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COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

A WINDOW ON SCHOOL-AGE CARE

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Ву

Stacy A. Dykstra Norman, Oklahoma 2001 UMI Number: 3013153

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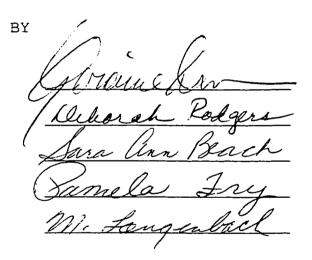
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A WINDOW ON SCHOOL-AGE CARE

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM



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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the interrelationships of the many characteristics that may contribute to the quality of school-age child care and to examine, from an ecological perspective, school-age child care as it relates to children's development. Interrelationships among structural and process measures of quality were identified. The relevance of this is twofold: the confirmation that many program characteristics contribute to the level of quality, and the reality that one combination of program characteristics may be better than another in creating a high quality program. The quality characteristics identified in this study (positive adult-child interactions, variety of activities available, compensation, and program size) should be considered when developing a school-age child care program. Furthermore, the study identified associations between school-age program quality and child outcomes, reinforcing the importance of quality programming for our children and youth during out-ofschool time.

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Chapter 1

The Problem

Out-of-school time for five to fourteen-year-old children and youth is gaining national attention. In a recent study by the Urban Institute (2000) it was estimated that four million 6- to 12-year-olds are alone during the after school hours. If 13- and 14year-olds are included, the number of unsupervised children rises to eight million. Children unsupervised during out-of-school time may be at risk of becoming involved in dangerous activities such as drugs, violence, and sex. Their opportunities for a healthy and natural development may be at risk as well (Berman, Winkleby, Chesterman, & Boyce, 1992; Urban Institute, 2000). Research also suggests the way in which children and youth spend their out-of-school time has implications for their development (Marshall, Coll, Marx, McCartney, Keefe, & Ruh, 1997; Pierce, Hamm, & Vandell, 1999). One solution to this problem may be to create high-quality, affordable school-age care programs for American families specific to the needs of the consumer (Hobbs & Chang, 1995).

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Purpose of the Study

This study examined the interrelationships of structural (program enrollment, ratio, group size) and process (global ratings, adult-child interactions) measures of quality in school-age child care programs. These measures of quality were then considered in relation to the perspective of the child and the child's parent. Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998) suggest a better understanding of human development can be reached when multiple settings, people, and processes are taken into consideration. Following this line of thought, this study examined children's behavior in relation to school-age child care program quality while taking into consideration characteristics of the children, the children's families, and the program staff.

Approximately 83% of revenue for school-age child care programs comes from tuition paid by parents (Seppanen, deVries, & Seligson, 1993). Needless to say, program budgets are tight. Directors need to know how they can best spend their money to create quality programs. Child care research suggests positive caregiver-child interactions are an indicator of quality (Howes & Smith, 1995; Kontos & Dunn, 1993;

Phillips, McCartney, & Scarr, 1987; Vandell, Henderson, & Wilson, 1987; Zaslow, 1991). Adults who develop warm, supportive relationships with children contribute to a comfortable environment in which children's healthy development may occur (Miller, 1995). Research to distinguish key elements of program quality may contribute to an empirical foundation for developing standards and requirements for the field of school-age child care.

The purpose of this study was to examine the many program characteristics that may contribute to the quality of school-age child care and to examine from an ecological perspective school-age child care as it relates to children's development.

Research Goals

We know that structural measures of quality, such as group size, adult-child ratio, teacher compensation, teacher training and teacher education, are related to process quality in child care for younger children (Berk, 1985; Howes & Olenick, 1986; Phillips, Howes, & Whitebook, 1991). However, little is known about the interrelationships between structural and process measures of quality in schoolage child care. The first goal of this study was to

examine interrelationships among the various characteristics of quality in school-age child care programs.

Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) stated that grade school children may offer a valuable perspective about their experience in school-age programs. Thev included third, fourth, and fifth grade children in their study and found when children attended programs with limited activities available they described their programs negatively. The authors were less certain younger children would be reliable reporters, but suggested exploring the issue in future research. This study extended the research by including the perspectives of both younger and older children. Thus, the second goal of the study was to examine associations between characteristics of the school-age program and younger and older children's feelings about the program.

School-age research has identified quality associations based on age and gender. For example, in a recent study of lower income third, fourth, and fifth grade children, Posner and Vandell (1999) examined the child characteristics gender and age in relation to their after-school activities. They found

girls and boys spent their after-school time differently. They also found differences in afterschool activities by age and grade. Building on this information, the third goal of the study was to contribute to the research base by examining the children's perspectives of program quality taking their age and gender into consideration.

Literature on school-age child care suggests that high quality experiences in after-school programs are important because these experiences may be related to better social and emotional adjustment (Jacobs, White, Baillargeon, & Betsalel-Presser, 1991; Pierce et al., 1999; Posner & Vandell, 1994). Miller (1995) agrees and adds that children in low quality care may experience negative effects such as more problems at school and with peers. More empirical evidence is needed to examine the relationships between quality and child outcomes in school-age child care programs. The fourth goal of this study was to examine the behavior of children who attend school-age child care programs of varying quality.

Research Questions

1. How are characteristics of school-age child care program quality interrelated? The characteristics of

quality examined were: 1.) process measures including global program quality, adult-child interaction, and the variety of activities available and 2.) structural quality measures including professional preparation of the director and staff (experience, education, and training), compensation, adult-child ratio, group size, and program enrollment.

 How do children's perspectives of the program vary with regard to the quality of the program as measured by both process and structural indices of quality?
 How are children's characteristics (gender and age) associated with their perspective of the program and the quality of the program?

4. How does the quality of school-age child care programs relate to children's behavior as rated by their parents?

Chapter 2

First, what is already known and what has yet to be addressed in the field of school-age child care will be discussed. Next, the reader will be informed about the questions I plan to investigate while making it clear how this study relates to, and builds upon, the existing knowledge base as represented in the research and theoretical literature. Finally, the research model for use in this research project will be described.

The School-Age Child's Out-of-School Time Where are Children During Out-of-School Time?

Children's out-of school time may be spent with a parent, relative, family child care provider, or inhome provider; in lessons or self-care; or in a center-based, school-based or community-based program. They participate in a variety of activities and in a variety of settings such that care often consists of two or more of the aforementioned options (Belle, 1997; Miller, 1995; Pettit, Laird, Bates, & Dodge, 1997). This fact, along with the sheer number of children who require some form of care while their parents are at work, leads to the realization that a

diversity of child care arrangements is required to meet the needs of all families (Towell & Tsuji, 1990). What Influences Where Children Spend their Out-of-School Time?

There are many variables that may contribute to where school-age children spend their out-of-school time, such as location and/or convenience, cost and/or the availability of financial assistance, transportation, and program purpose (Elliot, 1998; Hobbs & Chang, 1995; Jacobs et al., 1991; Miller, 1995; Seppanen et al., 1993).

Family social class and parent education level (Miller, 1995), as well as parental preferences and access to information about school-age child care options (Posner & Vandell, 1994), are also thought to influence the school-age child care decision. For example, Posner and Vandell (1994) noted that White low-income families were more likely to use self-care than African-American low-income families. In another study, lesson participation increased from 6% to 20% when family income increased from \$25,000 to \$50,000 or more (Miller, 1995). This suggests children from low SES families may be prohibited from participation in lessons due to the cost.

Miller (1995) found that mothers without a high school diploma were less likely to enroll their children in formal programs. They were more likely to use relative care or family child care during out-ofschool time (Miller, 1995; Pettit et al., 1997). Similarly, Posner and Vandell (1994) found less educated mothers more likely than their more educated counterparts to use self-care.

Other influences on children's out-of-school time may include the characteristics of the child, such as age. As the child gets older the amount and variety of non-parental care increases (Miller, 1995; Pettit et al., 1997). Any one or combination of the aforementioned variables may contribute to how children spend their out-of-school time.

What are Children doing during Out-of-School Time?

One study examined the after-school experiences of low-income children. The six activities reported to occupy the majority of children's time after school were TV, eating, homework or other academic activities, transit or transitional time, and unorganized indoor and outdoor activities (Posner & Vandell, 1994). The authors also discovered gender differences in the type of activities school-age

children participate in after school (Posner & Vandell, 1999). For example, girls spent more time than boys doing academic activities and socializing. Boys spent more time than girls participating in coached sports. Cultural differences were identified as well. White boys were more likely than White girls to spend time playing with video games. African-American children were less likely than White children to play video games. African-American boys were more likely to watch television than African-American girls (Posner & Vandell, 1999).

The way children spend time within given afterschool environments was examined by Marshall and colleagues (1997). Children in different care arrangements after-school spent their time in different ways. For example, children in school-age programs were more likely to spend time with peers and less likely to spend time watching television. However, they spent no more time in academic and cognitive activities than did children at home or in other adult care.

These findings suggest great variability in children's after-school time activities across child gender and across cultural communities.

What are the Effects of the Types of Care Available?

Research in this field is as varied as the types of care available. It seems each study chooses to examine only three or four of the many types of care and in many cases categorizing forms of care differently. This state of affairs makes it difficult to group research findings, yet the implications of this work are important.

Mother Care

Vandell and Ramanan (1991) conducted a study with a nationally representative sample of 390 low-income, minority, urban third, fourth, and fifth grade children. The study attempted to identify associations between the type of after school care (self-care, mother care, and other care) and children's social, emotional and cognitive development. The analyses revealed that families using mother care after school had less favorable home environments due to poorer emotional support. These mothers reported their children to be more anxious, antisocial, and involved in more peer conflicts. They also had lower scores on cognitive measures than children in other adult care. These findings led the author to conclude that negative developmental

outcomes may result when children of poor single mothers spend out-of-school time at home (Vandell & Ramanan, 1991). The authors further suggest these children may benefit from spending time in other adult care during out-of-school time (Vandell & Ramanan, 1991).

Vandell and Corasaniti (1988) examined differences in the after school experiences of 150 White, predominantly middle-class third grade children from a suburban school system. The four after school experiences investigated were mother care, formal programs, self-care, and babysitter. The child outcomes measured were academic, social, emotional, and behavioral. Children who received mother care were similar to children who participated in self-care with respect to the following developmental outcomes: emotional well-being, peer rankings, work/study skills, and how well they get along with peers and adults. The developmental outcomes measured for the children attending formal programs were lower than the other three options. The outcomes for the children participating in babysitter care varied.

School-Age Child Care Programs

Posner and Vandell (1994) investigated the social and academic functioning of 216 low-income children participating in one of four after school child care arrangements at least three days per week. The types of care included: maternal care, informal adult supervision, self-care, and formal after school The formal after school programs were both programs. school-based and community-based programs. The authors found positive effects in a variety of areas for low-income children who attended formal after school programs. These children had better grades and conduct in school, better peer relations, and better emotional adjustment than children in the other three forms of care. They performed better in school in both the third and fifth grade than children who did not attend school-age child care programs (Posner & Vandell, 1994, 1999).

Marshall and colleagues (1997) examined the after school time of 206 urban children in first through fourth grades in relation to their behavioral adjustment. The environment in which the children spent time was identified. For lower-income children, participation in an after school program was

associated with fewer internalizing problems. Program participation was unrelated to behavioral adjustment for middle and upper-income children, however.

Pettit and his colleagues (1997) examined child outcomes in relation to six types of non-parental care: sibling/self-care, sitter/relative care, neighbor care, child care, school-based care, and activity-oriented supervised care. They found lowerincome first grade children who participated in school-age child care programs located in child care centers had higher levels of social competence, and lower levels of internalizing and externalizing problems compared to lower-income children not participating in this form of care. No differences were found in the level of adjustment for higher socio-economic status (SES) children who did or did not participate in child care programs during out-ofschool time (Pettit et al., 1997).

In contrast with the aforementioned studies, the results of Vandell and Corasaniti (1988) suggested the children enrolled in child care center programs had more negative peer nominations, lower academic grades on their report cards, and lower standardized test scores than both latchkey children and children

returning home to their mother. The authors suggested the low quality of the school-age child care programs may have contributed to their findings.

Due to the contradictory research results, more research is needed that focuses on child outcomes in relation to school-age child care programs.

Relative Care/Babysitter

Relative care includes any adult relative responsible for the child during out-of-school time, either at the child's home or the relative's home. A babysitter is a non-relative who cares for the child at the child's home or in their child care home. Pettit and his colleagues (1997) discovered lower SES children in relative care showed better academic competence at grade 6 than similar SES children not involved in this type of care. In contrast, the findings from the study conducted by Vandell and Corasaniti (1988) with regards to sitter care were varied. For example, the children were ranked more negative in peer nominations similar to the children attending the child care program. However, their cognitive measures were similar to self-care and mother care children, which were more positive than

those of the children attending the child care program.

Lessons

The study by Posner and Vandell (1999) examined the type of experiences in which children participated in during out-of-school time and relationships to child outcomes in the third and fifth grades. African-American fifth grade children who had participated in extracurricular activities or lessons (e.g. dance, music, scouts) between the third and fifth grades had significantly better emotional adjustment than children who had not participated in lessons. White fifth grade children, on the other hand, had significantly lower grade point averages (GPA's) when they participated in more extracurricular lessons (Posner & Vandell, 1999).

A different pattern emerged in a study by Pettit and colleagues (1997). First grade children who were enrolled in lessons (e.g. piano, karate, art) in small to moderate amounts were found to be more socially competent and have fewer externalizing problems than children who are not involved or highly involved in lessons. The same pattern was apparent for both first and third grade girls enrolled in moderate amounts of

lessons. They had higher grade point averages (GPA's) than girls in no lessons or four or more hours of lessons per week (Pettit et al., 1997). Third grade boys who were enrolled in high amounts of lessons had higher levels of externalizing problems than boys not involved in lessons. Low income fifth grade children followed the above mentioned pattern as well. Moderate amounts of time in lessons were associated with higher social competence and fewer externalizing behaviors than no lessons or high amounts of lessons. These differences were not apparent for high SES children in the fifth grade (Pettit et al., 1997).

Self-Care

Self-care, or latch key care, is of great societal concern due to the magnitude of its utilization. Self-care takes place when a child is home alone, or with an older sibling, on a regular basis. The research on the effects of self-care on the developing child provides contradictory results. Common sense, backed up by research, suggests it is dependent on many variables such as the child, the parent(s), the neighbors and/or neighborhood, how informed about self-care the family is, extracurricular activities in which the child participates,

and the supportive resources available to the child (Belle, 1997; Berman et al., 1992; Pettit et al., 1997; Rodman, Pratto, & Nelson, 1985; Vandell & Corasaniti, 1988).

A variety of studies have compared middle-class children in self-care with children in other forms of care and found no differences between these children on social, emotional, academic, and behavioral outcomes (Galambos & Maggs, 1991; Marshall et al., 1997; Rodman et al., 1985; Vandell & Corasaniti, 1988). Other studies comparing self-care to other forms of child care for school-age children, however, have voiced concerns about the effects of self-care. For example, the study by Posner and Vandell (1994) found a positive correlation between the amount of time a child spent without adult supervision and antisocial behavior. The authors suggest the lack of structure may be a disadvantage for social development (Posner & Vandell, 1994).

Examination of associations between the type of after-school care and children's social, emotional and cognitive development, led Vandell and Ramanan (1991) to conclude that latch key children were rated by

their mothers as being more headstrong and hyperactive than children in adult care after school.

A longitudinal study, by Pettit et al (1997), concluded that high amounts of self-care in early grades may place the child at risk for adjustment difficulties, lower GPA's, lower achievement test scores and lower social competence in grade six. This was especially true for children from lower SES homes, for children who displayed high levels of behavior problems in kindergarten, and for children who did not participate in extra curricular activities (Pettit et al., 1997).

Berman et al. (1992) found a trend toward decreased self-competence scores the longer a child was home alone per day. Furthermore, children in older sibling care reported lower self-esteem in three of the six self-competence domains measured. The authors suggest children in self-care may be at risk of isolation from normative social and peer-related experiences because they were not allowed to play outside or to have a friend visit as often as those in other forms of care (Berman et al., 1992).

What do we know about Formal Before- and After-School

Child Care?

Two national research projects provide descriptive information about school-age child care programs; the School-Age Child Care in America provider survey (SACCA; Marx, 1990) based on the responses of 130 school-age child care providers in 13 different states, and the National Study of Beforeand After-School Programs (NSBASP; Seppanen et al., 1993) a computer-assisted telephone interview of 1300 programs plus observations of 13 program sites.

Descriptive Information

Both studies reported the existence of more nonprofit programs than for-profit programs (Marx, 1990; Seppanen et al., 1993). Licensing status varied by study. Marx (1990) reported 69% of programs were licensed and the remainder were exempt, whereas a licensing rate of 84% was reported by Seppanen et al. (1993) with 23% of the programs being accredited by a state or national agency as well.

Both studies reported child care programs as the most frequently occurring auspice representing a little over one-third of the school-age programs surveyed. Public schools were the second largest

program auspice providing approximately one-fourth of the school-age child care programs. Other program auspices included youth serving agencies, church, synagogue or religious schools, municipal park and recreation departments, social service agencies, municipalities, colleges, the military, work sites, and non-religious private schools (Marx, 1990; Seppanen et al., 1993).

Marx (1990) reported an average adult-to-child ratio of 1:12.5 while a ratio of 1:8.9 was reported by the NSBASP study (1993). Marx (1990) reported an enrollment average of 61, with only 28% of programs enrolling 30 children or less, whereas in the other study the majority of programs enrolled 30 children or less (Seppanen et al., 1993). Year round operation was offered by 81% and a large percentage of programs were open on school holidays (77%) and school vacations other than summer vacation (81%). The average length of care for before-school sessions was 1.8 hours, while children stayed in care after school an average of 3.2 hours (Seppanen et al., 1993). Few programs operated after 6:00 PM or on weekends, but many (approximately three-fourths) offered both

before- and after-school care (Marx, 1990; Seppanen et al., 1993).

Families Served

The NSBASP (1993) provided descriptive data on the children served in the school-age child care programs studied. Of the 1.7 million children in kindergarten through grade eight who were enrolled in 49,500 formal before- and after-school programs, most were children from kindergarten through the third grade. Marx (1990) concurred that the majority of children enrolled were between the ages of five and nine and noted that European-American children were the largest racial/ethnic group served. The racial breakdown included: 68% European-American, 19% African-American, 8% Hispanic, and less than 6% Asian or Pacific Islander, Native American, or other ethnic origins. The programs primarily served Englishspeaking children with working parents (Seppanen et al., 1993).

Program Budget

The average hourly fee for before- and afterschool care reported by each study was similar: \$1.89 per hour according to Marx (1990) and \$1.77 per hour reported by Seppanen and colleagues (1993). According

to the NSBASP study revenues for school-age programs came primarily from parental fees (83%). Only 12% of the families received public assistance. Full fees were paid by 86% of the families for their child to attend the program (Seppanen et al., 1993). It seems participation may be limited to families who qualify for government subsidies and those at the upper end of the income scale who can afford the fees (Seppanen et al., 1993; Marx, 1990). Programs serving higherincome families receive their largest source of revenue from parental fees. Furthermore, most parents (90%) pay the full fee for enrolling their child in the program. In contrast, lower-income programs are more likely to adjust parental fees based on family income and are somewhat less dependent on parental fees for revenue (less than 66%). These programs receive revenue from other sources such as the program sponsor, donations, and local, state, and/or federal government funds (Seppanen et al., 1993).

