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LOMA LINDA UNIVERSITY
School of Science and Technology
in conjunction with the
Department of Psychology

A Comprehensive Program Description and Recommendations
for the Del Rosa Youth Program

by

Martin C. Hodnett

A Dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of
the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Psychology

December 2009

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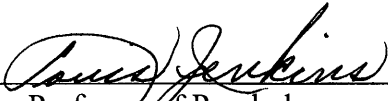
Martin C. Hodnett
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Each person whose signature appears below certifies that this project in his/her opinion is adequate, in scope and quality, as a project for the degree Doctor of Psychology.



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ABBREVIATIONS

PYD	Positive Youth Development
SAFE	Sequenced, Active, Focused, Explicit
BBBS	Big Brothers Big Sisters
CRRUCS	Center for Research on Religion and Urban Civil Society
PSDM	Prevention Service Development Model
GTO	Getting to Outcomes

ABSTRACT OF THE PROJECT

A Comprehensive Description and Recommendations for the
Del Rosa Seventh-day Adventist Church Community Youth Program

by

Martin C. Hodnett

Doctor of Psychology, Graduate Program in Psychology
Loma Linda University, December 2009
Dr. David V. Chavez, Chairperson

Amid budget cuts, economic recession, and difficulties many Americans face, more families are looking for ways to access needed services and goods from non-governmental sources. Churches and faith based organizations, such as the Del Rosa Seventh-day Adventist (SDA) Church, have been bridging the gap for families seeking assistance, particularly in the area of youth services. The Del Rosa Youth Program, an outreach program sponsored by Del Rosa SDA Church, provides mentoring and religious programming for at-risk youth. In an effort to assist them in becoming more competitive for funding, the current project has reviewed the relevant literature and provided recommendations for a comprehensive program. Based on contributions from social learning theory (Bandura, 1968), ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), and Benson's (1997) asset-based Positive Youth Development (PYD) framework, a comprehensive, empirically based best practice model for a youth services program is proposed.

Statement of the Problem

Introduction

Western culture characterizes adolescence as a period that includes, in some cases, rebellion against societal norms. During this developmental stage adolescents often seek autonomy and individuality from their guardians or parents. At times, this can take the form of pushing away from previously held sociocultural norms and embracing new forms of independence. Erikson (1968) postulates that adolescents exhibit these behaviors in an effort to develop a healthy identity.

In this process various interpersonal and environmental elements are integral to positive youth development. These elements include: “physical and psychological safety, appropriate structure, supportive relationships, opportunities to belong, positive social norms, support for efficacy and mattering, opportunities for skill building, and integration of family, school, and community efforts” (National Research Council and Institute on Medicine, 2002; p. 9). Although youth may not encounter all of these features concurrently, the presence of at least some of these elements is linked with positive outcomes. Additionally, the more youth encounter positive and supportive elements in their environment, the more likely they will develop personal and social assets that have been linked to successful youth outcomes (National Research Council and Institute on Medicine, 2002; Benson, 1997).

In addition to peer acceptance (Newton, 1995), caring adults are important as they can engage youth and guide them through potential pitfalls found in pre-adolescence and young adulthood. However, if this does not occur, youth may not have access to the benefits such positive relationships with adults can provide. As a result, some youth turn

to their peers for support during the transition to adulthood (Delaney, 1995; Fleischer, 2005). While many seek healthy peer relationships, there is an increased risk that adolescents may seek maladaptive means (i.e., risky behaviors) to become more adult-like and socially accepted by deviant peer groups. Although these goals are developmentally appropriate, there can be inherent risks when choosing a peer-mediated approach (i.e., substance dependence, pregnancy, unrealized potential, or death).

While clarifying one's identity may be a challenging task, particularly for youth who have limited positive adult and peer role models after whom to pattern themselves, other sources of guidance and support are available. To address this occurrence, communities often provide various programs to assist youth during this critical transitional period and to decrease the incidence of risk behaviors. Although these programs represent a variety of target groups, methods, and theoretical bases, each is ultimately intended to improve the developmental outcomes of youth.

In addition to non religious programs, faith based programs offer a wide array of planned activities for at-risk youth, however, these programs must compete with non-religious programs for funding. As funding options can be affected by the economic climate, the need has grown for faith-based organizations to have empirically supported programs, employ best practices, and obtain measurable outcomes to remain competitive.

The current doctoral project is a response to these developments. It provides a review of relevant research literature in order to make a case for a faith-based, culture-specific, youth development approach for at-risk, minority youth. Additionally, a description of the Del Rosa Seventh-day Adventist Church Community Youth Program is provided with recommendations for best practices gleaned from the literature review.

Lastly, recommendations for conducting a needs assessment are discussed. In the following section, several issues at-risk youth face will be reviewed.

Background of the Problem

Adolescents in the U.S.

U.S. Census estimates indicate there were more than 73 million individuals below 18 years of age in 2006 (U.S. Census, 2007). As the nation progresses toward the end of the first decade in the 21st century, population analysts project the increase of those less than 18 years of age, or youth, to grow by 8% from 1995 to 2015 (Snyder & Sickmund, 1999). The greatest projected increases of youth populations between 1995 and 2015 are among ethnic and racial minority groups. Youth populations are expected to increase at the rate of 19% for African Americans. This projected increase of African American youth will be significant though lower than the projected increases in Asian/Pacific Islanders and Hispanics (Snyder & Sickmund, 1999). As a result, African American youth represent an important segment of the population, particularly when criminal justice statistics are examined.

African American Youth

In many states in the U.S., black females were in custody three times more often than non-Hispanic white females. Additionally, African American male juveniles represented the largest proportion of all male juveniles in residential placement at 41% (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1998; as cited in U.S. Department of Justice, 2001). In San Bernardino County, African American youth were estimated to comprise 22.7% of all non-Hispanic juveniles (minors under 17 years) in

2005 (Puzzanchera, Finnegan, & Kang, 2006). While these statistics illustrate the situation of many Black youth, they do not describe the factors leading to custody. Environment can play an influential role in the development of youth, particularly for youth living in high risk locations.

Environmental Risks Facing Youth in America

As illustrated by disproportionate rates of incarceration, some Black youth appear to have difficulty adapting to American society. Some have suggested the factors that impact youth development and lead to negative outcomes are environmental (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Wilensky & Satcher, 2009). One of the most pervasive and damaging environmental factors for African Americans is a history of racism and discrimination in America. The systematic denial of opportunities and resources perpetually impoverishes each successive generation (Feagin, 2006). These overarching environmental factors directly impact several risk factors that have been suggested to negatively affect youths' adaptive development. Environmental risk factors such as poverty, absent parents, single-parent families, unwed mothers, and parents without high school diplomas have been noted as risk factors that can have a negative impact on youth development (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1997).

Poverty. African American and Hispanic working families fall under the poverty line at a higher proportion than the general population. Currently, 17% of African Americans live below the poverty though they compose only 12% of the population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). According to recent U.S. Census Estimates, 17.7 percent of youth ages 5-17 lived in families that were under the poverty line in California (U.S. Census, 2004b). When compared with other counties within California, San Bernardino

County has a slightly higher percentage of youth that live under the poverty line at 19.3 percent (U.S. Census, 2004a). The disparity is even more apparent in the city of San Bernardino, California, 38.1 percent of families with youth between 5-17 years of age live in poverty (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005a).

Family structures. Family structure has a pervasive impact in several areas. One area of notable impact is on the economic wellbeing of families. As illustrated by McKinnon and Bennett (2005), African American married couples' annual income was more than double than that of single African American female heads of households. This finding is important when considering that nationally, females were reported to be the head of 11.8 percent of households in with no spouse present. However, within the African American community, females headed 30.5 percent of households with no spouse present. Comparatively, 32.1 percent of African American households were comprised of married couples in comparison to 52.5 percent of the general population (McKinnon & Bennett, 2005). Locally in San Bernardino, California, 15 percent of female households with no husband present had children in the home under 18 years of age (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005c). Of these, almost half (49.1 percent) were living in poverty and 75.3 percent were receiving supplemental security income (SSI) with, or in some cases without, cash public assistance income (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005b).

Parental education. Parental educational level has been consistently found to be one of the main characteristics that predict poverty beyond race, ethnicity, and family structure, full-time working families, whose head of the household had a high school education, comprise one quarter of families in poverty (Iceland, 2000). Socioeconomic

status is often linked directly with educational attainment. This has negative implications particularly when considering the statistics of those who fail to complete high school.

When compared with other ethnic groups, 27.7 percent of African American adults were found to have less than a high school diploma compared to 19.6 percent of the general population. When broken down by gender, 29.1 percent of African American men did not have a high school diploma compared to 19.9 percent of men from the general population. Additionally, 26.6 percent of African American women have not earned a high school diploma versus 19.3 of the general population (McKinnon & Bennett, 2005). When compared with the general population, African Americans have lower rates high school completion which potentially negatively affects earning power, and ultimately contributes to higher rates of poverty. In San Bernardino, California for example, 35 percent of the householders living in poverty and 58 percent of those who were females and head of a household had dropped out of high school.

Religious decline. Although not listed by U.S. Department of Commerce (1997), the decline of religious influence in the lives of families and youth may be an additional area for concern. This may be particularly true in the African American community which has traditionally held community religious institutions in high regard. Although African American youth are reported to exhibit higher levels of religiosity than Caucasian comparison groups (Donahue & Benson, 1995), some suggest a decrease in African American church attendance and socialization has occurred (Lincoln & Mamiya, 1990). This is problematic to the extent decreased religious involvement impacts the degree of influence of the Black church. Lincoln and Mamiya (1990) indicate the Black church and other elements of the community that have traditionally contributed to positive identity

development in youth have over time become increasingly less influential. One concerned C.M.E pastor interviewed by Lincoln and Mamiya (1990) suggested that for the first time in Black history, an unchurched generation of youth is growing up with no ties to Black religious culture.

