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Main Topic

Kielblock/Monsen (Eds.) • Practitioner's Use of Research to Improve Their Teaching Practices within Extended Educational Provisions

Cartmel/Brannelly • A Framework for Developing the Knowledge and Competencies of the Outside School Hours Services Workforce

Mahoney • Practitioners' Use of Research in Decision Making about Organized Out-of-School Time Programs Serving Adolescents

Kielblock/Gaiser • The Impact of Using Research on Teaching Practices of Non-Teacher Practitioners within German All-Day Schools

General Contributions

Kreitz-Sandberg • Improving Pedagogical Practices through Gender Inclusion: Examples from University Programmes for Teachers in Preschools and Extended Education

Frei/Schuepbach/Nieuwenboom/von Allmen • Extended Education and Externalizing Behavior: Utilization Intensity, Interaction Quality and Peers as Possible Moderators

Golestani • Social Activism and Extended Education

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Editors' Preface

In this issues' Main Topic *Stephan Kielblock* and *Jeremy J. Monsen* highlight practitioner's use of research to improve their teaching practices within extended educational provisions. In their introduction the guest editors stress on the one hand extended educational contexts as being particularly challenging for practitioners compared to more formal settings and on the other hand they emphasise the importance of practitioners being encouraged to adopt a problem-solving framework to guide both thinking and action. There are three contributions within this Main Topic. *Jennifer Cartmel* and *Kylie Brannelly* examine the implementation of a framework that was designed to build the skills and knowledge of after school care educators in Australia. *Joseph L. Mahoney* assesses the use of research of 21 out-of-school time program directors from the United States. In the last paper of this Main Topic *Stephan Kielblock* and *Johanna M. Gaiser* analyse the impact of using research on teaching practices of non-teacher practitioners within German all-day schools.

In the General Contributions section *Susanne Kreitz-Sandberg* discusses Swedish university programmes for teachers in preschools and extended education which are thought to improve the pedagogical practices through gender inclusion. In their paper about extended education and externalizing behaviour *Lukas Frei*, *Marianne Schuepbach*, *Wim Nieuwenboom* and *Benjamin von Allmen* analyse the utilization intensity, interaction quality and peers as possible moderators for externalizing behaviour. *Chitra Golestani* uses a phenomenological approach to investigate the partnerships between schools and non-governmental organizations.

In the section Developments in the Field of Extended Education *Sang Hoon Bae* and *Jee In Hong* report on the fourth conference of the Network on Extracurricular and Out-of-School Time Educational Research (NEO ER) at Sungkyunkwan University in Seoul. The second contribution in this section is a report on extended education in Scotland written by *Irene Audain*. The book "The Class: Living and Learning in the Digital Age" (Livingstone & Sefton-Green) is reviewed by *Daniela Krueel DiGiacomo* in the Reviews Section.

Though there is a high number of submissions we would like to encourage researches within the field of extended education to submit papers, and also suggestions for book reviews and proposals for short research reports for the section Developments in the Field of Extended Education.

Sabine Maschke, Ludwig Stecher and Stephan Kielblock

Practitioner's Use of Research to Improve Their Teaching Practices within Extended Educational Provisions

Stephan Kielblock and Jeremy J. Monsen

A central goal amongst practitioners in the field of extended education is to provide high quality extracurricular programs for children and young people. Educational researchers in the field of extended education try and focus on improving the quality and effectiveness of such programs. Although the aims of both practitioners and researchers appear to be the same there is in-fact a considerable gap between practice and research. Monsen and Woolfson (2012) articulate this dilemma with reference to Robinson's (1993) argument when they state: "Researchers often frustratingly say that if only people implemented all their recommendations, then outcomes would improve. Equally, educators and other applied practitioners often ask why researchers and policy-makers do not focus on the problems that they are actually dealing with on a day-to-day basis and offer them something focussed, practical and doable" (Monsen & Woolfson, 2012, p. 134). This gap between 'real world' practice on the one hand and research on the other hand is the starting point of this Special Issue of the International Journal for Research on Extended Education (IJREE).

Some researchers, mainly from the new field of Implementation Science, emphasise the importance of practitioners' engaging with research as part of the process of overcoming the theory-to-practice gap (Hargreaves, 1996; McIntyre, 2005; McLaughlin, 2012; Monsen & Woolfson, 2012). The three papers in this Special Issue explore practitioners' use of research in a range of applied settings from a number of different perspectives. However, all of the papers are focused on the core goal of improving applied practice. In each paper the authors ask whether improvement is based upon a rigorous link between the practitioner and research.

This introductory paper provides a discussion on two areas which are of relevance to the papers included in this edition. Firstly, comparing and contrasting applied practice within extended education and more formal learning contexts. For example, why is practice perceived as being particularly demanding within such settings when compared with more formal learning contexts? Why should it be assumed that practitioners actively engaging with research is important in such settings? Secondly, how practitioners could successfully engage with research is explored. An example from the field of educational and child psychology, namely the Problem-Analysis

Framework is highlighted (Monsen & Frederickson, 2008; Monsen, Graham, Frederickson, & Cameron, 1998; Monsen & Woolfson, 2012).

Some of the Challenging Characteristics of Extended Educational Provisions

In this section extended educational contexts are compared with more formal learning settings (e.g. 'traditional' schools). This comparison highlights similarities and also important differences. The conclusion reached is that practices within extended educational contexts might be perceived by practitioners as being more challenging than those in more formal settings. At the same time the potential of extended education can be a rewarding endeavour for staff and pupils (e.g., out-of-school time, extracurricular and leisure time activities). The challenges described could be re-framed as opportunities to promote positive developments for the children and young people.

Pupils learning takes place within specific contexts and the characteristics of these settings affect learning outcomes (Bäumer, Preis, Roßbach, Stecher, & Klieme, 2011; Rauschenbach et al., 2004). Pupils spend a significant amount of their time within formal learning environments like schools (OECD, 2015). There has been a tendency in the last decade for the time pupils spend in formal education to have increased (for the German context e.g. Fraij, Maschke, & Stecher, 2015).

In addition, several countries have explored increasing out-of-school and extra-curricular learning opportunities as well. Stecher and Maschke (2013) present such developments over the last twenty years in countries as diverse as Germany, Great Britain, Japan, South Korea, Sweden and the United States of America. These initiatives towards institutionalised, but less curricular based education can be recognised in other countries as well (Fraij & Kielblock, 2015; OECD, 2015).

Learning in non-school organisations or during extracurricular school time (both are referred to as 'extended education') is in some ways *similar* to formal schooling. Yet there are some important *differences* between them. The similarities and differences described in the following section were originally conceptualised by Ludwig Stecher and his research group (Kielblock, Gaiser, & Stecher, 2017; Stecher, 2012; Stecher & Maschke, 2013). This information has been further analysed and additional material on how practices within extended educational contexts might be affected by the different features of each setting has been added.

Table 1 shows that formal educational contexts are similar to non-formal educational settings in two important ways. Firstly, teaching is explicitly embedded within an organisational structure. Secondly, the individuals implicitly know *what* they are aiming to learn in that setting. They also have an understanding of what function the organisation has. In formal educational contexts pupils are typically aware what they are there for (e.g., to learn and get qualifications), and implicitly what the societal function of school is (e.g., socialisation, Stecher, 2012). In non-formal educational contexts, the individuals have a sense of what the purpose of the organisation is as well. However, they might assume that the context is not as important as 'proper school' (Gaiser, Kielblock, & Stecher, 2016; see also the Certification aspect in Table 1).

Table 1. The specifics of non-formal educational contexts (compared to formal educational contexts).

Formal educational contexts	Non-formal educational contexts	Practical issues
1. Organisation The teaching action is explicitly embedded into an organisational and concrete structure.	No difference compared to formal contexts.	→ The organisational structure prescribes (explicitly and implicitly) what practices generally should look like.
2. Intention The individuals 'know' if and what they are aiming to learn and they 'know' what function the organisation has.	No difference compared to formal contexts.	→ The children/young people 'know' how formal (in a way how 'important') the context is or not.
3. Certification Success within the curriculum is measured by grades and qualifications which impact on life choices and opportunities.	Achieving grades or qualifications would be a fairly rare/exceptional occurrence. If 'certificates' are given, they do not have the same impact on life choices and opportunities.	→ The lack of a formal qualifications based curriculum can lead to a structural 'void' and <i>laisse-faire</i> practices. <i>(see 2.: individuals know that the context is not formal)</i>
4. Profession Teaching staff are professionalised to the extent that the organisation (legally) requires it. Exceptions are uncommon.	A heterogeneity of professional backgrounds is more or less possible. In some cases non-professional staff are employed.	→ Professionalism is questioned by students and other staff. Collaboration can be seen as an additional challenge.
5. Obligation Attendance is compulsory.	Although there might be different attendance expectations usually it is voluntary.	→ Heterogeneity amongst students due to individualised attendance patterns. <i>(see 6.: individuals follow no overarching curricular plan)</i>
6. Systematisation Learning processes and topics are driven by the curriculum. From the individuals' perspective learning is less self-directed.	The 'curriculum' is much more open for individualisation and more pupil-centred approaches (self-directed learning).	→ No clearly agreed curricular or performance standards which practitioners can refer to. <i>(see 1.: there are some rough guidelines, yet they are not specific)</i>

Note: This table summarises the similarities commonalities and differences between formal and non-formal educational contexts as it is conceptualised by the research group around Ludwig Stecher (Kielblock et al., 2017; Stecher, 2012; Stecher & Maschke, 2013). The informal contexts are not depicted here. How these aspects affect practices within non-formal contexts is indicated in the grey boxes.

There are differences between formal and non-formal educational contexts. A first difference concerns the **Certification** (see Table 1, no. 3). Formal contexts usually validate the attainment and achievement of its learners. Examination certificates have an important impact on the individuals' opportunities in "further educational contexts and the opportunities in life in general" (Stecher & Maschke, 2013, p. 17). Sometimes in non-formal contexts, the achievement of participants is acknowledged, too. Yet, by definition, these 'certificates' usually do not have the same social status or potential impact on the individuals' life choices. From a learning perspective it could be argued that this might offer an advantage. The absence of formal assessment could provide increased opportunities for self-directed learning and exploration. This has the potential for both adults and pupils to have space to develop creative solutions and approaches. However, the absence of a formative element and a core curriculum might make the pupils feel that the activities in the non-formal program have less importance or value.

A second difference between formal and non-formal educational contexts concerns the **Profession** (see Table 1, no. 4). Formal educational contexts usually employ trained and qualified teaching staff (although e.g. in the UK there is a move within the Free School and Academies movement to employ non-qualified teaching staff who have other relevant qualifications). In non-formal educational contexts, a greater variety of practitioner backgrounds and experiences can be found. In some cases, these settings employ parents/carers or higher grade students to teach during the extracurricular hours of the German all-day schools (Stecher & Maschke, 2013). This heterogeneity of backgrounds could be a potential strength of the non-formal sector. Such multi-professional teams could support pupils more appropriately than homogenous staff groupings (cf. e.g. Böhm-Kasper, Dizinger, & Gausling, 2016). An example might be that the organisation might hire youth leaders who are closer in age to the pupils. On the other hand, collaboration between practitioners with different professional backgrounds can be a difficult task to achieve managerially. Holm (2015) states, "bringing two different professional epistemologies together cannot be expected to automatically result in unification and qualitative change" (p. 44). A hierarchy might emerge (Holm, 2015), with a diffusion of teaching functions and responsibilities (du Bois-Reymond, 2013). The complexities involved in staff collaboration within extended educational contexts is only just beginning to be explored (Böhm-Kasper et al., 2016; Schüpbach, 2016). One idea to legitimate and increase innovative practices within multi-professional teams might be for the individuals to develop a sophisticated professional group self-concept in parallel to a child-centred collaborative process (Kielblock et al., 2017).

Obligation (see Table 1, no. 5) is the third difference between formal and non-formal educational contexts. Within formal educational contexts usually pupil attendance is not an issue because it is a legal requirement. Yet, within non-formal educational contexts attendance is more variable and an important aspect to be considered (Fiester, Simpkins, & Bouffard, 2005). From the perspective of teaching practices the voluntary nature of attendance could be beneficial in the sense of increased students' intrinsic motivation as it is 'their own decision' to participate or not. In addition, less strict and more flexible attendance rules might make it possible for those to participate in the activities who have family obligations and can-

not attend on a regular basis. Yet, extrinsically motivated pupils might find it more of a challenge to regularly attend. From a teaching perspective voluntary attending might lead to variable groups of pupils attending (for example in Gaiser et al., 2016 a homework support program is described which was fully voluntary; attendance ranged from three on one day to 27 on the next). This might make it difficult for the practitioner to anticipate what each day would be like and to plan accordingly.

Fourth, there is a difference between formal and non-formal educational contexts with regard to their **Systematisation** (see Table 1, no. 6). Formal educational contexts have a legitimate curriculum – organisation, method and content is prescribed. For the non-formal educational contexts “organisation, method and content are determined for the most part by the [...] person in charge” (Stecher & Maschke, 2013, p. 18). Practices depend more on the individual practitioner, or on the preferences of the children/young people involved, which might be considered to have advantages. Yet, having no (or preferably less) of a prescribed curriculum and approach means that the individual practitioner is often responsible for developing along with colleagues plans to support the pupils in achieving their desired goals/outcomes.

