9 Adolescent Participation in Organized Activities

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There is good evidence that participating in school and community-based activities is associated with both short- and long-term indicators of positive development (e.g., Barber, Eccles, & Stone, 2001; Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Eccles & Templeton, in press; Larson, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster, 1998; Youniss & Yates, 1997). Sociological research has documented a link between adolescents’ extracurricular activities and adult educational attainment, occupation, and income (Otto, 1975, 1976; Otto & Alwin, 1977). Participation in organized activities is also positively related to achievement, educational aspirations, self-esteem, ability to overcome adversity, active participation in the political process and volunteer activities, leadership qualities, and physical health (e.g., Barber et al., 2001; Holland & Andre, 1987; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Scales, Benson, Leffert, & Blyth, 2000; Youniss, Yates, & Su, 1997).

There has been far less developmental research on constructive leisure activities than on other contexts such as family and school (Kleiber, 1999), but some progress has been made in understanding the mechanisms whereby constructive organized activities facilitate healthy development. First, they provide a developmental forum for initiative and engagement in challenging tasks, and allow participants to express their talents, passion, and creativity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991; Kleiber, 1999; Larson, 2000). Second, organized activities help adolescents meet their need for social relatedness, providing a broad range of opportunities for social development (Fletcher & Shaw, 2000; Youniss et al., 1997). Third, participation may also promote the development of assets such as social, physical, and intellectual skills, meaningful roles and empowerment, positive identity,
constructive peer networks, and clear expectations and boundaries (e.g., Eccles & Barber, 1999; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002, 2003; Perkins, Borden, & Villarruel, 2001).

Activity Participation, Social Identity, and Peer Group

To explain the connection between activities and positive development, we have proposed a synergistic system connecting activity involvement with peer group composition and identity exploration (Barber, Stone, Hunt, & Eccles, in press; Eccles & Barber, 1999). Specifically, we believe that enhanced outcomes result for adolescents who experience a confluence of activity participation, activity-based identity adoption, and a benign peer context. Previous research, including our own, has demonstrated the pervasive connections between each of these three factors and numerous outcomes.

The activities adolescents choose can reflect core aspects of their self-beliefs. Therefore, voluntary participation in discretionary extracurricular activities provides an opportunity for adolescents to be personally expressive and to communicate to both themselves and others that "this is who I am" or "this is what I believe I am meant to do." In addition, extracurricular activity settings provide the opportunity to enhance identification with the values and goals of the school (Barber et al., in press; Marsh, 1992; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003).

Activities also help structure one's peer group: Adolescents in extracurricular activities have more academic friends and fewer friends who skip school and use drugs than adolescents who do not participate in activities (Eccles & Barber, 1999). In turn, having more academic and less risky friends predicts other positive outcomes for adolescents. Conversely, being part of a peer network that includes a high proportion of youth who engage in, and encourage, risky behaviors predicts increased involvement in risky behaviors and decreased odds of completing high school and going on to college. Some activities facilitate membership in positive peer networks; others facilitate membership in more problematic peer networks (Dishion, Poulin, & Burraston, 2001). The critical mediating role of peer affiliations in the link between extracurricular activities and youth outcomes has also been documented by Eder and Parker (1987), Kinney (1993), and Youniss, McLe llan, Su, and Yates (1999).

Measures of Activity Involvement

Participation in school and community activities can be measured in a number of ways. Mahoney (Mahoney, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997) has used the approach of coding participation from school yearbook information available for the participants in his local area study. He uses the photographs of participants in extracurricular activities, and a record of student names and positions of status within the activity. Yearbook activity photos overlapped closely with lists provided by school personnel. Mahoney has categorized activities into nine
domains (academics, athletics, fine arts, student government, service, press activities, school assistants, vocational activities, and royalty activities). In his analyses, rather than focus on type of activity, Mahoney generally uses information about number of activities, or a categorical variable reflecting any activity involvement contrasted with no involvement (Mahoney, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997). Although this method seems useful, noninvasive, and valid, it is restricted to local area studies that have access to yearbooks and administrators.

