tools to aid program staff members as they engage in their important work with children and youths.

This program guide is grounded in the field of child and adolescent development and contains a glossary at the end of each chapter. It is written in consideration of the range of professional expertise among individuals who work in out-of-school-time programs. For some readers, the content in the guide may amount to a review of prior learning. The challenge in this case would be to actively engage staff members to ensure the application of the information in their out-of-school-time program. This might involve training other staff members to ensure their mastery of the content and facilitating implementation and change efforts. The content of the guide can be incorporated into existing training activities and topics, such as Developmental Trends and Behavioral Guidance, and used to develop new training activities.

Other professionals may be less familiar with the information in this guide, such as the developmental theories and trends that are offered. In this case the challenge is to participate in trainings and other learning activities that facilitate content mastery and skill development. Regardless of the skill levels of the professionals who explore this guide, it is hoped that the information in this document will help to foster and maintain high-quality out-of-school-time programs.

This guide is designed to help out-of-school-time program professionals develop and refine their understanding of content relevant to promoting positive outcomes among children and youths. The guide offers relevant knowledge and strategies that connect to high-quality practices. Research-based strategies are provided throughout. Sequenced and detailed strategies are included at the end of chapters 2–6.

Types of Out-of-School-Time Programs

There are several types of out-of-school-time programs in California. Some programs—for example, 4-H youth development programs—focus on life skills such as leadership development. In building leaders, 4-H programs engage youths through science, engineering, and technology projects; community service; and by promoting healthful activities, projects, and behavior among children and youths. Other programs, such as Camp Fire USA and Boy and Girl Scouts, promote leadership and self-development through a variety of service and character development activities. Other programs are offered through nonprofit and for-profit organizations and include child care centers, family care, city parks and recreation programs, and learning centers. Some programs are administered at elementary and middle school sites. In addition, some programs and activities are fee-based.

General child care and development programs are state- and federally funded programs. These are centers and family child care home networks operated or administered by either public or private agencies and

local educational agencies (LEAs). These agencies provide child development services for children from birth through age twelve and for older children with exceptional needs. These programs provide an educational component and coordinate with community agencies to bring about needed services.

After School Education and Safety (ASES) programs are funded by Proposition 49, which was passed by California voters in 2002. ASES programs are awarded to LEAs, which may subcontract with a Community Based Organization (CBO). These include city municipalities or nonprofit organizations such as the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) or Boys & Girls Clubs. According to the CDE, ASES programs include two components. The educational and literacy component focuses on academic development and includes tutoring and homework assistance in core academic subjects. The second educational enrichment component includes activities designed to complement academic development. These include a variety of skill development activities, such as recreation and sports, conflict resolution, character development, service-learning, and activities based on students' needs and interests. Other before and after school programs are funded by the 21st Century Community Learning Centers program, a federally funded initiative that provides academic enrichment in core subjects to qualified students during out-of-school-time hours. Regional Leads are available as resources to programs. Regional Leads provide training and technical assistance to out-of-school-time programs, and there are 11 geographic regions identified in California. The CDE Web site provides contact information for each region.

Migrant child care and development programs serve the children of agricultural workers while their parents are at work. The centers are open for different lengths of time during the year, depending largely on the harvest activities in the area. Flexible services that follow migrant families as they relocate are also offered.

Where Out-of-School-Time Programs Are Located

Out-of-school-time programs operate in almost every city and county throughout California. These programs are housed in diverse organizations—public and private, nonprofit and for-profit, faith-based and subsidized. A directory of ASES and 21st Century Community Learning Center programs is available through the California AfterSchool Network Web site. A directory of licensed child care centers is available through the Community Care Licensing Division (CCLD) of the California Department of Social Services. Visit the CCLD Web site to search for a licensed facility.

How Out-of-School-Time Programs Are Staffed

Out-of-school-time programs are staffed by diverse professionals. Individuals working directly with children and youths are typically referred to as front-line staff. Depending on the type of program, specific job titles may vary. Examples include extended-day teacher, youth or child care worker, program leader, and instructional aide. At the supervisory level, individuals oversee staff and operations at one or more program sites. Specific job titles include site coordinator, director, or supervisor.

At the managerial or administrative level, individuals oversee entire programs, and their responsibilities include program development, finances and budgeting, staff development, quality assurance, program compliance and evaluation, and maintaining public and community relations.

Types of Professionals Who Work in Out-of-School-Time Programs

Professionals who work in out-of-school-time programs come from many disciplines of academic study, including child and adolescent development, psychology, history, sociology, education, and social work. Some begin working in out-of-school-time programs after high school and continue as they pursue higher education. Those programs often have specific staffing requirements. For example, directors or teachers who provide out-of-school care in licensed child or family care centers must meet specific educational requirements determined by the CCLD. In ASES programs, front-line staff must pass a district qualifications exam for the paraprofessional or instructional aide classification and/or demonstrate two years of college studies. Regardless of their respective positions, program professionals are expected to engage in ongoing professional development, and all of these professionals share a passion for working with and inspiring children and youths to meet their fullest potential.

How and Why Out-of-School-Time Programs and Professionals Matter

Children and youths may spend as many as 80 hours per month in out-of-school-time programs, which is almost 1,000 hours per year. This presents significant opportunities

to impact and promote positive outcomes for children and youths by using this time constructively (Scales, Sesma, and Bolstrom 2003). The benefits of high-quality programs are well documented. Durlak and Weissberg (2007) analyzed the results of 66 studies comparing children and youths who participated in out-of-school-time programs to children and youths who did not participate. Their analysis found that certain types of programs were more effective than others with regard to enhancing self-perceptions, behavioral conduct, and academic achievement.

Effective programs met four criteria. First, they were developed with ordered or sequential activities designed to achieve particular outcomes. Second, effective programs utilized active learning techniques. *Active learning* generally refers to children and youths being involved in constructing or making meaning out of learning and enrichment activities. Third, effective programs set aside time to focus on the development of clearly defined or explicit skills. Fourth, effective programs used evidenced-based methods to facilitate outcomes. Durlak and Weissberg (2007) also

noted the importance of carrying out strategic activities with fidelity. This involves continuously assessing whether the strategies used are consistent with the evidence-based techniques found to promote specific outcomes. Thus the researchers dubbed effective programs as sequenced, with active learning that is focused and explicit (SAFE).

In a comprehensive study of the Los Angeles Better Educated Students for Tomorrow (LA's BEST) program, Goldschmidt and Huang (2007) found that youth participation promoted academic achievement and reduced delinquent activities, in contrast to comparable youths who attended similar schools but didn't participate. Positive effects were enhanced by ongoing exposure to the program (years of participation), frequency of participation, and by the presence of more adults (volunteers) in the program. Ongoing attendance in after school programs is especially important in facilitating positive outcomes for low-income children (Vandell, Pierce, and Dadisman 2005). Having well-trained staff is also important in order for programs to be successful (Raley, Grossman, and Walker 2005). Family involvement and engagement are also essential. Parental, family, and caregiver involvement with programs facilitate mutually supportive, consistent, and workable strategies that promote positive youth outcomes (Bronfenbrenner 2005).

Program Quality and Quality Assessment Tools

Quality assessment tools provide programs with criteria by which they can gauge the quality of their program and identify strategies toward improvement. One such tool is the California AfterSchool Program Quality Self-Assessment Tool, which assesses quality in 11 areas:

1. Program design and assessment
2. Program administration and finance
3. Community partnerships and collaboration
4. Alignment and linkages with the school day
5. Program environment and safety
6. Youth development
7. Staff recruitment and professional development
8. Family involvement
9. Nutrition and physical activity
10. Promoting diversity, access, equity, and inclusion
11. Effectively supporting English learners

Regional Leads can provide out-of-school-time programs with information and training on how to use this self-assessment tool. The tool and a related user guide are available through the California AfterSchool Network Web site.

Another quality assessment tool is the Desired Results system developed by the CDE's Early Education and Support Division. This system is designed for children from birth to age thirteen and can also be used for children with disabilities. The Early Education and Support Division defines a desired result as a condition of well-being for children and families.

There are six desired results for children and families: (1) children are personally and socially competent, (2) children are effective learners, (3) children show physical and motor competence, (4) children are safe and healthy, (5) families support their child's learning and development, and (6) families achieve their goals. Child development programs can receive training on how to promote desired results using indicators that reflect these areas. This training can help child development programs to understand how they impact children's well-being and development. The CDE Web site provides an introduction to the Desired Results system.

Organization of the Content

This program guide covers several topics. Chapter 2 focuses on working with school-age children. Theoretical perspectives, corresponding implications for practice, an overview of developmental trends, and their relation to California's academic content standards are discussed. Issues relevant to working with children with special needs are also addressed. Chapter 3 covers program development and behavioral guidance, and chapter 4 discusses the creation of high-quality environments for out-of-school-time programs. In chapter 5, managerial issues such as staff development and program evaluation are covered. The guide closes with chapter 6, which discusses the topic of establishing partnerships with parents, schools, and communities.

Additional Resources

California School-Age Consortium (CalSAC)	CalSAC provides free and low-cost training to out-of-school-time programs on a variety of topics, including working with school-age children and behavioral guidance. CalSAC is also involved in leadership development, capacity building and grassroots advocacy.
California Department of Education, Early Education and Support Division	The Early Education and Support Division of the California Department of Education provides resources and important information for child development contractors—including Desired Results, management bulletins, forms, fiscal services, child development permits, and data reporting.
California AfterSchool Network	The California AfterSchool Network provides support to programs through virtual (telephone) workshops, links to funding sources, and publications about out-of-school-time programs.
California AfterSchool Program Quality Self-Assessment Tool	This tool allows programs to carry out a self-assessment in 11 key areas, including youth development, program design and assessment, and family involvement. Programs can assess their level of quality for each component by using a four-point rating scale. Training on how to use the scale is available to any out-of-school-time program provider through a designated Regional Lead.
CDE Desired Results System: Reference Materials and Forms	This site provides reference tools and materials related to the Desired Results system.
Environment Rating Scales for School-Age Care	This tool is designed to assess the quality of various processes in out-of-school-time program activities, including program structure and interactions between children and staff.
California Healthy Kids Resource Center	The California Healthy Kids Resource Center provides a library of extensive resources pertaining to health education, including curricula and DVDs. Materials can be borrowed from the center free of charge.
National AfterSchool Association	The National AfterSchool Association is a leading voice in youth development work. The organization is dedicated to the education, development, and care of children and youths during out-of-school time.
21st Century Community Learning Centers	This U.S. Department of Education site provides comprehensive information about the 21st Century Community Learning Centers program.

Glossary

academic achievement. The level of mastery and progress made in school subjects. There are different ways to measure academic achievement, such as grades, test scores, and other ways of demonstrating knowledge and understanding.

English learners (also known as *English-language learners*). Persons for whom English is not their first language, and/or children for whom a language other than English is frequently spoken in the home.

evidence-based. Refers to practices or policies that are consistent with practices that have been found to be effective. Evidence-based practices require an analysis of whether there is research-based proof that a given practice brings about the goal or desired outcome.

SAFE. An acronym that refers to programming that is ***s****equenced,* in that it builds skills in an orderly and logical fashion; ***a****ctively engages* children and youths in the process; and is ***f****ocused* such that programs make time for building ***e****xplicit* (clearly defined) skills.

school-age. Children and youths in kindergarten through grade eight.

stakeholder. A person or group that has a strong interest in an organization, often because of mutual goals or concerns. Examples include parents, community residents, or professionals in a community service organization.

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CHAPTER 2

Working with School-Age Children and Youths

In working with school-age children and youths, it is important to understand the nature of children's development, along with developmental trends. To explain the nature of children's development, several theories or perspectives of development will be covered in this chapter. Each perspective offers a unique insight that can be used to promote positive outcomes. Some perspectives may be more relevant in particular circumstances. Although each perspective has many uses that will be explored, the focus for each perspective will be to address the question of *Why do children sometimes neglect to listen (i.e., follow directions, abide by rules, or wait their turn)?* Developmental trends reflect patterns of behavior, thought, and relationships across time and age.

Perspectives of Development

Constructivist perspectives

The constructivist perspective offers two models. First, there is the long-standing *cognitive constructivist* perspective originally articulated by Jean Piaget (Ginsburg and Opper 1988). This perspective examines how children construct their understandings about reality, including such things as academic concepts, rules to follow, and how they should relate to others. Generally, the constructivist perspective states that ideas develop from something simpler to something more complex. Children construct ideas by first using understandings they already have to make sense of everyday experiences. Next, they adapt their ideas to better understand experiences and function effectively. The motivation for children and youths to adapt their ideas comes from realizing that their understandings do not quite fit with their experiences. Therefore, they modify existing ideas to better fit with experiences.

Consider how a child might "construct" an understanding of the concept of "dog." The child's initial exposure to a dog might be with a family pet—for example, a poodle. Therefore the child's understanding relates to her experience of what the family pet looks like. As the child encounters other dogs over time and through repeated exposure, she recognizes certain similarities, such as barking and having four legs. The child comes to realize that other animals (e.g., collies and German shepherds) are also dogs. Hence, her understanding becomes broader but not precise. For instance, how would the child know, upon seeing a coyote in a field, that the coyote is not a dog? She is likely to assume the coyote is a dog, especially if it barks. Let's assume the child asks, "What type of dog is that?" If someone says, "That's not a dog; it's a coyote," the child may realize that some four-legged animals that bark and have a certain outward appearance are not dogs. Over time, the child's understanding of "dog" becomes more precise and complex as she builds different groupings, such as big versus small, mean versus friendly, collie versus dalmatian, hound versus terrier. The types of groupings a child builds depend on a combination of her experiences and the sense she makes of these experiences in her own mind.

Piaget used specific terms such as *schemata, assimilation, accommodation, equilibrium,* and *disequilibrium* to explain a child's construction of knowledge. Schemata reflect mental representations, such as a set of beliefs. Assimilation involves using existing beliefs to make sense of experiences. Accommodation involves modifying beliefs as one encounters situations that do not quite match one's schemata. Individuals accommodate because they are not comfortable with the disconnection between their beliefs and what they are experiencing. Piaget called this disconnection *disequilibrium.* To get back to a state of balance (or *equilibrium*) where children's schemata better fit with their experiences, children adapt or accommodate their beliefs to add new experiences. Accommodation helps children to expand their horizons and function more effectively.

These terms are applied below, with respect to the prior example of a child's construction of the concept of "dog":

1. The child's exposure to dogs is limited, focusing on the family pet. The child's **schemata** of what makes a dog a dog is also limited.
2. The child encounters other kinds of dogs—such as golden retrievers, German shepherds, and collies—through various exposures. This may include visiting the homes of relatives and playmates. Even though the child is less familiar with these specific types of dogs, she labels them as "dogs" just the same. In other words, the child **assimilates** by using what she knows to make sense of new experiences.
3. **Disequilibrium** also occurs as the child realizes that not all dogs are the same.
4. **Accommodation** happens as the child's understanding of "dog" becomes broader to include all of these new representatives (i.e., golden retrievers, collies, and German shepherds).
5. **Assimilation** happens again when the child sees a coyote and thinks of it as a dog.

6. **Disequilibrium** occurs as the child realizes that some four-legged animals that bark and resemble dogs are not dogs. There is something else called a coyote.
7. **Accommodation** also occurs when the child realizes certain limits to the "dog" concept. A dog is something different from whatever a coyote is.
8. **Equilibrium** occurs when the aforementioned steps move the child toward being able to make proper sense of what she experiences; in other words, her understandings and experiences match better.
9. **Schemata** regarding the concept of "dogs" have expanded over time, through the child's own mental activities and construction of knowledge.

According to this perspective, why do children sometimes neglect to listen (that is, follow directions, abide by rules, or wait their turn)? Children's schemata about these matters are different from the schemata of staff members. When staff members provide directions to children, such as asking them to wait for their turn, it is with adult understanding and appreciation that (a) waiting one's turn allows an activity to be orderly and decreases the likelihood of conflicts, (b) there will be less confusion, and (c) all children should and will be allowed to benefit from the activity. Children's schemata are likely more focused on excitement about the activity and on having fun. They may also have the idea that because they do not get to do this kind of activity in other places, they need to get all they can. In addition, unlike adults, many children do not have schemata sufficiently developed to consistently delay gratification. Children tend to operate according to their own schemata, and not the schemata of staff members.

So, how do you promote more mature schemata? Ask questions to help children connect the dots for themselves:

"What do you think will happen if everyone starts to cut the line?"

"Why do you think I asked that everyone wait their turn?"

"What is the purpose of walking to the next room, as opposed to running?"

This perspective says you cannot just open up children's heads and pour in ideas. Ideas are more likely to stick with children when they play a primary role in constructing them. This takes time. In helping children to construct ideas, it is important to tap into what they already understand. Although children probably could answer the previous questions, if they were unable to do so, staff could remind them about a past situation where everyone was trying to do something at the same time, or running, and problems occurred.

Other applications of this perspective include working to build academic understandings. Suppose that during a lesson, a staff member is teaching children about fractions. The staff member takes great pains to help the children understand how fractions work. This includes dividing wholes into parts, explaining the terms *numerator* and *denominator,* and using cards to represent one-half, one-third, and one-fourth. The staff member places five pennies on a table and asks, "What is one-fifth?" Several children either do not know or give inaccurate answers. Children constructed the information differently. Their

ideas about the meaning or relevance of what was communicated went in different directions. In this example, a better frame of reference with which to begin might be to ask the children about their experiences with things being divided or broken down into parts—as when only a small number of children in a large group can play tetherball at one time. In providing homework assistance to children, it is necessary to provide ongoing monitoring of their ideas or schemata about topics, so that they can construct accurate and relevant understandings. It is important to find ways to link new content with things that children already understand.

Another important application of Piaget's constructivist theory is that optimal challenge promotes development. *Optimal* refers to challenges that are just above children's ability level. Children should have enough knowledge to take on a task and be successful with appropriate guidance.

Social constructivism was first articulated by Lev Vygotsky ([1934] 1986). This perspective emphasizes how significant and more experienced "others"—such as parents, other important adults, and peers—shape how children interpret events and construct meaning. In contrast to Piaget, who emphasized children's independent construction of reality through their own mental works, Vygotsky emphasized how significant others provided the *lens* children use to interpret and understand events. Consider the experiences of two different children with dogs.

INPUT	INPUT
Child 1 is raised in a home where dogs are not allowed. The parents are apprehensive of dogs as a result of their own history. The child understands that dogs are something that other people have as pets and has been warned by her parents to keep away from dogs for various reasons (e.g., because dogs bite and carry rabies).	**Child 2** is raised in a home where the parents are dog breeders who raise different types of dogs and involve their children in the family business. This child assists in caring for the animals and recordkeeping.
OUTPUT	**OUTPUT**
Child 1 has a conception of dogs that may end up being more academic and superficial. This child's understanding is based on what she has read or been told. Her view of dogs may emphasize the animals' role as predators more so than as domesticated animals.	**Child 2** has a conception of dogs that might go beyond a simple family pet to include an elaborate understanding of dog categories and breeds, good breeding practices, what constitutes a purebred, and best practices for training dogs of different breeds. This child's view of dogs may focus more on the animals' potential as a profitable business than on the more typical view of dogs as pets.

Social constructivism is relevant to the everyday experiences of children, youths, and staff. Consider a youth worker who is working with children to resolve conflicts. The children's interpretation of the conflict and the appropriate response vary according to how the children have been taught. In some families, children are taught that responding to aggression with aggression is appropriate. Therefore, even though retaliation may be against the program's approach and expectations, some children may not comply with that approach because they perceive that failing to retaliate represents something different, such as cowardice or being perceived as weak. The significance of the lens is also evident in children's everyday speech or mannerisms that may not be consistent with what staff consider acceptable. However, if children routinely observe such speech and mannerisms, and mimic them without notice or consequences, they perceive them as natural and acceptable.

For a child to "buy into" rules or expectations that differ from his or her own, negotiation is often required. Staff may negotiate by explaining to children and youths that what is acceptable at the program may differ from other places, but the rules of the program need to be followed while participants are on site. Although school-age children are capable of making such distinctions, it is difficult for them to abide by expectations that contradict what they experience at home and in community schooling, or what they see as natural. It may be useful to come up with reasons for buying into program rules and expectations that complement (rather than oppose) home or community schooling. For instance, staff may want to talk with children and youths about how self-control requires courage and self-confidence, or how aggressive retaliation allows someone else to potentially control their outcomes and consequences. This may make it easier for children to accept and abide by program rules and expectations.

Informal dialogue with children and youths about self-control and restraint in response to name calling and other taunts helps impact the lens they use to interpret and therefore respond to situations. This is reflected by talking to children about how it makes sense not to respond to names that do not reflect who they are. For example, if a child/youth named Jennifer were walking down the street and someone called out, "Suzanne," Jennifer probably would not recognize the person as referring to her. Even if Jennifer understood that this person was directing the name "Suzanne" to her, she would likely correct the person by saying "My name is Jennifer." If the person continued to call Jennifer "Suzanne," it would not be reasonable for Jennifer to argue with that person or become upset; getting into an argument or fight over this matter would have allowed the nonsensical actions of another person to potentially get Jennifer into trouble and divert her from more positive behaviors, such as homework or other skill building. Using analogies such as the following might also help to make a similar point: "One hundred people can look at a red book and call it a blue book until the end of time. However, will that change the color of the book?" Talking with children about the importance of how they view themselves may help. Such conversations should occur in the context of a sincere and caring relationship. Moreover, staff members must model

the behaviors they advocate so that program participants will be more inclined to practice those behaviors.

Another application of social constructivism is what Vygotsky called "scaffolding." Scaffolding provides support for learning, whether academic or social. Scaffolding involves taking children from a point of dependent mastery—where they perform successfully at a task only with guidance and assistance from another person who is more knowledgeable and skilled—to a point where they can perform that same task successfully and independently, without guidance or assistance. Consider a staff member who is helping a child/youth in converting fractions such as $\frac{5}{9}$ and $\frac{3}{12}$ using the least common denominator or multiple. The first step is to find the least common denominator or multiple, and the second step is to convert the original fractions to their respective equivalent fractions using the common denominator or multiple. Children and youths need to understand the procedures and the logic of the procedures to be proficient. With scaffolding, the guide would provide a lot of initial assistance, structure, and explanation, such as writing out each step, giving explicit directions, and offering conceptual support. The child's conceptual and procedural understanding would also be monitored as he went about completing the task. As the child begins to grasp the procedures and logic, and complete steps on his own, less guidance and instruction are provided. Prompts and feedback would be given if the child seems stuck. The general idea is to give less guidance to the child as he is able to do more on his own.

Vygotsky identified the "zone of proximal development" as the space from the point of dependent mastery, where the child needs explicit direction and structure, to the point of independent mastery, where she can solve such problems on her own. Ideally, this zone should begin just above the child's ability level. In other words, the child would have mastered all of the prerequisite skills such that she is now ready to convert fractions using the least common denominator. In reality, though, staff members are responsible for providing homework assistance in situations where children do not have the prerequisite understanding or skills. It is important to be mindful of this and to work to provide background information, as authentic homework assistance is not possible when children and youths do not have the necessary academic understanding. Numerous resources are available to support staff in providing authentic homework assistance to participants. School districts may have software, staff development activities, or other materials that support the mastery of skills, and the Internet offers many resources on this subject.

According to this perspective, why do children sometimes neglect to listen (that is, follow directions, abide by rules, or wait their turn)? Children and staff use different lenses regarding expectations and requirements. The mature adult lens says that structure and order in games and activities, as well as opportunities for all children to participate, are most important. The child lens, in contrast, is more about having fun, being carefree, and not delaying gratification. Children come by their lens in many ways. They are influenced by the beliefs and activities of friends and children in the program. The

importance of having fun versus following rules may also be observed and emphasized through various experiences. Also, the importance of following directions from staff or adults in general varies across families. When children disregard rules at home without facing consequences, they may not have the belief that following rules in other environments is important. This perspective suggests that children need mentoring from people with more experience to (a) help them understand why structure, orderliness, and fair treatment are important; and (b) develop abilities to act accordingly (such as patience).

Information or Cognitive Processing Perspective

The information or cognitive processing perspective helps one to understand development by examining details of the thinking process, addressing questions such as the following: How, specifically, do children understand or represent information in their minds? How do children and youths go about the tasks of learning and remembering? What are their steps in problem solving (whether academically or socially)? Although there are many applications of this theory, one that might be particularly relevant to programs is the use of graphic organizers to understand and facilitate children's thinking on various subjects.

Graphic organizers serve to organize text information spatially, such that information is pieced together in appropriate ways. Consider the spider graphic organizer. To picture what this looks like, think of the round body of a spider as the main concept, each leg as a main idea, and hairs extending from each leg as details that correspond to a main idea. Spider maps represent information graphically to help children focus on a single topic and understand the main points and the details supporting those points. For example, consider the parts of speech as a central topic presented in the body of the spider, with various parts of speech such as nouns, articles, verbs, and adjectives as the main points representing legs. Details corresponding to each leg could provide defining components and examples. Having children identify what they know about the various parts of speech as main points and put details in the graph would provide staff with clues about how children understand this information.

Graphic organizers can be adapted according to content and children's needs. There are many types of graphic organizers, each serving a different purpose. Some identify cause and effect, and others are used to identify and understand a chain of events. Graphic organizers can also be used to enhance children's thinking. When details are missing or are connected to inaccurate main points, staff can address these issues by redirecting children toward appropriate understandings. Various graphic organizers can be found online at Enchanted Learning.com.

The information or cognitive processing perspective is also concerned with how children work with information. This includes the aspects of information that children attend to, how they attempt to remember information, and their awareness of and attempts to control or regulate their learning. Activities that help children develop strategies for learning are consistent with this approach. This would involve not only teaching children good study skills, but also encouraging them to be thoughtful about what they gained from these strategies and how to improve their study skills.

According to this perspective, why do children sometimes neglect to listen (that is, follow directions, abide by rules, or wait their turn)? One can look to how the information is represented in the minds of staff compared with children. In using a spider map to represent an activity whereby children practice shooting basketballs, we can say that both children and staff have in the center "Shooting Basketballs." However, main points and details for staff and children may differ in the following ways.

Staff Main Points (details)	Children Main Points (details)
Appropriate structure (fair and orderly, children should take turns and limit themselves to three shots, and children should be courteous while waiting)	Fun (I enjoy shooting baskets)
Enrichment (learning the value of practice, eye–hand coordination, focus)	Fun (I get to impress my friends and strut my stuff)
Recreation part of the program (fun)	Fun (I don't get to do this at home)
	What staff expect (be good, wait for my chance)

Therefore children's attention and memory with respect to staff expectations compete with other ideas. This would suggest that program staff need to keep rules and expectations prominent in children's minds. Posting expectations on signs, monitoring children, and offering verbal reminders would be useful.

The Behaviorist Perspective

This perspective explains how children's actions and reactions are guided by associations. There are two ways in which behaviors are guided by association. The first is called *classical conditioning* and pertains to how children have learned to give special meaning to something such as a person, academic subject, or place that was at one point relatively neutral. Think about your gut reaction to certain words, such as *rodent, butter,* and *gold.* In reality these are arbitrary labels that mean nothing without interpretation. Such interpretations include emotional responses. Children and youths also come to interpret and respond to people, places, and academic subjects. Think of one's gut reaction to art or gym class versus trigonometry. Classical conditioning can therefore impact children's openness and willingness to engage in activities. When people, events, and subjects are associated with painful emotions such as frustration and anxiety, children and youths develop an aversion to such people, events, and subjects. However, when people, events, and subjects are associated with positive feelings such as relaxation and freedom, children and youths develop more of an affinity for those people, events, and subjects. Although such learned reactions vary with children's personal experiences, staff can reduce the likelihood that painful emotions will take over by making difficult activities less intimidating—whether the activities involve language arts or algebra. This can be achieved by breaking down tasks; being enthusiastic; making tasks enjoyable, understandable, and user-friendly; and providing optimal challenges.

The second way in which associations relate to behaviors is through *operant conditioning.* With operant conditioning, consequences that follow a behavior either reinforce (making repeated behaviors more likely) or punish (making said behaviors less likely). There are different kinds of reinforcement. Positive reinforcement includes pleasant consequences that follow behavior, such as rewards, acknowledgments, and attention. Positive reinforcement is a routine experience in many programs, as children often receive pleasant consequences such as extra privileges, attention, and praise for appropriate behaviors. However, positive reinforcement can also maintain inappropriate behaviors. An example is when children and youths receive attention or accolades from staff or peers as consequences of inappropriate behaviors. The children enjoy the added attention, which is experienced as a reward.

Negative reinforcement involves the removal of something unpleasant following a behavior. Behavior that led to the removal of the unpleasant event or activity tends to be repeated. Consider a child who is uncomfortable, bored, or frustrated with a given activity. The child responds by causing the activity to be disrupted or canceled and therefore no longer feels bored or frustrated. Behavior that led to the disruption or cancelation is reinforced. An example

is when staff members observe that children are trying to avoid doing their homework by saying they do not have any or by hurrying through it without regard to completeness or accuracy. When this behavior leads to a reduction or elimination of homework time, the behavior would be reinforced and most likely would be repeated. Staff can avoid this negative reinforcement by assigning additional and comparable tasks, such as supplemental work on a topic, and reviewing homework carefully. It is also important to address what is unpleasant and leads children to these behaviors. Helping children with conceptual understanding on relevant academic subjects may improve attitudes toward homework. Scheduling homework activities at optimal times—for example, when children have had a sufficient break from regular school-day activities—may also be useful.

Positive Reinforcement	Negative Reinforcement
A. Child behaves in a certain way. B. Child is rewarded for behaving in said way. C. Child is likely to repeat the action that led to the reward.	A. Something is unpleasant, such as the child not liking an activity or feeling uncomfortable, frustrated, or anxious. B. Child acts in a certain way, and the unpleasant situation—whether it is the activity, anxiety, or frustration—is removed. C. Child is likely to repeat the behavior that removed the unpleasant circumstance.

Punishment can be thought of as a deterrent. One type of punishment involves the presentation of something undesirable following inappropriate behavior, such as added chores to reduce the likelihood that the behavior will be repeated. A second type involves removing something desirable following inappropriate behavior, such as participation in a recreational activity. In general, punishment as a singular behavioral guidance strategy is not recommended. When or if removal punishment occurs, it should be used as a secondary option to behavioral guidance strategies that teach and support children and youths toward more appropriate behaviors.

According to this perspective, why do children sometimes neglect to listen (that is, follow directions, abide by rules, or wait their turn)? With classical conditioning, the emotions that are attached to certain outcomes or situations are important. When children experience these outcomes or situations as unpleasant, such as waiting when one wants to act, or following rules that compete with one's wishes, they are more resistant. This suggests that helping children understand the value of expectations and how they benefit would help. Staff could prompt children to relax or think of something pleasant while they wait for their turn at an activity. For operant conditioning, acting is more rewarding than waiting, which encourages children to continue the behavior. Not following the rules may be more rewarding than following them. Appropriate consequences that help children

understand how their behavior affects others and that limit their own opportunities for participation may be useful. In addition, promoting the ideas behind rules such that children will want to adopt them as their own can help make it more rewarding for children to follow the rules.

The Ecological Perspective

The ecological perspective (Bronfenbrenner 2005) considers the role of multiple contexts or environments in understanding behavior and development. These include the child's home, out-of-school-time program, school, and neighborhood as well as the economy and societal changes. This perspective emphasizes how consistency or discrepancies between such environments—in terms of expectations, practices, or values—impact behavior and development. Several different kinds of environments or contexts in which children have experiences have been identified.

Contexts in which children have regular and direct contact, such as the home, out-of-school-time program, and neighborhood, are referred to as *microsystems.* Links or connections between microsystems are referred to as *mesosystems,* which include consistent expectations (or the lack thereof) between the program and home environment. Contexts that are removed from children's everyday experiences but are influential in what happens to children in their everyday experiences are referred to as *exosystems.* Examples would include district- or city-level decisions about whether or what type of out-of-school-time programs to have. Large-scale systems such as the economy and societal laws also impact development. These also include cultural phenomena that influence how children spend their time. In a technological society, for instance, children often spend time using computers in their learning, play, and communication. Finally, *chronosystems* reflect patterns of change and consistency over time. Consider how an eight-year-old in 2010 differs from and is similar to an eight-year-old in 1990. Similarly, consider how an eight-year-old is different at age twelve and then again at age sixteen. Although there are undoubtedly similarities, there are also differences caused by changes in society, development, and expectations. It is therefore very important to consider the role of generational experiences and developmental changes in program planning and development.

This perspective is relevant to programs in several ways. First, it helps program staff to appreciate the role of consistency or discrepancy across contexts or environments. When there are consistencies across contexts, a momentum is created that tends to move development in one direction, either positive or negative. If children are devalued across multiple contexts—for example, at home, at school, and at the program—they often come to devalue themselves. Contexts where children and youths feel affirmed, such as among peers, can take on special meaning and influence. If children are devalued across multiple contexts yet valued in the program, this would have significance as well, because discrepancies across circumstances detract from momentum in a given direction. Finally, this perspective helps one remember that changes in community conditions (such as increasing the availability of high-quality programs) will change the conditions in which children develop.