This might be quite a challenge contributing to additional stress and possibly resulting in a lack of a coherent offer to students. In addition, the practitioner has to collaborate with the other stakeholders (teachers, other non-teacher practitioners, parents/carers) in order to develop a teaching and learning plan.

The teaching practices in the extended educational contexts seem to be especially challenging for practitioners. To overcome some of these constraints, colleagues are in a way compelled to ask practice questions and to explore a) strategies to cope with challenging classroom situations, b) ways of maintaining professionalism with regards to everyday practices and multi-agency collaborations, and c) to conceptualise their own ‘curriculum’ (taking into account the content of the surrounding school curricular and extracurricular activities and in accordance with the explicit and implicit requirements of the organisation).

A way forward to improve teaching practices might be to ask what kinds of information practitioners consider to be relevant and how they will translate this knowledge into effective ‘real world’ action. A conceptual framework that might support such a transformation process is presented in the following section.

Why a Researchers' Conceptual Stance Might Contribute to Bridging the Theory-to-Practice Gap. The Problem Analysis Framework

This Special Issue argues that improving the implementation and evaluation of evidenced based (or informed) programs within extended educational settings requires the development of practitioner thinking and reasoning skills.

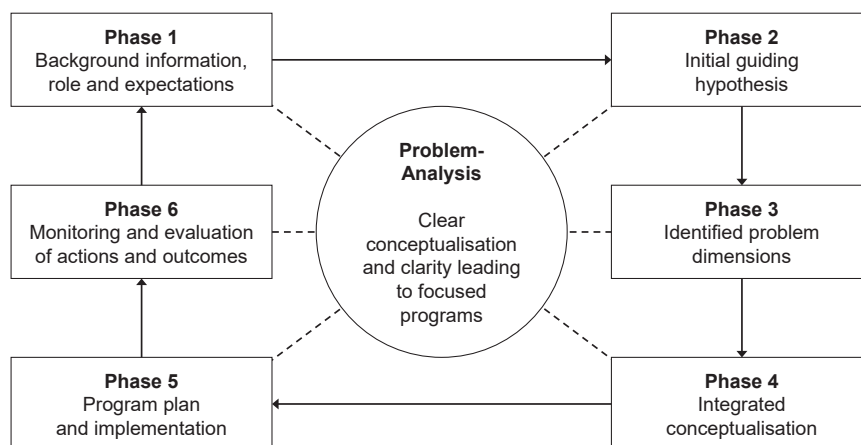
This can be achieved by emphasizing the need for more rigorous and collaborative problem-solving and decision-making processes and practices. Practitioners require the ability to think about complex work related problems in a more structured

manner which stresses the need for them to develop more of a ‘new scientist-practitioner’ stance (Lane & Corrie, 2006).

The Problem-Analysis cycle as an over-arching executive framework (see Figure 1) fits very much within the new scientist-practitioner model advocated by Lane and Corrie (2006) as it incorporates many of the core features of the scientific method. It also links very clearly with the five phases of research underpinning the translational research agenda within the new Implementation Science movement (e.g., (1). identification of the problem and a critical review of information, (2). identification of both assets and areas of concern, (3). designing and piloting a program, (4). assessing effectiveness, and (5). disseminating outcomes; Mrazek & Haggerty, 1994).

The Problem-Analysis methodology from the field of educational and child psychology (Monsen & Frederickson, In Press, 2008; Monsen et al., 1998) is presented as an example of an executive framework within which practitioners (following training and support) can conceptualize the phases of critical thinking involved in the steps of embedding sound research and theory into effective and sustainable applied practice (which actually makes a difference for children and young people and those close to them).

Figure 1. The six phases of the problem-analysis framework.



Note: Adapted from Monsen and Woolfson (2012)

Theories of Action

Effective practitioners think, reason and reach conclusions within specific social contexts. Argyris and his colleagues have argued that it is a vital part of training to actively attend to practitioner’s thinking and learning. Their view is that the gap between research and practice partly exists because such thinking and reasoning (the practitioner’s ‘set of governing variables’ or Theory of Action) is not actively

engaged but bypassed (Argyris, 2004; Argyris & Schön, 1974; Kennedy & Monsen, 2016; Robinson, 1993; Robinson & Donald, 2014).

Argyris and colleagues have framed the 'set of governing variables' as Theories of Action (ToA) and these take two forms: *espoused theory* (what the practitioner says the variables are) and *theory-in-use* (the variables that actually guide practitioner action) (Argyris, 2004, 2008, 2010). Identifying ToAs are key to identifying the impact that practitioner actions will have on actual practice.

Uncovering ToAs is not easy and is made especially complicated by (i) the differences between espoused ToA and in-use, (ii) the observation that most people often remain unaware of the discrepancies between the two and (iii) the prevalence of single as opposed to double-loop learning (Argyris, 2010).

'Double-loop learning' occurs when the mis-matches between espoused and in-use ToAs are corrected by examining the governing variables underpinning action in the first place. It is this type of learning that is most likely to increase practitioner effectiveness, as it leads to changes in the underlying principles governing the system, thus ensuring any behavioural change succeeds and is long-lasting (Argyris, 1993a; Robinson, 1993; Robinson & Donald, 2014).

Conversely single-loop learning essentially leads to superficial changes in behavior that are symptoms of the variables underpinning a particular system. This type of change may deal with one problem situation but because the core principles governing the system are not changed, the issues manifest themselves elsewhere or the change does not last. Research methodologies that provide a framework for not only uncovering both the espoused and in-use ToA but also provide structured approaches to the enhancement of practice are therefore of significant benefit. (Those interested in gaining more information on this related area are referred to Argyris, 1993a, 1993b; Owens & Valesky, 2015; Robinson, 1993; Robinson & Donald, 2014; Robinson & Lai, 2006).

The Problem Analysis Framework as an Aid to Developing Critical Thinking

Within the Problem-Analysis methodology a key assumption is that the ill-structured 'real world' problems of applied practice (with which practitioners are routinely involved), can be seen to involve a complex set of conceptual tasks and interactions between the practitioner, others and the context. Such interactions involve the conscious (and unconscious) management by the practitioner of a range of high order cognitive tasks, including information-processing, problem understanding and hypotheses-testing as well as interpersonal efficacy (see Theories of Action). The outcome of this process is a comprehensive formulation of a real world problem or dilemma that is jointly developed with problem owner(s), thus leading to a more focused and effective program.

Table 2. The problem-analysis framework – as applied to practice.

Framework to guide thinking and action according to phase	Practical issues
1. Background information, role and expectations <i>First</i>, clarify the problem situation or practice dilemma and check out who needs to be involved to solve it. <i>Then</i>, clarify your own role and brief with the key persons involved. <i>Then</i> formulate clear initial performance target(s).	Sometimes difficult to perceive a problem as a problem. A reflective stance is a prerequisite for the initiation of the thinking cycle.
2. Initial guiding hypothesis <i>First</i>, generate tentative initial guiding hypotheses in the form of 'If-so-then-what' propositions. Draft an Interactive Factors Framework (IFF)¹. <i>Then</i>, collect systematically objective information, which supports or dis-confirms your initial guiding hypotheses. Methods to do this might be observe environmental and social aspects, consult records, collect and examine work samples, ask colleagues, communicate with the child(ren), interview parents/carers, search the internet, read studies and so on.	Challenging to conduct these investigations because it demands training in exploratory methodologies. In addition, the practitioner never knows how many guiding hypotheses are enough (saturation).
3. Identified problem dimensions Based on the analysis of the information collected: Identify the various dimensions of the problem situation. Integrate supporting data and evidence under each conceptual dimension by clearly arguing why the particular dimension is problematic. Such an analysis provides a framework for organising and evaluating the mass of information collected.	This step needs elaborate analytical skills. Managing the inherent uncertainty within this task (there is no 'right' solution) might lead to practitioners' confusion.
4. Integrated conceptualisation <i>First</i>, formulate (an) integrating or linking hypothesis(es) which outlines a 'causal relationship' between the identified dimensions of the problem situation, including argued priority ones. <i>Then</i>, use the IFF diagram to clearly indicate how program strategies might impact upon the priority problem dimensions.	Although this seems to be an empirically driven process, theoretical/conceptual knowledge is clearly involved in this phase.
5. Program plan and implementation <i>First</i>, share the 'working' conceptualisation (including reasons and IFF) with the other relevant stakeholders and reach a shared understanding of the problem situation through discussions, including the child/ren/young person. Use the IFF(s) to structure the discussion. Revisit the initial performance targets (see Phase 1) and fine tune these in light of the outcomes of investigations, assessments and conceptualisation (problem-analysis). During discussions make sure that the performance targets finally agreed are as SMART² as possible, and that they are clearly linked to possible programs/interventions. Draw on relevant literature, including previous (effectiveness) studies to justify program decisions. <i>Then</i>, guide the discussion towards the details of implementation: the who, what, when, where, recording, monitoring, and review arrangements.	To plan a program or an intervention is a complex task. The collaboration with other stakeholders can be difficult. Especially if a conceptualisation should be reached together. In addition, to use relevant literature etc. for justification needs the skills to find, understand and utilize such material.
6. Monitoring and evaluation of actions and outcomes In preparation for reviewing the implementation make sure (is it relevant/appropriate) that both qualitative and quantitative data have been sampled to inform an evaluation of the effectiveness of the program. Jointly evaluate with all stakeholders the effectiveness of actions and the current status of the problem situation and what the next steps might be.	To conduct an evaluation (and present it with reference to the effectiveness of the program) needs extensive methodological knowledge and skills.

Note: Developed by Monsen to support teaching at University College, London. For more detail about the model itself please refer to Monsen et al (2008, 2012, In Press).

¹ The IFF Diagram is based upon the Causal Modelling Framework developed by Morton and Frith (1995). The Interactive Factors Framework (IFF) aims to represent what is known about a particular problem situation at a given point in time. It aims to present a 'snapshot' of the problem situation via a visual representation of the information collected.

² Specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time limited.

All those joining to solve 'real world problems' are seen as being involved in an active inquiry-based process, as 'meaning-seekers' and 'problem-solvers'. This view is informed by both theoretical models of how experts and novices go about solving complex and ill-structured real-life problems, and associated research looking at the constraints of human working memory, cognition and information processing systems (Monsen & Frederickson, In Press).

Table 2 details each of the six phases involved in the Problem Analysis cycle. As it is depicted, there are a range of issues for colleagues to consider. First, practitioners need to deploy analytical skills and adopt a reflective stance throughout the problem solving cycle (see Table 2, no. 1). In addition, the practitioner needs skills and knowledge in exploratory methods (see Table 2, no. 2) and access to relevant research/literature, (see Table 2, no. 4). Besides these analytic and applied research skills practitioners need to cope with uncertainty as they move through the thinking cycle (see Table 2, no. 3) and skills to effectively collaborate and jointly problem-solve with others (see Table 2, no. 5). There is also a need for skills in evaluating programs to successfully complete the problem-analysis thinking cycle (see Table 2, no. 6).

Finally, it is important to stress that collaborative research involves a partnership between researchers and practitioners. Each contributing important skills to clarifying dilemmas of practice and working towards solutions that are proportionate and doable. This means that both partners need to do things differently.

Conclusion and Future Directions

In the first part of this paper it was argued that programs in extended educational contexts are challenging for practitioners for a range of reasons. As a result, colleagues are compelled to ask questions, and conduct small scale inquiries to overcome these challenges. Their professionalism may be under scrutiny, and collaboration with other practitioners presents additional complexities. Voluntary attendance produces varying sized groups of pupils with different backgrounds and experiences (and knowledge). Coping with these problems depends on the individual practitioners' resilience as there is no specific guidance to tell them what to do. These context-specific challenges affect practitioners' practices and pupil outcomes.

In the second part of this paper the importance of practitioners being encouraged to adopt a problem-solving framework (e.g., Problem Analysis or similar) to guide both theoretical thinking and action was stressed. Thinking is made explicit, and thus open to inspection, validation and challenge. Adherence to explicit frameworks is not an indicator of a lack of experience or competency, but rather an approach which ensures intellectual rigour and accountability, and enables practitioners to be intentionally reflective.

All arguments presented in this paper support the hypothesis that practitioner's use of research within a critical thinking framework is necessary to improve their teaching practices. It also stresses the need for research partners to make their research accessible to practitioners. All the practical issues described (regardless of

whether they are a result of the context (Table 1) or of the attempt to bridge the theory-to-practice gap (Table 2)) demand practitioner's use of research to enable them to adopt an applied researcher stance.

Future directions might be to a) embark upon collaborative research partnerships between university based researchers and applied colleagues, b) provide training and support in thinking frameworks such as Problem Analysis – which includes an exploration of participants' Theories of Action, c) set up collaborative training courses and seminars in core research skills so that practitioners are more research literate (in the sense of a 'new scientist-practitioner'), and d) make research papers more available and accessible via web based partnerships and for researchers to be more informed about the practitioner context. Some of these strategies are currently being used to support teachers in countries such as UK and USA. It is time to expand these efforts to other practitioners in the extended educational sector and to other countries as well.