Marsh and colleagues have used large national samples (e.g., the National Education Longitudinal Study) to test several models of the function of extracurricular activities (Marsh, 1992; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002, 2003). In one study (see Marsh & Kleitman, 2002), three measures were employed to reflect the number of school-based activities undertaken and the time spent overall on such participation in 10th and 12th grade, and two to represent the level of participation in structured and unstructured activities outside of school. Summary indices were also created to reflect overall involvement.

In this chapter we report on our use of survey questions to assess activity participation in a local study. We also report information on concurrent and predictive validity of the measure.

Study Design and Sample

The measures of constructive organized activity involvement come from the Michigan Study of Adolescent Life Transitions (MSALT). This is a longitudinal study that began with a cohort of 6th graders drawn from 10 school districts in southeastern Michigan in 1983. The majority of the sample is White and comes from working- and middle-class families living in primarily middle-class communities based in small industrial cities around Detroit. We have followed approximately 1,800 of these youth through nine waves of data collection: two while they were in the 6th grade (1983–1984); two while they were in the 7th grade (1984–85); one while they were in the 10th grade (spring 1988); one while they were in the 12th grade (spring 1990); one in 1992–1993, when most were 21–22 years old; one in 1996–1997, when most were 25–26; and one in 2000–2002, when most were 29–30. The validity analyses presented here include 1,425 respondents (759 females and 666 males) who participated in the 10th-grade survey.

Approximately 88% of the participants were European American; 8%, African American; 1%, Asian American; 1%, Latino; 1%, Native American; and 1%, other, including mixed-race individuals. We included mother’s report of her education as one measure of family socioeconomic status using a 4-point ordinal scale with 1 = less than high school diploma (11%), 2 = high school diploma (43%), 3 = some college (27%), and 4 = bachelor’s degree or more (19%).

Approximately 6% of participants came from families with incomes of less than $10,000 in 1983; 12% with $10,000 to $20,000; 44% between $20,000 and $40,000; and 38%, $40,000 and more. Approximately 71% of participants lived with two biological parents, 13% with a parent and stepparent, and 16% with a
single biological parent. Nearly 10% of participants (49 females and 76 males) had been rated by their teachers in sixth grade as suffering from a limiting physical, mental, or emotional condition.

Survey and school record data from approximately 900 MSALT participants were used for longitudinal analyses discussed in this report. Activity data were collected at 10th grade (Wave 5) when participants were approximately 16 years old. Prospective outcomes are discussed for 12th grade (Wave 6), and 2 years (Wave 7), 6 years (Wave 8), and 10 years (Wave 9) after high school graduation. Some of these results have been previously reported (Barber et al., 2001; Barber et al., in press; Eccles & Barber; 1999).

Measures of Activity Participation

Activity Involvement

At 10th grade, adolescents were provided with a list of 16 sports and 30 school and community clubs and organizations and asked to check all activities in which they participated (see the Appendix). To measure sports participation, we asked: “Do you compete in any of the following school teams (varsity, junior varsity, or other organized school program) outside of PE?” Cheerleading, though listed in both the sports section of the measure and the activities section, is coded as a “School Involvement” activity and not as a sport. To measure participation in nonsport activities, we asked: “Do you participate in any of the following activities or clubs at school?” We also asked about a range of activities outside of school: “Do you participate in any of the following clubs or activities outside of school?” This measure was created for the survey by the research team based on their previous research in schools. It was refined through pilot testing with local high school students.