According to this perspective, why do children sometimes neglect to listen (that is, follow directions, abide by rules, or wait their turn)? The ecological perspective focuses on the mixed messages that children receive across environments. When children receive one set of messages from friends, another from staff, and other messages from television, parents, and the community at large about what is acceptable and appropriate behavior, it is more difficult for them to follow one path. This suggests that staff members should speak with a uniform voice regarding on-site expectations and that collaborating with parents to establish mutual expectations and goals is important.

Developmental Trends

Working with school-age children requires staff members to be cognizant of developmental changes. Developmental trends reflect patterns of change across time and age and should be considered in all aspects of programs to meet the needs of children and youths. For the purposes of this guide, developmental trends will be organized into three age groups: kindergarten through second grade; third through fifth grade; and sixth through eighth grade. Additionally, developmental trends will cover three broad areas of development: (1) physical development, which reflects physical growth patterns and abilities such as motor skills; (2) cognitive development, which reflects thinking and reasoning and includes abilities such as problem solving, learning, and memory; and (3) social–emotional development, which reflects how children and youths relate to others, their self-perceptions, moral development, and emotional regulation. Each section will incorporate developmentally appropriate practices.

Kindergarten through second grade

Children in this age group have an abundance of physical energy, a fact that should be considered in both academic and recreational program planning. There is also continued development of gross and fine motor skills. Gross motor skills involve large body movements such as running and throwing. The development of gross motor skills is ongoing during this period, and children are challenged by coordination and maintaining their balance when engaging in recreational activities (e.g., catching balls). Fine motor development is evident in children's increasing ability to write, to use scissors for cutting, and to draw within a limited space. Out-of-school-time programs should monitor children's abilities to make sure diverse physical activities are available that coincide with children's developmental levels. Having recreational opportunities with peers of similar ages and abilities is important.

In the cognitive realm, younger school-age children are transitioning to thinking in a more logical and grounded manner. Children's logical abilities are more evident when thinking about concrete phenomena—that is, things they see, touch, and experience. It is during this age period when children usually begin to question fantasy-based ideas such as Santa Claus and the tooth fairy; children reason that such characters are unlikely to exist in the manner they have been taught. Newfound logical abilities stimulate their inquisitiveness. They tend to ask a lot of "why" or "what if" questions. Such curiosity reflects the fact that they are thinking (assimilating and accommodating) in response to new information and understandings that occur on a daily basis. The children's curiosity and

thirst for knowledge should be encouraged. Although staff members may not have a ready answer to every question, there are resources children can use at appropriate times to find answers. Staff can introduce these resources and assist children in using them.

Children of this age have shorter attention spans than older youths. As a result, programs should offer a variety of activities in which children can participate, and it might be useful to provide segmented activities in shorter duration. When graphic organizers are used, they should be simple and color-coded. Children in kindergarten through second grade also need more structure and guidance to help them understand and remember what is expected. One example of the use of greater structure is to place colored tape in a straight line along the floor, with arrows to guide children in moving from room to room. Another example is to use color-coded pictures in the restroom to remind children to wash their hands with soap and dry their hands.

With age, children develop more of an understanding of how others think and feel. They also come to understand that others may think and feel differently about a given situation. Yet, children are still limited in understanding others' viewpoints, especially with regard to how and why others think and feel differently. Therefore, younger children still struggle with understanding and accepting a point of view that is different from their own. This can impede their ability to resolve conflicts. In some sense, conflicts or disagreements among children can actually be useful because (a) the notion that others have different points of view is obvious; and (b) the challenge to resolve

a conflict can provide children with the motivation to try to see another person's viewpoint. Children of this age also need more support in understanding how their actions affect others.

Play among peers is an important aspect of children's development. During play, children tend to be highly engaged. They also tend to freely assimilate their own ideas. In turn, they have vast opportunities to use their ideas and develop new understandings through these activities. Programs should therefore have sufficient opportunities for free and structured play.

With age, peers become increasingly important, and children become more selective about whom they call a "friend." They start to understand how relationships with those whom they would call a friend are different. Children's choices of friends are based on similarity and loyalty.

Friends stick up for you and have similar interests, attitudes, and behavior. The larger peer group of classmates and schoolmates also serves as a basis for social comparison. By second grade, statements such as "I'm one of the tallest kids in the classroom" or "I'm one of the smartest kids in school" are common.

Children begin to develop a more authentic sense of self-understanding during the school-age period. Self-perceptions become based more in reality than fantasy and coincide with emerging logical abilities. However, younger children are more apt to describe themselves in an all-or-nothing way, such as good or bad, smart or dumb. Hence, statements that remind children there are no bad people, only bad actions, are useful. Statements that de-emphasize the role of ability in academic outcomes and instead emphasize the importance of effort and progress are also useful. In addition, acknowledging specific behaviors that lead to improvements supports more adaptive self-perceptions (Dweck 2007). Examples include statements acknowledging that working carefully, reviewing information over and over again, or organizing information accurately helped children to do well.

Beliefs about what is right or fair demonstrate age trends during this period. Younger children are more likely to believe that wrongful actions will automatically result in negative consequences. They assume that "someone is going to get it" when they break a rule. Children outgrow this with advancing age and realize that to get in trouble, one first has to be caught. Younger children also emphasize more obedience to authority in deciding what is right. That is, they believe a course of action is right because an authority figure such as a parent, teacher, or youth worker said the action was right. In deciding what is fair, children of this age tend to have a more self-centered outlook; what is "fair" tends to be in their favor.

Managing emotions is a challenge at any age. As children get older they understand that emotions are something people feel inside and that how a person feels is tied to what he or she makes of a situation. If something is not a "big deal" to a person, she will feel differently about the situation than if it is a big deal. Youth workers and other adults can play an important role in how children respond emotionally to various events. If staff members express anger and lash out when children disrespect them, this serves as a guide for how children should behave when they feel disrespected. On the other hand, if staff members expect children to maintain self-control and show restraint amid name-calling and other bouts of feeling disrespected, the staff should model self-control and restraint. Tools for helping children understand and manage difficult emotions include the sequenced, active, focused, and explicit (SAFE) approach described earlier, as well as offering children practical, age-appropriate outlets for expressing emotion. For example, children of this age could draw or mark up a paper to show how they feel.

Many of California's academic content standards in various subjects connect to developmentally appropriate program activities for this age group. A sampling is presented in the following table.

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT **Physical Education Standards** *Movement Concepts*	
Explain the difference between under and over, behind and in front of, next to and through, up and down, forward and backward, and sideways. *(Kindergarten, standard 2.1)* Travel over, under, in front of, behind, and through objects and over, under, in front of, and behind partners, using locomotor skills. *(Grade 1, standard 1.2)* Explain how to reduce the impact force of an oncoming object. *(Grade 2, standard 2.2)*	Free play on a playground with swings, monkey bars, a slide, and so on Gross motor activities utilizing movement (e.g., throwing and dance that help children construct these understandings) Drawing activities in combination with games such as Simon Says Discussions with children about the significance of taking safety precautions (such as wearing seatbelts and helmets when riding bikes or using scooters) and how these safeguards protect children from physical injury
COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT **English–Language Arts Standards** *Vocabulary and Concept Development*	
Identify and sort common words in basic categories (e.g., colors, shapes, foods). *(Kindergarten, standard 1.17)* Classify grade-appropriate categories of words (e.g., concrete collections of animals, foods, toys). *(Grade 1, standard 1.17)* Understand and explain common antonyms and synonyms. *(Grade 2, standard 1.7)*	Having children assist staff in organizing items for common activities Organizing items for a food drive Developing bulletin boards or graphic organizers Role-playing the concepts Providing games and activities that involve matching

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
Mathematics Standards *Algebra and Functions*	
Identify, sort, and classify objects by attribute and identify objects that do not belong to a particular group (e.g., all these balls are green, those are red). *(Kindergarten, standard 1.1)* Understand the meaning of the symbols +, -, =. *(Grade 1, standard 1.2)* Relate problem situations to number sentences involving addition and subtraction. *(Grade 2, standard 1.2)*	Developing activities where children identify patterns Participating in classification games Encouraging children to develop their own patterns (through drawing and artistic activities) Using manipulatives or concrete materials that make concepts real (this is important to build understanding) Offering movement activities guided by math problems (e.g., "Walk 2 + 2 laps around a designated space") Providing games that blend story elements and math problems (e.g., "If four children must run a total of eight laps, how many laps would each child get?" Children figure out the answer first and then act on it.)
SOCIAL–EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT **Physical Education Standards** *Group Dynamics/Social Interaction*	
Participate as a leader and a follower during physical activities. *(Kindergarten, standard 5.5)* Identify and demonstrate effective practices for working with a group without interfering with others. *(Grade 1, standard 5.6)* Demonstrate respect for self, others, and equipment during physical activities. *(Grade 2, standard 5.5)*	Participating in multiple roles within an activity; being the leader and follower supports perspective-taking ability Explaining to children how their actions affect others Providing children with reasons for why certain rules help everyone have fun Having children develop rules for treating others with fairness and respect; maintaining equipment such that all children can have fun

Third through fifth grade

By the time children reach third grade, they can be clearly distinguished from children in earlier stages of development. They are squarely in the phase that Erikson (1963) referred to as "industry versus inferiority." This period begins from about age six to age twelve. *Industry* refers to a sense of accomplishment as children learn about their capabilities. Industry-seeking activities are evident in many aspects of children's behavior as they seek challenges (e.g., learning to use a yo-yo in various creative ways) and take pride in their accomplishments. It is important that children develop a sense of industry, especially in areas that reflect critical foundational skills such as literacy. *Inferiority* reflects a child's sense that he or she cannot accomplish things, and this could impact the child's level of engagement in affected areas.

Physical growth during this period tends to be slow and steady. On average, children grow about two inches and gain about six pounds per year between the ages of six and twelve. Childhood obesity has become more prevalent, however, as sedentary lifestyles and poor nutritional habits contribute to children gaining additional pounds each year. Instead of gaining 36 pounds from kindergarten to fifth grade, children may gain closer to 70 pounds. Being overweight and obese is associated with undesirable physical, social, and educational consequences. For instance, there are risks of developing type 2 diabetes and heart problems, and there are challenges with teasing and social acceptance, which can interfere with academic development. Consequently, creating opportunities for

physical recreation, adequate nutrition, and nutrition education are imperative. There are many opportunities for physical activity and nutrition education outside of the regular school day. Activities that keep everyone moving (such as soccer) are optimal. Relay games and dance activities are also very good at engaging groups of children.

As stated in the CDE publication *California After School Physical Activity Guidelines,* the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) recommends that all youths participate in at least 60 minutes of moderate to vigorous physical activity each day. Offering nutritious snacks and treats along with nutrition education is also important. Cooking and gardening activities are appropriate forums for nutritional education in programs. The Internet also offers many free, engaging, and interactive activities that teach kids about nutrition and exercise; one example is the "Choose MyPlate" game offered by the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Finally, according to the U.S. Department

of Health and Human Services, the school-age period is an optimal time for preventive and proactive steps concerning obesity. For more information on these topics, visit the ChooseMyPlate.gov Web site and http://aspe.hhs.gov/health/reports/child_obesity/.

In the cognitive domain, children's logical abilities have become more robust. Children in third through fifth grade are less likely to confuse reality with fantasy (such as being scared of the bogeyman). The development of sound academic learning strategies is important because children are expected to learn and remember increasingly complex material. At this age, children are better able to compare and contrast items to identify groupings, organize information according to similarity, and use meaning as a learning tool (e.g., examining why Sacramento is the capital of California). Yet there is variability in children's ability to strategize effectively. Support from staff in developing study skills is needed. Working with children to identify major aspects of a concept or issue, as with the spider graphic organizer discussed earlier, is important. Prompting them to compare and contrast concepts and issues is also important. This reflects children's active engagement in learning, which is consistent with the constructivist perspective of development.

Children's academic success and their perceptions of academic competence are related to their feelings of self-worth—more so than during adolescence. Many children in programs struggle academically. As such, it is useful to ask open-ended questions (for example, "What do you remember about fractions?") to learn what children think or know about a topic. Staff can then add to this understanding to guide children in grasping what they are expected to know. This also encourages children's active engagement in learning and free assimilation; it does not put them on the spot or cause them to worry about whether their answers are correct. Prompting children to ask and answer "why" and "how" questions—such as why items or concepts belong together or how a process occurs—is beneficial. This practice helps children understand information more precisely and comprehensively, which aids their understanding and retention. Children's increasing ability to work independently at this age allows them to take advantage of interactive Web activities that support academic development. However, children still need staff oversight and scaffolding as they engage in interactive and Web-based activities. Moreover, it is up to staff members to direct children torelevant and developmentally appropriate Web-based activities.

As children get older, they spend more time with their peers and tend to have less adult scrutiny. Moreover, support and social acceptance among peers contribute to self-worth (feelings of being worthwhile and happy with oneself) and well-being. The development of good social skills is important, as children have to negotiate the types of activities they will engage in among friends and peers and resolve conflicts on their own. Supportive and team-building activities that provide opportunities for children and youths to work with peers cooperatively, establish rapport with others, and enter smoothly into social activities are useful.

Bullying becomes more problematic as children spend more time with peers. Bullying can take many forms, such

as verbal or physical aggression and social or relational aggression. Social or relational aggression aims to undermine children's relationships and social standing through public put-downs and by using relationships as leverage—for example, when children say "We won't be your friend unless you . . ." What makes bullying different from aggression is that it involves imbalanced power relations, such as when a group of children gang up against an individual child. Bullying also tends to be ongoing and unwanted. Cyberbullying involves the use of electronic media and devices (e.g., cell phones, the Internet, or social-media Web sites) in bullying. All forms of bullying can interfere with academic and social development (Juvonen and Graham 2001; Tokunaga 2010).

Programs have a responsibility to address bullying. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services offers a training module that presents best practices for recognizing and responding to bullying. These include programwide commitments to address the problem, increase awareness among all stakeholders about the seriousness of bullying, increase monitoring for bullying behaviors, encourage and teach children and staff how to intervene effectively, and promote an anti-bullying mindset. According to the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (AACAP), the impact and likelihood of bullying can be minimized by helping victims of bullying to be assertive and proactive (for example, by encouraging them to surround themselves with friends or helpful classmates during times when bullying is likely). To learn more about how to respond to bullying, visit the StopBullying.gov Web site and the AACAP Web site.

In other realms of social–emotional development, children make strides in their self-understanding. Self-perceptions become more nuanced as they think more in terms of strengths and weaknesses than about being "good" or "bad." While self-perceptions of competencies relate to self-worth, the extent depends on the importance the child places on particular areas of skill or knowledge. When doing well in school is important to children, academic performance tends to be more relevant to how children feel about themselves (Harter 1999). Therefore, promoting the value of particular areas, such as behavioral conduct and academic achievement, is useful. Having children come up with their own reasons as to why achievement in a particular area is important can facilitate more personal responsibility for achieving better outcomes.

Older children are also more aware of what other people (such as staff members, classmates, and parents) think about them. This is because their ability to understand other people's perspectives improves over time. Hence, children are more apt to internalize what significant others think of them. That is, others' perceptions of them trickle into their self-view (Harter 1999). Therefore, adults should acknowledge and appreciate children's strengths. One technique is called the "compliment sandwich" (Bernard and Burgoa 2008). When a child displays challenging behaviors, positive aspects of his or her behavior are acknowledged first. Then the adult would talk about how the child might improve in a specific area and would expand on and emphasize the positive aspects of the child's behavior. For example, a child who displays bossy behavior could be construed as a leader in waiting;

redirected toward more cooperative and sensitive behaviors that support his or her inclination to lead; and finally affirmed for his or her positive attributes. This compliment-sandwich technique is part of Bonnie Bernard and Carol Burgoa's 2008 training series, "You Matter!" Consult the references at the end of this chapter for further information.

Children of this age make strides in their moral and character development. They become better able to think about how their actions affect others, and they emphasize more equal and equitable treatment in relation to age. It is common, for instance, for children to give others a head start in a relay race to make up for differences in age and ability. Although children are aware of the beliefs of authority figures such teachers, staff, and parents on what constitutes right or appropriate behavior, they are also inclined toward independent thinking, which coincides with enhanced logical capabilities. Therefore, it is helpful to present children and youths with opportunities to think about right or appropriate courses of actions while also having them consider principled reasons, such as how their behaviors affect other people, the Golden Rule, and equity. Having children compare and contrast different courses of action with respect to these principles would be developmentally appropriate.

Children in the upper elementary grades also need support in understanding and managing their emotions. The ability to manage stressful experiences (such as being the target of bullying) is especially important, as older children spend more time among peers and have less adult supervision. It would be developmentally appropriate to help children understand what kinds of emotions they experience in various situations (e.g., through guessing games and hypothetical scenarios in which they choose among options); discuss why children feel those emotions; and help children to express emotions in appropriate ways (McDevitt and Ormrod 2010).

Again, California's academic content standards can help programs incorporate developmentally appropriate activities. Some examples are presented in the table below.

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT **Physical Education Standards** *Rhythmic Skills*	
Compare and contrast folk dances, line dances, and circle dances. *(Grade 3, standard 2.7)* Design a routine to music that includes even and uneven locomotor patterns. *(Grade 4, standard 2.10)* Design a routine to music, changing speed and direction while manipulating an object. *(Grade 5, standard 2.5)*	Participating in various genres of dance Designing dance routines to fit different genres and interests that involve corresponding content standards
COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT **English–Language Arts Standards** *Comprehension and Analysis of Grade-Level-Appropriate Text*	
Ask questions and support answers by connecting prior knowledge with literal information found in, and inferred from, the text. *(Grade 3, standard 2.2)* Compare and contrast information on the same topic after reading several passages or articles. *(Grade 4, standard 2.5)* Discern main ideas and concepts presented in texts, identifying and assessing evidence that supports those ideas. *(Grade 5, standard 2.3)*	Having children develop questions about the content they are reading or listening to (supports the elaboration of concepts and issues) Having children develop Venn diagrams and use graphic organizers to compare and contrast Having children use diverse kinds of graphic organizers to identify main points and supporting information

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
Mathematics Standards *Statistics, Data Analysis, and Probability*	
Identify whether common events are certain, likely, unlikely, or improbable. *(Grade 3, standard 1.1)* Record the possible outcomes for a simple event (e.g., tossing a coin) and systematically keep track of the outcomes when the event is repeated many times. *(Grade 3, standard 1.2)* Formulate survey questions; systematically collect and represent data on a number line; and coordinate graphs, tables, and charts. *(Grade 4, standard 1.1)* Know the concepts of mean, median, and mode; compute and compare simple examples to show that they may differ. *(Grade 5, standard 1.1)* Know how to write ordered pairs correctly; for example, (x, y). *(Grade 5, standard 1.5)*	Using a tossing game (e.g., with a coin, horseshoes, or rings) to teach these concepts. Children would make predictions under various circumstances; for instance, they might be certain when holding a ring at the tip that all one has to do is drop it, or certain the coin will come up heads or tails. Noticing the patterns during a tossing game to identify what is certain, likely, unlikely, or improbable Having children develop survey questions for an opinion poll to find out what individuals want, and then collect survey information through an anonymous drop box or community survey. The information is represented in the various ways using the median or mode, with the concepts explained. Children make decisions based upon this evidence (such as the best type of activities to have on Fridays). Having children record two factors together during the normal routine of keeping score or tabs; this might be the length of time each individual (i.e., x, y) participates in a game. Children can use this to understand who is or is not having more time at an activity.

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
SOCIAL–EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT **Science Standards** *Investigation and Experimentation* *Grade 3* Use numerical data in describing and comparing objects, events, and measurements. *(Standard 5.c)* Collect data in an investigation and analyze those data to develop a logical conclusion. *(Standard 5.e)* *Grade 4* Differentiate observation from inference (interpretation) and know scientists' explanations come partly from what they observe and partly from how they interpret their observations. *(Standard 6.a)* *Grade 5* Identify the dependent and controlled variables in an investigation. *(Standard 6.d)*	As part of character development, having children record on a chart the number of times that exemplary actions are displayed (e.g., using "Please" and "Thank you") Children subsequently analyze the pattern of data (frequency) and draw conclusions about the meaning. They also think about what they might do to bring about better or different outcomes. Children compare the data to their conclusions to think about (a) the difference between observation and interpretation, and (b) whether their conclusions are appropriate to the data. Children examine conditions under which they learn best, trying out different strategies (controlled variables) to figure out what works best for their comprehension and learning (dependent variables).

Sixth through eighth grade

Middle school can be an especially challenging period. The school experience changes fairly dramatically for students, as they have new classmates, new teachers, a different class structure and schedule, and physical and emotional changes coinciding with puberty. Rapid physical changes associated with puberty can cause youths to feel awkward, self-conscious, and anxious. Rapid weight gain may prompt adolescents to become more weight-conscious amid new concerns about their romantic appeal. Increased preoccupation with physical appearance and sexuality is common. The timing of puberty is also relevant, as youths who mature at an early age are at a somewhat greater risk for problem behaviors such as substance use and increased sexual behavior. As these youths' psychosocial development is not on par with their physical development, they face extra pressures and temptations—often from older peers—that they are not prepared to handle.

Out-of-school-time programs can demonstrate sensitivity to youths' self-consciousness and reassure them about normative pubertal changes. When policies about sexual harassment are in place, public taunting and other peer harassment of a sexual nature tend to be minimized (McDevitt and Ormrod 2010). The Discovery Education Web site offers lesson plans for middle school students that address sexual harassment and pressure.

Beliefs about gender roles heighten during early adolescence. Middle school students feel more pressure to behave in characteristically "feminine" or "masculine" ways and gravitate toward activities and behaviors

traditionally associated with their gender. Gravitation toward stereotypical beliefs and behaviors may be caused by many factors, such as the desire to fit in; family, community, and cultural expectations; and the experience of consequences for behaving in certain ways. An adolescent's conceptions about what is or is not appropriate for a given gender might cause him or her to avoid activities that foster development. As a result, activities that help youths critically analyze gender roles and expectations through discussion and analysis of text and media reports—and that teach youths about gender inequity and encourage their involvement in equitable solutions—may aid their development. Downloadable resources that address gender roles according to grade level are available through the ReadWriteThink.org Web site.

Similarly, realizations pertaining to sexual orientation take on new meaning during middle school. This may make middle school experiences particularly stressful for lesbian,

gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) youths. According to a 2005 report by the Gay, Lesbian and Straight Education Network (GLSEN), LGBT middle school youths face an extreme level of peer harassment—more so than during high school. Furthermore, these youths have fewer resources to deal with related stress, and thus many LGBT youths feel unsafe, miss school, and struggle academically. GLSEN reports that many schools' anti-harassment policies fail to acknowledge LGBT students as a protected class, even though the federal StopBullying.gov Web site reports that LGBT individuals have civil rights protections against gender-based and sexual harassment. The GLSEN Web Site offers downloadable guides for creating a safe space for LGBT youths; programs can incorporate this guidance into their anti-harassment policies and practices. GLSEN also offers curricular resources and information about LGBT harassment and civil rights protections.

New imaging technologies, such as functional magnetic resonance imagining, have led to important advances in understanding adolescent brain development. Research in adolescent brain development is ongoing, and an overview can be accessed through the Office of Population Affairs at the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. This research suggests a number of changes that occur during adolescence can be linked to brain development. There is heightened thrill seeking which reflects their tendency to seek out new and stimulating experiences. There is a greater moodiness and the tendency to respond more emotionally, especially in social interactions. Also, the presence of peers seems to activate the reward regions of the brain and prompt risk taking (Chein et al. 2011; Galván 2012). Although adolescents experience advances in areas of the prefrontal cortex that control logical reasoning and planning, these areas are not sufficiently developed to control and coordinate social–emotional issues. This may lead adolescents to react more emotionally than logically and to take more risks, especially when in the company of peers.

There are implications for programs with respect to adolescent brain development. Young adolescents would benefit from increased monitoring and adult supervision. However, as adolescents often "vote with their feet" in their evaluation of programs, it would be especially important to have engaging activities that interest them and use time constructively. As areas of the brain that control thought and planning are developing, it would be appropriate to engage youths in higher-level thinking such as debate, critical reflection about sociopolitical issues that interest them, and career and academic exploration. Moreover, adolescents might find these activities more rewarding in a supportive peer context. Hence community-building activities among participants are essential. Given that adolescents are attracted to thrill-seeking activities, programs that offer fun, interest-based activities in music, arts, sports, and other areas (such as trips to amusement parks) would have appeal. Finally, the incorporation of physical activity and nutritional education through creative and decorative meal preparation would support physical development.

In terms of cognitive development, young adolescents are transitioning to think more logically about abstract ideas. Their increased capacity to think about multiple issues at the same time enhances their ability to solve problems and identify relationships or connections between issues and events. They also tend to think in a more scientific manner, which fuels their tendency to critically evaluate statements, including those made by staff members. Furthermore, adolescents become more reflective about the thinking process itself, how conclusions are drawn, and how decisions have been made. These abilities are evident in California's grade-seven academic content standards for English–language arts, which expect adolescents to "Identify idioms, analogies, metaphors, and similes in prose and poetry" (Reading: Vocabulary and Concept Development, standard 1.1) and "Identify and trace the development of an author's argument, point of view, or perspective in text" (Reading: Comprehension and Analysis of Grade-Level-Appropriate Text, standard 2.4).

Although adolescents' capacities for the aforementioned cognitive abilities develop during this period, the extent of development is not independent of environmental enrichment. Hence activities that activate adolescents' imagination about the future, and service-learning activities that prompt adolescents to make good choices, support their cognitive development. As with younger children, adolescents would benefit from using graphic organizers when engaging in higher-level thinking. In general, learning proceeds from a concrete to a more abstract understanding of phenomena. Therefore, adolescents need concrete support to facilitate understanding, and it is important not to overestimate the adolescent's capacity for abstract and scientific thinking.

The peer group becomes especially important in adolescence. Through friendship, adolescents are looking for someone who understands them and what they go through. Friends become a sounding board to think through values, ideas, concerns, and so on. The peer group can also play an important role in identity development, as adolescents are more likely to reveal aspects of their inner self (that is, true feelings) to friends. This helps youths to have a stronger sense of who they are. The peer group is also a forum for risk taking. Out-of-school-time programs can redirect adolescents' interests from potentially harmful activities to more positive and engaging recreational activities. In conjunction with community-building activities, programs can facilitate the establishment of "peer pacts," whereby adolescents agree to abstain from undesirable behaviors such as drug use or bullying and engage in more productive behaviors such as academic achievement. Finally, it should be noted that certain types of peer harassment and bullying peak during middle school. These include bullying based on sexual orientation and cyberbullying (Tokunaga 2010). As such, these issues would be important to address in middle school programs.

The search for identity becomes more salient during adolescence (Erikson 1963). A sense of identity provides youths with a sense of purpose and direction. The search for identity can be intimidating, and younger youths often choose to "fit in with the crowd" rather than stand out. Others may adopt a

makeshift persona until they figure out who they really are. Activities that encourage adolescents to think about the future, what they want, and where they can fit into society as productive people, are developmentally appropriate. As youths get older, they tend to give more thought to future options that they believe are within reach. This fits with their increasing capacity toward scientific and critical thinking. It is important that youths understand pathways to various positive opportunities and have sufficient skill development and access to resources to believe that these positive options are within their reach.

Young adolescents often experience feelings of decreased self-worth. Adapting to middle school, pubertal changes, and increased sensitivity to social pressures are all factors that fuel self-doubt. Self-consciousness is enhanced by their ability to recognize other points of view. They are more cognizant of how others perceive them. Moreover, adolescents are rather diligent when it comes to observing and commenting on one another's behavior. Consequently, adolescents often act as if they are "on stage" and engage in dramatic and attention-seeking behavior (Elkind 1967). Advancing cognitive abilities in hypothetical and scientific reasoning contribute to adolescents' perceptions that they are unique. They often feel that others, especially adults, do not understand them and that their own insights and feelings about the world are original. This heightened sense of self may contribute to adolescents feeling less vulnerable when they take chances (Alberts, Elkind, and Ginsberg 2007). Thus it is important for out-of-school-time programs to offer positive recreational activities and utilize peer pacts to promote safe behavior.

Issues involving ethnicity also become more significant during adolescence. Teens become more aware of how ethnicity matters. Ethnic identity—which encompasses an awareness of one's membership in a particular group; embracing customs, beliefs, and behaviors associated with that group; pride or positive feelings associated with one's ethnic group; and group loyalty—becomes more salient. Generally, ethnic identity is more important to members of an ethnic minority than to European American adolescents. Ethnic identity serves to enhance and maintain positive self-perceptions, especially when dealing with discriminatory and inequitable circumstances.

Programs are not immune to ethnic conflict involving early adolescents (or even younger children). As part of community-building efforts, programs should emphasize the contributions of diverse ethnic groups along with shared experiences. Youths should be guided to embrace diversity as something that is natural and beneficial. Youths should also be prompted to critically analyze how on-site ethnic conflicts may arise and how they can be resolved. Teens should be encouraged to consider each person's individuality as well. Finally, it might be useful for programs to have formal policies regarding inclusiveness and equal treatment—similar to policies on sexual harassment. Staff members should collaborate with youths in developing such policies and in monitoring compliance.

In terms of moral and character development, young adolescents are capable of understanding how their actions affect others. Young adolescents often follow a natural inclination to treat others as others treat them. This provides justification to strike back when disrespected. Helping adolescents understand the value of taking the "high road" and abstaining from retaliation is developmentally appropriate and supported by their cognitive and social–emotional development. Discussing how refraining from retaliation shows that a person is not bothered by words, and explaining how retaliation could signal that a person feels threatened or vulnerable, may heighten adolescents' interest. In general, young adolescents' tendencies toward more advanced and reflective thinking can be used to prompt them to consider better alternatives and more principled and measured reactions. Furthermore, support for moral and character development at any age is enhanced by a SAFE programmatic approach.

Young adolescents experience emotions more intensely than children. As such, understanding and managing emotions is beneficial to their development. As adolescents are able to think about issues in more complex terms, they also are better equipped to detect and understand conflicting emotions. It is consistent with adolescents' emerging developmental skills to have adolescents reflect on what they or others feel in particular circumstances and on how such feelings have come about. Brainstorming and critically examining appropriate ways of dealing with complex and conflicting emotions (as might occur in situations of peer influence) would be useful. A SAFE programmatic approach should be utilized.

Enrichment activities that support the development of middle school youths coincide with California's academic content standards in various categories. The following table provides some examples of content standards and corresponding activities that support development.

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT **Physical Education Standards** *Self-Responsibility and Social Interaction*	
Participate productively in group physical activities. *(Grade 6, standard 5.1)* Identify and define the role of each participant in a cooperative physical activity. *(Grade 6, standard 5.3)* Identify appropriate and inappropriate risks involved in adventure, individual, and dual physical activities. *(Grade 7, standard 5.1)* Demonstrate an acceptance of differences in physical development and personal preferences as they affect participation in physical activity. *(Grade 7, standard 5.3)* Organize and work cooperatively with a group to achieve the goals of the group. *(Grade 8, standard 5.2)*	Having teens identify physical recreational activities in which they could participate Facilitating peer pacts to maintain healthful behaviors Discussing responsibilities of group members within pacts to bring about healthful outcomes Discussing what the concept of "risk" means in different kinds of activities Encouraging in teens an understanding of why boundaries that others set for themselves for refraining from inappropriate risk should be respected and promoted

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT **Mathematics Standards** *Number Sense*	
Interpret and use ratios in different contexts (e.g., batting averages, miles per hour) to show the relative sizes of two quantities, using appropriate notations (a/b, a to b, a:b). *(Grade 6, standard 1.2)*	Examining sports statistics to understand what they mean; participants calculate analogous statistics using their own activities
Solve problems that involve discounts, markups, commissions, and profit and compute simple and compound interest. *(Grade 7, standard 1.7)*	Participating in money-management activities Identifying low-cost items that could be sold for profit; this could occur via a service-learning activity to raise money for an important cause
Algebra Students identify and use the arithmetic properties of subsets of integers and rational, irrational, and real numbers, including closure properties for the four basic arithmetic operations where applicable. *(Grade 8, standard 1.0)*	Learning about investment opportunities involving simple and compound interest Engaging in Web-based activities to learn algebraic concepts
Science Standards *Earth Sciences*	
Students know earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, landslides, and floods change human and wildlife habitats. *(Grade 6, standard 2.d)*	Studying the impact of past earthquakes and floods on humans and wildlife (as part of learning about disaster preparation)
Students know Earth processes today are similar to those that occurred in the past and slow geologic processes have large cumulative effects over long periods of time. *(Grade 7, standard 4.a)*	Participating in conservation awareness and educational activities (e.g., learning about global warming and its implications, the meaning of "carbon footprint," and examining ways to reduce their personal carbon footprint and that of the program)
Life Sciences Students know that carbon, because of its ability to combine in many ways with itself and other elements, has a central role in the chemistry of living organisms. *(Grade 8, standard 6.a)*	Identifying ways to protect the environment

Developmental Domain and Content Standards	Activities (with some implications for practice)
SOCIAL–EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT **English–Language Arts Standards** *Speaking Applications* Deliver persuasive presentations: (a) Provide a clear statement of the position; (b) Include relevant evidence; (c) Offer a logical sequence of information; (d) Engage the listener and foster acceptance of the proposition or proposal. *(Grade 6, standard 2.4)* Deliver research presentations: (a) Pose relevant and concise questions about the topic; (b) Convey clear and accurate perspectives on the subject; (c) Include evidence generated through the formal research process (e.g., use of a card catalog, Readers' *Guide to Periodical Literature*, computer databases, magazines, newspapers, dictionaries); (d) Cite reference sources appropriately. *(Grade 7, standard 2.3)* Deliver narrative presentations (e.g., biographical, autobiographical): (a) Relate a clear, coherent incident, event, or situation by using well-chosen details; (b) Reveal the significance of, and the subject's attitude about, the incident, event, or situation; (c) Employ narrative and descriptive strategies (e.g., relevant dialogue, specific action, physical description, background description, comparison or contrast of characters). *(Grade 8, standard 2.1)*	Engaging in moderated debates (a good way for middle school participants to develop and express their views and opinions) Developing presentations on current and controversial issues after conducting research (e.g., analyzing information according to one's personal values and perspectives) Having youths keep a record of personal experiences and reflect on how they have been impacted or what they learned (e.g., in an activity where they research different careers)

Working with Children Who Have Special Needs

According to the California Department of Education (2013), more than 600,000 people in California (birth through age twenty-two) received special education services from 2011 to 2012. Disabilities include mental retardation; being deaf or hard of hearing; having a speech, language, or visual impairment; emotional disturbances; orthopedic or other health impairments; having a specific learning disability; autism; being deaf and blind; or having multiple disabilities.