Findings from the NSBASP study suggest lowerincome families who do not qualify for subsidies may face financial barriers that limit their ability to enroll their children in before- and after-school programs. Programs are so dependent on parental fees

for revenue that tuition adjustment may not be available and government funds may not be available to all families who need the assistance (Seppanen et al., 1993). Low-income parents' employment opportunities are influenced by the availability, cost and quality of child care (Halpern, 1999). These issues magnify the need for financial support for school-age child care from both the government and private organizations and businesses.

Compensation and Benefits for Program Staff

Staff wages and benefits varied quite a bit in the studies by Marx and Seppanen et al. Marx (1990) reported average hourly wage paid to a senior group leader was \$6.95, which was quite similar to the \$6.77 per hour reported by Seppanen and colleagues (1993). Wages were much lower for assistants and aids (\$5.01/hour and \$5.81/hour respectively). Approximately 28% of the programs offered no fringe benefits according to both studies. The average turnover rate reported were similar, 35% by Seppanen and colleagues (1993) and 40% by Marx (1990).

Marx (1990) identified training and education benefits provided by school-age child care programs. Reimbursement for relevant course work was available

from 43% of the programs and for professional conferences from 79% of the programs. Approximately 50% of programs offered preservice training and at least two inservice training sessions per year. A career ladder with opportunities for advancement was in place in 42% of the programs (Marx, 1990).

What are the Needs of Program Staff?

The staff characteristics described above have been examined in terms of relationships to quality programming in child care. As noted earlier, Phillips and colleagues (1991) discovered teachers' salaries and benefits were positively associated with the quality of care they provided and their job commitment. Scarr, Eisenberg and Deater-Deckard (1994) conducted a large multi-site study and found teachers' wages to be the only predictor of the standard of quality they provided. Howes, Phillips, and Whitebook (1992) suggest higher wages are a key factor in reducing staff turnover. Together, these child care studies suggest better compensation may lead to better job performance and employees who are less likely to leave their job. Furthermore, it has been suggested that staff turnover is related to program continuity and guality in school-age child

care programs (Seppanen et al., 1993). Halpern (1992) studied 500 inner city children who attend school-age child care programs and found staff turnover to be a problem for many of the programs, with more than 40% of the staff having been hired within the past year. This issue is of concern because staff who have been with a program longer know the children and their home situations better and so presumably can be more responsive to children and families. These structural measures of quality (compensation, turnover, etc.) need further examination to determine the nature of the relationship to one another as well as other quality measures.

Another issue affecting turnover is that of staff training. The NSBASP (1993) suggests staff training that includes learning about effective methods for interacting with children helps adults work successfully with school-age children. Staff in school-age programs also need training in activity planning, adapting space to meet program needs, and basic health and safety procedures. This implies that training is an effective way to prepare someone to work with school-age children and that there are appropriate ways to interact with school-age children.

Various studies of child care for younger children concur that training is associated with higher quality care (Phillips et al., 1991). Research in the field of school-age child care should consider training in relation to other indicators of quality for school-age child care programs.

Finally, the education level of the director and staff members must be considered. Staff education was a structural measure of quality associated with staffchild interactions measured through observations in Rosenthal and Vandell's (1996) study. They noted that when the staff had less formal education, negative staff-child interactions were more frequent.

Quality of Care

Scholars believe more research in the area of school-age child care quality is desperately needed. For example, Elliot (1998) suggested "more detailed examination also is needed to pinpoint elements of the outside-of-school care environment, as well as home and family characteristics that affect the quality of children's experiences in school-age care and their associated interactions with the family, friends, and the neighborhood" (p. 391). Towell and Tsuji (1990) suggest in their review of the school-age literature

that although school-age care quality has been examined, there is not sufficient and appropriate information to allow child care specialists to develop models of school-age care. It is important to keep in mind that although models may be helpful as guides to program design and implementation, individuals attempting program implementation must take into consideration the specific needs of consumers, families, and the communities of school-age programs.

Miller and Marx (1990) suggest the research in school-age care has gaps because it has not yet focused on the various quality issues relevant to different types of programs. Since that time, a few studies have surfaced that address this issue. For example, The ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education (1999) conducted research to determine which types of programs work best with urban youth. They identified three program components important for urban youth, academic, recreational, and cultural. Furthermore, it was suggested that a well-designed program should include well-trained adults, solid structure, assessment, inclusion of families in program planning, and an advisory board. It is important, therefore, to

examine the quality of care in future research efforts.

Quality Components for School-Age Child Care Programs

School-age child care programs should be safe, comfortable places for children to be while away from their parents during out-of-school time. Scholars engaging in theoretically driven study of development in the middle childhood years suggest these children should be allowed to experience autonomy, privacy, control and mastery through activities (Bryant, 1985; Fink, 1990; Rosenthal & Vandell, 1996). Vandell and Corasaniti (1988) suggest children should participate in environments that promote their development and interact with staff who understand school-age children's needs and have the ability to provide appropriately for them.

Others suggest children should spend their outof-school time with friends and caring adults, engaging in activities that develop and expand their school experiences, and discovering and developing interests and skills (Miller, 1995; Posner & Vandell, 1994). Furthermore, programs should be flexible and provide a variety of activities from which children

can choose what they want to do (Rosenthal & Vandell, 1996).

Parent participation should be prevalent in school-age child care programs (Marx, 1990). Seppanen and others (1993) noted that 11% of programs they surveyed required parent involvement. Sixty-two percent reported some parent involvement in program planning or evaluation activities, while one-third of the programs had parents serving on an advisory council or board of directors. Talking informally with the parents is one way in which most programs communicate with parents (Seppanen et al., 1993). Insights from Research with Younger Children

The literature on child care for preschool children suggests that the overall quality of the child care environment does influence many aspects of a child's social competence and adjustment, cognitive development, and emotional security (Clarke-Stewart, 1985; Howes, 1990; Howes & Smith, 1995; Howes et al., 1992; Kontos & Dunn, 1993; Phillips et al., 1987; Scarr et al., 1994; Vandell et al., 1987; Zaslow, 1991). Poor quality programs may provide undesirable experiences for the young children enrolled and may be

negatively associated with child outcomes (Howes, 1990; Howes et al., 1992; Vandell et al., 1987).

Quality indicators include structural quality features such as adult-child ratio and group size (Howes, 1990; Howes et al., 1992; Scarr et al., 1994) and process quality characteristics such as creative play and other types of activities (Howes & Smith, 1995; Kontos & Dunn, 1993; Vandell et al., 1987), and positive caregiver-child interactions (Howes & Smith, 1995; Kontos & Dunn, 1993; Phillips et al., 1987; Vandell et al., 1987; Zaslow, 1991). Recruiting and retaining highly qualified staff (Scarr et al., 1994) through the use of enhanced teacher training, appropriate salaries and benefits, and facility improvements (Kagan, 1991) also may lead to quality programming.

Other research has examined the relationship between structural and process quality. For example, Scarr and colleagues (1994) conducted a study in which they used structural quality to predict process quality. Of the structural measures used in the study (ratio, group size, teacher training, teacher education, highest wage paid to a teacher in the center, and staff turnover) highest wage paid to a

teacher was the best indicator of process quality. The authors recognized that the relationship of teachers' wages to actual quality of care was complex and indirect. They suggested that "recruiting and retaining highly qualified staff may be the best predictor of a quality program" (Scarr et al., 1994, p. 149).

A study by Phillips and colleagues (1991) supported these findings. In this child care study of 1307 child care staff who worked in center-based child care programs, the work environment was examined in relation to quality of care. The authors found that staff wages not only predicted staff turnover but also the quality of care provided to children.

What has yet to be Addressed in the Field of

School-Age Child Care?

Structural and Process Quality

The aforementioned studies identify characteristics that may be associated with quality in school-age child care. Moreover, it seems aspects of quality are interrelated in some studies. For example, the combination of structural features (e.g. adult-child ratio, teacher education) and curriculum may have been what influenced the teacher-child

interaction in the Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) project. Empirical research on the interrelationship of quality characteristics in school-age child care may have implications for future policy and practice.

Miller (1995) suggests quality may be presumed to be an important variable in school-age child care research based on literature on the effects of the home environment and literature on the effects of program quality on preschool-age children. Miller and Marx (1993) propose that quality indicators often used in studies of child care for younger children be considered as possible quality indicators for schoolage programs, keeping in mind the different developmental needs of the two groups. Future research should not only consider the structural and process quality measures used in the preschool child care field, but should explore the features of schoolage child care that make it unique as well.

Methodology

There are many factors that may be associated with human development. Identifying those factors is a challenging task, for the relationship is sure to be complex. On the other hand, the relationship will never be understood if we study human development in

isolation. School-age child care is one of the many experiences the school-age child participates in on a regular basis, and must be considered when examining the development of the school-age child.

Family life plays a role in the child's development (Clarke-Stewart, 1985). Miller (1995) suggests that parental interaction with children during out-of-school time is beneficial to healthy development. Parents who spend time talking and reading with children, engage them in a wide range of literacy-related activities, are responsive to them, and provide a home with emotional warmth make a positive difference in children's development. Family features such as marital status, SES and parent education level, therefore, should be considered when studying school-age child care.

Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) suggest children may provide important information about their child care settings that would otherwise be unobservable. The authors also recognize the differentiated views of school-age child care programs that parents may provide (Rosenthal & Vandell, 1996). In other words, the consumer may have valuable information that should

be considered when examining school-age child care programs.

In seeking to understand children's after school care experiences and the role of these experiences in children's development scholars have emphasized the utility of an ecological methodology (Pettit et al., 1997; Posner & Vandell, 1996, 1999; Zaslow, 1991). That is, experiences in the school-age child care program influence and are influenced by experiences in other environments in which the child participates. These experiences are thought to be related to the child's development, and therefore should be included in future research endeavors.

Building upon and Relating to the Existing Knowledge

Base

Developmental Theory

There is an assumption that adult-child interactions in school-age programs are an important aspect of program quality. This assumption concurs with developmental theory which suggests the human is a social being who seeks active involvement with others (Vygotsky, 1978, 1994).

Developmental theory also suggests the adult plays an important role in the school-age child's

development. For example, Maslow (1968) proposed the need for adults to provide a safe, secure environment with firm physical and psychological boundaries for children. Furthermore, it is believed that adults should respond in helpful and accepting ways to foster children's good feelings about themselves, for children this age seek the approval of adults who are important to them (Kohlberg, 1984). Vygotsky (1978) suggests adults provide a scaffold for children through adult-child interaction and that this scaffolding is necessary for learning.

According to Erikson's fourth stage of development (Industry versus Inferiority), which generally occurs during middle childhood, successes during this stage foster competence, self-worth, and industry. Too many failures, on the other hand, lead to feelings of inferiority. The influences of classmates, teachers, curricula, and grades, therefore, become important to children's sense of competence (Erikson, 1985).

A variety of developmental theories support one underlying theme for the development of school-age children: adults play an important role in their development. For this reason, it seems obvious to

examine the differences in children's development in light of the quality of adult-child interactions occurring in their lives. One way to do this is to examine the interactions between the adult staff members and children in school-age programs.

Bioecological Systems Theory

The bioecological systems theory proposes human development is a result of the bi-directional interaction (proximal processes) between the person and the context over time (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). There are four dynamic, interactive principal components of the bioecological systems theory: person, context, time, and proximal processes. Each component will be defined below.

Person is the first component of the aforementioned model and refers to the human being whose development is being studied. Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998) believe the person has characteristics that individually and in combination may contribute to his or her development through interactions with proximal processes.

The second component, context, is composed of systems based on the relationship between the person and the environment. An environment in which the

person is directly involved is referred to as a microsystem. The child's school-age child care program is a microsystem. The interaction of two or more microsystems or principal settings is a mesosystem. The interaction of the child's parents and the school-age program is the child's mesosystem (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998).

Time is the third component of the bioecological model. This model argues that interactions must take place repeatedly over time for development to occur. Children attend their school-age program repeatedly (e.g. each day, 3 days per week, etc.) over time (e.g. during the school-age years) (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998).

The last component is proximal processes. According to Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998), "this construct encompasses particular forms of interaction between organism and environment, called *proximal processes*, that operate over time and are posited as the primary mechanisms producing human development" (p. 994). In other words, proximal processes are bidirectional interactions between the human and the environment.

The Examination of School-Age Child Care Quality Structural and Process Quality

As noted earlier, quality measures in child care are often described in terms of process and structural measures. Process measures of quality try to quantify the actual experiences of children. One widely used instrument for this purpose is the School-Age Care Environment Rating Scale (SACERS; Harms, Jacobs, & White, 1996), which documents both the environments children experience and interactions between care provider and children.

Structural measures of quality may include the following: adult-to-child ratio, group size, salaries and benefits for child care workers, child care employees' level of education, experience, and training (Vandell & Shumow, 1999). Oftentimes, structural measures can be regulated. High levels of structural quality are often linked to high-quality adult-child interaction but do not guarantee it (Lamb, 1998).

There is substantial evidence that scores on diverse structural and process indices of quality are

intercorrelated (Berk, 1985; Phillips et al., 1991; Vandell & Su, 1999). This study will include both structural and process measures of quality to identify possible interrelationships. This information will create a better picture of quality programming in the field of school-age child care. Quality programming is needed to support children's development, for when program quality is poor, children's development is not supported (Vandell & Su, 1999).

Adult-Child Interactions

The preschool child care research has identified the importance of adult-child interaction for the young child's development. For example, Vandell and Powers (1983) found quality of interaction with the teachers was correlated with the quality of the center. Twenty of the children were followed-up at age eight. Positive relations with the teachers at four years were correlated with greater empathy, social competence, and peer acceptance at eight years of age (Vandell, Henderson, & Wilson, 1987).

The Cost, Quality, and Outcomes Study (1999) examined the relationship between child care quality and children's development. Four hundred and eighteen children from 170 centers participated in the study.

Social development was enhanced when a closer teacherchild relationship was reported in the child care setting (Peisner-Feinberg, Burchinal, Clifford, Culkin, Howes, Kagan, Yazejian, Byler, Rustici, & Zelazo, 1999). Howes, Matheson, and Hamilton (1994) suggest that the security of child-teacher relationships was influenced by the sensitivity of the teachers' behaviors, echoing the importance of such behaviors.

In a school-age child care study by Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) positive caregiver-child interactions emerged as a significant factor in children's feelings about the program. Third, fourth, and fifth grade children reported they were less satisfied with programs characterized by more frequent negative adult-child interactions and they identified these programs as being emotionally unsupportive. Pierce and colleagues (1999) examined the emotional climate created by after school program staff in terms of staff positivity and negativity. Staff positivity was rated higher in programs that were more flexible and offered more activities, both of which are considered characteristics of quality programs. School-age child care programs with warm, supportive environments

benefit children (Pierce et al., 1999; Pierce and Vandell, 1997; Rosenthal & Vandell, 1996; Seligson et al., 1992). These discoveries suggest adult-child interactions should be further explored in relation to program quality.

Adult-child relationships are valued from a theoretical perspective as well. Eccles (1999) proposes strong emotional and social support and respect from adults can foster the development of school-age children. Children may form long-lasting relationships with adults outside their families in quality school-age child care programs.

Based on the empirical evidence and theoretical tenets, adult-child interaction should be included when studying possible relationships between quality measures in the field of school-age child care.

Child Outcomes

The quality of the school-age child care program has infrequently been considered in relation to children's developmental outcomes. Pierce et al. (1999) examined the experiences of 150 children in school-age child care programs to determine if those experiences were associated with their performance at school in the first grade. They found the emotional

climate, the quality of peer interaction, and program curriculum at the children's after school program were associated with boy's concurrent social adjustment at school.

The research to date suggests children's development may be affected by the quality of their after-school experiences. More research on the relationship between program quality and child outcomes is needed (Towell & Tsuji, 1990). Miller, O'Conner, Sirignano, and Joshi (1996) suggest examining child outcomes using just one type of outof-school time option. This study, therefore, attempted to identify a relationship between schoolage child care program quality and child development.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the many factors that may contribute to the quality of schoolage child care programs; to examine interrelationships among them; and to examine school-age child care programs as they relate to children's development from an ecological perspective. The motives for this study may be divided into three categories: theoretical, empirical, and practical. First, the

research question will be stated and then the motives for each question will be discussed by category. Question One

The first question of this research study was: How are characteristics of school-age quality interrelated? When examining the theoretical context of school-age child care it became apparent that there was not any one characteristic that may create a quality program. Instead, it was a combination of characteristics that create quality. Furthermore, it was probably not one specific combination, but a variety of combinations. By incorporating a perspective that was grounded in ecological theory when investigating a variety of quality characteristics in relation to one another, a clearer picture of quality was anticipated.

Empirical evidence from the field of school-age child care suggests more research was needed that examines the quality of care. The first goal of a study by Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) was to examine associations between structural program features and children's observed experiences. When programs had higher child/staff ratios, more negative staff-child interactions were reported. More negative staff-child

interactions were also reported as the percentage of older children enrolled in the program decreased and when staff had less formal education. As the number of different activities available increased, so did the number of positive and neutral staff-child interactions. The number of different activities available was also positively associated with the program flexibility rating. It should be noted that the important finding here is the amount of activities offered, not the kind of activity. These quality criteria should be further examined using different samples to generate greater understanding of what constitutes quality school-age child care programs.

Furthermore, quality must be understood as it relates to school-age child care because high quality child care has been found to impact child outcomes longitudinally (Howes et al., 1999). To better understand quality school-age child care, both the structural and process measures of quality must be examined.

Lastly, the practical implications will be discussed. The research literature on types of school-age care is inconsistent (i.e. Marshall et al., 1997; Pettit et al., 1997; Pierce et al., 1999; Posner

& Vandell, 1999). The minimal amount of research that has been completed seems to suggest that the quality of the program may be more important than the type of program. More research in this area is needed so that future practice may have an empirical base. For example, the federal government has allocated money for communities to create quality programs for schoolage children during out-of-school time. These 21st Century Learning Centers are currently being developed throughout the nation, as well as in Oklahoma. The policymakers, program designers, and administrators implementing these programs need information regarding quality school-age child care. Providing a researchbased description of the interrelations of quality as it pertains to school-age child care may prove useful during the development of these learning centers.

Question Two

The second research question was: How do children's perspectives of the program vary with regard to the quality of the program as measured by both process and structural indices of quality? From a theoretical standpoint, we need the child's perspective so that measures of the proximal processes will be bi-directional. One direction would be the

observation of the adult participating in adult-child interaction. The other direction would be the child's view of that interaction. Because the proximal process may be examined from both perspectives, a stronger relationship to the developmental outcomes may emerge (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1999).

Secondly, from an empirical standpoint the child has provided a valuable perspective in past studies (Elliot, 1998; Rosenthal & Vandell, 1996). Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) investigated children's experiences at 30 school-age child care programs. One goal of their study was to examine associations between characteristics of the after school settings and individual children's feelings about the program. They also examined variability in children's perceptions of their program as a function of their grade and gender. The perceptions of children in the third, fourth, and fifth grades were collected. The findings suggest that as total enrollment increases, overall climate of the school-age child care program, emotional support within the school-age program, and autonomy/privacy at the school-age program as reported by children decreases. Older children in these programs believed they received less emotional support

from the staff. Furthermore, as the amount of negative adult-child interactions increases, the overall climate of the program and emotional support by the program as reported by children decreases. On the other hand, programs that offered a greater variety of activities also had more positive/neutral interactions between staff and children, more age appropriate environments, and more positive child reported program perceptions.