Analyses of the Measure

Distribution of Responses

The Appendix summarizes the distribution of participation in school and community activities by gender. We computed a total number of activities by summing all the in-school and out-of-school clubs and activities that were checked. On average, these adolescents participated in between one and two activities and/or clubs. Girls participated at higher rates than boys, and 31% of the sample did not participate in any activities or clubs. Because sports were so common, we aggregated them separately by summing the different teams checked. Not surprisingly, boys participated in more different teams than girls. However, 45% of the sample had not competed on any school athletic team. Finally, we calculated the breadth of the adolescents’ participation by summing the number of different types of activities (art, performing art, religious, leadership,
sports, academic, service) for each adolescent (participation in several different sports [or several different performing arts] only counted as one type of activity). Girls also participated in a wider range of activities than boys (Eccles & Barber, 1999).

Missing Data and Subgroup Usage

Data regarding individual activities items were missing for approximately 10% of the sample. We attribute the missing data largely to the length of time allowed by schools for the completion of the survey and to differential reading ability. The items regarding activities were on pages 34–36 of a 51-page survey. Those who completed the survey did not differ from those who did in terms of sex, family income, family structure, and maternal education. However, there was a higher rate of missing data for disabled participants. Specifically, individuals with mental and emotional disabilities, as rated by teachers in junior high school, were less likely to provide data regarding activities than were those not so identified by teachers. Individuals with physical disabilities, on the other hand, provided data at the same rate as those not identified by teachers as having a physical disability.

Shortened Version

In Grade 12, sports participation was assessed by asking participants, “Do you compete in any school teams (varsity, junior varsity, or other organized school program) outside of PE?” Nonsport extracurricular involvement was assessed with the question, “Do you participate in any activities or clubs at school or outside of school?” Responses to these questions were coded using the number of teams or clubs listed by the participant, and the types (team vs. individual, male-typed vs. female-typed) of sports and activities. The 1,008 responses for sports were as follows: 567 did not compete in any sports; 245 listed one; 146 listed two; 42 listed three; 4 listed four; 3 listed five; and 1 listed six sports. For the 999 who responded to the activities question, 509 were not involved; 231 listed one; 146 listed two; 40 listed three; 44 listed four; 14 listed five; and 15 listed six or more activities. The difficulty with this format is coding the data after the open-ended responses are collected. Important information can be lost if too much collapsing is done during coding, and handwriting can be difficult to understand, particularly for less common types of clubs.

In the area of sports participation, we have done some comparisons with time use data that suggest we need both types of information. Students were asked, “About how many hours do you usually spend each week taking part in an organized sport?” Responses ranged from 0 = none to 7 = 21 or more hours per week. Although the cross-tabulations for this variable and the sports question listed in the previous paragraph are distributed generally in ways one would have predicted (athletes spend more time taking part in organized sport each
week), there are some cells that are interesting. For example, 16% of those who report no time spent on sports say they are on at least one sports team at school. We see this not as a validity problem but rather as important information: Those who play on fall teams may not spend time in the spring playing organized sports. Therefore, although time use may be an important indicator in some ways, we argue that the membership on a team may have impact even in the absence of current time spent practicing (through connection to adults at school, peer group, identity, and attachment to school).

Having used both checklists stipulating each sport and activity and general questions about sports and activities, with a follow-up question requiring students to list their activities, we prefer the former. Coding is simplified in this strategy, and there is less risk for students to give information only about the activities in which they currently participate. We believe, for instance, that students may miss reporting on football if they fill out the survey in spring.

Data Reduction

In order to understand patterns related to participation in various types of activities, we grouped the extracurricular activities into five categories: prosocial activities—church attendance and/or participation in volunteer and community service activities; team sports—participation on one or more school teams; performing arts—participation in school band, drama, and/or dance; school involvement—participation in student government, pep club, and/or cheerleading; and academic clubs—participation in debate, foreign language, math, or chess clubs, science fair, or tutoring in academic subjects.

Participants were coded as participating if they had checked off at least one activity or club within the broad category. The distribution of females and males in these activity types is included in the Appendix, as are the activities coded in each category. Consistent with results reported above, the males were more likely to engage in at least one sport activity than females. In contrast, females were significantly more likely to be involved in prosocial, performing arts, and school involvement activities (see Table 1).

