Report to the DC Children and Youth Investment Trust Corporation

Logic Models and Outcomes for

Youth in the Transition to Adulthood

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Executive Summary

The primary purpose of this report is to provide logic models and measurable outcomes for youth in transition to adulthood programs funded by the DC Children and Youth Investment Trust Corporation (DCCYIT). In addition, the report describes the factors associated with the emergence of the life cycle stage considered the transition to adulthood, the developmental domains associated with this stage, and the contexts shaping the transition to adulthood. We also describe the *outcomes* that are most likely to be affected by experimental intervention programs that serve young adults. This theoretical review provides a basis for the creation of logic models and the identification of outcomes for programs serving youth in the transition to adulthood that can be tracked and monitored over time by the DC Trust. The proposed outcomes cover a range of domains. This report can be used as a tool by individual programs to determine which outcomes and measures are most pertinent. Logic models are created using the framework and terminology developed by the United Way Foundation of America.¹

We recommend that funders and practitioners embrace modest expectations for some of these program outcomes; no single program strategy can accomplish all of the outcomes that these programs have been implemented to address. Also, though progress made can be substantial over the long-term, expectations should be tempered regarding immediate change for any one outcome. We urge programs to track appropriate outcomes in order to assess program effectiveness. This process should help to improve program quality, as program providers consider whether desired outcomes are being achieved. The outcomes identified here are not exhaustive, and they can be measured in many ways. A large part of the decision regarding which outcomes are monitored will depend on the costs associated with various alternatives.

Transition to Adulthood Programs

The eighteen transition to adulthood programs funded by the DCCYIT have varying degrees of activities, but all provide a variety of career, vocational and personal development experiences for youth between the ages of 14 and 25. Although many of the programs target specific demographic groups (e.g., disabled youth, re-entry of previously incarcerated youth, high school dropouts, and low-income youth), these programs share at their core the desire to prepare youth for productive adulthood. The transition to adulthood programs provide opportunities and supports that help participants gain the competencies and knowledge needed to make a successful transition to adulthood. Programs focus on college preparation, pregnancy prevention, healthy behaviors, vocational preparation, leadership/life skills, and college preparation. In addition to providing youth with the tools and skills needed to find gainful employment, many of the programs have the goal of empowering youth by enabling them to provide needed goods and services to the distressed, underserved neighborhoods in which they live.

¹ United Way of America (1996). <u>Measuring Program Outcomes: A Practical Approach</u>. Alexandria, VA: United Way of America Press. See glossary of outcome measurement terms for details.



Multiple outcomes for transition to adulthood programs are suggested for use by the DC Trust for performance tracking. Initial outcomes focus primarily on changes in participants' knowledge and attitudes. Intermediate and longer-term outcomes are related to new skills acquired and positive behaviors.

Initial outcomes for participants in transition to adulthood programs are expected to include changes in knowledge and attitudes with regard to the following:

- Educational achievement and attainment;
- Work and Self-sufficiency;
- Family Formation;
- Civic Engagement;
- Health and Safety;
- Risky Behaviors; and
- Improved Social and Emotional Development.

Intermediate/longer-term outcomes for participants in transition to adulthood programs include:

- Work/Self Sufficiency
 - o Gainful Employment
 - Earns living wage
 - Absence of poverty
 - Safe and independent housing
- Schooling/Educational and Cognitive Attainment
- Family Formation
 - Reduced non-marital childbearing
- Health and Safety
 - o Absence of use of alcohol, tobacco and other illicit drugs
 - o Improved reproductive health (absence of risky sexual behaviors)
 - Improved overall health
- Risky Behaviors
 - o Reductions in risky, violent and criminal behaviors
 - o Absence of violent death and gang activity
- Social and Emotional Development
 - o Autonomy, responsibility, and competence
 - o Planfulness
 - Moral character
 - o Strong self-regulation skills



- \circ $\;$ Self esteem, self confidence and overall subjective well-being
- o Positive relationships with caring adults
- Civic Engagement
 - Volunteering and community involvement

We have selected these outcomes based on prior research, theory, and a review of the goals of programs funded by the DC Trust.



Glossary of Outcome Measurement Terms²

Inputs are resources that are dedicated to or consumed by programs. Examples include facilities, staff time, volunteer time, money, and supplies. Inputs also include constraints such as laws and regulations.

Activities are what the program actually does, using inputs, in order to fulfill its mission, for example, providing classes for young adults in order to disseminate knowledge/information about job preparation skills, or providing HIV/AIDS prevention workshops for young adults.

Outputs are the direct products of program activities. They are usually measured by the amount of work accomplished, for example, the number of job readiness classes taught or the number of young adults who participated in vocational activities.

Outcomes are measures of the status or benefits for the people served by the program during or after participation. Outcomes include changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, or behavior, and can be divided into three categories:

Initial outcomes are the first changes for participants, and are expected to be closely influenced by the program. Initial outcomes are often changes in knowledge, attitudes, or skills. For example, an initial outcome for young adults who participate in an entrepreneurship class might be an increase in knowledge about the requirements for the establishment of a new business.

Intermediate outcomes are the step between initial outcomes and longer-term outcomes. They can be changes in behavior that result from the acquisition of new knowledge and skills. To follow from the previous example, an intermediate outcome might be that youth are getting jobs or establishing their own businesses.

Longer-term outcomes are the ultimate outcomes a program wants to achieve. They can be changes in participants' condition or status. For example, if an intermediate outcome is that young adults are beginning to be self sufficient, a longer-term outcome might be that youth are steadily employed, have a sense of mastery and self-reliance, and are economically independent.

Indicators are measures that are used to help a program know whether the desired level of inputs, activities, outputs, and outcomes are being achieved. They are observable, measurable changes, and they must be unambiguous. For example, terms such as "adequate" and "substantial" (i.e., "participants show substantial improvement") are not specific enough, but finding a change in the *number* and *percent* of participants achieving an outcome is specific and measurable.

² United Way of America (1996). *Measuring Program Outcomes: A Practical Approach*. Alexandria, VA: United Way of America Press.



SECTION ONE YOUTH IN THE TRANSITION TO ADULTHOOD

INTRODUCTION

This report provides logic models and outcomes for programs that serve youth in the transition to adulthood. It describes the factors associated with the emergence of the life cycle stage described as the transition to adulthood, the developmental domains associated with this stage, and the contexts shaping the transition to adulthood. We also describe the *outcomes* that are most likely to be affected by experimental intervention programs that serve young adults. This theoretical review provides a basis for the identification of outcomes for programs serving youth in the transition to adulthood that can be tracked and monitored over time by the DC Children and Youth Investment Trust Corporation (DCCYIT). This discussion builds on previous work conducted by Child Trends for the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation³, the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation⁴, and the William Penn Foundation⁵, and the support of these Foundations is gratefully acknowledged.

BACKGROUND

The period labeled the transition to adulthood is the period during which youth typically focus on the transition from schooling to the workforce, family formation, and the establishment of independent households. Youth in the transition to adulthood are considered to range in age from approximately age 18 through the mid-twenties or older.⁶ Emerging adulthood covers the third decade of life and is often characterized as a life stage of quasi-independence, during which youth assume some adult roles and responsibilities but are dependent on their parents or other adults for housing or other forms of financial assistance.