The prospect of a decrease in the Black Church's influence on the African American community, its youth in particular, is disturbing in light of the historical positive influence. As a source of positive role models, instruction, morals, positive views of self, and social support, the Black Church communicated religious principles that influenced youths' identity development (Lincoln & Mamiya, 1990). The Black church has traditionally been, and remains, one of the few institutions in American society where youth can be shielded from discrimination while being offered several opportunities for control and positive influence. These constructs not only affect positive youth development but also buffers negative messages from the dominant culture. Religious influences have also been shown to impact youth development in other ways as well.

Summary

Youth in urban areas often face several interconnected systemic risk factors. While these factors are not absolute determinants of developmental outcome, in many cases they do have an impact. Socioeconomic factors such as poverty and welfare dependence are often influenced by a lack of education. Family structural factors, such as homes with single parents, absent parents, and single, unwed mothers have an impact on a family's quality of life is through socioeconomic status and other risk exposures to violent neighborhoods (Barnes, Farrell, & Banerjee, 1994).

Purpose and Importance of the Study

The major purpose and intent of this study is to provide a detailed program description followed by recommendations for best practices as noted in the research literature. The recommendations are intended to increase effectiveness of the Del Rosa SDA Church community youth program. By contributing theoretically based recommendations grounded in research literature, it is this author's intent to provide faith-based organizations with an empirically based rationale for service delivery. The program design will be formed based upon a bottom up constellation of best practices data (Martin & Turner, 1986). The Del Rosa SDA Church community youth program will benefit from the provision of a research-based rationale as they apply for supplemental grant funding.

Each aspect of this program description is designed not only to satisfy the doctoral project requirements, but also to lay the groundwork for the Del Rosa Youth Program to competitively seek funding through grants. The subsequent literature review was written to provide information to assist them in achieving these objectives.

Research Questions

This project determines which components are necessary for adaptive and positive youth development. This is accomplished by asking: what program elements are necessary for a successful faith-based and culturally-relevant program to provide positive interaction, modeling, opportunities for asset acquisition, and a supportive environment to develop an adaptive self-concept in at-risk, minority youth? Accordingly, how are these program elements integrated into a model of a faith-based youth program?

Conceptual Hypothesis

Religious involvement and racial identity have been noted for their protective qualities against external risks to African American adolescents (Steinman & Zimmerman, 2004; Cross & Strauss, 1998). By using these two elements as the basis for further developing and supplementing the existing faith-based service model of the Del Rosa SDA Church Community Youth Program with evidence-based recommendations, it is believed that youth, equipped with adaptive skill sets, and environmental supports and assets will be further advanced towards positive development.

Summary

Youth in America face challenges inherent in maturation, positive development, and identity development. They are faced with many choices as they find themselves in settings that offer assets for adaptive development as well as opportunities for risky behaviors. Microsystems in their community such as church, peers, school, and family influence their choices about who they are, and ultimately will become. Although youth, and African American youth in particular, have negative influences affecting their development, there are means to counter negative influences and overcome risk factors. At-risk youth are faced with the challenge of making positive choices and accessing protective resources and assets for positive development. In addressing this need, it is the researcher's intent to provide a comprehensive description of the Del Rosa community youth program. Evidence-based recommendations for program design will be provided. A review of literature relevant to the topic will be outlined in the subsequent chapter.

Review of the Literature

Introduction

In recent years pre-adolescent and adolescent behavior has come under increased national scrutiny. The increased attention placed on teens and preteens stems from disturbing behavioral trends. These trends have garnered national attention as concerned parents, teachers, community leaders, policy makers and government officials seek ways to address the dearth of risky behaviors among America's youth.

Adolescents are faced with several important decisions and choices. Many of the choices will have outcomes that can affect them in the future. Decisions regarding the level of education to pursue, whether or not to become sexually active, and whether or not to experiment with alcohol or drugs can potentially have life-long effects. In the midst of the decision making, many lack effective parental guidance to navigate life choices. In cases such as these, supplementary adult and positive peer influences provide guidance and support to promote development. Potential sources for additional guidance and psychosocial support exist outside of the home. Mentors from the community, school, extended family and church can provide extrafamilial sources of support.

In this review, the guiding theoretical foundations along with pertinent research literature will be examined. Also, an analysis of programs that have been shown to have a positive impact on youth will be highlighted to delineate those specific factors that contribute to successful program outcomes.

Theoretical Foundations

One of the ways youth development has been viewed is from a stage theory approach. Among the proponents of this theoretical perspective, Erikson (1963) provides perhaps one of the most adaptive models in terms of utility regarding psychosocial successive stages that build upon one another. Each stage represents a conflict that must be resolved before the individual can adaptively progress. Failure on the part of the youth to resolve a conflict may result in a crisis.

For youth who face risks during the transition from adolescence to adulthood, additional support can potentially come from several sources within their community. As a result, it is important to consider external sources of assistance coming from their local environments such as those suggested by Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model of development. This model provides a theory for understanding the levels and systems of influence exerted upon developing youth. The ecological model resembles several concentric circles with the individual at the center. Each outer circle represents various levels of the individual's environment, and ultimately his or her world (e.g., microsystem, mesosystems; Bronfenbrenner & Morris (2006). Examples of the microsystem include the individuals's family, school, peer group, church, or any other entity in the immediate environment and directly influences him or her (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). For the purpose of this paper, youth and elements directly related to microsystem (e.g., family, school, peers and religious influences) (Bronfenbrenner, 1986) will be the main focus to provide a holistic view of the facets that ultimately contribute to youth development.

Community Influences

As previously noted, the environments of youth are comprised of various microsystems (e.g., family, peer groups, school, etc.). Each of these influence youth development and in some way conveys messages to the youth about who he or she is. The nature of these influences is predicated on the resources within the community that the youth lives in. Kowaleski-Jones (2000) suggests communities with high social isolation and residential turnover in addition to low income and education will have fewer resources to invest in their youth. Thus, individuals who can provide support systems to counter community risk factors are important.

Racial and ethnic identity. Community contexts provide other important functions in the lives of youth. For ethnic minority youth, their respective communities can provide a safe and affirming environment in contrast to negative messages from mainstream culture (Barnes, 1991). For these adolescents, racial and ethnic identity development is particularly important (Phinney, 1989; Maldonado, 1975). This importance is due in part to the pervasive implications and meaning an adolescent's group membership may have in the context of their social environment. Additionally, racial or ethnic identity is important because of the impact it may have on how youth relate to others within or outside their reference group. (Phinney, 1989).

School Influences

The public educational system is entrusted with preparing the next generation for integration into society. As noted by the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine (2005) schools have the capacity to assist youth to successfully transition to adulthood through literacy and knowledge of how to live a healthy, productive, adaptive

life. While schools have the potential to positive affect their students, far too often they face challenges such as large student populations without adequate personnel to provide one-to-one interaction. As youth transition from elementary to middle, and later to high school, increased student-to-teacher ratios greatly reduce opportunities for specialized attention and adequate time to bond. (Irvine, Biglan, Smolkowski, Metzler, & Ary, 1999).

In addition to the reduced amount of quality of interaction with teachers, some youth may have difficulty adapting to academic and social difficulties in middle school. These difficulties can be the beginning of a downward spiral which leads to negative academic outcomes (Eccles, Midgley, Wigfield, Miller Buchanan, Reuman, Flanagan, Mac Iver (1993). For minority children in particular, the school environment can sometimes become uncomfortable and even hostile. Problems can develop when students and teachers from different ethnic backgrounds communicate, either directly or indirectly, stereotypes and other derogative race-related messages. These messages can have a negative impact on grades and self-concept related to academic ability (Eccles Wong, & Peck, 2006). With decreased individualized adult interaction, and negative racial messages, youth may increasingly turn to their peers for support (see Delaney, 1995).

Peer Influences

While family and parent-mediated environmental effects impact youth development, peers have also been shown to have a substantial impact on youth. In fact, during adolescence, peers wield one of the greatest influences on the lives of youth and are perceived as increasingly one of the greatest sources of support available (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). Peer support has been found to mitigate the effects of stressful life

events and thus was associated with decreased incidences of problem behaviors. The converse has been found to be true as well, that is, youth who perceived they have little peer support in the face of stressful life events were more likely to engage in problem behaviors (McCreary, Slavin, & Berry 1996). Perceived social support is a crucial element in positive youth outcomes and has been found to be one of the factors that predict decreased antisocial behavior in youth (Morrison, Robertson, Laurie, & Kelly, 2002).

Although social support and peer influence can be a positive benefit to youth, negative peer influence can increase risk behaviors. Youth who associate with peer groups with antisocial values are more likely to experience higher risk for antisocial behavior. Conversely, youth who engage largely with youth embracing prosocial values are at less risk for engaging in antisocial behavior (Seidman, Chesir-Teran, Friedman, Yoshikawa, Allen, & Roberts, 1999).

Family Dynamics

As adolescents place increasing value on peer relationships, the quality of parent child relationships may be negatively affected. This orientation towards peers can prove to be a cause for concern in some cases. Michael and Ben-Zur (2007) found male adolescents' risky behaviors correlated with a stronger orientation toward peers as compared to parents. These findings suggest poor parent attachment may be countered by strong peer influence, and in some cases may lead to being influenced to engage in risky behaviors. Their results also suggest strong parental attachment may have more of a positive protective impact on female adolescents than males. These data highlight the

impact peer relationships and the potential need for male adolescents to have other buffering agents.

This may be problematic in some instances as Michael and Ben-Zur's (2007) research findings suggest stronger relationships with peers were linked with increased risk behaviors in youth while positive relationships with parents were associated with decreased risk behaviors. Parenting can be difficult for parents of youth in high-risk neighborhoods as parents may have several additional stressors of their own. These additional stressors may complicate their provision of assets for their children's successful development. However, in such environments, successful parents have been noted to link their families with community resources and use in-home learning strategies (Jarrett, 1999). These strategies require resources (i.e., time, energy, and social capital) that may be difficult to manage even with spousal support present. However, in single parent homes, these strategies to access resources become increasingly difficult to use.