These combined strategies might contribute to bridging the 'research-practice' gap and develop and enhance underlying theories of action that otherwise could hamper the development of effective applied practice.

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A Framework for Developing the Knowledge and Competencies of the Outside School Hours Services Workforce

Jennifer Cartmel and Kylie Brannelly

Abstract: A skilled workforce is critical to the delivery of quality school age care services. A strategy called Core Knowledge and Competency (CKC) Framework was designed to build the skills and knowledge of after school care educators as they provided before and after school programs in Queensland, Australia. The strategy was to help educators meet the Australian National Quality Standard for Early Childhood Education and Care and School Age Care (National Quality Standards) (NQS). This article describes the use of realist evaluation principles to examine the implementation of this strategy. Improvements to the quality of the workforce were reported including less staff turnover, increased capacity and competence of educators which would result in enhanced outcomes for children. However the implementation of the strategy relied on highly competent leaders within the services.

Keywords: workforce development, mentors, school-aged care, leadership, child development

Introduction

Staff in before and after school services have the highest rate of under-qualification in the Australian care and education sector, which contributes to the low status of outside school hours (OSH) within the children's services sector (Simoncini & Lasen, 2012). There is a need for training and appropriate qualifications to equip educators to problem solve and respond appropriately to the demand for high quality services as assessed by the National Quality Standard (NQS) (ACECQA, 2013c). Due to the low pay and the status of the OSH profession, educators are often unwilling to undergo the further training and professional development needed to deliver quality SAC services to children (Simoncini, Cartmel, & Young, 2015; Simoncini & Lasen, 2012). Further, in relation to staff recruitment and training, when staff turnover is high there are concerns about a lack of continuity of care for children and problems for services in the amount of time required to train staff (Cartmel & Hayes, 2016). In response to these challenges, Queensland Children's Activities Network (QCAN), a membership organisation that provides advocacy and training for the school age care sector, devised a strategy known as the Core Knowledge and Competency Framework (QCAN, 2014a).

The Core Knowledge and Competency Framework (CKC) for Outside School Hours services (OSH) is a program of professional development to support educators in before and after school hours services to undertake their roles and responsibilities in improving outcomes for children. The Framework was developed by QCAN from a strong theoretical base around the expertise educators require in order to work with children in outside school hours services (QCAN, 2014a; 2014b). The CKC Framework contains information about child development and has a strong emphasis on building relationships and fostering critical reflection. The CKC Framework contains 10 areas of knowledge, skills and competence including:

- Child/Youth Growth and Development;
- Learning Environments and Curriculum
- Child/Youth Observation and Assessment
- Interactions with Children and Youth
- Engagement with Children and Youth
- Cultural Competency and Responsiveness
- Family, School and Community Relationships
- Safety and Wellness
- Program Planning and Development
- Professional Development and Leadership

Each area of knowledge was further divided into five levels of competence. Level 1 – Educators with minimal experience/new Educators (without or working towards formal qualification). Level 2 – Educators with increased knowledge & skills (working towards or holding Certificate level qualification). Level 3, 4 & 5 – Educators with capacity to undertake a mentoring role. Each level is a prerequisite to the next, with knowledge and skills in one level required before moving to the next. The progression of knowledge and skills in the Framework builds from a foundation of knowing and understanding practice, to the application of that knowledge in the planning and implementing of experiences, to being able to analyse and evaluate programs and practices more skilfully. The format of the Framework was a manual of written information with self assessment checklists for each of the levels of competence. It was designed as a tool for educators to self assess their knowledge and competencies in conjunction with a mentor – usually the leader of the OSH service. It was based on the principle that enhanced problem solving skills and decision making capacities enable educators to link theory to practice, significantly improving outcomes for them as learners (Kielblock & Monsen, 2016; Keen, 2011). Problem solving frameworks provide a clear process for this to occur. The CKC Framework was based on training principles linked to on the job learning which allowed the educators to actively participate in the OSH sector whilst learning.

It was the intention of the CKC Framework to support critical thinking through confronting pre-suppositions and ways of thinking by “closely examining all aspects

of events and experiences from different perspectives” (DEEWR, 2011, p. 11), The Framework required educators to reflect on their own understanding and practices through the support of the mentor and the resources of the Framework. Educators (following training and support) use the phases of critical thinking involved in the process of embedding sound research and theory into effective and sustainable applied practice, which makes a difference for children and young people and those close to them (Kielblock & Monsen, 2016; Marschark & Johnson, 2008). When educators imbed critical thinking in their practice, they begin to question generally accepted paradigms about the care and education of children (Macfarlane, Casley, Cartmel, & Smith, 2014) whilst linking contemporary theories to practice (Cartmel et al., 2015; Davies & Dart, 2005). Educators “utilising problem-solving as a part of critical reflection enables the construction and reconstruction of new knowledge” (Macfarlane et al., 2015, p. 331). Consequently educators in school age care services are able to imbed new thinking and practice into their programs, leading to transformational change (Mezirow, 1997) and ultimately improving outside school hours learning environments for diverse children and families engaging in the service (Brown & Lan, 2014; Elliot, Lawrence, & Ross-Raynor, 2008; Guilfoyle et al., 2010).

In Australia, the OSH workforce is drawn from a variety of disciplines (child care, education, health, arts, sport and recreation), which do not necessarily effectively prepare educators for work within the sector. In addition to this, the workforce continues to comprise of a large number of educators who do not hold, and are not expected to work towards any formal qualification (ACECQA, 2013a; ACECQA, 2013b). The diverse pool of educators from which the workforce is drawn adds a richness to school age children’s leisure time pursuits, that if limited could be detrimental to the programs offered to children. However, the lack of qualifications has raised concerns about the quality of the service delivery (ACECQA, 2016).

This paper reports on the evaluation of the implementation of the CKC Framework. Realist Evaluation principles (Pawson & Tilley, 1997) were used to determine *how* the program *works* rather than providing a success or failure assessment of its effectiveness (Pawson & Tilley, 1997; Bonell et al., 2012; McEvoy & Richards, 2003; Pawson, 2006). The hypothesis was that an effective self assessment tool (including a resource manual and self assessment booklet supported by leaders within the OSH services would counter the problems identified within the workforce. This evaluation intended to examine how the CKC Framework provided training to the educators in Queensland services.

Research Design

Realist Evaluation

Realist Evaluation is a theory-driven approach to the evaluation of social programs, developed in response to interest in understanding how interventions or social programs work (Bonell et al., 2012; McEvoy & Richards, 2003; Pawson & Tilley,

1997; Pawson, 2006). Traditional methods of review focus on measuring and reporting on program effectiveness. These methods are not easy to administer and often provide little or no clue as to why the intervention worked or did not work when applied in different contexts or circumstances, deployed by different stakeholders, or used for different purposes. Pawson & Tilley (1997) argued that programs are often introduced within complex social systems which are in constant transformation, and therefore evaluation needs to take into account the context within which they are implemented. As such, Realist Evaluation is useful in terms of understanding why an intervention produces dissimilar outcomes when implemented in different settings. It describes what mechanisms (how people interpret and act upon ideas and opportunities presented by the program) cause which outcome (intended or unintended consequences) and in which context (social and cultural conditions external to the interventions) (Pawson & Tilley, 1997). The use of Realist Evaluation provides an explanatory analysis aimed at discerning what works for whom, in what circumstances, in what respects and how. This methodology was appropriate to evaluate the effectiveness of CKC Framework, which had been developed from a body of knowledge about the understandings and expertise required for the workforce in outside school hours programs. The methodology uses Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configuration to organise the research process.

The research methodology has three phases within the research approach. These 3 phases have been summarised in Table 1.

Table 1. Overview of The Realist Evaluation Process for CKC Framework (Pawson & Tilley, 1997) and data sources.

Phases	Source of data and activity	Participants
Phase 1 Identification of CKC Framework program theory or hypotheses about Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configurations	• Review of the Core Knowledge Competencies – National After School Alliance (REF) • Systematic review – workforce development • Interview	• QCAN staff
Phase 2 Implementation – Testing the program theory	• Pre and post surveys • Follow up interviews and focus groups of leaders • Facilitator Journals	• OSH services leaders and educators
Phase 3 Refining the program theory	• Analyses and interpretation • Refined Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configurations	• QCAN Staff

In each of the following sections about the participants and data collection, details about each of the phases have been described.

Participants

Phase One

Participants were four QCAN staff members assigned to the CKC Framework project. The staff had created the Framework and the implementation strategy. Three of the staff became the trainers associated with the implementation phase that occurred during an 18 month period.

Phase Two

Participants were the leaders and educators who attended the QCAN sessions on the CKC Framework. The participants were identified through purposive sampling by the QCAN staff who were facilitating the CKC Framework training. QCAN staff invited participants in the CKC Framework training to complete pre surveys, and then post surveys after a period of 12 months, which asked them to rate their knowledge and confidence about their work with children. In total 583 educators completed surveys (n=329) mentor/leaders and (n=254) educators.

Mentor/leaders were mostly female with tertiary qualifications. The tertiary qualifications of participants were vocational qualifications in children services, 58 percent, and university qualifications in education and other university degrees in different discipline areas, 42 percent. More than half the mentor/ leaders fell within the age range of 20–40 years. Two thirds of the mentor/leaders had worked less than 10 years in the sector. These leaders were purposively selected as they had mentored educators in their services who were self assessing their knowledge and skills using the CKC Framework. Seven leaders attended a focus group and 10 leaders participated in interviews.

Three quarters of the educators were female. Thirty eight percent of educators had no qualifications. Those with qualifications had a vocational qualification in children's services. Educators ranged in age from over 17 years to older than 60 years, with nearly two thirds under the age of 30 years. 80 percent of educators had been working in the sector for less than 5 years, with 30 percent less than one year.

Phase Three

In Phase Three, the same four QCAN staff who participated in Phase One engaged in 2 focus groups to discuss their experiences and review the findings from phase two.

Data collection tools

Phase One

The data collection tools were based on a model of critical thinking. The focus group in phase one was structured around this model. The participants were encouraged to think deeply about the development of the CKC Framework materials and the implementation strategy. Further, this process was used in all of the focus groups and interviews in other phases.

Phase Two

Data was gathered using pre and post surveys, Most Significant Change (MSC) questions (Davies and Dart 2005) as well as critical reflections (Macfarlane, Lakhani, Cartmel, Casley & Smith, 2015; Cartmel, Macfarlane, Casley & Smith, 2015) were used in focus groups and interviews.

The baseline survey data was intended to measure levels of confidence and knowledge before and after the leaders and educators used the CKC Framework.

The MSC questions and critical reflections aimed to explore whether the training workshops and assessment resources assisted the leaders and educators to be a more effective workforce in outside school hours programs. There was a MSC question on the post survey and it was used in the focus groups and interviews with participants. The evaluations also examined the circumstances of the program leaders as they undertook their roles as mentors to educators in the implementation of the CKC Framework.

The surveys included questions about the knowledge and the competencies required for work in OSH services. The Leader Survey had additional questions asking about the knowledge and competence of leaders to undertake the role as a mentor to others.

Phase Three

Data was gathered using focus groups with staff from seven sites and interviews with staff from ten services were used to validate the findings collected using the other data collection tools.

Findings

Phase 1 The CKC Framework

During phase one of the Realist Evaluation, the staff at QCAN were interviewed to describe QCAN's collaboration with the National After School Association (NAA) to adapt the CKC Framework. These interviews provided the context around the development of the CKC Framework. It was noted that deductive development contributed to developing the program theory from a review of the research literature on how the CKC Framework is understood or expected to work, particularly based on the NAA Core Knowledge and Competencies (NAA, 2011). Inductive development describes the way in which the program theory was translated into an operational strategy. Observations and interviews with QCAN staff that were involved in developing the training and promotion of the Framework to the OSH sector provided the information about how the Framework was intended to be used. Consequently, formulation of the program theory from stakeholders' mental models involved drawing out the concepts of how the QCAN staff understood or anticipated the CKC Framework program would work. The CKC Framework used the material from NAA as a basis and was enhanced by QCAN staff to fit with their expectations of how best to

support educators in Queensland OSH services, and subsequently build an effective and sustainable workforce. The interviews with QCAN staff explored their accounts of the rationale, expectations and key aspects of the implementation of the Framework.

The QCAN staff developed the CKC framework to progress educators' knowledge and skills by building a strong foundation of "knowing and understanding practice" (QCAN, 2014a, p. 3) which educators apply in order to more expertly plan, implement, analyse and evaluate their programs and practices. Their aim was to ensure educators understood each of the ten Core Knowledge and Competency areas of the CKC Framework, consistently implement these areas, and mentor others in this process. They had formulated the manual and self assessment workbooks to ensure educators and mentor/leaders maintained motivation and engagement in the process. The intention was that the learning is applied throughout the process, and the participants would use the workbooks to help them link theory to practice. The QCAN staff stated that educators' learning is an intentional process of "self-directed enquiry to create change in skills, behaviour, knowledge or attitude" (QCAN, 2014a, p. 4). The Framework was written with the intention that the OSH service was the principle environment for educators' learning and on-going professional development (QCAN, 2014b). The QCAN staff were committed to the notion that the CKC framework would be crucial to the development of capable and competent educators, and of most importance was the linking of educators' knowledge and understandings to their every day practice to ensure quality learning and development for school age children (Snow, 2011).