We also assessed whether mother’s education was related to participation in any of these five general categories. Both academic club participation and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>% Females</th>
<th>% Males</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performing arts</td>
<td>School band, drama, dance</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team sports</td>
<td>School sport teams, except cheerleading</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic clubs</td>
<td>Debate, foreign language, math, and chess clubs, science fair, tutoring in academic subjects</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School involvement</td>
<td>Student government, pep club, cheerleading</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosocial activities</td>
<td>Church attendance, volunteer and community service</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
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prosocial activity involvement were significantly related to maternal education: Adolescents with mothers having a college degree or higher were more than twice as likely to be involved in academic clubs and prosocial activities as adolescents with mother having a high school degree or less. Similar trends were evident for both team sports and performing arts. These differences in maternal education, and the expected links of maternal education with many of the variables used to examine validity, lead us to include maternal education as a covariate in our analyses.

Construct Validity of the Measure

Our measure of activities correlates well with our measures of identity, characteristics of peer groups, and relevant measures of values and abilities.

Identity Categories

The Breakfast Club (Hughes, 1985) was a prominent film when our study participants were in the 10th grade. We asked the participants to indicate which of five characters (the Princess, the Jock, the Brain, the Basketcase, or the Criminal) was most like them. Twenty-eight percent selected the Jock identity; 40% the Princess, 12% the Brain, 11% the Basketcase, and 9% the Criminal.

We examined the extent to which adolescents in each particular activity identified one as a member of a social identity category. For this question, we analyzed the proportion of students in each sport or organization that claimed each social identity. A series of chi-squared analyses revealed that social identities were differentially distributed across sports and activities (Barber et al., in press). Not all athletes saw themselves as Jocks, especially among female athletes. The highest proportion of female athletes who considered themselves to be Jocks played basketball, softball, soccer, volleyball, and track. However, female athletes also often self-identified as Princesses (especially gymnasts and swimmers) rather than Jocks. The vast majority of cheerleaders saw themselves as Princesses rather than Jocks, lending support to our decision to exclude cheerleading from the sports composite. Overall, 22% of female athletes considered themselves to be Jocks, which is substantially higher than in the general female population (13%).

Sixty-nine percent of the male athletes self-identified as Jocks; this was especially true for those who played basketball, football, baseball, ice hockey, and wrestling. These five sports also had the fewest participants who self-identified as Brains. Overall, male athletes were unlikely to label themselves as Brains (14% of athletes compared to 20% of all males).

Although the distribution of the five identity groups across the nonsport activities was less extreme, the patterns were what one would expect (Barber et al., in press). Among the females, the Princesses were overrepresented in pep club and dance; the Brains were overrepresented in the band and orchestra and
underrepresented in dance. Among the males, the Brains were overrepresented in foreign language clubs, math and science clubs, and band or orchestra; the Basketcases and Princesses were overrepresented in drama. Although few males self-identified as Princesses, the male Princesses were also overrepresented in dance, foreign language club, and band.

We think these data indicate important variability across activities and sports. Not all extracurricular involvement is equal. In fact, even within the category of sports, the teams seem to vary considerably from each other in the types of students who participate and in the meanings attached to team membership. These differences are reflected in the identities of participants. Therefore, we should expect differences in the benefits and risks that may accompany different activities. It is because of this variability that we recommend collecting very specific data about activities, not just counts of the total number of activities or general time use. Our question can certainly be collapsed into subcategories, but if the details are not collected, the more precise information will be unavailable.