In addition to the challenges many youth face in single parent homes, the lack of same gender role models is significant. In general, regardless of gender, positive role models in the home can be critical, as modeling within the family influences what aspects of identity developing youths will adopt. When this occurs, other adult role models can exhibit positive, responsible behavior and in some cases offset negative parental influences. Even in cases where parental relationships with adolescents are normative or perceived as positive, additional interactions with caring adults can be beneficial in contributing to positive youth outcomes (Search Institute, 2004). Such extended lines of familial support are often found in the African Americans community.

African American Community and Youth

Minority families and communities seek to raise their children to become healthy adults in spite of negative messages from mainstream culture (Barnes, 1991). The African American community shares this common desire with other ethnic communities. As a result of a history of countless examples of discrimination and racism, the African American community seeks to raise healthy children equipped to withstand racial stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination. Barnes (1991) suggests one of the functions of the African American community is to buffer against negative messages regarding race and provide alternative, positive message for its youth. The African American community has traditionally coped with pervasive psychological and emotional attacks from the majority culture through relational and religious coping methods. Examples of support and coping are found in relationships either through family or church family (Ellison & George, 1994; Lincoln & Mamiya, 1990; Ennis, Ennis, Durodoye, Ennis-Cole, & Bolden, 2004). As the importance of family influences has already been reviewed, the next section will focus on the impact or religious influences on African American youth.

Religious influence and youth development. In addition to providing another venue for positive adult interaction, faith communities can also provide another important aspect of positive youth development: religious involvement. Religious involvement is notable because it has been regarded as an important aspect of positive youth development (Catalano et al.; King & Furrow, 2004; Benson, 1997; Markstrom, 1999; Benson, Donahue, & Erickson, 1989). One of the main reasons for this is that religion has been suggested to serve a dual function in the lives of adolescents by promoting positive development and prevention of risk behaviors (King & Furrow, 2004).

The existence of a positive correlation between religious involvement and reduced incidences of risky behaviors is well documented. Religious adolescents have been shown to engage in less drinking alcohol, truancy, sexual activity, marijuana use, and report less depressive symptoms (Sinha, Cnaan, and Gelles, 2007). Religious African American youths' behavior has been linked with decreased risk behaviors as evidenced by lower incidences of sexual activity, alcohol use, cigarette use, and marijuana use. Conversely, a decline in religious activity predicted increased alcohol consumption among males, and to a lesser degree among African American females (Steinman & Zimmerman, 2004). Overall, youth who take part in personal religious practices (e.g., praying, reading the Bible or other religious material), or activities that tend toward internalizing religious principles report slightly lower levels of risk behaviors (Pearce, Jones, Schwab-Stone, and Ruchkin, 2003). Additionally, parents who show evidence of their religiousness by being loving and supportive have been shown to have youth whose religiousness is heightened. (Benson, Donahue, and Erickson, 1989).

Religious institutions provide a context for interaction between youth and adults and make it possible for youth to access social capital through their relationships with adults (King & Furrow, 2004). This can facilitate values transmission and ultimately influence youths' moral development. Thus religious settings provide a context for youth socialization and social capital.

In addition to providing a nurturing atmosphere, the Black church, as previously noted, has traditionally filled many roles within the community (Galloway, 2003, Ellison & George, 1994; Pattillo-McCoy, 1998; Burriss & Billingsley, 1994; Caldwell, Green, & Billingsley, 1992; Lincoln & Mamiya, 1990). As a result of the church's traditional

supportive function within the community, families and youth may be more receptive to services and resources provided by Black religious institutions.. As a result, the Black church is uniquely suited to provide a positive environment for youth socialization and may be the best option in Africa American community due to its extensive network and nationwide presence (Lincoln & Mamiya, 1990). Black churches are in a unique position to partner with community agencies to provide youth and families with programs to promote positive youth development.

Ecological Theory: Implications for Youth Development

Supplementary assistance whether in the form of caring adults outside the home, positive peer support, or nurturing parental relationships can assist developing youth in achieving positive outcomes. Each of the previously discussed microsystems (e.g., family, school, peer networks, and religious institutions) provide assets for positive youth development (Search Institute, 2004). While youth may be influenced by elements within their environment, there may be occasional deficits of needed assets. In such instances, other means may be necessary to provide these needs. Thus, other microsystems, such as church or community organizations can fill in the gaps. For parents who recognize additional, unmet needs of their children, additional resources can be offered by faith based institutions to aid them in using “community bridging” strategies (Jarrett, 1999; p 46). Such needs may include positive role models, mentors, positive peer groups, religious influence, additional academic assistance, or even parental social support and parenting strategies. Community and faith-based organizations can address such needs through programs and interventions

Foundational Theories and Interventionist Perspectives

While Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory informs us as to the nature of the influence various contexts provide, other theories provide descriptions of how these influences are exerted. This is particularly important when considering youth outcomes are not determined by a single environmental influence. The following review will provide a summary of the literature regarding theoretical perspectives that describe youth development and youth intervention programs.

Risk and Resilience

Although youth growing up in economically disadvantaged areas may be confronted with several challenges, their environment does not inevitably determine their developmental outcome. They do not always succumb to the negative pressures stemming from their surroundings. Such youth have been described as being resilient because of their tendency to have "good outcomes in spite of serious threats to adaptation or development" (Masten, 2001; p. 228). Individuals labeled as resilient have been noted to have opportunities and choices at crucial points in their lives. Additionally, these choices and opportunities serve to change the life course of the individual. Examples include bonding with a mentor, experiencing a spiritual awakening or enhancement, leaving maladjusted peer groups, or marrying a healthy individual (Scarr & McCartney, 1983). Overall, the events that change the lives of at-risk individuals are comprised of personal and interpersonal components. As a result, one of the most effective means of facilitating resiliency is through social interaction with positive influences (e.g., peers, mentors).

Risk and protective factors. “At-risk” is a term applied to youth who are in trouble and facing immanent difficulty in achieving positive developmental outcomes (Tidwell & Garret, 1994). Risk factors are those elements that occur in the environment and can potentially have a negative effect on youth developmental outcomes. Youth from low income areas often encounter multiple risk factors. This is important as often youth outcomes are predicated on the impact of other elements within their environment. Positive elements that mitigate the negative effects of risk factors are referred to as protective. Protective factors serve to decrease the harmful effects of risk factors. Known as “compensatory effect” (Garmezy, Masten, & Tellegen, 1984, p. 230), this concept lies at the heart of intervention strategies that seek to create and strengthen assets to offset risk factors. Along this line of reasoning, intervention strategists look to change the level of a specific risk or asset present within an adolescent, or attempt to positively affect the asset-risk variables in the adolescent’s external processes. To accomplish this, prevention advocates have established several youth programs. Among the successful ones, several elements of best practices have emerged.

Prevention programs: best practices. Prevention programs have been shown to be an effective means of preventing negative youth outcomes (Durlak & Wells, 1997). Catalano, Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard, and Arthur (2002; p. 235) suggest prevention programs should “address both risk and protective factors for multiple problems, address both risk and protective factors across all social domains in which a child operates, address both risk and protective factors at developmentally appropriate periods, include an awareness of differences in normative developmental challenges and tasks to ensure that programs are culturally appropriate to the target population.” Lastly, they

recommend intervening early in the youth's life at the specific period a particular risk or protective factor of in focus is most relevant.

Research has shown that successful youth prevention programs include the following protective factors: social norms, effective social policies, high quality schools, positive peer modeling, good parent/child relationships, personal and social skills, self-efficacy, and social support. Each of these factors has been suggested as providing protection against risks such as behavioral problems, school failure, teen pregnancy, drug use, and contracting AIDS (Durlak, 1998). Durlak (1998) further suggests that single risk prevention efforts should be expanded to include prevention in multiple, interrelated domains. This view corresponds with Jessor's (1993) in that problem behaviors are often interrelated and should be addressed through multidimensional programs that address the issues at the environmental or systemic level. Zigler, Taussig, and Black (1992) concur and suggest that successful intervention programs engage multiple systems.

In addition to these characteristics of successful prevention programs, Nation et al. provide an outline of what works in prevention based on their meta-analysis of prevention programs. They suggest successful prevention programs: are comprehensive (multiple programs addressing the same problem across varied settings), use varied teaching methods, employ sufficient dosage, are empirically-based and theory driven, have well-trained staff who encourage positive relationships, are appropriately timed, socioculturally relevant, and utilize outcome evaluations. These elements are essential to establishing successful prevention programs. These elements are applicable to various types of youth program regardless of the theoretical framework. This is true especially with positive youth development programs.

Positive Youth Development

In recent years researchers have increasingly come to recognize that even youth who are problem free are not necessarily prepared (Pittman (1991). In response, theorists have developed a perspective of positive youth development (PYD), which presents a shift from viewing youth as simply possessing potential for problems, to possessing potential for successful outcomes. PYD has been defined as “the engagement in prosocial behaviors and avoidance of health-compromising and future-jeopardizing behaviors” (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, Foster, 1998). Additionally, Catalano, Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard, and Arthur (2002) point out that PYD approaches typically, seek to advance positive development in the whole person so they can relate to their environment in a developmentally appropriate way. At the heart of positive youth development is a recognition and affirmation of the talents and abilities inherent in each individual. This is often accomplished by insuring youth access to programs and influences that will promote activities that are productive (Damon, 2004). These activities provide opportunities for youth to build and develop what Benson (1997) terms “assets” which ultimately promotes PYD.