The core set of understandings and competencies that school age educators require to effectively carry out their role and responsibilities as described in the CKC Framework acknowledge that children and educators are experiencing constant and rapid social change, including differing learning contexts. This requires educators to become effective decision makers by engaging in reflective practice to establish effective learning goals in the outside school hours programs that support children's development and learning (QCAN, 2014a). Decision-making and problem solving requires educators to have crucial knowledge regarding school age children's development and learning, including the brain development of children and young people (Keen, 2011; Muthivhi, 2013). Basing this knowledge on research helps educators to make informed decisions about what programs are best for individual children's learning and development (Snow, 2011). In this way, children's developing capabilities and their abilities to determine and make decisions and contribute to their world is valued, and their competence recognised (QCAN, 2012). This is achieved when educators engage in conversations of reciprocal trust and respect between school age children and themselves to foster opportunities for "sustained shared thinking, collaborative learning and relationship building" (QCAN, 2014a, p. 4). Building upon in-depth knowledge and understanding in collaborative decision making by "questioning, stimulating and scaffolding their thinking" (QCAN, 2014a, p.10) enhances educators' understandings of the school age children and practices within the programs they deliver. Furthermore, critical reflection of the service's program in the context of research theory provides for continuous improvement in practice directly

contributing to better-quality learning outcomes for school age children (QCAN, 2014a; Keen, 2011).

The Framework is attuned to the Australian context for National Quality Standards for School Age Care services (ACECQA, 2013c) as it assists educators to link new theory learned and prior life experiences to their workplace experiences. It includes references to *My Time, Our Place: Framework for School Age Care in Australia (MTOF)* which outlines practices to support and promote children's learning (DEEWR, 2011). One of the practices identified is critical reflection and on-going learning (DEEWR, 2011, p. 11), which adds further emphasis to the understanding that educator engagement in transformational learning is achieved through critical reflection of the viewpoints and perspectives entrenched in service practices (QCAN, 2014a). Mezirow (1997) describes this as "a process of effecting change in a *frame of reference*...associations, concepts, values, feelings, conditioned responses...structures of assumptions through which we understand our experiences" (p. 5). The CKC Framework purports that this cannot be effectively achieved without comprehensive and correct information about school age children's development, awareness of educators' own biases, and a safe, empathetic, trusting and accepting environment (QCAN, 2014a). Additionally, this must be underpinned by research-based knowledge applied through practical and effective pedagogy (NAEYC & SRCD 2007; Marschark & Johnson, 2008) for educators in outside school hours programs. This occurs when research and practice is integrated through the implementation of practices that reflect current research and theory, and in turn research on practice outcomes for children and educators influence further research (Gredig, 2011). Snow (2011) defines this as "creating a 360 degree informational loop" (p. 63). Snow (2011) further states "Bridging the gap between research and practice is the best way to ensure high-quality education experiences for all children and their families" (p. 63).

The implementation of the CKC Framework relied on strong leadership within OSH service, recognising that leadership exists across all levels and is often displayed by educators not employed in formal leadership roles. It was also recognised that adult learners retain knowledge and apply it more effectively when they link theory to practice. Subsequently the CKC Framework encompasses a "relevant, engaging, active, learner-centred" (QCAN, 2014b, p. 4) learning guide for workplace leaders.

The data gathered in Phase 1 contributed to the Realist Evaluation Methodology (Pawson & Tilley, 1997) Context Mechanism Outcome configuration as outlined in Table 2 underpinned the implementation of the CKC Framework, and was proposed to guide the evaluation process. Understandings about how to recruit and train staff, and about working with school age children were the key areas of theory that informed the program theory. The context describes the cultural, social and economic circumstances in which OSH services operate. The low status, limited qualifications and status of the OSH workforce are considered within a broader landscape. The mechanism (M) outlines the features of the CKC Framework, for example the component parts and the manner in which the QCAN trainers provide information to the OSH workforce about the Framework. The outcomes (O) are the transformational changes to the OSH workforce intended by the CKC Framework. Having a work-

force with deeper knowledge and competencies is likely to produce a higher quality of service to children, and be more likely to meet the National Quality Standard (ACECQA, 2103c). Furthermore, the OSH staff are more likely to stay working within the sector, reducing staff turnover.

Table 2. Proposed Context Mechanism Outcomes for CKC Framework (adapted from CMO configurations, Pawson & Tilley, 1997).

Theory Area	Context	Mechanism	Outcome
Training of staff	- Limited mandated qualifications and high expectations of leaders of OSH - Educator professional development needs to be continuous and involve mentoring and readily available resources - Professional development uses practical strategies and 'on the job' learning - Educators need to be confident and knowledgeable - Investment in casual staff is typically low	- Professional development includes access to a wide range of resources that give additional information about the competencies - Website resources are readily available - Continuity of professional development program is enhanced if they include mentors and handbook. - Competencies have been mapped to formal vocational qualifications	- Educators with access to high quality training are less likely to burn out - Educators using effective strategies can provide high quality outcomes for children
Knowledge of OSH workforce roles and responsibilities	- Diverse range of age groups of children - Parent's expectations that children will receive appropriate care - Educators are central to high quality	Educators who understand and use a wide range of strategies to engage with children and their families	- Meeting National Quality Standards for child care services - Effective strategies used by educators to achieve high quality outcomes for children
Recruitment of staff for OSH	- Turnover of staff - Teams of educators collaborate to provide OSH service - High level of skill required by OSH leaders to manage complexities of expectations of services – ability to work with children. Staff and parents - Staff recruited did not have qualifications specific to outside school hours care	Core Knowledge and Competency Framework, Handbook and Self Assessment guide	- Staff understand job role and see themselves as a valued member of a team - More efficient staff development processes to support 'time poor' service leaders

Phase 2 The Implementation

QCAN trainers planned and delivered a series of two workshops for cohorts of leaders in OSH Services in different cities and towns across Queensland. The training groups usually had 30–50 participants at each workshop session. The content of the CKC Framework manual was used to introduce strategy to the sector. The workshops consisted of power-point presentations, digital clips and individual and groups tasks. At the conclusion of the workshops the mentor/leaders were encouraged to reflect and self-assess, to ensure that were able to achieve self assessment Level 1 & 2 of the CKC Framework assessment. This process had to be undertaken before these leaders were to become mentors to the educators in their services who were going to engage with the CKC Framework. As the QCAN staff reviewed the pre-surveys (submitted during the training) and reflected on the discussions during the training sessions, they became acutely aware of the diversity in knowledge and competence of the cohort of leaders that they had intended to be the mentors for the educators in the implementation of the CKC Framework. The ability of the leaders to become mentors was limited by their own lack of knowledge and problem solving skills.

QCAN facilitators found they were required to provide a significant amount of additional support to leaders before they could start to recruit and engage with educators in their services. Some leaders did not even feel confident enough to explain the potential of the CKC Framework to educators. In response, QCAN staff introduced facilitated training sessions to support leaders in this task. They developed additional support material including resources about child development, adult learning, and operating school age care programs. Furthermore, these leaders/mentors requested a mentor or significant other to support them in the process.

Post training data was in the main gathered from leaders. The need to upskill the leaders so that they could undertake the role of mentors became the key focus of the QCAN trainers. Without the leaders as a key resource it was difficult to mentor educators in OSH services and expand the implementation of the program.

Phase 3 How did it work?

Interviews with the QCAN training team revealed that there was a significant need to ensure that mentor/leaders were knowledgeable and competent. Without competent and knowledgeable leaders as mentors it was not possible for the CKC Framework to work. The training and resources provided to mentor/leaders and educators as part of the program acted as facilitating mechanisms that improved their skills and confidence to undertake their job role. The program elicited positive change in the way in which mentors communicated and supported educators, and subsequently the way in which educators communicated with children. Unqualified educators were the least confident to undertake their job role. However, these educators utilising the CKC Framework, in combination with mentoring by leaders made the most significant improvement to their capacity to undertake their job roles.

The themes from the surveys, focus groups and interviews are summarised in the Content-Mechanism-Outcome format (Pawson & Tilley, 1997). Each theory area is

identified in Table 2 has been described by a set of CMO configurations. The context associated with each theory is described, and the mechanisms that are the features or actions associated with the intervention of the CKC Framework are listed. In the third column the outcomes of the intervention are explained (It is easier to read the findings down each column). Table 3 Training of Staff contains many comments regarding the leaders of service, and their impact on how the staff engage with opportunities for professional development. The context of the circumstances in OSH leaders operate is characterised by qualifications and the mechanisms included resources provided by QCAN as part of the professional development program. The leaders of OSH services contribute to create the culture of professionalism that contribute to a stable workforce.

Table 3. Theory area one: Training of staff.

Context	Mechanism	Outcome
• Limited mandated qualifications for leaders and educators. • Service leaders have qualifications in Children's Services and they are often leading staff teams with a diverse range of qualifications. • Educator professional development needs to be continuous and involve mentoring and resources such as a manual. • Professional development used practical strategies. • Experiential learning is important to creating.	• Explicit links to the Framework (DEEWR, 2011) and the National Quality Standard (COAG, 2009) in training manual and workshops. • Understanding adult learning and skills for coaching and mentoring.. • Collegial support between leaders of services. • Using the same professional language. • The CKC Framework provided more detail about job responsibilities than formal vocational qualifications. • Training conducted onsite in outside school hours care services using self-assessment, including opportunities to embed staff training into weekly practice. • Changing weekly rosters to free up some time for the staff to spend time undertaking self-assessment as part of the CKC Framework. • QCAN Website source of resources to complement self paced learning.	• Higher quality practices – Exceeding expectations in National Quality Standard Assessment. • The specific descriptors in the competencies provide support for the leaders to work with their staff. • Leadership within staff team. Mentoring is occurring at all levels in roles and responsibilities but it may take longer to see benefits across the whole service. • On the job training particularly for unqualified staff filled the gaps in knowledge about children's development, effective material to provide. • Leaders and educators engage in processes such as planning, reflection and self-assessment e.g. minimum one hour per week has enhanced sense of importance and status of roles. • Increased skills in reflective practice. • Leaders are able to provide more direct and intensive guidance to staff. • Educators more motivated to use CKC Framework, as they perceived it had more relevance than other qualifications.

It appears evident that the CKC Framework had a positive influence on the knowledge and confidence of leaders – see Table 4. Leaders were feeling an increased sense of professional standing, and were keen to engage with developing an OSH workforce, for example changing perspectives on recruitment of staff to seeking individuals who were keen to build a career in the OSH. This change in values and

attitudes would support developing a workforce that could more effectively contribute to meeting the National Quality Standards for Australian Outside School Hours programs.

Table 4. Theory area two: Knowledge of OSH work.

Context	Mechanism	Outcome
Educators are central to high quality.	- QCAN website of resources to support all aspects of competencies. Articles to support deeper knowledge. - Leaders able to more specifically describe strengths and weaknesses in practices of educators. - Resources to help service leaders, and change practices with a focus on observation. - CKC Framework Handbook has 10 competencies that describe practices and principles of daily work in OSH.	- Exceeding expectations in National Quality Standard Assessment. - Easier to undertake qualifications – providing more detail for deepening understanding of requirements. - Staff appraisal is more effective using the CKC Framework as the basis. - Leaders more articulate, informed and authoritative, and find it easier to ask management committee for time to do training. - Increased use of professional language. - Educators more aware of the value and use of observation as a core practice.

Table 5. Theory area three: Recruitment of staff for OSH.

Context	Mechanism	Outcome
Turnover of staff - OSH has been a place of casual employment.	- Detailed descriptions of roles and responsibilities – Levels 1 to 5. - Links between competencies of Diploma in Children's Services (OSH) and CKC Framework competencies.	- More permanent place of employment –Increasingly service leaders are recruiting staff that intend to stay in the sector and make a career of being an OSH educator, building a long-term workforce. - Some staff unable to commence/ complete the program due to staff turnover. - Greater chance of retention of staff as educators' expectations about job role more realistic and leaders feel they are able to support staff. - Leaders and educators feel more secure about how to effectively carry out their role. - Less time spent with orientation and trying to retain staff. - More meaningful staff appraisal

The recruitment of staff in OSH is supported by the CKC Framework – see Table 5. Working in outside school hours care is a complex job role, as there are multiple layers to the role, with expectations from several stakeholders. Due to the diversity of the backgrounds of the educators, it sometimes takes a while to establish an understanding of the parameters of the role. Having a list of the competencies as found in the CKC Framework makes it easier to transfer knowledge from the discipline area of the formal qualification to the competencies required to complete the role as educator.