The eighteen transition to adulthood programs funded by the DCCYIT have varying types of activities, but all provide a variety of career, vocational and personal development experiences for youth between the ages of 14 and 25. Although many of the programs target specific demographic groups (e.g., disabled youth, re-entry of previously incarcerated youth, high school dropouts, and low-income youth), these programs all focus on preparing youth for productive adulthood. DCCYIT transition to adulthood programs provide opportunities and supports that help participants gain the competencies and knowledge needed to make a successful transition to adulthood. Programs focus on college preparation, pregnancy

⁶ Arnett, J. J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. American Psychologist, 55(5), 469-480.



³ Hair, E. C., Moore, K. A., Hunter, D., & Kaye, J. W. (2001). Youth Outcomes Compendium. Washington, D.C.: Child Trends and the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.

⁴ Brown, B., Moore, K., & Bzostek, S. (2003). A portrait of well-being in early adulthood: A report to the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation. Retrieved February 22, 2005 from http://www.hewlett.org/NR/rdonlyres/B0DB0AF1-02A4-455A-849A-AD582B767AF3/0/FINALCOMPLETEPDF.pdf.; Brown, B. (2003). Contemplating a state-level report featuring indicators of early adult well-being: Some theoretical and practical considerations. Washington, DC: Child Trends.

⁵ Brown, B., Moore, K., & Bzostek, S. (2003).

prevention, healthy behaviors, vocational preparation, leadership/life skills, college preparation and healthy behaviors. In addition to providing youth with the tools and skills needed to find gainful employment, many of the programs have the goal of empowering youth by enabling them to provide needed goods and services to the disadvantaged neighborhoods in which they live. Detailed summaries of these programs are provided in **Table 1** (see pp. 26-30).

The Transition to Adulthood: Factors Associated with Its Emergence as a Life Cycle Stage

The emergence of young adulthood as a life cycle stage⁷ is the result of multiple influences including changes in schooling, work patterns and family formation patterns.^{8,9} A rich research literature is developing, based on studies of development over time that take into account the many interacting factors that influence this life cycle stage.

• <u>Changes in schooling and work patterns</u>. There have been large increases in the number of youth who pursue a post-high school education. For example, the percentage of youth ages 25 to 29 who earned a Bachelor's degree increased from 17 percent in 1971 to 28 percent in 2003, and the number of youth who completed at least some college increased from 34 percent to 57 percent during the same time period. This increase in educational attainment has been especially prominent among females, Hispanics, and non-Hispanic blacks.¹⁰ Many jobs require advanced education and those that do not often do not pay enough to support a family. The time spent in college and graduate-level schooling have elongated the total period of time youth spend receiving an education, thus prolonging the transition into self-sufficient adulthood.¹¹ Additionally, youth who do not choose to pursue education beyond the high school years are faced with few employment opportunities that would allow them to earn an income on which they could comfortably raise a family and live independently. Even after years of work, these youth may not be able to earn a comfortable income, further prolonging this period of quasi-independence.^{12,13}

<u>Changes in family formation patterns</u>. Current trends indicate that youth spend more time living

¹³ Furstenberg, F. F., Rumbaut, R. G., & Settersten, R. A. (in press).



⁷ Brown, B. (2003). *Contemplating a state-level report featuring indicators of early adult well-being: Some theoretical and practical considerations*. Washington, DC: Child Trends.

⁸ Brown, B. (2003).

⁹ Furstenberg, F. F., Rumbaut, R. G., & Settersten, R. A. (in press). On the frontier of adulthood: Emerging themes and new directions. In R. A. Settersten, F. F. Furstenberg, & R. G. Rumbaut (Eds.), *On the frontier of adulthood: Theory, research, and public policy.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

¹⁰ Child Trends. (2003). *Educational Attainment*. Child Trends DataBank. Retrieved March 9, 2005, from http://revised.childtrendsdatabank.org/indicators/6EducationalAttainment.cfm.

¹¹ Goldscheider, F. & Goldscheider, C. (1999). *The changing transition to adulthood: Leaving and returning home*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

¹² Brown, B. (2003).

with their families of origin.^{14,15} Rather than establishing independent households immediately following high school, youth often go on to college, after which many return home to their parents' households. The elongation of schooling, delays of entry into the workforce, and delays in the establishment of independent living situations are associated with later entry into marriage and childbearing. Similarly, nontraditional family formation practices also increased in recent decades, with more youth becoming single parents and forming cohabitating unions rather than entering into marriage.¹⁶

Expanding male prison populations. Recent data indicate that there has been a considerable increase in the percentage of young males, particularly young black males, who are imprisoned during early adulthood.¹⁷ Post release, youth bear a criminal record that presents significant obstacles to achieving success in both the workforce and in marriage.^{18,19} The prison population of males between ages 20 and 24 increased by more than 17 percent between 1999 and 2003²⁰ and 3.3 percent of all males between those ages were estimated to be imprisoned in 2003.²¹ These rising numbers of imprisoned young men also affects the supply of marriageable men in those populations hardest hit. More than 11 percent of all black males between the ages of 20 and 24 were imprisoned in 2003.²² Expanding prison populations have negative implications for young adults' success with respect to family formation and employment opportunities, elongating the successful transition to adulthood.²³ In addition, this reduces marriage prospects during the young adult years.

Contexts shaping the transition to adulthood

The transition to adulthood is a complex process.²⁴ The societal and contextual factors that influence vouth in the transition to adulthood include family, peer, and community contexts that shape the development of young adults, as well as separate societal contexts such as the legal system, government services and

²⁴ Child and youth development research usually focuses around a social ecological model of development, which was first developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979) and which describes three critical principles. The first principle states that individual human development is shaped by both personal and genetic factors and by social context. Second, factors that are socially more proximal play larger roles in shaping development. Thus, for children and youth, the family plays the largest role in shaping one's development, followed by peers and the local community, and finally society. The last principle states that as development progresses into the later stages, the influence of peers, community, and society increasingly augment and partially replace the influence of the family. See Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). Is early intervention effective? A report on longitudinal evaluations of preschool programs (Vol. 2). (1974). Washington, DC: Department of HEW, Office of Child Development.



¹⁴ Brown, B. (2003).

¹⁵ Furstenberg, F. F., Rumbaut, R. G., & Settersten, R. A. (in press).

¹⁶ Child Trends. Percentage of births to unmarried women. Child Trends DataBank, retrieved February 22, 2005 from http://www.childtrendsdatabank.org/indicators/75UnmarriedBirths.cfm.

¹⁷ Child Trends. Young adults in jail or prison. Child Trends DataBank, Retrieved February 22, 2005 from www.childtrendsdatabank.org

¹⁸ Western, B. (2002). The impact of incarceration on wage mobility and inequality. *American Sociological Review,* 67, 526-546.

 ¹⁹ Holzer, H., Offner, P., & Sorensen, E. (2004). *Declining employment among young black less-educated men: The role of incarceration and child support*. Unpublished paper. Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.
 ²⁰ Child Trends. Young adults in jail or prison. Child Trends DataBank, Retrieved February 22, 2005 from www.childtrendsdatabank.org

²¹ Brown, B. (2003).

²² Child Trends. Young adults in jail or prison. Child Trends DataBank, Retrieved February 22, 2005 from www.childtrendsdatabank.org

²³ Western, B. (2002). The impact of incarceration on wage mobility and inequality. American Sociological Review, 67, 526-546.

supports, and the job market. Figure 1 (pp. 31) provides a model of the contexts shaping the transition to adulthood.