Benson (1997, 2006) and his colleagues at the Search Institute have compiled a list of 40 developmental assets that contribute to positive youth development. In Benson’s (1997, 2006) view, there are two categories of assets: external assets and internal assets. External assets are provided by the environment and include support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, and constructive use of time. Additionally, internal assets are made up of personal characteristics such as commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity. This view recognizes the

positive aspects of youth and points to elements within their environment that promote positive youth development. Benson (1997) points out that youth with more total assets have an increased likelihood for successful outcomes. Thus, it is important for parents, teachers, and others who are concerned about youth outcomes to develop and provide youth-friendly environments that promote asset acquisition.

PYD programs can provide youth with opportunities for asset acquisition and come in a variety of forms. Although programs may differ in terms of activities they may offer, each typically seeks to directly or indirectly exert a positive influence on the youth they serve. In doing so, PYD programs share a few common objectives. In their review, Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, and Hawkins (2004) have outlined an operational definition of positive youth development based on common areas such programs focus on. The PYD programs reviewed sought to promote at least one of the following objectives: bonding, resilience, self-determination, self-efficacy, clear and positive identity, a belief in the future, affirmation of positive behavior, opportunities for prosocial involvement, prosocial norms, spirituality, and social, emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and moral competencies (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004). Thus, many of the PYD programs they reviewed sought to develop the skills and abilities of youth in order to help them prepare for a successful transition to adulthood and to become contributing citizens.

Prevention Science and Positive Youth Development

Although PYD and prevention science have traditionally had different focuses and literatures, they do share some common ground. Prevention science has traditionally focused on risk and protective factors and sought to avoid negative outcomes. PYD has

instead viewed the positive potential within youth as something to be nurtured. In focusing on the assets that youth and communities inherently possess, positive youth development has sought to go a step further than simply being problem free. Instead, it has sought to empower youth to succeed in life by becoming well-adjusted and productive adults.

In light of both the differences and the similarities between the two approaches, Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray and Foster (1998) have proposed a framework for youth programs to encompass both resilience and competency building. As a result, their recommendation fits both prevention science and positive youth development frameworks. Additionally, Catalano, Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard, and Arthur (2002) have noted a general call from researchers and policy makers for youth programs to address the whole person and not solely target specific problem behaviors. Advocates from both fields endorse interventions that affect multiple social domains, as well as recognizing their importance and the importance of environment on the developmental tasks youth face. As a result, a common call has been made for theoretical differences to be set aside in favor of bridging similarities to improve the youth development field (Catalano, Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard & Arthur, 2002, Center for Prevention Research and Development, 2006; Small & Memmo, 2006). In the subsequent section, research that has yielded empirically supported best practices will be reviewed.

Youth programs: commonalities and best practices. Effective youth programs, whether prevention science or PYD-focused, have several important commonalities. Although youth programs may vary in focus, strategy, and organizational type, they share the commonality of positively impacting youth outcomes (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray &

Foster, 1998; National Youth Leadership Council, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003) in addition to reducing risk behaviors (Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003). Most youth development programs, regardless of their focus typically seek to aid youth in gaining competencies, knowledge and skills that will enable them to meet the demands of adulthood (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster, 1998). To accomplish this goal, effective programs target multiple risk factors and more than one aspect of the youth's environment (i.e., home, school) (National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2002; Catalano, Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard, & Arthur, 2002).

Successful youth programs also provide an atmosphere that engenders the development of supportive, positive affirming relationships (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster 1998; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003; Nation, Crusto, Wandersman, Kumpfer, Seybolt, Momssey-Kane et al., 2003), youth empowerment (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003), skill development (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster 1998; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003; Durlak & Weissberg, 2007; Dryfoos, 1990), focus on multiple elements within the youth's mesosystem (Park & Peterson, 2003; Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster, 1998; Dryfoos, 1990) or at least bridge the gap between home and school (Gardner et al.), adapt to the community's needs (Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster, 1998), and are culturally relevant (Park & Petersen, 2003). Additionally, successful programs are theory-based (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster 1998; Park & Peterson, 2003), evidenced-based (Park & Peterson, 2003; Durlak & Weissberg, 2007), structured (Park & Peterson, 2003; National Research Council and Institute on Medicine, 2002), developmentally appropriate (National Research Council &

Institute of Medicine, 2002), employ trained staff and volunteers (Park & Peterson, 2003; Nation, Crusto, Wandersman, Kumpfer Seybolt, Morrissey-Kane et al., 2003; Dryfoos, 1990) have staff that are engaged long-term (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster, 1998), consistent and frequent contact (Park & Peterson, 2003).

In addition to meeting the developmental needs of youth and their community's needs (Brooks-Gunn, Murray and Foster, 1998), effective programs employ preexisting resources in the community and serve to fill in the gap between services offered by schools and the assets in the youth's home (Gardner et al.). As a result, successful programs are often integrated parts of the community and seek to strengthen the linkages between other supportive entities within the community as evidenced through valuing parental and school involvement (National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2002; Park & Peterson, 2003; Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster, 1998)

Listed above are several general characteristics of successful youth programs. While these elements provide a cursory view of effective programs, it is often helpful to see how these elements are successfully combined in effective programs. It is important to note the types of programs that have these characteristics and are successful. In many cases, only some of the elements are present, while in other programs they more are stringently adhered to. In the succeeding section a review of successful youth programs will be provided.

A Review of Youth Programs

Previously reviewed were several components of successful youth programs. Although there are various types of youth activities that incorporate best practices, those programs that specifically impact protective mechanisms and bolster assets in youth's

key microsystems (e.g., school and home) and community will be reviewed. The programs that will be reviewed include tutoring, family services, mentoring, and service learning. This is important as successful programs included several of the microsystems that influence youth (Zigler, Taussig, and Black, 1992). As a result, each of the program categories to be described addresses at least one of the aspects of the community environment at the microsystem level: school, family, peers, and religious institutions. Additionally, the programs seek to address youth microsystems through interaction with mentors. Lastly, the program categories will include the contributions of both secular entities and communities of faith demonstrating each can contribute to youth through their respective programs.

Tutoring Programs

Regardless of their degree of need, tutoring programs have been found to yield several benefits for participants. Jackson, Potere, and Brobst (2006) who found that urban, middle school students' career aspirations were positively associated with successful learning experiences. Additionally, they found a positive correlation between career self-efficacy beliefs and expressed occupational interests suggesting that youth may seek out occupations they believe they can achieve. Their findings also suggest youth develop beliefs regarding their efficacy based on past experience, namely what they have successfully mastered.

Tutoring can address issues related to potential academic deficits. AmeriCorps is an example of a program that offers tutorial services. Each year AmeriCorps provides tutorial services to numerous children across the nation. During the 1999-2000 school year, over 100,000 children were tutored by volunteer staff members. Outcome studies

noted that at pretest, 20 percent of the students scored in the low average range and 57 to 64 percent scored in the average level for reading comprehension. At the end of the year, Moss, Swartz, Obeidallah, Stewart, & Greene (2001) found that students at all grade levels improved and their reading performance were more than expected for children in their grade level. The magnitude of reading improvement was the same for students across ethnic and racial backgrounds. In terms of gender, boys were found to have more significant positive behavior gains than girls, based on teacher behavior rating scales. The outcome data is notable because it suggests significant gains can be made with students across ethnic backgrounds, and to some degree, gender.

AmeriCorps serves children across ethnic groups and in a non-religious setting. Other tutoring programs can be more specialized. One such example of a specialized faith-based community partnership is the Mt. Olivet After-School Program. The Mt. Olivet After-School Program, a collaborative effort of men from the Mt. Olivet Baptist Church and students from Ohio State University provided an afterschool tutoring program for fifteen African American males who were at-risk for failure academically and socially in school. The program was a pilot study that examined the efficiency of a peer-mediated tutoring and enrichment in a faith-based environment. Students met daily following school and studied to improve math and reading skills. Adult tutors provided supplemental instruction in addition to peer-mediated tutoring where students alternately tutored each other. Following the academic portion of the program, an adult facilitated a group session focusing on social skills or African American history. Pretest and posttest scores on academic indices demonstrated marked improvement in math and reading skills for the students (Gardner, Cartledge, Seidl, Woolsey, Schley & Utley, 2001).

Programs such as the Mt. Olivet Afterschool program and AmeriCorps highlight the positive effects of tutoring interventions. Each program uses different methods, yet each yields positive outcomes as evidenced by improved academic scores. While academic assistance may be one means of providing assets to at risk youth, there are other means to strengthen relationships to facilitate values transmission and positive social development. One of these means is through mentoring programs.

Mentoring Programs

While tutoring programs focus on improving academic skills, they utilize personal investment in the process, to influence youth. Another approach that uses interpersonal interaction to impact youth is mentoring. As noted earlier, as adolescents progress from early adolescence to late adolescence they have been found to increasingly perceive greater social support from their peers than from their parents (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). This change in the source of social support can be problematic if their peers do not exert a positive influence. In fact, stronger relationships with peers have been linked with increased risk behaviors in youth while positive relationships with parents have been associated with decreased risk behaviors (Michael & Ben-Zur, 2007). When adolescents are open to turning to someone for help, they are less likely to turn to drugs as an alternate means of coping with stressors (MacNeil, Stewart, & Kaufman, 2000).

While youth often seek out their peers for support, adults can offer another source of social support. Interaction with caring adults has been shown to positive benefits and influence positive outcomes. Youth in urban areas who had role models, versus those who did not, or had one through the media, were noted to have higher grades and levels of self esteem (Yancey, Siegel, McDaniel, 2002). Additionally, youth who had mentors

through the Big Brothers Big Sisters of America program exhibited several differences when compared with children who were on the waiting list. Those who were matched with mentors were 46 percent less likely to begin using drugs and 27 percent less likely to begin using alcohol. Additionally, these same children were 33 percent less likely to physically assault someone, and were truant half as many times as those children on the waiting list (Tierney & Grossman, 1995).