The child reports of program climate were associated with structural quality features and with program observations of global quality. Furthermore, the child-reported instrument had good psychometric properties including test-retest reliability and internal consistency. The authors suggested children provided information about child-care settings that were otherwise unobservable and that future research should investigate the reports of younger school-age children. This study, therefore, included the perspectives of younger and older school-age children.

In practice, the NSACA Standards for Quality School-Age Care (1998) provide guidelines to creating quality programs. One of the 36 standards suggests that staff, children, and youth work together to plan

and implement suitable activities. It would seem natural to talk with the child about personal interests and ideas, and then help to facilitate the fulfillment of these interests. Collecting their opinion about the program, in general, would therefore seem logical.

Question Three

The third question was: How are children's characteristics (gender and age) associated with their perspective of the program and the quality of the program? First, this question must be considered from a theoretical perspective. Within the bioecological model there are four interdependent components, one of which is the person. The person has characteristics that interact with characteristics from the other 3 components to reinforce human development. Therefore, these characteristics must be taken into account when examining potentials for human development.

From the empirical perspective, the school-age research has documented variability by age and gender. For example, in a recent study of lower income third, fourth, and fifth grade children, Posner and Vandell (1999) examined the children's after-school activities taking into consideration their age and gender. They

found girls and boys spent their after-school time differently.

The practical implications of the research question are straightforward. Children's needs may be better met if we come to a more thorough understanding of these needs.

Question Four

The fourth and final question was: How does the quality of school-age care programs relate to children's behavior as rated by their parents?

"Children's experiences of success or frustration when they participate in organized activities outside school can also play a crucial role in development, as they either exacerbate or compensate for children's experiences in school" (Eccles, 1999, p. 32). Child development literature has identified theoretical constructs to be considered in the field of school-age child care. These factors that may contribute to the school-age child's development must be further examined through empirical research.

A variety of child development outcomes in relation to the type of out-of-school time activities in which children participate have been examined empirically. Although the research is limited,

patterns may be ascertained. Low SES children benefit from time spent in a quality school-age child care program during out-of-school time each day (Marshall et al., 1997; Pettit et al., 1997; Pierce et al., 1999; Posner & Vandell, 1999). The empirical evidence includes both younger and older children, both boys and girls, and children of various ethnic origins (Marshall et al., 1997; Pettit et al., 1997; Pierce et al., 1999; Posner & Vandell, 1999). More research is needed to further ascertain the relationship between children's development and how they spend their outof-school time.

The practical perspective was based on the importance of school-age child care programs in the lives of children and youth. Many children spend more than 15 hours a week in these programs, and more than 40 hours each week during the summer months. Beforeand after-school programs will continue to be an important part of the child's life therefore it behooves us to learn as much as we can about them.

Research Model

Previous Research

The school-age child care community believes that how a child spends his or her time during out-of-

school hours has an effect on his or her development. Numerous studies have supported this belief (i.e. Howes, Olenick, & Der-Kiureghian, 1987; Mayesky, 1980; Posner & Vandell, 1994; and Vandell & Corasaniti, 1988). Complex mechanisms of influence with a variety of potential mediating factors may interact to influence the development of the child, one of which is the way children spend out-of-school time. Due to the nature of children's out-of-school time scholars have recommended an ecological research model (Marshall et al., 1997; Miller & Marx, 1993; Pierce et al., 1999).

Structural Model

In this study, school-age child care programs were examined in relation to the school-age child's development. The following features were considered: child characteristics, the child's family characteristics, characteristics of the program and staff, and the relationship between the child and the adult staff. For this reason, the bioecological model was used to guide the study.

The bioecological model, described by Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998), is a more complex and dynamic version of the ecological model introduced

by Bronfenbrenner (1979). Bronfenbrenner and Morris suggest this new model is yet evolving, and must be used in order to develop to its full potential. In other words, this developmental research project will be a process of systematic discovery. It will give the researcher the opportunity to discover patterns from the different components that make up the construct of interaction, or proximal processes, between the human and the environment. The current research project will be explained within the model structure.

The theoretical model described above consists of four parts: the human being, the context, time, and proximal processes. The human being in this study was the school-age child and the context was the schoolage child care program. The time component was made up of the daily, weekly, monthly, and yearly time the child spent in this environment. The proximal processes were the adult-child interactions and child perspective of those interactions, a bi-directional relationship.

Chapter 3

Research Design

This research project is a correlational study designed to identify associations between structural and process measures of school-age child care program quality, child perceptions of the program, child characteristics and the behavior of the child.

Sample

The sample for this study was the sample used for an evaluation of quality improvement efforts in school-age child care programs receiving quality improvement grants from the state of Oklahoma Department of Human Services. This sample was chosen due to its accessibility. Ninety-six programs had received quality improvement grants. Seven of these programs were no longer in operation and two were unable to answer the questions in the phone interview due to director turnover. Sixty-five programs (73%) agreed to participate in the research project. Of the 65 programs that participated, 46 (71%) were nonprofit and 19 (29%) were for-profit programs.

Directors from 60 programs (92%) returned questionnaires and 52 program staff (80%) returned

completed packets. Participation incentives were made available for the director and staff member which may have contributed to the high response rate.

There were approximately 2021 first through fifth grade children attending the school-age child care programs daily, all of whom were invited to participate. Parents returned 316 completed questionnaires for a response rate of 16%. Two factors may have contributed to the low return rate. First, the parents were not offered an incentive for participation. Second, the program director was responsible for distributing the family packets. Very few programs made sure a packet went home with each child. Therefore, not all 2021 families were notified of the study. Of the 316 children whose parents had consented to participate, 155 (49%) completed questionnaires. The most common reason for not completing the questionnaire was that children were absent on the day the data collector returned for the second site visit. A few children refused to complete the questionnaires for the data collectors.

The families that completed the questionnaires in this study are representative of the larger school-age child care population in these programs. Directors

were asked to report whether children from lower, middle and upper income brackets attended their program based on the Oklahoma State Department of Human Services definition of income level. Low-income families were served by 83% of programs, and 52% of the families responding to the questionnaire were lowincome. Middle income families were served by 41% of the programs, and 32% of the respondents were from the middle-income bracket. Eighteen percent of the programs reported caring for families with high incomes, and 16% of the completed surveys were from families that reported upper SES.

Procedures

A list of licensed school-age child care programs which had received grants from the Oklahoma Department of Human Services (DHS) was obtained from the state Division of Child Care. Each program was sent a letter from DHS informing them they would be receiving a phone call regarding the study. Telephone contacts were made to determine if the school-age program was still in operation and if so, to invite the program to participate.

Once the director agreed to participate, a telephone survey (See Appendix A) including program

demographics was completed and the first site visit date was set. Site visits lasted about two and one half hours. Observations of the school-age child care program and adult-child interaction were conducted from September 1999 through March 2000. A trained observer was randomly assigned to each program from a pool of five observers.

At the first visit, the observer met the director and asked the director to read and sign the informed consent form (See Appendix A). The director was given the director packet to complete at this time (See Appendix A). The program director was also given packets to send home to each program family who had a child in the first through fifth grade introducing the study and inviting them to participate by completing the enclosed questionnaire (See Appendix B). Then the observer toured the facility and met the staff member targeted for study participation. In cases where there was more than one eligible staff member, one was randomly selected for participation during the telephone interview with the director. After consent was obtained (See Appendix C) the staff member was handed a staff questionnaire packet to be completed before the next site visit (See Appendix C). The

staff packet contained a demographic questionnaire and a staff questionnaire about program quality. The observations began once the packets were distributed and the observer toured the facility. The researcher observed the program using the School-Age Environment Rating Scale (Harms, Jacobs, & White, 1996) and observed the participating staff member using both the SACERS and the human relationships section of the NSACA program quality assessment instrument (See Appendix D).

At the second visit, completed packets from the director and staff member were collected and thank you gifts were distributed. The directors received fifteen dollars for their participation and staff members received stationary items. In cases where the director or staff member had not completed their respective questionnaire a postage-paid, selfaddressed envelope was made available for its return. If the completed questionnaire was not received within one month, a phone call was made asking the person to complete the questionnaire. If necessary, a third attempt to obtain the completed questionnaire was made through a follow-up letter.

Also during the second visit, the observer collected the completed family packets and determined which children were eligible to participate (based on signed informed consent from both parent and child: See Appendix B). The observer then administered the child questionnaires in groups of no more than three children (See Appendix E). The children were given the choice of reading the questionnaires themselves or having the observer read it to them. After the child completed the questionnaire, they received a thank you gift of stationary items for their participation. At the end of the second visit, the observer had the opportunity to complete any observations not completed during the first visit.

Instruments

The data sources included: observations of school-age child care programs and staff, a telephone survey with the program director and questionnaires completed by the program director and staff member. Parents completed a program questionnaire and a child behavior questionnaire and their children completed two questionnaires about the program.

Demographics

Director and staff. The director questionnaire included demographic and professional preparation information about the director (See Appendix A). Demographic information such as child care income and household income, ethnicity, gender, and age was included in the questionnaire. Professional preparation included level of completed education, training specific to administration, training specific to the field of school-age child care, and experience.

The staff member completed a questionnaire that included background information and professional preparation information (See Appendix C). The questionnaire included demographic information such as child care income, ethnicity, gender, and age. Professional preparation included level of completed education, training specific to the field of schoolage child care, and experience.

Parents and children. The first questionnaire completed by the parent included background information about the family (See Appendix B). For example, SES, parents' level of completed education, ethnicity, and marital status were included. It also contained information about the school-age child such as age, gender, and ethnicity.

Program Quality

Program characteristics. The telephone interview conducted with the director (see Appendix A) included structural features of the program (number of staff, number of children enrolled, staff-child ratio, staff pay, group size) and the process guality feature activities available to the children on a weekly The structural features and activities basis. available included in the telephone interview were identified by child care research as indicators of quality (Rosenthal and Vandell, 1996). A total score for activities available was created by summing the number of activities available each week. Internal consistency for this sample was calculated using Kuder-Richardson 20 (.70) and a total score was used as a process measure of quality.

Director's perceptions of quality. Directors completed the National School-Age Care Alliance (NSACA) "Questions for the Director" section of the NSACA National Program Improvement and Accreditation System (O'Conner, Gannett, Heenan, & Wheeler, 1998) (See Appendix A). The NSACA instrument consisted of 36 questions about the school-age program and it's administration. It used a Likert-type scale of 0 to

3: 0 = not at all, 1 = sometimes, 2 = most of the time, and 3 = always. There were no psychometrics available on the "Questions for the Director" questionnaire. Internal consistency, using Cronbach's alpha, was calculated for this sample and found to be quite high (.94) thus a total score was used.

Staff perceptions of quality. The participating staff member completed items one through thirty-four of the NSACA Staff Questionnaire (O'Conner et al., 1998) (See Appendix C). This questionnaire is also part of the NSACA National Program Improvement and Accreditation System. It consists of 28 questions about the program environment, staff benefits, and training. Twenty-two questions were answered using four response categories: 1=never, 2=sometimes, 3=usually, and 4=always. Six questions were answered yes or no. No psychometrics were available for this instrument. Internal consistency for this sample was calculated using Cronbach's alpha (.71) so a total score was used.

Observed program quality. The program was observed using the School-Age Care Environment Rating Scale (SACERS; Harms et al., 1996)(See Appendix D). The SACERS is a tool designed to measure global

quality in school-age programs. It is comprised of seven subscales including: space and furnishings, health and safety, activities, interactions, program structure, staff development, and several special needs items. The observer ranked each of the 49 items from 1 to 7. The odd numbered ratings have the following anchor points: 1=inadequate, 3=minimal, 5=good, and 7=excellent. According to the authors, subscale totals as well as an instrument total may be calculated.

The SACERS authors report reliability and validity information. They assessed reliability in three ways: Cronbach's Alpha (.95) was used to calculate internal consistency, inter-rater reliability was measured using the kappa statistic (.83) and estimated using intraclass correlations (.96) (Harms et al., 1996). "Content validity was assessed using expert ratings of each item's importance to their definition of quality" (Harms et al., 1996, p. 2).

Reliability in the current study was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha. The alpha for the total scale score was .96 and the subscale alpha's ranged from .68 to .91 (See Table 1). In later analyses, the total

score was used to rate the program's global quality and subscale scores were used to describe specific areas of quality. The subscale program structure reported an alpha of .68, and therefore was not included in correlations.

Table 1

SACERS SUBSCALE	ALPHA
Space and Furnishings	.91
Health and Safety	.81
Activities	.90
Interactions	.86
Program Structure	.68
Staff Development	.82

Cronbach's	Alpha 1	for SACEI	RS Subscales

Interobserver agreement was assessed by having two observers simultaneously conduct observations of a program site. Each of the five trained observers participated in reliability testing three times during the training and data collection process. Inter-rater reliability ranged from 90 to 100% agreement. Prior to data collection, inter-rater reliability for this instrument was 93%. During data collection, reliability was checked one third and two thirds of

the way through the collection process. The scores ranged from 88% to 100% and averaged 94%.

Adult-Child Interaction

Adult-child interaction was measured three ways (See Appendix D). First, the SACERS interactions subscale (SACERS interaction) was used to observe all program staff while working with the children. Then, the targeted staff member was observed using two instruments. The first instrument was created using four items from the SACERS interactions subscale (T. Harms, personal communication, June, 1999). Each of these four items have multiple descriptors. Each descriptor (N=25) was treated as an individual item to be categorized "yes" or "no". Scores for all descriptors summed to create an interaction score. Internal consistency (Kuder-Richardson 20) for the instrument was calculated at .45. For this reason, this instrument was not used in further statistical analyses. Prior to data collection, inter-rater reliability for this instrument was 96%. During data collection, reliability was checked one third and two thirds of the way through the collection process. The scores ranged from 88% to 100% and averaged 94%.

Seppanen et al. (1993) used the Assessing School-Age Quality (ASQ) instrument to assess global quality in their research. The human relationships section of the revised version of this tool, the NSACA program quality assessment instrument, was used to assess the quality of the adult-child interactions. A reliability rating for a total score was calculated at an alpha of .96 for this sample. Subscale alphas were calculated and ranged from .73 to .91. Prior to data collection, inter-rater reliability for this instrument was 90%. During data collection, reliability was checked one third and two thirds of the way through the collection process. The scores ranged from 85% to 95% and averaged 90%.

Parent and Child Perceptions of the Program

<u>Parents</u>. Parents' perceptions of their child's school-age child care program were collected using the parent questionnaire (See Appendix B) taken from the NSACA National Program Improvement and Accreditation System (O'Conner et al., 1998). The parent section used in this study consisted of 20 questions about program quality that were answered using four response categories including 1=never, 2=sometimes, 3=usually, and 4=always. There were no psychometrics previously

available for this instrument. Cronbach's alpha, used to calculate the internal consistency in this sample, was .86, and a total score was used in further analyses.

<u>Children</u>. The children completed two survey instruments (See Appendix E). The After-School Environment Scale (ASES) questionnaire completed by the children was designed by Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) for children to report the social-emotional climate of their program. The children rated 36 items using a 4-point scale: 1=never, 2=sometimes, 3=most of the time, and 4=always. These items addressed children's perceptions about their relationships with staff and peers in the program and the activities available at the program. The children completed the instrument by reading it themselves and marking the appropriate answer, or by listening to the items read to them and then marking the appropriate answer.

The psychometric properties of the ASES have been assessed through test-retest reliability (.90) and internal consistency (.95) (Rosenthal and Vandell, 1996). The item scores were summed and averaged to create a single psychosocial climate score. Internal

consistency with this sample was .82 (Cronbach's Alpha).

Ouestions from the NSACA Child and Youth Questionnaire (O'Conner et al., 1998) were also administered to the children. This questionnaire was part of the NSACA National Program Improvement and Accreditation System (See Appendix E). It addressed a broad range of issues related to quality programming. Children 6 through 9 years of age answered 15 questions using four response categories including never=1, once in a while=2, most of the time=3, and always=4. Using the same response format, children 10 to 12 years of age answered an additional six questions that pertained specifically to the needs of older school-age children. Internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha was calculated with this instrument. The alpha for the younger children was .78. The alpha for the older children was .88. To address the issue of having different numbers of items for older and younger children an average item score was used for later analyses. That is, items were summed to create a total score, then the total score was divided by the number of questions answered (15=younger and 21=older) to create an average item score.

Children's Development

The third parent questionnaire (See Appendix B) was the Behavior Problems Index by Zill and Peterson (Zill, 1990). It has been used by other researchers in school-age child care research projects to measure child behavior (Posner & Vandell, 1994, 1999). This 28-item rating scale for parent report of child behavior contained three response categories, 1=often true, 2=sometimes true, and 3=not true. Parents were asked to report their child's behavior within the last three months. According to Zill, one of the authors, responses to the individual items should be dichotomized and summed to produce an index score of child behavior. He reported the internal consistency reliability of the Behavior Problems Index was .89.

After dichotomizing the individual items and then summing them, an overall index score was obtained and reliability with this sample was calculated as .89 (Kuder-Richardson 20).

Statistical Analyses

For the first research question, which examined interrelationships among quality characteristics, and

the second question, which considered children's perspectives in relation to the quality characteristics, Pearson Product Moment correlations were performed and significant correlations were reported. Then linear regressions were completed for prediction purposes.

The third question examined how children's characteristics (gender and age) were associated with their perspective of the program (ASES) and the quality of the program (NSACA). Pearson Product Moment correlations were performed to identify relations between the child characteristics gender and age, child perceptions of program quality, and program quality characteristics. Then a MANOVA with follow-up ANOVA's was planned to examine differences between older and younger children. The cell sizes for the younger children were four times the size of those for the older children, which was too gross a violation of MANOVA assumptions. Therefore, age was divided into four categories, first grade, second grade, third grade, and fourth and fifth grade, so that an MANOVA could be performed. Grade level was determined from the parental report on the parent demographic questionnaire. This analytic strategy will contribute

to the literature base on school-age care by illuminating differences between the older children (third, fourth, and fifth grade children) and the younger children (first and second grade children). The developmental differences between first and third grade children also lend support to the proposed age division.

The fourth question examined the quality of school-age child care programs as it related to children's behavior. Pearson Product Moment correlations were performed for the fourth question. The family characteristics household income (SES), parent level of education, and marital status were examined in relation to children's problem behavior as ranked by their parent. A linear regression was then performed to predict child problem behaviors from structural and process measures of quality.

Chapter 4

Data analyses proceeded through a number of steps. First, distributions were checked for normality. Descriptive statistics were then completed about the participants and their school-age child care programs. Next, associations between a variety of structural and process quality characteristics were examined. Linear regressions were performed to predict process quality from both structural and process quality measures.

Associations between the aforementioned quality characteristics and the perspective of the children were then ascertained. A linear regression was completed to predict the child perspective of their school-age child care program from program quality characteristics. Child characteristics (age and gender) were used to further examine associations between the quality of the school-age program and the child's perspective of that program. A MANOVA was conducted to identify significant differences based on the child characteristics age and gender.

Finally, associations between the children's behavior, family characteristics, and the quality of

the program were examined. A linear regression was performed to predict child behavior from program quality characteristics.

Descriptive Statistics

School-Age Child Care Programs

First, descriptive statistics of the participating programs will be described. During the telephone interviews, programs were documented by community type, either urban or rural (See Figure 1) according to the Department of Human Services definition. Urban programs included programs in Tulsa, Oklahoma City, Norman, and Lawton. Thirtyeight percent of the participating programs were from urban communities. All other locations within the state of Oklahoma were considered rural. Rural programs constituted 62% of the participating schoolage programs.

