



Module 2: Physical and Psychological Safety Research Review

Positive youth development is supported by a myriad of individual, family, and community factors. These factors, both positive and negative, comprise youth's environments. Nurturing, positive environments (e.g., youth programs, schools) have an important role in increasing positive youth development (Biglan, Flay, Embry, & Sandler, 2012; Bradshaw, Waasdorp, Debnam, & Johnson, 2014). In other words, youth programs are one of the aspects of youth's environments that can bolster their development. One way youth programs successfully support positive youth development is by creating an environment where youth, youth workers, and administrators are safe from physical and psychological harm. Many youth report attending youth programs to avoid violence in their neighborhoods (e.g., Halpern, Barker, & Mollard, 2000), so it is imperative that youth programs offer a safe alternative within youth's communities. The presence of physical and psychological safety in youth programs helps to provide a setting where youth can maximize learning new skills, engagement in enjoyable activities, and development of positive personal characteristics and relationships (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). As such, safety, both psychological and physical, is regarded as one of eight features of a high-quality youth program (Yohalem & Wilson-Ahlstrom, 2010).

What are Physical and Psychological Safety?

In the positive youth development literature, the idea of a safe environment has been conceptualized as a precursor for youth to feel empowered and thrive and as a "key developmental need" on which many other developmental assets are based (Benson, 2006). Safety is a need for all youth; however, youth who represent marginalized and oppressed groups (e.g., transgender youth) may have additional needs for safety that adults may need to address. Although there is no single definition of safety, it is present in youth programs when the environment "minimizes the risk of injury to youth and teaches youth to develop habits that ensure their safety" (Yohalem & Wilson-Ahlstrom, 2010, p. 433). When describing settings of youth programs, safety has been divided into physical and psychological safety as there is an awareness that both are important to creating an optimal environment for youth (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Youth program settings are characterized as physically safe when the program activities are housed in facilities that are health-promoting (e.g., no lead paint or lead in the water) and youth are at no or low risk to sustain injuries (e.g., no fighting among peers). In addition, youth programs are characterized as psychologically safe when youth workers and administrators create an environment that increases positive and respectful peer and adult interactions while limiting confrontational and aggressive interactions (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). In doing so, a safe and positive atmosphere is created within the youth program. In the context of youth programs, atmosphere encompasses the nature and environment of the setting and refers to "the climate created by interaction that occurs between the participants, the staff, and the environment" (Ward & Parker, 2013 p.536). Both psychological and physical safety are significant components of a youth program's atmosphere and a safe environment is a precursor to maximized learning and development in youth programs. Many youth have indicated that the positive atmosphere in their youth program wasn't just related to positive interactions and relationships but also to their learning of new skills (Ward & Parker, 2013). Further, youth in programs where they feel safe have the opportunity to develop a strong

sense of membership with the program, which will likely have positive influences on their attendance and engagement (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

The importance of safety in youth programs has significant agreement in the field of positive youth development (Vance, 2010), and there is recognition that ensuring safety for all youth in youth programs is a core competency expected of youth workers and program directors (Astroth, Garza, & Taylor, 2004). Youth workers who are considered competent have the abilities and skills to create a safe environment for youth as well as other staff (Vance, 2010). For example, youth at one youth program reported feeling safer in that program than at their school, which was partially attributed to youth workers' efforts to make youth feel physically and psychologically safe (McLaughlin, 2000). Moreover, many youth have found youth programs contain a more positive affective context (i.e., they feel safe, they trust their peers and the youth workers) than at the schools they attend (Kahne et al., 2001). Despite the aforementioned studies, a review of the literature yielded limited empirical research on how to operationalize physical and psychological safety within youth programs. However, bullying, which is the absence of physical and psychological safety, has been a frequent subject of recent research within child development and mental health and can expand on the description of safety in youth's environments.