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) protects individuals with physical or mental impairments against discrimination by public entities such as school districts and places of public accommodation, which include after school programs, day care centers, and family child care homes (Child Care Law Center 2009). Programs must not have admission policies that prevent children and youths with disabilities from participating. Out-of-school-time programs are responsible for changing policies, practices, and procedures to support youths with disabilities. This includes ensuring effective communication with participants with disabilities and identifying and removing physical barriers from program facilities (Child Care law Center 2009). The U.S. Department of Justice provides detailed information about the Americans with Disabilities Act at its ADA Web site.

Helping children with special needs to be successful in programs can be facilitated by collaborating with community stakeholders, including nonprofit agencies and school districts. Some children with special needs have an individualized education program (IEP). When a child has an IEP, it has been determined that his or her disability significantly interferes with the learning process such that the child is eligible for special education. The IEP is developed by a team of professionals and caregivers. It provides information about the nature of the child's disability, his or her current level of ability and functioning, and suitable academic and other goals for the child. The IEP also specifies appropriate types of services, activities, and accommodations for the child. Parents can request that the IEP be made available to after school programs and that programs be included as part of the IEP. It is important for programs to use a child's IEP, as it contains specific information about the nature of the child's disability and corresponding plans for improvement and success.

Staff members should consider how their program will integrate children and youths with special needs. For example, how will they establish positive and effective communication and interactions with these children? How will they facilitate positive and effective communication and interactions between children and youths with special needs and other children and youths? How will they set a positive tone such that all children feel welcome and treated with respect? Such activities might involve educating children about diversity and teaching and modeling strategies for effective interaction.

Active engagement and collaboration with parents helps to facilitate quality experiences for children who have special needs. Working with nonprofit agencies may help procure supplemental support and services, such as transportation to and from the program. There are numerous community resources available to help programs assist children and youths with special needs. Easter Seals offers information about specific disabilities, recreational opportunities for populations with special needs, parental resources, and workforce development. The State Council on Developmental Disabilities provides services for individuals with disabilities that can be accessed by local and regional providers. The CDE's Family Involvement and Partnerships page identifies resources and support for parents of children with disabilities. And the National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities offers information in English and Spanish on effective practices, relevant research, and specific disabilities; the information is suitable for families, communities, schools, teachers, administrators, and state agencies.

It is important for staff members to become knowledgeable about the specific disabilities represented in their program. This may prompt programs to offer specialized training sessions, hire staff with specific knowledge, or offer attendance at conferences or workshops. Accommodating children and youths with disabilities must involve a careful assessment of program facilities. All children and youths should have easy physical access to many activity areas. There should be activities and materials that can be readily adapted for safe and functional use—for example, larger-sized pencils or crayons, reading materials for diverse levels, recorded literacy materials, and written materials with larger-sized print. Children with disabilities may be less apt to understand common hazards such as sharp edges and outdoor hazards; therefore, proactive screening and monitoring may be needed. According to the Child Care Law Center (2009), no specific staff ratios are required when serving children with disabilities. However, programs must keep in mind the needs of individual children when making decisions about staffing requirements and appropriate supervision.

Accommodating children and youths with special needs involves reviewing program activities to ensure that they offer all children meaningful learning and enrichment opportunities. For children with special needs, some activities (including the instructions) may need to be shortened or carried out in steps. There should be opportunities for small-group and individual activities if and when large-group participation is not feasible. For programs to include children with special needs, they must understand that all children have something to gain from and contribute to a program.

The following sections pertain to children with specific types of special needs—that is, children with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), autism spectrum disorders (ASDs), and emotional or behavioral disorders. Each section provides an overview of behavioral and psychological characteristics associated with each disorder. General strategies for working with children are also provided. It is always important to work within the parameters specified by a child's IEP when provided, and to seek the aid of professionals who are skilled at working with children who have special needs. Furthermore, program staff should work with parents to decide the best courses of actions when working with these children. Parents can be a rich source of information for identifying how children with special needs will respond in various situations, the approaches and settings that will be more or less effective, and the dynamics of the children's lives outside the program.

Children with Attention-Deficit/ Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

In 2005, the CDC estimated that 7 percent of children between the ages of four and twelve had been diagnosed with ADHD—a disorder characterized by many indicators, such as inattentive, impulsive, and hyperactive behavior. Children with ADHD have difficulty paying attention, especially for extended periods; struggle to focus on important tasks or issues; and often act or talk out of turn. They have difficulty exercising self-control. The CDC offers a fact sheet on ADHD that provides information on the signs of ADHD, possible causes, and guidance for parents on what to do if they think their child may have ADHD.

One tip for working with children who have ADHD is to take advantage of the children's strengths. Sherman, Rasmussen, and Baydala (2006) recommended channeling high energy into productive and useful tasks (such as having the children help in the classroom) and giving brief, manageable instructions for these children. Furthermore, these researchers recommended using diverse methods for communication and education. These include offering hands-on learning activities and allowing children with ADHD to demonstrate their learning in diverse ways, such as through song, dance, or drawing. Graphic organizers that are adapted to a child's attention capacity and ability level may also provide the structure needed to manage their behavior. For some, graphic organizers that are color coded to indicate the order in which different tasks should be done may facilitate performance. Because children with ADHD can be easily distracted, working to minimize distractions during important times (e.g., when providing homework assistance) would be useful.

Lorch et al. (2004) suggested that children with ADHD may have more difficulty making use of "causal connectors" in stories. Casual connectors tie one part of a story with other parts, such that it is clear how events in the story relate to one another. Blume and Zembar (2007) suggested that helping children with ADHD to remember causal links may promote functioning. This would involve minimizing directions given to children, such as telling them to do one thing at a time. Second, staff members should explain to children why they need to do something. A sample statement would be, "Please line up so that you can get a snack."

Finally, yoga has been found to be beneficial for children with ADHD (Harrison, Manocha, and Rubia 2004; Jensen and Kenny 2004). In particular, yoga has been found to be effective as a complementary treatment. Children with ADHD who participate in yoga have been found to be less oppositional and restless, and they demonstrate improvements in their relationships with others. Yoga practices can be adapted to the developmental level of children (Kaley-Isley et al. 2010) and would be suitable as a recreational alternative.

Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs)

The CDC estimates that a little over 1 percent of children in the United States have an autism spectrum disorder (ASD). ASDs reflect a category of disabilities that range from mild to severe. They are caused by brain abnormalities and include autism, pervasive developmental disorder, and Asperger's syndrome. Individuals with ASDs exhibit a range of social and communication challenges. Children with ASDs may avoid eye contact and prefer to play by themselves. They may not notice when others talk to them. They may continuously repeat actions or words and become disturbed by slight changes in the environment or schedule. The CDC Web site offers a wealth of information about ASDs; enter "Autism Spectrum Disorders" in the site's search engine.

Friedlander (2009) offered some tips on how to work with autistic children in classrooms. Such tips may also be useful to out-of-school-time programs. Friedlander emphasized how autistic children need regularity and structure. That is, they prefer regular routines and rituals. Friedlander (2009) suggested having a schedule of activities displayed in an accessible form (such as pictures with specific times for activities) and giving children advance warning of changes or transitions. This might include allowing children to sit in the same place for homework and other designated activities. Friedlander (2009) also suggested that autistic children may benefit from a "buddy" who models appropriate behavior.

Friedlander (2009) highlighted the importance of providing visual cues to help children with autism understand what is expected, and she indicated that the use of "social stories" can promote understanding and functioning. Social stories provide a visual image for expectations and what will be experienced in a given environment, such as a field trip or a ride home on a bus. Social stories use brief, simple language and appropriate visuals to communicate what a child should expect to experience in a given setting and how he or she is expected to behave. Social stories can also be acted out by program participants.

Some children with ASDs may be sensitive to sensory inputs such as sight, touch, and sound. Friendlander (2009) noted the importance of being aware of children's reactions to sensory inputs and of consulting parents and professionals to devise appropriate supports or modifications to help children deal with their unique sensitivities.

Children and Youths with Emotional or Behavioral Disorders

It is estimated that between 5 percent and 14 percent of school-age children and youths have a serious emotional or behavioral disturbance (Kauffman and Landrum 2009; Mark and Buck 2006). Kauffman (2010) characterized children with emotional/behavioral disorder (EBD) as demonstrating externalizing problems such as acting out, aggression, and disruptive behavior. They also have internalizing problems such as anxiety and depression, whose symptoms may be less obvious. These externalizing and internalizing problems tend to be extreme—that is, well beyond that of normative acting out or a melancholy mood. Also, these problems persist over time and reflect behaviors that go against social expectations and codes of conduct. These tendencies interfere with functioning and learning. Although children with EBD qualify for special education, they may or may not have an IEP. Furthermore, even if they have an IEP, they may not be correctly diagnosed (Kauffman 2010).

Kauffman (2010) advocated strategies that reflect behaviorist principles in working with children who have EBD. These strategies provide clear guidelines for how to behave, use appropriate consequences for behavior, and provide concrete support such as encouragement, verbal directions, and reminders. Consequences might include positive reinforcement and removal punishment. Moreover, it is important to examine the environment to identify how or if inappropriate behavior is being maintained by positive or negative reinforcement. The environment should be structured so that consequences facilitating appropriate conduct and responses are in place.

Regan (2009) provided practical tips for working with students with emotional and behavioral disorders and outlined a four-step plan for teachers that also seems applicable to out-of-school-time programs. The first step involves thoughtful reflection about what is needed to appropriately manage and guide behavior. Teachers (or program staff members) should be mindful of their attitudes and biases in working with children who exhibit disruptive behaviors. Regan (2009) noted that children with emotional and behavioral challenges bring about frustration for teachers, causing them to feel unskilled and to develop negative feelings toward disruptive children. As a result, teachers often employ controlling and punitive strategies in situations where strategies that guide and manage behavior are needed. Hence, teachers (or program staff members) should not allow their emotions to make existing difficulties worse; doing so would interfere with the strategic use of behavioral guidance techniques. Second, building positive and trusting relationships is important. This involves using positive language and appropriate praise, identifying and using the strengths of the children in the classroom and being mindful of their needs. Moreover, it involves helping these children develop positive relationships with classmates and peers. Third, Regan (2009) indicated that children with emotional and behavioral disorders benefit from high levels of structure in the classroom. This involves clearly communicating expectations for given activities in different ways (such as visually and verbally), rehearsing what is expected, and providing written guidelines and checklists for activities. For instance, a lesson should have its major activities or expectations written down in order, so that children can

follow the order and check off when they have completed each task. Fourth, teachers should utilize all resources available to them as they work with children who have emotional or behavioral disorders. These resources include the children's IEPs and IEP team members, parents, and professionals who work in their district and community.

Regan (2009) also noted the effectiveness of "Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports" (PBIS) for students with behavioral and emotional disorders. These interventions and supports involve establishing behavioral expectations, applying appropriate consequences, and making data-driven decisions about the types of consequences to apply based on behavioral patterns observed. The PBIS approach also involves observations of the context or environment in which inappropriate behaviors occur, taking steps to understand how the environment contributes to behavior, and modifying the environment to promote appropriate behavior. The U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, offers comprehensive information about the PBIS approach.

The following section provides more detailed and sequenced strategies that accompany each theory presented.

Constructivism

Cognitive constructivism

The cognitive constructivist theory focuses on providing children with the necessary tools and information to figure things out as they work their minds (assimilate and accommodate). Accordingly, two things have to be present: (1) children's active engagement in learning to produce,

modify, and shape their ideas; and (2) adequate and relevant tools and information for children to use in building knowledge—such tools include structure and guidance provided by staff.

One application of this perspective is Eggen and Kauchak's (2006) inductive model, in which children build knowledge with the oversight and guidance of a facilitator or teacher. The facilitator/teacher structures the activity so that children make accurate sense of information. This technique has five phases: (1) a topical introduction, (2) the open-ended experience, (3) convergence, (4) closure, and (5) application. It should be noted that this technique can be used with academic and nonacademic learning.

With the *topical introduction,* children are given a brief overview of the point of the activity. The introduction is designed to stimulate thought and gain the attention of

the children. It can be a question, a statement of purpose, or a review of previous activities and relevant information. The *open-ended experience* lays the groundwork for children to build knowledge; this is where children experience the information and try to make sense of it on their own. Sufficient tools and information are provided so that children can make some amount of sense of the information. There are many ways to carry out this phase. For example, children could watch a relevant video, play a game, have a discussion, and engage in interactive exercises. With *convergence,* the open-ended experience is used as the reference point for children to build key understandings with the guidance of staff. Children might be asked specific questions about the open-ended experience to highlight important points. This gives them an opportunity to reflect on the open-ended experience and arrive at relevant conclusions. In other words, with convergence, children are asked to analyze the information provided in the open-ended experience in specific ways to help them formulate appropriate conclusions. In this phase, children are actively building knowledge targeted to the learning goal. *Closure* is where children have sufficiently developed understanding as a result of convergence activities, and the learning goal or points of understanding are clearly articulated. In the last phase, *application,* children use their understanding of closure concepts in meaningful and different ways. Applications strengthen and broaden the understandings developed in closure. Here children could point to new examples that reflect their understanding of the issue, or they could provide a demonstration of their understanding (for example, through a drawing).

Three examples of Eggen and Kauchak's (2006) inductive model are provided below. The examples include academic and nonacademic learning goals.

Staff members want children to understand the distinction between liquids and solids—a distinction that is addressed in California's academic content standards for science in different ways across grades. For example:

- Students know solids, liquids, and gases have different properties. *(Grade One, Physical Sciences, standard 1.a)*
- Students know the states of matter (solid, liquid, gas) depend on molecular motion. *(Grade Eight, Structure of Matter, standard 3.d)*

The first example of the inductive model will use the grade-one content standard.

Introduction

With the introduction, staff members could say, "Today we are going to play with matter. What is matter?" Then, staff members would hold up interesting objects that reflect both liquids and solids. Some examples might include dishes, toys, water, and juice. Children could then be told, "All types of things are matter, but today you will play with special types of matter."

Open-ended experience

The staff has set up two play stations: one for liquids and the other for solids. They are called stations 1 and 2. The solids station contains items of interest such as balls,

jacks, toy trucks, dolls, and marbles. The second station contains various liquids in different containers. Some containers are empty. The items in each station are clearly labeled. Children are told in small groups to come up with fun ways to play with the items at each station. Subsequently, they are given time to experiment with items at each station.

Convergence

Children are asked to talk about the ways in which they played with the items at each station. They are prompted to think about the ways they played with items at station 1 (solids), and how things were different when they played with items at station 2 (liquids). During this phase, staff should ask children specific questions that lead them to think about liquids and solids in ways that match the learning goal. Staff should also lead from children's ideas to build understanding. Staff members might ask the children how the items at station 1 felt and how things felt different at station 2. Staff could ask questions such as these: "Were there things you could do with toys at station 1 that you couldn't do with items at station 2? What were those things? Is it possible to play with jacks and marbles in the same way that you play with soda and milk? Can you tell me more about that?" Children may comment that they could only pour or swish the items at the liquids station, but they could hold on to items at the solids station. Staff may need to explain differences to prompt children's full attention to the issues—for instance, by asking "Can you throw juice in the same way that you throw a ball?" Why do you say that?" In the end, children are likely to note key differences between solids and liquids: for example, solids are hard and stay the same shape, whereas liquids are wet, move, and can change shape. Staff would build upon these ideas to proceed to the closure phase.

Closure

Staff identify key distinguishing properties. They point to each station and say, "So there are two types of matter here: solids and liquids." Descriptions would proceed as follows.

Solids	Liquids
Are harder and keep their shape when we touch them Stay the same if we toss them across the room Can be held in our hands	Are wet Change shape when touched or moved Can be poured

Application

In the application phase, children use the knowledge they acquired in the closure phase in diverse and relevant ways. Staff might show children more items or pictures and ask whether the items are solids or liquids. It would also be useful for children to explain why something is a solid or a liquid. There should be multiple applications. Children might go outside to identify liquids and solids they come across outdoors. Special applications may involve serving ice cream at snack time; children could be asked to think about whether ice cream is a solid or a liquid.

Another application might involve the use of sand; that is, each particle of sand is a solid, but children should work to figure this out for themselves (with appropriate prompts and guidance).

With the grade-eight content standard, youths are expected to understand how molecular motion is tied to the states of matter (such as solids and liquids).

Introduction

Staff may wish to incorporate background information relevant to understanding concepts. In this example, the background information might be some basic distinctions between liquids and solids. Staff might survey students on what they know about liquids and solids and add to this such that students are ready to learn about the eighth-grade standard.

Introductions should also be engaging and thought provoking. Staff might ask youths questions such as these: "What keeps that favorite piece of jewelry from falling apart? Why does it retain its shape? Why do fruit smoothies pour more slowly than orange juice?" Youths could then be divided into teams to address these questions, with the understanding that staff members could randomly call on team members to answer a question. If youths need motivation to engage in this activity, staff could indicate that the team with the best answers and demonstrations will get the first choice of liquids and solids during snack time. Another incentive may be to allow the winning team to choose appropriate solids and liquids (e.g., snacks and beverages) for everyone in the program for an upcoming event. The prize should have a clear connection to solids and liquids.

Key questions are posed:

1. Why does a solid, such as a piece of jewelry, remain intact and keep its shape?
2. Why does a fruit smoothie pour more slowly than a glass of orange juice?

Open-ended experience

In teams, youths explore relevant information provided by the staff. For instance, staff members could direct children to applets on the Internet that provide visual demonstrations of what happens with solid and liquid molecules. There are relevant videos on YouTube, TeacherTube, and the educational Web site WatchKnowLearn.org. Staff members can also use handouts and activities from compact discs or DVDs. Optimally, the materials presented should reflect multiple formats. Youths can take mental or written notes to gather information related to the aforementioned key questions. This could occur over a couple of days.

Convergence

Teams gather to discuss what they learned about the key questions. Youths first discuss answers among themselves and come up with collective decisions. Each team would then present what they learned to the staff. Each child must participate in presenting key information to staff, and staff should question all members of a team to check their comprehension and involvement.

Teams gather together with staff members to review key points. Staff review the information that each of the teams discussed, making connections between the youths' answers and the concepts and issues related to molecular motion in solids and liquids.

Closure

The staff presents a graphic organizer (or some other visual) with information about molecular motion in solids and liquids, and gives formal answers to the key questions.

Molecular motion in solids	Molecular motion in liquids
Molecules are close together. There is little space between the molecules. Molecular motion in solids is limited. Molecules move in place. Therefore, solids hold their form or shape.	There is more distance between molecules. Molecules have more energy. Molecules have more freedom to move around one another. Therefore, liquids are free-flowing and conform to the shape of a container.

Jewelry is a solid and keeps its shape because the molecules are bound together. The molecules in fruit smoothies are closer together, with less energy and freedom of movement than the molecules in orange juice.

Application

Youths are allowed to decide how they will represent what they learned. They can come up with creative ways— through dance, song, pictures, and so on—to represent molecular motion in solids and liquids and their answers to the key questions. Staff members support and facilitate these efforts and judge the winner(s) based on outcomes and performances in the convergence and application phases. In addition, consolation privileges are offered.

Behavioral guidance and the inductive model

The inductive model can be used to help children appreciate behavioral expectations. It is expected that children act respectfully and cooperatively with one another. These expectations are reflected in the codes of conduct maintained by out-of-school-time programs. Yet, these expectations are relatively abstract, and therefore children may need to construct for themselves a clear understanding of what these expectations mean for everyday behavior at an out-of-school-time program.

Introduction

Staff can facilitate a group discussion about the importance of getting along with others, treating everyone with respect, and working cooperatively. It would be appropriate to include statements emphasizing that it takes work to get along with others, and that to do it well, a person needs to think before speaking or acting.

Open-ended experience

Staff can introduce the terms "respect" and "cooperation" and provide general descriptions of what these terms mean. Terms should be described in an age-appropriate manner. A general description of respect, for instance, might include the need to treat and talk to others nicely, leave other people's property alone, let other children have a say, and understand that all youths in the program should be able to fully participate in and enjoy the program within the rules. Cooperation would involve taking turns, coming up with fair ways of sharing, and listening to what other youths say. (*Note:* This example will focus on respect.)

Program staff should ask children to give examples of how they can show respect in specific activities, such as homework assistance, snack time, and so forth. Staff should use activities in which children have exhibited difficulty in being respectful. Specific activities (e.g., homework assistance) should be displayed in writing, and children's ideas about what represents "respectful behaviors" in these situations should be written down.

Convergence

When staff members have a sufficient number of ideas written on paper, they should ask children and youths to use the written ideas to establish rules that are specific to each situation and to explain why the rules would be important to the activities. For instance, one rule for homework assistance might be that youths should work and behave quietly. The reason is that other children need to focus on what they are doing, and talking and making noise would be disruptive to them. Children may need staff assistance in developing rules, especially for explaining their importance.

Closure

A list of rules reflecting respectful behaviors in specified activities is reviewed, posted, and perhaps handed out to program participants. Staff will have to decide how many expectations and activities to address at one time.

Application

There are several applications of the points made in closure. One might involve presenting children with scenarios reflecting behaviors that did and did not reflect the rules developed. Youths would have to classify the situations according to "behaviors that reflected the rules developed" and "behaviors that should be left at the door." Another application would be to ask children how they should respond when certain situations arise, such as when people talk during homework assistance or when other challenges to the rules are evident. Children should be asked to use the existing rules as a guide for what to do. Staff members can then add to the children's responses so that everyone in the program understands what is, and what is not, appropriate.

Other applications of cognitive constructivism

- Regularly monitor what children take away from activities by asking what or how they are thinking about the activities. Expressing one's thoughts requires "assimilation," which is necessary for

"accommodation." This is a great way to find out what children discovered and what their concerns and misunderstandings may be. It also opens the door for further communication and reflection.

- Encourage children to "review and reflect" in multiple ways, situations, and activities. That is, review what is expected given the nature or purpose of the activity. Ask many children to weigh in and provide a response about what is expected (assimilation). Then, ask children to reflect on how they will achieve those expectations, again asking many children to respond (accommodation).
- Incorporate peer tutorials during homework assistance. Requiring children to explain ideas and concepts to someone else strengthens their understanding. They may need staff help to prepare tutorials, however.
- When children have reached sufficient levels of mastery, challenge them to think at deeper levels and address more difficult questions. For instance, with the aforementioned concept of solids versus liquids, how does mud fit into the liquid-to-solid continuum? What would the molecular motion of a gelatin dessert look like?

In summary, cognitive constructivism involves promoting in children an active mental presence such that they are able to assimilate and use important understandings.

Social constructivism

This perspective emphasizes the ways in which more experienced individuals (such as older peers and adults) shape how children think about and interpret events. There are many applications. In thinking about how others can impact how children experience taunts and name calling, refer back to the notion of the lens. The lens reflects a viewpoint or perspective encouraged in children by others. Such viewpoints influence how children interpret and experience events. The strategies below are designed for the explicit encouragement of various understandings in children.

Facts versus opinions

This activity is adapted from the Tools of the Trade II program from the University of California's Division of Agriculture and Natural Resources. One purpose of this activity is to help children understand the distinction between facts and opinions—and as a result, to teach children not to take it personally when people taunt them with names or other negative comments. A second purpose is to support children's mastery of the following California third-grade content standard in English–language arts: "Distinguish between the speaker's opinions and verifiable facts" (Listening and Speaking Strategies, standard 1.11).

1. Take three sheets of lined paper (8½-inch by 11-inch) and stack them on top of one another. The papers should be stacked unevenly, such that the first sheet is in the portrait position, the second is in the landscape position, and the final piece in stacked diagonally.
2. Cut out forms or shapes with all three pieces. Hence, in sets of threes there should be similar shapes with lines in different directions.
3. Put children in small groups. Each group should label one shape as shape A. The others can be referred to as shapes B and C. Nothing should be written on any of the shapes. The group task is to describe shape A as accurately and factually as possible, so that others who have not seen their shape can pick it out among the three—but only by relying on the factual description children provide.
4. Before children describe the shapes, staff members will need to explain the difference between facts and opinions. Children should be asked to give their definition of facts, and staff can add to the children's understanding. For instance, children might say that a fact is something that is true. Staff could then ask how the children know something is true, adding to the children's understanding by using some of the following points.

Facts	Opinions
Facts are things one depends on to be true, because they have been shown or proven to be true. Facts are proven by careful observations and descriptions. Facts are described carefully enough so that when others see the descriptions, they can observe, study, and name them also. When something is proven as a fact, it is agreed upon. For instance, by counting, we can prove how many items are in a box or how many fingers a person has; then everyone can see that the person has 10 fingers or that there are seven items in the box. Facts are explained or described in ways that make sense.	Opinions reflect personal points of view. For instance, some people may like the color orange and others may not. Some may think orange is bright and pretty, while others may think it is too bright and flashy. Opinions are only real and true for the persons who hold them. Opinions are more like ideas or feelings. Opinions often change, unlike facts. Opinions do not always make sense.

5. Children will need adequate tools to describe their shapes. They will need rulers to measure width and height. Children will also need to count and describe lines, indicating the numbers they count and the types of the lines (such as horizontal, vertical, and diagonal). Depending on their age and maturity level, children can describe the appearance of shape A on both the front and back sides of the paper.
6. Once the shape is adequately described, children allow members from outside their group to view their description and identify which of the three shapes is A. If or when others are unable to identify shape A, reasons should be explored. Perhaps the shape needs further description to set it apart from the others. Perhaps others should study the shapes more carefully. Also, this may be an opportunity to address the amount of careful thought and consideration involved in determining facts. Staff should ensure that others who are reviewing and identifying the descriptions of the shapes do so carefully and pay attention to the details.
7. Staff members should review what children learned about facts and opinions and reinforce the distinctions between the two. In doing so, staff should use statements based on facts and opinions as they describe the aforementioned shapes—for example, "This shape is five inches wide across the center, and this shape is funny-looking."
8. Staff should then have a discussion about what it means when children use derogatory names and terms to refer to other children. That is, they should discuss whether such names are facts or opinions. Staff should provide additional information on why such names are opinions rather than facts, and why it is important for children to remember this distinction when they are called a name or tempted to engage in name calling. That is, if name calling is not factual, why get upset about someone else calling you a name, and why not keep your opinions about others to yourself?
9. Staff might have children try to describe, in factual terms, common slang names. For example, what does it mean to be a "nerd"? As children engage in this activity, staff members should reinforce the reasons why such names are based on opinions rather than facts.
10. The fact-versus-opinion activity can be adjusted for older youths by using more advanced materials. Marbles or shells that are similar in appearance would be a suitable replacement for paper shapes. Youths would need appropriate tools such as a tape measure and a magnifying glass.

Scaffolding and cooperative activities

During homework assistance and other enrichment activities, children may need an explicit understanding of various concepts and procedures to successfully complete tasks. To help children adequately understand and carry out expected requirements, formal scaffolding may be needed. Scaffolding involves providing children with a fair amount of oversight and guidance as they complete specified tasks. Staff members have to diligently monitor children's comprehension of concepts and their performance. Scaffolding activities must be carefully planned and

organized. They also require appropriate sequencing, as well as explicit information and directions. By organizing and planning scaffolding activities, staff can better understand the issues and requirements of tasks. This helps staff members to fill in the gaps that hinder children's learning.

The use of scaffolding to help children convert and add fractions corresponds to the following California mathematics standard for grade six: "Determine the least common multiple and the greatest common divisor of whole numbers; use them to solve problems with fractions (e.g., to find a common denominator to add two fractions or to find the reduced form for a fraction)" [Number Sense, standard 2.4]. For children to master this standard completely, several layers of understanding are required. Each of these layers could be a scaffolding activity.

Staff members will need to ensure that children have adequate understanding of background information so that they can carry out what is required. Likewise, children will need to understand multiplication, know their multiplication tables, and understand long division. Children also need a fundamental understanding of fractions. Asking them to solve random multiplication and long-division problems, and having them explain the nature of fractions, would provide an assessment of their readiness. If they do not understand those concepts, that subject matter should be addressed first. Assuming children have sufficient understanding of these preliminary concepts, staff could begin scaffolding for the aforementioned content standard. It would be useful to assess what children already know about the standard.

Scaffolding would involve providing children with an understanding of the concepts and procedures involved. It could begin with explaining the concept of least common multiple (LCM) and demonstrating to children how to solve for it. The LCM is the lowest multiple of two numbers. There are different ways to find the LCM, one of which involves multiplying two numbers in order or sequentially. That is, first multiply each number by 1, then by 2 and so forth. For example, for the numbers 4 and 6, the respective sequences would be 4, 8, 12, 16, 20; 6, 12, 18, 24, 30. For this example, children could be told that the LCM is 12 because it is the first number that appears in the sequence for both lists. Staff could show children how to use either a multiplication table or their knowledge of multiplication tables in determining the LCM. With scaffolding, children should begin by practicing this with relatively small numbers, such as single digits, until they understand the process. At first, children may need more prompts about what to do with the numbers they are given and how to identify the LCM. That is, children would (a) begin multiplying both numbers in order, as described above and (b) look for the first number that appears in both lists. Over time and with practice, children should require less help to identify the LCM. Hence with scaffolding, staff members provide more guidance at the beginning of an exercise and less toward the end as children can do more on their own. After children begin to understand the activity, staff should provide hints and guidance only when children need assistance. When children can do several problems easily on their own, without assistance, they can advance to the next step.

Children use their knowledge of the LCM to identify the least common denominator (LCD). This is the least common multiple of the two denominators. The LCD is the same number as the LCM and can be used to convert and add fractions with unequal denominators. For example, to identify the LCM among the fractions ⅖ and ¾, children would enact the process required (5, 10, 15, 20; 4, 8, 16, 20). Therefore, both fractions will have to be converted to have a denominator of 20.

Subsequently, they learn first how to convert and then add fractions. Converting fractions involves a second process. The problem is set up as $\frac{2}{5} = \frac{x}{20}$. To identify the appropriate numerator, there is a formula. The LCD is divided by the denominator of each original fraction. For this equation, the answer is 4, which is multiplied by the numerator of the fraction (2). Therefore, $\frac{20}{5} = 4 \times 2 = 8$; and $\frac{2}{5} = \frac{8}{20}$. **It is important for staff members to break down each step:**

- $\frac{2}{5} = \frac{x}{20}$ (setting up the conversion)
- LCD is divided by the denominator: $\frac{2}{5} = 4$
- 4 x 2 (numerator of the original fraction) = 8
- $\frac{8}{20}$ (converted fraction) where $\frac{2}{5} = \frac{8}{20}$
- $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{x}{20}$ (setting up the conversion)
- LCD is divided by the denominator: $\frac{20}{4} = 5$
- 5 x 3 (numerator of the original fraction) = 15
- $\frac{15}{20}$ (converted fraction) where $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{15}{20}$
- $\frac{8}{20} + \frac{15}{20} = \frac{23}{20}$

To aid children's conceptual understanding, staff should use number lines and pie charts to show how each original fraction is being reconfigured. Also, children may check their answers using an online calculator, such as Dr. Michael Hartley's Equivalent Fractions Calculator (Hartley 2011).