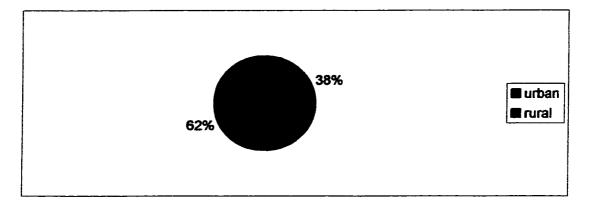


Figure 1

Percentage of Urban and Rural Community Programs

Two-thirds of the school-age child care programs were non-profit (See Table 2). Eighty-nine percent of the programs were licensed for school-age child care. The remaining 11% were in the process of obtaining a license for school-age child care (N=78).

Table 2

School-Age Program Profit Status

PROFIT STATUS	PERCENTAGE
For Profit	32
Non-Profit	68

The school-age child care programs provided a variety of child care options. Over three-fourths of the programs offered care both before and after school on a daily basis as shown in Table 5. The majority of the programs offered care between the hours of 6:00 am and 6:00 pm. Summer care was offered by over 80% of the programs. Most of the programs offered care on days when school was not in session such as holidays and teacher's meetings, closing only 7 days per year.

Table 3

Type	of	Care	Offered	

TYPE CARE	PERCENT
Before- and after-school	77
Between 6:00 and 7:00 AM	68
Between 5:30 and 6:00 PM	89
Summer care	82
No school days	80

The programs were housed in a variety of places as shown in Figure 2. Most often, the school-age child care program was located in a child care center or a public school. There were 8 participating YMCA programs. The remaining 14 programs included a wide range of program types. Two of the programs were church-sponsored, 2 of the programs were sponsored by non-profit organizations, 3 were sponsored by the YWCA, 3 had tribal sponsorship (Delaware and Witchita and Affiliated), and 1 program was sponsored by each of the following; an independent school, a 2-year

college, a special needs school, and a school-age center.

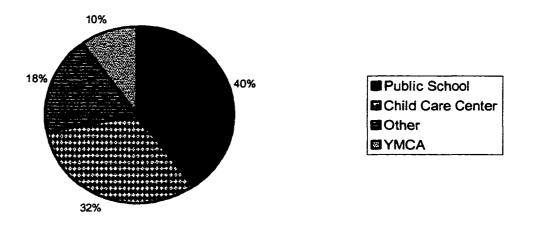


Figure 2

School-Age Program by Sponsor

The population served by the school-age programs included all income levels (See Table 4). The majority of the programs included families with lower and lower-middle incomes. Middle-income families were represented in slightly less than half of the schoolage child care programs. A small number of the programs stated they had families in the upper-middle income bracket and even fewer had families from the upper socio-economic level.

INCOME	PERCENT*
Lower, Lower-middle	67
Middle	44
Upper-middle	15
Upper	10

Family Income Range Served by Programs

*Programs served multiple income ranges so sums to more than 100%

The School-age child care programs that participated in the telephone interview (N=65) served 2021 children in the first through fifth grades each day. Table 5 describes regulatable features of the programs including enrollment, group size, and adultto-child ratio. The programs were of moderate size with ratios well below that required by Oklahoma licensing (1 adult for every 20 school-age children). All 3 variables had a large range suggesting that these school-age child care programs were diverse.

REGULATABLE FEATURES	M	SD	
Enrollment	36.99	29.39	
Group Size	22.52	8.50	
Ratio	13.66	4.17	

Program Quality Means and Standard Deviations

Directors

Approximately 91% of the directors surveyed were female. A large majority of the directors were Caucasian as shown in Table 6. Minorities were represented by 19% of the program directors.

The directors ranged in age from early twenties to late sixties. Approximately 70% of these directors were married. Almost 80% of the program directors reported school-age child care program incomes less than \$20,000 per year and slightly over a quarter reported income under \$10,000.

	Director	(N=58)	Staff	(N=52)
Ethnicity	N	olo	N	8
Caucasian	47	81	38	74
African- American	6	10	3	6
Latina/o- American	3	5	7	13
Native American	1	2	1	2
Asian American	1	2	0	0
Biracial	0	0	1	2
Other	0	0	2	4

Ethnicity of Program Director and Staff

On average, the directors had been in the schoolage child care field for approximately 9 years, and in their current position as program director for a little under 5 years.

There was wide variation in the level of education completed by the directors, as shown in Table 7. Ten directors held only a high school diploma, while 6 directors had completed a graduate degree. The most common educational level was a fouryear degree. The second most common educational level was a high school diploma.

Descriptive Information about Program Directors and

Staff

	Director (N=58) Mean	SD	Staff (N=52) Mean	SD
Age ^a	3.64	1.12	2.93	1.31
Income ^b	2.41	1.76	1.36	.71
Experience in years	8.92	7.26	5.20	5.31
Years at Current Program	4.78	4.45	3.22	3.08
Education ^c	4.45	1.52	3.89	1.80

^a1=under 20, 2=20-29, 3=30-39, 4=40-49, 5=50-59, 6=60+ ^b1=under \$10,000, 2=\$10,001-20,000, 3=\$20,001-30,000, 4=\$30,001-40,000, 5=\$40,001-50,000, 6=\$50,001-60,000, 7=\$60,001-70,000, 8=\$70,001-80,000, 9=\$80,001-90,000, 10=\$90,001-100,000, 11=over \$100,000 ^c1=less than high school, 2=high school, 3=vocational school, 4=some college, 5=2-year degree, 6=4-year degree, 7=graduate degree

Approximately half of the directors had received child care training and/or child development training, and over one-third had received administrative training (See Table 8).

Director Training

TYPE OF TRAINING	N	ę
Child Development	44	56
Child Care	40	51
Administrative	28	35
State or National Certification	29	48
Professional Organization	22	37

Fifty-six percent of the program directors held a state or national certification. Less than 37% of the program directors were members of a professional organization.

Staff

Ninety percent of program staff were female. Almost three-fourths of the program staff were Caucasian and a little over one-fourth were minority as shown in Table 6. Fifty-four percent of the staff were married.

There was a wide range in completed education for the program staff, ranging from less than a high school diploma to a graduate degree. The most common education level for program staff was a two-year

degree. Approximately 33% of the staff had received training in child development, and 39% had received training in child care. Thirty percent held a state teaching certification. Less than 15% were members of a professional organization. Over three-fourths of the staff surveyed reported incomes of less than \$10,000 per year, and another 19% reported income between \$10,000 and \$20,000 (See Table 7). Seventyfour percent of the programs reported starting wages under 6 dollars per hour.

Families

Almost 80% of the families surveyed had a household income of \$50,000 or less. Ten percent had a household income of less than \$10,000 as shown in Table 9. The most common household income reported was between \$10,000 and \$20,000, reported by over onefourth of the families.

Both parents' level of education ranged from less than a high school diploma to a graduate degree as shown in Table 9. For mothers, the most common level of education completed was some college, while a high school degree was the most common level of completed education for the fathers.

Descriptive Information for Program Families

	Mother		Father		Child	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Income ^a	3.95	2.43	3.95	2.43		
Education Level ^b	4.05	1.58	3.54	1.65		
Age	34.13	7.08	35.25	6.33	8.47	1.40

^a1=under \$10,000, 2=\$10,001-20,000, 3=\$20,001-30,000, 4=\$30,001-40,000, 5=\$40,001-50,000, 6=\$50,001-60,000, 7=\$60,001-70,000, 8=\$70,001-80,000, 9=\$80,001-90,000, 10=\$90,001-100,000, 11=over \$100,000 ^b1=less than high school, 2=high school, 3=vocational school, 4=some college, 5=2-year degree, 6=4-year degree, 7=graduate degree

Approximately 64% of the parents (N=305) surveyed were married. Almost 87% of the mothers and 89% of the fathers reported full time employment. The mother's average age was slightly less than that of the father.

Fifty-four percent of the children in the families surveyed (N=314) were female and 46% were male. Within the families, over 60% of the children were Caucasian as shown in Table 10. Minorities represented almost 40% of the children in the families surveyed. Seventy-eight percent of the children were

between six and nine years of age (N=134) and 22% were between 10 and 12 years of age (N=37).

Table 10

	N	ð
Caucasian	200	64
Latina/o American	7	2
Biracial	16	5
African American	32	10
Native American	56	18
Other	1	<1

Ethnicity of Children in Programs (N=312)

Relations Between Program Quality Characteristics Structural Quality Measures

Pearson Product Moment Correlations were used to identify associations between structural measures of program quality. Program enrollment, group size, and adult-to-child ratio were positively correlated (See Table 11). As program enrollment increased, so did the group size and the adult-to-child ratio. Program enrollment was also associated with director and staff professional development. As enrollment increased, the director's years of experience and level of education also increased. The program staff reported

more experience, more education, and higher wages when the program enrollment was larger.

The director's experience and education level were positively associated. Both experience and education level of the director were positively associated with the experience and education level of the staff member. Director income was positively associated with staff member income. In other words, as director pay increased so did program staff pay. Director income was also positively associated with the number of different activities available on a weekly basis. Director training, however, was not significantly associated with any structural measures of quality.

Correlations for Structural Measures of Quality

PROGRAM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 9	10
Enrollment	1.00								
Group Size	.48**	1.00							
Ratio	.35**	.34**	1.00						
DIRECTOR Experience	.37**	02	.14	1.00					
Education	.26*	13	01	.38**	1.00				
Training	23	17	20	10	10	1.00			
Income	.04	13	12	.25	.17	.25	1.00		
STAFF MEMBEI Experience	2 .38**	.14	.13	.53**	.33*	17	27	1.00	
Education	.31*	09	19	.55**	.44**	09	.04	.51**	1.00
Training	14	01	20	10	08	.08	.28	34*	16 1.00
Income	.33*	07	09	.25	.19	.05	.32*	.06	.30* .12

As the staff member's level of education increased so did the pay. Staff members that had more education received higher pay from their school-age child care program. Similar to the program director professional development characteristics, staff experience and level of education were positively correlated. The longer a staff member had worked in the field, the higher the level of reported education. Staff experience, however, was negatively associated with staff training. In other words, as program staff reported more years of experience, they reported less yearly training.

Process Quality

Pearson Product Moment Correlations were used to identify associations between global quality (as ranked by SACERS) and other process measures of quality (See Table 12). The process measures of quality used in this study were significantly associated. Global quality had a strong, positive relationship with both adult-child interaction measures. Specifically, school-age child care staff related more positively with the children, responded better to the children's needs, encouraged choice and responsibility, interacted in ways that help them

learn, and guided their behavior positively when global quality was ranked higher. The NSACA interaction measure and the SACERS interaction measure were also positively correlated. The process measure activities available was positively correlated with global quality and staff-child interaction as ranked by the SACERS instrument. That is, as the number of activities available on a weekly basis increased, so did the global quality of the program and the positive staff-child interactions.

Table 12

PROCESS	1	2	3
QUALITY			
Global			
Quality	1.00		
SACERS	.85**	1.00	
Interaction			
NSACA			
Interaction	.75**	.86**	1.00
Activities	.34*	.27*	.22
Available			
*=p<.05, **=p	><.01, **	*=p<.001	
	-	-	

Correlations of Process Measures of Quality

Structural and Process Interrelationships

Next, interrelationships between structural and process measures of quality were examined (See Table 13). The process quality measure global quality (SACERS total) was positively associated with the structural measure of quality program enrollment. As enrollment increased, so did global quality rankings. The other regulatable features of quality, group size and adult-child ratio, were not found to be associated with global quality as was the case in the child care studies reported earlier (Howes et al., 1992). A trend toward an association between the director's education level and the program's global quality ranking was also identified.

Both measures of adult-child interaction were not found to be associated with any structural measures of quality in this study. This finding resonates with that of Kontos and Dunn (1993) in which their structural measures of program quality were unrelated to teacher-child interactions. The final process measure of quality, available activities, was correlated with structural measures of quality. As the director's compensation increased, the number of activities available also increased. A trend between director training and activities available surfaced as well. As the amount of training reported increased, so did the number of activities available. Similar findings for staff were also evident. Both training

and compensation of staff members showed a trend toward association with the process measure activities available. Staff experience was positively correlated with activities available. That is, as the number of activities available increased, the number of years of experience reported by the program staff also increased.

Table 13

Interrelationships of Structural and Process Measures of Quality

Structural	Process					
	Global	SACERS	NSACA	Activities		
Regulatables	Quality	Inter.	Inter.	Available		
Enrollment	.26*	.09	.001	07		
Ratio	03	03	04	04		
Group size	.13	.10	.01	07		
Director						
Experience	.10	.03	.002	.08		
Education	.25+	01	13	01		
Training	08	02	01	.24+		
Compensation	.12	.03	02	.40**		
Staff						
Experience	.15	.12	.05	.36*		
Education	.14	03	09	12		
Training	.27	.14	.05	.23*		
Compensation		21	21	.29+		
*=p<.10, *=p<.05, **=p<.01						

Predictions of Process Measures of Quality

Next, a multiple regression was completed to ascertain which structural and process measures of quality predict global quality (See Table 14). The correlations discussed above indicate the size of the school-age child care program, a structural measure of quality, was associated with the program's global quality. A trend was also identified between director education and program global quality. Finally, NSACA staff-child interaction and activities available, both process measures of quality, were positively associated with global quality. To determine the predictive value, a multiple regression was performed. The regression analysis indicated these variables were powerful predictors of school-age child care program global quality. Seventy percent of the observed variation in the global quality scores was explained by multiple regression on the aforementioned quality measures. All quality measures were significant predictors of global quality.

Multiple Regressions Predicting Process Quality

Global		odel		
Quality	R^2	В	df	F
NSACA	.70	.73***	4,51	30.06***
Staff-child				
Interaction				
Director		.29**		
Education				
Activities		.21*		
Available				
Enrollment		.16*		

*=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<.001

Child Perspectives and Quality

Question 2 sought to identify relationships between children's perspectives of their school-age child care program and program quality. First, relations between program quality measures and children's perspectives were examined using Pearson Product Moment correlations.

Child Perspective of Quality

The perspective of the child was measured using two different questionnaires, a questionnaire addressing the social-emotional climate of the program (ASES) and a questionnaire addressing environmental

quality (NSACA). The instrument measuring the socialemotional climate of the program averaged 3.07 (SD = .43) suggesting the children felt the program climate met their needs most of the time. The instrument measuring the environmental quality averaged 3.48 (SD = .53) which may be interpreted to mean the children thought the program was good most of the time. Both questionnaires were significantly associated with structural measures of quality, but not process measures of quality (See Table 15). For both questionnaires, as the adult-to-child ratio became smaller, the child reports became more positive. The same relationship surfaced for group size. The smaller the group size, the better the reports from the children about their school-age child care programs. The NSACA questionnaire was also positively associated with staff training. As the yearly training received by the staff increased the children's reports of their program were more positive.

Table 15

Correlations among Children's Perspectives, Program

Quality Indicators, and Children's Characteristics

<u>Structural</u> Features	Social-Emotional Climate (ASES)	Quality Environment
Group Size	25**	(NSACA) 34**
Group Size	2.5	74
Ratio	23**	26**
Staff Training	.06	.16*
Process Features		
Global Quality	.09	06
SACERS Interaction	02	08
NSACA Interaction	.04	08
Activities		
Available	.09	.10
Child		
Characteristics	- <i>.</i> +	05++
Age	14 ⁺	25**
Gender	04	.001
⁺ =p<.10, *=p<.05, *	*=p<.01	

It should be noted that both child questionnaires were positively correlated with the questionnaire completed by the child's parent with regard to the school-age program (ASES: \underline{r} =.16, \underline{p} <.05; NSACA: \underline{r} =.17, \underline{p} <.05). These findings echo those of Rosenthal and Vandell in their 1996 study of school-age child care

programs. Family demographics were not related to the perspectives of the child, however.

Predictions of Child Perceptions

The aforementioned correlations indicate that the structural measures of quality, adult-to-child ratio, group size, and staff training were related to the child's perceptions of the school-age child care program quality (as measured by NSACA). To determine the unique contribution of each, a multiple regression was performed (See Table 16). The model predicted a small percentage of the variance with group size having the only significant beta weight. In other words, when group sizes in the school-age child care programs were smaller, children liked the program better.

Table 16

Environmental		Mode	1	
Quality	R ²	B	df	F
Group Size	.14	28**	2,164	13.09**
Ratio		14		
Staff training		.12		
<u>Social-</u> Emotional Climate				
Group Size	.09	17*	2,166	8.14**
Ratio		20*		

Child Perspectives Multiple Regressions

*=p<.05, **=p<.01

A multiple regression was performed to predict the child perspective of the social-emotional climate as measured by ASES from the structural measures ratio and group size (See Table 16). Both variables were significant predictors of the social-emotional climate. Children gave their school-age child care program a higher ranking when adult-to-child ratios and group sizes were smaller. Only 9% of the variance was explained by the combined structural quality measures, however.

Child Characteristics and Quality

Question 3 examined children's characteristics age and gender in relation to their perspective of the school-age child care program and in relation to program quality. For this question, two types of data analyses were used, correlations and a MANOVA. Child Characteristics and Child Perceptions of Quality

First, Pearson Product Moment correlations were completed (See Table 15). The children's perspective of program quality was examined in relation to age and gender to identify possible associations between the two as suggested by Posner and Vandell (1999).

Children's age was significantly associated with the children's perceptions of program quality (NSACA questionnaire). A trend was identified between children's age and children's perceptions of the social-emotional climate of the school-age child care program (ASES questionnaire). In both instances, older children had less positive perspectives of the program. Children's gender was not significantly associated with their perspective of program quality as ranked by either questionnaire.

MANOVA

The correlation of the two questionnaires completed by the children was .64, p<.01. A 2 (gender) by 4 (age) MANOVA with social-emotional climate and environmental quality questionnaires as the dependent variables was computed. The multivariate analysis revealed a significant main effect for age (Wilks Lambda = .90, F(6,288) = 2.55, p<.01, η =.05). Univariate analyses indicated the age effect was significant only for the environmental quality questionnaire.

The Scheffe post hoc test was performed to identify the location of the differences. A significant difference was identified between second grade and third grade (mean difference = .34, p<.05) and between second grade and the combined fourth and fifth grade (mean difference = .35, p<.05). A trend was identified between first grade and third grade (mean difference = .31, p<.10) and between first grade and the combined fourth and fifth grade (mean difference = .31, p<.10). In other words, children of different ages answered the questionnaire differently. These findings were similar to those of Elliott (1998) who discovered different reports based on age as well;

older children in her study ranked programs lower than their younger counterparts. The independent variable age accounted for a small portion of the significant variance in the environmental quality questionnaire. No other significant main effects or interactions were discovered.

Table 17

Means for Child Age and Child Perceptions of Program

Age Group	Program Quality (NSACA)		Social-Emotional Climate (ASES)	
	М	SD	М	SD
First Grade	3.58	.47	3.12	.33
Second Grade	3.65	.50	3.18	.35
Third Grade	3.31	.65	3.02	.59
Fourth/Fifth Grade	3.30	.44	3.01	.39

Children's Development and Quality

Question four attempted to identify associations between structural and process measures of quality and child outcomes. Consistent with the bioecological model of human development, family characteristics, child characteristics, environment, and time were considered when the data were analyzed.