• Family. Research indicates that the family context plays a pivotal role in the development of young adults during the transition to adulthood.^{25,26} Families provide youth with financial support and social capital connections (e.g., to jobs, schooling) as they transition into adulthood. Young adults who are raised in families with fewer resources (e.g., poor families, single-parent families, or families with little education) tend to have more difficulty successfully transitioning into adulthood than youth whose families are able to provide them with more resources.²⁷ High quality parent-child relationships and levels of family support have also been linked to positive adolescent development; however, less research has been conducted on this relationship for young adults.²⁸

Peers. Prior research suggests that peer influences are critical to adolescent development.²⁹ and though less research has been conducted on the influence of peers on young adult development, it is reasonable to assume that peer influences continue to remain high during this life cycle stage. During adolescence, peers influence both negative behaviors (e.g., delinquency, substance use, and risky sexual behaviors) as well as positive behaviors (e.g., academic achievement).³⁰ During the transition to adulthood, these peer influences may become more pronounced as youth establish autonomy in their personal, financial, and residential lives.³¹ As youth become adults, peers are likely to play a role in a variety of decisions, as they become a source of social connections, jobs, emotional support, and romantic and marital partners.32

Community. Communities can affect youth development through the presence of resources (extreme poverty versus affluence), local culture (positive or dysfunctional), residential instability, social isolation, safety, institutional supports, and collective efficacy.³³ Research indicates that the character of local communities is related to adult outcomes such as school achievement, labor market success, fertility

³³ See Sampson, R., Raudenbush, S., & Earls, F. (1997). Neighborhoods and violent crime: A multilevel study in collective efficacy. Science, 277, 918-924. http://www.wjh.harvard.edu/soc/faculty/sampson/1997.4.pdf.



²⁵ Eccles, J., & Gootman, J. A. (Eds., 2002). Community programs to promote youth development (Ch. 2). Committee on communitylevel programs for youth. Board on Children, Youth, and Families, Commission on Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

²⁶ Brown, B. (2003).

²⁷ Schoeni, R., & Ross, K. (in press). Material assistance received from families during the transition to adulthood. In R. Settersten, F. Furstenberg, & R. Rumbaut (Eds.), On the frontier of adulthood: Theory, research, and public policy. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

 ²⁸ Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999). Who are America's disconnected youth?, In D. Besharov & K. Gardiner (Eds.), *America's disconnected youth: Toward a preventive strategy*. Washington, DC: Child Welfare League.
 ²⁹ Eccles, J., & Gootman, J. A. (Eds., 2002).

³⁰ Brown, B.B. (1990). Schools and the Adolescent (Ch. 8). In Feldman, S.S. & Elliott, G.R. At The Threshold: The Developing Adolescent. Cambridge, Massachusetts. Harvard University Press.

³¹ Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999).

³² Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999).

behaviors, and participation in illegal activities.³⁴ However, much of this research has focused on neighborhoods suffering from extreme poverty and other disadvantages, and it is unclear how additional local-level characteristics affect the transition to adulthood.³⁵

Legal system. The legal system plays a crucial role in shaping the development of young adults • since the majority of legal transitions occur during young adulthood.³⁶ During these years, the legal system determines milestones such as legal access to a variety of activities. Youth in the transition to adulthood gain many legal rights between the ages of 18 and 21, such as driving privileges, voting, entering the military, consuming alcohol and tobacco, entering a marriage, and signing contracts. Many legal restrictions are also lifted during the transition to adulthood. For example, youth can decide against attending school for the first time at age 16 and cannot be forced to live with their parents or guardians after age 18. The legal system is also responsible for many youth who fail to make a successful transition into adulthood, by determining prison and jail sentences. For example, beginning at age 18, young people are tried as adults within the court system, although there are cases in which younger youth are remanded to adult court.³⁷

Government services and supports. Government services and supports provide critical assistance to • youth such as programs supporting post-secondary education and programs that provide assistance to young people who are having difficulty transitioning to adulthood on their own. For example, some government job training programs are aimed at providing disadvantaged youth with opportunities to succeed in the workforce. Some assist youth in obtaining a GED or high school diploma. The government also provides support through needs-based programs.³⁸ For example, in 2001, approximately 7 percent of young people between the ages of 24 and 26 lived in households that received food stamps and approximately 3 percent received welfare benefits. The equivalent numbers among youth without a high school diploma were 17 percent receiving food stamps and 7 percent on welfare.³⁹

Job market. The economy and the job market determine the amount and types of opportunities that are available to youth as they seek to enter the work force and establish financial independence. The job market has increasingly demanded a workforce with a post-secondary education, placing additional burdens on youth without a college-level education or significant job experience. This significantly influences young adults' abilities to establish financial independence and support an independent household.⁴⁰



Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999).

³⁵ Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999). ³⁶ Brown, B. (2003).

³⁷ Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999).

³⁸ Brown, B., Moore, K., & Bzostek, S. (2003). ³⁹ Brown, B., Moore, K., & Bzostek, S. (2003).

⁴⁰ Brown, B. (2003).

Developmental Domains Associated with the Transition to Adulthood

Many studies have examined the developmental domains associated with the transition to adulthood.⁴¹ Here we focus on ten developmental domains, specifically self-sufficiency, household and family formation, health-related behaviors and conditions, schooling and work, educational expectations, job-readiness, entrepreneurial skills, civic engagement, social and emotional development, and social relationships. Some domains indicate specific characteristics associated with adulthood (e.g., self-sufficiency, family formation, and workforce participation). Other domains (e.g., socio-emotional development and health) are important across age groups, but the developmental characteristics that are assessed are specific to emerging adulthood. While there is no single or normative pathway through which these developmental domains may be achieved, the successful negotiation of multiple domains is often associated with an optimal foundation for development during adulthood.⁴² Regrettably, there has been little research focusing on the experience of young adults in achieving these developmental domains, and much of the research that has been conducted has focused on youth's failures to attain successful adult characteristics (e.g., early family formation and other risky behaviors).

• <u>Self-sufficiency</u>. Financial independence is a key defining characteristic of adulthood. ⁴³ During the transition to adulthood, youth are expected to move toward complete financial independence and self-sufficiency, although they have not yet completely attained this state of total independence. The move toward self-sufficiency entails some combination of work and schooling and youth who are not engaged in either of these activities are often referred to as "disconnected".⁴⁴ Long periods of disconnection have been found to be associated with financial and personal obstacles that continue into adulthood. Financial dependence on one's family of origin during this transition period is common and often desirable when it allows youth to increase their long-term marketability. On the other hand, financial dependence on government assistance programs rather than one's family is considered undesirable and may result in hardship during the transition to adulthood.

• <u>Household and family formation</u>. Another transition associated with adulthood is the formation of a household and a family through marriage and/or childbearing. Family formation is not necessarily a positive attainment for youth between the ages of 18 and 24, specifically for youth in the younger part of this age range. Recent trends indicate that increased numbers of youth are postponing these transitions. In 2003, the

⁴⁴ Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999).