Bullying, which is a threat to psychological and physical safety, has been found to be present both in school and out of school (e.g., Garner & Hinton, 2010; Shannon, 2013). Further, negative verbal commentary (i.e., verbal or social bullying) from peers has been found to impact youth's motivation to engage in certain activities (e.g., physical activity; Faith, Leone, Ayers, Heo, & Pietrobelli, 2002). As such, it is important that youth programs purposefully foster an environment that promotes physical and psychological safety in order to support inclusion and to maximize engagement from all youth participants. It may also be the case that nurturing interactions within a youth setting could positively influence youth who are at-risk for or already engage in bullying. In fact, children who engaged in extracurricular activities in the last 12 months, some of which included youth programs, had lower rates of bullying behaviors than those who did not (Riese, Gjelsvik, & Ranney, 2015). Therefore, youth programs can serve an important role in combating bullying behavior within a safe program setting. Although the empirical study of physical and psychological safety has become more frequent in the last 20 years, the theoretical study of the importance of safety has been prevalent for decades. The following section briefly reviews several theoretical models that address safety within the context of human and positive youth development.

Theories Related to the Importance of Physical and Psychological Safety

The importance of physical and psychological safety in human development has been well documented across social science theories and models generally (e.g., Maslow, 1943) and positive youth development literature specifically (e.g., Benson, 2006). One of the most cited theories on individuals' need for and drive to obtain safety is Maslow's (1943; 1987) theory of motivation. According to this theory, safety is one of five basic needs that a person must satisfy in order to excel. Humans are viewed as "safety-seeking mechanisms" (Maslow, 1943, p. 376) who will do what they can to create or seek out a safe environment. This need is first observed during infancy and remains a need throughout individuals' lives. As part of this theory, the need for safety is conceptualized as a need for an organized, reliable, predictable, and structured environment that is free of dangers in order to achieve more advanced development and functioning (e.g., self-actualization). As youth progress through adolescence, they develop more autonomy to select diverse environments outside of their home and school (Eisman,

Stoddard, Bauermeister, Caldwell, & Zimmerman, 2016), yet one common theme among most youth is seeking environments that provide safety. Further, seeking safety is not just about finding a place that may shield individuals from dangers or physical harm but also finding one that includes security needs such as the presence of people who provide emotional support and psychological safety (Taormina & Gao, 2013). Youth programs can play an important role in providing a safe environment that helps to fulfill youth's needs for both physical and psychological safety. For example, data have consistently suggested that meeting individuals' lower level needs helps to provide them the opportunity to achieve more advanced needs (e.g., academic achievement; Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012).

Aside from Maslow's (1943; 1987) theory of motivation, ecological developmental theories (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1977; 1979) have been influential in their description of the multidimensional impact of children's environments on their functioning over time. Ecological models of development generally propose that children's development is directly and indirectly related to an interworking of systems within their environment that act, separately and collectively, to influence children's behaviors and outcomes (Szapocznik & Coatsworth, 1999). For example, Bronfenbrenner and colleagues' (1977; 2006) bioecological model of human development proposes four systems (microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem) that interact and contribute to optimal child development. More recently, ecodevelopmental theories of child development have emerged, which build on ecological theories by emphasizing systems within the child's environment that promote resilience and positive youth development (Fredricks & Simpkins, 2012). Youth programs are considered part of children's social ecosystems and can play a vital role in providing safe environments within which youth can thrive. Consistent with these models is the belief that the more nurturance, safety, and overall positive experiences youth experience, the better their functioning and outcomes will be.

Building on the theoretical underpinnings of ecological models of human development, the developmental assets model of youth development (Benson, 2002; Benson, Scales, & Syvertsen, 2011) considers safety as part of the assets youth need to thrive. Specifically, different types of safety are considered an external asset that is a component of healthy development (Benson, 2006). Safety, both physical and psychological, is part of youth's socialization experiences and reflects the interactions between youth and their environment. Therefore, creating environments that enable youth to feel physically and psychologically safe allows them to improve their internal assets (e.g., self-esteem, academic achievement, and social skills; Benson, 2006). In addition, sometimes this sense of safety extends beyond the youth program and into the general community. For example, youth who reported feeling more connected to the adults and institutions with whom they were associated also reported feeling safe in their community (Whitlock, 2007).

Physical and Psychological Safety and Youth Development

Both theoretical (Fredricks & Simpkins, 2012) and empirical (Shannon, 2013) research suggest that physical and psychological safety in the environment influence youth's development. The following section views development as not only youth's outcomes but also their experiences and identity when examining the contribution of safety to youth functioning and well-being.