As illustrated by the data from Big Brothers Big Sisters, mentoring has been shown to have a decided positive effect on the youth behavior (Tierney & Grossman, 1995). As a result, churches and other faith-based institutions have started mentoring programs. One such example is the Amachi mentoring program. "Amachi," is a Nigerian Ibo word that means "who knows but what God has brought us through this child" (Jucovy, 2003; p. 3). The program was started in Philadelphia and matched members from faith-based institutions and children of parents who were incarcerated. Since its inception in 2000, the program has expanded to cities nationwide and has partnered with Big Brothers Big Sisters (BBBS), Public/Private Ventures, and the Center for Research on Religion and Urban Civil Society (CRRUCS) at the University of Pennsylvania. The program has adopted the BBBS mentoring model which has yielded positive outcomes in youth (Jucovy, 2003; Tierney & Grossman, 1995).

Initial findings from the program suggest a notable link between these faith-based mentoring programs and improved outcomes among high-risk youth. Specifically, Bauldry (2006) found mentored youth, in comparison to non-mentored youth, showed a reduction in depressive symptoms six months later. Additionally, a greater proportion of youth involved in mentoring relationships reported lower rates of depressive symptoms

than those who were not. These findings suggest mentoring may provide a barrier against depressive symptoms for youth engaged in faith-based mentoring programs.

In addition to the emotional health of mentored youth improving or remaining stable, Bauldry (2006) also found that mentored youth tended to act out less in response to social conflicts. Mentored youth reported less fighting which suggested mentoring had a direct positive effect on aggressive behavior. Further, mentored youth reported a decrease in alcohol and drugs use since starting the mentoring program. The findings were attributed to a potentially protective effect of faith-based mentoring on emotional health which may have an indirect positive impact on behavioral outcomes (Bauldry, 2006). While faith-based mentoring program have had positive results, service learning programs have also been shown to be beneficial in the lives of youth.

Service Learning Programs

Although youth development programs often advocate the importance of prosocial norms and attitudes (Flanagan, 2004) not all provide opportunities for intentional application of these norms. Service-learning projects and community service allow youth to explore and express prosocial norms. Service learning, defined as the purposeful use of volunteerism and community service to aid in youth development, provides them with opportunities to learn in real world settings (Brendtro & Ness, 1983).

Service learning involves engaging in projects which provide opportunities for youth to plan, implement, and experience the unique rewards of service in addition to considering the reasons behind their actions and the needs in their communities (Lewis, 1996; Allen, 2003). This exploration of prosocial attitudes, such as empathizing with others, social responsibility, and a desire to be involved with future community action

(Lakin & Mahoney, 2006) is believed to ultimately positively influence them as adult citizens. To aid in instilling prosocial attitudes, service learning programs often combine the effective strategy of hands-on experience with civic or character development curriculum. This curriculum often requires participants to reflect, discuss, and journal about their experience and what they learned (Lakin & Mahoney, 2006). The added curriculum is intended to teach participants valuable life lessons. Thus, service-learning projects provide a means for encouraging and applying prosocial values in a real-world laboratory for moral and civic development.

Service learning has been suggested to: provide a context where the skills youth possess are needed and valued (National Youth Leadership Council, 2006), aid youth in deriving a sense of accomplishment newly developed skills, increase self-esteem, and provide an opportunity to develop a sense of mission (Lewis, 1996). The impact of volunteering alone, even without a learning component, has been found to be associated with decreased rates of course failure in school, suspension from school, school dropout, teen pregnancy, improved grades in reading, improved self-concept, and attitudes toward society (Moore & Allen, 1996). Billig, Root, and Jesse (2005) also found that youth engaged in service learning reported a greater intent to vote positive youth outcomes (e.g., improved civic knowledge, civic dispositions, self-efficacy, civic engagement, school attachment, high value of school, and they tended to enjoy math, science, reading, language, and social studies. Additionally, children who engaged in quality school-based service learning programs exhibit decreased behavior problems--especially when youth were allowed to select a service project, and relatedness to peers and site facilitators was promoted (Allen, Kuperminc, Philliber, & Herre, 1994).

Even in instances when participation in a service learning project was required, participants tended to report that they were more likely to participate in future volunteer projects (Metz & Youniss, 2005). In addition to being more open to future service opportunities, youth who engaged in projects were given the opportunity to learn about systems of meaning through prosocial activity (McLellan & Youniss, 2003). These outcomes point to the potential benefits of quality, comprehensive service learning program.

Although many service learning programs exist, several have been shown to yield positive results. One example of a school-based program is the Learn and Serve program, a yearlong, service learning program consisting of 1000 middle and high school students nationwide. Several short-term and some long-term effects were noted. Short-term impacts included statistically significant improvements in civic and social attitudes, statistically significant increases in high school students' volunteer activity, school engagement, and math grades. A reduction in rates of course failure, risk behaviors, and teen parenting for middle school participants were also found (RMC Research Corporation, 2002). Long-term effects were less stable. What remained, however, was continued volunteerism, albeit reduced, and higher science grades and scores on school engagement and service leadership indices. For students who continued to be involved in organized service programs, statistically significant outcomes for service leadership, hours of volunteer services, and school engagement were noted. Additionally, a marginally significant impact on involvement in volunteer service, college aspirations, and alcohol consumption were noted as well. As discussed by the authors of the study, the results suggest short-term service learning interventions may not have lasting effects.

However, long-term outcomes may be generated from ongoing service-learning programs (RMC Research Corporation, 2002).

With non-white, academically disadvantaged participants of the Learn and Serve program, significant improvements in grades and a decrease in course failures were noted (RMC Research Corporation, 2002). These results may have positive implications for youth from similar backgrounds in after school programs with a community service component. Tannenbaum and Brown-Welty (2006) found youth who participated in after school programs that included service-learning fared better on academic and social measures when compared with youth in after school programs without a service learning component. These findings suggests that certain forms of service-learning, perhaps included in a comprehensive program, may be helpful in improving academic outcomes in non-white, educationally disadvantaged participants. In addition to service oriented programs, parenting programs also have been shown to positively impact youth outcomes.

Family and Parental Support Programs

While tutoring programs can assist students in improving academic scores, in some cases further intervention may be required. One of the areas in which youth may experience difficulty is at home as they attempt to mature and assert themselves into new roles. Such developmentally appropriate actions can sometimes cause tensions between them and caretakers. This research underscores the importance for parents to nurture positive relationships with their youth. Positive parenting, characterized by a sense of connectedness, communication, monitoring, and values transmission (Meschke, Bartholomae, & Zentall, 2000) can seem more difficult for parents of youth in high-risk

neighborhoods as they often have several stressors of their own with few resources. These additional stressors complicate providing assets for their children's successful development. However, positive parenting has been found to predict positive adolescent sexuality outcomes (Meschke, Bartholomae, & Zentall, 2000). In addition to positive parenting, successful parents in higher risk environments have been noted to employ "community bridging" strategies marked by stringent monitoring strategies, acquisition of local and community resources, and use in-home learning strategies (Jarrett, 1999). These strategies require resources (i.e., time, energy, and social capital) that may be difficult to manage even with spousal support present. However, with decreased or nonexistent spousal support, these community bridging strategies become increasingly difficult to enact. Families in high-risk environments can benefit from intervention programs designed to provide community resources for youth and their families.

An example of an effective parenting program is the Triple P—Positive Parenting Program. Triple P is geared for the general parenting population and consists of sequential levels of intervention to address increasing behavior problems and family complexity. Level 1 provides universal parent information through print and media to raise community consciousness about available parenting resources. Level 2 is a brief (one to two sessions) primary health care intervention that focuses on providing information to parents of children with emerging behavioral difficulties. Level 3 is also a brief primary care intervention for parents of children with moderate behavioral problems. In addition to consultation, Level 3 also provides skills training requiring active involvement from the parents (Sanders, Turner, & Markie-Dadds, 2002). Level 4 is designed for parents of children with severe behavior problems and consists of either

an intensive 8 session group parent training program, or a 10 session individual parent training program. The last tier, level 5, is an enhanced behavioral family intervention that consists of five to eleven sessions and focuses on other sources of family distress such as relationship conflict or parental depression. In addition, it utilizes the information modules from level 4 (Sanders, Turner, & Markie-Dadds, 2002).

Triple P, with each of the intervention levels available, allows practitioners to tailor the intervention to fit the family's needs. In outcome studies of Triple P, results have provided the following insights: parents who change problematic parenting behaviors have a positive impact on their children and their children exhibit reduced problem behaviors at school, improved relations with other children, and fewer problems overall. Additionally, once parents developed greater confidence in their ability to parent effectively, they reported more positive feelings about their children, they relied less on abusive parenting practices, and they reported less stressed or depressed in relation to their role as parents (Sanders, Turner, & Markie-Dadds, 2002).

The reported success of the Triple P Parenting Program provides an example of a community program that caters to the needs of families through supportive agencies. However, there are other sources and types of resources that families can access. One such source is through faith-based entities. These organizations can provide a variety of services for youth and families. Churches can provide several types of family support services such as: counseling, recreation, social services, education, and health-related activities (Caldwell, Greene, & Billingsley, 1992). As a result of the services they provide, churches and houses of worship can provide services to their communities that are culturally relevant and incorporate a religious perspective.

Churches and faith based entities provide a variety of services in their communities. However, few faith based programs for parent education have been reported on in the literature. Unfortunately fewer still report empirical data on program outcomes. However, trends are changing, and as exemplified by the Staying Connected with Your Teen Parenting program. Researchers collected a minimal amount of data in this pilot study using a church setting to provide a research based parenting program (Patrick, Rhoades, Small, and Coatsworth, 2008). The Staying Connected with Your Teen Parenting program, a joint venture between a church and a university-based research center, was conducted within the church facilities following a worship service. Parents attended the sessions while their children attended separate age-appropriate programs.