With scaffolding, the concepts and processes involved can be laid out and modeled by staff. Staff may need to model and explain the steps several times. Visual aids help children in understanding math concepts. Number lines and pie charts are commonly used in representing fractions. Children would receive similar problems with single-digit numerators and denominators to practice in collaboration with staff. Staff members would work on problems with children, and in the beginning they would offer extensive explanations and demonstrations. Assuming children understand the LCM, staff could take the following steps to help children work toward mastery of the previously mentioned content standard:

1. Present a few problems, such as $\frac{2}{5} + \frac{3}{4}$, and represent both fractions on a number line. Indicate to children that they will figure out how to add fractions. Explain how the first step is to find the LCM and use it as the denominator for all of the fractions. Subsequently, staff members demonstrate and explain the steps. A Fraction Number Line is available at MathIsFun.com.

   - $\frac{2}{5} = \frac{x}{20}$ (setting up the problem)
   - LCD is divided by the denominator: $\frac{20}{4} = 5$
   - 4 x 2 (numerator of the original fraction) = 8
   - $\frac{8}{20}$ (converted fraction) where $\frac{2}{5} = \frac{8}{20}$

- $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{x}{20}$ (setting up the conversion)
- LCD is divided by the denominator: $\frac{20}{4} = 5$
- 5 x 3 (numerator of the original fraction) = 15
- $\frac{15}{20}$ (converted fraction) where $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{15}{20}$
- $\frac{8}{20} + \frac{15}{20} = \frac{23}{20}$
- Reducing fractions might be a separate activity.

2. With the next set of problems, such as $\frac{2}{6} + \frac{3}{5}$ and $\frac{4}{6} + \frac{3}{7}$, ask children to indicate how they begin to add the fractions. What do they need before they can add the fractions [the LCM as the LCD]? What do they do next [set up the problem]? At each step, children would identify what is needed and carry it out. Staff should prompt children about what is needed, monitor them in carrying out each step, and fill in gaps in understanding or correct mistakes when needed. Staff should give children the room to remember on their own and not be too quick to provide answers. However, all steps should be explained clearly.
3. With each repetition of a problem, children should be able to do more on their own. Once they have easily completed several problems of this type on their own, children are ready to address the next challenge in applying this content standard.

These techniques would be the first phase of mastering the academic content standard. With small or single-digit numbers, it is easier to determine the LCM by multiplying the numbers in order as described previously; however, with larger numbers—such as in the equation $\frac{12}{4} + \frac{5}{21}$—more advanced understanding and strategies are needed. These require an understanding of prime versus composite numbers, the greatest common factor, and for some schools or districts, prime factorization.

Staff would have to explain to children the concept of prime numbers. A prime number can be divided evenly only by the number 1 and by itself. For instance, 3 can be divided evenly only by 1 and 3. Similarly, the number 37 can be divided evenly only by 1 (that is, 1 by 37 times) or by 37 (that is, 37, 1 time. Therefore, a prime number is said to have two factors; it has only two numbers by which it can be divided evenly (the number 1 and itself). The number 1 is *not* a prime number, because it can be divided evenly only by itself, and therefore it has only one factor. Additional information about factors is available at Fact Monster.com.

A composite number can be evenly divided by itself, 1, and other numbers. For example, the number 8 can be divided by 2 and 4 as well as by 1 and 8. Children should start with the number 2 and identify whether subsequent numbers are prime numbers or not, explaining their reasoning. This could be made into a game. Children could take turns drawing random numbers from 2 to 30 and indicate whether each number is a prime number or not. They would have to explain their answers. Then they would check their answers against prime-number tables. If they answered correctly, they could shoot baskets or engage in other fun activities. If they answered incorrectly, they would review whether the number could

be divided by a number other than 1 and by itself. Staff should make sure that all children understand prime numbers before moving to the second concept (the greatest common factor). Additional information about prime and composite numbers is available at Math A Tube.com and Fact Monster.com.

The greatest common factor (GCF) is the highest number that can evenly divide all numbers in a set. For example, with the numbers 20 and 24, the GCF is 4. To demonstrate how to figure out problems like these, staff members can reference multiplication tables. They find each number on the table (20, 24) and identify the lowest to highest number (also known as factors) that divides the numbers evenly (2, 4, 5, 10; 2, 4, 6, 8, 12). Children should be told that once they reach the halfway mark for a number (e.g., 10 for 20 and 12 for 24), they can stop, because higher numbers are too large to divide the number evenly. But they should keep in mind that a number can divide itself evenly—that is, 20 can divide 20 evenly. Therefore, with numbers such as 20 and 220, the greatest common factor would be 20.

Next, staff members identify the highest number that evenly divides both numbers. Children could practice together in groups. Each group would have two numbers and would have to identify the GCF. Each child within a group would quietly study the numbers independently, write down on a piece of paper what he or she believed to be the GCF, fold the paper, and then put it in the center of the group. Staff could randomly draw one response per table and read the answers. Children could then discuss whether they determined the correct answer. In this example, it is important for staff to use prime numbers, because with prime numbers the GCF will be 1. Staff members provide explicit guidance on how to identify the GCF, and then they allow children to practice. Staff would monitor children's practice, teach children how to check their answers, and identify missing divisors when needed. Additional information about the GCF is available at MathIsFun.com.

Once the concepts of prime numbers and greatest common factors are understood, children can use this knowledge to find the LCM (LCD) with larger numbers.

- *When the greatest common factor is 1* (as with $\frac{4}{19}+\frac{3}{13}$), denominators can be multiplied to identify the LCM, which is also used as the LCD. In the present example, the LCD is 247.
- *When two numbers have a greatest common factor other than 1,* the least common multiple can be obtained by following these steps:
  1. Identify the greatest common factor among the denominators.
  2. Divide each denominator by the greatest common factor.
  3. Multiply the three numbers obtained in steps 1 and 2 to determine the LCD.

Take the equation $\frac{4}{24}+\frac{5}{32}$:

1. The greatest common factor is 8 (2, 3, 4, 6, **8**, 12; 2, **8**, 16).
2. $\frac{24}{8}=3$; $\frac{32}{8}=4$
3. Multiply the three numbers to determine the LCD. (8 x 3 x 4 = 96)
4. Scaffolding should also incorporate teaching children how to check their answers using online calculators.

When the least common multiple is identified, children convert the fractions to have the same denominators and then add them together.

When feasible, staff members should work with teachers and other school officials to align scaffolding activities with procedures and concepts taught. In some cases, staff may have to scaffold children's understanding of "prime factorization." This is a way of breaking down larger numbers using prime numbers, and it is another way to find the LCM or the GCF. Ideally, children would be able to identify these using multiplication tables before addressing prime factorization. Also, prime factorization can be utilized as a creative activity. For more information on this topic, consult the applications and strategies in chapter 3. Additional information on prime factorization can be found at MathIsFun.com and Purplemath.com.

To recap, scaffolding requires an appropriate ordering of activities. Scaffolding should begin just above children's ability level. Each of the techniques addressed previously can be thought of separate scaffolding activities. Children can first learn the least common multiple. Second, they can apply this to convert fractions. In cases where staff members provide homework assistance on concepts where children lack prerequisite abilities, homework assistance should be adapted to incorporate the needed understandings. Basic understandings should be in place before advanced concepts are addressed.

More about the lens

- Staff members should show patience and encouragement in scaffolding activities; doing so communicates the importance of persevering in tasks to achieve goals.
- The words used by staff members in scaffolding and other learning activities communicate what is

expected. Words and phrases such as "Figure out," "Explore," and "Find out" imply to children that they have to be active and purposeful in learning. Staff should talk with children about the meaning of these terms and their role in the learning process.

- Staff members should talk with children about how it is often necessary to struggle and mull over topics in order to figure things out. When children comment that a task is "hard," "too hard," or "boring," staff should respond in ways that suggest that struggles are temporary and can be overcome. For example, staff might say, "Let yourself figure things out before you decide it's too hard" or "Give it a chance."

Information Processing

Encourage the use of graphic organizers

To encourage school-age children to think in an organized fashion and to use graphic organizers, let the children experience how the organization of information supports their ability to remember.

1. Divide children into two groups and read a different list of words to each group; see (a) and (b) below. Each list should contain the same amount of words and should not repeat any words. Present the first list, which is not organized, to half the group. After the list is presented, have this group write down or say as many words as they can remember. Next, present the second list (which is a coherent sentence) to the remainder of the children. Again, have the children write down or say as many words as they can remember. Present both lists at a steady pace—not too fast or too slowly. Monitor children to determine when they are at the end of their ability to remember words on their assigned lists.

   (a) *Candles, daughter, tenth, uncle, cake, Joseph, call, my, bought, and, Moe, birthday, to, we, ice cream, Samantha, his, celebrate, of, the, whom.*

   (b) *My cousin Gina, an artist, went to the store so she could buy some screws for hanging artwork on her bedroom wall.*

2. Pose some questions and have a discussion about the two lists. It is likely that children will notice the differences. Questions to ask include "Did you notice anything different about the two lists?" and "What did you notice that was different?" Children are likely to indicate that the second list made sense or sounded like a sentence. Be sure to emphasize that the second list was easier to remember than the first list. At the end of this discussion, provide a sentence composed of the words from the first list: *Uncle Joseph, whom we call Moe, bought ice cream, candles, and cake to celebrate the tenth birthday of his daughter Samantha.*

3. Transition into a discussion about what the children can do to make better sense of things, so it feels more like a second list. Introduce graphic organizers and provide a demonstration of one, using information that is familiar to children—such as the components of their out-of-school-time program or a sequence of events that they routinely experience. It is important

to choose a graphic organizer appropriate to the type of information being displayed. For instance, spider maps focus on one topic, highlighting the major aspects and corresponding details. In the present example, program activities might be divided into major aspects and details. These include *school activities* (homework assistance, computer work), *creative activities* (painting, dance), and *fitness activities* (soccer, basketball, tetherball).

4. Have children develop another graphic organizer using information of their choosing. Direct children to appropriate graphic organizers (i.e., organizers that match the type of information the children want to represent). They can make use of color to represent different elements and display or present the organizers to the group.

5. Transition to the use of graphic organizers for academic concepts and schoolwork. Participants can begin to think about how best to represent different kinds of concepts or issues. They also practice using graphic organizers with academic work. With repeated use, organization of information becomes habitual.

This activity will have to be adapted to the developmental and skill levels of the program participants. Adaptations may focus on the length of the word lists and whether children and youths write or say what they remember. Staff members should also consider the children's developmental and skill levels when deciding on the type and quantity of information to incorporate into graphic organizers.

Ecological theory

Picture "before" and "after"

The use of a "before-and-after" perspective can create momentum with respect to an expectation, by incorporating that expectation across multiple environments. One common expectation that many staff members, parents, and teachers have is that children should have at least some sense of self-control and act in ways that are deliberate or goal-directed. To create momentum with respect to goal-directed behavior, parents, teachers, and staff members can facilitate in children the importance of taking control and acting deliberately by using a pictured before-and-after format:

1. Children would survey a situation and assess expectations at the beginning of a task.

2. A "before" state would be captured visually, depending on the situation. This might be a cell-phone snapshot of a room or station, or a written assignment that needs to be improved.

3. The goals for the task would be established, and the ways by which children might achieve these goals would be reviewed.

4. After completing goal-relevant behaviors, children would survey a situation to assess whether the goals were met. If a goal was met, children would review how it was achieved. If a goal was not met, children would review what they needed to do to make it happen.

5. The "end" state would also be captured visually.

Staff members, parents, and teachers could use this approach in different ways to facilitate responsibility and goal-directed behavior in children. For staff members, this might mean taking a picture of a room or station before an activity and explaining to children that the goal is to leave the room or station in the same condition when the activity is completed. Staff could ask children to review and reflect upon what is needed to achieve this goal. Children would indicate when it would be appropriate to take the "after" snapshot and explain their reasoning. For parents, "before" and "after" pictures might address chores at home. For example, parents take a picture of an unclean room or area, and children take steps to make changes and indicate when the "after" picture should be taken. For teachers, this could involve academic tasks. Each child's level of ability would be identified, and goals reflecting improvement would be set. Work samples done before and after efforts to make changes could be presented to children. Children assess when the goals have been met. Finally, when time or interests permit, specific before-and-after pictures could be the theme of a scrapbooking activity. Together, these activities help children to appreciate that they can make changes to improve circumstances.

Behaviorism (Operant and Classical Conditioning)

Operant conditioning—a celebration of achievement

In attempts to gain children's cooperation and engagement in various behaviors, adults may offer incentives. This is done with the aim of increasing certain behaviors and deterring others. Research on the use of concrete rewards (such as treats and other tokens) suggests that over the long term, the use of such rewards can undermine children's internal motivation and engagement. This is especially true when children already enjoy a behavior, and someone comes along and offers them rewards for engaging in a behavior they already enjoy doing on their own. To encourage motivation, it might be better to have children set personal goals with respect to academics, conduct, and social relationships; work toward those goals; and celebrate their progress. One incentive might be to offer periodic celebrations of children's progress. What is reinforced is progress toward goals. Staff members could use progress reports to inform children individually and privately about their progress toward goals. Children could help establish rules for deciding the extent to which individuals should celebrate based on goals set and progress made.

Classical conditioning

Classical conditioning pertains to the kinds of associations children have about various events, people, and topics. Applications of classical conditioning in after school programs might involve helping to neutralize negative, detrimental associations—that is, when children develop negative associations or feelings about important topics (such as mathematics) or have prejudices about individuals from certain cultural groups. For academic subjects, showing children how these topics are relevant and useful to activities they already enjoy helps to promote interest and positive feelings. Similarly, promoting commonality and

familiarity among and between diverse groups enhances positive feelings. Sometimes, however, staff members may need to help children reframe how they make sense of situations. Children often refer to individuals from cultural groups for which they hold prejudice as "they"—as in the statement, "They always act like that." This may be a good time to help children draw boundaries between their ideas, preferences, and beliefs and those of others. First, maybe "they" see certain behaviors differently, as reflecting something positive or valuable. Second, staff can speak to children about the fact that within rules or limits, others have the right to express themselves and act in ways they feel are right or best for them. When one person or group lacks those same rights, every person's ability to express himself or herself is in trouble. This type of conversation may help to neutralize children's negative attitudes about the behaviors and characteristics of other people.

Additional Resources

Enchanted Learning	Enchanted Learning is an online publisher of educational materials for grades K–12. The site offers Web pages on various educational topics, such as human anatomy, graphic organizers, and second-language dictionaries. Some pages can be downloaded free of charge.
Choose MyPlate.gov	This Web site, hosted by the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Center for Nutrition Policy and Promotion, provides information about food groups, downloadable pamphlets, and interactive activities for children and youths.
Discovery Education	Discovery Education offers free educational tools, including videos on academic subjects and links to other academic resources available on the Web.
LearningReviews.com	This site features links to interactive Web resources for children and youths on a variety of topics, such as academics, life skills, health and fitness, and social–emotional development. Many of the activities available through the site are provided free of charge, and they have been reviewed by parents, teachers, and students.
Stop Bullying Now	This Web site focuses on how to stop bullying. It offers interactive resources for children, such as games and Web episodes on bullying. It also provides resources for teachers and parents.
Active Academics	This site provides an index of physical activities that can be integrated with academic content (e.g., fitness math). Information is indexed by grade (kindergarten through fifth) and subject matter.
LearningandTeaching.info—Constructivist Theory	This site provides additional information on the theories of cognitive and social constructivism.
Educational Psychology Interactive The Information Processing Approach to Cognition	This site provides additional information on the Information or Cognitive Processing theory. It also covers related practices to use in teaching.

About.com: Psychology Introduction to Classical Conditioning Introduction to Operant Conditioning	These two sites provide additional information about classical and operant conditioning (behaviorism).
Wikipedia.org—Ecological Systems Theory	Offers an overview of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory.
Resources for Including Children with Special Needs	
After School Inclusion Project	Administered by the Napa County Office of Education's CalSERVES project for the California Department of Education, this site offers a comprehensive matrix of resources available to out-of-school-time programs.
Kids Included Together (KIT)	Based in San Diego, this organization aims to provide training and support so that recreation, child development, and youth enrichment programs can include children with and without disabilities.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Facts about Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs)	The CDC Web site offers comprehensive information about autism, including causes, symptoms, and treatment approaches.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Facts about Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)	Provides comprehensive information about attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), including causes, symptoms, and treatment approaches.
Autism Society	Based in Bethesda, Maryland, the Autism Society offers information and resources on autism spectrum disorders.
SandraRief.com	Author Sandra F. Rief, M.A., provides a vast amount of practical tips on working with children who have special needs.

Glossary

academic development. The act of improving knowledge and skills in specific school subjects and developing effective study, comprehension, and twenty-first-century skills.

Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA). A federal law passed in 1990 that was designed to ensure equal opportunities for individuals with disabilities.

behavioral conduct. Ways in which children and youths behave, including how they treat others and the extent to which they follow rules and behave appropriately.

developmental trends. Changes in physical, cognitive, and social areas that are associated with age and increased ability.

evidence-based. Refers to practices or policies that are consistent with practices that have been found to be effective. Evidence-based practices require an analysis of whether there is research-based proof that a given practice brings about the goal or desired outcome.

graphic organizers. Visual representations of information that are organized such that they clarify associations between issues and concepts.

homework assistance. Helping children with their homework. This may involve helping with actual assignments or assisting children in understanding subject matter that is relevant or required for their schoolwork.

individualized education program (IEP). A plan of programming or education that is designed for a particular child in special education to meet his or her learning goals.

lens. An individual's point of view about a given issue. A person's lens reflects one's upbringing and experiences and includes interpretations of what is acceptable, appropriate, and important.

meiosis. A biological process that helps ensure that individuals have a unique or individual set of genes. This is used to reference diversity in nature.

SAFE. An acronym that refers to programming that is ***s****equenced,* in that it builds skills in an orderly and logical fashion; ***a****ctively engages* children and youths in the process; and is ***f****ocused* such that programs make time for building ***e****xplicit* (clearly defined) skills.

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CHAPTER 3

Program Development and Behavioral Guidance

This chapter presents program components for school-age care. Effective program development involves several considerations. To reiterate a point made in chapter 1, effective programs should incorporate what Durlak and Weissberg (2007) refer to as a SAFE approach: having *sequenced* activities designed to achieve particular outcomes where youths are *actively* engaged in learning and the construction of meaningful understandings, with program components that are *focused* on the development of *explicit* skills. Furthermore, practices should be evidence-based, and programs should continually assess whether activities are being carried out as they were intended.

Program development should be distinct from the regular school day. Effective program development should incorporate comprehensive activities. For instance, many programs utilize activities that coincide with Gardner's (2000) theory of multiple intelligences, which considers how individuals have different areas of strength (such as mathematical or interpersonal skills). Moreover, effective program development considers the needs of program participants and their families. Program development should also be collaborative, with relevant stakeholders included in the process, and appropriate to the developmental levels of the children and youths in the program.

This section will cover four major aspects of program development: (1) academic development; (2) social–emotional development, including issues such as bullying and character development; (3) recreational and creative activities, such as sports, art, and music; and (4) cultural diversity.

Academic Development

Many programs, such as After School Education and Safety (ASES) programs and 21st Century Community Learning Centers, are designed to support academic development, which includes homework assistance, intervention support, and academic enrichment activities. Homework assistance can be carried out in a variety of ways. Minimal support would involve helping participants understand directions and answering minor questions related to content. Minimal support is suited to circumstances where students understand essential academic content yet would benefit from additional practice in mastering concepts. A greater level of support would be needed when participants struggle to understand the academic content that applies to their homework; in such cases, more active and deliberate instructional activities are needed for participants to complete homework assignments.

Programs address the academic needs of children and youths in a variety of ways. Many utilize academically oriented activities that are structured and sequenced, such as computer activities and games that allow for progressive development of skills. Students begin at a level consistent with their abilities and "graduate" to higher levels; for example, in games or activities involving the addition of two-digit numbers, participants progress by adding two-digit numbers that require carrying over (also known as "regrouping"). To facilitate active engagement and the construction of meaningful and accurate learning, staff members should monitor each child's understanding of concepts covered during or following activities—for instance, by asking children why they chose particular answers or courses of action, or by asking what they understood about adding two-digit numbers. This helps the staff to support active learning and gauge understanding.

An evidence-based approach would involve incorporating best practices for academic enrichment in out-of-school-time programs. The National Center for Quality AfterSchool (2010) offers an Afterschool Training Toolkit that focuses on academic enrichment in disciplines such as mathematics, literacy, science, arts, and technology. The toolkit includes links to research reports that support the practices, as well as sample lesson plans and activities that cut across multiple intelligences. The toolkit also provides guidance for teachers and parents on how to work with multiple stakeholders to support academic enrichment.

Program elements involving academic enrichment and development should foster good study skills. Building good study skills involves helping students to assemble information in a coherent, relevant, meaningful, and academically accurate way. This is aided with the use of graphic organizers that are relevant to content. Good study skills incorporate the process of comparing and contrasting concepts so that children understand how concepts are similar to and different from each other. Good study skills involve the use of additional questions and answers that pertain to the subject matter, to make concepts and issues more meaningful and personal. Good study skills also involve the practice or repetition of learning activities to bolster understanding, appropriate time management, monitoring of children's academic progress, and assessment of their understanding of subjects. Helping children and youths to understand how and why certain strategies are effective in

learning promotes the regular and successful use of those strategies. Finally, good study skills reflect twenty-first-century skills, which include the ability to manage and organize information, analyze alternatives and viewpoints, and solve problems (Partnership for 21st Century Skills 2009). Consult the Partnership for 21st Century Skills' P21 Framework Document for additional information about the skills, knowledge, and expertise that modern students need.

Academic program development should address children's perceptions of academic competence and self-efficacy, as both relate to the academic achievement of school-age children (Scales, Sesma, and Bolstrom 2003). When children and youths feel that they are capable (i.e., academically competent) and have a sense that they can influence their achievement (self-efficacy), academic achievement is enhanced. Bandura (2006) conveys how individuals develop a sense of self-efficacy. First, they must have the intent to achieve a goal. Here one should ask, to what extent are children and youths striving toward a particular outcome (that is, learning the academic content that is before them)? When children are not seeking an outcome, their active engagement is undermined. Intentionality also includes goal setting and an action plan for attaining goals. This includes paying attention and using learning strategies.

It is useful to assess the extent to which children are interested in pursuing goals and to address factors that get in the way of intentionality. Increasing children's understanding of how academic content is relevant to their everyday lives and future goals can support intentionality. One such approach is the "passion mapping" process articulated by Andrews (2002; 2005; 2009). With the passion mapping process, children and youths think about something that really excites them—something they are passionate about. Then the children link different careers to their passions and review how academic subjects relate to such careers. Other components of self-efficacy (Bandura 2006) include children's ability to link their goals to behaviors. This would involve monitoring their actions and engaging in goal-relevant behaviors. Hence, supporting active engagement by children and youths is a key ingredient to realizing self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is also enhanced by a child's sense of access to individuals with expert knowledge and skill who can aid them in achieving goals. Children and youths gauge their level of self-efficacy in various efforts and activities, such as academics and getting along with peers (Bandura 2006).

Efficacy development is supported by several activities (Bandura 1997). This includes encouragement and relevant guidance toward goal attainment. In addition, efficacy development is supported by the use of appropriate role models whom children and youths can relate to and emulate. Role models should encourage intentionality (such as wanting to strive toward certain goals), provide information on goal-relevant behaviors, and carry out goal-relevant behaviors in their own lives. Role models give children and youths the sense that it is possible to achieve goals. Finally, efficacy development requires children and youths to carry out deliberate behaviors that lead to academic success, such as practicing, comparing and contrasting, organizing information, and monitoring one's comprehension. When children and youths engage in these

activities, self-efficacy for academic pursuits is supported. Likewise, academic success can contribute to their sense of scholastic competence, engagement, and achievement.

Social–Emotional Development

As discussed in chapter 2, social–emotional development pertains to many aspects of the everyday experiences of children and youths, including morality and character, social relationships, and feelings of self-worth. Programs regularly impact the social–emotional development of children and youths. Some programs may have formal and structured activities, while other programs may address social–emotional development informally. Participants' learning and development are influenced by the behavior of staff members, interactions with staff members, and the ways in which program staff impact relationships among program participants. Social–emotional development in programs includes such things as training in life skills, bullying prevention, and conflict resolution. Although programs tend to place a greater emphasis on academic development, social–emotional development is relevant to academic achievement (Zins et al. 2004). Additional information on the benefits of social–emotional development is available from the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL).

Many resources and structured activities have been developed to support social–emotional development. Staff should be careful to select activities that best fit the needs of participants, considering issues such as the developmental appropriateness of the activities and their relevance to participants' circumstances and challenges. Social–emotional components should be ongoing and carried out with the same degree of consideration and purposefulness that academic development activities entail. Staff efforts are enhanced when activities incorporate pertinent developmental areas and related knowledge.

Developmental areas can be demonstrated with respect to bullying. Bullying can be connected to physical, cognitive, and social–emotional development in several ways. For example, bullying can undermine the physical well-being of children and youths. The targets of bullying are subject to increased anxiety and stress, and their physical safety and well-being are compromised. Hampel, Manhal, and Hayer (2009) state that helping victims of bullying learn to manage their stress with emotion-focused coping, where victims attempt to minimize negative reactions productively (e.g., by thinking about something else that is fun or pleasant), and reminding victims not to take personally the bad behavior of other people, can lessen the negative feelings associated with bullying. Also, staff members should support and encourage victims' engagement in other productive behaviors, such as social skills development and assertive behaviors that minimize bullying.

Bullying also involves cognitive issues. It can negatively impact the academic performance of both bullies and victims. Bullies often misinterpret ambiguous behaviors—such as being looked at for what they believe is too long a time, or being bumped into accidentally—as hostile acts that provoke their aggression. Teaching children and youths to reframe their interpretations can reduce aggressive behavior (Hudley, Graham, and Taylor 2007).

Furthermore, children often harass peers who have certain characteristics, such as being perceived as different (Juvonen and Graham 2001). As such, children's beliefs can be reanalyzed through program activities. Because young people often view bullying behavior as acceptable and appropriate, moral and character development to address these perceptions should be included. A comprehensive approach to bullying prevention is needed. The American Psychological Association offers an online module (Bullying: A Module for Teachers) that provides current, comprehensive information and strategies on bullying prevention.

Recreational and Creative Activities

Recreational and creative activities include free play; physical and interest-based activities such as sports, dance, and music; and activities involving creative expression, such as making jewelry, woodworking, and cooking. Although such activities may be viewed more as fun than enriching, there are ample opportunities for physical, cognitive (academic), and social–emotional enrichment. However, as with the other categories of programming, care and deliberation must be taken to ensure that opportunities and strategies for enrichment are common.

Sports activities provide a great way to learn about teamwork and how to win or lose with dignity. They can also teach children and youths to appreciate the difference between the mentalities of "we" and "I." In addition, sports activities present an opportunity for character and value development, allowing for the promotion of ideas such as "It's not whether you win or lose, but how you play the game." Moreover, sports activities involve strategizing within the rules of a game and developing contingency plans. Effective strategizing and contingency plans require a thoughtful analysis of one's competitors and an assessment of one's own resources. Programs should be diligent about choosing sports activities in which all children and youths can participate in a meaningful way, irrespective of their athletic abilities. The After-School Corporation (2002) offers a resource brief on practices for sports and fitness programming in after school programs, including fitness challenges, martial arts, and step dance. Visit Expanded-schools.org for more information.

Creativity involves divergent thinking where children and youths have opportunities to think about several reasonable answers or solutions, as opposed to convergent thinking, which involves coming up with one correct

answer. Creative activities offer children and youths the opportunity to "think outside of the box." In providing creative activities, it is important to identify activities that are based on the interests of participants (Sternberg 2003). It is also important to offer a range of options that participants choose collaboratively and that can accommodate individual preferences. Creative activities have the potential to shape physical, cognitive, and social development. In addition to divergent thinking, creativity requires critical thinking and perseverance. Moreover, creative activities offer outlets for self-expression, and they are activities in which youths tend to be actively engaged.

Cultural Diversity

Cultural diversity and inclusiveness should be integral to all aspects of programs. Many programs integrate diversity through food choices, games (such as the use of a piñata or sudoku), and through academic enrichment materials such as books that reflect diverse cultures. Such practices help children and youths from diverse cultures to feel represented and affirmed. Also, literary content that is reflective of participants' cultural experiences facilitates comprehension and recall (Bell and Clark 1998; Goldenberg 2008). This approach is different from offering content in which characters reflect the participants' demographics but do not accurately represent experiences they encounter in everyday life. Program staff should be mindful of this in efforts to promote reading and academic achievement.

Banks (1995) spells out five characteristics that can help staff with multicultural program development: (1) content integration, (2) knowledge construction, (3) prejudice reduction, (4) equitable instructional methods, and (5) an empowering school (or program) cultural and social structure. With content integration, staff would identify how key academic concepts are consistent with what has been used or developed in many cultures. An example would be to show how relevant mathematical and logical concepts have been represented and applied by Native Americans and Africans. In knowledge construction, children and youths analyze how knowledge is created and how cultural outlooks influence knowledge construction. To demonstrate this, staff might have participants answer questions using different points of reference. For example, one of California's history–social science standards for grade four is to "Discuss the effects of the Great Depression, the Dust Bowl, and World War II on California" (CDE 2000, 14). If participants discussed the effects, what they focused on might vary with the cultural group in which they were assigned, such as landowner or migrant. A comparable activity can be used with the following history–social science standard for grade one: "Students compare and contrast the absolute and relative locations of places and people and describe the physical and/or human characteristics of places" (CDE 2000, 5). Again, answers would vary according to the locations involved and each participant's physical features and culture.

The reduction of prejudice is facilitated by consistently incorporating positive and diverse images of various cultural groups. Such images should be relevant to the task and should seem natural. Equitable instructional methods are teaching techniques that accommodate a wide range of learning styles and cultures. (More extensive discussion

of culturally inclusive instructional strategies and academic enrichment activities follows this paragraph.) An empowering cultural climate is established when all stakeholders work together as equals to achieve equity; this might involve examining the biases of all stakeholders, promoting positive inter-group relations, and identifying and incorporating culturally inclusive practices throughout the program.

Programs should be carried out with attention toward specific cultural issues that relate to academic engagement and achievement. For instance, *stereotype threat* occurs as children and youths recognize common and negative stereotypes about their cultural group. Stereotype threat happens when individuals perceive that stereotypes exists about their cultural group with respect to given activities, and they are evaluated or judged in regards to said activities. For some children, negative stereotypes about their scholastic abilities exist, and this can undermine their academic performance (McKown and Weinstein 2003). Staff members can help to lessen vulnerability to stereotype threat. Strategies include providing culturally relevant role models who represent high academic success and achievement, and assuring participants that they are capable of meeting high standards while emphasizing an "incremental" view of ability (Dweck 2000). With an incremental view of ability, children and youths are taught to understand that the mind is like a muscle and that abilities develop over time, through effort and practice. Hence effort and hard work are emphasized rather than each participant's level of intelligence. Utilizing a "mastery-orientation" in instructional activities complements the use of an incremental view. With a mastery-orientation, the focus is on substantive learning and not just memorization or filling in blanks. Hard work is acknowledged as a part of learning, as is the reality that all people make mistakes. Children are given ample time and space to understand concepts (Patrick et al. 2001). Further information on stereotype threat, including strategies for reducing the threat, is available at ReducingStereotypeThreat.org.

High-expectation behaviors regarding academic activities are important to student achievement. Rubie-Davies (2007) outlined several high-expectation behaviors (demonstrated by teachers) that were associated with the academic development of students. Such behaviors should be considered by staff to promote academic success. First, teachers with high expectations anticipated an end-of-year level of achievement that surpassed what students demonstrated at the beginning of the academic year. Second, they had students who showed significant end-of-year improvement. Their instructional activities included statements and activities that helped students focus on the meaning of the academic content before a lesson, modifying information to fit with the students' level of understanding, providing additional prompts or statements that helped students understand academic content, and asking open-ended questions. Rubie-Davies (2007) provided a complete list of high-expectation behaviors.

Note that the aforementioned strategies—such as promoting an incremental view of learning, use of a mastery-orientation, emphasizing progress, and high-expectation practices toward all students—are consistent with the use of equitable instructional methods described by Banks (1995). Also, when implemented effectively, a

cooperative approach to learning utilizes the strengths of all members in a small learning group to accomplish a task. Moreover, cooperative learning activities offer an opportunity to facilitate positive interactions among and between diverse groups of children and youths. Finally, cooperative learning activities are consistent with the group or collective emphasis that is valued in many cultures. A review of the elements of effective cooperative learning activities can be found at the CDE's Cooperative Learning Web page.