Concurrent Prediction to Peer Group

Activity settings provide a peer group as well as a set of tasks. To the extent that one spends a lot of time in these activity settings with the other participants, it is likely that one's friends will be drawn from among the other participants. We have examined characteristics of the peer group for those who participated in the different types of activities (Eccles & Barber, 1999). At 10th grade, the peer group characteristics were consistent with the kinds of associates we expected in the different activity types. The peer groups for participants were generally characterized by a higher proportion of friends who planned to attend college and were doing well in school than were peer groups for nonparticipants. Adolescents involved in prosocial activities had fewer friends who used alcohol and drugs than their peers; they also had few friends who skipped school. Finally, consistent with the association of sports participation with increased drinking (Eccles & Barber, 1999), adolescents who participated in team sports had a higher proportion of friends who drank than those who did not participate in team sports.

Concurrent Prediction to Self-Concept and Task Value

Participation in team sports, as one would expect, was associated with higher levels of both self-concept of sports ability and task value for sports, after controlling for gender and ethnicity. Those who participated in team sports had a significantly higher self-concept of sports ability than nonparticipants, $F(1, 1248) = 306.84, p < .001, M_s = 5.1$ and $3.8$, respectively. Athletes valued sports more highly as well, $F(1, 1248) = 409.83, p < .001, M_s = 5.8$ and $4.0$, respectively. Interestingly, participants in school involvement activities also valued sports more highly than nonparticipants, $F(1, 1238) = 12.292, p < .001, M_s = 5.4$ and $4.9$, respectively, and had a higher self-concept of sports ability, $F(1, 1238) = 7.330, p < .01, M_s = 4.8$ and $4.5$, respectively. Follow-up
analysis indicated that this effect held for boys but not girls. No other activity type predicted to higher self-concept or valuing of sports. However, performing arts participation predicted to a lower self-concept of sports ability, $F(1, 1246) = 7.417, p < .01$, $Ms = 4.4$ and $4.6$, respectively, and lower valuing of sports, $F(1, 1246) = 8.669, p < .01$, $Ms = 4.8$ and $5.1$, respectively. Follow-up analysis indicated that this effect also held only for boys. Clearly, achievement-related beliefs differ among activity types, suggesting the importance of maintaining distinctions.

**Predictive Validity: High School Outcomes**

In this section, we report on our previously published findings on the relation between 10th-grade extracurricular activity involvement and later psychological and behavioral outcomes (from Eccles & Barber, 1999). We examine whether specific types of extracurricular activities are more beneficial or risky than others.

**Prosocial Activity Involvement**

Adolescents involved in prosocial activities in 10th grade reported less alcohol and drug use; this difference was especially marked at grade 12, 2 years after the activity data were collected. Regression analyses indicated that the students who were involved in activities like attending religious services and doing volunteer work showed less of an increase in these risky behaviors over the high school years than their noninvolved peers, indicating that prosocial involvement can be a protective factor with regard to the usual age-related increases in these risky behaviors. Involvement in prosocial activities at grade 10 was also positively related to both liking school in the 10th grade and a higher GPA at the 12th grade.

**Team Sports**

Involvement in team sports at grade 10 predicted higher rates of drinking alcohol at grade 12. Involvement in team sports also served as a protective condition for academic outcomes. Sport participants liked school more in the 10th and 12th grades, and had higher 12th-grade GPAs than nonparticipants.

**Performing Arts**

Those adolescents who were involved in performing arts at grade 10 were less frequently engaged in risky behaviors at both grade 10 and 12 than those who were not. This was particularly true for alcohol-related behaviors. However, when we controlled for prior levels of drinking in longitudinal regression analyses, we found no evidence that 10th-grade involvement in performing arts affected the direction or magnitude of change in drinking behavior over the high school years. Participation in performing arts was also related to greater liking of school at both 10th and 12th grades and to higher 12th-grade GPA.
School-Involvement Activities

Participation in school-spirit and student government related clubs was not related consistently to engagement in risky behaviors. In contrast, it was positively related to liking school at grade 10 and to 12th-grade GPA.

Academic Clubs

Participation in academic clubs was primarily related to academic outcomes. Adolescents who participated in academic clubs had higher than expected high school GPAs than those who did not, even after controlling for aptitude and maternal education.