Limitations

This project had a number of limitations, and these should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings. The intervention was in its early stages and therefore extensive data could not be collected. The face-to-face method of data collection is appropriate for gaining insight into newly implemented projects, however this method of collection was difficult due to the geographic spread of the CKC Framework training throughout Queensland. It was therefore necessary to use the self-reporting survey tool to gather a response from participants. A response from participants was more likely from those who had made time to use the CKC Framework after the two training sessions. Although some of the limitations could be deemed to impact on the validity of the findings, it is important to note that the findings of realist evaluation can help trigger new studies (Pawson & Tilley, 1997).

Discussion

The knowledge and confidence of OSH service leaders is critical to how the CKC Framework is implemented. Without competent mentors it is difficult to deliver the Framework to support educators. The expectation that an effective training program such as the CKC Framework can deliver changes to the workforce in the OSH sector is highly dependant on the capacity of the leadership.

Of note is that the CKC Framework worked in services when there was a high level of motivation and commitment by leaders of the service. The leader was able to help the staff translate the CKC Framework into knowledge and practice on a daily basis. A shortage of service leaders appears to create additional pressure; with educators sometimes promoted beyond their skills, experience and knowledge (Bretherton 2010). Further, without on-going mentoring and skills development, these leaders may subsequently ‘burn out’ and leave the sector (United Voice Children’s Services Union, 2011). Positive staff well-being reduces staff turnover. Staff turnover has the most far-reaching and potentially long-lasting consequences to the wider community as this affects the quality of the relationships between educators and children in child care (Gable et al., 2007). Furthermore, high staff turnover can affect the quality of professional practice within the program, and can undermine the professional culture (Whitebook & Ryan, 2011). This can have a cyclic effect on staff as it further contributes to levels of stress and depression on the employees who remain in the centre,

which can cause further turnover (Groeneveld, Vermeer, van Ijzendoorn & Linting, 2012). When educators do not feel equipped for the role and the aforementioned experiences, this may potentially undermine educators' capacity to provide quality care for the children in their program (Whitebook & Ryan 2011). Using the CKC Framework designed for OSH leaders and educators contributes positively to staff culture and staff wellbeing.

Conclusion

Growing numbers of children are spending time in outside school hours programs, subsequently leaders and educators have responsibilities and roles to ensure that there are high quality outcomes for these children (DEEWR, 2011). The capacity of OSH services to meet the Australian Government mandated National Quality Standard (NQS) relies on the understanding and capabilities of the educators (ACECQA, 2013c). Leaders who became CKC Framework mentors delivered OSH programs that were meeting or exceeding the National Quality Standard, as they were able to plan, implement, analyse and evaluate their programs and practices with a high level of competence. The CKC Framework enhances the quality of the care environments, with increased capacity to engage in problem solving and critical thinking. These characteristics enhanced the capacity of OSH educators to meet the assessment ratings of the National Quality Standard, and also reduced staff turnover – a positive outcome from the CKC Framework training on staff. Increasing the capacity and competency of the educator in turn increases the outcomes for the children.

The CKC Framework has the potential to be an effective development strategy for the outside school hours workforce. Leaders of OSH programs require a skill set that allows them to mentor the educators working in services. Without access to effective leaders in OSH services it is impossible to implement the CKC Framework.

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Practitioners' Use of Research in Decision Making about Organized Out-of-School Time Programs Serving Adolescents

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Abstract: Research shows that adolescent participation in organized out-of-school time (OST) programs (e.g., after-school programs) is linked to positive developmental outcomes. However, whether OST program practitioners use this research to inform their decision making is unclear. Therefore, a science-to-practice gap may exist in OST programs. To assess the use of research, 21 OST program directors from the United States were interviewed. Directors identified the components of their programs (i.e., goals and activities) and rationales for choosing each component. Direct questions about the use of research in making program decisions were asked. Findings revealed that use of empirical research was seldom mentioned. Practitioners referred to research in other terms including attending trainings, online searches, and learning from other programs. This suggests there is a science-to-practice gap in OST programs, but also points to several ways that researcher-practitioner partnerships may narrow the gap.

Keywords: out-of-school time, after-school programs, adolescence, decision making, use of research

Introduction

In recent decades, educational reforms throughout the world have led to a widespread expansion of extended education in the form of extracurricular activities and organized out-of-school time (OST) programs (e.g., after-school programs, community-based organizations) to supplement traditional schooling. As discussed in Ecarius, Klieme, Stecher, and Woods (2013), examples include the emergence of “all-day schools” in Germany and Switzerland, Dutch all-day “Brede schools”, Korean school-based after-school programs, Japanese after-school classes and clubs, and the growth of after-school programs in the United States.

A considerable financial investment has been made in extended education through social policies supporting the development of OST programs and in funding initiatives to generate new scientific knowledge concerning their effectiveness (Ecarius et al., 2013; Monsen & Woolfson, 2012; Tseng, 2012). Indeed, a large knowledge base has accumulated on the conditions under which participation in OST programs relates to various domains of youth development (e.g., Mahoney, Vandell, Simpkins, & Zarrett, 2009; Vandell, Larson, Mahoney, & Watts, 2015). It is clear that participa-

tion in OST programs *can* promote lifelong learning and development in the form of academic achievement, social-emotional competence, and psychological and physical health. This includes several long-term outcomes ranging from increased educational attainment to decreased criminal arrests and use of social welfare in adulthood. However, this same literature shows that poor quality programming is unlikely to be beneficial and could contribute to the development of adjustment problems.

Throughout the field of education, including extended education, there is an increasing expectation from policy makers that evidence-based practices be used to guide practical decision making (e.g., Granger, 2008; Tseng, 2012). However, despite the scientific evidence linking OST program participation to youth development, a limited investment has been made to ensure that this research is designed to be useful for the problems that practitioners face or whether the knowledge is accessible and interpretable by non-scientists (Coburn, Penuel, & Geil, 2013). Thus, although scientists and policymakers hope that research will be used to positively impact OST program practice, this may be the exception (Monsen & Woolfson, 2012).

The implication is that a gap between OST program research and practice may exist. The ramifications of such a gap are potentially far reaching. For example, for any given society, one can ask whether the investment in scientific knowledge on OST programs has any value if it does not ordinarily impact the decision making of practitioners at the program level. However, on a global scale, the rapid growth of extended education means that several million youth currently participate in OST programs every day. Therefore, to the degree that scientific knowledge is able to improve OST program practice and help to promote positive developmental outcomes, the economic and social capital loss related to a science-to-practice gap is potentially enormous. Hence, the main purpose of this investigation is to explore whether such a gap exists by elucidating the extent to which OST program practitioners use scientific research in their decision making.

Challenges to Using Science to Inform Practice in OST Programs

It is assumed that the use of research in educational settings will help to solve problems, aid in decision making, and improve the quality of educational programs (e.g., Monsen & Woolfson, 2012). Better quality programming should, in turn, lead to better developmental outcomes for the participants (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Therefore, from a logical standpoint, one can imagine a situation where the practitioner encounters a problem, searches for and finds research that provides information needed to make a decision, and uses it to guide their decision-making process (Tseng, 2012). In practice, this scenario is unlikely to happen because it is not grounded in the reality of practical decision making. Choosing a course of action in OST settings is a dynamic, complex process that does not necessarily follow what scientists may view as the most rational or logical route (e.g., Larson, Rickman, Gibbons, & Walker, 2009). This is particularly likely if communication between researchers and OST practitioners is limited. Three circumstances that are likely to impair practitioners' use of research in decision making about OST programs are described below.

The “One Way Street” of Knowledge

The above hypothetical scenario has been referred to as the “producer-push” model of research use (Huston, 2005; Tseng, 2012). In this model, a “one-way street” of knowledge from science to practice is followed. The assumption is that the practitioners will be logical and rational in their decision making and prioritize the use of scientific knowledge in problem solving because it is the best source information. However, as Asen et al. (2011) note, this is a fallacious assumption because the “lab to field” progression seldom predominates the process of educational decision making.

In many respects, the one-way street of science-to-practice places the burden of research use on the practitioner (and the blame for not using it). This is problematic. OST researchers rarely produce research that has been designed based on first-hand knowledge of practitioner needs. Likewise, OST researchers ordinarily do not disseminate scientific knowledge in a form that can be easily translated into practice. A well-known example is the eight program features associated with positive youth development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). These empirically-grounded features have been referenced in numerous scientific publications over the past 15 years and are common knowledge to researchers studying OST programs. Nonetheless, they offer only a general description of effective practices averaged across populations and settings and are not intended as a “how to develop an effective program” guide for practitioners (e.g., Larson et al., 2009). Moreover, because researchers seldom track the use of their research beyond counting the number times a work has been cited, the extent to which OST practitioners are aware of these features or make use of them is unknown. Thus, much of the existing OST research has been conducted to build the knowledge base rather than to solve “real world problems” identified by practitioners.

Moreover, with respect to communication and dissemination, researchers typically communicate their knowledge directly with other researchers. Discussion with practitioners ordinarily occurs indirectly, if at all. Although understanding what practitioners want to know from research is a logical place to begin if researchers want their efforts to be useful, this is seldom the starting point. Some challenges include the fact that researchers may not know or regularly work with practitioners, might assume they already understand the needs of practitioners, or simply ignore practitioner needs when developing their research agendas (e.g., Gould, 2016). Therefore, the one-way street of science to practice has generated a large body of evidence on OST programming that (if accessible) is waiting for practitioners to find it, discern the quality of the science, translate it to practice, and apply it to a particular population and setting. This scenario seems unlikely to happen in the typical OST program.

Multiple Forms of Evidence

Scientists may consider research to be the best information for decision making, but educational decisions ordinarily involve multiple forms evidence, only one of which *might* include empirical research. For instance, Asen et al. (2011) showed that research accounted for less than 10% of all evidence used by school board members

from three Wisconsin school districts. Moreover, the references to research were generally vague, brief, and seldom discussed or questioned.

OST program practitioners confront a myriad of public concerns and competing interests across diverse stakeholders. These concerns are ordinarily addressed by drawing on a variety of information sources that are rarely limited to scientific research. Therefore, practitioners will ordinarily value nonscientific ways to gain knowledge. These other forms of knowledge are not necessarily less important. As such, practitioners may not consider research to be the best source of evidence, particularly if it is difficult to find or presented in an abstruse manner with limited applicability to the practitioner's own program and population served (e.g., Huston, 2012; Weiss, Murphy-Graham, & Birkeland, 2005). As a result, decision making guided primarily by empirical research is likely to be uncommon for the typical OST practitioner.

Scientific and Practical Definitions of Research

Research is defined in different ways depending on who is asked (e.g., policymakers, practitioners, or researchers) (Huston, 2012; Tseng, 2012). Scientists may hold a narrow definition of research that focuses on the strength of evidence as determined by aspects such as internal and external validity, effect size, and publication following peer review. By contrast, practitioners may consider peer reviewed research as just another form of evidence to consider. As Tseng (2012) notes, other sources of information are valued and weigh into the decision making process for practitioners including, the practitioners' experience with, and knowledge of, the youth they serve, input from other stakeholders in the community (e.g., parents), and program requirements and demands from funders. Indeed, practitioner or "local knowledge" earned through experience is a prominent and respected form of evidence among educators (Honig & Coburn, 2008). Therefore, what the academic community views as powerful evidence may be less compelling to a practitioner who considers experience to speak louder than experiments.

In addition, the typical practitioner is not trained to be an effective consumer of research or to differentiate the quality of scientific evidence (Barton, Nelsestuen, & Mazzeo, 2014). This knowledge gap can lead to differences in what is considered to be research. For example, educators often describe the internet as a source for gathering information to guide educational decisions, but quality control of this information is limited and the material is seldom anchored in science (Gould, 2016; Huston, 2005).

Lastly, some practitioners may have an aversion to using scientific research. This could result from philosophical differences about the value of science, prior negative experience with research, or personal beliefs about what is most effective in practice. In other cases, practitioners may believe that research is not trustworthy because it can be manipulated to support varied, even opposing, positions.

The Present Study

Examining the use of research in OST programs has not been the focus of prior investigations. As such, the present study represents a first step into this area of inquiry

and there are limits on the scope of this investigation. The purpose of this study is to understand better practitioners' use of research in decision making about OST programs and determine if a science-to-practice gap exists. To do so, practitioners are asked directly to *describe* the reasons, or rationales, why they choose their program components (i.e., goals and activities) with particular interest in the role that empirical research plays in this decision making process. It is also of interest to learn how practitioners conceptualize the term research and the extent to which other forms of evidence are used to make decisions about program components. Taken together, this research has three main objectives: (1) To identify the goals and activities (i.e., components) practitioners identify for their programs? (2) To describe the rationales practitioners provide for choosing their program components? (3) To learn the extent to which the use of research is a rationale and, beyond empirical research, what other sources of evidence are used in the decision making process.