Child Behavior Problems and Quality

First, family characteristics were examined in relation to the children's problem behavior. As the child's behavior problems increased, the father's education level decreased (See Table 18). Father's education level was the only family characteristic found to be significantly correlated with child behavior in these analyses. Because of the large amount of missing data for the fathers, father's education level was not included in additional analyses.

Relations between children's development and program quality were then examined. Parents completed a questionnaire regarding their child's problem behaviors. A total score was then used to measure the associations between children's behavior and program quality. As previously stated, the child outcome measure of problem behaviors was associated with father's education level. Problem behaviors were negatively associated with staff training and adultchild interaction (See Table 18). As the amount of yearly training received by the staff increased, parental reports of children's behavior problems decreased. Furthermore, as the quality of the adult-

child interaction (as measured by SACERS interaction) increased, parental reports of behavior problems of the child decreased.

Table 18

Child Behavior Problems and Quality

Family Characteristics	Behavior Problems
Marital Status	05
Household Income	06
Mother Education	09
Father Education	15*
Process Quality	
Global Quality	09
SACERS Interaction	11*
NSACA Interaction	07
Activities Available	.000
Structural Quality	
Group Size	.007
Ratio	.09
Enrollment	.03
Director Education	06
Director Experience	08
Director Training	.03
Director Compensation	05
Staff Education	04
Staff Experience	02
Staff Training	18**
Staff Compensation	.03

Next, a multiple regression was performed to determine the predictive value of the school-age child care program quality measures on the behavior problems of children who attend these programs. The quality measures staff training and staff-child interactions were included in the regression because they were significantly correlated with children's problem behavior. As previously mentioned, the family characteristic father's education was excluded from this analysis due to the large amount of missing data for the variable. Because marital status, mother's education, and household income were all significantly correlated with father's education, they were included in a multiple regression in hopes of identifying a proxy for father's education. None of the three family predictors were viable alternatives. Finally, the child characteristics gender and age were not included in the analysis due to their lack of association with children's problem behaviors. The multiple regression was performed, therefore, with only the two quality measures mentioned above. Together, the program quality variables predicted only a small portion of the variance in parental reports of child behavior (See Table 19). Only the beta weight

for staff training was significant. Therefore, programs with less desirable program characteristics had children with more behavior problems.

Table 19

•

Predictions of Child Behavior Problems

Child Behavior	Mode R ²		16	-
Problems	R	<u>B</u>	df	F
Staff Training	.04	17**	2,267	5.67**
2			·	
Adult-				
Child				
Interact		10^{+}		

Chapter 5

The purpose of this study was to examine the interrelationships of the many characteristics that may contribute to the quality of school-age child care and to examine, from an ecological perspective, school-age child care as it relates to children's development.

Goal 1

The first goal of the study was to examine the interrelationships among the various characteristics of quality in school-age child care programs. Several patterns, as well as connections among the patterns, emerged. Compensation was related to global quality which was related to enrollment (program size) which was related to compensation. The relevance of this is twofold: the confirmation that many program characteristics contribute to the level of quality, and the reality that one combination of program characteristics may be better than another in creating a high quality program.

The first pattern identified was that of compensation and quality. When director pay increased, staff pay increased as well. As staff

education level increased, their pay did also. The quality characteristic activities available (the number of available activities on a weekly basis) was also related to compensation. A greater variety of weekly activities was positively associated with higher director income. In other words, when the director was paid more, the level of quality increased. These findings contribute to the growing research base to date on compensation in the field of child care (Howes et al., 1992; Phillips et al., 1991; Scarr et al., 1994).

The second pattern was the relationship between adult-child interaction, global quality, and the variety of activities available. As the global quality increased so did the quality of the adultchild interaction as ranked by two different instruments. Global quality was also positively associated with activities. As the number of activities available each week increased, so did global quality. These findings are similar to those of Kontos and Dunn (1993) in their child care study of program quality and teacher beliefs and practices. They discovered programs that ranked higher in global quality tended to provide more types of activities and

more positive teacher-child interactions. The adultchild interaction measured using SACERS interactions was also positively correlated with activities. These findings echo those of Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) in which adult-child interaction was positively associated with the variety of activities available in the school-age child care program. Once again, it wasn't the specific type of activity, but the number of different activities that was related to other process quality measures (Rosenthal & Vandell, 1996).

The identified relationship among global quality, staff-child interactions, and activities available has powerful implications for our understanding of quality programming in the field of school-age child care. The abovementioned relationship confirms that in isolation one program feature will not ensure a There are many program features that quality program. together are associated with the creation of a quality In other words, a combination of quality program. features are needed for quality programming. Furthermore, there is not one right way to implement a quality school-age child care program, but there are important criteria to include in the development and implementation of a quality program. The quality

characteristics identified in this study (positive adult-child interactions, variety of activities available, compensation, and program size) should be considered when developing a school-age child care program.

The third pattern that emerged centered around the structural quality measure program enrollment. Program enrollment, when teamed with other structural and process measures of quality, predicted global quality. Furthermore, programs with larger enrollments had directors with more years of experience and more completed education and staff members with more experience, a higher level of completed education, and higher wages. Programs with larger enrollments have larger budgets. Larger budgets may provide more opportunities to invest in quality human resources through higher wages as suggested by the relationship between level of education and compensation previously identified.

This study identified interrelationships among the various characteristics of quality in school-age child care programs. Although a causal relationship may not be identified due to the nature of the study (correlational), these results suggest the nature of

the aforementioned relationships should be examined further in future research.

Goal 2

The second goal of this study was to examine associations between characteristics of the school-age program and children's feelings about the program. As in Rosenthal and Vandell's (1996) study examining third, fourth, and fifth grade children's perspective about their experience in their school-age child care program, this study examined children's perspectives of their school-age programs by grade level. This study extended the research by including the perspective of both younger and older children (first through fifth grade children).

The children's perspectives were associated with structural measures of quality, as in the Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) study. The children rated programs lower that had more children per adult and larger groups of children. Adult-to-child ratio has been linked to quality in other school-age child care program studies (Pierce et al., 1995). In this study, ratio and group size contributed to the ability to predict child perceptions of program quality. The availability of adults for these children may be quite

important. Children may feel more comfortable when more adults are available in the school-age child care program. Furthermore, parents' reports echoed those of their children. Parents ranked programs lower when the programs had bigger group sizes and larger numbers of children enrolled. The parent reports in the 1996 study by Rosenthal and Vandell were similar, for when adult-child ratios were higher parent reports were more negative. Furthermore, these parent reports paralleled the beliefs of their children as in the present study.

The present study sought to build upon the existing empirical base by including the perspectives of parents in the study and add to the existing research in the field by including the perspectives of both younger and older children. The findings of the present study contribute to the beliefs of Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) that parents provide an important perspective into the school-age child care experience. The present study suggests parents may be valuable contributors in program evaluation efforts, curriculum planning, and policy development.

As suggested in the bioecological model, a stronger understanding of the proximal process may

emerge if considered bi-directionally. The perspectives of school-age children in the first through the fifth grades provided valuable insight for this study. As Rosenthal and Vandell (1996) suggested, school-age children should be included in future research. School-age children should also be included in curriculum planning as the NSACA standards for program improvement and accreditation suggest. Children are valuable resources, and school-age child care programs may greatly benefit from their creativity, knowledge, and ideas.

Goal 3

Research in the field of school-age child care suggested considering the child characteristics age and gender when examining child-related outcomes in future research (Posner & Vandell, 1994). This is consistent with the bioecological framework which also suggests considering child characteristics when examining developmental outcomes. Researchers furthermore proposed the inclusion of younger schoolage children in future research about program perspective. The third goal of the study extended and expanded the research base by examining both younger and older school-age children's perspectives based

upon their grade level and gender in relation to program quality. Differences were apparent for age (defined by grade level) but not for gender.

The perspective of the child and the age of the child were related. Second grade children ranked programs more positively than older children. Furthermore, there was a trend suggesting a similar difference between first grade children and third grade children and fourth and fifth grade children. These results lead to an important question for future research: Why do younger children rank programs better than older children? Posner and Vandell (1999) discovered children of different ages spent their time after school differently. One could speculate the activities available at the school-age child care program are better suited for the younger children and therefore not as appealing for the older children. Or younger children might be easier to satisfy than older children. Future research should consider exploring the reasons behind this difference, for programs may better meet all children's needs if they are better understood.

Goal 4

A bioecological perspective was used in the examination of the behavior of children who attend school-age child care programs of varying quality. The findings contribute to the existing research base on school-age child care quality and child outcomes (Jacobs et al., 1991; Miller, 1995; Pierce et al., 1999; Posner & Vandell, 1994, 1999).

Similar to the Pierce et al. (1999) study, this study hypothesized that quality and children's behavior would be associated. Associations to support this hypothesis were identified, for associations of both process and structural measures of quality were related to the problem behaviors of the children as rated by their parents. The quality of adult-child interactions decreased as children's problem behaviors increased. In other words, children in programs with better adult-child interaction had fewer behavior problems. Furthermore, as the amount of yearly training received by program staff increased, child behavior problems decreased. Phillips and his colleagues (1999) found positive associations between training and higher quality care as well. These findings lend credibility to the idea that training

may be an effective and economical way to prepare people to work in the field of school-age child care. Furthermore, quality interactions with caring adults in school-age programs may be an important component in the developing school-age child's life.

Implications for Policy and Practice

For each recommendation, implications for both policy and practice will be discussed. Training for both school-age child care program directors and staff members is needed in the state of Oklahoma. More specifically, school-age professionals need training opportunities each year in child development of the school-age child, curriculum planning and implementation, and administration. These training opportunities must be accessible to all school-age professionals across the state. At the state level, licensing requirements should reflect training and educational experiences that are appropriate for professionals in the field of school-age child care. The requirements for the director should not only include yearly training expectations, but require completed formal education as well.

The second recommendation is related to schoolage child care program director and staff member

compensation. As the requirements for the profession become more stringent, the compensation must increase. School-age professionals must be valued for the important role they play in the lives of school-age children, and therefore compensated accordingly. This may be accomplished through two avenues. First, the state must earmark funds for programs for children during out-of-school time. All children needing care before- and after-school must have access to quality care, and money should not be a barrier for them. Furthermore, school-age professionals should be provided benefits and fair pay. Second, the state must educate the public about the importance of outof-school time and options for children and youth during out-of-school time.

Limitations

The reader must consider the following limitations when interpreting the results of this study. First, the data were collected from programs that had received start-up or expansion grants from the Oklahoma State Department of Human Services Division of Child Care. This may have contributed the quality of these programs, and may not accurately represent the school-age child care programs in the

state of Oklahoma. Furthermore, because the study included only those programs in the state of Oklahoma, caution must be taken when generalizing the results. Finally, the low participation rate by program families should also be considered as a possible limitation.

In conclusion, the results of this study contributed to the research base on school-age child care by identifying interrelationships among structural and process measures of quality. This information will prove useful for future research, as well as for policy-makers, curriculum developers and practitioners. Furthermore, it extended and expanded past research in several ways. First, this study included the perspective of the younger child (six, seven, and eight years), which proved valuable in the current study. These results should encourage researchers, as well as practitioners, to include the perspectives of all school-age child care program members. Next, this study identified associations between school-age program quality and child outcomes, reinforcing the importance of quality programming for our children and youth during out-of-school time.

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Appendix A

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DIRECTOR INFORMED CONSENT FORM EVALUATION OF SCHOOL-AGE CONTRACTS University of Oklahoma

I understand that:

- The purpose of this research is to identify ways to improve the support received by school-age programs and increase our understanding of quality care for school-age children and youth. Stacy Dykstra is in charge of the study and it has been funded by the Oklahoma Department of Human Services Office of Child Care. Findings from the study will suggest ways for the Office of Child Care to improve their funding opportunities for school-age programs. If I have any questions about the study I can contact Stacy Dykstra (405-752-2027) or Loraine Dunn (405-325-1509). I may also contact the OU Office of Research Administration at 405-325-4757 for questions about the rights of research participants.
- I have participated in a phone interview which includes the school-age program, and the grant I received from the Oklahoma Department of Human Services Office of Child Care. I will complete a questionnaire about my job as the director of a school-age program and information about my background.
- A senior group leader in my program will complete a questionnaire about his/her background and experience working in school-age care. The senior group leader will also be observed while working in the school-age program.
- Parental consent will be obtained for children attending the school-age program to participate in the study. The children will complete two questionnaires regarding their beliefs and feelings about the school-age program. The parents will complete a family background questionnaire and a child behavior questionnaire.
- Participation in the study is voluntary. My participation will not affect my employment, my school-age grant, or my program. I may change my mind about agreeing to participate at any time and withdraw myself and my center without penalty by contacting Stacy Dykstra at 405-752-2027.
- All information received during the study will be kept confidential and stored in a locked office. No names or identifying information will be released in the research reports.
- My participation does not involve any risks beyond those encountered in everyday life. My questionnaires will take about 20 minutes to complete. I will receive a small gift (\$15) for helping with the project.

_ Yes, I will participate in this study.

Participant's Name		Date:	
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SCHOOL-AGE PROGRAM TELEPHONE INTERVIEW

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-	ARE YOU CURRENTLY SERVING SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN? yes no
	WILL YOU PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY? yes no
	HOW MANY CHILDREN ARE ENROLLED?
	WHAT IS THE AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE?
	GRANT INFORMATION WHAT TYPE OF GRANT DID YOU RECEIVE?
	HOW IS/WAS THE MONEY BEING USED?
	HOW DID IT IMPACT YOUR PROGRAM?
	HOW DID THE GRANT AFFECT THE QUALITY OF YOUR PROGRAM?
	HOW DED THE GRANT AFFECT THE SAFETY OF YOUR PROGRAM?

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DED THE GRANT AFFECT ENROLLMENT?

PROGRAM INFORMATION

ARE YOU LICENSED? _____ ARE YOU EXEMPT FROM LICENSING?

DESCRIBE YOUR PROGRAM COMMUNITY: 1. urban 2. mrsi 3. suburban

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF PEOPLE SERVED (circle all that apply): 1. low 2. lower-middle 3. middle 4. upper-middle 5. upper

AUSPICE:

- I. day care
- 2. public school
- 3. charch
- 4. community center
- 5. YMCA
- 6. private school
- 7. synagogue
- 8. other

DO YOU HAVE SPACE RESERVED FOR YOUR PROGRAM? _____ DO YOU SHARE IT OR IS IT YOURS EXCLUSIVELY? _____ EXPLAIN.

WHAT ORGANIZATION(S) SPONSORS YOUR PROGRAM?

DAYS OF OPERATION:

- 1. Mon-Fri
- 2. 7 days/week
- 3. other____

HOURS OF OPERATION:

HOLIDAY OPERATION: yes no

••

SUBMER OPERATION: yes no

WHAT IS THE RATIO OF ADULTS TO CHILDREN IN THE SCHOOL-AGE COMPONENT?

WHAT IS THE PAY RANGE FOR YOUR STAFF/TEACHERS?

WHAT IS THE LARGEST GROUP OF CHILDREN THAT ARE TOGETHER IN ONE AREA AT ONE TIME? _____

23. Staff support <u>families</u> ' involvement in the pro Guiden Grantians: What systems do we have in play	
things we could by? How will increased family involve to include more of the familias who haven't participat shows us which families may be gatting left out?	mand, analise our program stronger? Cast we find a we
2. There is a policy that allows family members to visit anytime throughout the day.	01
 Scaff welcome families to the program whenever they visit. When possible, staff interact with visiting family 	
members. • Staff use acquietters and phone calls to remand parents that they are welcome to "drop in."	-
b. Scaff offer orientation sessions for new families.	
 Staff set aside time to tell new fornifies all about the program. When a child moves into a different part of the program (e.g., the summer program or a special program for youth), staff most with families to discuss the change. 	
 Whenever possible, suff offer orientation senions in the home <u>inspungs</u> of the families. Each family gets a copy of written policies, including 	
the program's boars of operation, free, submittee, ithous palicy, exc.	
 This document also states the program's <u>mining</u> and philomphy. Written material is translated for families who do not 	
speak or read the majority language. • As much as possible, piceographs are used to convey written information to non-readers.	
Aduk inserpreters are available when needed.	
I = not at all 1 = sometimes 2 = most of the time 3 = all of the time	Continued on next page

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23. Staff support families" involvement in the program. Guiding Quantients What systems do we have in place to support family involvement? Are there other things we could try? How will increased family involvement make our program stronger? Can we find a way to include more of the families who heren't participated regularly in the past? Can we see a pattern that shows as which families may be gutting left out?		
. Staff keep families informed about the program.	Hating Hating	
 Staff scard house notices and neweletants about program activities and events. Whenever possible, this information is written in the family's home longuage. Staff follow up written notices with phone calls or permant contact. There is a builtein board that displays information. 	0123	
 Notices are written in the languages of the families in the program. 		
. Scaff encourage families to give input and to	0123	
get involved in program events. • Staff ask families up comment on the program via nooks, surveys, and porone meetings.		
 The program's advisory based includes a number of parents. Staff urge families as show sheir skills, hubbies, or family eradiators. 		
 Scaff invite family members to special events (e.g., plays, field urin, and picules). Scaff remore different enhand styles and uv a variety 		
of ways to involve families (e.g., meetings are held in the home language of the families.). * The program may arrange transportation for special		
Creats and meetings.	Total, a-d:	

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children and youth. Guidlen and youth the steps can we take to find out more about our children? How does sharing information help us better serve our children? What policies are in place for contacting schools? Where are these policies documented? Do we know what other programs are doing to form these links? How can we have from them?		
 Program policies require that staff and family members communicate about the child's well-being. Parents samer questions about a child's background and history. Families keep staff informed of suy major changes 	0 1 2 3	
 at home or at school. Scaff inform families in writing about injuries, accidents, illneues, etc. Scaff are happy to speak with parents about their children's experiences in the program. The program makes provisions for families who do not speak or read the majority inguage. 	-	
. Scaff, families, and schools work ungether as a tearn to set goals for each child; they work with outside specialists when necessary.	0123	
 Scaff and families more to discum a child's behavior, bealch, friendshipe, accomplishments, etc. When a child is barows to have <u>special analy</u>, suff meet with teachers, families, and outside experts. Scaff make an effort to support the gask set by a child's Special Education Team. 		
 Scall work closely wish other adults so provide consistency for children with behavior intes. Scall consult specialists to learn how best to help children with diverse physical abilities and disabilities. 		
 Scaff seek advice from doctors and numer about medical inners. 		
statali 1 - sumaines 2 - mestol the time 3 - all of the time	Continued on next page.	