Out-of-school learning opportunities are especially important for children in low-income communities (Weiss et al. 2009). Program staff should have an understanding of cultural issues relevant to low-income children. Payne (2008) has identified several strategies to help raise the achievement level of low-income children. Making children and youths feel part of a learning community, along with building relationships based on trust and respect, is important. Offering assistance to children and youths when help is needed and calling them by name facilitates relationships. Payne (2008) noted that low-income children are sensitive to the nonverbal signals individuals use in communicating with them, which they often cite as reasons for why someone disrespects them. Low-income children and youths may have less exposure to formal language use, and staff members should be sensitive to this. It is useful to help children and youths translate whatever slang they use into formal language and to talk with them about the value of being able to speak formally. Although staff may understand that low-income children and youths often have fewer resources, they should also consider the ways in which limited resources impact children's engagement in the program. Payne (2008) noted that children from low-income families often experience different cultural expectations at school compared with what they encounter in their home and community environments. These environments are often unpredictable, and hence children learn to be "reactive" rather than "proactive." Coping skills practiced and modeled in home and community environments may conflict with coping skills that are viewed as appropriate at school. Therefore, Payne (2008) recommended working with children to understand when different rules applied. Other strategies include using techniques that have a high payoff, such as teaching children and youths to ask and develop questions and to identify and resolve gaps in knowledge.

California is rich in language diversity. Almost 25 percent of California's students are English learners, and staff members are likely to encounter English learners in out-of-school-time programs. According to the CDE (2006), an English learner is "a K–12 student who, based on objective assessment, has not developed listening, speaking, reading, and writing proficiencies in English sufficient for participation in the regular school program. These students are sometimes referred to as Limited English Proficient (LEP)." English learners often struggle academically and lag behind many of their schoolmates in test scores. Many researchers (e.g., Goldenberg [2008] and Gray and Fleischman [2005]) have identified strategies that are effective in promoting the academic development of English learners. These researchers have found that good instructional

strategies include clear directions, scaffolding, active engagement and practice, and visual cues such as pictures and graphic organizers.

Some strategies are especially effective with children who are English learners. These include peer-assisted or cooperative learning activities and appropriately sequenced learning activities in which children reach one level of mastery before advancing to a higher level. Moreover, children and youths who are English learners need literacy development in phonemic awareness, phonics, decoding ability, and vocabulary development. Modifications in instruction and academic support are also necessary (Goldenberg 2008; Gray and Fleischman 2005). It is just as important for young English learners to develop their oral literacy skills. Children who are English learners benefit from the "instructional conversation" method, where teachers or other professionals (a) listen carefully to what a child is trying to say, (b) use what they believe the child is trying to say, and (c) provide additional information that connects children's words to a larger body of knowledge. In other words, it involves ongoing dialogue where instruction is framed in a seemingly natural conversation. Additional details about this technique are available from the Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE); consult CREDE's article on Instructional Conversation.

Programs should make sure an appropriate assortment of literacy content is available. Children and youths who are English learners show higher comprehension when stories contain themes and issues that match their cultural experiences. These learners need sufficient time to complete instructional activities and benefit from academic support in their first language. Goldenberg (2008) noted that it is difficult to manage language and content development requirements simultaneously. Therefore, providing content information in a child's first language sets the stage for him or her to better understand and work through the information when it is subsequently presented in English. Finally, Goldenberg (2008) noted that after school programs are a useful resource in providing English learners with extra academic support. Web-based resources for supporting English learners are presented at the end of this chapter.

Issues of cultural diversity should also be incorporated into social–emotional learning activities. Children from different cultural groups may have different emotional stressors, such as crowded living conditions or less supervision. Children may have different moral struggles and conflicts due to culture and circumstances. Careful assessment of these social–emotional issues will allow for program activities that target needs by culture. This might involve consulting diverse individuals who represent different cultures and using research and evidence-based practices in the development of program activities. Therefore activities may not always be the same for all children and youths. Recreational preferences and needs will vary according to a child's culture and age. Efforts should be made to accommodate the interests of all children, yet activities should be flexible enough for children and youths to engage in things that interest them. At the same time, children and youths should be encouraged to be open to diverse cultural experiences.

Behavioral Guidance

Behavioral guidance involves providing children with the tools and guidance needed for appropriate conduct. It is reflected in program rules, discipline, and everyday interactions and practices that convey expectations and consequences. Behavioral guidance therefore is relevant to all aspects of programs. Although the specific needs and developmental levels of children and youths should be considered, there are some fundamental aspects of behavioral guidance.

Behavioral guidance is enhanced when staff and children have a mutual understanding of the program's beliefs and expectations; that is, shared beliefs and expectations enhance the degree to which children and youths participate appropriately in the program. When children and youths do not subscribe to the expectations and practices reflected in a program, efforts to guide and manage their behavior are more difficult.

Staff can implement practices that help children and youths accept and honor the program's expectations. These practices should be incorporated into all aspects of the program. Establishing authoritative and democratic practices is a proactive step toward effective behavioral guidance. Authoritative practices are child-centered and carried out with warmth and patience. The needs and preferences of participating children and youths are considered, as are developmentally appropriate practices; both are reflected in program planning and development. Clear boundaries and expectations are provided, along with rational and explicit explanations as to why such boundaries and expectations are needed. Explanations are culturally sensitive and make use of the needs and concerns of children and youths. If or when children find particular activities unsuitable, reasonable alternatives that meet program requirements and expectations can be discussed.

When children are given a reasonable degree of choice and autonomy in decision making, they tend to take more ownership and responsibility for regulating their behavior (Grolnick and Farkas 2002). Under those circumstances, children and youths do not feel that rules and expectations have been imposed upon them; rather, they feel that they have helped to determine those rules and expectations, which makes it easier for them to follow. Program activities that provide children with sufficient structural support aid successful behavioral conduct (Grolnick and Farkas 2002). As discussed previously, part of this involves having clear

boundaries and relevant explanations. Furthermore, structural support includes providing children with the necessary tools to self-regulate. This may involve efficacy development such that children want certain outcomes and therefore engage in goal-related behaviors. Activities that foster social–emotional development provide structural support (for example, teaching children and youths how to delay gratification and resolve conflicts). Children and youths are also more likely to subscribe to program expectations when they have warm and positive interpersonal relationships with program staff. When staff members understand that respect has to be mutually earned, relationships with children and youths are strengthened.

A preventive approach to behavioral guidance is important. The individual needs and responses of children and youths must also be considered. These objectives can be met in a number of ways—for instance, by reviewing program practices for their suitability; by collaborating with children, youths, and other stakeholders; and by developing policies. Staff development and training activities on this topic are also important. Moreover, it is important to understand that effective behavioral guidance is a process that takes time, deliberation, and patience.

The California School-Age Consortium (CalSAC) offers specific strategies on behavioral guidance that can be used in everyday interactions with children and youths. These strategies, along with related issues to consider while carrying them out, are provided below.

Strategy	Definition	Considerations when using this strategy
Collaboration	Working with children and youths to facilitate behavioral outcomes, soliciting and using their input and negotiating with them about the nature and timing of activities.	Although program requirements mandate certain activities (e.g., homework assistance), negotiating with youths about the best times and ways to get their homework done (such as in groups, working quietly, or using specific organizational strategies) facilitates personal responsibility. Under appropriate conditions, when children know what is expected but act otherwise, ask what they should be doing rather than telling them right away.
Boundary or structural support	Giving children tools and explanations to work successfully within boundaries or limits.	In some instances, children and youths are required to participate in activities in which they have limited interest. This strategy involves providing tips to help participants manage anxiety (e.g., taking a deep breath); offering explanations that children can "buy into"; reminding children of the importance of compromise, as they cannot always control activities; and using other techniques to help children manage tasks at hand (e.g., offering verbal encouragement and communicating high expectations).

Strategy	Definition	Considerations when using this strategy
Modeling desired behavior	Maintaining the high standards of conduct that are expected of children and youths.	Staff members provide examples of how children and youths should behave in difficult situations (e.g., during conflicts or when experiencing stress).
Task-oriented feedback	Providing feedback that helps children and youths understand the types of behaviors or activities that lead to progress or to achievement of desired outcomes.	With goal-oriented feedback, specific activities that move a child toward or away from a particular goal are highlighted. The emotional tone of this feedback should be positive and constructive. General feedback—such as saying "Good job" or "Wrong answer"—does not help children understand tasks at hand.
Positive reinforcement	An application of operant conditioning that includes concrete rewards, praise, and acknowledgment.	This is a valuable strategy, yet it requires careful use. Too much emphasis on positive reinforcement can lead children and youths to think that the reward or acknowledgment is more important than the behavior that led to the acknowledgment. Too much emphasis on rewards undermines children's personal interest in the behavior. Praise and acknowledgment should be task-oriented. Examples include "I like how you took your time" and "I can see that you organized your thoughts."
Redirecting behavior	Directing children and youths to more promising behaviors or activities.	This technique may be carried out in a variety of ways. First, one could suggest an alternative activity when needed. Second, the "compliment sandwich" approach could be used. Third, redirection can occur in the context of collaboration and providing boundary/structural support.
Problem solving	Discussing problems and coming up with solutions.	This can be carried out in a variety of ways—for example, through private discussions with children, group exercises in which the steps of problem solving are practiced, conflict-resolution activities, and role playing.
Verbal reminders	Verbally reminding children of the rules and expectations of the program.	While verbal reminders are often used when inappropriate behaviors arise, they should also be used preventively to remind children and youths of expectations. Verbal reminders in the form of open-ended questions support self-regulation.

Strategy	Definition	Considerations when using this strategy
Maintaining proximity to children and youths (staying close to them)	Positioning oneself near activities such that children and youths understand their behavior is being monitored and that staff can and will intervene.	This should be used for preventive purposes and as a direct intervention for misbehavior. Moving closer to children and youths may encourage them to behave and resolve conflicts appropriately.
Offering sufficient materials and choices	Offering a wide variety of materials and activities that interest children and youths and provide all participants with meaningful enrichment.	When sufficient resources are available, conflict and disengagement are often reduced.
Time-in	Removing a child from a situation in which he or she is acting out, and requiring the child to work on how to do better.	During time-in, children and youths remain with a staff and should engage in constructive and perhaps social–emotional activities that help improve behavior.
Removing privileges	Restricting children's recreational activities as a consequence for misbehavior.	As addressed in chapter 2, this is an application of removal punishment. Ideally, it should be used in conjunction with time-in. Moreover, this technique should be thought out carefully such that it can be short-term; it is not recommended as a singular or ongoing strategy.
Relationship building and coordinating with parents	Working with parents to establish good relationships and reasonably consistent expectations for behavior. This is reflected through ongoing communication and activities such as greetings, e-mails, and discussions; meetings; and parental participation in site-related activities.	Common ground that can be established both at home and the program help provide children and youths with the structure to move behavior in a positive direction. Parental input and participation should be solicited.

Strategy	Definition	Considerations when using this strategy
Developing a behavioral improvement plan in collaboration with appropriate stakeholders (such as staff members, supervisors, and parents)	Developing a specific plan to achieve behavioral goals along with corresponding strategies to achieve those goals.	Goals and strategies should be established collaboratively such that children and youths understand the significance of targeted behaviors and help identify strategies they believe will work for them. Strategies should include identifying and utilizing tools for success, as well as adapting the formats of the program when necessary. Progress toward goals should be monitored and should inform the use of strategies. It might be useful to acknowledge milestones or significant progress demonstrated by children and youths.
Exclusion from the program	Removing a child or youth from the program, either temporarily or permanently.	This should be used when a child/youth presents a danger to himself or to others in the program, or after other methods have been tried unsuccessfully. Care should be taken to identify alternative resources or programs that are in line with the participant's needs and circumstances. It would be helpful to have policies that provide guidelines for exclusion.

The following section provides more detailed and sequenced strategies that accompany each area of program development.

Academic Development

Repetition is necessary for learning. That is, children should understand that in their learning they must review information over and over again. However, what they do with repetitive actions is especially important.

Fostering good study habits

One way to foster good study strategies during homework assistance is to have children develop ideas that make concepts more personal, meaningful, and relevant. Children should be encouraged to make connections between academic concepts and things they already know. They should also be encouraged to ask and answer questions about the concepts. This technique is called *elaboration.* To promote elaboration of concepts related to the following California grade-four content standard, children would first need to understand the differences between categories.

> *Grade 4, Life Sciences standard 2.b:* "Students know producers and consumers (herbivores, carnivores, omnivores, and decomposers) are related in food chains and food webs and may compete with each other for resources in an ecosystem."

1. Herbivores consume only plants, such as leaves, grasses, fruit, and bark.
2. Carnivores consume only meat.
3. Omnivores consume plants and meat.
4. Decomposers break down the waste of others, such

3. Omnivores consume plants and meat.
4. Decomposers break down the waste of others, such as what is left of plants and meat after they are eaten or discarded.

After staff members provide relevant descriptions, they can ask children questions such as the following: Which type is the most similar to the way they live or eat? Which one would they rather live like? Why do they say that? What would they have to do differently if they were carnivores or herbivores? Questions like these help cement in children's minds the qualities of different producers and consumers. Staff could also ask children what would happen if decomposers did not exist. As children age, they tend to elaborate more on their own, but they still need assistance. Staff should encourage children to use their imagination in this way as they learn. At the same time, children should stay focused on concepts. Questions they consider and things they imagine should focus on the topic at hand. Elaboration is best suited for children in third grade and above.

A second strategy that promotes learning is teaching children how to compare and contrast—that is, to say how things are different. This also helps to cement ideas in children's minds and makes it less likely that children will confuse issues when they are taking quizzes or tests. The process of comparing and contrasting information is aided with the use of certain types of graphic organizers, such as a compare-and-contrast matrix. With the concepts above, staff would ask children relevant questions to make the differences between the concepts clear. In setting up the matrix, staff would have to decide how many concepts to address at one time. This should coincide with the children's developmental level. For fourth-graders, examining three of the aforementioned concepts at once seems reasonable. Therefore, the matrix might be set up in this way:

	Herbivore	**Carnivore**	**Omnivore**
What does it eat?			
How does it find food?			
Why does it eat what it eats?			
What are some examples of animals in each category?			

Children would attempt to fill in the blanks first, and staff members would help. Staff should prompt children to remember as much as they can on their own in completing the matrix, and then have them refer to relevant materials from school or the program (such as handouts and textbooks). Children should be told that organizing and filling in tables like these helps to avoid confusion about terms. Staff should use scaffolding (see chapter 2) to help children organize and develop these types of tables.

A third way to foster learning is to use children's developing logical skills to promote their active thinking and processing of material. Throughout elementary school, children develop logical skills that should be encouraged as they digest academic material. Some of these skills include the following:

1. **The ability to group objects according to category.** When the occasion arises, have children use this ability in a relevant manner. For instance, children are often asked to demonstrate their understanding of an antonym by circling the correct word representing the antonym (e.g., *good, [bad]*). If they are struggling with this, they may not fully understand what the term *antonym* means. Staff could help by providing examples of "good" and "bad" and explaining how these words have opposite meanings. Staff could then discuss another word, such as "asleep," and then have children think about what is totally different or opposite from "asleep." Children may have to practice a few times, but each time they do so, they would understand the concept of *antonym* a little more. Then, staff could give children word pairs and have them indicate whether they were antonyms or not, and explain their reasoning. However, to identify the antonyms, children would need to understand the vocabulary words used in the exercise.
2. **The ability to sequence objects.** Children can learn to order things in terms or first, second, third, and so forth, or in ways such as smallest to biggest. This ability should be tapped when children engage in academic activities for which order is important. For example, children could use word order to write grammatically correct sentences or identify the most logical order of sentences to form a paragraph. Staff could uses numbered boxes or columns to help children understand and remember the appropriate order.
3. **The ability to make logical connections and draw conclusions.** Staff should encourage children to draw logical and appropriate conclusions from information presented. In reading, for instance, children should be encouraged to think about certain kinds of questions before, during, and after they read a story. Specific questions would depend on the type of reading and the learning goals involved. Staff might ask general questions such as, "What is this story about? Who are the characters? How do the characters get along?"

In fostering good study habits, staff should use positive peer influence as motivation. Children can work in groups to develop a compare-and-contrast matrix when they have similar homework or academic requirements. They could also compare their elaborations on a topic.

Increasing children's motivation to use effective study strategies and show effortful academic behavior

It is important for staff members to promote a growth mindset (sometimes referred to as an "incremental mindset") when it comes to ability. This involves teaching children that one's ability or intelligence is not fixed; rather, it is dependent on effort and hard work. This mindset is promoted in two ways. **First, staff should provide task-oriented feedback and acknowledgments to children.** Here, staff identify and acknowledge effortful and relevant behaviors that relate to completing tasks successfully (Dweck 2000). For homework or academic enrichment activities, examples of this type of feedback include the following statements:

- I can see that you thought about this paragraph before writing it out.
- I like that you took your time and checked your answers before saying you were finished.
- I can tell that you really practiced at getting this right.
- The time that you took in completing this assignment shows.
- I like how you used color to show the different definitions and examples in your graphic organizer.

Children should understand that effort is necessary and basic to learning and does not imply academic shortcomings. Many children believe that individuals are "lucky they are so smart." This belief is detrimental to learning, especially with regard to difficult subject matter. The statement suggests that ability is a matter of luck and is

beyond one's control. Also, with this fixed mindset (sometimes called an "entity mindset"), ability is believed to be predetermined; that is, one has a fixed amount of it. Children with a fixed mindset see the necessity to put forth effort as a signal that they are not smart or that they cannot do something. Therefore, they shy away from difficult tasks and are more likely to view cheating or shortcuts as acceptable (Dweck 2000).

Second, staff members should help children understand "brain plasticity." Generally, this refers to the brain's capacity to change as a result of experiences (including learning new things). This would be consistent with a growth or incremental mindset. To help children understand this, staff could make use of online videos, presenting the material and having follow-up discussions with children. Below are two examples on brain plasticity:

1. YouTube video on The Learning Brain. This video, which was designed for children, provides an overview of how the brain works, the importance of taking care of the brain through healthful practices, and how the brain changes as one learns new things. The video helps children understand that they are in charge of their brain, as opposed to the idea that a person's brain determines what he or she can learn. Following the video, staff can have a discussion with children about what they learned. Staff should highlight that individuals determine how well their brains function by what they do; that the mind is a muscle, and we have to condition the mind to make it work the way we want; and that when we try very hard, practice the right way, and take time to work carefully, we are conditioning our minds.
2. YouTube video on Brain Plasticity. This video provides a human-interest story of a child who, because of a seizure, had half of her brain removed. However, with time and rehabilitation she began to function fairly normally. This shows that the brain can adapt and change because of experience—that the brain really is "plastic." Staff can use this, therefore, to reinforce the concept of brain plasticity.

Staff members should also emphasize that when children succeed, it is because of the children's practice and effort. When someone completes a math or other academic problem that others cannot, it is because that person's brain has been conditioned through effort to complete the tasks. However, one has to engage in the right kind of practice to achieve goals. Children and youths need to study in ways that lead to better understanding.

Making connections between academics and children's interests

It is important for children to have intentionality in their learning. This includes wanting to learn a subject and appreciating the value of learning a topic. One way to do this is to show how a particular academic subject is relevant to and useful for something that children are already interested in. Take math, for instance. Math has a role to play in common activities in which children are interested, such as baseball, music, and art. To make connections, staff could carry out the following activities:

1. Identify a common theme, such as sports, and an academic content area such as mathematics.
2. Identify diverse interest areas for that theme that (a) can be readily connected to the academic subject, and (b) fit with children's areas of interest. Examples of sports may include baseball, soccer, basketball, and volleyball.
3. Separate children into groups, and have each group research how the academic content area is relevant and useful to their specific area of interest within the theme.
4. Use available resources to find information. This would include the Internet, books, speakers, and videos.
5. Staff should be specific in linking themes to academic subjects. For instance, to evaluate base stealing in

baseball, the distance from one base to another, along with the speed at which one can run that distance, must be compared to the speed at which the ball is thrown to tag someone out. Gathering this information can help form judgments about optimal opportunities to steal a base. Additionally, division is used to calculate batting averages, which can be useful in predicting the success of teams or other outcomes.

6. Children would develop posters on the topic and post them around the program site. Posters would (a) provide an overview of the connection between the interest area and the academic subject, and (b) provide concrete demonstrations such as how to calculate a batting average.
7. Children should have the opportunity to review other groups' posters.

Social–Emotional Development: Sample Activities to Reduce Bullying

The reduction of bullying involves a comprehensive effort. This means that everyone involved with the program—staff members as well as children and youths—must be committed to ending bullying. Staff members must be willing to monitor for bullying, deter children from bullying by using appropriate consequences, and offer extra protection to children who are bullied. Children must be willing to report bullying when they see it and offer appropriate bystander support to children who are bullied. Three key aspects of effective intervention will be addressed with sample activities: (1) helping children to understand what bullying is, (2) creating an anti-bullying mindset in staff and program participants, and (3) identifying appropriate ways for bystanders to intervene when they witness bullying. (This information was obtained from the Stop Bullying Now Web site and the StopBullying.gov Web site.)

Definition of bullying

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services defines bullying as "unwanted, aggressive behavior among school-aged children that involves a real or perceived power imbalance" (visit StopBullying.gov for more information). Bullying is deliberate or purposeful and is repeated, or has the potential to be repeated, over time. At times, bullying is physical, such as when children hit or fight with other children. It can also be psychological, such as when children constantly engage in name calling

or decide that no one should play with or befriend a specific child. Sometimes, bullying occurs at the program site; other times, bullying happens when children use the Internet to say negative things about others. With bullying, children are not evenly matched; a bully may be physically bigger than or more hurtful toward others, or there may be several children who engage in bullying against one child. There are a number of reasons why children who are bullied may not say or do anything about the behavior inflicted upon them, but of course it is never acceptable for any child to be treated badly.

To help children and youths understand what bullying is, staff should provide some examples and nonexamples. This distinction is important, because there are times when conflict or aggressive behavior is labeled as bullying when it is not. As a result, a situation may be mishandled or children might report bullying when none has occurred. Below are some examples and nonexamples of bullying:

1. Jamie is cutting out paper shapes. Another youth, Jonathan, needs to borrow the scissors. When Jamie refuses to share the scissors, Jonathan marks up Jamie's paper, and the two of them start fighting. *[Nonexample]*
2. Lori calls Marisol "bucket head," and Marisol tells Lori to shut up. *[Nonexample]*
3. Karl tells Maria that she stinks and begins to hold his nose. Maria doesn't say anything. Another time, Karl yells "stinky" as Maria walks by and holds his nose. Other children begin to laugh and hold their nose, too. *[Example]*
4. Some bigger boys always try to trip a smaller boy by sticking out their feet whenever he walks past them. When the smaller boy loses his balance, the bigger boys laugh. *[Example]*
5. While children are waiting in line, Jose cuts in front of Carlos, and Carlos then cuts in front of Jose. The two boys start to push one another to see who can be ahead in line. *[Nonexample]*
6. Jennifer accidentally sat down in a chair that was wet, and as a result, her pants were stained. Mariel sees the stain and tells everybody that Jennifer wet her pants. Several children start calling Jennifer "baby pants." Jennifer tries to explain what really happened, but the children continue to call her "baby pants" anyway. *[Example]*
7. Some children believe that Marco is homosexual. They often write names such as "homo" and "fag" on Marco's books. These children laugh when Marco sits down and sees what they wrote. They also pick up Marco's personal belongings, such as his notebook, and flaunt them in his face when no one is around. *[Example]*
8. Kylee and Tara engage in an online argument about something that happened at a recent party. They exchange angry words, with Kylee accusing Tara of saying something that Tara denies saying. The two girls stop speaking to each other for a while. *[Nonexample]*

Staff should use age-appropriate examples and nonexamples to help children understand the difference

between bullying and conflict. In doing so, staff should review why some examples qualify as bullying. For instance, there may be several children in the program who are picking on another child in an ongoing manner. Staff should also note that even though some behaviors may not constitute bullying, they may still be inappropriate.

Children should understand why some children engage in bullying. They should also be taught that bullying is not the fault of the person(s) being targeted. This is an important lesson, because children who are targets of bullying need to know that they should not take it personally when they are bullied. This type of instruction also helps to create an anti-bullying mindset in the program, one that does not place blame on victims. Finally, understanding why some people bully others should help children understand their role in preventing and responding to bullying.

Why do children engage in bullying?

Staff should explain that some children bully other children because they can. In other words, bullies look for situations where they can get away with picking on other children. In addition, here are a few other reasons why children engage in bullying:

1. Bullies feel hurt inside, so they hurt others.
2. Some children bully others to make themselves feel better or to look "cool" in front of peers.
3. Bullies do not always understand or care about how their behavior affects others.
4. Bullies sometimes jump to hasty conclusions about the meaning of others' behavior.
5. Bullies tend to get angry very easily about what other people do.

To establish an anti-bullying mindset in a program, children must understand that bullying is wrong. Staff should remind children that everyone is welcome at the program—and when people are welcome, they should never be bullied. Most important, children should understand how bullying affects others. Bullying makes people feel sad, even if they are not the targets of bullying. Programs are meant to provide children with opportunities to have fun and learn new things. Consequently, when children are bullied, they will not want to come to the program because they will not feel safe from harm or able to have fun. Staff members should talk with children about how everyone in the program can work together to stop or prevent bullying. Staff should discuss actions that both children and staff members can take, including the following:

1. When children witness bullying, they should let staff members know about it. There should be multiple ways in which children can report bullying. While staff may want children to report bullying immediately, it is possible that some children may not want to do this. Some children may prefer to report bullying anonymously or in an inconspicuous manner. Additionally, children should be reassured that if they do report something, staff will maintain confidentiality.
2. Staff members should tell children and demonstrate to them that the program staff follows up on matters. This might involve talking with bullies privately to discuss their behavior, watching bullies carefully, and

removing their privileges. Furthermore, staff might talk with the children who are involved in incidents of bullying. For instance, in the previous example of the child who was ridiculed because she had wet pants, staff could explain to everyone what actually happened and describe how the incident detracted from fun and learning at the program; instead of focusing on learning and participating in activities, children were saying and dealing with hurtful things.

3. Staff members and children should pay close attention to children who are bullied—that is, by offering them kind words, asking them to participate in activities, and taking extra steps to make them feel welcome. Staff members should take extra care to ensure that children who are bullied are put in situations that offer them adequate learning and enrichment opportunities where they can feel safe and experience success. Special care should be taken to direct these children to activities and individuals that suit them. To better accommodate children who are victims of bullying, staff might consider redirecting the programmatic participation of those involved in bullying.

4. Staff should ask children what they want to do (and what they already may be doing) to make everyone feel welcome. They should also provide children with guidance on how to make everyone feel welcome.

5. Staff should emphasize that bullying should never be encouraged. This means that children should not laugh when they see someone who is being picked on. It also means that children should report bullying to staff members upon witnessing it.

6. Staff should make it clear that bullying someone never shows that a person is "cool." In fact, it merely shows that a person is capable of being cruel.

7. Staff can engage children in activities that help them think further about how bullying is wrong. This might involve reading or viewing anti-bullying materials (such as Internet articles and videos) and having children express their thoughts on the subject. For instance, the children could discuss what they agreed with or learned from the materials. Children could also help select or develop anti-bullying posters to display at the program site. They could write about why they do not want children to be bullied at the program, and samples of their written reflections could be posted around the program—anonymously, if needed.

8. Staff can talk individually with children to find out what they are comfortable doing when they see other people being bullied. Although children should not be responsible for confronting bullies, they might be able to disrupt instances of bullying by inviting a targeted child to participate in an activity.

There are other things staff members can do to reduce or prevent bullying. Staff should understand that children who bully may need professional intervention, and that appropriate remedies should be applied. Specific recommendations include helping bullies to reflect on their behavior and identify ways to do better. In addition to offering proven strategies to address bullying, the Stop Bullying Now Web site also provides information about strategies that are not effective at reducing bullying. For example, zero-tolerance policies deter children from

reporting bullying. This is because a significant number of children have engaged in bullying of some form, and therefore harsh consequences associated with "zero tolerance" make children less likely to report incidents to staff members. Attempts to help victims get along with bullies, such as through conflict resolution or peer mediation, are also inappropriate. Asking a child who has been victimized by a bully to work things out or get along with the bully can cause the child further distress. This approach would be similar to asking a crime victim to get along with the person who committed the offense against him or her. (*Note:* The aforementioned strategies were obtained from the Stop Bullying Now Web site.)

Creative Activities

To spark children's imagination and creativity, staff members may engage children in mathematics activities that involve secret codes.

Developing secret codes

In chapter 2, prime factorization was noted as a more advanced technique for helping children to identify the least common multiple. According to MathIsFun.com, prime factorization is used in developing secret codes. The study of secret communications is called cryptology, which is related to math. The development of secret codes using prime factorization can be the basis of a creative activity and incorporates divergent thinking, as there are multiple ways one can go about this. Second, it requires children to "think outside the box," as secret codes are not obvious. Children must understand the nature and purpose of developing secret codes. The process involves "encrypting" information—using a series of letters, numbers, or symbols to communicate information and carry out functions in ways that are not obvious. The code serves as a cue to what a sequence of letters or numbers actually means. To provide children with a concrete understanding, staff might compare encryption to putting on a good disguise. In order to understand what the code really means, the children will have to "decrypt" it (uncover what the code really means). Additional information about prime factorization and its uses is available at MathIsFun.com; enter "Prime Factorization" in the site's search engine.

Before developing secret codes, children need to understand prime factorization. To do this, children must understand the definition of a prime number. The strategies

in chapter 2 can be used to help children understand prime numbers. Ideally, children should have the ability to multiply and divide. However, children can work on multiplication and division while they are developing secret codes. Children should have access to a multiplication table while working on this activity.

With prime factorization, a given number such as 39 is broken down by prime-number multiples. Then, to check the accuracy, all the numbers are multiplied together. They should result in the original number. In breaking down a number, children start by dividing that number by the lowest prime number that will divide the number evenly. Then the sum total is divided by the lowest prime number possible, until one arrives at a prime number that cannot be broken down further. Examples are provided in the next few paragraphs.

Children begin by looking at whether the number 2 (the lowest prime number) can evenly divide the number given; then they look at 3, 5, and so on. If the number to be broken down is even, children would start by dividing it by 2. Staff should provide several examples, beginning with two-digit numbers to keep it simple and then progressing to three-digit numbers when children understand. Take the number 39. The lowest prime number that can be divided by 39 evenly is 3 ($\frac{39}{3}$ = 13). The lowest prime number than can be divided into 13 is 13. Therefore, to get back to the original number the calculation is as follows: 3 x 13 = 39. It may help to use a prime number table such as the one from Fact Monster.

The lowest prime number that can be divided evenly into 104 is 2, because 104 is an even number ($\frac{104}{2}$ = 52). The lowest prime number that can be divided evenly into 52 is also 2 ($\frac{52}{2}$ = 26). The lowest prime number that can be divided evenly into 26 is again 2 ($\frac{26}{2}$ = 13). The lowest prime number that can evenly divide 13 is 13. Therefore, to get back to the original number, the calculation is as follows:

2 x 2 x 2 x 13 = 104

Children should practice prime factorization in collaboration with staff members. In practicing with children, staff should clearly lay out the steps. Using the number 35, staff could proceed as follows:

1. Start with the lowest prime number (2) to see if it can be evenly divided into the number.
2. If that number cannot be divided, proceed to the next prime number (3). If that number cannot be divided evenly into 35, move to the next prime number (5).
3. Once children find a prime number (in this case, 5) that can be evenly divided into the given number, they can circle it and carry out the division ($\frac{35}{5}$ = 7).
4. The next step is to look at the lowest prime number that can be evenly divided into 7 (7).
5. Therefore, to get back to the original number, the calculation is 5 x 7 = 35.
6. Staff should begin with two-digit numbers under 50 and then proceed to higher two-digit numbers.

There are many ways to use prime factorization to develop secret codes. However, staff should consider using

exponents. The exponent indicates how many times a number is to be multiplied by itself—such as 9^2 (9 x 9 = 81). This can be used to establish the number that will be the key to unlock the code. In other words, the number 81 will be encrypted using prime factorization to establish the secret code. However, children will also need to develop the key to cue them on how to go about decrypting the information. If one were to use 81, perhaps "2911" could be used as the key. The number 2 in front of and the two 1s behind the number 9 could signal that 9^2 was the number (81) to decrypt.

Therefore, children could engage in the following creative activity:

1. Identify a number to be encrypted using prime factorization (such as 81).
2. Develop a key for said number (2911). To ease communication, children should consider using a common key pattern. Hence if the number were 2411, 16 would be the number to decrypt (4^2).
3. Carry out the prime factorization process. ($8\frac{1}{3} = 27$; $\frac{27}{3} = 9$; $\frac{9}{3} = 3$; 3 does not break down evenly any further by a prime number. The lowest prime number that can evenly divide the number 3 is 3. (Therefore 3 x 3 x 3 x 3 = 81). Hence when children see 2911 as the key, they know to decrypt 81 using prime factorization and should arrive at 3333.

Once children get the hang of this, staff could have decryption contests. That is, others would try to figure out the secret code simply by being provided the key. They would not know, however, what the key represented. They would simply have a number (2911) as the starting point to attempt to break the code. For contests, the key could be written on the front of an envelope with the secret code sealed inside. At the end, children could identify what the key represented and show how it corresponded to prime factorization.