It is expected that there will be science-to-practice gap in OST programs. Specifically, practitioners will be unlikely to offer the use of empirical research as a source of evidence guiding their decision making. Instead, other forms of evidence, including personal experience and beliefs, shared "local knowledge" among staff, and requirements from funders or key stakeholders will predominate decision making. When asked explicitly about the use of research in decision making, it is anticipated that practitioners will consider research in broad terms and refer to sources of evidence that transcend empirical research (e.g., searching the internet, gathering ideas from other practitioners, trial and error learning).

Method

Participants

Interviews were conducted with a lead staff member at 21 OST programs (9 school-based after-school programs and 12 community-based organizations) serving 10-to-18 year-olds. The staff member chosen was the person most directly responsible for overseeing day-to-day programming at each site. Practitioners self-described their job title as follows: director or site coordinator (11/21 (52%)), lead teacher (6/21 (29%)), supervisor (2/21 (9.5%)), or primary caregiver (2/21 (9.5%)). Hereafter, these individuals are collectively referred to as "program directors" or "practitioners."

Program directors were invited to participate using a snowball sampling procedure. Initial contacts and interviews were made with program directors known to a member of the research team. Following initial interviews, program directors were asked to identify other OST program directors in the county that may be interested in the study. These directors were contacted, in turn, and the process was repeated. The resulting sample of 21 programs is diverse and includes some of the largest national OST programs in the U.S. (e.g., Boys and Girls Clubs of America, Girls Inc.) as well as local, independent programs operating in public schools and community centers. Across programs, 16 directors were female and 5 were male with an average of 10.8 years of experience working in OST programs (*range* = 9 months to 25

years). Educational attainment varied from completing some college to earning a master's degree and the modal level was a bachelor's degree in human development or education.

With respect to the geographical contexts of programs, 14 were located from a county in the Southwestern U.S. and 7 were located from a county in the Northeastern U.S. The approximate demographics of the Southwestern vs. Northeastern counties were as follows: population (3,169,000 vs. 536,000), urban (99.8% vs. 78.7%), median household income (\$76,000 vs. \$57,000), persons living in poverty (12.9% vs. 10.5%), White (42% vs. 83%), Hispanic (34.3% vs. 9.8%), Asian (19.6% vs. 2.2%), Black or African American (2.1% vs. 4.8%) (U.S. Census, 2016).

Data Collection Procedure

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with OST program directors. Interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. Participants were paid \$25 for completing the interview that required about one hour of time. To understand and describe the use of research in OST programs from the practitioners' perspective, the Scanlan Collaborative Interview Method (SCIM) was used (Scanlan, Russell, Wilson, & Scanlan, 2003). The SCIM offers the interviewee, in partnership with the researcher, the ability to derive a personal model of their program components and the rationale(s) for choosing each component. The method captures the practitioner's own words as he or she describes the program while also elaborating upon the sources of information that inform decision making.

To develop a model of each program, the practitioner first identifies the goals or outcomes youth are expected to gain through their participation. Next, the practitioner identifies the program activities provided. Each goal and activity identified is written on an index card and placed on the table in front of the practitioner after he or she describes it. The practitioner can add, delete, or modify identified components at any point during the interview. Next, the practitioner is asked how he or she decided that each component should be included in the program. For example, if "adult mentors" is identified as a component, she will be asked, "How did you decide that adult mentors should be a component within your program?" At this point, the practitioner identifies the source(s) of knowledge (e.g., personal experience, workshop, research report, etc.) that serves as the rationale for each component.

Finally, after the program model has been described and discussed, practitioners respond to direct questions about whether and how research may be used to make program decisions (e.g., "Do you use research in your decision making?). If research is used, then follow up questions are asked to discern what type of research is used and how it is involved in decision making.

Data Coding and Analysis

The analytic procedure is primarily descriptive and draws on qualitative methodology. First, through examination of the transcribed interviews, the lead investigator compiled an initial list of rationales. Next, the research team examined the tran-

scribed interviews and the initial list of rationales was modified through discussion until agreement was reached on a comprehensive list of rationale categories. Finally, rationales pertaining to the use of research were sub-categorized to identify the particular sources of information used by repeating the aforementioned procedure. Throughout this process, NVivo 11 software for qualitative data analysis (NVivo, 2010) was used to help identify and organize the practitioners' reports of rationales concerning why the different program components were chosen. Three independent raters were involved in establishing coding reliability. Raw percent agreement was moderately high for the coding of goals (89.5%), activities (88%), and rationales (91%). Inter-rater reliability for coding rationales was acceptable ($K = .71$).

Results

Results are described in three sections. First, program components are listed. Next, rationales for incorporating program components, including the use of research, are described. Finally, responses to direct questions about the use of research in decision making are presented.

Program Components

Goals

Program directors identified 75 different goals across the 21 programs. An average of 4.33 ($SD = 1.35$) goals were identified per program (range 2–8). Those goals listed by 2 or more programs are as follows with the number of programs identifying each goal in parentheses: safety (9), academics (8), social-emotional development (7), character/leadership development (4), fun (3), program affordability (3), homework completion (2), building relationships with adults (2), sports and fitness (2), life skills (2), teamwork (2), independence (2), and becoming well-rounded (2).

Activities

Program directors identified 61 different activities across the 21 programs. An average of 6.52 ($SD = 3.06$) activities were identified per program (range 2–13). Those activities listed by 2 or more programs are as follows with the number of programs identifying each activity in parentheses: homework (11), group and outdoor games (10), arts and crafts (8), academic enrichment (7), language arts and reading (6), video games (5), science (5), sports (4), group time (4), nutrition/snack time (4), fitness (3), character education (2), clubs (2), community involvement (2), free time (2), multicultural education (2), parent involvement (2), and guest speakers (2).

Rationale for Program Components

Practitioners described 17 different rationales for choosing the program components. Table 1 shows the six rationales reported by 50% or more of the programs along with the corresponding number of excerpts for each rationale and an example. Although these rationales were distinct, practitioners sometimes described multiple rationales for a particular component, or a single rationale was provided as the basis for several different components. The three most commonly reported rationales are described in more detail below.

Table 1. Most common rationales practitioners described for selecting their program components.

Rationale	Number (%) of 21 Programs	Number of Excerpts	Example Excerpt
Fun for Youth	18 (86%)	54	"They love fun. We try to make everything fun for them because usually, if it's not fun, they're not going to do it."
Skill Building	17 (81%)	45	"I have a big emphasis on teaching them life skills... like you should know how to sew... cook something for yourself... even hygiene and taking care of your body. Like be active."
Personal Beliefs	15 (71%)	61	"Because personally, like a philosophy, I really think that... if children have an outlet, whether it's art or music or sports or something they can invest their time in and we can nurture in them, it really keeps them from having the opportunity to make bad decisions."
Requirement	14 (67%)	73	"These are all grant requirements and that's what our company has said, 'These are approved activities for the kids to play.'"
Experience	14 (67%)	42	"By learning through doing it. You find out what works and what doesn't for your particular site."
Parent Request	12 (57%)	32	"[Homework] is a need from the parent. If it wasn't for the parents wanting it, I don't think we would do it in the program because we feel there's other enriching activities they could be doing."

Fun for Youth

The majority of practitioners reported that decisions about program components were based, in part, on whether the activities were enjoyable for youth. They recognized that youth participation was dependent on whether activities were fun. As one

director explains: "I've experienced times throughout my 8 or 9 years now, where we've been rather dull, and haven't kept the interest of youth and we've seen them walk out the door. So we've said, hey, we better keep adding things, or renovating the building, or whatever it took to make it an inviting place for youth to be. So we've learned from experience that they vote with their feet."

The level of enjoyment expressed by youth did influence practitioner decisions about whether activities would stay in the program curriculum. For instance, as one practitioner explained, activities that are not well received by youth are discarded: "I also learn by seeing if the kids enjoy the activity. Then, I know we could do it again. And, if they don't enjoy the activity, we won't do it again. ...if the kids don't really like it or they don't understand it, then we'll know next time not to do it."

Some practitioners viewed the provision of fun as an important function of OST programs because education policies for the school day emphasized teaching only traditional subjects. One practitioner explained: "In classes they don't get to do a lot of fun activities now because the teachers all have State standards that they have to teach. So, a lot of the fun things have gone away." However, practitioners did not report a contradiction between building school-relevant competencies and having fun. Indeed, one practitioner viewed integrating the two as central to the program's mission: "So our main focus here is to give them that aspect of a fun atmosphere, at the same time disguise learning, in a sense, to give them that so they can enhance their skills for the school day."

Skill Building

Most practitioners identified skill building as a rationale for program components. The particular skills that programs desired to develop in youth varied, but helping youth to see the value of education and be successful in school was described by several practitioners. In some cases, the decision to include academic components was fueled by a desire for youth to become effective learners and understand the significance of education for reaching life goals. As one practitioner described, "... we want to give them confidence and feel like they can be a great student. They have the tools and the study skills that they need to know how to learn something or ask questions to follow up with their learning... we also really want them to value their education and put a priority on that."

The other major skill building rationale was to develop social-emotional competence including fostering social skills, empathy, conflict resolution, leadership, and character development. One director described the rationale for social skills activities as follows: "Social skills are huge with us. How we treat each other, how we want to be treated. ...it feeds into our empowerment [goal] because a lot of people don't understand that they can stand up for themselves... we allow them to have that ability as well as telling others how they feel and having others feel that too." Another director described fostering life skills as a rationale for including social skill building, "I would have to say socialization skills and the proper ways of how to address certain people. Because, in this school in particular, they use a lot of profanity. They're not really respectful to their elders. ...Be respectful, be responsible, be safe, and have fun. If they're able to fully understand those four concepts, I think they'll be good with life in general." Finally, some practitioners viewed OST programs as

providing youth with a well-rounded education that included developing social-cultural competence. As one director said, "I think after-school programs do so much more than the school setting because we're working on the whole child, not just on math and reading. We're working on their social skills and how to relate to others and different cultures."

Personal Beliefs

Most practitioners made decisions about program components according to their own beliefs concerning what would be best for the youth they served. Often, these beliefs came from their experiences as a child or parent. For example, in describing why the program included community service, one director said: "I think just from my own growing up. My parents instilled certain values in me and my sister. And, then as my daughter went through school and seeing the choices that she made, she actually taught me to do a lot of volunteerism. So, I think it was something from my life that just came here." Similarly, another director discussed how she used her early experience to relate to the youth: "Another one too is just my personal values. A lot of them tie back to what I do at the site. Only because, as a student when I was child, if I did a component or if I did an activity, if nobody asked me what I got out of it, I wouldn't pay attention. And, that's just me personally. A lot of the students could relate. So, I would have to say that a lot of it is personal values as well."

Use of Research

Only three practitioners referred to research as a basis for making decisions about program components. In these cases, research was mentioned briefly and in reference to evaluation tools or documentation for activities. For instance, one practitioner described using research to reduce relational aggression: "...you can look up all of the work that [the researcher] has done. He is absolutely fantastic. ...he does years of research before he ever rolls any of this stuff out, and then he is very generous. He gave us all of the materials to use. There's a whole term manual that tells you every single goal. I mean it's really very detailed, so all of the goals and all of the activities are all planned out." Another director described using a long-standing instrument designed to evaluate after-school program quality – the School Age Care Environment Rating System (SACERS) -- as the basis for the program: "We've also had something called SACERS. It's a curriculum basically, to give you an outline of what your after-school programs should be like. That's what our program is modeled after or from back when we started. ...the basis for our program was SACERS."

Use of Research Themes

Most practitioners indicated that they did use research when the question was posed directly. However, the definition of what they considered to be research was broad and responses yielded 20 sub-categories, or themes, of research use. The most common themes that emerged around the use of research are shown in Table 2. Below the three that were reported most frequently are highlighted.

Table 2. Most common themes of practitioner-defined research use to make decisions and develop their programs.

Research Use Theme	Number (%) of 21 Programs	Number of Excerpts	Example Excerpt
Training and Workshops	13 (62%)	29	"We go through trainings and conferences and district meetings to learn more how we can add things to our program, how we can change things, possibly how we can make our program successful or offer more."
Online Information	12 (57%)	23	"...we research things on Google, different art sites and things like that, different games, new games to play. A lot of us will do internet research on that."
Learn from Other Programs	11 (52%)	18	"We go to the Boys & Girls Club or something like that. It's neat to see how they do their program. You can learn from that. You can go, 'Oh, maybe we should try that!'"
Share Ideas with Staff	11 (52%)	17	"I also try to draw from the other leads that I work with... especially the ones that have been here a long time. They're just full of knowledge and projects and ideas and other perspectives are definitely important."
Youth and Parent Report	9 (43%)	24	"We do kind of use the center surveys for the girls that are here... We do parent surveys at the end of every school year as well. Obviously we want the girls to love this place and really feel like it has everything that they need."
Learn by Doing	8 (38%)	10	"It's mostly just trial and error, to be honest. We try things out, if it works, it works. If it doesn't then we move on to something else."