Longitudinal Analyses: Prediction to Outcomes in Young Adulthood

Our measure of activities relates to numerous positive long-term outcomes. For these analyses, some of which have been previously reported in Barber et al. (2001), we have also used the five activity type categories rather than specific individual activities. We examined the association between grade 10 activity involvement and subsequent (Wave 8 and/or Wave 9) young adult educational and occupational attainment, civic engagement, and psychological well-being. Analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were used with activity involvement and gender as predictors, and with mother’s education (and high school math and verbal aptitude when applicable) as covariates.

Educational Attainment

Participation in all five of the activity types was positively related to completing more years of education; however, participation in prosocial activities was not a significant predictor once maternal education and aptitude score covariates were added. Logistic regressions examining the effects of participation net of gender, ethnicity, maternal education, and academic ability, indicated that college graduation (by age 25) was significantly related to participation in sports (Wald $\chi^2 = 6.655$, $p < .05$), school involvement activities (Wald $\chi^2 = 5.059$, $p < .05$), and academic clubs (Wald $\chi^2 = 8.251$, $p < .01$). Rates for college completion were consistently higher for participants than for nonparticipants: for team sports, 39% versus 30%; for school involvement, 47% versus 32%; and for academic clubs, 56% versus 31%.

Occupational Outcomes

Sports participation was positively related to reporting having more job autonomy at age 24 (after controlling for gender, ethnicity, and maternal education). Similarly, sports predicted greater likelihood of having a job with a future, rather than a short-term job, at age 24 (Barber et al., 2001). Having jobs with higher Socioeconomic Index (SEI) scores (after controlling for gender, ethnicity,
maternal education, and academic ability) was predicted by 10th-grade school involvement activity participation 12 years later at Wave 9, \( F(1, 335) = 4.704, p < .05; Ms = 62.55 \) for participants and 57.61 for nonparticipants. Having participated in a sport was also related at the trend level, \( F(1, 337) = 3.656, p < .06; Ms = 60.40 \) for sports participants and 56.74 for nonparticipants.

**Civic Engagement**

After controlling for gender, maternal education, and ethnicity, 10th-grade prosocial activity participation predicted to increased involvement in volunteer work, \( F(1, 645) = 22.00, p < .001; Ms = 1.7 \) for participants and 1.2 for nonparticipants, and civic organizations, \( F(1, 644) = 4.14, p < .05; Ms = 1.6 \) for participants and 1.4 for nonparticipants, at age 25–26. At age 29–30, 10th-grade prosocial activity participation continued to predict increased involvement in volunteer work, \( F(1, 489) = 3.58, p < .06; Ms = 1.5 \) for prosocial activity participants and 1.3 for nonparticipants.

**Psychological Adjustment**

Repeated measures MANOVA’s with a four-level time component (Waves 5, 6, 7, and 8) nested within person were run for psychological well-being and are reported in detail elsewhere (Barber et al., 2001). Two main effects emerged for activities: athletes reported lower isolation \( (M = 3.0) \) than nonathletes \( (M = 3.2) \); and participants in prosocial activities reported higher self-esteem \( (M = 5.0) \) than did nonparticipants \( (M = 4.8) \). Suicide attempts at Wave 8 were associated with participation in performing arts \( (\chi^2 = 3.89, p < .05) \): 11% for participants, 6% for nonparticipants. Performing arts participants were also significantly more likely to report having visited a psychologist \( (\chi^2 = 15.16, p < .001) \): 22% for participants versus 11% for nonparticipants.

**Recommendations**

We have found that our measure of activity participation at grade 10 is related to identity, peer group composition, and to achievement-related values. It is also an important predictor of alcohol use, GPA, educational and occupational attainment, civic engagement, and psychological adjustment. Based on our work with these items, we suggest it is best to have a checklist of sports and activities, because the detailed information on specific activities is differentially predictive of a broad set of outcomes.