It is important for children to understand the importance of mathematical patterns in the encryption and decryption process. In other words, they need an order or sequence that is understood. The consistent sequence or pattern is what allows one to communicate information. Staff could also note the various ways that encryption is used in everyday life. When we use the Internet to obtain information, encryption prevents others from being able to see or decrypt our messages. Encryption prevents people from breaking into computers to steal credit-card numbers. Children should be encouraged to think of ways they would use secret codes. Perhaps they could use a code to remember the combination for a lock. A numeric key could be taped to the back of the lock. This would help children remember the combination and at the same time keep the real combination hidden from others.

For further creative activities, children can develop more secret codes using their understanding of mathematics, letters, or words. Children might work in groups to do this. They would need to understand that the process of encryption needs to be clear and memorable. If no one can remember, it cannot be used. Staff should remind children to make use of existing patterns in numbers, letters, and words. Also, using a consistent key format to trigger the

decryption process would be important. Staff should note that activities on secret-code development are most appropriate for children starting at about the fourth grade.

Developing colorful descriptions

With younger children, there are comparable creative projects that can utilize math and science. Such activities could make use of the following California science standards on investigation and experimentation:

- Record observations and data with pictures, numbers, or written statements. (Grade One, standard 4.b)
- Use numerical data in describing and comparing objects, events, and measurements. (Grade Three, standard 5.c)

As a creative project, children could experiment in making their own blend of unique colors and come up with fanciful names for those colors. Children could mix different colors together using paint, but also carefully record how they were mixing the colors. When they come up with a color they like, they could name the color.

In preparation for this activity, staff can explain or review some basic properties of color, such as the difference between primary and secondary colors. Primary colors (blue, red, and yellow) can be combined to make other colors. Purple, for instance, is a combination of red and blue and therefore is a secondary color. Staff can obtain more specific information about colors at ColorMatters.com and other Web sites.

In carrying out this activity, children would need appropriate equipment, such as small measuring containers, to pour different colors of paints onto a plate. Children would then experiment with mixing colors, noting how many parts of each primary color were used to create other colors. Staff may want to observe children and provide assistance if any children need help in figuring out how they made a given color. When children develop a color they want to call their own, they would attempt to create that color in one of the empty measuring cups. In other words, they would use the mixture they developed on the plate to create the color in the measuring container. This would be their sample. They would use the color in the container to write out (paint) their name on a blank paper plate and provide a name for the color. Staff may need to help children come up with fanciful names. Other children could try to figure out how each child made his or her particular color, attempting to replicate the color through trial and error. Staff could use this to stress the importance of keeping careful records and paying close attention to reproduce and understand what happens.

Engaging children in creative activities

Programs offer a variety of creative activities for children and youths. Children and youths will have different levels of interest in activities such as mixing colors or developing secret codes. Some children may be especially interested; others will not. To engage children, staff should incorporate children's interests into creative activities. For instance, in mixing colors, staff could ask children about their favorite colors and challenge them to come up with something they like even better. Staff can explain that colors they like can look a lot of different ways, depending on how they are mixed with other colors. Children could also come up with ways to use color to express various feelings. For instance, what colors might make them or others feel happy or excited? In developing secret codes, children could think about how such codes might be useful, such as in remembering locker combinations or passwords.

Staff members might also think about using the following methods of encouragement for engaging children in creative activities:

1. Have enough flexibility for children to put their own creative mark or personal touch on projects. That is, how can they use the materials to also tell a story, or express themselves? Jewelry can be created and used in a variety of ways. Encourage children to come up with something new and interesting.
2. Brainstorm with children to give them ideas for being creative. For example, with jewelry making, how many ways can one use a necklace? What things could be made with the wood they have? How could people use those items?
3. Ask children to use the opportunity to express a feeling, tell a story, or make a point. Explain that this is what makes others have a reaction to and become interested in one's artwork. Also, the ability to express oneself in these ways can and needs to be practiced and developed, no matter what form of art they are working on.
4. Explain to children that coming up with interesting artwork in one area (such as jewelry making) can help them in other areas (such as dance). Both involve coming up with new ways of putting things together.

Promoting Respect for Cultural Diversity

Programs should make it clear to participating youths that all children and youths are welcome at the program, regardless of their ethnic group, religious background, or other persuasion. If children are being targeted because of their cultural group—for example, because they are LGBT—staff should remind everyone connected to the program that all children have the right to participate in the program free of harassment or ridicule. Staff members should use developmentally appropriate language to clearly state the program's purposes—that is, to help kids do better at school, develop skills, and have fun. Harassment of any kind is unacceptable.

Staff should also consider providing children with information on some fundamental biological facts about

human diversity to communicate how human beings were meant to be different and yet connected. First, there is information about meiosis, a biological process that ensures no two individuals are exactly alike. Therefore, even though two children born to the same parents may be similar because of their shared genetic makeup, they are not exactly alike. Staff could use videos and charts to highlight what happens with meiosis. Second, staff might explain to children that there is a similar picture beneath every human's skin; for example, we all have lungs, tonsils, and blood inside of us, and if you were to look inside a person at her lungs or blood, you could not decipher her ethnic group. These points may help children understand that some diversity among people is natural, but the essence of every human being is the same.

Utilize multicultural activities

Programs should use a multicultural curriculum. In creative projects, staff could expose children to relevant artistic expressions from around the world. For instance, in jewelry making, children could review jewelry designs from several cultures (Mexican, Tibetan, African, and Chinese). An overview of key elements of jewelry design or fashion from these cultures could be provided, with children being encouraged to think about what they like about each. Depending on the time available, staff should consider talking with children about the significance of certain artistic expressions or artifacts, such as jewelry in the cultures identified. Subsequently, children should be encouraged to borrow ideas from these cultures to develop their own artistic expressions.

Integrate academic, social–emotional, and multicultural programming

The Anti-Defamation League (ADL) offers ways to use children's literature to address and reduce bullying and to promote tolerance and respect. The ADL recommends particular books for children in kindergarten through eighth grade and provides discussion questions and extension activities, which help children to process and understand bullying, differential treatment of others, and how to improve behavior. The issues addressed include being teased for having an atypical name and experiencing differential treatment because of one's skin tone ("colorism"). The ADL also offers an interactive training program to combat cyberbullying. The program aims to teach strategies to middle school and high school students to protect themselves and take action against cyberbullying. For more information, visit the ADL Web site.

We all live here

On an ongoing basis, staff members should celebrate the contributions that various cultural groups have made to the local region, the state, or the nation. Staff should consider doing this according to themes, such as with inventions or music. In focusing on inventions, staff could display information about inventions developed by individuals from various cultural groups. Staff could address how specific inventions are used in everyday life and make our lives better, and the qualities required to develop an invention, such as creativity and persistence. According to Banks (1995), these types of activities are useful for reducing prejudice. An example of a creative activity would be

to have children assist in making displays of inventors from diverse cultural groups. They could also make miniature models of the inventions.

Use a targeted approach to address issues that affect specific cultural groups

Many programs have populations that might be considered vulnerable or at risk. These include but are not limited to children who are English learners and those who come from low-income families. Staff should use the resources mentioned in this guide (particularly those listed at the end of this chapter), as well as other relevant resources, to develop and carry out strategies that promote positive outcomes for diverse children. For instance, Payne (2008) identified several issues that impact children who come from low-income families. One involves challenges that children may have in using formal speech, such as the type used and expected at school. In targeted programming, staff should first understand this and not draw hasty conclusions about children based on their use of informal speech or slang. Second, staff should make active efforts to help children express themselves with formal speech. Therefore, when children use slang (such as "dissed"), ask them to explain the slang in a way that teachers or those unfamiliar with the terms can understand. Staff may need to help with this process. Staff should explain to children why it is important to be able to communicate in a formal way: because the children will be able to communicate with teachers and with others who do not understand what slang terms mean, and because children will have new opportunities opened to them as a result. Staff should identify examples of specific opportunities that would appeal to children at their site.

A second challenge involves the ability to distinguish the rules and expectations of the program site from rules and expectations that exist outside of the site. In helping children make this distinction, staff could facilitate activities and discussions with children where the rules and expectations of the site are listed in a column. In a second column, labeled "Other Places," children are asked to explain how the rules and expectations of the program site are different from those they encounter in other places. Staff should have children note specific rules in other places that are different from site rules. This chart can be referenced when children's behaviors are bordering on rules that apply in "other places."

Staff should ensure that practices and policies of the program help reduce or minimize stereotype threat. There are various ways in which negative stereotypes can hinder the academic performance of school-age children. Staff should ensure that these practices are not part of the program. ReducingStereotypeThreat.org offers effective, research-based strategies, some of which overlap with the strategies in this program guide. This includes helping children to understand that learning complex material (such as the least common multiple) involves a learning curve where one has to take time and effort to figure out the material. In this way, children are less inclined to think their difficulties are caused by shortcomings associated with their cultural group.

Finally, staff should be sensitive to the challenges of children who are English learners, many of whom have fewer opportunities for (and interest in) oral communication in their classrooms. Children or teachers may have difficulty understanding the words used by English learners. Sometimes, children are belittled because of how they speak. These experiences can heighten their self-consciousness and limit their interest in oral communication. Staff can use the "instructional conversation" method discussed in this chapter to build conversational skills and academic knowledge. To recap, this method involves staff members listening carefully to what a child is trying to say, using what they believe the child is trying to say, and providing additional information that connects children's words to a larger body of knowledge. This occurs through a seemingly natural conversation. Staff should consider working individually or in small groups to provide children with sufficient opportunities for oral communication, perhaps in connection with "rap sessions." Bilingual staff members should offer children appropriate language support when necessary. In doing so, they can clarify what a child intended to say in his native language and help the child to communicate the information in English.

Additional Resources

Academic Development	
Fact Monster.com	This site provides information and reference materials on many topics, including mathematical conversions, science definitions, and America's 50 states.
CoolMath4Kids.com	This site offers resources for children between the ages of three and twelve. It includes activities for learning about and practicing math concepts.
Coolmath.com	This site, for people who are thirteen years of age or older, offers activities for learning about and practicing math concepts.
Coolmath-Games.com	This site offers math games for people of all ages.
Dositey.com	This site offers math and language-interactive activities for specific grade levels. It includes lessons, exercises, step-by-step tutorials, and printable worksheets.
PBS Kids	This site includes educational games and activities, some of which can be downloaded.
Rice University Mathematics Lessons	This site offers interactive math lessons on subjects ranging from fractions to geometry.
Multiplication.com	This site contains multiplication activities and games that can be played with one or more individuals.
IXL	This site offers math practice for items that correspond to various state standards, including California's content standards for kindergarten through grade six.

Academic Development	
Math Playground	This site provides math activities and shows how mathematics is related to a variety of careers. It also includes numerous videos about math.
BBC Learning: Schools	This site offers interactive activities in language arts, science, social studies, and more for children and youths of all ages.
Funbrain.com	This site features math and reading activities for children of various ages.
BrainPOP	This site offers free videos on a number of academic topics, including wind energy and angles.
AAA Math	This site provides a variety of math activities for children in kindergarten through grade eight.
Finance Freak.com	This site reviews the basics of money management. It provides information on banking, investing, and the "math of money." It also includes financial calculators.
Partnership for 21st Century Skills	This site offers tools and resources that focus on preparing students for success in the twenty-first century.
Help with Fractions.com	This site provides information on adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing fractions. Fraction calculators are also available.
Dr. Mike's Math Games for Kids	This site includes a variety of printable and online math games.
MathIsFun.com	This site offers math resources for teachers, as well as games.
Math A Tube.com	This site offers resources to help both parents and children with math.
Purplemath.com	This site offers online lessons, learning forums, and other resources for students who are seeking help with algebra.
Social–Emotional Development	
Good Character.com	This site provides resources and downloadable activities on character development. It offers guidelines and tips for incorporating character into various types of activities, including service-learning and sports.
Out on a Limb: A Guide to Getting Along (University of Illinois Extension)	This site offers resources on conflict resolution for teachers and youths. Videos and downloadable activities are available.
PBS: It's My Life	This site offers interactive activities and videos on a variety of topics related to social relationships and safety issues.

Social–Emotional Development	
Internet4Classrooms	This site provides character education resources for teachers and students (elementary and high school). Topics include anger management, bullying, and conflict resolution. Videos and downloadable activities are also available.
McGruff: The Crime Dog	This site offers resources on safety practices for children and youths. It includes interactive activities.
Developmental Studies Center	This site offers articles on social–emotional issues relevant to out-of-school-time programs. Assessments on social–emotional development are also provided.
Recreational and Creative Activities	
MostFunGames	This site offers a variety of arcade and action-style games for people of all ages.
Playkidsgames.com	This site offers a variety of fun and educational games.
Incredible Art Department	This site offers online and downloadable art activities for all ages.
Creating Music.com	This site offers online music activities. Children can create music using various simulated musical instruments.
Music Tech Teacher	This site offers a variety of music quizzes, games, and worksheets. It also provides assistance with music theory.
ArtsAlive.ca	This is the Web site of the National Arts Centre of Canada. It offers educational materials and interactive activities on music, theater, and dance.
Cultural Diversity	
California School-Age Consortium (CalSAC)	CalSAC provides an eight hour bullying prevention training series and offers various trainings on cultural competency and inclusion.
Teaching Tolerance	Founded in 1991 by the Southern Poverty Law Center, Teaching Tolerance aims to reduce prejudice, improve intergroup relations, and support equitable school experiences for children. Their Web site offers activities on how to teach tolerance at all grade levels.
Youth Programs: The Museum of Tolerance	The Museum of Tolerance offers downloadable and on-site activities that focus on cultural diversity and tolerance.
Diversity Council.org	This site offers links to diversity education activities for elementary, middle, and high school students.

Cultural Diversity	
TeacherVision: Diversity Resources for Teachers	This site offers printable lesson plans and activities on multicultural education, focusing on kindergarten through grade twelve.
Thinkfinity	This site offers thousands of educational resources, lesson plans, and interactive games. It includes resources on cultural diversity and cultural groups.
WestEd: Free Online Publications	WestEd offers free online publications on topics such as English learners, culture, diversity, and equity.
Resources for English Learners	
California Department of Education: English Learners Web Page	This site offers practices for supporting English learners' academic development.
California School-Age Consortium (CalSAC)	CalSAC offers a training and professional development program for staff to increase their capacity to better serve English learners.
Colorín Colorado	This site provides information, activities, and advice for educators and Spanish-speaking families of English learners. Materials are offered in both English and Spanish and include tips, toolkits, and research reports.
Bing Translator and iTools	These two sites offer free online translators with which users can type in words and phrases to have them translated into various languages.
Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE)	This site offers resources and instructional approaches for working effectively with English learners.
Activities for ESL Students	This site provides a host of activities—such as quizzes, puzzles, and podcasts—to support English-language learning. Activities are offered at different levels (easy, medium, and difficult).
Supporting English Language Learners Through After School Programs (SELLASP)	SELLASP is a statewide approach to addressing needs of English learners in after school programs. The project includes four training modules.
Everything ESL.net	This site offers Web links to activities specifically designed for school-age English learners.
ESL Kids Online Learning Games	This site offers interactive learning games for children who are English learners.

Glossary

free play. Unstructured recreational or leisure activities. Children and youths choose which activities they will engage in and how they will do so. As an example, children who choose to draw during free play would be allowed to do so however they see fit, within the scope of general program rules and policies.

graphic organizers. Visual representations of information that are organized such that they clarify associations between issues and concepts.

inter-group relations. The relationship between noticeable groups.

mastery orientation. A course of action geared toward authentic learning and understanding, such that information and skills are fully understood and complete.

multicultural. When many cultural points of view, practices, and representations have equal status in a given organization or institution.

multiple intelligences. Abilities of individuals in various content areas. Examples include musical–rhythmic intelligence, visual–spatial intelligence, and logical–mathematical intelligence.

SAFE. An acronym that refers to programming that is ***s****equenced,* in that it builds skills in an orderly and logical fashion; ***a****ctively engages* children and youths in the process; and is ***f****ocused* such that programs make time for building ***e****xplicit* (clearly defined) skills.

stakeholder. A person or group that has a strong interest in an organization, often because of mutual goals or concerns. Examples include parents, community residents, or professionals in a community service organization.

stereotypes. Common yet premature and nonfactual judgments about members of particular cultural groups.

user-friendly. Something that is accessible and manageable—that is, relatively easy to use and understand.

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CHAPTER 4

Creating Quality Environments for Out-of-School-Time Programs

The environment is essential to creating high-quality programs. The environment includes psychological characteristics, such as the extent to which the program atmosphere is safe, welcoming, caring, and motivating. It also includes physical aspects such as facilities and both indoor and outdoor space. In addition, the environment includes all stakeholders connected to the program—for example, staff members, program participants, parents, and administrators.

What Is a Welcoming Atmosphere?

A welcoming atmosphere conveys to participants that they are a central part of the program. It involves personalization of the program space, which can be accomplished in a variety of ways. Below are a few suggestions for personalizing the program space:

1. Display participants' work or projects prominently and treat their work and projects as valuable.
2. Display participants' photographs prominently. This may include school, family, or other photographs that participants hold in high regard. It may also include photographs taken at the program site.
3. Use program materials such as poster boards, books, and games to reflect a wide variety of cultural groups, ethnicities, socioeconomic statuses, genders, and countries of origin. Program materials should be positive and should present various groups of people in nonstereotypical ways. Program materials should also represent children with

special needs in inclusive ways (for example, by showing them actively engaged in activities).

4. Establish individual spaces (such as lockers and bins) where participants can place their belongings. These spaces should be secure and personalized by participants as appropriate.
5. Display notes and other informational items for participants and parents in attractive, user-friendly ways and in convenient and accessible places.
6. Engage all stakeholders in collaborative development of the program's activities and policies.

The program environment should also be safe, incorporating the following elements:

- Explicit guidelines on safety practices
- Emergency procedures that are prominently displayed, articulated to all program participants, and practiced
- Explicit policies on harassment
- Prominent display of safety and harassment policies in relevant venues
- Collaborative social contracts between and among participants and staff members regarding behaviors that relate to safety practices
- Clean and well-maintained furniture and equipment
- Protected spaces where participants can be quiet and undisturbed
- Practices on behavioral guidance that help participants to adopt safety practices, policies, and procedures and act accordingly

Examples of a caring program environment can be demonstrated with sample behaviors from the Ethical School Climate Index (Keiser and Schulte 2007), which include the following:

- Appropriately acknowledging or praising participants for their work (appropriate praise is task-oriented and reflects the progress and efforts of participants)
- Treating students with respect and encouraging them to ask questions and freely express their ideas
- Using strategies that convey high expectations and having staff demonstrate appropriate behaviors through their actions and reactions
- Being well prepared to carry out daily activities and helping students to develop tools for success, which include good study skills and opportunities to practice skills or new understandings
- Encouraging cooperation among participants
- Treating all participants fairly
- Being dependable

In a motivating environment, participants look forward to attending the program and strive to give their best effort. Here are a few suggestions for creating an environment that will motivate participants:

- Provide interest-based and developmentally appropriate choices. Participants are more likely to take responsibility when they can exercise a degree of choice about program activities.

- Offer diverse activities and use rotations so that participants do not become bored.
- Display the progress and accomplishments of participants in a wide variety of activities.
- Use bulletin boards and posters to convey positive, motivational messages.
- Have well-planned activities that run smoothly.

Managing and Organizing the Program's Physical Space

Program space should be arranged to fit with activities. The following guidelines pertain to the management and organization of the physical space for common activities.

1. In providing *academic development and homework assistance,* participants need a quiet space with appropriate tools. In addition to a table and chairs, such tools would include worksheets and other text materials, calculators, a dictionary or thesaurus, pens and pencils, and perhaps a computer to access resources that would help participants as they develop concepts. The physical space should be arranged in ways that facilitate appropriate engagement. Planning in advance is necessary to incorporate independent versus group learning along with instructional activities for small and large groups. It would also be useful to have posters or bulletin boards that feature graphic organizers and other informational items related to academic engagement. Academic development activities would also include reading or other language-arts activities (such as journal writing). As such, spaces should be arranged where books, notebooks, and related materials are easily accessible.
2. *Academic enrichment activities* augment academic development indirectly, as participants are required to use mathematical or critical-thinking skills. Enrichment activities require special preparation and planning. For example, cooking activities are most effective when a program has a functional kitchen with running water, electrical outlets, and eating utensils. Apart from this, some improvisation may be acceptable (for example, by using a hot plate or electric grill). Outdoor spaces can provide a space for grilling. Board games and puzzles, which can be stored in portable containers, require spaces where participants have sufficient room to spread out when using them. Science enrichment activities also require spaces where children can spread out and observe scientific phenomena. These spaces should have sufficient ventilation and should be located where potential spills and the use of organic elements (such as soil) do not pose problems. Gardening activities require suitable outdoor spaces that are protected from regular foot traffic.
3. For *social–emotional development,* special care is needed in managing and organizing spaces. Privacy is more essential, as children and youths are asked to address sensitive areas such as dealing with bullying and managing emotions. As such, spaces for small-group work may be appropriate. In other cases, space to work individually with computers, notebooks, or worksheets will be appropriate. Spaces that are comfortable and different from regular classrooms

(such as with bean bags) seem more suitable. When feasible, social–emotional activities can be conducted outdoors; one example is with team-building exercises.

4. *Recreational and creative activities* are broad-based and include athletic, dance, and other artistic and creative activities. Careful consideration should be given to the type of space used for such programming. With athletic activities, care must be taken to decide what type of space is appropriate, given safety concerns. Some programs have gymnasiums, while others have limited outdoor space. Dance activities often involve some type of sound system and require a reasonable amount of open space; hence programs have to decide the extent to which participants may engage in dance activities without infringing on other spaces. Art activities require special planning and ample space. These activities vary according to space and resource requirements. For instance, painting activities and crafts that involve the use of glue require ready access to running water, spaces that can accommodate spills and spatter, and plastic and other materials to cover and protect surfaces. Musical activities require space that does not interfere with other site activities.

In addition to considering specific types of activities, programs must consider other factors to arrange the environment appropriately. These factors include considerations about group size and the level of isolation and privacy needed. There should be (a) places where children and youths can be quiet and undisturbed, such as when reading; (b) places where children and youths can work or play cooperatively in small groups; and (c) places that can accommodate large groups, such as a soccer field or playground. Furthermore, to avoid the need to transport items, the physical space should be arranged such that materials are close to the areas where they will be used. Spaces should also be organized such that all children can be adequately supervised. There should be "line-of-sight" supervision where all children are in view.

On a similar note, staff members will need to make decisions about whether the space and organizational setup are appropriate for the ability or energy level required in a given activity. In terms of ability level, staff should consider whether the space and materials can accommodate a variety of ability levels or whether it would be more appropriate to offer spaces and materials that are grouped according to specific ability levels. This type of planning is needed when offering projects such as woodworking, where tools and techniques vary according to ability. Spaces should also coincide with required or expected energy levels. High-energy exercises such as kick ball, four-square, or jump rope should take place in larger, more open areas (for example, gymnasiums and outdoor spaces). Staff should also keep in mind that the organization of the space helps to convey what is expected of participants. For example, large, open spaces encourage high-energy behaviors, while smaller spaces in enclosed areas convey different expectations. An adequate number of staff members should be present to monitor and supervise all activities.

Types of Spaces

In addition to managing and organizing spaces according to specific activities, programs must address the following issues and needs as they relate to different types of spaces:

1. Parent spaces—areas where parents or caretakers can sign their children into or out of the program, obtain information about the program, lounge, and communicate with staff members. Establishing a dedicated space for parents can send the message that parents are an important part of the program and that their presence is valued. Programs can also incorporate online (Web-based) space for communicating with parents. Virtual spaces offer convenience, as parents may not be able to have lengthy or engaging conferences while picking up their children from the program.
2. Kid's Time spaces—areas where participants are somewhat removed from others. Kid's Time space is needed for children and youths who do not feel well or need "down time." This type of space can also be used for time-in.
3. Staff areas—private spaces where staff members can store and secure their personal belongings, take breaks, and address program issues. At a minimum, staff areas should include a table and chairs, a telephone, and office supplies.
4. Administrative space—contains essential elements for the smooth operation of the program, including space for participants' files and records, a telephone, a computer, a copier, and seating. This space should provide sufficient room for stakeholder meetings.
5. Storage space—necessary for storing equipment and program materials.
6. Outdoor space—places such as playgrounds and open, grassy areas. Many programs have access to this type of space, which is excellent for carrying out artistic, athletic, and other activities that involve high levels of energy and extensive materials (such as with science).

Shared Space

Many program activities are carried out in shared space—sites that are used for multiple purposes. Examples include out-of-school-time programs that are offered on school grounds. Operating in a shared space requires special considerations. Care must be taken not to disrupt other activities conducted at the site. Therefore, it is important to plan and collaborate with others who use the space (e.g., teachers and school administrators) to ensure that program activities do not conflict. Programs must also work to ensure that sites are left in the condition in which they were found. This conveys respect to other people and groups who use the site.

The following practices can make it easier and more efficient to operate in a shared space:

1. Use mobile centers with equipment and materials that can be readily transported with carts or dollies.
2. Label storage boxes and containers. It may help to use color coding or some other scheme to ease the transition from storage to use.
3. Consider using wheeled cabinets or containers to transport materials.
4. When possible, use storage containers and cabinets that can be locked.
5. Display laminated posters to convey expectations and other information.
6. Make the environment different from the regular-school-day environment by using temporary or portable equipment or props.
7. Schedule enough time at the beginning and end of the program day to set up and store items. Program participants can be involved in these tasks.
8. Use behavioral guidance strategies such as verbal reminders to facilitate participants' understanding of appropriate conduct in shared spaces.
9. Use agency-wide policies and procedures to maintain consistency.
10. Create a communication forum through which staff members from all organizations that use the site can communicate about important issues.
11. Demonstrate respect for all parties who use shared space and materials.

Selecting Equipment and Materials

There are numerous types of equipment and materials available to programs, and therefore several considerations need to be weighed when selecting equipment and materials. Ideally, programs should have a balance of academic, social–emotional, and recreational equipment and materials. This guide identifies many free online resources for staff on academic and social–emotional development, recreation, and cultural diversity. However, the nature or purpose of the program will help determine the appropriate types and extent of materials needed. For example, a program whose central purpose is to provide academic support and development should select a variety of relevant materials with the understanding of how those materials will support the program's goals.

The selection of materials should coincide with the type of space available. Computer software and activities seem most appropriate when there is ready access to computers (for example, when there is a computer room on site). The selection of equipment and materials should be appropriate to the developmental needs and interests of participants, and the materials should accommodate the number and diversity of children and youths on site. Equipment and materials should excite and challenge participants. When staff members need to select items such as seating, they should consider the physical differences and requirements of program participants—and children and youths who have special needs must be accommodated.

Another factor to consider is the cost and durability of equipment and materials. Popular games and activities will be used frequently and are subject to wear and tear. Inexpensive but low-quality materials and equipment may break down more quickly than more expensive items, which could undermine any initial cost savings or perceived benefits. Similarly, programs need to decide whether materials with numerous parts or pieces that children and youths will use regularly can be maintained. Proper organization and storage of materials helps to preserve them. Participants should be taught how to use and store equipment appropriately to enhance durability.

Safety is also a consideration in the selection of equipment and materials. Items with hard or sharp edges, small pieces, or even materials for use in scientific exercises should be selected with caution. Participants may need extra supervision and explicit training to use such materials safely. Materials and equipment that require additional supervision and precautions should be stored in secure locations.

Be creative and prudent in the selection of materials and equipment. In many cases, recycled or repurposed materials can be used. For instance, sturdy shoe boxes can be used to store items. Various containers, such as milk cartons and paper cups, can be used for planting seeds. To reduce costs, seek opportunities to buy items in bulk quantities. Partner with community stakeholders and businesses to obtain discounted goods. There may also be opportunities to obtain donated goods.

In addition, programs should make use of "repurposing" when identifying materials and equipment. Repurposing involves using an item in a way that differs from its intended purpose. It also involves transforming items so that they can be used for different purposes. A simple example is the use of egg cartons to store beads. Repurposing is environmentally friendly, as the materials are not discarded into landfills. Staff can also involve children in the process of identifying materials for repurposing. This would involve (1) identifying materials and equipment that are needed, and (2) indicating which of the needed materials or equipment could be created through repurposing. Staff could make this into a creative and/or science activity. For creative activities, children could think about what types of objects or materials could be repurposed into items that were needed. For science activities, children could examine aspects of "materials science"—the study of the properties of materials such as metals. In repurposing objects, one has to be mindful of the materials used in order to make judgments about their durability, flexibility, and therefore their suitability for new purposes. Additional information about materials science and repurposing is available at the following Web sites:

- Strange Matter
- Simple Homemade
- Craftynest.com

The following section provides more specific strategies for creating a safe and caring environment.

Children and staff members have a role to play in creating a safe and welcoming program environment. The multiple roles of staff members have been outlined in this chapter and include such things as treating program participants with fairness, providing consistent support, and collaborating on program activities. In the sample activities that follow, children and staff explore the meaning of psychological safety and what it takes to create a psychologically safe environment.

What Is a Psychologically Safe Space?

Psychological safety is an abstract concept. To help children understand what it means to feel psychologically safe, staff should start by talking about physical safety and why it is important. Following this, staff could transition to a discussion about psychological safety.

In the context of a rap session or an overview of rules and expectations, staff should begin with the question, "What does it mean to be physically safe?" Then, using a board or easel paper, staff should write down children's ideas related to physical safety. Following this, staff can summarize what physical safety entails, pulling in the ideas provided by children. Next, staff could ask another question, such as "Why is physical safety important?" Children may provide answers such as "So you don't feel afraid" or "So you won't get hurt." Finally, staff should acknowledge the points made by children and add to them, emphasizing that when children are physically safe they tend to be more focused on what they are doing and on what they should be doing—and therefore they learn more.

In transitioning to psychological safety, staff could add that physical safety is similar to "feeling safety." Staff should explain to children that "feeling safety" reflects many things, including these examples that staff can add to or modify:

- Children feeling safe enough to tell staff when they do not understand something
- Children feeling safe enough to try really hard at something even though it is difficult
- Children feeling safe enough to be themselves
- Children feeling safe enough to admit when they make a mistake
- Children feeling safe from being picked on or bothered by others
- Children feeling safe from being hurt on an emotional or feeling level
- Having feelings protected and looked after, much the way physical safety protects and looks after the body

Staff should ask children why it is important to have "feeling safety." Subsequently, staff could write children's ideas on easel paper. Children might indicate that "Feeling safety is important so others feel happy or unafraid." In summarizing children's ideas, staff should stress points that are similar to those that were emphasized when talking about physical safety. That is, "feeling safety" allows children to be more focused on what they are doing and on what they should be doing. As a result, they learn and benefit more from activities.

Lastly, children should be involved in coming up with ways for all kids to experience "feeling safety." There are a number of ways to accomplish this, including but not limited to the following:

1. Ask children to discuss the types of things at the program that make them have "feeling safety." Children could complete sentences aloud or in writing—for example, *"I have feeling safety when . . ."* and *"I do not have feeling safety when . . ."* Staff might consider having children answer these questions privately or anonymously. A compiled list of everyone's statements could then be shared with children in a general way, so that specific names or situations remain confidential. Staff could use this list to brainstorm with children about what everyone needs to do to establish "feeling safety" in the program.
2. To be more specific, staff could list particular items from the preceding list (children feeling safe enough to tell staff when they do not understand something, to try hard even when something is difficult). Subsequently, children would identify what it takes (or would take) to make them *feel safe* enough to do these things, and situations when they may not feel safe enough to do these things. Again, children would complete relevant sentences provided, and staff should consider having children answer these questions privately or anonymously. Finally, staff would share with children how they learned a lot from the children's answers and intend to use them to help everyone feel safe. If children's answers suggest a role for program

youths, such as not laughing when they see others having difficulty, these should be incorporated into ongoing rules and expectations.

3. Staff should consider posting in relevant places examples of behaviors that promote "feeling safety." These behaviors might include giving someone a "thumbs up" after the youth has made significant progress or accomplished a goal during homework or recreational activities. Feeling safety is especially relevant for engaging children in activities that foster social–emotional development.

Offering Proof of Collaboration

Collaborating with children to determine program activities is important for their engagement in and enjoyment of activities. It might be helpful, therefore, for staff to explicitly tell children how their input is used in making programming decisions. Staff might conduct regular surveys about children's preferences and display the results graphically, using pie charts or bar graphs. Another method would be to have children provide a list of their top-three interests and summarize the results in terms of frequencies, again using appropriate graphs. Doing so would allow children to see how many of their peers (or what percentage of them) were interested in diverse activities. Staff would then use this information to select and modify activities and to make connections between program activities and the children's preferences. Staff should also explain to children that there will be times when program activities are not among the children's favorites, but that everyone can still benefit from the activities by learning something they might not otherwise know and by understanding that they are giving others a chance to participate in activities they enjoy. If necessary, staff might also remind children that everyone has different interests and that all people's interests are important—and therefore children should be encouraged to give all activities a chance and make the most of them.