⁴¹ Fussell, E., & Furstenberg, F. (in press). The transition to adulthood during the 20th Century: Differences by race, nativity and gender. In R.A. Settersten, F. F. Furstenberg, & R. G. Rumbaut (Eds.), *On the frontier of adulthood: Theory, research, and public policy* (Ch. 2) Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
 ⁴² Goldscheider & Goldscheider (in press)

⁴³ Brown, B. (2003).

median age at first marriage was 25 for women and 27 for men.⁴⁵ The formation of households independent of one's parents has also undergone societal shifts in recent decades, with fewer youth immediately establishing families during these years. Instead, many youth enter into living situations in which they remain in their parents' homes, maintain single households, or live with roommates. Data indicate that by the midtwenties, 27 percent of males and 19 percent of females in the United States form their own households, independent of their family of origin.⁴⁶

• <u>Health-related behaviors and conditions</u>. Youth in the transition to adulthood, as a group, experience higher rates of risky behavior than do adolescents (e.g., binge drinking, illicit drug use, and tobacco use).⁴⁷ During these ages youth gain legal access to both tobacco and alcohol and many live without parental supervision and support. Homicide and suicide rates are 50 percent higher among youth ages 18-24 than for adolescents.⁴⁸ Motor vehicle death rates are highest for 18 year olds, but they remain high among youth in their early twenties.⁴⁹ Approximately one in 10 youth between 18 and 25 report having serious mental health problems,⁵⁰ and rates of obesity and overweight have risen dramatically, with a higher prevalence reported for youth in the transition to adulthood than among adolescents.⁵¹ Disability is another health factor that can significantly affect youth in the transition to adulthood. The presence of a disability can create barriers to schooling, work, or other activities that contribute to the attainment of independence. In 2003, approximately five percent of young adults reported limitations due to physical, mental, or emotional disabilities.⁵²

• <u>Schooling and work</u>. While some youth focus on acquiring additional education immediately after high school, many young adults experience a period in which they participate in a combination of both work and schooling, while others choose to return to school after spending some time in the labor force. An increased demand for workers with an advanced education has affected the way in which youth transition out of school and into the workforce. Entry into full-time work has become delayed as more youth pursue post-

⁵² Freid, V. M., Prager, K., MacKay, A.P., & Xia, H. (2003). Chartbook on trends in the health of Americans. Health, United States, 2003. Table 56. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved February 22, 2005 from <u>http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/hus/tables/2003/03hus056.pdf</u>



⁴⁵ U.S. Bureau of the Census. (2004, Sept.). *Table MS-2: Estimated Median Age at First Marriage, by Sex: 1890 to Present*. Retrieved March 9, 2005, from <u>http://www.census.gov/population/socdemo/hh-fam/tabMS-2.pdf</u>.

⁴⁶ Brown, B., & Corbett, C. (2003). Social indicators as tools of public policy. In R. Weissberg, H. Walberg, M. O'Brien, & C. Kuster (Eds.), *Long-term trends in the well-being of children and youth*. Washington, DC: CWLA Press.

⁴⁷ U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2002). *Results from the 2001 National Survey of Drug Abuse and Health*. Retrieved February 22, 2005 from http://www.samsha.gov/oas/nhsda/2k1nhsda/vol1/toc.htm#v1

⁴⁸ Anderson, R., & Smith, B. (2004). Deaths: Leading Causes for 2001. Table 1. NVSS Statistical Reports, Vol. 52(9). http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr50_16.pdf

⁴⁹ Child Trends. Motor Vehicle Deaths (Figure 3). Child Trends DataBank, Retrieved February 22, 2005 from www.childtrendsdatabank.org

⁵⁰ U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2004). *Results from the 2003 National Survey of Drug Abuse and Health: Detailed Tables* (Table 6.1B). Retrieved February 22, 2005 from http://oas.samhsa.gov/nhsda/2k3tabs/PDF/2k3TabsCover.pdf

⁵¹ National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion. (2004). Behavioral risk factor surveillance system: Trends data on overweight and obesity. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Available online at http://apps.nccd.cdc.gov/brfss/Trends/TrendsData.asp

secondary education. Many do not fully enter the labor force until their mid-twenties or later.⁵³ Fewer job opportunities, particularly those that pay enough to support a household and a family, are available to youth who choose not to pursue an education beyond the high school level. Young adults with low levels of education or skills training are more likely to live in poverty and to rely on government assistance programs than their better-educated peers.⁵⁴ These trends have modified a common pattern of moving directly from school into the work force during the early adult years. Instead, schooling is often prolonged and full-time entry into the workforce delayed. During the transition to adulthood, youth are considered to be "disconnected" ⁵⁵ when they participate neither in the workforce nor in formal education for prolonged periods of time. These "disconnected" youth often have a difficult time achieving independence later in adulthood.⁵⁶

Educational expectations. In some studies, participation in employment-based transition to • adulthood programs has been found to be associated with educational expectations. In one study, youth participating in the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects had a higher percentage than those in a comparison group reporting that they expected to finish high school. However, the same proportion of youth in comparison and program groups reported that they expected to attend a post-secondary institution.⁵⁷ Evidence from New York City's Career Magnet Schools,⁵⁸ for example, indicates that job-readiness programs provide youth with a career focus and improve their achievement in core subjects including reading and math.⁵⁹ Similar evidence of improved academic performance has been found in other school-based programs.60

Job-readiness. Research findings concerning work and practical skills indicate that young adults may learn practical skills and work habits from vocational programs as well as from exposure to work. These are skills that are not usually acquired in schools, and include the development of interpersonal competencies- a stronger sense of personal responsibility, learning how to deal with customers, how to get along with co-workers, how to follow directions-and knowledge of the world of work, such as being able to

⁶⁰ Elliot, M.N., Hanser, L.M., & Gilroy, C.L. (2000). Evidence of positive student outcomes in JROTC career academies. Santa Monica, CA: RAND; Hughes, K., Baily, & Mechur, M.J. (2001). School-to-work: Making a difference in education. New York: Institute on Education and the Economy, Teacher's College, Columbia University.



⁵³ Child Trends. *Educational Attainment*. Child Trends Data Bank, Retrieved February 22, 2005 from www.childtrendsdatabank.org/indicators/6EducationalAttainment.cfm

⁵⁴ Biosjoly, J., Harris, K., & Duncan, G. (1998). Initial welfare spells: Trends, events, and duration. Social Service Review, 72(4), 466-494.

⁵⁵ Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999).

⁵⁶ Brown, B. V., & Emig, C. (1999).

⁵⁷ Farkas, G., Sit, D., Stromsdorfer, E., Trask, G., & Jerret, R. (1982). Impacts from the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects: Participation, work, and schooling over the full program period. New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation; Farkas, G., Olsen, R., Stromsdorfer, E., Sharpe, L., Skidmore, F., Smith, D., & Merrill, S. (1984). Post-program impacts of the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects. New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.

⁵⁸ Crain, R. Heebner, A. & Si, Y.P. (1992, April). The Effectiveness of New York City's career magnet schools: An evaluation of ninth *grade performance using an experimental design*. Berkeley, CA: National Center for Research in Vocational Education. ⁵⁹ Jobs for the Future. (1995). *Promising Practices. A Study of ten school-to career programs*. Cambridge, MA: Author.

find a job.⁶¹ Findings concerning work and money management are mixed. Although some studies have shown that exposure to work may help speed the development of knowledge about money management and personal finances,⁶² in some cases, such wages may be spent on drugs and alcohol.⁶³

Entrepreneurial skills. Some studies indicate that entrepreneurial training among older youth can ٠ change the psychological tendencies and propensities associated with business ownership.⁶⁴ Young adults' participation in entrepreneurial training has been found to be associated with a significantly higher motivation to achieve, a higher sense of personal control, a higher self-esteem, more innovation, more personal control and higher achievement motivation. Studies have also shown that actually starting a business as well as experiencing entrepreneurial education is associated with increased creativity in students.⁶⁵

• Civic engagement. Civic engagement among youth in the transition to adulthood includes activities such as voting and community service. In the U.S., youth gain the right to vote at age 18, yet only 36 percent of young adults ages 18-24 exercised that right in the 2000 elections and only 50 percent were registered to vote.⁶⁶ Young adults are more likely to report being involved than either older adults or adolescents in community volunteering,⁶⁷ yet youth between the ages of 15 and 25 are less likely overall to belong to community groups and organizations, compared to older adults.⁶⁸ Among youth who are involved, most belong to sports-related or youth organizations (51 percent), compared to charitable organizations (38 percent), social/political groups (19 percent), and professional organizations (18 percent).⁶⁹

 Social and emotional development. In early adulthood, social development involves the emergence of characteristics such as autonomy, responsibility, the ability to plan, self-regulation, and moral development.⁷⁰ There is an expectation that mature social development will be achieved during early adulthood and this is reflected in the fact that the legal system grants citizens many adult rights at age 18.