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24. Staff, <u>families</u> , and schools share important information to support the w <u>children and youth</u> . Guiding Questions: What stops can we take to find out more about our children? Ho information help us better serve our children? What policies are in place for contacting these policies documented? Do we know what other programs are doing to form these isom from them?	w does sharing schools? Where are alinks? How can we
c. Scaff and families share information about how to support children's development.	0123
 Suff and families discuss any conceans about a child's development. Children are often included in dame discussions. The program arranges for experts to spatk on a variety of stpics (e.g., matrices, child development, conflict semilation, etc.). Families are invited to strend these semions. Staff help parents form groups to discuss copict of instruct to families and the define policies for headling sensitive topics (e.g., violence, racium, sexuality, substance shuse, etc.). Scaff animeties a parent library of relevant books and articles. Scaff inform families about timely opportunities (e.g., child care subsidies, medical, counteding, and cauter services). 	
d. Staff and families join together 20 communicate and work with the schools.	0123
 Scaff here informed about special school projects and events. Scaff encourage children to be monivated and successful in school. Scaff here with homework and value children's 	
academic efforts. • Scaff are enger to talk wich teachers about ways to hulp children achieve.	
 Staff meet with families and school permanel in order so help the school gain a sense of the whole child. 	
0 = not at all 1 = permediment 2 = magt of the time 3 = all of the time 7	iotal, a-d:

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5. The program builds links to the <u>constantly</u> . Outday Questions: How can we expend what we offer boyond the avere of the resources in our community? Do children feel part of the children a chance to provide community survice?	wells of our program? Are children a larger community? How do we give
 Scaff provide information about community resources to meet the node of children and their families. 	012:
 Builterin boards and aconteness contain information about upcoming community events (e.g., fate descal screenings, fate-prevention seminats, and parameting channel). 	
 When avoided, staff are able to refer families to local agencies (e.g., health clinics, food programs, counsel- ing services, language clustes, crisis intervention, etc.). 	
b. The program develops a lise of community resources. The staff draw from these resources to expand program offerings.	012
 Scaff ark families for ideas in developing assuraces that reflect the bonne <u>impropr</u> and <u>subman</u>. Resources are well asing to the needs of children in the program (e.g., health, culture, improgr, learning styles, etc.). Scaff use the list when planning field trips and 	
inviting special guess. c. The staff plan activities to help children get to know the larger community.	012
 Children have a chance to attend outings and field trips (e.g., walking tours, parks, massessar, perfor- mances, and cultural events). 	
 The program hosts visitnes and special events from the community. Children have an opportunity to join local groups 	
and sensus (e.g., sports, drama, music). • Children have an appartunity to most adult conches and ministers from the community.	
d. The program offers community-service options. especially for older children.	012
 Children are encouraged to take part in community projects (e.g., recycling, park cleanups, fund-raising events, etc.). 	
 Children are able to volunteer for projects that benefic younger children, senior citizens, children's hospitals and local shelters. 	
 Children organise food and clothing collection for local agencies. 	
	Total, a-d:

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niert storage? Does lack of space or storage over limit the to regularly maintain the facility and respond to the changing	needs of our program?	
. There is enough soon in the indeor space for	(***** (***)	611.03
staff to plan verious program activities.		0123
 When induor space is used for active play (e.g., chance, aerobics, or backeball), chere are 75 square 		
for per child.		
• There are 35 square feet per child for quice activities		
such as homework, reading, or holding club mostings. • There are 45 square for per child for small gamp.		
and enrichment activities such as woodworking, 205	-	
and crafts, and sticutz experiments.	·····	<u> </u>
. Staff have access to adequate and convenient		0123
storage.		
 Staff carely have us carry havey equipment long distances or large amounts of manifold for set-up 		
and clean-up.		
 The amount or location of storage does not limit the activities suff can offer. 		
 Staff have a place to store personal belongings. 		
 Programs in shared space have portable equipment 		
es wigels.		
. The indoor space meets or encode local health		0123
and safety codes. The space iss passed leadeb, building, and fire		
Aspections.		
• To be sure codes are met, the program has arranged		
its own inspection of the program space by a quilified person.		
 The indoor space is bursier five and acceptible to 		
people using wheelchairs or walkers. • Someone is routinely responsible to check that		
cutances and exits are unohumated and well in.		
 This person also makes sure due surfaces are washed and spacing. 		
. Written guidelines are in place regarding the use		0123
and maintenance of the program facility.		
 Scaff know whom so call for sepairs on heating. 		
plumbing, or velophone systems. • In programs wick shared space, a written policy spells		
our die use of space, supplies, equipment, and		
methods of communication. • Guidelines note each group's generatibility for		
denning, maintenance, and remains costs (e.g.,		
utilities, insuence, and repairs).		
 Sharing of the program space does not interfere with program activities. 		
 Program plans are seldom superseded by other groups 		
(c.g., youth groups, choir, sports teams).		

Quiling Quartiese: Do we provide at many exhibits type, or Gardina of our explore space limit the value	e mode of children, youth, and staff, exhibits as the children would like? Does the ty of activities we can offic? Who is responds or program's offerings by making better use of	size, le for
a. These is enough soom in the outdoor space for all program activities.	<u></u>	012
 If the program does not have its own outdoor space, it has dely access to an off-site space such as a park or phyground. If the program has a small space, children's outdoor time is staggened so that children are not crowded. 		
 b. The outdoor space meets or exceeds local health and safety codes. Clean drinking water is available outdoors. 		012
 Access to sestimate is sensicized to prevent public use. Fencing is provided when assided to cannot the safety of children. 		
 C. Scaff use outdoor areas to provide new outdoor play experiences. Generge take walks in the neighborhood or visit local spots for exploring nature (e.g., cateles, pands, beaches, and forem). Scaff take children on trips to a baseball field. swimming pool, or skating rink, if possible. 		012
d. These is a procedure in place for segularly checking the sufery and maintenance of the outdoor play space.		012
 Someone is sourinely responsible to make sure the sidewalks are free of ice, snow, and slippery mud. Someone routinely tests to be sure that large equip- ment is anchored and in good sepair (e.g., free of rust, splinness, or loose nails and acrews). 		
and stall the constitute 2 - and of the date 3 - all of the date	Total. a-d:	Columbia

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4. Souff ask children to share their ideas for	<pre></pre>	SUM
 Sour six constant to same their states for planning so that activities will select children's interests. 	······································	012
 Scaff regularly involve children in planning for succh, daily activities, and spacial events. Scaff ask children to help select new summink, supplies, and equipment. Scaff plan activities that reflect the colours of children (e.g. manic, dance, motics, from). 		
 b. The program's daily activities are in line with its minim and philosophy. The schedule and activity choices allow children to participate in activities that sellect the minim and philosophy. 		012
 c. Scaff heep on file their seconds of activity planning. Written plans with clearly stand gash are available to staff and substitutes. Scaff for down notes about an activity's success so future staff can learn from part experiences. Written plans are used to assess the needs and interests of children. 		012
d. Scaff plan activities that will reflect the <u>calcures</u> of the <u>families</u> in the program and the broad diversity of human experience.		0123
 Scale regularly choose materials that reflect the language, music, staries, gamet and crafts from various cultural stadictions. 		
 Scaff invite children and families to share recipes, songs, stories and photos that represent their culture and experiences. 		
 Scaff avoid using a "rourist" approach to studying different cultures. 		
 Multicultural activities occur chroughout the year. rather than only during holidays. 		

Studio- Guiding Quantions: Under what circumstances might we need to close our program? Is a plan in place		
handle this situation? What do we do when we totice a do to help children and staff respond effectively?	e situation that might be dangarous? What c	
2. Saif and children know what to do in case of		
general emergency.		0 1
 Emergency procedures for exising during a fire are 		
prime and practiced regularly. • Suff check analys demonstrated for extensioners		
every three atouts.		
· Fire entinguishess are visible and accessible.		
 Staff know how so are fire estimates. 		
· Staff and familias know what us do in emergency		
situations (e.g., in case of fire, carehquake, socando,		
showshow, etc.).		
 Staff are prepared as seapond when strangers attempt to incrude or discupt the program. 		
to protein or antaly or hollow-		
b. The program has established procedures to		0 1
prevent accidents and manage emergenciet.		
• Staff are expected to be alert to safety humais (e.g.,		
ficer or glass, equipment that has because unboland		
er russig).		
 Scaff calse action to connect stifety herastic. 		
These are specific procedures for higher risk activities		
(e.g., swimming, gymoesics, skilding, esc.). • Saffare usined to handle incidents involving poison.		
 State are connect to valuate account environg position, burns, and other modical energencies. 		
c. The program has established policies to trans-		0 1
port children safely: it complies with all legal		
requirements for vehicles and drivers.		
· All cars, vans, buses, or taxis used for anapporting		
children on field trips or us and from school are		
licensed, inspected, and maintained.		
 All drivess of vehicles used as cransport children are adequately assigned and licensed. 		
 The program checks to be sure all drives have 		
good driving records.		
	••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	
d. A system is in place to prevent unauthorized people from taking children from the program.		01
 Staff know who is allowed to pick up each child. 		
 Staff know what to do if an unsuthorized person attempts to pick up a child. 		

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ment share policies and train the staff to implement the		
a. There is current documentation showing that	Cull month	Sat
che program has mer the state and/or local healda and safety guidelines and/or regulations.		013
 The program's license is possed. Inspection reports are hept on file. 		
 Written plans document a program's efforts to remain in compliance with all local localds and safety codes. 	·	
b. There are written policies and procedures to ensure the health and safety of children.		01
The program has a handbook due describes procedures for the following:		
 administering medications. 		-
• convilieg continuicht: distates		
 responding to sick children,. dealing with children who have chronic health 		
conditions such as allergies,		
· prosecting children from souic materials.		
 administring first aid,. 		
 handling motical emergencies. responding to mound dimenses. 		
 reporting supported child share or supject. 		
· dealing with incluined purches.		
c. No smoking is allowed in the program.		01;
· A no-enaking policy is enforced as all times.		
 The policy applies to both the judget and guident. 		
appens. as well as field trips. • The staff and partne hundbooks clearly sume the no-	•	
smaking palicy.		
 No smaking signs are possed. 		
• Staff cigurettes are never visible to the children.		
d. The staff are always propared to respond to accidents and emergencies.		012
• A staff person trained in first aid and CPR is available		
st all eitnes. • During program hours, a eclephone is always considered and a second		
sccessible for incoming and oversing calls. Written emergency numbers (e.g., for police, fire.		
ambulance. poison control) are posted near the phone.		
 Emergency information about the children is taken on field trips. 		
 Exmitting are contacted immediately in case of emergency. 		
 A first-aid kit is available at all times. 		
 Staff receive blood-born pathogen training. 		

Total, a-d:

a. Staff more the sequirements for experience with school-age children in necessional settings. (See Appendix in the NSACA Sumdants for Quality School-Age Care, pp. 75-78.)	
b. Staff have received the recommended type and amount of preparation. They meet the require- ments that are specific to achool-age child care and relevant to their particular jobs. (See Appendix in the NSACA Semilark for Quality School-Age Care, pp. 75-78.)	01
c. Scaff meet ministrum age requirements. (See Appendix in the NSACA Samdank for Quality School-Age Care, pp. 75–78.)	013
d. Enough qualified staff are in place to meet all levels of responsibility. Qualified staff are hired in all areas: to administer the program, to oversee its daily operations, and to supervise children. (See Appendix in the NSACA Sum- dards for Quality School-Age Care, pp. 75-78.)	

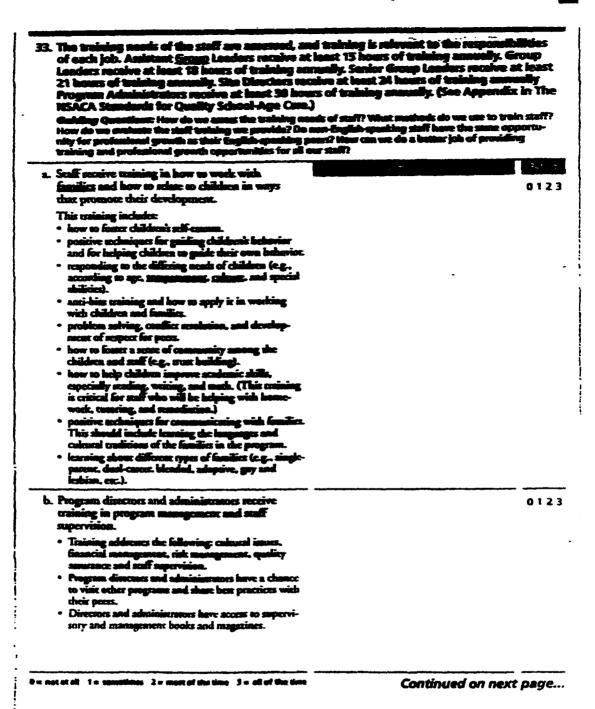
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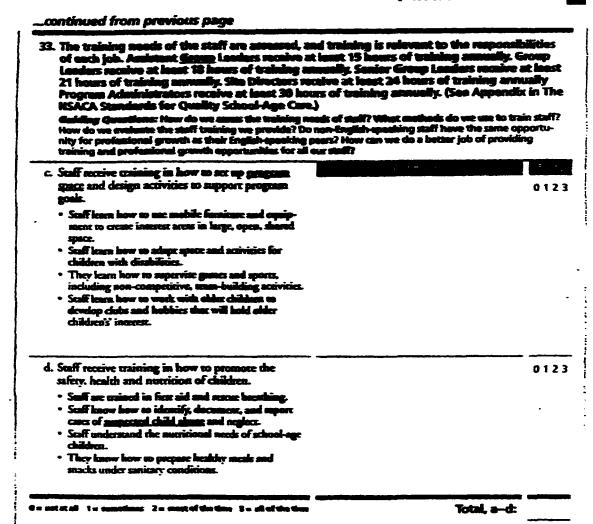
0= mt stall 1= sometimes 2= mest of the time 3= all of the time

in future training?	A Common State of Sta	,
 A written job description that outlines stepani- bilities to children, <u>families</u>, and the program is reviewed with each staff strengtes. 	0	12
 The job description includes expressions regarding space set-up, activity planning, supervision, and behavior unsagement. 		
b. Written personnel policies are reviewed with staff.		12
 Scaff can read and ank questions about their hours (e.g., schedules, breaks, time for planning and training). 		
 Benefits and grievance procedures are clustly spelled own. 		
c. Written program policies and procedures, including cateryracy procedures and confiden-		12
tiality policies, are reviewed with staff.		
 New suff can send about program policies and sefer to written descriptions at a hare dote. They can also how does policies described by the 	-	
director or another well informed staff member. • Buic educal standards are reviewed with all new staff		
(e.g., the need for confidentiality about information on children, families, and other staff).		
d. New staff are given a comprehensive orientation to the program philosophy. voucines, and practices.	0	12
 They are personally inconduced to the people with whom shey will be working. 		
 New suff are incoduced to the casodian, school principal, agency director, as well as co-workers in the program. 		
 They are given a cour of the program space and shown where to find manning and supplies. 		
 They are sold about the schedule, activities, guidance policies, and the gracial grade of individual children. 		
 They have a chance to discuss any questions they may have about the program's mining and philosophy. 		

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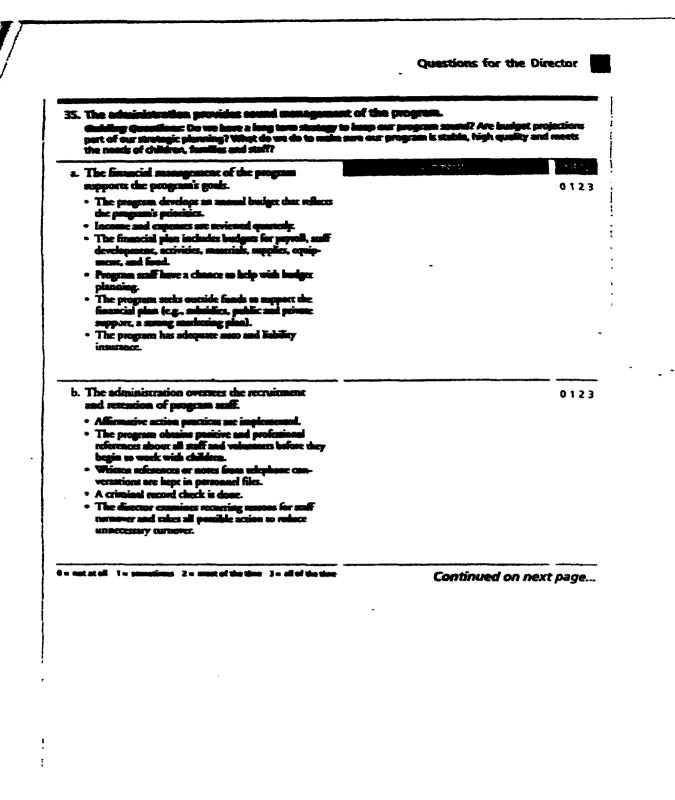


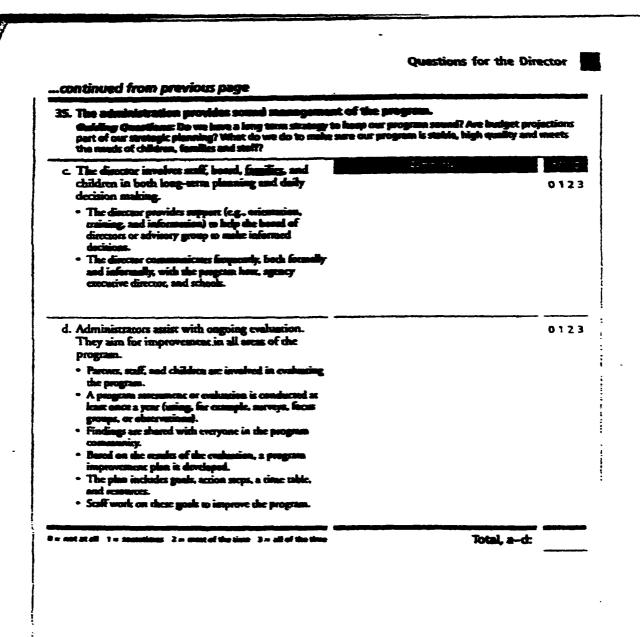
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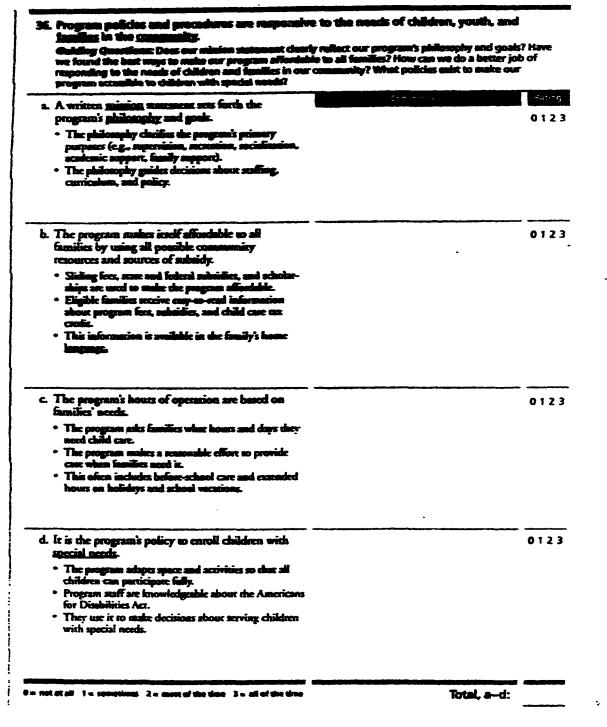
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4. Staff receive appropriate support to make their work experience pa Guidhy Questions: How is the massie of these of us who work have? Is a plan companyation and banefits package? Can we go to our pass and supervisor for we feel that our work is valued by the program director, the familia, and our p	support on tough issues? Do
a. The program has a plan in place to offer the best possible wages and working conditions in an effort to reduce staff turnsver.	0123
Companyation takes education and aspeciance into account. Scaff are compensated for time spear in training and planning. Ways are above the minimum boudy wage and are competitive with other busines services jobs.	
 b. Eulisting staff receive benefits, including health insuance and paid leaves of absence. Suff are also given paid breaks and paid preparation time. If possible, the program purides the following: dencal, life, and disability insuance; resistment benefits; and subsidized child care. 	012
 c. Staff are given anaple time to discuss their own concerns regarding the program. Suff near signaling the program. Suff near signality (for at last an hour write a mosth) to discust program operations and the changing nearls of children. Staff are able to communicate dely about intent that went intentions attention (e.g., family crime, behavior insues, changes in discury or modical nearly). Suff discuss new manying for responding consistently to a child who is having problems. Staff phan program-wide activities and ger-organistent. Staff phan program-wide activities and ger-organistent. 	0123
 d. Staff receive continuous supervision and fortback. This includes written performance reviews on a timely basis. Supervisor and staff member regularly discuss activities and interactions with children. They work sugcher so set gash for the coming month. Each staff person sectives a written evaluation at least yearly. These evaluations include comments based on observation of staff performance. Scaff participate in their own assessment. The program laceps written, updated notes on staff performance and footback. It keeps records on file of staff participation in continuing education and training. 	0123

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BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF DIRECTOR

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN THE DIRECTOR OF THIS SCHOOL-AGE PROGRAM?