Youth Outcomes

Although safety is viewed as a core component of a high-quality youth program (e.g., Eccles & Gootman, 2002), there is limited empirical research that examines how this construct relates to youth's experiences in youth programs and developmental outcomes. In fact, many researchers have indirectly

assessed psychological safety in youth programs by measuring other constructs such as youth's trust and relationships with youth workers (e.g., Griffith, 2016). However, there are some studies that directly assessed the importance of physical and psychological safety in youth programs. For example, youth's (ages 10-18 years) ratings of how safe they felt in a youth program were significantly associated with higher program satisfaction (Heinze, Jozefowicz, & Toro, 2010). Moreover, youth from another study indicated that the safer they felt, the more fun they had in their youth program (Ward & Parker, 2013). Also, higher reports of psychological safety among adolescents in a youth program were related to more reports of adolescents indicating they had learned social skills in that program (Lee, Borden, Serido, & Perkins, 2009).

Youth Experiences

Physical and psychological safety in youth programs not only influence youth outcomes but also their qualitative experiences. For example, many youth choose to attend youth programs because these programs provide a safe setting in which to learn skills, interact with peers (e.g., Borden, Perkins, Villarruel, & Stone, 2005), and feel "in control" (e.g., can exercise autonomy) within their surroundings (e.g., Ward & Parker, 2013). Further, some youth have indicated that youth programs provide a safe place to discuss difficult experiences, which suggests those youth felt emotionally safe while participating in that program (Diversi & Mecham, 2005). In a separate study, youth reported motivation to attend youth programs because they felt a sense of family and belonging while participating in the youth program's activities. Of equal importance, they reported attending the youth program because the program offered them safety from community violence and, at times, domestic violence (Daud & Carruthers, 2008).

Youth Identity

As previously mentioned, the presence of physical and psychological safety in youth's multiple environments is vital to the support of youth's learning and growth (e.g., Jennings, Parra-Medina, Hilfinger-Messias, & McLoughlin, 2006). Positive youth development emphasizes strengthening factors that lead youth to thrive, from middle childhood to late adolescence such as a positive identity, self-esteem, and self-concept. As such, physically and psychologically safe environments not only impact youth's ability to learn but also have a positive impact on their development of a healthy self-concept. Specifically, safe environments can positively contribute to individuals' sense of self as aspects of their identity are defined, in part, by others who share their physical space (Prince, 2014). For example, a youth program may be able to help youth develop a positive self-concept as they identify, through shared experiences, with staff who model safe interactions and with peers who engage in activities that promote well-being. In order to better understand youth's functioning as it relates to aspects of safety within youth programs, researchers have examined links between youth's outcomes and their experiences of safety associated with youth programs.

Methodological Considerations

When assessing constructs such as physical and psychological safety, there are several methodological issues to consider. First, there are varying definitions of physical and psychological safety that can make analysis of data within and between studies difficult. Second, there are limited standardized measures to assess psychological and physical safety generally (e.g., Taormina & Gao, 2013) and in youth programs specifically (Yohalem & Wilson-Ahlstrom, 2010). As a result, measurement of psychological and physical safety has primarily relied on qualitative reports by youth, youth workers,

or parents or on direct observation by staff researchers (e.g., Daud & Carruthers, 2008). Gathering data on youth's perceptions of safety is crucial as there is evidence that youth's perceptions of safety impact their motivation to attend and stay engaged in youth programs (e.g., Simpkins, Riggs, Ngo, Vest Ettekal, & Okamoto, 2016). Observational assessments of psychological and physical safety have focused on indicators of a safe environment such as absence of aggressive interactions among youth workers or youth (e.g., Daud & Carruthers, 2008). A third methodological consideration is how these observational measures can be applied to youth programs that serve youth across multiple domains and settings (e.g., athletic and religious-based programs). Regardless of the content, assessments that employ a multidimensional approach will likely yield the best data on safety as they will consist of both youth's subjective experience of safety and objective measures of safe practices within the environment.