As this was a small preliminary pilot study, little data were collected, with the exception of advantages and disadvantages of conducting such a program in a church. Some of the noted advantages to holding parenting interventions in churches were the convenience of the meeting time and the common location. The endorsement of the program by trusted leaders was very important in addition to accessible social outlets for the youth while the program was being conducted. Lastly, being able to engage in the experience with friends, acquaintances, or parents with shared backgrounds was viewed positively (Patrick, Rhoades, Small, and Coatsworth, 2008). In addition to these advantages, several disadvantages were noted including: the length of time the program lasted, the curriculum, and other church commitment that vied for parents' time. Overall, the parents appeared to be interested and invested in their teen's lives. As a group they tended to be concerned about the teens involvement in adolescent risk behaviors. It was

noted that although parents were allowed to join the program in middle of sessions, parents who did so were less likely to complete the program.

A program of this nature presents a promising means of providing services for parents. Although the program was not conducted with parents from low economic backgrounds, it does have implications for faith based services to be provided in traditionally religious venues. The authors recommend further research should be conducted in urban communities with high-risk populations. They suggest programs conducted by trusted community entities may increase participant buy-in among those who would otherwise be reluctant to be involved with such a program (Patrick, Rhoades, Small, and Coatsworth, 2008).

Several youth-related service areas and programs have been reviewed. Each program has sought to improve the welfare and development of youth through tutoring, mentoring, family education, or community service. Each of these avenues converges to impact youth through microsystemic avenues such as peers, positive relationships with caring adults, religious institutions, and family support. These programs provided not only empirical support for a real, positive impact on the lives of youth who engage in activities from these programs, but also examples of successful programs. Drawing from the empirically based best practices mentioned earlier, several components have been highlighted. These elements are integral to systematic improvement in youth development program service delivery and program development. However, before drawing conclusions from these components and incorporating them into a program design, a few issues related to program development must be addressed.

Program Development

Thus far, both successful non-religious and faith-based programs have been discussed. While the programs that have been reviewed provide specific services for youth and their families, until now one aspect has not been addressed: how these programs came into being. Each of the previously mentioned successful programs began first with an idea and, in most cases, was built upon a theoretical view of perceived problems and corresponding solutions. Before any program can become successful it should first go through a planning phase before implementation.

To structure a program from conception to service delivery requires the consideration of several factors. Sandler et al. (2005) suggest in their Prevention Service Development Model (PSDM) these factors can be divided into two major phases: front end planning and implementation. The first phase, front end planning, includes developing ideas that fit into the organization's mission, goals, and objectives. Additionally, this phase includes determining how the service idea will be operationalized on a day-to-day basis. PSDM also includes in its front-end planning phase a feasibility trial, which "tests effects to improve socially valued outcomes; mediators and moderators of effects" (Sandler et al., 2005; p. 135). In short, feasibility trial determines if the objective are to impact consumers in desired ways. Based upon the outcome of the feasibility trial, the procedure to implement the program is finalized (Sandler et al.). Each of these steps is important as they aid in establishing essential groundwork for an organizationally successful program.

When considering developing programs of a specific nature, such as community-based prevention programs that include risk reduction, additional issues should be

considered as Hawkins, Catalano and Associates (1992) point out by suggesting program developers consider the following factors: a shared definition of the problem, a unified vision of change, a developmentally complete series of prevention programs, a high level of coordination and cooperation among service providing professionals and concerned community members, and skillful mobilization of human and financial resources. By taking each of these factors into account, a step-wise organizational outline can be developed to assist in creating a program. This is particularly important in community settings, as residents should be engaged as partners in the planning and implementation of the program. It is crucial community partners have a vested interest in the program and have information to recognize its impact on those served and the community at large. In order to know the impact the program is exerting, that impact must first be determined by measuring outcomes through ongoing program evaluations.

Program evaluation. Taking program evaluation into consideration is essential when developing a program. Usually program evaluation is used as a means to measure outcomes following an intervention. While it can focus on the program as a whole or on specific facets of the program, it can also be used as a means of insuring the program is meeting its goals by impacting consumers in desired ways.

Knutson (1977) suggests that it is important to know the reasons an evaluation is needed in order to determine the type and scope of data to be collected. With this in mind, the types of questions addressed in an evaluation are formulated to answer specific areas of inquiry. In addition to addressing outcomes and program effectiveness, questions can be used to develop a program and the objective it should address. A practical example of this is found in the workbook *Getting to Outcomes: Methods and*

Tools for Planning, Evaluation, and Accountability (GTO) by Wandersman, Imm, Chinman, & Kaftarian, (2000). GTO presents 10 questions that assist the program developer in addressing accountability. The questions Wandersman, Imm, Chinman, and Kaftarian (2000; p. 393) pose include:

1. What are the needs and resources in my organization/school/community/state?
2. What are the goals, target population, and desired outcomes (objectives) for my school/community/state?
3. How does this program incorporate knowledge of science and best practice in this area?
4. How does this program fit with other programs already being offered?
5. What capacities do I need to put this program into place with quality?
6. How will this program be carried out?
7. How will the quality of the program implementation be assessed?
8. How well did the program work?
9. How will continuous quality improvement strategies be incorporated?
10. If the program (or components of the program) is successful, how will the program be sustained?

Addressing these questions can assist program developers in determining issues to begin monitoring in future program evaluations.

As community members are galvanized and seek to develop programs, GTO's questions can guide them through the program design process. Although program evaluation is typically a consideration for entities interested in implementation and accountability, it is mentioned here as a necessary consideration when implementing a program. GTO, along with the recommendations that are provided in the next section, can provide stakeholders with guidance in planning an empirically based program.

In light of this, program evaluation is mentioned here only to assist program developers in being aware of important considerations for successful, ongoing program implementation. Therefore, as the program moves past the early stages of implementing

additional services, it will important to remember to incorporate ways to determine the quality of the new program elements. Other issues should also be considered, such as gathering support at the community level.

Community Organization

Prior to beginning a program, fundamental principles should be taken account of. Foremost among these is institutional racism which impacts almost every facet of inner city life. For African Americans and other racial minorities the impact of discrimination and a lack of opportunities place them at a perpetual economic disadvantage that affects succeeding generations. As noted earlier, this directly and negatively impacts the amount of resources and the risk to asset ratios found in many economically depressed areas. Thus, when seeking to gather community support for the program, the pervasive impact of racism on the community of interest must be taken into accounted (Williams, 1985).

When developing a program, not only must the societal effects be recognized, but the local community must be taken into consideration. In terms of program evaluation, this is seen in using outcome data to justify a program's effectiveness to community stakeholders. These community partners are important agents of change and must be viewed as such. Stith et al. (2006), support this notion by including developing community coalitions as a characteristic necessary to successfully establish a community prevention program. Engaging the community likely increases their sense of ownership (May, Miller, & Wallerstein, 1993), and in most cases their support.

One effective means of garnering community support and ownership in a program is to involve them in its implementation from the beginning. Instead of utilizing a top-down or social planning model, which is among the least sensitive to a community's

desire for change, a community-driven approach is suggested. By using this approach, a consensus regarding the community's desire for change can be built along with ascertaining what steps they are willing to take to address issues they face (May, Miller, & Wallerstein, 1993). In utilizing a community driven approach, it will be essential to tap into the community's desire for change and determine the extent they are willing to personally invest in a service partnership. In light of this, the following program description and recommendation are provided to aid in establishing a community partnership.

Project Methodology

In this project a comprehensive model for a youth program was outlined. A grounded theory approach was taken to determine the aspects of youth programs that successful youth programs have (Martin & Turner, 1986). From a comprehensive review of the literature, a program model and recommendations were extrapolated to create the proposed program design. In order to determine predisposing factors of negative youth outcomes, issues facing at-risk youth in the context of their environment and primary sources of influence were reviewed. The following steps were taken in a grounded theory approach to determine the program elements most appropriate for inclusion within the succeeding recommendations: 1) observations gleaned from a yearlong engagement with the program, 2) ongoing discussions with the program's leadership were held, and 3) a review of the literature was conducted. Lastly, after ascertaining the most pertinent data from outcome and meta-analytic studies, a set of best practices was compiled for incorporation of four different components of youth programs: tutoring, mentoring, parent education, and service learning. The four components were selected based upon their immediate impact on four microsystems within youth's environment: school, family, peers, and religious institutions.

In the following sections, a description of the program will provide an overview of the current details and design of the Del Rosa Youth Program. This description includes information relevant to the current services being offered and provides a basis upon which to add additional services. Based on the previously mentioned literature review, recommendations have been made regarding current program components as well as recommendations regarding the addition of other program components.

The Del Rosa SDA Church Community Youth Program:

A Description

Currently based in San Bernardino, California, the Del Rosa SDA Church youth program began in 1986. Following a particularly successful and well-attended Vacation Bible School program during the summer, steps were taken to continue nurturing the spiritual and social development of the children throughout the year. Initially, the program began as a community ministry of the Valley Fellowship Seventh-day Adventist Church. When the church moved to Rialto in the mid 1990's, the youth program continued to meet in San Bernardino, California. Later, the group sponsoring the program reorganized and became the Del Rosa Seventh-day Adventist Church. Since that time, the program has operated in various locations in San Bernardino. Currently the program is held in the Del Rosa SDA Church's gym.

The program begins each Saturday morning when the children are picked up by the church van from their homes. They are taken to the Del Rosa Seventh-day Adventist Church in San Bernardino, California. The formal program begins at 9:00 a.m., and once the children arrive, they engage in religious songs, games, activities, Bible stories, and eating healthy snacks. The presentations and activities are designed to provide the children with moral and ethical lessons to aid in positive development. The program also aims to encourage youth to be successful by developing skills and competencies in leadership, communication, nonviolent resolution, self-confidence, motivation, and accountability.

Currently, student volunteers from Loma Linda University provide instruction to the children in the program. According to Enacio Hunt, M.D., founder and director of the

program, the goal of the program is to provide positive role models, show unconditional love, and provide direction and inspiration to the children. In recent years the program has grown along with the desire of the program's leadership to expand services and become competitive for grants. The desire to compete for grants necessitates a definitive and comprehensive program design incorporating a theoretical basis for service delivery and empirically supported practices. The following chapter will provide of an in-depth review of the proposed program methodology.