Collapsing into such activity types as prosocial, sports, and academic clubs illustrates one fruitful use of these types of questions. We have also tried other combinations of these items. The **total number of clubs and activities** predicted greater attachment to school, higher 11th-grade GPA, increased likelihood of college attendance, lower rates of getting drunk in 12th grade, and less frequent use of marijuana in 12th grade (regressions controlling for verbal and math ability, maternal education and gender; Barber & Eccles, 1997). The last two regressions also controlled for the 10th-grade level of the risk behavior, and thus
indicated that participation in more activities predicted a smaller increase than average in substance use from 10th to 12th grade. What is important to note is that being in more than one activity is related to better outcomes than being in only one (which is better than being in none), so that a simple question about activity involvement that did not tap the total number would miss such a connection. The number of sports teams also predicted increased likelihood of college attendance and 11th-grade GPA. This is consistent with Marsh and Kleitman’s (2003) evidence that increasing levels of athletic participation are associated with increasing benefits.

Another way to use these items is to construct an index of breadth, or eclectic participation. We found that the extent of participation across a broad range of activity domains (number of different types of activities) such as music, art, sports, leadership, and community service predicted greater school attachment, higher GPA, and greater likelihood of college attendance, even after controlling for academic aptitude (Barber & Eccles, 1997). Greater breadth, or eclectic participation, was better than participation in only one domain, which in turn was better than none.

Finally, given the interesting relation we find between sports and drinking, we think it is important to keep sports separate from other activities. In fact, in some of our current work we are finding that among sports, there is also variability in links to academic outcomes and substance use (Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003), so it is advantageous to know which sport the adolescent plays. Our bottom line is that detailed information about participation is desirable, and in checklist format it does not take prohibitively long to collect.

Appendix

MSALT Questions on Participation in School Sport, Organization, and Club Activities (Participation rates for females and males are in parentheses.)

Answer the following questions about the current school year.

Do you (did you) compete in any of the following school teams (varsity, junior varsity, or other organized school program) outside of physical education? (Check all that apply)

- Baseball (46%, 67%)
- Basketball (11%, 25%)
- Cheerleading (12%, 0%)
- Field hockey (1%, 2%)
- Football (3%, 32%)
- Golf (1%, 9%)
- Gymnastics (5%, 1%)
- Ice hockey (1%, 9%)
- Other (Please Specify)...
- Soccer (4%, 8%)
- Softball (17%, 3%)
- Swimming/Diving (12%, 13%)
- Tennis (9%, 8%)
- Track/Cross country (12%, 16%)
- Volleyball (17%, 5%)
- Wrestling (1%, 16%)
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Which of the following activities or clubs at school do you (did you) do in this school year? (Check all that apply)

- Art (9%, 8%)
- Band or orchestra (19%, 14%)
- Career-related club (3%, 2%)
- Chess club (0%, 1%)
- Computer club (1%, 2%)
- Dance (14%, 5%)
- Pep club/Cheerleading/Boosters (12%, 3%)
- ROTC (0%, 3%)
- S.A.D.D. (10%, 3%)
- Science fair (11%, 5%)
- Service clubs (3%, 2%)
- Other (Please Specify)

Do you (Did you) participate in any of the following clubs or activities outside of school? (Check all that apply)

- Athletic/recreational club (16%, 28%)
- Pop or rock band (6%, 9%)
- Scouts/Girls, Boys Clubs/Ys (2%, 5%)
- 4-H (4%, 2%)
- Junior Achievement (1%, 2%)
- Political campaign (0%, 1%)
- Church groups (18%, 11%)
- Volunteer/service work (14%, 5%)
- Tutoring in math, science, or computers (2%, 2%)
- Tutoring in other academic subjects (1%, 1%)
- Student government (11%, 5%)
- Other (Please Specify)

References


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Conceptualizing and Measuring Indicators of Positive Development

Edited by

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