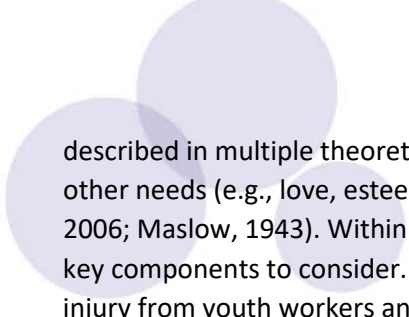
Implications for Youth Programs

Youth programs have several different approaches to creating a safe environment to enhance youth's experiences and maximize outcomes. These approaches involve developing the goals and curriculum of the program to include respecting the rights and feelings of peers and youth workers (e.g., Lee & Martinek, 2009) and empowering youth through mentorship to make safe choices within and beyond the program (e.g., Cargo, Grams, Ottoson, Ward, & Green, 2003). In other words, some youth programs address safety directly (e.g., through specific programming and activities), while other youth programs address safety indirectly (e.g., through creating a culture of acceptance). Another approach to ensuring psychological and physical safety within youth programs is to manage interpersonal conflict and disruptive behavior among program participants. Staff that employ techniques and strategies that include conflict resolution or discussing emotional topics when youth have disputes help to create an environment that is supportive and predictable, which positively contributes to the psychological and physical safety of the program (Simpkins et al., 2016).

There are numerous studies of prevention and intervention programs related to physical and psychological safety within school settings that carry strong implications as they inform safety efforts in youth programs (e.g., Bradshaw et al., 2014; Harris, McFarland, Siebold, Aguilar, & Sarmiento, 2007). In school settings, prevention and intervention programs have been linked to reductions in youth's fears of bullying and increases in educators' active involvement in bullying prevention (e.g., Gibson, Flaspohler, & Watts, 2015). Prevention and intervention programs originally aimed at school settings can be adapted to youth programs to help improve youth workers' efforts to provide physically and psychologically safe environments. For example, different school levels (e.g., elementary vs. middle school) were associated with increased bullying; elementary students reported more experiences of bullying than middle school students) while lower student-teacher ratios were associated with increased feelings of student safety (Bradshaw, Sawyer, & O'Brennan, 2009). Based on these findings, youth programs may want to consider supplemental anti-bullying programming aimed at elementary school-aged participants in order to give them alternative skills to handle conflict. Also, inclusion of additional youth workers to staff youth programs may help youth feel safer, especially during unstructured activities.

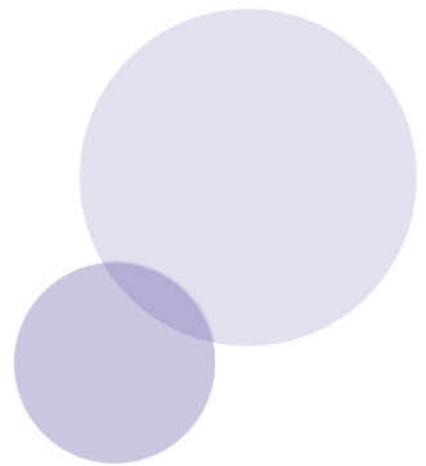
Conclusions and Future Directions

Youth programs are well-positioned to offer a safe place for youth who want to build their skills and competencies in a nurturing environment. The presence of physical and psychological safety in youth programs is an important precursor to youth's ability to thrive (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). As



described in multiple theoretical models, individuals' sense of safety allows them to focus on obtaining other needs (e.g., love, esteem) and developing additional attributes and assets (e.g., resiliency; Benson, 2006; Maslow, 1943). Within the conceptualization of physical and psychological safety, there are two key components to consider. Physical safety involves both youth feeling free from the risk of physical injury from youth workers and peers and facilities that are safe and conducive to the program's activities. Second, psychological safety refers to both the presence of supportive, nurturing interactions and relationships and the absence of any type of abuse (e.g., verbal or emotional) or bullying. The aforementioned multidimensional views of physical and psychological safety are echoed in empirical research. Overall, youth report feeling safe in youth programs where youth workers build trust and supportive relationships, when youth are not concerned about physical or psychological harm, and where youth are able to have fun and learn (e.g., Daud & Carruthers, 2008). Despite these encouraging finds regarding the impact of safety in youth programs, further research is needed.