Results

Program Recommendations

The foundational structure necessary to influence preteen and adolescent youths in a positive manner currently exists in the Del Rosa Community Youth Program. The following research based recommendations will serve to augment the program currently in operation. In addition, the comprehensive program design will provide for the inclusion of supplementary services and interventions. Each recommendation is intended to further encourage inclusion of pre-existing community resources, and the development of additional church-based interventions in a systematic manner. To facilitate the expansion of existing programs, additional partnerships with the community will need to be forged.

Consensus Building

To gather support and buy-in from community and church members for the Del Rosa Youth Program, it is recommended that focus groups with parents and guardians, as well as children separately be conducted to determine their level of interest, the types of services and programs they are interested in, and the degree to which they would be willing to participate in a partnership with the Del Rosa youth program. During the course of the meeting, the facilitator could employ community prevention and motivational interviewing principles such as engaging in listening, dialogue, and building consensus (May, Miller, & Wallerstein, 1993). The desired outcome from this would be to gain input and buy-in from parents and guardian who are central to the success of the program.

Gaining support for the project is paramount if further gains in expanding the services are to be accomplished. By gathering people with similar concerns, and utilizing what May, Miller and Wallerstein (1993) term “sparks” and “triggers” as catalysts, a group meeting facilitator can help a group of individuals move from contemplating the need for change in their community to taking purposeful action in implementing the succeeding program components.

Program Design Components

As noted earlier, the most effective community interventions include multifaceted components to address collective needs and focus on multiple elements areas within the child’s mesosystems (Park & Peterson, 2003; Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster, 1998; Dryfoos, 1990) or at least bridges the gap between home and school (Gardner et al.). The Del Rosa youth program is presented as a “community bridging” strategy to meet the perceived needs of parents seeking to access community resources (Jarrett, 1999; p. 46) In seeking to gain attention as a community resource could be a benefit to the church as well. The following program recommendations will be comprised of components seen in successful programs.

Mentoring

As mentioned earlier, one of the best practices for youth programs includes fostering positive, affirming relationships (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster; 1998; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2002; Roth & Brooks Gunn, 2003; Nation, Crusto, Wandersman, Kumpfer, Seybolt, Momssey-Kane et al., 2003). One potential way to accomplish this as well as widening youths’ exposure to career options

may be through mentoring. In addition to providing a source of adult social support and guidance, mentoring can provide adult role models who exhibit qualities related to successful outcomes. Smith, Atkins, and Connel (2003) found that African American children perceived fewer barriers to education if they had college educated neighbors. The mere presence of individuals who have been academically successful provides a beneficial influence upon youth. In line with Lincoln and Mamiya's (1990) recommendation for Black churches to foster interaction between children from lower economic levels with individuals from higher social economic levels, the Del Rosa Youth Program seeks to provide positive role models who are successful in higher education. Presently, local university students are recruited to become involved in the program and lead out. However, with a few past exceptions, consistent and long-term commitments from university students have not materialized.

Volunteer staff plays a meaningful role in the success of participants. Best practices suggest volunteers that engage long-term (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster, 1998) and in consistent and frequent contact (Park & Peterson, 2003) contribute to the most positive outcomes in youth. To increase the number of available volunteers, additional measures are recommended as well. Morley and Rossman's (1997), recommendations for programs seeking to recruit volunteers for mentoring should be taken note of. According to them, in order to increase the number of appropriate mentors, programs should 1) delegate responsibility for coordinating volunteer efforts; 2) creatively and energetically recruit volunteers, screen and train volunteers; 3) select children whose needs are consistent with the program's scope of services; 4) inform and involve parents; 5) match volunteers and youth taking into consideration gender,

ethnicity, language and shared interests; 6) provide support and monitoring to volunteers; and, 7) recognize volunteers' work publicly and privately. To accomplish Morley and Rossman's recommendations, a volunteer coordinator should be selected to oversee recruitment, screening, training, troubleshooting and publicly recognizing volunteers. Training is particularly important and has been suggested a critical element of best practice for youth programs (Park & Peterson, 2003; Nation, Crusto, Wandersman, Kumpfer Seybolt, Morrissey-Kane et al., 2003; Dryfoos, 1990). These efforts could extend to all volunteers including volunteer tutors.

To additionally aid in the process of increasing consistent interaction between volunteers and youth, structured interaction opportunities are recommended. By creating consistent and reoccurring social activities, mentors would have an existing program to become involved in, thus reducing the additional requirement on their part to plan activities. An example could include monthly trips and competitions pairing mentors and youth together to facilitate bonding. Additionally, mentors would meet with the parents of the youths at predetermined intervals. Guest presenters would also be invited to attend functions to facilitate casual interaction with the children and adolescents.

Tutoring

As mentioned earlier, tutoring has been effective across ethnic groups (Moss, Swartz, Obeidallah, Stewart, & Greene, 2001). The leadership of the Del Rosa Community Youth Program has long desired to provide a tutoring program. Until the Del Rosa Community Youth Program begins a tutoring program, linkages with currently operating tutoring programs could be made. Free tutoring services are currently offered at area community centers. If unable to recruit university students as tutors, participants

of the program could refer participants to existing tutorial services or encourage and establish a branch of a preexisting service on their church property. To promote high academic achievement among its participants, incentives could be offered for children who reach mutually agreed upon academic goals. For students that find academic achievement challenging, incentives would be offered for relative improvement of grades as well.

Following the establishment of the mentoring and tutoring program, additional activities for the participants and mentors to interact in should be incorporated. By creating a consistent social activities program, mentors would have an existing program to become involved in, thus reducing the additional requirement on their part to plan activities. An example could include monthly trips and competitions pairing mentors and youth together to facilitate bonding. Additionally, mentors would meet with the parents of the youths at predetermined intervals. Guest presenters would also be invited to attend functions to facilitate casual interaction with the children and adolescents.

Service Learning

Skill development has been suggested to one of the elements of best practices among youth programs (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray & Foster 1998; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003; Durlak & Weissberg, 2007; Dryfoos, 1990). In order to facilitate leadership skills, in addition to service opportunities, and increased self-esteem, regularly scheduled community service and improvement projects could be planned and implemented with the guidance of adult advisors and mentors. The main goal would be to assist the participants in selecting a project and enable successful planning and implementation of projects. During and

following completion of the projects, reflection on the outcome from religious, social, and ethical standpoints would serve to increase the application of lessons to real life situations.

Program participants could partner with community service mentors and volunteers in order to learn to plan and implement service learning projects. Ultimately, collaboration with local and national community service and relief organizations could take place to facilitate involvement in their projects. For example, the National Association for the Prevention of Starvation (NAPS), a student relief organization headquartered at Oakwood University, could provide opportunities for national and international service projects for older youth. This collaboration would serve to bridge to interaction with college students from similar ethnic backgrounds, and provide additional positive role models in higher education.

Involvement in single, short-term projects have not been shown to be effective in producing long term benefits (RMC Research Corporation, 2002). Thus, an ongoing service learning program with an ethical reasoning curriculum, and supportive peer and mentoring networks is recommended to empower urban youth to positively impact their communities.

Family Support Services

Based on research with African American males, Rodney and Mupier (1999) advocate prevention strategies to include components directed at improving interpersonal relationships within homes, and between fathers and sons in particular. In addition some of the main risks to children, such as absent parents, and one-parent families create stressors on the family unit. To address such stressors, psychological services could be

provided (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1997). "Faith placed" programs could be offered through linkages and referrals within the community (Patrick, Rhoades, Small, & Coatesworth, 2008).

For example, in addition to referrals to the SAC Norton clinic for services (e.g., crisis intervention, family, or individual counseling), collaborations could be made with local providers. Advanced students from the Loma Linda University Department of Psychology or the Marriage and Family Therapy Department could provide psychoeducational parenting classes at a central location, such as the church, thus increasing participation. Advanced graduate students from either department could provide counseling services as part of required clinical experience in an individual or group format if deemed necessary. For youth involved in the Del Rosa Youth Program, voluntary counseling could be made available providing ongoing involvement and written, parental consent was obtained.

Church Youth Ministries

Pathfinders. Involvement in traditional Seventh-day Adventist youth programs are an additional way of engaging community youth. Pathfinders, a worldwide, Seventh-day Adventist Church sponsored, youth organization resembling boy scouts could provide much of the structure for the programs offered. Although Pathfinders is a church-sponsored program, it is open to all children. Participants in Pathfinders earn various honors and are afforded opportunities to gain new skills and knowledge through crafts, camping, hiking, and other activities. At present, the Del Rosa SDA Church does not have an active Pathfinder Club. However, the materials and resources to start up a

club are available through the Southeastern California Conference of Seventh-day Adventists headquartered in Riverside, California.

Special activities. Other traditional SDA youth activities such as oratorical contests, temperance jingles and posters, Bible Bowl, drama and other special programs could be used to teach the youth as well as expose them to other likeminded youth in Southern California, nationally, and internationally. For senior youth, exposure to opportunities in higher education can be made available. One way could be through a church-sponsored, historically Black college, Oakwood University, hosts an international open house for potential students. Yearly trips for students from the Del Rosa Youth Program who are considering college could be provided as a means for heightening awareness about opportunities in higher education.

Program Evaluation

To insure the program's objectives are consistently met, a means for conducting a program evaluation should be incorporated in as part of the implementation of the Del Rosa program. Objective, measurable goals for the impact upon the youth and their families should be outlined in order determine the extent to which the program's goals have been met. Following an effort to operationally define the program's desired impact, an evaluation coordinator should be selected. A qualified graduate student could fill this position or even someone specifically trained in program evaluation. Pending funding, a request for someone with such skills could be disseminated to area universities and non-profit organizations. The person selected to fill this position would then need to work closely with the program's leadership to ensure a seamless integration in the implementation of the program.