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED IN THE SCHOOL-AGE PROFESSION?

ARE YOU A MEMBER OF A PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION SUCH AS: NAEYC, NSACA, OR ECAO? yes no

WHAT IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION YOU HAVE COMPLETED? 1. Less than 2. High 3. Vocational 4. Some 5. Two-Year 6. Four-Year 7. Graduate High School School College Degree Degree Degree

HAVE YOU COMPLETED ANY OF THE FOLLOWING CREDENTIALS OR CERTIFICATIONS? (Circle all that apply, please.)

1. CDA

2. ECE

3. Elementary

4. Certified Child Care Professional

5. National Director Training 6. Oklahoma Director Trainin

7. Other ____

HAVE YOU RECEIVED COLLEGE CREDIT FOR COURSEWORK IN THE FOLLOWING AREAS:

CHILD DEVELOPMENT?	796		HOW MANY HOURS?
CHILD CARE?	785		HOW MANY HOURS?
ECE?	yes	80	HOW MANY HOURS?
YOUTH STUDIES?	798	10	HOW MANY HOURS?
RECREATION?	yes	80	HOW MANY HOURS?
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION?	700	10	HOW MANY HOURS?
FAMILY SOCIAL SCIENCES?			
ADMINISTRATION?	ye	. 80	HOW MANY HOURS?

HAVE YOU RECEIVED TRAINING (NOT INCLUDING ON THE JOB TRAINING) IN:

CHILD DEVELOPMENT?	yes no	HOW MANY HOURS?
CHILD CARE?	YCS BD	HOW MANY HOURS?
ECE?	YES 110	HOW MANY HOURS?
YOUTH STUDIES?		HOW MANY HOURS?
RECREATION?		HOW MANY HOURS?
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION	77 yes an	HOW MANY HOURS?



HOW DO YOU VIEW	v worki	NG IN THE S	CHOOL-AGE	FIELD? (please	: circle of
1. MY CHOSEN OC	CCUPATE	ON			
2. A STEPPING STO		MPLOYMEN	r in Anothe	R FIELD REL	ATED TO
SCHOOL-AGE C					
3. TEMPORARY EA 4. OTHER					
AGE: under 20	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+
GENDER: jamele					
MARITAL STATUS:					
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married	i/separated		pwed		
MARITAL STATUS:	i/separated		pwed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/s RACE:	i/separated		owed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/s RACE: 1. Cascanien	i/separated		owed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Caucanian 2. African-American	i/separated		owed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Cancensien 2. African-American 3. Latime/o	i/separated		owed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Cancensien 2. African-American 3. Latime/o 4. Anian	i/separated		owed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Cancensien 2. African-American 3. Latine/o 4. Anian 5. Native American	d'separator married		owed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never manine 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Caucanien 2. African-American 3. Latine/o 4. Asian 5. Native American 6. Biracial/Maltirucial	d'separator married		owed		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never summini 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Cancunian 2. African-American 3. Latine/o 4. Asian 5. Native American 6. Biracial/Multiracial 7. Other	d'acpurator merried		pwod		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Cascanien 2. Africas-American 3. Latine/o 4. Asian 5. Native American 6. Biracial/Multiracial 7. Other HOUSEHOLD INCOM	d'acpurator merried	l/divorced/wid			
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never snarrist 2. single with partner/s RACE: 1. Cascasian 2. Africas-American 3. Latine/o 4. Asian 5. Native American 6. Biracial/Multiracial 7. Other HOUSEHOLD INCO 1. under \$10,000	d/separator married	6. \$50,00 1	-60,000		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never summini 2. single with partner/in RACE: 1. Caucanien 2. African-American 3. Latine/o 4. Asian 5. Native American 6. Biracial/Multiracial 7. Other	d/separator married	6. \$\$0,00 1 7. \$60,00 1	1-60,000 1-70,000		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never married 2. single with partner/n RACE: 1. Caucanien 2. African-American 3. Latine/o 4. Asian 5. Native American 6. Biracial/Multiracial 7. Other	d/separator married	6. \$50,001 7. \$60,001 8. \$70,001	60,000 70,000 80,000		
MARITAL STATUS: 1. single/never summini 2. single with partner/in RACE: 1. Caucanien 2. African-American 3. Latine/o 4. Asian 5. Native American 6. Biracial/Multiracial 7. Other	d/separator married	6. \$50,001 7. \$60,001 9. \$80,001	60,000 70,000 80,000		

1. UNDER 3 10,000	0. 200,001-00,000
2. \$10,001-20,000	7. \$61,000-70,000
3. \$20,001-30,000	8. \$70,001-80,000
4. \$30,001-40,000	9. \$80,001-90,000
5. \$40,001-50,000-	10. \$90,001-100,000
	11. over \$100,000

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Please circle the activities that are offered on a weekly basis. Also, please include in the "other" space any activities that you offer that are not on this list.

ACADEMICS	ART
READING	SNACK
GAMES	FEILDTRIPS
MUSIC	TV OR VIDEOS
PUZZLES	HOMEWORK
DANCE	COMPUTERS
SPORTS	COOKING
DRAMA	LARGE-MOTOR ACTIVITIES
PROBLEM-SOLVING ACTIVITIES	CRAFTS
VIDEO GAMES	OTHER:

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Appendix B

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University of Oklahoma Evaluation of School-Age Contracts Fall, 1999

Dear Parent,

This packet contains information on a study about quality school-age care. This study is being conducted by Stacy Dykstra of University of Oklahoma and is funded by the Department of Human Services Office of Child Care. The purpose of the study is to identify ways to improve the support received by school-age programs and increase our understanding of quality care for school-age children and youth. I hope that information gained from this study will help the state find ways to make school-age care better for children, youth, families, and the staff who serve them.

Your help may contribute greatly to our knowledge about school-age care. Please look at the informed consent in this packet now. If you are willing to participate, sign the consent form and return it (along with the completed questionnaires) in the envelope provided.

In the packet you will find a questionnaire about your background, the school-age program your child attends, and your child's behavior. Please complete the questionnaire and place it in the sealed envelope provided. Return the sealed envelope to the director of your child's school-age program within one week. The researcher will collect the envelope when he/she returns to your program in approximately 2 weeks. During the return visit, your child will complete the questionnaires and receive a small thank you gift of stationary items.

Thank you for your assistance. Please do not hesitate to call if you have any questions.

Stacy Dykstra 405-752-2027 Loraine Dunn 405-325-1509

PARENTAL INFORMED CONSENT FORM EVALUATION OF SCHOOL-AGE CONTRACTS University of Oklahoma

I understand that:

- The purpose of this research is to identify more effective ways to provide support to the school-age child care community. Stacy Dykstra is in charge of the study and it has been funded by the Oklahoma Department of Human Services Office of Child Care. Findings from the study will suggest ways to make support for school-age programs in Oklahoma better. If I have any questions about the study I can_contact Stacy Dykstra (405-752-2027) or Loraine Dunn (405-325-1509). I may also contact the OU Office of Research Administration at 405-325-4757 for questions about the rights of research participants.
- I must be 18 years of age or older to participate.
- My child will complete two questionnaires about his/her after school program that will take about 15 or 20 minutes. This will be done at their school-age program.
- I will_complete a questionnaire about family background, the school-age program, and my child's behavior. These will take about 15 minutes to complete.
- Participation in the study is voluntary. My participation will not affect my child's enrollment in the child care program. I may change my mind about agreeing to participate at any time and withdraw from the study without penalty by contacting Stacy Dykstra at 405-752-2027.
- All information received during the study will be kept confidential and stored in a locked office. No names or identifying information will be released in the research reports.
- Neither my participation nor my child's participation involves any risks beyond those encountered in everyday life. My child will receive a small gift of stationary items for helping with the project.

Yes, ______ and I will participate in the study. Child's name

Parent's	
Signature:	Date:

CHILD INFORMED CONSENT FORM EVALUATION OF SCHOOL-AGE CONTRACTS University of Oklahoma

- I know that the researcher is going to ask me some questions about my after school program.
- I know that I can read the questions myself or I can have them read to me.
- I know I can choose not to answer a question if I want to.
- I know I can decide not to participate at all if I want to.

Child's signature:

Date: _____

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Family Questionnaire

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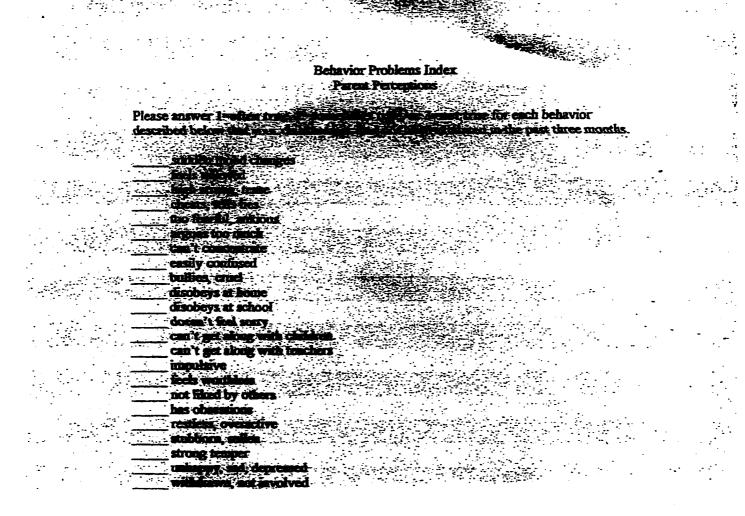
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Appendix C

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University of Oklahoma Evaluation of School-Age Contracts Fall, 1999

Dear School-Age Program Staff Member,

This packet contains information on a study about quality school-age care. This study is being conducted by Stacy Dykstra of University of Oklahoma and is funded by the Department of Human Services Office of Child Care. The purpose of the study is to identify ways to improve the support received by school-age programs and increase our understanding of quality care for school-age children and youth. I hope that information gained from this study will help the state find ways to make school-age care better for children, youth, families, and the staff who serve them.

Your help may contribute greatly to our knowledge about school-age care. Please look at the informed consent in this packet now. If you are willing to participate, sign the consent form and give it to the observer. Please know that just because the director of your program agreed to participate in this project you are under no obligation to do so.

In the packet you will find a questionnaire about your background, your program, and your perceptions of your job. Please complete the questionnaire and place it in the sealed envelope provided. The observer will pick the envelope up when he/she returns to your program in approximately 2 weeks.

When the observer returns in approximately 2 weeks, he/she will observe you while you work in the school-age program. Then he/she will collect your sealed envelope and give you a small thank you gift <u>of stationary items</u>.

Again, thank you for your assistance. Please do not hesitate to call if you have any questions.

Stacy Dykstra 405-752-2027 Loraine Dunn 405-325-1509

SENIOR GROUP LEADER INFORMED CONSENT FORM EVALUATION OF SCHOOL-AGE CONTRACTS University of Oklahoma

I understand that:

- The purpose of this research is to identify more effective ways to provide support to the school-age child care community. Stacy Dykstra is in charge of the study and it has been funded by the Department of Human Services Office of Child Care. Findings from the study will suggest ways to make support for school-age programs in Oklahoma better. If I have questions about the study I may contact Stacy Dykstra (405-752-2027) or Loraine Dunn (405-325-1509). I may also contact the OU Office of Research Administration at 405-325-4757 for questions about the rights of research participants.
- I will complete a questionnaire about my background, my program, and perceptions about my job that will take about 20 minutes. Also, I will be observed for about 30 minutes while working in the school-age program.
- Participation in the study is voluntary. My participation will not affect . my employment or my program. I may change my mind about agreeing to participate at any time and withdraw from the study without penalty by contacting Stacy Dykstra at 405-752-2027.
- All information received during the study will be kept confidential and stored in a locked office. No names or identifying information will be released in the research reports.
- My participation does not involve any risks beyond those encountered in everyday life. The questionnaires will take about 20 minutes to complete. I will receive a small thank you gift <u>of stationary items</u> for helping with the project.

____ Yes, I will participate in this study.

Your Signature: _____ Date: _____

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Staff Questionnaire

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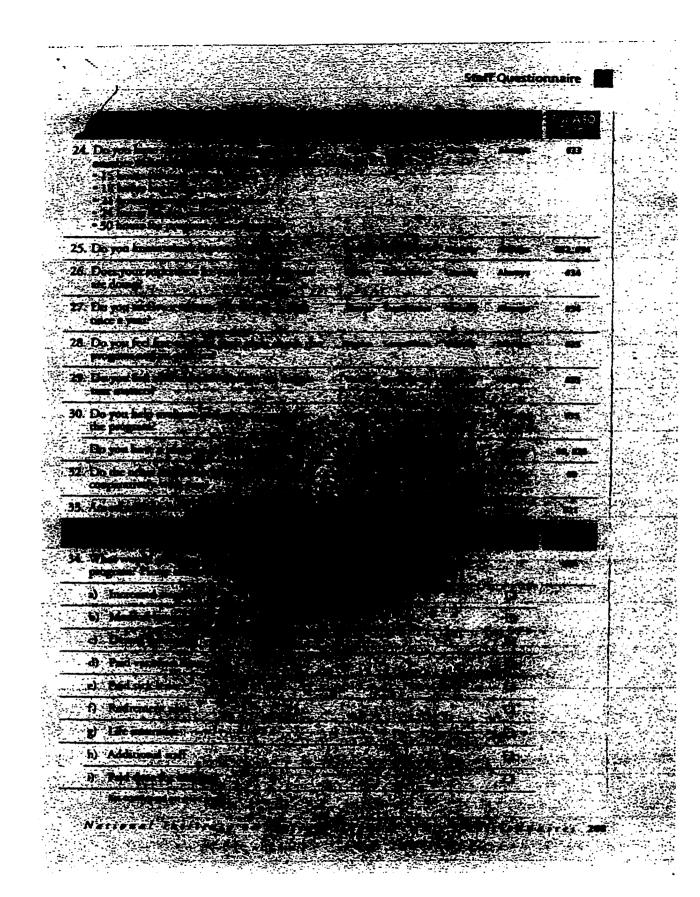
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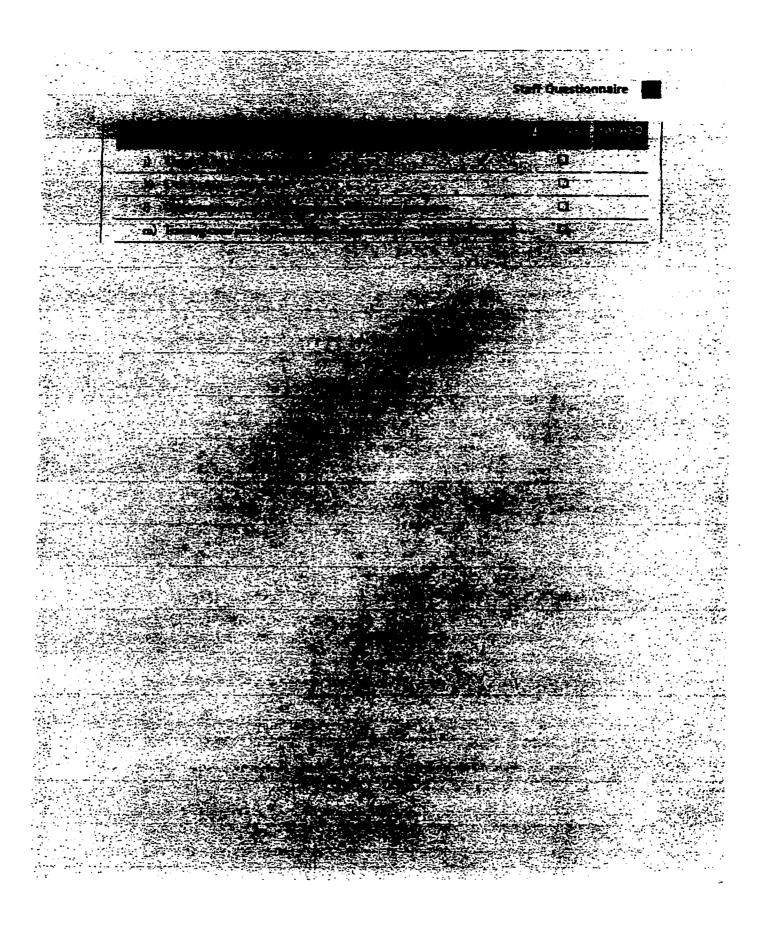
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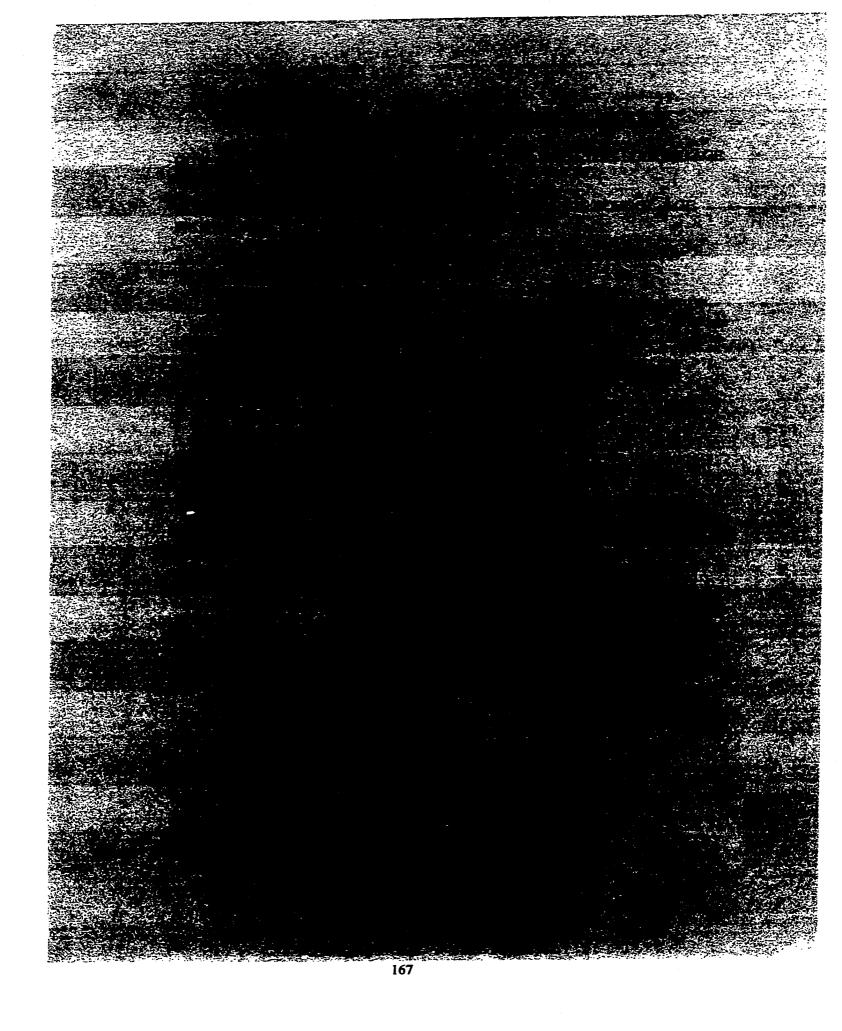
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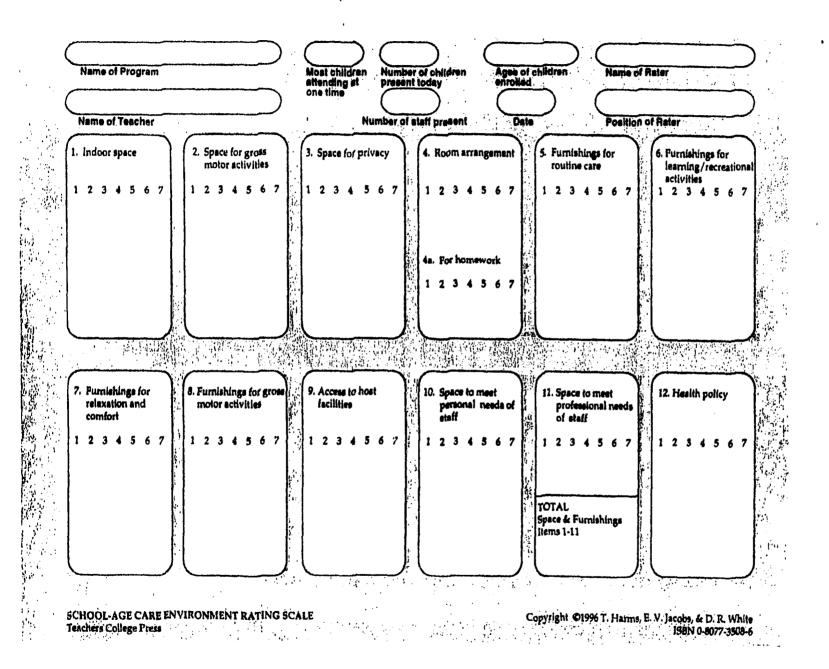