To continue to build on the current literature of physical and psychological safety in youth programs, future research is needed to assess to what extent youth's perceptions of safety while at youth programs are impacted by other environments in their communities, including their residences and schools. Research tends to focus on the influence of at-risk contexts that are violent and/or unsafe as motivators for youth's participation in youth programs (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2016). However, additional information on how youth who don't interact with at-risk environments engage and experience safety in youth programs will provide valuable information. These findings can then be applied to new and existing youth programs and expand the research within the field. Further, findings from studies about safety in school settings can continue to inform how youth programs can increase experiences of safety for youth participants. Specifically, more research that examines how to adapt prevention and intervention programming from school settings to youth programs can increase youth workers' and administrators' knowledge about providing the safest environments for all youth.

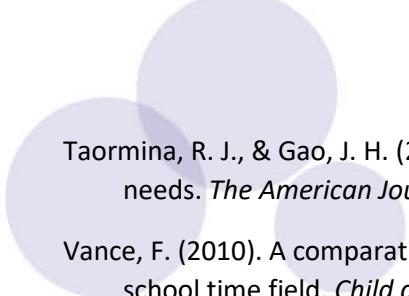


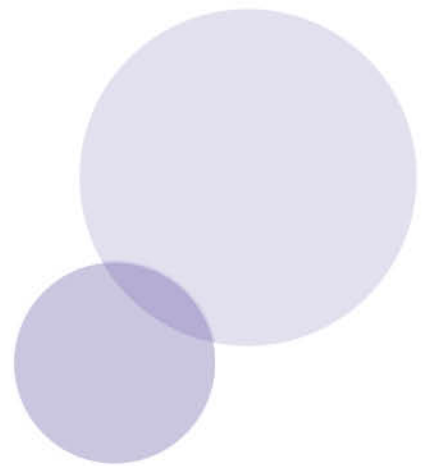
References

- Astroth, K. A., Garza, P., & Taylor, B. (2004). Getting down to business: Defining competencies for entry-level youth workers. *New Directions for Youth Development*, 2004(104), 25–37. doi:10.1002/yd.96
- Benson, P. L. (2002). Adolescent development in social and community context: A program of research. *New Directions for Youth Development*, 2002(95), 123–147. doi:10.1002/yd.19
- Benson, P. L. (2006). Naming the positive: The concept of developmental assets. In *All kids are our kids: What communities must do to raise caring and responsible children and adolescents* (2nd ed., pp. 23–58). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Benson, P. L., Scales, P. C., & Syvertsen, A. K. (2011). The contribution of the developmental assets framework to positive youth development theory and practice. In R. M. Lerner, J. V. Lerner, & J. B. Benson (Eds.), *Advances in child development and behavior* (1st ed., Vol. 41, pp. 197–230). LOCATION: Elsevier. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-386492-5.00008-7
- Biglan, A., Flay, B. R., Embry, D. D., & Sandler, I. N. (2012). The critical role of nurturing environments for promoting human well-being. *American Psychologist*, 67(4), 257–271. doi:10.1037/a0026796
- Borden, L. M., Perkins, D. F., Villarruel, F. A., & Stone, M. R. (2005). To participate or not to participate: That is the question. *New Directions for Student Leadership*, 2005(105), 33–49. doi:10.1002/yd.106
- Bradshaw, C. P., Sawyer, A. L., & O’Brennan, L. M. (2009). A social disorganization perspective on bullying-related attitudes and behaviors: The influence of school context. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 43(3–4), 204–220. doi:10.1007/s10464-009-9240-1
- Bradshaw, C. P., Waasdorp, T. E., Debnam, K. J., & Johnson, S. L. (2014). Measuring school climate in high schools: A focus on safety, engagement, and the environment. *Journal of School Health*, 84(9), 593–604. doi:10.1111/josh.12186
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an experimental ecology of human development. *American Psychologist*, 32(7), 513–531. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.32.7.513
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). Contexts of child rearing: Problems and prospects. *American Psychologist*, 34(10), 844–850. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.34.10.844
- Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (2006). The bioecological model of human development. In W. Damon & R. Lerner (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology, theoretical models of human development* (6th ed., pp. 793–828). New York: John Wiley & Sons. doi:10.1002/9780470147658.chpsy0114
- Cargo, M., Grams, G. D., Ottoson, J. M., Ward, P., & Green, L. W. (2003). Empowerment as fostering positive youth development and citizenship. *American Journal of Health Behavior*, 27(SUPPL. 1), 66–79. doi:10.5993/AJHB.27.1.s1.7
- Daud, R., & Carruthers, C. (2008). Outcome study of an after-school program for youth in a high-risk environment. *Journal of Park & Recreation Administration*, 26(2), 95–114. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=a9h&AN=33131396&site=ehost-live>