Summary

The recommendations provided for the Del Rosa Community Youth Program are intended to provide an overview for augmented service delivery. The comprehensive program design is influenced largely by an ecological model of youth development (see Bronfenbrenner, 1986), positive psychology, and asset provision. Program components were generally selected based on recommendations from the literature. In addition to the existing core elements of the youth program, mentoring, tutoring, psychological services, and service learning were recommended. Through the services provided by The Del Rosa SDA Church youth and adolescent identity development will be positively influenced.

Conclusion

Throughout this project, the central purpose has been to provide an empirically based, comprehensive program model. Through reviews of several program evaluations and meta-analyses of evaluations, various elements of successful youth programs have been highlighted. As noted in the preceding section, several recommendations were made based on the information distilled from the literature review and from a yearlong observation of and involvement in the program. Despite the steps taken in this project, others remain that should be followed up on in the future.

The limitations of this project include a few pertinent areas to be discussed here. These areas include the implementation of the program: the complete model has yet to be put into practice. As a result, no input is available from stakeholders regarding their response to program's additional services. Although supported in the research literature, the response to or actual desire for additional services has not been determined. A needs assessment was not conducted in this study but should be done prior to implementing the augmented program. Information such as this would be vital to take into consideration when the final stages of planning as well. Those implementing such a program should be aware that the program is a model and does not necessarily meet the needs of specific communities. As such, the program will need to be tailored to fit the characteristics found in the communities where it is conducted.

In addition to an absence of a needs assessment and feedback from the implementation of the new program model, a program evaluation will need to be conducted. Although this project did not conduct one, an evaluation is important, as it will provide outcome data that will enable changes to be made to increase the program's

efficacy. Such outcome data would also aid in providing insight for gaining a deeper understanding of the implications stemming from the addition of new services. This information is also important to take note of in order to tailor and refine the program model to meet the specific needs found in this setting with this particular population.

Although it was outside the scope of this project, the program's organizational structure may need to be revised in order to meet its expanding needs. In order to be aware of the needs of participants and their families relative to program services, the program's leadership will likely need to conduct ongoing feedback sessions with stakeholders. Conducted in a manner that seeks input from stakeholders (i.e., parents and youth) such meetings can focus on partnership and shared responsibilities.

In light of this, future studies could evaluate the effectiveness of each of the programs' impact as well as effect of the facilitators/leaders on the change process as a whole. To facilitate this at the organizational level, a clear definition or job description of those in leadership positions will be helpful. As the programs leadership establishes meetings to coordinate services and to insure the programs' objectives are met, a clearly defined illustration of the leadership's hierarchical structure may also assist volunteers in understanding the responsibilities incumbent upon each. Future program evaluators and consultants may additionally aid the Del Rosa Youth Program and its participants by providing insight into the content of the organization's structure as well as on the process of the services that it delivers. If this is accomplished, the program's participants and their families will be benefited as the program grows and develops.

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Resources

Evaluation

NYSAN Quality Self-Assessment Tool

http://www.tascorp.org/programs/building/NYSAN_Self_Assessment_Tool.pdf

Community Assessment

<http://www.findyouthinfo.gov/ContentPage.aspx?cpid=54>

Funding

Federal Grants

<http://www.grants.gov>

The Finance Project

<http://www.financeproject.org/>

Finding Funding: A Guide to Federal Sources for Out-of-School Time and Community School Initiatives-2007

http://www.financeproject.org/publications/findingfunding_PM.pdf

Find Youth Info: Resources to Strengthen America's Youth

<http://www.findyouthinfo.gov/LandDefault.aspx?pn=LocateFunding>

Investing in the Sustainability of Youth Programs:
An Assessment Tool for Funders

<http://www.financeproject.org/Publications/FundersTool.pdf>

The Search Institute

<http://www.search-institute.org/communities/downloads/federalfunding.html>

Service Learning Funding

<http://ysa.org/AwardsGrants/tabid/58/Default.aspx>

United States Department of Justice Faith-Based & Community Initiatives

<http://www.usdoj.gov/archive/fbci/index.html>

Materials

<http://www.lifeskills4kids.com/acorn.php?page=home>

Misc. resources and Activities for working with children

<http://www.sitesforteachers.com/index.html>

Mentoring

Amachi Mentoring Program
www.amachimentoring.org

Big Brothers Big Sisters of America
www.bbbsa.org

Center for Children of Incarcerated Parents
www.e-ccip.org

Child Trends
www.childtrends.org

Family and Youth Services Bureau
www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/fysb

Federal Resource Center for Children of Prisoners
www.cwla.org/programs/incarcerated

Friends for Youth: Mentoring Institute and Mentoring Services
www.homestead.com/prosites-ffy/aboutus.html

Mentoring Partnership of Minnesota
<http://www.mentoringworks.org/home.html>

Mid-Atlantic Network of Youth & Family Services (MANY)
www.manynet.org

National Clearinghouse on Families & Youth
www.ncfy.com

National Mentoring Center
www.nwrel.org/mentoring

National Mentoring Partnership
www.mentoring.org

National Service Resource Center
www.etr.org/nsrc/library.html

Public/Private Ventures - www.ppv.org

Recruiting Mentors
http://www.ppv.org/ppv/publications/assets/28_publication.pdf

Building Relationships: A Guide for New Mentors
http://www.ppv.org/ppv/publications/assets/29_publication.pdf

Training New Mentors
http://www.ppv.org/ppv/publications/assets/30_publication.pdf

The Exchange: News from FYSB and the Youth Services Field
<http://www.ncfy.com/>

STARS Mentoring Project
www.thepartnership.us/STARS

U.S. Dream Academy, Inc.
www.usdreamacademy.org

Networking and Listservs

Search Institute-Information on E-Newsletter and Listserv
<http://www.search-institute.org/participate/>

National Service-Learning Clearinghouse E-Newsletter and Listserv
http://www.servicelearning.org/resources/lists_news/index.php?search_term=Listserve

Parent Services

Resources for Parents and Those That Work with Them
<http://www.search-institute.org/families/familyresources.html>

The National Clearinghouse on Families and Youth
<http://www.ncfy.com/>

The National Clearinghouse on Families and Youth Publications
<http://www.ncfy.com/publications/allpub.htm>

Programs

4-H Afterschool
<http://www.4-hafterschool.org/default.aspx>

Adventist Youth Ministries
<http://www.adventistyouthministries.org/>

Boys' and Girls' Club of America
<http://www.bgca.org/>

The Elijah Project

http://www.adventistyouthministries.org/pdf/elijah_project.pdf

LA's Best

www.lasbest.org

Pathfinders

<http://www.pathfindersonline.org/>

Resources on Afterschool

<http://www.afterschoolresources.org/>

The After-School Corporation

<http://www.tascorp.org>

Service Learning

Website with all encompassing program resources

<http://www.servicelearning.org/cbohome/index.php>

Interactive internet tool for youth to plan service learning projects

www.ysa.org/planit

Global Youth Service Day Toolkit

<http://ysa.org/NatlGYSD/NGYSDTools/NGYSDToolsPlanningMaterials/tabid/118/Default.aspx>

Academy for Educational Development

www.aed.org

American Youth Policy Forum

www.aypf.org

America's Promise

www.americaspromise.org

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

www.ascd.org

Campus Compact

www.compact.org

Center for Youth as Resources

www.cyar.org

Chicago Public Schools
www.servicelearning.cps.k12.il.us

Common Cents New York
www.commoncents.org

Constitutional Rights Foundation
www.crf-usa.org

Corporation for National and Community Service
www.nationalservice.org

Education Commission of the States
www.ecs.org

Faith in Action
www.fiavolunteers/resources/resources.cfm

FrontRange Earth Force
www.earthforce.org

The Innovation Center for Community
and Youth Development
www.theinnovationcenter.org

Institute for Global Education and Service-Learning
www.igesl.org

Learn and Serve America
www.learnandserve.org

Learn and Serve America — Programs for Tribes
and U.S. Territories
www.learnandserve.org/about/programs/tribes_territories.asp

Learning In Deed
www.learningindeed.org

National Association of Student Councils
www.nasc.us

National Dropout Prevention Center
www.dropoutprevention.org

National Indian Youth Leadership Project
www.niylp.org

National Service-Learning Clearinghouse
www.servicelearning.org

National Service-Learning Clearinghouse — Native
American Service-Learning: Recommended Resources
www.servicelearning.org/lib_svcs/bibs/nat_amer/index.php

National Service-Learning Exchange
www.nslexchange.org

National Service-Learning Partnership
www.service-learningpartnership.org

National Youth Court Center
www.youthcourt.net

National Youth Development Information Center
www.nydic.org

National Youth Leadership Council
www.nylc.org

Pathways to Possibilities and Outreach to Empower
icil.umn.edu/etc/projects/index.htm

Points of Light Foundation
www.pointsoflight.org

The Rural School and Community Trust
www.ruraledu.org

Search Institute — Developmental Assets
www.search-institute.org/assets

RMC Research
www.rmcdenver.com

St. Paul Public Schools
www.servicelearning.spps.org

State Education Agency Network
www.seanetonline.org

U.S. Department of Education — No Child Left Behind
www.ed.gov/nclb
What Kids Can Do

www.whatkidscando.org

YouthActionNet

www.youthactionnet.org

Youth on Board

www.youthonboard.org

Youth Service America

www.ysa.org

Youth Service California

www.yscal.org

Transitioning to Adulthood

Resources and Materials for Career and College Preparation

http://ici1.umn.edu/etc/resources/etc_bibliography.htm

Non-Internet Resources

Tutoring

Howard, M. (2005). Increasing struggling learners' self-efficacy: what tutors can do and say. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 2, 221-238.

Mentoring

Probst, K. Mentoring for Meaningful Results: Asset-Building Tips, Tools, and Activities for Youth and Adults