Appreciation from Peers

When youths show appreciation for one another, it can go a long way toward creating a safe and caring environment. Staff can promote peer appreciation. For instance, staff members could target a few children each month for peer recognition and appreciation. A recognition card would be created. Staff would follow a rotation whereby all children under their supervision would be recognized within a period of three to six months. Other children would contribute to the card by thinking of and writing about qualities they appreciate or admire in the selected child. Staff would guide children in this process, identifying children who have reasonably good relationships with the target child or who would be cooperative in this undertaking. Staff members would explain that they intended to present the recognition card as a surprise to the selected child. They could also let children know that everyone would have a chance to be recognized, and that the manner in which children treated their peers would be considered. Staff would have to decide how much attention to bring to these activities, as well as the method for delivering the card.

Additional Resources

National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities	This site provides numerous resources on designing, building, and maintaining safe, healthy, high-performing schools.
Coalition for Community Schools	This site offers resources for organizations partnering with schools for youth development.

Glossary

community stakeholder. A person or group residing in the geographic region of the program that has a strong interest in the organization, often because of mutual goals or concerns.

graphic organizers. Visual representations of information that are organized such that they clarify associations between issues and concepts.

user-friendly. Something that is accessible and manageable—that is, relatively easy to use and understand.

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CHAPTER 5

Staff and Program Evaluation: Some Guidelines for Effective Program Management

It is well understood among after school professionals that a well-trained and highly qualified staff is integral to the success of any program. The process of ensuring that staff members are well trained and highly qualified involves multiple layers: assessing needs or gaps in staffing and program components; identifying important skills for success; maintaining clear job descriptions; using rigorous search and interview practices; selecting the right people to complement the program team; offering staff orientation sessions; mentoring, supervising, and evaluating staff; providing staff training and development; and motivating and recognizing staff.

When hiring staff members, consider the program's needs and how those needs are being met by existing staff. Consider the aspects of the program that are working well and those that need strengthening. This can provide insights about the qualities of future staff that will complement the existing program. The next step would be to link program needs with particular qualities. Many programs have minimum qualifications, such as a high school diploma, some college credits, and passing a district Instructional Aide test. However, programs should look beyond basic or minimal criteria to consider qualities that would maximize the program's effectiveness. When developing job descriptions, keep in mind that professionals who work in out-of-school-time programs should have basic and advanced skills as described below:

Basic Skills

1. Has strong interpersonal abilities
2. Relates well to children and youths
3. Communicates well
4. Has good organizational and problem-solving skills
5. Works well in a team environment
6. Is reliable and punctual
7. Is a good role model for children and youths
8. Is comfortable with and relates well to diverse cultural groups
9. Has an inclination toward professional development

Advanced Skills

1. Understands the developmental needs of children and youths
2. Understands the role of cultural influences in the lives of children and youths
3. Selects, plans, and carries out activities that are developmentally appropriate
4. Modifies or adapts activities as needed in response to developmental or cultural needs
5. Resolves conflicts
6. Builds relationships with parents and caretakers

Specialized Skills

Specialized skills also contribute to program quality. These skills reflect in-depth understanding in particular areas and can be used to plan and carry out focused activities. Ideally, specialized skills should be accompanied by relevant evidence. Examples include college course work or degrees in particular subjects, a certificate of completion for training, and evaluations and demonstrations that showcase proficiency. Here are a few examples of specialized skills:

- Highly developed academic knowledge and practices in specific subjects, including mathematics, English–language arts, and science
- Experience with homework assistance and academic development—while this would pertain to highly developed academic knowledge and practices, a second layer would involve enhanced instructional abilities and the ability to foster development of study skills
- Highly developed knowledge and practices on particular topics, such as social–emotional development, or with populations such as children with special needs, Asperger's syndrome, and so forth
- Specialized recreational knowledge and training abilities—an example would be knowledge and ability in soccer and the ability to guide and support children in developing soccer skills

The progression from basic to advanced-level skills complements the requirements associated with positions of higher rank in California's licensed school-age child care

facilities. Assistant and Associate Teachers must have 3 and 6 college units, respectively, of school-age child development classes, with a grade of C or better. Teachers and Master Teachers must have at least 24 units of early childhood or child development classes, with at least 12 units of school-age child development classes and 16 general education units. Teachers and Master Teachers are also required to have 2–3 units of supervision, depending upon the option chosen. Site Supervisors are required to have at least 60 units of higher education and various types of supervisory experience, depending upon their option. Program Directors are required to have an Administrative Credential, or at least a bachelor's degree along with supervision units. Moreover, for each advancing position, additional hours of experience are required. This pattern shows that the qualifications required for positions of higher authority and responsibilities facilitate program quality. It would be important, then, for programs to support and encourage staff in seeking higher education and advancing their skills.

Relevant skills and qualifications should be clearly articulated in job descriptions—and job descriptions should convey specific job activities (such as supervising children, tutoring, carrying out recreational activities, writing reports, and so forth) and relevant levels such as Master Teacher or Site Supervisor. Job descriptions should also include educational or testing requirements, such as having a high school diploma and passing the district Instructional Aide exam. In addition, job descriptions should describe the basic, advanced, and specialized skill levels that are required or desirable.

The search for qualified staff members should be extensive. Identify sources where highly skilled candidates are likely to be found. These sources might include career centers at colleges and universities; organizations involved in out-of-school-time programs, such as the California School-Age Consortium (CalSAC); and school districts or other large organizations that serve children and youths. A program's job openings could be advertised through these organizations—with online postings and through other means. Networking and distributing flyers at professional conferences may also help to expand search and recruitment activities. Advertisements should identify the competitive pay offered by the program, positive aspects of working for the organization, and the application requirements, such as a cover letter, résumé, and submission deadline. Requiring applicants to submit a cover letter explaining how they meet the criteria and describing their advanced or specialized skills may help to expedite the identification of qualified candidates. If a program uses a specific application form, it would be helpful to make the application document(s) easily accessible (for example, electronically).

The interview process should consist of questions and activities that parallel what is expected of the position. Make sure that the interview process is consistent for all candidates, and use interview questions that encompass basic, advanced, and specialized skills as needed. For instance, the following questions reflect basic skill requirements:

1. What do you see as your strengths in working with school-age children and youths?

2. What are some challenges related to working with school-age children and youths?
3. How do you inspire school-age children and youths?
4. How have you worked collaboratively or as part of a team to support child and youth development?
5. Describe your ability to work effectively with individuals from diverse cultural groups.
6. Have you attended any conferences or completed any training related to child and youth program development? What did you learn from those experiences?

Whether advanced skills are emphasized may depend on the particular position; and basic skills may be weighted more heavily in light of staff development opportunities and requirements. However, it is still useful to assess each candidate's understanding of the developmental needs of school-age children by asking questions such as, "How would you describe the developmental needs of school-age children and youths?" It is also useful to assess applicants' past experiences or practices in resolving conflicts among children and their abilities in establishing rapport with parents. It may be a good idea to have an "unpaid working interview" where candidates participate in activities related to the position they are seeking. This might involve having them work as a "substitute" for part of the day, plan and carry out an activity for children and youths, or provide homework assistance.

After the interview process is complete, new staff members should be selected on the basis of evidence gathered. All candidates should be given the same consideration. It may be helpful to rank candidates by using a rubric that identifies their performance on key criteria, such as the completeness or relevance of their answers in relation to program needs, how well the candidates related to children and youths in the working interview, and so on. In the selection process, each candidate's potential for staff development needs to be assessed—as well as each person's past professional and educational experiences and how well those were reflected in the interview. Additionally, it is beneficial to have staff members who reflect the diverse backgrounds of the program's participants; a diverse staff enriches the program.

When new staff members are selected, they should receive some type of orientation. For example, many programs have required training packages such as a series on "Working with School-Age Children." Orientation sessions should also include information about formal policies and procedures (e.g., for emergencies and child-abuse reporting requirements) and a tour of the program. In conjunction with this, it helps for new staff members to have a mentor or point person to whom they can go if they experience difficulties. This is usually a more experienced staff member who can serve as a peer mentor. The peer mentor can help new staff adjust to the program by offering tips and guidance (e.g., on organizing and storing materials, scheduling activities, and working effectively with program participants).

All staff members should receive appropriate supervision. This includes monitoring their job performance and providing regular feedback. It might also involve the use of a rubric in evaluating performance. Monitoring would include records of their attendance, punctuality, and

interactions with children, families, and colleagues. Feedback should be task-oriented, focusing on what they did and not who they are. When necessary, task-oriented feedback includes guidance on how to improve performance in meeting responsibilities. Positive task-oriented feedback is also important; it will help staff members understand what they are doing effectively and acknowledge them for it. Supervision is more effective when staff members feel that supervisors are sensitive to workplace challenges and support staff members' efforts to improve program quality. Effective supervisors provide staff with opportunities to develop individual strengths in program implementation and conduct staff evaluations in a fair and equitable manner.

Staff Training, Development, and Empowerment

Staff training and development are essential to successful programs. Given that the majority of program staffers work on a part-time basis, it is likely that many will lack the full repertoire of advanced and specialized skills. However, these skills can be developed through proper training, action on the part of staff members, and ongoing evaluation of staff performance.

Staff training and development are an ongoing part of programs. However, the effectiveness of training and development will vary according to what happens before, during, and especially after the training. The development of basic, advanced, and specialized skills involves basic, advanced, and specialized training. Staff training should be carefully thought out and completed with intentionality. Before training occurs, staff training needs should be clearly established. This is often accomplished proactively in the form of staff orientations or induction, where staff members receive some training on basic and advanced skills. However, prior to training sessions, staff should have a clear understanding of why they need training and how they are expected to use information or skills gained through training. For instance, after receiving training on developmental trends, staff might look at their expectations and interactions with children and youths to determine how those expectations and interactions fit with developmental issues. Furthermore, they might consider modifications based on what they learned.

During training, staff should be sufficiently engaged in preparation for the follow-up phase. Training experiences should not only relay relevant content knowledge but also coincide to some degree with how staff members are expected to use the information. Training should identify some best practices that staff can utilize. Upon completion of all trainings, staff must follow through with the intended purposes of the training. Staff must act on their new understandings and put into practice their newly developed skills. This should involve coordinated efforts with supervisors.

The development of more advanced and specialized skills requires more intricate training and development activities. Staff should take an active role in identifying training needs. This will encourage staff members to take more responsibility for program activities and outcomes. For the development of advanced training and specialized skills, staff should play a role in identifying challenges that hinder program outcomes and strengths they can use to achieve expected outcomes. Training and development activities would focus on gaining content knowledge—especially skills that staff members can put into action. Staff would implement these skills over time and assess (a) the extent to which their activities and behaviors reflect the knowledge and skills, and (b) the impact on program participants. Ultimately, staff could adapt or modify the implementation to maximize the effectiveness of new skills and behaviors. Again, staff will need ongoing assistance, support, and monitoring from supervisors and content experts in doing so.

The development of specialized skills coincides with a SAFE programmatic approach that has been emphasized throughout this guide. With the SAFE approach, particular skills, such as conflict resolution and mastery of specific academic standards, are targeted for development through focused activities. As such, staff members will need specific training. For SAFE activities, staff members should identify particular skills about which they feel most excited and able to develop in children and youths. Following this, staff should identify, develop, and carry out sequenced and coordinated program activities to develop those skills in participants. For quality assurance, staff members will need appropriate guidance and monitoring. This would ensure that (a) staff members understand concepts and issues related to developmentally appropriate skills and behaviors, (b) staff utilize research- and evidence-based practices in developing plans and strategies for focused program components, (c) staff implement plans and strategies accurately and reliably, (d) there is ongoing assessment and monitoring of the impact of activities on children and youths, and (e) activities are adjusted or expanded when necessary.

Effective training and development activities empower individuals to support high-quality programs—that is, programs that offer development of academic, social–emotional, recreational, and creative skills. Staff members become cognizant of their roles in facilitating specific outcomes and develop appropriate tools to achieve those outcomes. This can have a generalizing effect such that deliberate and intentional program activities become common practices.

Motivating Staff Through Recognition and Opportunity

The aforementioned practices on training, development, and empowerment can serve to motivate staff. Likewise, when staff members are provided with choices in program opportunities that fit with their strengths, as well as program-enhancing tools and a supportive atmosphere, their internal motivation is increased. Internal motivation is also enhanced when staff members' concerns about program quality are addressed and they feel their input is valuable.

Acknowledging staff members' activities and accomplishments is another way to motivate staff. Simple notes that recognize staff efforts and activities—for example, commenting on improvement in children's behavior or academic progress—let staff members know they matter and are valued. Such notes are tangible forms of recognition that staff can add to their professional portfolios. Staff can also be motivated through appreciation activities such as dinners or special luncheons, by creating a cohesive and supportive learning community, and through team building, professional development, and advancement opportunities.

Program Evaluation

In many programs, evaluation reporting and criteria are established by granting organizations. Hence, programs must report information about their programs in the manner required, and then judgments are made about the program's quality and effectiveness. However, program evaluation can serve a broader purpose as well; it can help stakeholders understand more about how their program functions and the impact it has on participants. Thus it is important to distinguish between formative and summative evaluations (Scriven 1967; 1996). With formative evaluation, information is gathered to determine if parts of the program are working or serving their intended purpose. In summative evaluation, information is gathered to assess whether a program has worked and to make decisions about whether activities should be continued, adjusted, or abandoned (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, and Worthen 2004). Both types of evaluation support program improvement.

In the previous section, efforts by staff to improve specific skills among children and youths were addressed in the context of staff training and development. Formative evaluation would involve such things as assessing staff plans and strategies for age appropriateness and consistency with evidence-based strategies. It would also involve judgments about the extent to which staff carried out the activities as they were intended to be carried out, and in a manner that adequately engaged children and facilitated their skill development. Such efforts enhance the extent to which staff plan and carry out program components effectively. Quality assessment tools also fit with formative evaluation when those tools are used for program improvement. Formative evaluations should be an ongoing part of the program. Summative evaluations, on the other hand, would assess the program's overall impact and incorporate long-term goals. This would include the extent of skill development that occurs among program participants. Summative evaluations occur less frequently (e.g., every quarter or twice a year) and often incorporate indicators that are broader than the program, such as

grades and test scores. Practical and valid ways to measure skill development would have to be identified by staff for both formative and summative evaluation. Establishing clear goals and objectives is important in program evaluation. Goals reflect specific outcomes that are targeted, and objectives reflect the means by which goals will be achieved. Having goals and objectives helps programs to monitor and evaluate activities.

Needs assessments are also useful toward establishing and supporting program activities. Such assessments can identify obstacles and tools needed for successful outcomes. However, staff and program managers must determine what these needs are. Programs can determine participants' needs through various means. Examples include surveys of children, parents, and other stakeholders; focus groups and rap sessions; and observation.

Program evaluation requires information gathering, and staff and program managers should use multiple methods to accomplish this. Many programs are required to provide quantitative or numerical data to funders. Quantitative data gathering utilizes consistent and objective ways of measuring or assessing issues. Examples would be the overall rate of attendance, expressed by a percentage or number of days, and scores on standardized tests. Grades also fall into this category, as they can be easily coded using a rating scale (i.e., A = 4, B = 3). Qualitative data are more subjective and open-ended, as individuals provide descriptions about their experiences and opinions. Qualitative data are then used to identify themes that can be used for program development and improvement. Each data type has advantages. Quantitative data can be easily summarized. An example would be an average or percentage. Qualitative data provide rich information about participants' experiences, beliefs, and attitudes.

Qualitative *(example regarding mammals)*	**Quantitative** *(example regarding mammals)*
Tell me what you know or think about mammals. (Themes regarding the types of responses are identified.)	Respond to the following statements about mammals as true or false. (Responses are scored and graded—80% correct.)

If decisions are to be made on the basis of information gathering, then one must collect information that is reliable and valid. Reliability has to do with the consistency or stability of measurement tools. That is, to what extent would similar results be obtained across time and space? There are various ways to assess reliability. One can give similar measures to individuals at different points in time to see if individuals score in a reasonably consistent manner. Another way is to have similar questions within a measure to see if individuals answer the questions consistently. With qualitative data, reliability is determined by having individuals independently assess themes. Their extent of agreement is then established. Validity reflects whether the information-gathering technique, such as a survey or observation, assesses what is intended. Assessments should accurately measure targeted and relevant skills, and there should be some proof of a measure's validity. In assessing whether a program component has led to

increased reading skills, program managers must think carefully about what methods of assessment are authentic. Reading incorporates several layers, such as comprehension, decoding, and fluency. Decisions will have to be made about which methods best reflect activities and outcomes supported by the site.

One must also think about how program evaluation will be carried out, which depends on the specific evaluation questions that are used. When one seeks to show an improvement in abilities or skills as a result of program experiences, some type of baseline or initial assessment of ability is warranted. Improvement can be demonstrated by reassessing the abilities at a later point, following program activities. To show a benefit or effect of participation in programs, one option is to compare children and youths who participated in the program with children and youths who did not participate. This second group of children (known as the control or comparison group) should be similar to participants in important ways; for example, they might come from a similar school or neighborhood and have comparable demographic profiles. As this group would serve as the baseline, any group difference, such as higher test scores among participants, might be attributable to the program. Although program evaluation efforts will to some extent be framed by the requirements of funding organizations, they should be carried out in conjunction with someone who has expertise in this area.

One method of evaluation that has become increasingly widespread is the logic model (Spaulding 2008). The logic model is an approach that organizes a program into components to identify how activities contribute to short- and longer-term outcomes. Logic models provide a continuum in which initial activities generate circumstances that can lead to short- and long-term outcomes. Logic models are often accompanied by flowcharts similar to the following.

Activities	Staff training and development to promote basic, advanced, and specialized skills Development of SAFE program formats Use of culturally sensitive and diverse materials Parent engagement activities
Outputs of activities	Staff abilities reflective of basic, advanced, and specialized skills Staff practices reflective of basic, advanced, and specialized skills Focused program components using explicit, highly engaging, research-based practices for skill development Culturally sensitive program components Parental engagement with programming and staff
Shorter-term outcomes	Increased participant engagement in activities Increased academic content mastery among participants Skill development among participants Parental support of activities
End or longer-term outcomes	Improvement in grades and citizenship marks Improvement in standardized test scores Increased achievement motivation, social skills development, and a more positive identity

Note: The chart above contains examples of activities offered by programs; it is not meant to represent a complete list. Detailed examples of logic models for youth development programs can be found at the Wisconsin 4-H Youth Development Web site.

Program evaluation efforts should encompass all aspects of the program and include multiple stakeholders. Program evaluation can play a key role in maintaining and expanding programs. The best advocate for staff, program participants, and their families is evidence of the program's effectiveness and utility. Moreover, it may provide protection against funding cuts or program elimination in periods of economic downturn.

Leadership and Administration in Programs

Solid leadership is another key element in out-of-school-time programs. Program directors or administrators carry out multiple tasks and are responsible for the overall direction and quality of the program. They are responsible for ensuring that program components fit within the scope and purpose of the program and are implemented within given fiscal limitations. They are responsible for ensuring the safety of program participants and staff and must address the appropriateness of the physical space, materials, policies, and procedures. Program directors are also responsible for ensuring that the program complies with local, state, and federal regulations.

Program directors must determine the best way to carry out their mission while working within parameters that include specifications from funding agencies, site management requirements, community standards, and resource limitations. Although each program has a unique mission, there are some general goals that would be consistent throughout programs. These include the following:

1. Meeting the developmental needs of children and youths
2. Engaging children and youths
3. Developing skills among children and youths
4. Having staff members who are capable of meeting the developmental needs of children and youths and engaging children in skill development
5. Building relationships with parents and stakeholders

Program managers must evaluate the resources that are available to carry out the aforementioned tasks and hold themselves and their staff accountable for achieving goals. Therefore, program directors must engage in ongoing staff supervision, staff development, and program review and evaluation. Program directors must be accessible and lead their staff toward desired outcomes. They must also delegate responsibilities. Program directors therefore should be aware of *how* they lead, *whom* they are leading, and how *best* to lead. Leland and Bailey (2006) identified four major work styles that are relevant to how individuals approach situations and people on the job. This includes the way in which individuals carry out the task of leadership. The four work styles are described below:

1. The **amiable** work style reflects someone who is people-oriented, caring, and sensitive. Amiable individuals are skilled at building relationships and can lead and motivate using their warm personality. They work hard not to offend people and enjoy collaborative decision making. Hence, people often enjoy working for and with amiable individuals.

A strength that amiable leaders bring to the program environment is helping to establish the warm and welcoming atmosphere that engages families and other stakeholders and helps children and youths thrive. Individuals with the amiable style have to be careful, however, not to be or appear so compliant that staff or participants take advantage of their tendency to want to please others.

2. The **analytical** work style reflects someone who focuses more on tasks than on people. Individuals with an analytical style strive toward working efficiently. This means being organized, logical, and scientific. Analytical individuals lean toward evidence-based decisions. A strength that analytical individuals bring to the program environment is identifying, explaining, and sequencing practices to contribute to the overall professionalism and effectiveness of programs. Analytical individuals should be careful not to become overly rigid or emotionally distant from others, as staff members or participants may have difficulty relating to or connecting with them.

3. The **driver** work style reflects someone who is both task-oriented and assertive. The driver focuses on results—that is, on achieving goals and objectives. Drivers respect competence and jobs that are well done. They keep their eye on progress and getting things done. A strength that drivers bring to the program is their emphasis on progress and accomplishments and their willingness to hold staff and themselves accountable. Drivers have to be careful not to be domineering in their quest for proficiency, and they need to be patient in working with others.

4. The **expressive** work style reflects someone who is animated in action and personality. The expressive worker draws individuals toward himself because he is dynamic. Expressive individuals lead and motivate because others are in awe of them. Expressive individuals can improvise well and promote unity. A strength that expressive individuals bring to the program environment is their flexibility and ability to create a shared vision for the program. Expressive individuals may be particularly useful in promoting the program to others. These skills may be especially useful for recruitment and retention, and in engaging children and youths. However, expressive individuals need to be careful about balancing their tendency for spontaneity with deliberation and organization.

Program directors should be attentive to their own work-style profile, understanding that it may be some combination of the four described above. Such analysis helps directors be mindful of their strengths and weaknesses and the ways in which they relate to others. In turn, directors can think about how they can harness their strengths to bring about desired outcomes and counterbalance the challenges or limitations of their work style(s).

Directors also must be sensitive to the work styles of others, respecting and using this knowledge in the workplace. It is important to understand that each staff member is unique and needs support and guidance that suit his or her work style(s). Amiable individuals may need more

attention to building a solid relationship to maximize what they bring to the program. Amiable individuals need more care and concern shown to their personhood. Yet they can also provide the warm and caring environment that helps to optimize program activities.

Analytical individuals thrive in an environment where deliberation is used in decision making. Analytical individuals then may do well in helping to select program materials to achieve specified goals and objectives, and in identifying evidenced-based practices that are suitable for the program considering the characteristics of participants, the time frame for activities and other issues.

Drivers need to see action and progress. Drivers therefore, may be useful in organizing events, delivering tangible outcomes such as a workspace for gardening activities, and in assessing the impact of program activities.

Expressive individuals are good at capturing the imagination of children and youths and are generally engaging. Expressive individuals would therefore be good at motivating children and youths to complete or try certain tasks for which they might not be inclined, such as mathematics and cleanup activities. As staff may also have some combination of styles, an effective director is sensitive to what individuals have to offer and seeks to harness strengths.

Program directors must also be willing to engage in ongoing professional development. Program directors will have varying degrees of experiences and expertise as it pertains to the many aspects of programs. Hence, directors must be willing to stay current on such things as best practices, staff development and training, grant writing and development, and developmental trends to maximize the extent to which quality programming takes place. Although it is unlikely that management staff members will oversee daily program activities, they will delegate such responsibilities. In doing so, they will have to understand what skills are needed to support high-quality programs, how quality is facilitated, and whether objectives related to quality programs are being met.

Sample strategies for this chapter include staff development and program evaluation.

Staff Development

Program staff may have basic, advanced, or specialized skills. No matter what one's level of ability and experience, there is always room to sharpen one's skills. The sample strategies on staff development focus on sharpening and demonstrating skills at each level.

Entry-level staff members with basic skills

1. Entry-level staff members should attend professional development activities (such as conferences and training sessions) and compare their activities and outcomes with children to the information provided. An effective practice is to have staff members take a lot of notes to include at least one take-home message that can be used in follow-up interactions with children.
2. Assign entry-level staff members to work with more experienced mentors at the program. This can help the entry-level personnel to develop their skills.

3. Have entry-level staff members engage in self-assessments using an environmental rating or quality assessment scale appropriate for each employee's responsibilities. For instance, the Quality Assessment Tool provided by the California AfterSchool Network offers specific categories such as supportive environment and engagement. These scales are used to assess the quality of interactions between children and staff members. A guide to measure success is provided. Although the scales are designed for whole-program use, individuals can use the indicators for self-assessment. This tool and the School-age Care Environmental Rating Scale also contain indicators for assessing one's engagement with families. More details about these tools are provided in the Additional Resources section of chapter 1.
4. To identify areas of strength and weakness, have entry-level staff members use self-assessments in conjunction with their mentors and supervisors. In addition, professional development activities can build strengths and remedy weaknesses.
5. Keep records of each employee's professional development activities, and encourage employees to include these activities in their résumés.

Development of advanced skills

Advanced skills require knowledge of developmental concepts and theories. They require an understanding of the developmental needs of children and youths, the ability to plan and carry out developmentally appropriate activities, and modify activities according to developmental needs. An understanding of how culture shapes the lives and outcomes of children and youths, and the ability to provide enriching experiences for culturally diverse youth are also needed. Staff can develop and demonstrate these skills with the following activities.

1. Facilitate sessions with co-workers that focus on developmental issues. Identify common patterns among children of varying ages and link these patterns to specific developmental concepts and issues. It may help to address specific questions that are of interest or concern to staff. For instance, why are younger children more fidgety? What types of structure and guidance are developmentally appropriate for younger versus older children? How are the conflicts among older youths different from those of younger children? What are the reasons for this? What types of conflicts do older youths tend to have with staff?
2. Demonstrate how you would create and modify activities based on developmental level. Given the following materials—some sheets of paper (8 ½-inch by 11-inch), crayons and markers, and balls of different sizes—what types of activities would you plan for children of the three developmental groups described in chapter 3?
3. Demonstrate that you can carry out specific activities effectively with children of various age groups. An example would be carrying out a specified curriculum such as a science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) activity with sixth-grade children. This includes being able to modify the activity as needed

based on developmental and cultural issues and adequately engaging youths such that it is an enriching learning experience.

4. Identify or modify activities to be culturally compatible. Identify or create multicultural programming for select activities. Be able to indicate how activities are relevant for diverse cultural groups.
5. Facilitate training sessions on multicultural programming for co-workers. Brainstorm ways to bring in multicultural elements to various aspects of the program. Provide justifications of how activities reflect multicultural programming.
6. Carry out developmentally and culturally appropriate activities with children and youths.

Staff members should use a system of checks and balances to ensure their ideas of how development and culture relate to the lives and outcomes of children are consistent with the research and body of knowledge on the subjects. It may help to use a chart that is organized to align observations with the body of knowledge on topics.

What we see	Developmental concepts and considerations
What we see	Cultural influences and considerations

The first column would reflect observations of particular ages and cultural groups. The second would contain relevant and research-based concepts that fit with observations. This would serve as guide to staff in understanding issues and problem solving.

Specialized skills

Staff members may or may not enter their position with specialized skills. Yet staff should be encouraged to develop and demonstrate specialized skills. Such skills would showcase in-depth knowledge and abilities in specific areas. Examples include the following.

1. Provide demonstrations of abilities in important areas. Examples include carrying out and explaining mathematical functions and equations, effective use of conflict resolution strategies, and developing woodworking activities. Provide sufficient information and explanation such that it is clear one has the capability to carry out relevant enrichment activities with children. For instance, mathematical functions would have to be explained sufficiently so that children can understand the logic and procedures for calculation. Woodworking activities would have to be carefully structured and include safety precautions.
2. Develop a scaffolding strategy (chapter 2) for a particular academic topic such as long division. Demonstrate this strategy to staff for quality assurance.
3. Develop an activity using the inductive model (chapter 2) on a particular topic. Provide an overview of the activity to staff for feedback. Make modifications as needed.

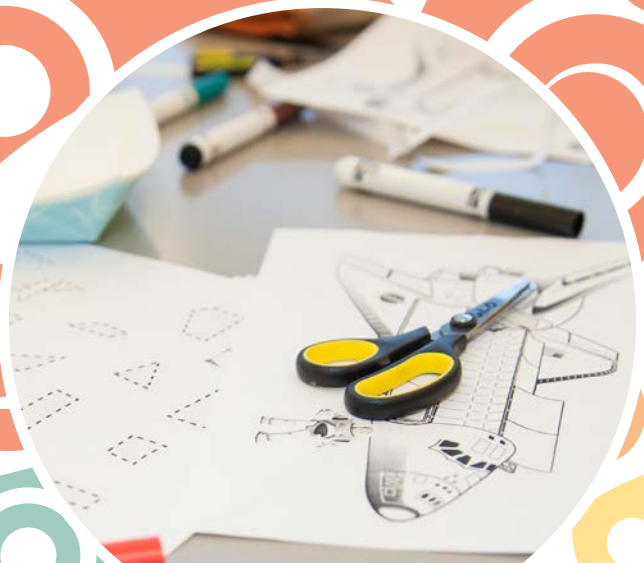
4. Develop a presentation on a specialty topic such as Asperger's syndrome and provide this information to co-workers. This would include an extensive overview of the issue, and specific strategies to be carried out with relevant populations.
5. When practical, staff with specialty skills would offer training to fellow staff members such that they could learn to carry out these specialty activities with children.
6. Following a period of planning and demonstration, carry out said activities with children. Modify as needed.

Program Evaluation

Programs are becoming increasingly subject to inspection regarding accountability. It is essential for programs to have demonstrable benefits to participating children. Programs that do not demonstrate such benefits may be at risk to be discontinued. Evaluation activities should be organized around the mission and goals of the program. For many programs, academic enrichment in various forms is a part of their mission. This is the focus of sample evaluation strategies. Sample strategies includeboth formative and summative evaluation.

Homework assistance: formative evaluation

Formative evaluation provides information about whether various aspects of a program are working as intended. Therefore, the evaluation of homework assistance requires (a) clear goals and objectives, and (b) assessing whether these goals and objectives are being met. Ideally, homework assistance would have the goal of providing needed instructional support such that children better understand the academic content for which homework is based. Such instructional support would aid children in being able to complete their homework. Relevant activities would involve explanations and demonstrations of academic concepts, scaffolding, and use of the inductive model.



Evaluation activities would involve assessments of processes to ensure that the means were in place to be able to provide effective homework assistance. This would include an assessment of the methods for staff to develop and demonstrate specialized knowledge and skills to provide adequate instructional support. Subsequently, formative evaluation of homework assistance would involve examining whether (a) staff had sufficient knowledge and training to provide children with needed instructional support, (b) children were being provided with adequate instructional support, (c) children were learning the academic content for which their homework was based, and (d) children were completing partially or wholly their homework.

A scaffolding or inductive model application developed by staff and carried out with children in relevant content areas would be one indicator of staff knowledge and skill, and adequate instructional support. A brief narrative of the type of assistance offered to children could provide specific information about what takes place and how often. Subsequently, children's ability to use the information in completing homework would be assessed. Staff should consider keeping tabs of children's levels of academic understanding and their ability to use it in completing homework with a point system. The point system would reflect how much assistance was needed as children completed their homework. Within specific content areas, children's pattern of improvement could be examined.

Finally, record keeping would be important in linking activities to summative outcomes as described in the next section.

Formative evaluation provides information about how programs can be improved. Depending on the information gathered, homework assistance activities may need modification. For instance, more time may need to be devoted to instructional support. Staff development activities may need modification such that they are better able to provide instructional supports. Furthermore, homework assistance may need restructuring to become part of a larger program of academic enrichment.

Homework assistance: summative evaluation

Summative evaluation involves examining whether a program has worked. It is different from formative evaluation in that long-term or overall outcomes are examined. Summative evaluations are also used to decide whether a program or program component should be continued. Summative evaluation is linked to key indicators important to funding sources such as academic achievement, as demonstrated by grades and especially test scores. Other key indicators include records of conduct such as citizenship grades or juvenile delinquency.

With summative evaluation, it is important to link the program or program components to specific outcomes. One should show an effect with program participation that would be less likely to happen if it were not for children's participation in program. It is important that summative evaluations go beyond showing that children improved in important areas. Improvements should be linked to program participation.

In examining the benefits of homework assistance, staff could survey teachers about children's homework. Evaluation activities could examine the relationship that existed between how often children participated in homework assistance, their activities during homework assistance, and teachers' records of their homework completion. For example, staff could examine whether children turned in homework for which they were provided assistance at the program and the level of accuracy.

Staff could link homework activities to academic achievement levels in areas for which children received instructional support. This would permit evaluation questions such as "Did the amount of homework assistance in English–language arts relate to subsequent improvements in English–language arts achievement? One might look to report cards, English–language arts test scores, or other relevant school-based indicators. The extent to which homework assistance activities and children's level of on-site improvements predicted their grades and test scores (or improvements) for relevant subjects could be examined.