Training and Workshops

The majority of practitioners reported learning about research by attending workshops or staff trainings. In many cases, their job required that they participate in these sessions. Practitioners reported gaining valuable information from trainings, particularly if they were geared towards "hands on" activities that were applicable to their own program. For example, one practitioner described her recent conference experience: "We had a workshop a couple weeks ago... in a session on like, STEM – science, tech, you know, all that stuff. And they built [STEM products] during the entire session! They engaged with the activities, and they came away and they're like, 'Yeah! I can actually use this!'" Another practitioner described value in trainings on bullying prevention: "...bullying has become a big thing. Over the last decade, it's

become a problem – cyberbullying – it's become an epidemic. We've had a lot of trainings on that and that's why we've implemented Character Counts so we can use a word in a positive manner, but also make them understand what's not good."

However, whether practitioners found the workshops valuable depended on experience and the provision of new information. One director discussed the diminished utility of workshops: "...working in this profession and having done it for such a long time that, even going to workshops or whatever, it's not much new compared to just experiences. I went to a workshop the other day and I was like dying. I'm like, I cannot believe I'm here because it's something we already know. I think if you're 18 or 19 and starting off in this field, then yes, great ideas."

Online Information

For the majority of practitioners, the Internet was a central resource to research OST activities and develop their programs. One practitioner explains: "I use the Internet a lot for my activities. You cannot continue doing the same things. Luckily there is the Internet now that helps you. You can Google anything and find tons of stuff. The Internet's totally helpful!" This sentiment was echoed by another director: "I'm trying to think of a bunch of fun things that I can do with them. Anything that I can come across on the Internet. ...you can find 8 million activities on the Internet. 8 million! Every link will take you to 5 million other ones, so it's nice." Indeed, some directors considered the Internet a primary source of information: "Research, for me, it's figuring out what we want to do to meet a certain goal. The best way now is to ask other people or on the Internet. The Internet really is my best friend. We are 'besties.'"

Although most practitioners did not mention searching for empirical research on the Internet, two did report finding some. In one case, the discovery was incidental: "Oh, it's interesting because going online, you do find things. Like, I'll be looking something up and they'll be somebody who has just done a thesis or paper on something and it's new. It's a different technology or technique that you weren't aware of that makes sense." In a second case, looking for research was intentional: "Um, I'll look at like different resources like the After School Today and different listservs I get. Um, just to see what research is out there, just to see what direction we're being recommended that we should go in."

Learning from other Programs

Practitioners also considered learning what other OST programs were doing as research. One director described this as a collaborative learning process: "I think it's very enriching to meet other people in the field that are doing similar things or finding out what other programs do. So, I guess it would be... collaborative groups." A second director responded similarly: "...working with your peers and how they are with the children, or different techniques they may have. I think that's a learning process too [and] some of it's really good. 'Hey, that's a great idea!' I really like how that person... or, 'Hey, that person, I really didn't like that idea.' So, guess what, 'Not.'" However, as another practitioner explained, the process was not always collaborative: "...you copy off of some others. You know, sometimes we'll just type in 'rec programs' and we'll find something that someone's doing in California and,

we'll be like, 'Oh, that's a good idea.' Um, so you either come up with it on your own, or you see that someone else is doing it, and you copy. You steal it."

Programs that were part of a national organization reported researching what the larger organization was emphasizing and then chose national components that made sense for their own program. "...it kind of starts with national. What's national focusing on? Is there any new curriculum that they're putting out that we want to be able to try, or any of that? ...we pick certain things that we feel like are most important for the demographic of youth that we have here."

Use of Empirical Research

Six of the twenty-one practitioners explicitly mentioned empirical research. Accounts ranged from vague knowledge of research to systematic data collection assessing program outcomes. For example, one director knew that a longitudinal study was being conducted with the program participants, but could not provide many details. "I know somebody... I don't know who it is but I should probably know. Someone is in the middle – again, I should know – of doing a long-term study with some of our youth that kind of started young and are now moving up in the world. Going through high school and stuff." Another director had general knowledge about research on girls' concerns over body type and appearance that affected curriculum choice. "I think the self-esteem and body image [components] comes from a lot of those articles and research... there are tons of studies that [younger] girls are becoming more, kind of, concerned with appearance and how they look. So, I feel like that does play a big role as far as the sort of national curriculums that are designed, but also what we want to decide to focus on here."

One practitioner discussed in more detail how the program engages in its own data collection for program evaluation: "...our program is a blueprint program, meaning that it's been well-researched nationally and, you know, has consistent outcomes from program to program. So, we all use a national tool called the Youth Outcome Survey. And, it's a pre- and post-test indicator of the child's assessment of their growth." However, systematic data collection was rare and programs typically used their own informal surveys to gauge youth and parent satisfaction or perceived success.

Avoidance and Misuse of Empirical Research

Some practitioners actively avoided using research. For instance, when asked whether research was used to make program decisions, one practitioner responded: "No. It's not my style. It's just not how I operate. I'm pretty much informal and relational and will try [something] and if it doesn't work that's okay, and try something else." In other cases, program decisions were made based on notions of science that have not been supported by empirical research. For example, one director chose dance as a program component because of findings on the so-called "Mozart effect." "... There's training on music with the kids and how it helps their brains develop differently. ...through the classes and trainings, you learn that it's supposed to be important because it helps kids' brains develop differently and think differently. You just

have fun doing it, too, so it has some advantage. I'm not saying we put on a ballet or anything, but silly little dances or whatever."

Discussion

This was among the first research studies to describe practitioners' use of research in decision making about OST programs. A major aim was to find out the extent to which a science-to-practice gap exists. Overall, the findings showed that research was seldom used in practitioner decision making about program components (i.e., goals and activities) or otherwise. Therefore, a fairly wide science-to-practice gap may exist. Researchers studying OST programs may have suspected this to be the case and the findings confirm those suspicions. However, results also show that decision making is not haphazard. It is influenced by a variety of other factors ranging from the practitioners' personal beliefs to the requirements of stakeholders. This is consistent with the complexity involved in understanding practitioners' knowledge discussed by Larson et al. (2015).

Given the worldwide growth of OST programming through extended education initiatives, and the potential for evidence-based practice to increase their effectiveness, the results have value. We now have some understanding of what sources of knowledge OST program practitioners use to make their decisions. This information can help researchers disseminate findings that are directly relevant to practitioner needs through sources they already access. This also coincides with Larson et al. (2015) who suggest that a strong rationale for gathering information directly from practitioners is to increase the likelihood that research findings will be the sort that they want and can use. Taken together, the findings may help develop strategies to close the science-to-practice gap in OST programs. The following discussion considers some of the implications for closing the gap and it is organized around the study's three objectives.

Practitioners' Reports of OST Program Components

All 21 practitioners identified goals and activities for their programs. Common goals included providing a safe environment and developing academic and social-emotional skills. In terms of activities, homework, games, arts and crafts, and academic pursuits were most common. The stated goals are in line with features of youth programs that can promote positive youth development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). However, these were program level goals. Some work has shown practitioners do not have specific goals for their interactions with youth (Zeldin & Camino, 1999) and further study would be required to see how effectively program goals are translated to practice.

Research is available to inform practical decisions about many of the reported program components. For example, in general, achieving program goals is likely to depend on having explicit and intentional links with activities demonstrated to

achieve such goals (Durlak, Weissberg, & Molly, 2010; Shernoff, 2013). Researchers can work with practitioners to achieve a strong link between goals and activities that are anchored in science. One example where goals, activities, and research may be integrated better is homework time. Homework was the most common activity, but seldom was it a program goal. There is evidence that homework supports academic achievement (Cooper, Civey Robison, & Patall, 2006). However, practitioners were also aware that homework time stifled engagement and it was often included just to appease stakeholders. As an alternative approach, research indicates that academic enrichment activities (i.e., hands-on, interactive, project-based learning) tend to be both engaging and predict increases in academic performance (Shernoff, 2010). Likewise, whether homework time is viewed by students as “more school” or an extracurricular activity may depend on whether it involves active, cooperative learning that allows for student autonomy (Kielblock, 2015). Thus, structuring homework to fit the needs and interests of youth may result in a desirable activity that also achieves academic objectives.

Practitioners’ Rationales for Choosing Program Components

Practitioners provided a range of rationales to explain why they selected their program components. Different from a strict “science to practice” approach to decision making, most practitioners chose components using input from multiple other sources, including stakeholders (i.e., youth and parents), personal beliefs, and program requirements (Honig & Coburn, 2008). Fun or enjoyment for youth was the most common rationale. Whether a program is enjoyable has not typically been included in measures of OST program quality, but perhaps it should be one. Enjoyment is a property of engaging programs (Bohnert, Fredricks, & Randall, 2010; Shernoff, 2013) and engagement, in turn, is critical for attracting and retaining youth. Practitioners appeared to understand this principle well. Nonetheless, knowledge of the importance of engagement/fun and the creation of engaging environments are different. In this regard, effective dissemination of research on the features of engaging programs would help to support practitioners’ interest. For instance, those practitioners who create engaging environments tend to be youth centered in their approach to programming and are effective listeners and observers of the youth they serve (Larson, Walker, & Pearce, 2005; Larson, Walker, Rusk, & Diaz 2015). Program activities are selected to be appealing and meet the specific developmental needs of adolescents. For example, two core tasks during adolescence – identity development and social relatedness – can be developed through OST activities that emphasize social problem solving through civic engagement (Shernoff, 2013).

Building skills was also a common rationale. This is an encouraging result because it shows that program goals go beyond mere supervision and that practitioners desire to impact a range of youth development outcomes. However, although practitioners clearly want youth to develop skills, they are not usually expert in assessing whether skill development has occurred (Larson et al., 2009). Researchers are in a position to collaborate with practitioners on the selection of methods to measure program-related impacts. Indeed, a variety of tools are available to assess program

quality, activity-related developmental experiences, and change in biopsychosocial outcomes (e.g., Larson, Hansen, Moneta, 2006; Smith, Akiva, McGovern, & Peck 2014).

Consistent with prior work with educators and athletic coaches, practitioners' personal beliefs also guided decision making in most of the OST programs (Gould, 2016; Honig & Coburn, 2008). Although these beliefs were not usually developed through knowledge of research, empirical support for the benefits of some resulting components (e.g., civic engagement) is available (Sherrod, Flanagan, & Youniss, 2002). This raises a question for further study concerning whether research needs to be used intentionally (vs. incidentally) to be effective.

Requirements imposed by funding agencies, higher level organizational directives, and requests from stakeholders (e.g., parents) were also common rationales. Therefore, practitioners do not always have a choice when it comes to program content and they may have more freedom in *how* practices are carried out rather than *whether* a particular component is included. Thus, beyond comparative studies of different types of activities, efforts to disseminate knowledge on best practices in commonly mandated activities should also be valuable to practitioners.

It was uncommon for the practitioners' rationales to reference empirical research. Only 3 of the 21 practitioners mentioned using scientifically-based information or instruments. These references tended to be brief and void of detail (Asen et al., 2011). Moreover, in some cases, misconceptions about research occurred. For instance, one director described the SACERS as a curriculum when, in fact, it is observation-based assessment tool to determine quality (Harms, Jacobs, & White, 2013). However, in another case, partnership with a university researcher led to the adoption of an empirically-based approach to reduce aggression. Therefore, connections with researchers may help practitioners' understand and use research more effectively.

Practitioners' Use of Research in OST Programs

When practitioners were asked directly whether they used research in their decision making, most said that they did. Consistent with prior work (Huston, 2012; Tseng, 2012), practitioners defined research in broad terms and the mention of scientifically-based research was uncommon. Instead, workshops and trainings, online searches, and learning from other programs were utilized to make decisions more frequently than empirical research. Although not mentioned frequently, it is possible that scientific research was incorporated into these other sources of information. Regardless, the results identify sources of knowledge that practitioners already consult. These venues could be targeted by researchers to disseminate their findings.

For example, researchers might discuss with practitioners the sorts of research that would be valuable to include in their trainings and then employ hands-on learning approaches that allow practitioners to apply research findings to their own programs. Collaborating with experienced program providers may be helpful in this regard. Likewise, the internet was used frequently and, in a few instances, practitioners reported finding empirical research. But, OST practitioners do not ordinarily have

the training or time required to assess the methodological soundness of a voluminous research literature on OST programs (Barton et al., 2014). Here again, researchers can be helpful in suggesting practitioner-friendly sites that accurately describe OST research, holding trainings on how to discern credible science from other material on the internet, and directly sharing relevant research in a usable format through email and using the list serves, blogs, and newsletters that they already consult. Finally, researchers can support practitioners' interest to learn about other programs by guiding them to model programs employing evidence-based practices (e.g., Shernoff, 2013).

It is also noteworthy that one director explicitly refused to use scientific research. A reluctance to use research in educational settings can stem from philosophical differences about the value of such evidence, but may also result from a distrust of researchers or a fear of evaluation (Coburn et al., 2013). Sometimes practitioners do not believe researchers are listening to them or are actually concerned with helping them to solve their problems (Gould, 2016). Developing authentic partnerships between researchers and practitioners can foster trust and facilitate joint collaboration to help fuse practice and science. Indeed, having a relationship with a researcher or research-oriented national organization was characteristic of the OST programs that used research in their decision making.