⁷⁰ Eccles, J., & Gootman, J. A. (Eds., 2002).



⁶¹ Steinberg, L. & Cauffman, E. (1995). The impact of employment on adolescent development. Annals of Child Development , 11, 131-166.

⁶² Schulenberg, J., O'Malley, P. M., Bachman, J. G., & Johnston, L. D. (in press). Early adult transitions and their relation to well-being and substance use. In R.A. Settersten, F. F. Furstenberg, & R. G. Rumbaut (Eds.), On the frontier of adulthood: Theory, research, and public policy (Ch. 13). Chicago: University of Chicago Press. ⁶³ Greenberg, E. & Steinberg, L. (1986). When teenagers work: The psychological and social costs of adolescent employment. New

York: Basic Books.

⁶⁴ Rasheed, H.S. (2000). The effects of entrepreneurial training and venture creation on youth entrepreneurial attitudes and academic performance. University of South Florida, FL: College of Business Administration.

⁶⁵ Walstad, W.B. & Kourilsky, M.L. (1996). The findings from a national survey of entrepreneurship and small business. Journal of Private Enterprise, 11(2), 21-32.

⁶⁶ Jameson, A., Shin, H., & Day, J. (2002). Voting and registration in the election of November 2000. U.S. Census Bureau. P20-542. Retrieved February 22, 2005 from www.census.gov/population/www/socdemo/voting.html

⁶⁷ Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, University of Maryland. Youth volunteering Quick Facts, Retrieved February 22, 2005 from <u>http://www.civicyouth.org/quick/volunteer.htm</u> ⁶⁸ Comber, M. K. (2003). *Group membership and group involvement among young people*. Center for Information and Research on

Civic Learning and Engagement, University of Maryland. Retrieved February 22, 2005, from www.civicyouth.org/PopUps/Fact%20Sheet%20Group%20Membership.pdf ⁶⁹ Comber, M. K. (2003).

Research indicates that the development of these characteristics is important for future well-being, but most research has focused on adolescents and is correlational and short-term.⁷¹ Some studies have found an association between the performance of work place tasks in cooperation with adults and a higher sense of contribution, being "grown up" and egalitarianism.⁷² Other studies have found that program participation is associated with enhanced social psychological development (self-esteem, ego development and self-efficacy).

Recent research focusing on human brain development has provided some evidence to suggest that social and emotional development is not complete during young adulthood. Studies conducted by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) and UCLA's Laboratory of Neuro Imaging have found that the dorsal lateral prefrontal cortex of the human brain is not fully developed until approximately age 25.⁷³ The prefrontal cortex region of the brain is responsible for higher thought processes such as judgment, impulse control, planning, self-monitoring, problem solving, critical thinking, attention span, learning from experience, empathy, internal regulation, and the ability to feel and express emotions.⁷⁴ Thus, young people under age 25 are faced with making life choices (e.g., career, education, marriage, parenthood) before they gain the physiological maturity that aids adult decision-making. Accordingly, the transition to adulthood is a time in which youth may act impulsively or take risks older adults may tend to avoid. This research further suggests that this impulsiveness and risk-taking behavior is heightened when youth are in the presence of peers, suggesting that peer pressure plays a role in how young adults may make decisions.⁷⁵

Social relationships. Little research has examined the effects of program participation on social relationships for youth and young adults. Some studies that have examined this relationship have focused on work readiness skills and have found an association between working long hours and increased distance and diminished emotional closeness between youth and their parents.⁷⁶ However, it is difficult to determine whether these findings signify that older adolescents and young adults who seek autonomy tend to self-select into jobs that require long working hours, or if working long hours, especially in settings where young

⁷⁶ Manning, W.D. (1990). Parenting employed teenagers. Youth and Society, 22, 184-200.



⁷¹ Bridges, L., & Moore, K. A. (2002). *Religious involvement and children's well-being: What research tells us (and what it doesn't)*. Washington, DC: Child Trends. www.childtrends.org/Files/ReligiosityRB.pdf

⁷² Mortimer, J.T., Finch, M.D., Ryu, S., Shanahan, M.J., & Call, K.T. (1996). The effects of work intensity on adolescent mental health, achievement and behavioral adjustment: New evidence from a prospective study. *Child Development*, *6*7(3), 1243-1261.

⁷³ Giedd, J. N. (2004). Structural magnetic resonance of the adolescent brain. Annals of the New York Academy of Science, 1021, 77-85.; Williamson, E. (2005, Feb.). Teens' risk-taking all in their heads? NIH study: Part of brain that inhibits risky behavior isn't fully formed until age 25. The Washington Post. Available online at <u>http://www.bridges4kids.org/articles/2-05/Post2-1-05.html</u> (accessed April 4 2005).

 ⁷⁴ Brain function and physiology. Available online at <u>www.brainplace.com/bp/brainsystem/prefrontal.asp</u> (accessed April 4, 2005).
 ⁷⁵ Williamson, E. (2005, Feb.). *Teens' risk-taking all in their heads? NIH study: Part of brain that inhibits risky behavior isn't fully formed until age 25.* The Washington Post. Available online at <u>http://www.bridges4kids.org/articles/2-05/Post2-1-05.html</u> (accessed April 4, 2005).

people are working mostly with adults, actually leads to premature independence and decreased parental control.⁷⁷

<u>What</u> are the needs of young adults and what resources can be provided to achieve desired outcomes?

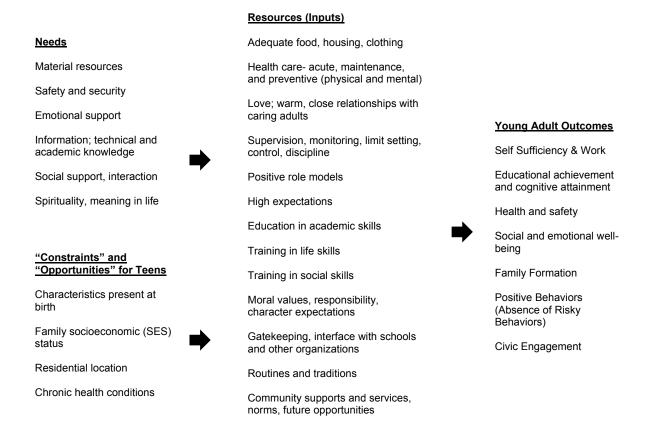
Support systems are essential during the transition to adulthood if young adults are to become selfdetermined and self-sufficient. **Figure 2** provides a model of youth development that sets forth the needs of all young adults, and the resources provided by adults to achieve these desired outcomes. The figure identifies the resources and building blocks of healthy development that help young adults grow up to be healthy self-sufficient and responsible. This model of young adulthood builds on previous work conducted by Child Trends for the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation,⁷⁸ and the Foundation's support is gratefully acknowledged.

⁷⁸ Hair, E. C., Moore, K. A., Hunter, D., & Kaye, J. W. (2001). Youth Outcomes Compendium. Washington, D.C.: Child Trends and the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.