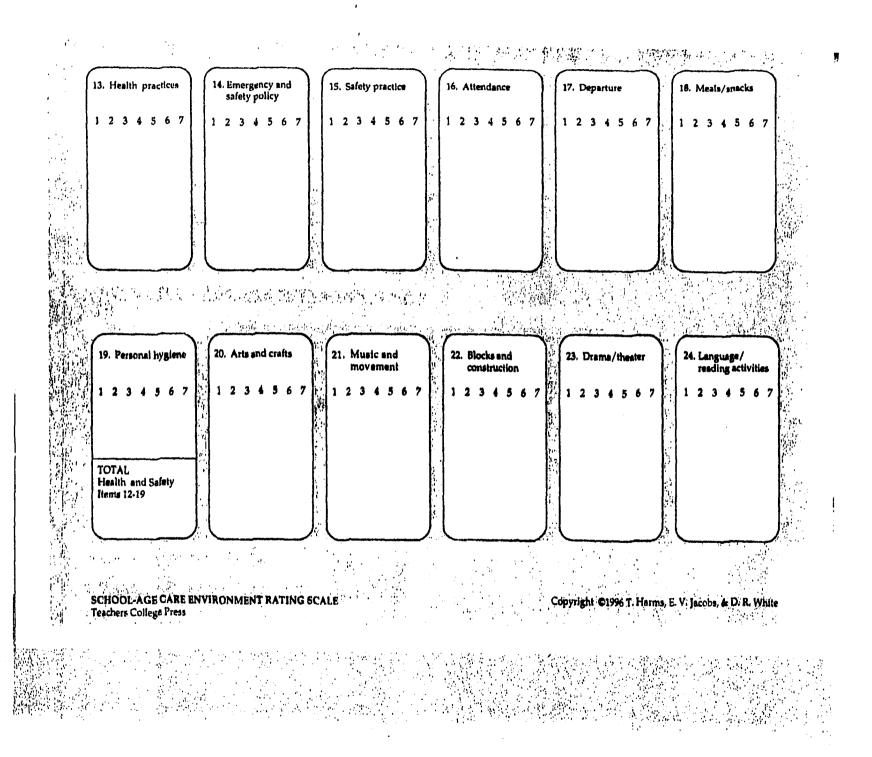
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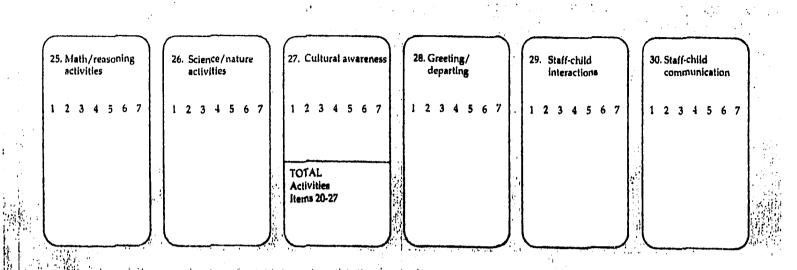
Appendix D

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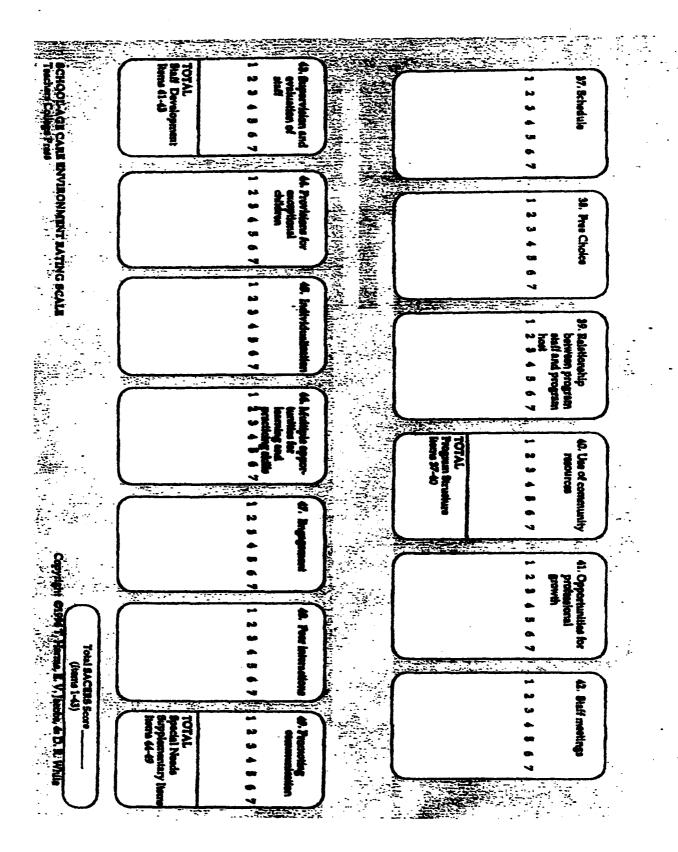


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STAFF-CHILD INTERACTIONS

	Staff member is not responsive to or not involved with children (Ex. Ignore or reject children).
	Interactions are unpleasant (Ex. Voices sound strained and irritable).
	Staff member responds inconsistently (Ex. Sometimes warm, sometimes distant with children).
	Staff member favors or dislike particular children.
	Staff member usually responds to children in a warm, supportive manner (Ex. Staff and children seem relaxed, voices cheerful, frequent smiling).
	Staff member shows respect for children (Ex. Listens attentively, treat children fairly, do not discriminate).
	Staff member supports autonomous behavior in children (Ex. Staff member allows children to take the lead in selecting and initiating activities).
	Mutual respect exists among staff and children.
STAFF-CHIL	DCOMMUNICATION
STAFF-CHIL	D COMMUNICATION Staff member communicates with children primarily to control children's behavior and manage routines.
STAFF-CHIL	Staff member communicates with children primarily to control children's
STAFF-CHIL	Staff member communicates with children primarily to control children's behavior and manage routines.
STAFF-CHIL	Staff member communicates with children primarily to control children's behavior and manage routines. Children's talk not encouraged. Staff member initiates brief conversations (Ex. ask questions that can be
STAFF-CHIL	Staff member communicates with children primarily to control children's behavior and manage routines. Children's talk not encouraged. Staff member initiates brief conversations (Ex. ask questions that can be answered yes/no, limited turn-taking in conversations). Limited response by staff member to child-initiated conversations and

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	Language is used primarily by staff member to exchange information with children and for social interaction.
	Children are asked "why, how, what if" questions which require longer, more complex answers.
	Staff make effort to talk with each child (Ex. listen to child's day, including problems and successes).
	Staff member verbally expands on ideas presented by children (Ex. add information, ask questions to encourage children to explore ideas).
STAFF SUP	ERVISION OF CHILDREN
	No supervision of children in staff member's assigned area during play and routines.
	Some supervision of children in assigned area during play and routines, especially in potentially dangerous areas (Ex. outdoor play, climbing apparatus, carpentry).
	Careful supervision of all children adjusted appropriately for different ages and abilities (Ex. younger children supervised more closely).
	Children given help and encouragement when needed (Ex. shown how to use new equipment).
	Staff member shows appreciation of children's efforts and accomplishments.
	Staff member talks to children about ideas related to their play and help elaborate and extend the activity.
	Staff member is available to coach team sports and help with activities requiring adult input.

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Human Relationships

a. Staff treat children with respect and listen to what they say. b. Staff do not belittle children. b. Staff do not intrude or interrupt children. b. Staff on a supportive language. b. Staff make children feel welcome and comfortable. b. Staff make children feel welcome and comfortable. b. Staff make children feel welcome in their voices and gestures. b. Staff stay calm in all situations. c. Staff respond to children with acceptance and appreciation. c. Staff respond to children with acceptance and corents. Games and sports are open to all, toggadless of their athletic skill. b. Staff neek and sports are open to all, toggadless of their athletic skill. b. Staff on to separate children by gender. c. Staff respond to children with acceptance and corents. Games and sports are open to all, toggadless of their athletic skill. b. Staff on to separate children by gender. c. Staff respond to children by gender. c. Staff respond to children the acceptance and corents. Games and sports are open to all, toggadless of their athletic skill. b. Staff are kind and fair to all children to all childr	
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the children.	
not at all 1 = sometimes 2 = most of the time 3 = all of the time Total, a-d:	

Guiding Questions: Are we aware of the many interes How do we respond to their different cultures and lang grow and learn?	ts, abilities, and talents of our children? uages? In what other ways can we help each	child
a. Scaff know that each child has special interests and ralents.	Comments	Rating 0 1 2 3
 Staff are able to spend time with individual children. Staff bring in materials related to children's interests: pets, music, sports, computers, chess, etc. Specialists are used for certain activities. Staff are eager to hear about events in children's lives outside the program. 		
b. Staff recognize the range of children's abilities.		0123
 Staff vary their responses to match children's ages and abilities. Staff help children become focused and engaged. Staff help children pursue their interests and improve their skills. Staff offer enrichment activities. Staff help children with their homework. Staff substitute equipment as needed, such as using a large beach ball instead of a volleyball for outdoor games. 		
 c. Staff can relate to a child's <u>culture</u> and home <u>language</u>. Staff provide resources that show different cultural perspectives. They help children use books, music, and tapes in different languages. Visual displays show a variety of cultures. Signs include the home languages of the children in the program. Children have an opportunity to speak their home language with peers and staff. Guests from various cultural traditions are invited to speak at the program and share their experiences. They also serve as coaches, mentors, and friends. 		0123
d. Staff respond to the range of children's feelings and temperaments.		0123
 Staff try to understand the different ways children express their feelings (e.g., different cultural styles to show respect for authority, express hurt or anger or warmth). Staff try to assess children's feelings before attempting to solve a problem. Staff find suitable ways to include all children. Staff accept a child's desire to be alone. Staff remain calm and patient with an angry child. Staff comfort a child who appears hurt, upset, or disappointed. 		
 Starr connorr a child who appears nurr, upser, or disappointed. not at all 1 = sometimes 2 > most of the time 3 = all of the time 	Total, a-d:	

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d	Suiding Questions: What kinds of choices can childre hoose what they are going to do, and with whom? An eadership roles? Do we include children when we plan	e we helping them to take initiative and assu	ime
	izeff offer assistance in a way that supports a hild's initiative.	Comments	8.3tin
•	Staff help children find ways to pursue their own interests. Staff say "yes" to children's reasonable requests and ideas for activities. Staff help children plan projects and gather resources.		•••
ત • •	itaff assist children without taking control, and hey encourage children to take leadership roles. Staff give clear directions so that children can proceed independently. When asked, staff step in to help children. Staff encourage children to proceed on		012
w w •	taff give children many chances to choose hat they will do, how they will do it, and with horn. Children have frequent opportunities to choose their companions. Children help prepare and/or serve their own food. Children set up activities and/or clean up afterwards. Older children may choose to set up their own clubhouse. When field trips are planned, some children may choose to stay at the program.		012
sil • •	raff help children make informed and respon- ble choices. Staff remind children to think about how their actions may affect others in the program. Staff ask questions that guide children to make good decisions. Staff help children understand the impact of their decisions on others.		012
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◄.	Staff interact with <u>children and youth</u> to help 1 Guidlag Questions: What kinds of questions do we as we respond to children's curiosity? What approaches do children reflect on what they are learning? Are we able and support throughout the day?	k children to encourage creative thinking? He we use to answer their questions? How do v	ve heip
а.	Staff ask questions that encourage children to think for themselves.	Comments	Rating
	 Staff pursue children's ideas. Staff start discussions by asking open-ended questions (e.g., "what if?" or "how can we?"). Staff encourage children to use journal writing, art projects and group discussions as a way to express their ideas. Staff take time to think about children's questions. 		
Ь.	. Staff share skills and resources to help children gain information and solve problems.		012
	 Staff show children how and where to find answers to questions. Staff show children how complex skills can be broken into smaller steps. Staff encourage children to practice basic life skills. When children face problems they cannot solve themselves, staff offer suggestions. 		-
с.	 Staff vary the approaches they use to help children learn. Staff teach children a new task or game by showing the steps as well as telling about them. Staff write down instructions for activities so that children can remember what to do. Staff pay attention to culture and gender variations in learning styles. They recognize non-verbal as well as verbal responses. They encourage children to try new activities. They help children move beyond gender stereotypes in their choices. Staff use pictures and visual aids to reach out to non-readers and speakers of other languages. Staff modify activities as needed so that all children, including those with disabilities, can participate. 		012
d.	Staff help children use language skills through frequent conversations.		0123
	 Staff speak to children on a level children seem to understand. They listen patiently as all children try to express themselves. Staff take extra time with children who speak another home language or have difficulty listening or speaking. Staff try to find effective ways to communicate with all children. Scaff sometimes use non-verbal signals to help children understand. 		
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Staff use positive techniques to guide the behavior of <u>children and youth.</u> Guiding Questions: How do we model caring, cooperation, and respect? Can we identify a pattern for the types of conflict that occur most often? Are there times when conflicts are most likely to occur? Are there simple changes we can make to prevent these conflicts from occurring? What methods do we use to help children resolve their conflicts? Comments Rating 2. Staff give attention to children when they cooperate, share, care for materials, or join in 0123 activities. Staff often show appreciation and encouragement. · They avoid using insincere praise and threats to control children's behavior. Staff teach children how to communicate and cooperate. Staff celebrate children's efforts and progress. b. Staff set appropriate limits for children. 0123 · Staff set limits to prevent children from hurting each other physically or verbally. If children tease, scapegoat, threaten, or exclude others, staff step in. Staff avoid setting unrealistic limits, such as expecting children to be quier most of the day. Staff take steps to ensure that each child understands the limits that are set. c. Staff use no harsh discipline methods. 0123 · Staff do not shame, yell, hit, or withhold food. The whole group is not scolded or punished when one child breaks a rule. Staff avoid correcting children publicly. Staff do not force children to explain their behavior or apologize. d. Staff encourage children to resolve their own 0123 conflicts. Staff step in only if needed to discuss the issues and work out a solution. Staff listen and observe carefully. Staff use negotiation, reasoning, and redirection to help children find alternatives. · Staff do not impose their solutions on children. Staff rarely lecture children. Staff help children express their feelings. Staff help children understand how their behavior affects others. Staff teach children specific skills to work through conflicts (e.g., circle time, peace table, or conflictresolution skills). 0 = not at all 1 = sometimes 2 = most of the time 3 = all of the time Total, a-d:

Appendix E

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Please must the number that least describes your feelings about the statement.		 				200		3.17	£25-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-5-	To Cat	4253			1.00					
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	the last describes your resings about the statement.
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Child and Youth Questionnaire

We are looking at our program to learn what is good and what could be better. We want to use your ideas to make the program bener

Please take the time to answer these questions. There are no right of wrong answers. We just want to know what you think about the program. Please CIRCLE the word that cells how you feel. You can tell us more about your ideas at the end.

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Thank you.

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I. How old are you?		15-9	010	-14	
$Q_{i,j,j}$, $d_{i,j}$, $d_{i,j}$	-		ordietati) Shekker	<u>.</u>	For ASQ Team
2. Do you think the adults here like you?		Once in a while	Mast of the time	Always	à
3. Do the adults here listen to you?	Never	Once in a while	Mast of the time	Aiways	en ; #2
 If you have a problem will an adult here help you? 	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Always	12, 13
5. Are the adults here fair to everyone?	Never	Once in a while	Most of	Always	.#2, #5
6. Are the adults here friendly with everyone?	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Ahways	
7. Are the other children fair?	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Aiways	
8. Do you have friends here?	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Always	46
 Do staff listen to what you want to do and help to make it happen? (For example, do staff ask you what activities you want to do and then bring materials.) 	Never	Orice in a while	Most of the time	Always	83,814,928
10. Are there enough things to use here so that. everyone gets a turn?	Hever	Once in a while	Most of the time	Always	#15
II. Can you find your own things here?	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Always	1
2. Do you like the food here?	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Always	#20
13. Do you get enough to cat here?	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Always	#20
4. Can you rest or relax here when you need to	Never	a while	Most of the time	Always	#10, #12
5. Can you go to the bathroom and get a drink when you need to?	Never	Once in a while	Most of the time	Always	#12
	Never	Once in	Mast of	Always	
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For ASQ Team 82, 09, 614 20. Do you have time to play and work spart from the younger children? Always Always 0 ni she Most of 12. 14. 122 21. Do staff treat you your age? the time 13, 112, 128 Most of Always Once in 22. Do you have time to do your favorite activithe time ties and hobbies 125 Most of Ahnavs Once in 23. Do vou have chances to do things outside the the time a while program (for example: field trips, special lessons, volunteer in the community?) Most of Once in Alweys #13, #28 . . 24. Are there exciting activities to choose from: a while the time Alwiave Once in Most of 25. Do you have time and some help to do your the time 24 . i, homework if you want to? Comments:

These are questions just for youth ages 10 and older to answer:

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