- Diversi, M., & Mecham, C. (2005). Latino(a) students and Caucasian mentors in a rural after-school program: Towards empowering adult-youth relationships. *Journal of Community Psychology, 33*(1), 31–40. doi:10.1002/jcop.20034
- Eccles, J. S., & Gootman, J. A. (2002). Features of positive developmental settings. In *Community Programs to Promote Youth Development* (pp. 86–118). Washington D.C.: National Academy Press. doi:10.1097/00004703-200510000-00009
- Eisman, A. B., Stoddard, S. A., Bauermeister, J. A., Caldwell, C. H., & Zimmerman, M. A. (2016). Trajectories of organized activity participation among urban adolescents: An analysis of predisposing factors. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 45*(1), 225–238. doi:10.1007/s10964-015-0267-3
- Faith, M. S., Leone, M. A., Ayers, T. S., Heo, M., & Pietrobelli, A. (2002). Weight criticism during physical activity, coping skills, and reported physical activity in children. *Pediatrics, 110*(2), 1–8.
- Fredricks, J. A., & Simpkins, S. D. (2012). Promoting positive youth development through organized after-school activities: Taking a closer look at participation of ethnic minority youth. *Child Development Perspectives, 6*(3), 280–287. doi:10.1111/j.1750-8606.2011.00206.x
- Garner, P. W., & Hinton, T. S. (2010). Emotional display rules and emotion self-regulation: Associations with bullying and victimization in community-based after school programs. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology, 20*, 480–496. doi:10.1002/casp
- Gibson, J. E., Flaspohler, P. D., & Watts, V. (2015). Engaging youth in bullying prevention through community-based participatory research. *Family & Community Health, 38*(1), 120–130. doi:10.1097/FCH.0000000000000048
- Griffith, A. N. (2016). Trajectories of trust within the youth program context. *Qualitative Psychology, 3*(1), 98–119. doi:10.1037/qap0000049
- Halpern, R., Barker, G., & Mollard, W. (2000). Youth programs as alternative spaces to be: A study of neighborhood youth programs in Chicago's West Town. *Youth & Society, 31*(4), 469–506. doi:10.1177/0044118X00031004005
- Harris, E., McFarland, J., Siebold, W., Aguilar, R., & Sarmiento, A. (2007). Universal prevention program outcomes: Safe schools healthy students in a rural, multicultural setting. *Journal of School Violence, 6*(2), 75–91. doi:10.1300/J202v06n02
- Heinze, H. J., Jozefowicz, D. M. H., & Toro, P. A. (2010). Taking the youth perspective: Assessment of program characteristics that promote positive development in homeless and at-risk youth. *Children and Youth Services Review, 32*(10), 1365–1372. doi:10.1016/j.childyouth.2010.06.004
- Jennings, L. B., Parra-Medina, D. M., Hilfinger-Messias, D. K., & McLoughlin, K. (2006). Toward a critical social theory of youth empowerment. *Journal of Community Practice, 14*, 31–55. doi:10.1300/J125v14n01
- Kahne, J., Nagaoka, J., Brown, A., O'Brien, J., Quinn, T., & Thiede, K. (2001). Assessing after-school programs as contexts for youth development. *Youth & Society, 32*(4), 421–446. doi:10.1177/0044118X01032004002