⁷⁷ Steinberg, L. & Cauffman, E. (1995). The impact of employment on adolescent development. *Annals of Child Development, 11*, 131-166.

Figure 2: Model of Young Adulthood



Source: Adapted from Hair, E. C., Moore, K. A., Hunter, D., & Kaye, J. W. (2001). Youth Outcomes Compendium. Washington, D.C.: Child Trends and the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.

What outcomes for young adults are most likely to be influenced by program interventions?

Existing research, though limited, identifies some programs that assist youth in the transition to adulthood.⁷⁹ Rigorous experimental evaluations of the effects of program participation on young adults are scarce, however, in this next section we highlight findings from <u>experimental</u> evaluation studies conducted among youth. The following information describes only a small sampling of recent experimental studies that have examined the links between program participation in transition to adulthood programs and impacts on specific developmental domains. Please note that this review does not represent an exhaustive review of the available program literature. Available evidence suggests that some programs can provide opportunities for

⁷⁹ Kourilsky, M.L., & Esfandiari, M. (1997). Entrepreneurship education and lower socioeconomic black youth: An empirical investigation. *The Urban Review, 29*(3), 205-215.



young adults, for example, an environment for youth to interact with caring adults in actual work settings and training and on-the-job learning experiences. These interventions also try to nurture additional skills in youth, including positive health behaviors, positive family formation and leadership skills (e.g., planning and implementing projects, positive risk-taking, and problem-solving), self-esteem and efficacy (a sense of being able to make a difference).

Although few rigorous evaluations of programs serving youth in the transition to adulthood have been conducted, there have been rigorous evaluations of specific types of initiatives (particularly employmentbased approaches) targeted towards youth. Many of the DCCYIT programs also have activities that are vocational or employment-based, making these studies guite relevant to the DCCYIT transition to adulthood program. Table 2 (pp. 32-33) provides a summary of the experimentally evaluated programs that are described in this report. Findings on the effectiveness of these programs are discussed below.

Self-sufficiency. Employment and employability are key measures of self-sufficiency used in many studies that focus on youth in the transition to adulthood. Employment is important for keeping individuals out of poverty, and has also been linked to better general health, longer life expectancy, and mental wellbeing.⁸⁰ Stable employment in later adolescence may also increase school engagement and decrease criminal and delinquent behavior.⁸¹ Many of the programs that have been experimentally evaluated have shown positive impacts on youth employment, but only three found lasting impacts. At two-year follow-up, participants in the Nurse Home Visitation Program were more likely to be employed and worked twice as many hours as youth in the control group. At their two-year follow-up, Teenage Parent Demonstration program participants were more likely than control group youth to be in school, job training, or employed (though this effect had disappeared by the five-year follow-up).⁸² At the four-year follow-up, participants in Job Corps were more likely to be employed and worked more hours per week than control group youth. Programs such as Job Corps and the Teenage Parent Demonstration were also found to successfully increase the amount of vocational training that participants receive. Programs that attempt to increase participants' income and reduce welfare dependence have, however, had mixed results.^{83,84} For example, Job Corps and Youth Corps participants were found to have higher earnings than control group members at follow-up, but the Job Training Partnership Act and the Ohio Learning, Earning, and Parenting Program



⁸⁰ Mirowsky, J., & Ross, C.E. (1989). Social causes of psychological distress. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation. ⁸¹ Leventhal, T., Graber, J.A., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2001). Adolescent transitions to young adulthood: antecedents, correlates, and

consequences of adolescent employment. Journal of Research on Adolescence, 11(3), 297-323. ⁸² Kisker, E.E., Rangarajan, A., & Boller, K. (1998). Moving into adulthood: Were the impacts of mandatory programs for welfare-

dependent teenage parents sustained after the programs ended? Princeton, NJ: Mathematica Policy Research, Inc. ⁸³ Orr, L.L., Bloom, H.S., Bell, S.H., Doolittle, F., Lin, W., & Cave, G. (1996). Does training for the disadvantaged work? Evidence from

the national JTPA study. Washington, DC: The Urban Institute Press. ⁸⁴ Schochet, P., Brughardt, J., & Glazerman, S. (2001).

(LEAP) found no difference between participants and control group members. Similarly JOBSTART participants had lower annual earnings than control group counterparts.⁸⁵

• Educational/Cognitive Attainment. Of seven experimentally evaluated programs that sought to increase youths' chances of earning a high school diploma or GED, four (Job Corps, JOBSTART, LEAP, and New Chance) were shown to positively impact this outcome.⁸⁶ Educational attainment leads to greater economic returns in adulthood,⁸⁷ and sustained employment.⁸⁸ Young adults with a high school diploma or GED are less likely to be on welfare,⁸⁹ and in addition to employment and income effects, educational attainment improves youths' chances of success in obtaining housing, marriage, and health.⁹⁰ Some experimental studies evaluating the effect of program participation on young adult educational attainment outcomes have had mixed findings, yet some programs are able to positively influence high school graduation, GED attainment and/or college enrollment.⁹¹ Most studies have not measured cognitive skills, and one study (New Chance) found no significant differences between participants and control group members on the Test of Adult Basic Skills.⁹²

Health and Safety. Programs for youth tend to target two health-related behaviors: contraceptive use, and alcohol and drug use. Risky sexual behaviors may lead to unintended pregnancies⁹³ and sexually transmitted diseases.⁹⁴ Alcohol and drug use impairs judgment in the short term, and may lead to negative effects on health, social functioning, and educational outcomes in the long term.⁹⁵ Both early childbearing and substance abuse can impair youths' ability to pursue advanced education and obtain viable employment.⁹⁶ Two experimental studies (the Skill-based Intervention on Condom Use targeted at participants ages 14-19, and New Chance, a program for mothers ages 16-22 on welfare) found that the

⁹⁶ Fuligni, A.J., & Hardway, C. (2004). Preparing diverse adolescents for the transition to adulthood. *The Future of Children, 14*(2), 99-119.



⁸⁵ Cave, G., & Doolittle, F. (1991). Assessing JOBSTART: Interim impacts of a program for school dropouts. New York, NY: Manpower _____ Demonstration Research Corporation.

⁸⁶ Cave, G., & Doolittle, F. (1991).

 ⁸⁷ Entswisle, D.R. (1990). Schools and the adolescent. In S. Feldman & G. Elliot (Eds.), *At the Threshold: The Developing Adolescent*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.
 ⁸⁸ Smith, T.J. (2002). *Taking stock: A review of U.S. youth employment policy and prospects*. Philadelphia, PA: Public/Private Ventures.

 ⁵⁰⁰ Smith, T.J. (2002). Taking stock: A review of U.S. youth employment policy and prospects. Philadelphia, PA: Public/Private Ventures.
 ⁸⁹ Gottschalk, P., McLanahan, S., & Sandefur, G.D. (1994). The dynamics of intergenerational transmission of poverty and welfare participation. In S. Danziger, G. Sandefur & D. Weinberg (Eds.), *Confronting Poverty: Prescriptions of change*. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

⁹⁰ Fuligni, A.J., & Hardway, C. (2004).

⁹¹ Jekielek, S., Cochran, S., & Hair, É. C. (2002). *Employment Programs and Youth Development: A synthesis*. Washington, DC: Child Trends and the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.

⁹² Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2000). The relationship of youth employment to future educational attainment and labor market experience. In *Report on the Youth Labor Force*. US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. http://www.bls.gov/opub/rylfhome.htm

³³ Kirby, D. (2001). *Emerging Answers: Research findings on programs to reduce teen pregnancy*. Washington, DC: The National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy.