Programs should consider comparing the level of academic achievement in grades and test scores between program participants and similar groups of nonparticipating children. Showing differential levels of achievement in the program's favor, and being able to rule out nonprogram-related reasons for differential improvement, would provide a measure of success. Staff would need appropriate permission from parents and school officials in gathering academic records.

Academic enrichment: formative evaluation

Programs engage in many activities labeled as academic enrichment. This includes but is not limited to STEM activities, promoting good study skills, and other activities that can be aligned with content standards. With formative evaluation, staff would assess whether program activities are working as intended. STEM activities, for instance, are designed to promote children's understanding of the scientific process, their interest in and knowledge of science. First staff would have to be adequately trained to deliver STEM activities to children. Second, children would need to be adequately engaged in STEM activities. These would be part of the process of bringing STEM activities to programs. However, just because children participate in STEM activities does not mean STEM goals are being met. This would need to be assessed in an ongoing way. For instance, some aspects of the scientific process involve careful observation and description of events, comparing and classifying objects, and designing ways to identify the cause of events. In monitoring these abilities, staff could have children keep records of their independent descriptions, classification, and other activities as part of a STEM notebook. This would provide a record of improvements in these skills or the lack thereof. Furthermore, children could rate how much they enjoyed specific STEM activities and take periodic assessments (anonymously or confidentially) of their enjoyment and interest in science as an academic subject. Staff may choose to offer periodic assessments, such as quizzes, to see if children were learning the content addressed at the program. Formative evaluation activities should be used to modify STEM activities as needed to improve program outcomes.

Academic enrichment: summative evaluation

With summative evaluation activities, there should be a link between STEM activities and long-term and cumulative outcomes. One option is to show a link between STEM activities and grades or test scores. This might be achieved by comparing the grades and test scores of programs or sites, with and without STEM activities. Pre and post-test assessments of scientific abilities and knowledge could also be used. Finally, programs should consider using other assessments reflecting children's aptitude for, and interest in science. These include measures of science self-efficacy and children's motivation to achieve in science.

General tips for carrying out program evaluations

- Work in conjunction with individuals with expertise and resources for program evaluation. An example would be establishing partnerships with local universities. This can provide staff with assistance in identifying appropriate assessments. Furthermore, experts can aid programs in designing an evaluation that best suits their needs and resources. Finally, university partnerships can provide programs with the human resources needed to administer assessments, statistically analyze them, and interpret the results of an evaluation.
- Consider a mix of quantitative and qualitative assessments in program evaluation. Qualitative data are especially useful for showcasing the perspectives of program youths. Rich narratives about their experiences and perceptions of the program are provided. Some sample questions are as follows: What do you like about the program? What kinds of things have you learned through participating in the program? Does the program help you to do better in school? Why do you think that is the case? Quantitative data are useful for capturing information about specific beliefs and skills. Examples include assessments of achievement motivation or scientific self-efficacy that provide an overall rating.
- Program evaluation should include teachers and other relevant stakeholders. The kind of information gathered would vary with the nature and purpose of the program. However, having parents rate their satisfaction with the program, their interest in continuing their child in the program, and their perceptions of how the program has impacted their children and family would be useful. Teachers can be useful in providing feedback about children's academic behavior and conduct in the classroom.
- Identify relevant goals for enrichment activities such as working on puzzles, gardening, or creative activities. Develop ways of assessing whether these goals are being achieved as part of formative assessment. Be able to link these activities to more long-term summative evaluation components.
- Be deliberate about identifying and charting children's progress. What positive results do staff members see as children engage in various activities? How might these results be captured?

Additional Resources

California School-Age Consortium (CalSAC)	CalSAC provides free and low-cost training and professional development for staff. They also offer the Leadership Development Institute, a year-long fellowship for emerging leaders of color.
The Coalition for Science After School	This organization provides resources for staff development in science education for out-of-school-time programs.
The Exploratorium	Based in San Francisco, the Exploratorium Web site offers educational materials that demonstrate how to conduct science lessons. Some materials are specific to after school settings. The site features videos and downloadable instructions for carrying out science activities.
National Partnerships for After School Science (NPASS)	This project trains afterschool staff to lead engaging hands-on science and engineering projects with children.
The Power of Discovery – STEM^2	An effort to build the power of schools and community-based organizations to expand learning opportunities in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) for young people in California.
Harvard University Family Research Project (HFRP)—Evaluation Exchange	This site contains updates on emerging practices in evaluation, especially with programs focusing on children, families, and communities.
Center for Substance Abuse Prevention—Online Courses	This center offers free online courses, some of which enable staff to receive continuing education credits. Relevant topics for out-of-school-time programs include "The ABCs of Bullying"; "Evaluation for the Unevaluated: Program Evaluation 101" ["Program Evaluation 102" is also offered]; and "Wading Through the Data Swamp: Program Evaluation 201."
American Evaluation Association	This organization provides free resources on evaluation practice. This includes daily evaluation tips and ethical guidelines for evaluation practice.

Glossary

SAFE. An acronym that refers to programming that is ***s****equenced,* in that it builds skills in an orderly and logical fashion; ***a****ctively engages* children and youths in the process; and is ***f****ocused* such that programs make time for building ***e****xplicit* (clearly defined) skills.

stakeholder. A person or group that has a strong interest in an organization, often because of mutual goals or concerns. Examples include parents, community residents, or professionals in a community service organization.

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CHAPTER 6

Building Partnerships with Parents, Schools, and Community Stakeholders

The lives of school-age children have many dimensions. These children are sons and daughters, students, siblings, classmates, and community residents. Finding ways to incorporate these roles into the out-of-school-time program can contribute to positive outcomes. Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory of development (see chapter 2) maintains that growth and development take place within multiple contexts or environments, such as within families and schools. Consistent messages and expectations across multiple contexts help children to adopt positive values and behaviors, while inconsistent messages or expectations detract from this process. Therefore, it is important to establish positive, consistent messages and expectations across the program and in other important contexts.

Building Partnerships with Parents and Families

Children's family circumstances parallel the diversity of California. A family is defined as two or more people who share the same household and are bound by enduring factors such as kinship, adoption, marriage, or other long-term commitments (McDevitt and Ormrod 2010). Therefore, the composition of a family can differ in many ways. Parenting, on the other hand, involves attending to and supporting children's physical, social, emotional, academic, and behavioral well-being in an ongoing way. Building partnerships with parents and families involves understanding different family structures as well as the ongoing responsibilities of socializing and parenting children. For the purposes of this program guide, the term *parent* is broadly defined as any adult with authority and active, ongoing involvement in the responsibilities of raising children. This includes biological and adoptive parents, grandparents, aunts, uncles, siblings, and legal guardians.

Many programs encourage parental involvement, as they understand that parents have tremendous influence over children's activities, values, and behaviors. Parental involvement can occur in a variety of ways and involves several layers, the first of which is communication. When parents and staff communicate in an ongoing way, a foundation for collaboration is provided. Frequent, ongoing, and positive communication helps staff members establish rapport and feelings of trust among parents. Rapport and trust are facilitated by regular greetings, friendly conversations, genuineness, and positive comments about parents and their children. Also, when staff members need to discuss sensitive issues with parents about their children, such as behavioral or academic problems, it helps to notify parents in advance rather than addressing the issues unexpectedly. Staff should also ask in advance if parents can arrange to stay a little longer when picking up their child from the program. This allows parents to prepare. Another option is to have a phone conference with parents at a mutually agreeable time. This conveys respect for parents' time and schedule.

Communication with parents should involve multiple formats. In some programs, children and youths are transported to or from the program by bus, and thus there are fewer opportunities for in-person communication. In other programs, parents pick up their children between the hours of 5 p.m. and 7 p.m. as they transition from work to home. As such, extended communication between parents and staff may be limited. Other ways of fostering positive communication involve informational newsletters, written notes, and videos that focus on children's activities and accomplishments. The Internet also offers alternative and flexible ways of communicating (for example, through e-mail or with social-media sites such as Facebook and Twitter). Programs can also facilitate communication by hosting events such as picnics, dinners, and family activities. When parents and family members are at the program site for extended time periods, staff members have greater opportunities to get to know them.

Facilitating two-way communication is essential. This might involve the use of a suggestion box with which parents could contribute their thoughts and feedback (anonymously, if they preferred). It could also involve needs assessments. Mutual communication provides the foundation to better understand children's home circumstances, parental expectations, and other experiences outside of the program. Given that almost 25 percent of the children in California are English learners, two-way communication would also involve using diverse languages through bilingual staff members, translators, newsletters, and other means of communicating with parents in representative languages.

Another aspect of parental engagement is involving parents in program activities. Parents can participate in a number of ways. Some may volunteer to help out with specific program activities. Others may be interested in helping to organize special events. Parents may also be willing to share or demonstrate special skills such as jewelry making or scrapbooking. It is important to have many options for parent participation and accommodate parents' availability and interests in contributing. Such

information could be obtained by surveying parents about their interests in participating, offering some options based on program needs, and soliciting parents' ideas on ways they could participate.

Parent participation conveys to children a sense of belonging, and that what happens in the program matters. Additionally, by participating in the program, parents can gain a better understanding of the nature and relevance of activities that support positive outcomes. This provides a foundation for establishing consistent messages, expectations, and behaviors at home and in the program.

Staff should be mindful of each child's home context and think about what is feasible and workable for parents. Green et al. (2007) and Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005) provide insights into motivational factors that impact parents' involvement in their children's education. The factors identified below may also relate to parental involvement in out-of-school-time programs:

1. **Parents' beliefs about what they should do in relation to their children's education.** Many parents are not equipped to provide specific academic or instructional support to their children, such as correcting homework or providing explanations of academic concepts. As such, they are uncertain about how to help their children. It is beneficial, then, for programs to share with parents how they can support their children's academic success. Parents are role models, and it is important for them to convey to children that education matters (for example, by encouraging and reinforcing learning activities and engaging in co-learning).
2. **Parents' beliefs that they have the skills and knowledge to bring about positive educational outcomes.**

Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005) provide many strategies to promote parent motivation for involvement. A few of these strategies are described below:

- *Provide parents with specific information about* ***what*** *they can do.* For programs outside of school, this might involve providing quiet spaces for children to complete homework and encouraging a good work ethic. The Child Development Institute offers specific tips and rationales on what parents can do to support their children's academic development. These include limiting children's exposure to television and video games and using interactive Internet sites where children can obtain academic help by topic and grade level. (For related information, visit the Child Development Institute Web page, Math.com, and Fact Monster.com.)
- *Help parents understand* ***how*** *their involvement supports their children's learning.* Parents who take an interest in their children's learning can contribute to their children's motivation to achieve. Children value education more when parents convey that it is important to obtain an education.
- *Provide positive feedback to parents about their involvement.* It is helpful to communicate to parents that their efforts to become involved in their children's education are worthwhile. This can occur through complimentary notes, e-mails, and other forms of acknowledgment. Link parents' involvement to children's achievements or progress.

Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005) note other important factors for promoting parental involvement, including these:

- *Site-based invitations for parents to become involved.* Teacher (staff) invitations for parents to become involved are especially effective when a good rapport is already established and parents feel that teachers (staff) genuinely care about their children's welfare. Invitations should be mindful of the types of activities that parents can manage reasonably.
- *Invitations for parental involvement that come from children.* Children's invitations for involvement can spark parent interest. Involvement can take place outside of the program—for example, when parents and children work on activities that are relevant to the home environment, such as letter writing and academic development. Such activities have been referred to as "homemade homework" (Epstein and Van Voorhis 2001).
- *Being sensitive to parents' knowledge, skills, time, and energy.* Parents need to perceive that they have the knowledge and skills to become involved in the manner requested. Also, parents are more likely to become involved when requirements or requests fit within their existing responsibilities, time frame of availability, energy level, and life circumstances.

In many instances, staff members have difficulty getting parents to provide follow-up or backup related to academic and disruptive behavior, often because parents lack confidence in their ability to bring about changes or may not have time and energy to implement changes. Staff should keep this in mind as they attempt to engage parents. By doing so, goals and expectations that are obtainable for parents and staff can be identified.

Sheffield (2009) identifies a practical approach that staff members and parents can take in promoting beneficial practices for children and youths. This approach can be used with behaviors that are similar (such as academic work done at home or school) or different (such as on-site academic work or completion of chores at home). Sheffield (2009) offers a five-step approach. The middle-three steps are more behaviorally based, while the first and last steps involve appropriate preparation and reflection. The *middle-three steps* include the following. First, children should be involved in completing meaningful tasks such as homework and chores. This should be a requirement for participating in recreational or leisure activities; that is, children should earn the right to "chill." Second, children must commit to completing their assigned tasks well. Tasks that are done improperly or incompletely should not earn children the right to participate in recreational activities. Third, children should complete assigned tasks with a good attitude. This might involve the use of polite language (e.g., saying "Please" and "Thank you"), the absence of complaints and other negative behaviors, and full attention to the tasks. Sheffield (2009) maintains that when such actions are practiced routinely, children form habits that contribute to a strong work ethic.

Beginning and end steps include a warm-up period where children prepare for task engagement. Depending on the task, this could involve gathering the necessary tools (such as a notebook or broom and dustpan), clearing

their mind before reading, or reviewing the steps in mathematical problem solving. The warm-up should adequately prepare children for successful completion of tasks and should include an understanding of what constitutes successful completion (e.g., sweeping the corners with no particles left on the ground or carrying out all steps in solving a math problem). The cool-down involves reviewing task activities and accomplishments to make sure children have met task requirements and expectations; if they have not, children should reengage in the task for an acceptable level of completion. The cool-down can also be used to show children what went right and whether they can improve task efficiency. This is not meant to be punitive or critical. Sheffield (2009) maintains that because many children in out-of-school-time programs come from low-income families with limited resources, it is imperative for them to learn to work efficiently and get the most out of their activities. To minimize potentially negative aspects of the cool-down, explain to children that everyone benefits by looking for ways to improve.

The five steps in this plan are (1) warm-up, (2) task assignment and engagement, (3) efficient task engagement, (4) engagement with a good attitude, and (5) cool-down. Regardless of the tasks involved, this plan can be implemented in many environments to promote good habits. Sheffield's (2009) motto is that "practice makes *permanent*" —not "practice makes perfect." The ongoing practice of completing tasks well and with a good attitude and in a productive manner is habit-forming, just as it is habit-forming to complete tasks inefficiently and inadequately when using ineffective tools and strategies. These steps should be carried out in a manner that facilitates internalization of positive values, expectations, and behaviors (see chapter 3). For instance, the warm-up provides structure that includes clear expectations and parameters for successful completion. Giving children and youths appropriate options, such as different time frames for completing tasks, supports internalization, as does the use of this technique in the context of warmth and good rapport.

Staff should be mindful that parental support contributes to children's success and adjustment in programs and in other contexts, and they should convey this to parents through various forums. In doing so, staff should be mindful of the following information:

1. A consistent, authoritative style of parenting is related to more positive outcomes among children and youths (Scales, Sesma, and Bolstrom 2003). Authoritative parenting involves setting reasonable boundaries, such as rules and expectations that are appropriate for a child's developmental level, age, and circumstances. It also involves explaining to children why such boundaries exist and helping children to be successful within those boundaries. This involves monitoring and supervising children and applying appropriate consequences and assistance. Authoritative parents also have warm, positive relationships with their children. Authoritative parenting is child-centered and conveys acceptance and respect toward each child's individuality. A child-centered parental approach is reflected in the boundaries that are established, in supporting children as they work within boundaries and expectations,

by being reasonably flexible yet firm, and by considering children's issues and concerns when providing explanations.

2. Many parents believe they support their children, yet children who truly *feel* supported by their parents express certain beliefs (Harter 1985; Malecki and Demaray 2002). Children who feel supported believe their parents care about their feelings and problems, give advice, and help them make good decisions. Children who feel supported also believe that parents accept them as they are and understand that what they do matters to parents. When children feel supported, they experience many positive outcomes—such as higher self-worth; better adjustment to school; the ability to get along well with others, including teachers (staff); and the ability to cope when they are victimized by bullies or feel unsafe in their neighborhood (Davidson and Demaray 2007; Harter 1985; Malecki and Demaray 2002; Scales, Sesma, and Bolstrom 2003; Woolley, Kol, and Bowen 2009).

Programs can help support families in many ways, such as through the identification of important resources that may benefit them. The needs of participating families can be identified formally through surveys and through everyday conversations and observations. Programs can also help families to connect with community-based organizations (CBOs). When programs can refer participants to specific individuals at a CBO and attest to the organization's quality of services, families may be more inclined to use those services. It may also be feasible to have individuals who represent CBOs visit the program site to meet and greet family members. Having a community service fair or a week during which parents are exposed to CBOs and program offerings may promote interest in and utilization of services.

Building Relationships with Schools

The interests of participants and staff members are served when programs understand the nature of participants' school experiences and expectations. This includes the children's relationships with teachers and other classmates, as well as their enrichment opportunities (such as school plays) and academic activities. Working with schools allows programs to build important alliances to provide structure and consistency in children's lives through homework help, social support, and attention to specific needs, concerns, and expectations. Also, working collaboratively with schools toward positive and mutually beneficial outcomes may help programs to navigate challenges associated with operating in a shared space.

In building relationships with schools, many programs communicate regularly with teachers and administrators. This helps programs gain an understanding of participants' behavior in school, academic expectations, and participant accomplishments and struggles. It also allows teachers and staff members to identify appropriate activities that will support academic development. Programs communicate and collaborate with teachers in a number of ways. Designated staff members may serve as point persons who communicate with teachers about homework and relevant concepts. Communications may occur in person or

electronically. Depending on the focus of the program, it may be useful to include teacher evaluations of students on relevant dimensions such as homework, academic performance, and even social behavior. Such evaluations could be used in needs assessments and formative and summative evaluations.

Another aspect of building relationships with schools is establishing good relationships with principals, office staff, custodians, bus drivers, and others who regularly interact with participants and therefore impact their experiences and outcomes. Although the extent of influence depends on the nature of the program, principals can impact areas such as recruitment, participation, and resources and facilities used by programs. Such influence may involve promoting the program, encouraging teacher participation, and helping to navigate various bureaucracies to procure resources such as transportation assistance from districts (After-School Corporation 2000; Grossman, Walker, and Raley 2001).

Consequently, programs can take steps to facilitate good working relationships with principals (After-School Corporation 2000). These include the following:

1. Build on values that are shared by programs and principals. For example, promoting and supporting the well-being of children is a common interest among educators and youth development programs. By familiarizing principals with program activities and expectations, program staff can articulate and demonstrate the ways in which the program supports children's well-being and complements the regular school day.
2. Make program development a joint effort. This might involve collaborating with principals on the program's mission statement, identifying common goals and objectives, or working together to select academic development materials and activities.
3. Respect the principal's authority and responsibility for his or her school, which encompasses the children's well-being, safety, and education. Hence, obtaining the principal's input on important matters (e.g., hiring decisions or enrichment activities) is mutually beneficial. Another option is to have the principal or a school representative participate in staff meetings or other conferences where important issues are addressed.
4. Link the program to the school day in several respects. Consider hiring some staff members from the district or school; this can encourage consistency between children's experiences at school and in the program. Utilize relevant aspects of school rules, such as those regarding language use and conduct. Encourage regular- and extended-day staff members to attend the same or similar workshops so that they can identify effective ways to promote academic engagement, desired conduct, and other important outcomes.
5. Keep the principal informed of the program's schedule, off-campus excursions, accomplishments, and challenges. Ideally, a principal should not be surprised to hear about events that have occurred at his or her school; rather, site coordinators or supervisors should communicate proactively with principals.

6. Understand the culture of the school. A school's culture can impact the extent to which teachers take ownership of their classrooms, which will impact their comfort with shared-space arrangements. Learn what is expected in using spaces such as the library, gymnasium, or playground. Knowing this in advance is useful in deciding which spaces to use and how to use them.
7. Address difficult problems collaboratively. The principal can help with concerns about children's use of computers, teachers who may not like the shared use of their space, and other matters. Programs must demonstrate willingness to deal with challenging circumstances, such as ensuring that classrooms are left as they were found.

Custodians and office staff members are also relevant stakeholders at school. An extended day requires extended custodial services, and this can create challenges for custodians (Grossman, Walker, and Raley 2001). For example, custodians may need to change their work hours and workload. Although staff may assist in the custodial upkeep of schools during program hours, custodians are ultimately responsible for maintenance issues. Numerous issues must be addressed, including liability, safety, and union matters (for example, issues involving contracts and the right to work). It is therefore imperative to establish good working relationships with custodial staff so that mutually viable strategies can be identified.

Office staff members also support the program. They facilitate the day-to-day operation of the school, including programs. Office staff members maintain records and facilitate communication among program staff, school personnel, parents, and students. Moreover, these employees help programs to stay informed of school schedules, policies, expectations, and concerns. Office staff members help identify how programs might obtain necessary resources. Programs should assist office staff members in supporting the program. Provide enough information such that office staff can answer questions regarding the program, maintain regular communication with office staff, and abide by rules and expectations in using school and office space.

Other tips for working with school personnel include demonstrating that the program appreciates the demands of school employees' positions. Cards, thank-you notes, and small gestures of appreciation convey gratitude, as would participation in recognition ceremonies. Cards or notes from program participants may have special appeal. Ask office personnel if there is anything the program can do to make their jobs easier, and be sure to follow through. It might also be helpful for all school personnel to understand how out-of-school-time programs contribute to children's development and success, and how program activities support shared goals.

Building Relationships with Community Stakeholders

It is important to build relationships with community stakeholders. This serves to expand opportunities for participants and gain valuable resources for the program. Community stakeholders are people who live and work near the program, individuals whose professional

responsibilities and activities relate to participants' experiences and success, and others who might be interested in contributing to the program. Community stakeholders include public servants such as law enforcement and county employees, social and community service organizations, business owners, and community residents. These stakeholders share a direct or indirect interest in the program. For example, it is well understood by law enforcement that out-of-school-time programs help to reduce delinquent activities perpetrated by minors. Individuals living and working in a community have a vested interest in keeping the community safe. There are opportunities for community or social service organizations to collaborate with programs in a manner that serves mutual interests, and other people and organizations seek to provide resources to children and youths through volunteerism and funding. Hence, it is beneficial for programs to build relationships with these stakeholders.

Outreach activities are necessary for establishing relationships with stakeholders. Such activities might include making phone calls to local agencies (e.g., law enforcement and community service agencies) to learn about services or resources that would be suitable for collaborative activities. Program staff might also want to participate in networking events hosted by relevant stakeholders. In addition, conferences provide another venue for conducting outreach or networking activities. A key aspect of outreach is to make others aware of the program, identify common interests, and encourage their involvement in the program. Many stakeholders have skills that they are willing to share with program participants and staff—for example, laying tile, managing budgets, teaching creative dance, or scrapbooking. Also, local businesses may have resources and materials that they are willing to donate to programs. Exposing program participants to different types of skills and activities can help them become more aware of professional avenues and alternatives.

Community residents are also stakeholders who have skills and perhaps interest in contributing to the program. Through outreach activities, a steady pool of local volunteers can be established. Goldschmidt and Huang's (2007) evaluation study of the LA's BEST program found that adult volunteers contributed to children's gains in reading achievement. When children and youths interact with neighborhood volunteers in their program, it may affect the way youths experience their neighborhood and prompt adults in the community to show more concern toward youths (Goldschmidt and Huang 2007).

Here are a few additional tips related to identifying community stakeholders:

1. Look for organizations in which many participants and their families are already involved, including employers, churches, and community service organizations. These organizations might be more willing to become involved in the program if they know of members who have ties to the program.
2. Link with prominent community, business, and educational institutions that might be willing to serve as sponsors, promote the program, or facilitate links to resources. For example, colleges and universities

have service-learning requirements that can be used as a means for recruiting volunteers.

3. Develop clear informational literature about the program. This will help others understand the program's focus and needs.
4. When appropriate, include program participants in outreach activities; doing so can enrich the experiences of participants. For example, make a list of businesses within a specific radius of the program to teach participants about geometry and perhaps urban planning. Contact local businesses to see if they would allow participants to tour their facilities or talk with employees about their job functions.
5. Community service projects can promote character development among program participants and raise the profile of the program. They also offer opportunities to collaborate with stakeholders. Participants could become involved in an existing community service project or one developed by the program.

Links with participants' families, schools, and communities set the stage for continuity of care that can contribute to optimal program outcomes. It would serve programs well to engage in community resource mapping, which involves harnessing local resources to achieve goals. Guides to help organizations map community resources are provided by Crane and Skinner (2003) and the Center for Youth Development and Policy Research (2010).

Strategies for this chapter focus on communicating and collaborating with parents and families.

Communicating and Collaborating with Parents and Families

In order for staff, parents, and families to bring about positive outcomes for children, effective communication and collaboration are essential. Staff members should consider methods of communication that work for families—and prior to contacting or working with family members, staff members should apprise themselves of their organization's policies and procedures on this subject to avoid any potential violations. Staff should ask parents to share preferred methods of communicating about their children, and parents should be presented with different communication options. Examples include the following:

- In-person communication at the program site (either spontaneous or prearranged)
- Phone calls
- Text messages
- Written notes
- Online chats
- E-mail messages (voice or text)—programs such as Audacity can be used to develop quick voicemail messages.

Also, staff should survey parents about how they prefer to be updated about program activities. In addition to the aforementioned methods, this might involve checking the program's Web site; following site information via Twitter, Facebook, or another form of social media; or through electronic or hard-copy newsletters.

Establishing workable goals

To maximize parent and family engagement and participation, staff members should consider the warmth and tone of their communications. Staff members should first determine what they want and need from parents to promote positive outcomes. Subsequently, staff could work with parents to develop goals as well as methods for achieving those goals through program and home activities. It may help to frame goals positively to parents. For example, when a child is struggling in school, instead of indicating that the child needs to improve, the situation might be framed to focus on the child's interest level or effort: "I noticed that Johnny worked really hard today on his science work. I was wondering if we could talk about making sure that his hard work pays off." Thereafter, the goal of "developing science skills" could be set, and staff and parents could collaborate on their respective roles.

Similarly, when a child is behaving in a disruptive manner, staff members might want to emphasize the child's enthusiasm. A behavioral goal could be framed around helping the child to channel that enthusiasm: "Johnny was especially enthusiastic and talkative today during homework assistance. I would like to work with him on channeling his enthusiasm." Subsequently, staff might ask for parents' feedback on what their plan was. Although specific actions would depend on the circumstances, here are a few suggestions:

1. Ask Johnny to raise his hand when he has something to say, so that staff members will know to give him the chance to speak when they can.
2. Ask Johnny to write down his questions and comments when staff cannot respond to him immediately. That way, both Johnny and the staff know his questions will be answered.
3. Ask Johnny to squeeze a small bean bag in his hand when he feels excited. That may give him an appropriate way to calm himself.

Following parent feedback, staff could make suggestions about what parents could do at home to help the child achieve his goals: "I was wondering if you could talk with Johnny about the importance of staying calm during homework assistance and ways he can do this—for example, by taking a deep breath every so often. Also, Johnny needs to know that eventually he will figure out his schoolwork or participate in recreational activities, and staying calm will move him forward."

Working together to promote a strong work ethic

In chapter 2, a "Picture 'before' and 'after' " activity was suggested as a means for children to learn goal-directed behavior and make positive changes. This activity is a downsized version of the steps identified by Sheffield (2009). The purpose of Sheffield's approach is to encourage a strong work ethic in children. As parents help their children think about ways to make positive changes, they can transition into the five steps identified by Sheffield (2009). The format of program and home activities would be similar; however, task requirements would vary to accommodate the circumstances in each environment. Staff should work with parents to explicitly lay out the expectations and actions required of children. An example follows.

Sheffield's 5-step plan	At the Program	At Home
1. Warm-up/Preparation	Identify and gather needed materials. Prepare mentally (e.g., focus on what needs to happen and understand task requirements). Give oneself enough time to complete the task. Have positive thoughts about one's ability to complete the task.	Same as what is required at the program
2. To earn the right to "chill," the child makes a commitment to complete important tasks.	**Sample Task** Develop graphic organizers with material learned in school.	**Sample Task** Fold and sort clothes.

Sheffield's 5-step plan	At the Program	At Home
3. To earn the right to "chill," the child commits to completing important tasks well. The definition of a "job well done" needs to be clearly explained.	The graphic organizer is appropriate for the material covered. An example is a tree diagram showing categories and subcategories. Different colors are used to distinguish different parts of the tree diagram. All information in the graphic organizer is included. The material is presented in legible writing.	Clothes are folded such that they are identifiable as shirts, shorts, and so on. Clothes are folded neatly such that they are in a square or rectangular shape. Clothes are folded tightly. Clothes are sorted and grouped according to each type (shirts, shorts, and so forth). Folded clothes that belong in the same room or dresser drawer are grouped together.
4. To earn the right to "chill," the child commits to completing tasks well and with a good attitude. The importance of having a good attitude should be explained and encouraged.	Appreciate the importance of effort and condition the brain for learning. Appreciate the fact that graphic organizers help to make things clearer in one's mind. Express gratitude for the ability to figure things out and complete these kinds of tasks.	Appreciate that everyone in the household has to contribute to doing chores. Appreciate that their activities help others in the household to do their part and keep the household running smoothly. Express gratitude for having the ability to help out.
5. Cooldown/self-assessment to ensure objectives were met	Check to see that all requirements (such as covering all information and writing legibly) have been met. The child could compare the information in the organizer to his or her textbook or handout, and have someone else review it to ensure it is readable.	Review to see that all requirements have been met (clothes are tightly folded and organized according to type and location). If or when a child is not sure that all requirements have been met, he or she should ask a parent to review the work that was completed.

Program policies would determine the privileges earned by children as a result of completing tasks. Although it may be inappropriate to ban a child from normal program participation for failing to put forth his or her best effort, it seems acceptable to offer extra privileges to children whose work was done well and with a good attitude. Staff might also want to collaborate with parents to determine what children earn the right to do when they meet all expectations. However, staff and parents should be mindful that Sheffield (2009) proposed this work ethic as a means for engaging in leisure and recreational activities. That is, children earn the right to "chill."

Curbing bullying through positive communication and social support

To prevent or reduce bullying, it may be helpful for programs to promote positive communication between parents and their children and to encourage social support. Both bullies and victims are less likely to have warm, positive relationships with parents, and this may contribute to their behaviors and outcomes. For some, bullying others may involve modeling what is demonstrated at home. For children who are victims of bullying, a lack of parental warmth and sensitivity can result in having less confidence and social skills, which makes them easier prey for bullies. Such children have few allies and do not stand up for themselves. Therefore, promoting positive communication and social support among parents may help to curb bullying. With increased parental warmth and support, children may be less inclined to bully, and victims may develop more confidence.

The Child Development Institute (2011) offers Guidelines for Parent–Child Communication. Staff members will have to decide how to promote these ideas and behaviors among parents by using collaborative yet plain methods. It is important for program staff to avoid talking down to parents. Rather, parents should be consulted as resources and collaborative partners. Staff members might look at this issue as an opportunity to promote positive communication and social support among all stakeholders, including themselves. This would provide a legitimate rationale for collaborating with parents. The goal is to promote positive adult–child communication and social support in children's lives. In addition to the guidelines provided by the Child Development Institute, staff could look to the items in assessments of parental support identified in this chapter. They could also take these steps:

1. Ask parents to review information provided on positive communication and social support and to provide examples of how they use positive communication with their children. This would provide an opportunity for parental involvement in the program.
2. Ask parents to form a group to develop ideas about when and how to use these strategies. They could come up with everyday situations where positive communication and social support would be appropriate, such as when a child is being bullied or feels discouraged.
3. Disseminate the information to nonparticipating parents for feedback. That is, using the information provided about positive communication and social

support, parents could offer a critique that could be incorporated into examples. Staff might also weigh in.

4. Staff members would support parents in all of these steps.

5. Encourage parents to have ongoing conversations and activities that focus on positive communication and social support. This could involve the formation of a parents group, online conversations about specific situations, and the development of toolkits and other items that promote these practices.

Additional Resources

ReadWriteThink—Parent and Afterschool Resource	This site provides educational activities that parents can do with their children during time away from school.
Care About Quality: Your Guide to Child Care (California Department of Education)	This site provides guidelines to parents about how to choose quality child care.
Harvard Family Research Project	This site offers free publications on promoting family involvement in children's learning and development.
Active Day, Healthy Life	Active Day, Healthy Life encourages Physical Education, recess and afterschool leaders, teachers and staff to improve and increase the levels of physical activity young people receive every day.

Glossary

community resource mapping. Identifying a set of resources within the community to help programs achieve goals and better serve youths.

English learners (also known as *English-language learners*). Persons for whom English is not their first language, and/or children for whom a language other than English is frequently spoken in the home.

stakeholder. A person or group that has a strong interest in an organization, often because of mutual goals or concerns. Examples include parents, community residents, or professionals in a community service organization.

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