- Lee, O., & Martinek, T. (2009). Navigating two cultures. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 80(2), 230–240. doi:10.1080/02701367.2009.10599557
- Lee, S.-A., Borden, L. M., Serido, J., & Perkins, D. F. (2009). Ethnic minority youth in youth programs: Feelings of safety, relationships with adult staff, and perceptions of learning social skills. *Youth & Society*, 41(2), 234–255. doi:10.1177/0044118X09334805
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 370–396. doi:10.1037/h0054346
- Maslow, A. H. (1987). *Motivation and personality* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Addison Wesley Longman.
- McLaughlin, M. W. (2000). *Community counts: How youth organizations matter for youth development*. Washington, D.C.: PUBLISHER. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED442900>
- Noltmeyer, A., Bush, K., Patton, J., & Bergen, D. (2012). The relationship among deficiency needs and growth needs: An empirical investigation of Maslow's theory. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 34(9), 1862–1867. doi:10.1016/j.chilyouth.2012.05.021
- Prince, D. (2014). What about place? Considering the role of physical environment on youth imagining of future possible selves. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 17(6), 697–716. doi:10.1080/13676261.2013.836591
- Riese, A., Gjelsvik, A., & Ranney, M. L. (2015). Extracurricular activities and bullying perpetration: Results from a nationally representative sample. *Journal of School Health*, 85(8), 544–551. doi:10.1111/josh.12282
- Roth, J. L., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2003). What exactly is a youth development program? Answers from research and practice. *Applied Developmental Science*, 7(2), 94–111. doi:10.1207/S1532480XADS0702_6
- Roth, J. L., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2016). Evaluating youth development programs: Progress and promise. *Applied Developmental Science*, 20(3), 188–202. doi:10.1080/10888691.2015.1113879
- Shannon, C. S. (2013). Bullying in recreation and sport settings: Exploring risk factors, prevention efforts, and intervention strategies. *Journal of Park & Recreation Administration*, 31(1), 15–33.
- Retrieved from <https://login.proxy.library.msstate.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=s3h&AN=91892763&site=eds-live>
- Simpkins, S. D., Riggs, N. R., Ngo, B., Vest Ettekal, A., & Okamoto, D. (2016). Designing culturally responsive organized after-school activities. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 32(1), 1–26. doi:10.1177/0743558416666169
- Szapocznik, J., & Coatsworth, J. D. (1999). An ecodevelopmental framework for organizing the influences on drug abuse: A developmental model of risk and protection. In M. D. Hartel & C. R. Glantz (Eds.), *Drug abuse: Origins & interventions* (pp. 331–366). Washington D.C.: American Psychological Association. doi:10.1037/10341-014

- 
- Taormina, R. J., & Gao, J. H. (2013). Maslow and the motivation hierarchy: Measuring satisfaction of the needs. *The American Journal of Psychology*, *126*(2), 155–177. doi:10.5406/amerjpsyc.126.2.0155
- Vance, F. (2010). A comparative analysis of competency frameworks for youth workers in the out-of-school time field. *Child and Youth Care Forum*, *39*(6), 421–441. doi:10.1007/s10566-010-9116-4
- Ward, S., & Parker, M. (2013). The voice of youth: Atmosphere in positive youth development program. *Physical Education & Sport Pedagogy*, *18*(5), 534–548. doi:10.1080/17408989.2012.726974
- Whitlock, J. (2007). The role of adults, public space, and power in adolescent community connectedness. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *35*(4), 499–518. doi:10.1002/jcop.20161
- Yohalem, N., & Wilson-Ahlstrom, A. (2010). Inside the black box: Assessing and improving quality in youth programs. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *45*(3), 350–357. doi:10.1007/s10464-010-9311-3



Appendix A

Glossary of Terms

Positive youth development: a strengths-based, holistic approach to studying and working with youth that focuses on promoting healthy development. Positive youth development research and practice tends to emphasize environmental rather than internal influences on development, altering systems that may foster positive and healthy youth development. In research and practice, the term “positive youth development” may refer to a developmental process, an approach to youth programming, or a specific program or organization.

Youth programs: programs that foster youth’s personal development (e.g., social, ethical, emotional, physical, and cognitive competencies), participation, and empowerment while fostering relationships between supportive adults and young people. Youth programs are diverse in their structure, goals, and the youth they serve. These programs may be referred to as after-school, out-of-school, and/or youth programs; throughout this report the term “youth program” refers to any of these programs.

Youth workers: volunteers and paid staff, including administrators and individuals engaged in direct service, who engage in youth development work in a variety of settings and programs outside the regular school day. Similar terms include youth development professionals, after-school providers, and youth leaders. For the purpose of this paper, the term “youth worker” will be used to describe all professionals who work in youth programs.



This product is the result of a partnership funded by the Department of Defense between the Office of Military Community and Family Policy and the USDA’s National Institute of Food and Agriculture through grant/cooperative agreement Award No. 2009-48667-05833 with The University of Minnesota.