⁹⁴ Piccinino, L.J., & Mosher, W.D. (1998). Trends on contraceptive use in the United States: 1982-1995. *Family Planning Perspectives,* 30(1), 4-10 & 46.

⁹⁵ Baer, J.S., MacLean, M.G., & Marlatt, G.A. (1998). Linking etiology and treatment for adolescent substance abuse: Toward a better match. In R. Jessor (Ed.), *New Perspectives on Adolescent Risk Behavior*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

evaluated interventions had no impact on participants' contraceptive use.^{97,98} The New Chance program also found that participants experienced a significantly shorter time period between a pregnancy prior to program participation and the onset of the next pregnancy, compared to those in the control group.

Results from programs targeting substance have had more positive results. Two experimentally evaluated programs were found to reduce alcohol and drug use (The Alcohol Skills Training Program for college student participants of average age 23.1 and JOBSTART for participants ages 17-21).99,100 Compared to youth in corresponding control groups, The Alcohol Skills Training Program participants reported consuming fewer drinks per week and JOBSTART participants reported significantly less drug use. A third program, Job Corps for participants ages 16-24, found no significant impact on alcohol and drug use, although it was not specifically targeted toward substance use behaviors. Many other health-related behaviors are not targeted by programs, though the New Chance study did measure mental health outcomes and found small to moderate negative effects, and Job Corps found a small positive impact on participants' perceptions of their health. ^{101,102} Some evidence from the National Job Corp program also indicates that program participants have significantly fewer reports of being in poor or fair health.¹⁰³

Crime and Delinguency. Fewer experimental studies have examined involvement with the criminal justice system and delinquent behavior. Many, however, report overall positive results. Programs such as Youth Corps, Job Corps, and JOBSTART have been successful at reducing arrest rates, although among these only Job Corps has shown long-term impacts.¹⁰⁴ Job Corps participants were also found to be somewhat less likely than their control group counterparts to have been convicted of a crime. Participants had reduced convictions, incarcerations resulting from a conviction, and crimes committed.¹⁰⁵

Social and Emotional Well-being. Some programs have also been found to be effective in improving • interpersonal relationships by reducing the negative influence of peers and exposing young people to constructive adult peer groups.¹⁰⁶ While life skills have not been directly measured in most programs. participants' reports of accessing more services and supports in the JOBSTART program, for example

¹⁰⁶ Lerman, R. (1996). Building hope, skills, and careers: Making a U.S. youth apprenticeship system. In I. Garfinkel, J. Hochschilld, & S. McLanahan (Eds.), Social Policies for Children (pp.136-172). Washington DC: The Brookings Institute.



⁹⁷ Gillmore, M.R., Morrison, D.M., Richey, C.A., Balassone, M.L., Gutierrez, L., & Farris, M. (1997). Effects of a skill-based intervention to encourage condom use among high-risk, heterosexually active adolescents. AIDS Prevention and Education, 9 (Supplement A), 44-67.

⁹⁸ Quint, J.C., Bos, J.M., & Polit, D.F. (1997). New Chance: Final report on a comprehensive program for young mothers in poverty and their children. New York, NY: Manpower Demonstration Reseach Corporation.

⁹⁹Kivlahan, D.R., Marlatt, G.A., Fromme, K., Coppel, D.B., & Williams, E. (1990). Secondary prevention with college drinkers: Evaluation of an alcohol skills training program. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 58(6), 805-810. ¹⁰⁰ Cave, G., Bos, H., Doolittle, F., & Toussaint, C. (1993). *JOBSTART: Final report on a program for school dropouts*. New York, NY:

Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation. ¹⁰¹ Quint, J.C., Bos, J.M., & Polit, D.F. (1997).

¹⁰² Schochet, P., Brughardt, J., & Glazerman, S. (2001). National Job Corps Study: The impacts of Job Corps on participants' *employment and related outcomes.* Princeton, NJ: Mathematica Policy Research, Inc. ¹⁰³ Schochet, P., Brughardt, J., & Glazerman, S. (2001). ¹⁰⁴ Schochet, P., Brughardt, J., & Glazerman, S. (2001).

¹⁰⁵ Schochet, P., Brughardt, J., & Glazerman, S. (2001).

indicate that these skills improve after participation.^{107,108} Civic involvement can increase young people's social support and interaction and provide meaning in life,¹⁰⁹ but there is a shortage of research on whether programs for older youth can foster such involvement.¹¹⁰

Summarv

In sum, a small body of experimental research currently exists on program impacts for youth who participate in transition to adulthood programs. Though some have no impacts, the available evidence does suggest that some programs can positively influence economic, intellectual, social and psychological outcomes. These types of programs can have positive influences which help build positive health behaviors. increase self-sufficiency, self-esteem, feelings of self-efficacy, leadership skills, and interactions with others, and promote an overall decrease in problem behaviors.¹¹¹ Programs that teach job readiness skills can also encourage career exploration, decrease youth unemployment, and improve self-confidence.¹¹² Although there is evidence that some programs have been able to improve youth outcomes, much of the evidence of the effectiveness of past evaluated programs in doing so is mixed. That is, the evaluated programs vary in their effectiveness in improving outcomes of their youth and young adult participants in comparison to the control group, and these programs vary in their activities and in their target populations.¹¹³

¹¹³ Additional information about experimentally-evaluated programs can be found at <u>www.childtrends.org/research/LifeCourseModel</u>.



¹⁰⁷ Marcenko, M.O., & Spence, M. (1994). Home visitation services for at-risk pregnant and postpartum women: A randomized trial. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 64(3), 468-478.

¹⁰⁸ Cave, G., Bos, H., Doolittle, F., & Toussaint, C. (1993).

¹⁰⁹ McDevitt, M., & Chaffee, S. (2000). Closing gaps in political communication and knowledge: Effects of a school intervention. Communication Research, 27, 259-292. ¹¹⁰ Jastrzab, J., Masker, J., Blomquist, J., & Orr, L. (1996) Evaluation of national and community service programs. Impacts of service:

Final report on the evaluation of American Conservation and Youth Service Corps. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc.

¹¹¹ Leffert, N., Sairo, R.N., Blyth, D.A., & Kroenke, C. H. (1996). *Making the case: Measuring the impact of youth development programs*. Minneapolis, MN: The Search Institute.

¹¹² Leffert, et al. (1996).

SECTION TWO

THE TRANSITION TO ADULTHOOD LOGIC MODEL- ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Logic Models

The purpose of a logic model is to provide stakeholders with a road map describing the sequence of related events connecting the need for a planned program with the program's desired results.¹¹⁴ A logic model helps organize and systematize program planning, management and evaluation functions. It is not unusual for programs to use different types of logic models for different purposes. No one model fits all needs. For the purpose of this report, we provide a Theory/Prior Research logic model, as well as a Program Specific logic model for programs that serve youth in the transition to adulthood. Logic models are created using the framework provided by the United Way of America.¹¹⁵

Theory/Prior Research Logic Model

Figure 3 (pp. 34) provides a Theory/Prior Research Logic Model for youth in the transition to adulthood. The theory approach logic model is derived from prior theoretical work and analytic research on the transition to adulthood and the developmental domains associated with this life cycle stage. This literature provides a basis for transition to adulthood programs. The transition to adulthood theory guides the choice of outcomes in this model along a causal path. The outcomes that are identified are among those that have been identified in prior theory and research.

Program-Specific Logic Model

Figure 4 (pp. 35) provides a program specific logic model. The program-specific logic model is derived from specific information about activities in DC Trust transition to adulthood programs. Outcomes are selected based on how specific program services that exist may create change. In these models, young adult outcomes are linked to DC Trust program-specific activities, goals and objectives.

Summary, Integration and Conclusions

The 18 transition to adulthood programs funded by the DCCYIT have varied kinds of activities, but all provide a variety of career, vocational and personal development experiences for youth between the ages of 14 and 25. Although many of the programs target specific demographic groups (e.g., disabled youth, reentry of previously incarcerated youth, high school dropouts, low-income youth), these programs share a common goal of preparing youth for productive adulthood. DCCYIT transition to adulthood programs provide opportunities and supports that help participants gain the competencies and knowledge needed to make a



 ¹¹⁴ W. K. Kellogg Foundation (2000). Using Logic Models to Bring Together Planning, Evaluation and Action: Logic Model Development Guide. Battle Creek: Michigan.
 ¹¹⁵ United Way of America. (1996).

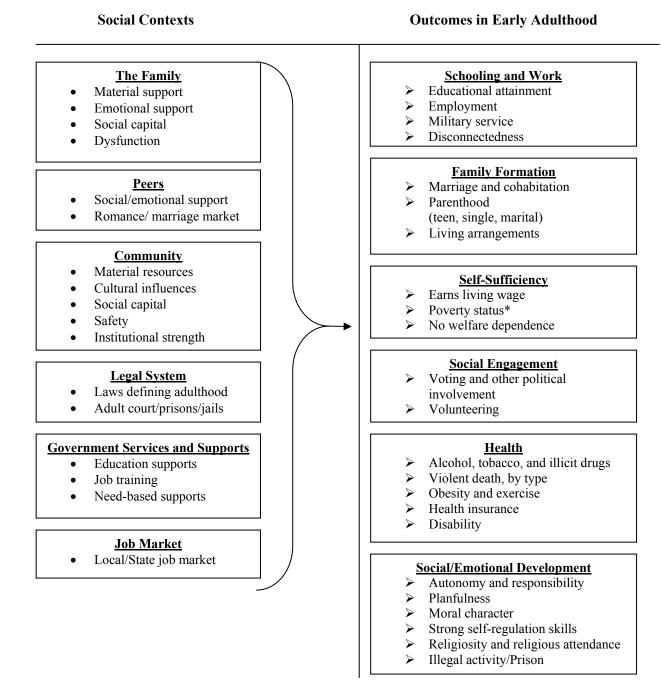
successful transition to adulthood. The programs vary in length from a few weeks in the summer to yearround, with most meeting several times per week. With these results in mind, we have recommended a logic model that describes pathways to expected outcomes in the short-, intermediate- and long-term. The activities, staff, and programs and the available financial resources and human capital within each program will ultimately determine the specific measurements that are appropriate for specific programs.



APPENDIX



Figure 1: A Simple Model of Early Adulthood and Related Contextual Influences



Source: Brown, B. V. (2003). Contemplating a state-level report featuring indicators of early adult well-being: Some theoretical and practical considerations. Washington, DC: Child Trends.



| Name of Program | Program Objective | Population Served | Program Components |
|--------------------|---|-----------------------|--|
| | | | |
| Training | alcohol addiction | however the program | |
| | To teach students how to estimate their blood | can be used in social | |
| | alcohol level | service settings or | |
| | • To teach students relaxation strategies that do not | community-based | |
| | involve alcohol | organizations | |
| | To teach limit setting and alcohol resistance skills | | |
| | • To assist students in identifying and avoiding | | |
| | situations involving alcohol | | |
| AmeriCorps | To get things done to help communities meet their | 17 and Older | Education voucher; full- or part-time |
| | needs | | work in community service; health |
| | To strengthen communities by bringing together a | | insurance, student loan deferment |
| | wide variety of individuals to solve local level | | |
| | problems | | |
| | To encourage responsibility through service and | | |
| | civic education | | |
| | To expand opportunity by making post-secondary | | |
| | education more affordable for AmeriCorps | | |
| | members | | |
| Job Corps | To help disadvantaged youths become "more | 16-24 | Academic education; vocational |
| | responsible, employable, and productive citizens" | | training; residential living; health care, |
| | | | health education; counseling; job |
| | | | placement assistance |
| JobStart | To have local agencies attract economically | 17-21 | Basic education; occupational skills |
| | disadvantaged youth into an alternative education | | training; training-related support |
| | and training program | | services; job development and |
| | • To put in place services to meet the needs of these | | placement assistance |
| | youths | | |
| | To have the youth invest their time and effort by | | |
| | participating in the services | | |
| | • To increase educational attainment, specifically | | |
| | receipt of a high school diploma or GED | | |
| | • To increase employment and earnings and reduce | | |
| | welfare dependence | | |
| Job Training | To increase earnings and employment of adults | Adults and out of | Occupational skills; on-the-job training |
| Partnership Act | and youths | school youth (16 and | job search assistance; basic education |
| · | To reduce adults' dependence on welfare | older) | work experience; miscellaneous |
| | To encourage youths to attain educational | | services |
| | credentials and occupational competencies | | |
| New Chance | To help mothers gain educational and vocational | Mothers 16-22 | School-like intervention; adult educatio |

Table 2: Experimentally Evaluated Programs Serving Youth in the Transition to Adulthood



| | | 1 | |
|--------------------|---|---------------------|---|
| | credentials so they can find jobs and reduce | | and literacy; employment-related |
| | welfare use | | services; health and personal |
| | To encourage women to postpone further | | development; services to enhance |
| | childbearing and improve parenting skills | | children's development; case |
| | To improve the cognitive skills, health, and | | management |
| | socioemotional well-being of the children of | | |
| | enrollees | | |
| Nurse Home | To help women alter health-related behaviors to | Women under age 19 | Home visits; resource referral; nursing |
| Visitation Program | improve pregnancy outcomes | who are low-income, | supervision |
| | To teach parents how to provide better care for | first-time parents | |
| | their children | | |
| | • To help parents plan for future pregnancies, pursue | | |
| | education, and gain employment. | | |
| Ohio Learning, | To encourage school attendance, thereby | Teen mothers under | Financial incentive; case management; |
| Earning and | promoting academic progress, attainment of a high | age 20 who are on | child care and transportation assistance |
| Parenting Program | school diploma or GED, and eventually increase | welfare and do not | |
| (LEAP) | employment and lower reliance on welfare | have a GED or high | |
| | | school diploma | |
| School Attendance | To improve school attendance rates | 16-18 year old AFDC | Financial incentive; multifaceted service |
| Demonstration | To help teens and their families attain | recipients | delivery |
| Project | independence through a multifaceted service | | |
| | delivery plan | | |
| Skill-Based | To increase condom use among teens who are | 14-19 year olds | Skill-based training in communicating |
| Intervention on | heterosexually active and at high risk of STDs, | | and negotiating condom use with |
| Condom Use | including HIV/AIDS | | partners, delivered by group skills |
| | | | training, videotape, and/or comic book |
| Teenage Parent | To assist young mothers in their attempts to gain | Mothers between the | Case management; workshops; |
| Demonstration | economic self-sufficiency | ages of 17 and 19 | education, training, and employment |
| | | | services; support services |
| | | | |

Source: Hair, E. C., Moore, K. A., Hunter, D., & Kaye, J. W. (2001). Youth Outcomes Compendium. Washington, D.C.: Child Trends and the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.



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