Researcher-Practitioner Partnerships

The preceding discussion points to examples where a science-to-practice gap in OST programming exists. Researcher-practitioner partnerships are one way to begin closing the gap. On the one hand, researchers need to make their work accessible and useful. They must be explicit about the implications of their research for practice so that it is applicable in "the real world." On the other hand, practitioners must have knowledge of what constitutes "good research" and become proficient in identifying and using such work appropriately in their particular settings. In this view, *the science-to-practice gap is co-constructed by scientists and practitioners*. Thus, to close the gap, it is suggested that partnerships involve training for *both* parties (Mahoney & Warner, 2014).

For researchers, training is needed to communicate research findings in a form that is useful to practitioners (Tseng, 2012). When making program decisions, practitioners must choose specific courses of action that fit their particular program amidst time, staffing, and costs constraints (Huston, 2005). Although researchers studying OST programs have much to offer practitioners in areas that interest them, their research often exists in a world of its own that is designed to be accessible by other scientists. To overcome this barrier, researchers must expend more effort developing their work *for* practitioners in a collaborative process that recognizes and values the expertise of practitioners (e.g., Hirsh, 2005; Larson et al., 2009; Palinkas, Short, & Wong, 2015). This will require that OST researchers know the phenomenon they are studying by spending time in practice settings, talking with stakeholders, and understanding the challenges they face (Larson & Walker, 2010). This will help to ensure that the resulting research is targeted to the needs of OST practitioners and designed to be useful to them from the outset (Larson et al., 2009). We direct the reader to

Barton et al. (2014) for steps to develop and maintain researcher-practitioner partnerships, and to Gould (2016) for approaches on disseminating research knowledge for practice.

Consistent with this proposal, it has been suggested that training researchers to work effectively with practitioners should be part of graduate school classes (e.g., Gould, 2016) and it can be done effectively at the undergraduate level as well (e.g., Mahoney et al., 2010). However, to encourage practitioner-oriented research and training, universities need to value these activities in the tenure and promotion process (e.g., Coburn et al., 2013) and invest in hiring action-oriented researchers. Likewise, funding agencies need to support the study of researcher-community training partnerships in the science-to-practice translation process (Tseng, 2012).

For practitioners, becoming educated consumers of science and understanding how to translate it into actionable knowledge for practical decision making is paramount. On this score, the study of effective practitioners by Larson et al. (2009) may inform how to go about such training approaches: "The expertise they need involves not logical, but ecological reasoning: to be effective, they have to employ ways of thinking and caring that are adapted to the complex dynamics and rationality of these different intersecting systems" (p. 78). To this end, Monsen et al. argue that practitioner training needs to include developing cognitive/reasoning expertise about problem solving to improve instructional quality and youth outcomes (Annan et al., 2013; Monsen & Fredrickson, 2008; Monsen & Woolfson, 2012). They provide a multi-phase problem-analysis framework where researchers and practitioners collaborate in a relational training process to develop theories of applied practice anchored in research and guided by critical reflection of personal experiences in relation to the scientific evidence. In addition, practitioners also need the skills to effectively enact the appropriate response(s) to the problem (Larson et al., 2009). Thus, practitioners need to develop both the reasoning skills to solve problems and the action skills to carry out the solutions competently in specific settings.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are limitations to the current study that provide directions for future research. First, a non-random sample of 21 programs was employed and the extent to which the findings generalize beyond this sample is unknown. Efforts to replicate the results within the U.S. and cross-nationally are encouraged. Second, the study was focused on describing whether research is used to guide decisions in OST programs. Explaining the conditions under which some programs do, and do not, use empirical research was not the goal, but it is a logical next step for the research program. Factors that may make research use more likely include: (1) practitioner-researcher partnerships, (2) belonging to a national organization, (3) mandated program evaluation, (4) mid-level supervisors being aware of research, and (5) practitioners with prior education and/or training in research. Possible differences in research use according to geographic location and type of OST program (school- or community-based) can also be considered in future work. Third, this study did not examine how different combinations of program components and rationales relate to program quality or

youth development. Moreover, the program components and rationales described by practitioners refer to their overall program model averaged across time. Assessing day-to-day and moment-to-moment choices is also needed to fully comprehend OST decision making (Larson et al., 2009). Finally, a better understanding of the information acquisition and dissemination processes within OST program organizations is required through systems level analysis of social connections and knowledge transfer. Social network analysis can identify how relationships, social hierarchies, and power structures relate to information exchange in educational settings (e.g., Daly & Finnigan, 2012; Finnigan, Daly, & Che, 2013). This approach might clarify decision making pathways that encourage (or impede) research use in OST programs.

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The Impact of Using Research on Teaching Practices of Non-Teacher Practitioners within German All-Day Schools

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Abstract: According to the literature, practitioners' use of research appears to play an important role in facilitating high-quality applied practice. Previous studies indicate that teachers have a positive attitude towards using research, but that they are rarely successful in implementing it in their actual practice. There appears to be a scarcity of studies that have considered the non-teacher practitioner. This paper analyses interviews conducted with non-teacher practitioners (n=20) who work in extracurricular programmes of German primary and secondary all-day schools. The interview data suggests that some practitioners gather evidence to inform their practices. A deeper analysis of two cases revealed how research was transferred into action. They provided examples of how practitioners could use research to improve their approach with children and young people. The conclusion of this paper emphasises the need to foster evidence-based practices, as well as rigorous problem-solving and decision-making, in the field of extended education.

Keywords: use of research, evidence-based practice, non-teacher practitioners, German all-day school (*Ganztagsschule*)

Introduction and Research Questions

Quality teaching is linked to a number of positive pupil outcomes within the extended education field (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Huang, La Torre Matrundola and Leon (2014) identified staff support, experience and training as contributing to effective programme organisation. In addition, they identified other aspects such as warm and positive relationships between practitioners and their pupils.

Yet, the role of a practitioner within extended educational contexts can be associated with tensions and ambivalences. Practitioners have to balance centrally developed policy that sets the goals for their “real world” practices with children and young people with their own skills and experiences (Andersson, 2010; Hjalmarsson, 2013; Närvänen & Elvstrand, 2015). In addition, the collaboration of practitioners with other staff members appears to be a complex task (Böhm-Kasper, Dizinger, & Gausling, 2016; du Bois-Reymond, 2013; Holm, 2015; Schüpbach & von Allmen, 2013).

The challenges of extended educational practices will increase even more in the coming years. For example, a) the development of more individualised approaches,

b) the need to accommodate a more diverse range of learners (e.g. due to developments towards ‘inclusion’ – the integration of pupils with a range of learning, social-emotional and behavioural needs in mainstream contexts) and c) the social acceleration (Rosa, 2003) causes the ‘half-life’ of relevant information about effective practice to become increasingly shorter. Practitioners must continuously undertake investigations (formal and informal) in order to keep up with the pace of change (e.g. stay familiar with new approaches, strategies and implement them into their own practices; continuously observe upcoming issues and ways of dealing with them. Examples are the rise of cyber-bullying and spread of pornographic content through the use of smart phones and other social media by children and young people).

Loosely based on a definition by Levin, Cooper, Arjomand, and Thompson (2011), *research* within this study can be understood as a systematic gathering of empirical evidence to address practical problems of teaching. This might mean reading journal articles and books, checking the internet, etc., but also conducting action research on one’s own. Visiting research conferences or (research-based) advanced training and systematically observing other practitioners also counts as research in this wider sense. So the *utilisation* of research refers to processes of the practitioner translating research knowledge into actionable practice. For a description of some of these factors, we refer to the paper by Kielblock and Monsen (2016). This study focusses both aspects: whether practitioners systematically gather information and whether they use this information to improve their practice.

Due to ongoing developments in Germany regarding the reorganisation from a half-day school system (which was very much based on classes that were exclusively provided by teachers) to an all-day school system (which involves different types of practitioners in the extended non-curricular context), non-teacher practitioners are becoming increasingly important as companions for pupils (Stecher, 2011). This paper focuses on these non-teacher practitioners within German all-day schools. We ask how non-teacher practitioners (within German all-day schools) integrate research (in the sense of being a “new scientist-practitioner” as described by Kielblock & Monsen, 2016) into their practices.

Review of the Literature

Although there is a range of studies on research utilisation published before 2000 (for example: Gitlin, Barlow, Burbank, Kauchak, & Stevens, 1999; Hubermann, 1993; Shkedi, 1998; Zeuli, 1994) and serious debates occurred in the 1990s (e.g. the Hargreave-Hammersley dispute: Hammersley, 1997, 2000; Hargreaves, 1996, 1997), the following literature review focusses on the past 15 years post 2000. During this period there has been an increasing interest and a growing body of research in this field around the world.

The literature search revealed that practitioners have more or less positive attitudes towards the use of research (Hamilton, Chen, Pillemer, & Meador, 2013; Pendry & Husbands, 2000; Williams & Coles, 2007). Teachers consider educational research findings useful for their own continuing professional development (Pendry

& Husbands, 2000) and are motivated to use research evidence (Williams & Coles, 2007).

The literature highlighted that two-thirds of practitioners consult research findings of some kind (Beycioglu, Ozer, & Ugurlu, 2010; Borg, 2007, 2009; Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006). This includes reading (Borg, 2007, 2009), consulting (Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006) and also “seriously considering” research findings (Beycioglu et al., 2010).

The literature revealed various findings concerning the sources of research and access to findings (Beycioglu et al., 2010; Cooper, 2014; Hamilton et al., 2013; Williams & Coles, 2007). There is evidence that academic journals are the most popular source of information (Beycioglu et al., 2010). However, in another study by Hamilton et al. (2013) they found that practitioners preferred the World Wide Web. On the whole, teachers and head teachers are much more confident about finding *general* information as opposed to *research* information (Williams & Coles, 2007). For example, only about 60 per cent were confident about locating *research* information concerning a specific topic, while 90 per cent were confident of locating *general* information (Williams & Coles, 2007).

Besides reading and finding research, a major issue is applying research to everyday practices. Teachers do not feel very confident in overcoming the research to the practice gap (Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006; Williams & Coles, 2007). Papasotiriou and Hannan (2006) found that half of the interviewed Greek teachers “who read research did not apply what they read to their everyday practice” (Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006, p. 368). Teachers “based their practice on common sense and experience” (Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006, p. 370). Here again, it seems to make a difference whether general information or research information is evaluated and used: Practitioners are less confident about using *research* information in contrast to *general* information (Williams & Coles, 2007).

The literature showed that some practitioners were involved in conducting research themselves (Borg, 2007, 2009; Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006). Teachers reported that they had participated in research projects (Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006) and were personally conducting research (Borg, 2007, 2009).

The literature describes barriers that may lead to the non-use of research (Borg, 2007, 2009; Hamilton et al., 2013; Landrum, Cook, Tankersley, & Fitzgerald, 2002; Manuel, Mullen, Fang, Bellamy, & Bledsoe, 2009; Nassaji, 2012; Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). The barriers identified covered a lack of time for reading and doing research (Borg, 2007, 2009; Hamilton et al., 2013), a lack of personal interest (Borg, 2007, 2009) and problems in understanding research findings (Borg, 2009; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). Issues about the appropriateness of the research to inform “real-life” practice (Borg, 2007, 2009; Manuel et al., 2009; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010), as well as the accessibility of research findings (Borg, 2009), are all problematic. For many practitioners colleagues and life experience are seen as being better resources for practical advice than research findings (Landrum et al., 2002; Nassaji, 2012; Papasotiriou & Hannan, 2006). Teachers may not be actively undertaking research because they feel that their professional core is teaching rather than being an applied researcher (Borg, 2007).

The literature identified a range of potential factors that could facilitate the use of research (Borg, 2007, 2009; Cherney, Povey, Head, Boreham, & Ferguson, 2012; Levin et al., 2011; Manuel et al., 2009; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). If using research is valued and there is dedicated time for reading and doing research it can happen (Manuel et al., 2009; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). Funding and grants are also important in facilitating both the undertaking and the use of research (Cherney et al., 2012; Manuel et al., 2009). In addition, a facilitator is implementing a formalised organisational structure that stresses the use of research (Levin et al., 2011; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). Research should be made accessible and relevant (Levin et al., 2011) so that it can be applied to practice (Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). The benefits provided by using research to inform practice must be apparent (Cherney et al., 2012; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010), especially for those individuals involved. There is evidence that personal factors such as wanting to find better ways of teaching, continuing professional development or solving problems in teaching (Borg, 2007, 2009) facilitate research use among practitioners.

The literature revealed a range of factors that both hinder and support the undertaking and use of research. Two main issues informed the current study. First, although the literature search was not restricted to 'teachers' there was little information on non-teacher practitioner use of and attitude towards research. Consequently, we asked whether the findings are also true for non-teacher practitioners (e.g. within the German context). Second, the literature appears to reveal little about how non-teacher practitioners integrate research into their practices and whether research use makes a difference. Neither of these questions can be fully addressed within this study, but we would like to make an initial contribution in addressing them.

Methods

Study Context

The current study was based in Germany. 60 per cent of German schools are all-day schools that provide both classes and extracurricular activities (KMK, 2016; for details on all-day schools in Germany, see e.g. Stecher, 2011). The other 40 per cent are half-day schools that focus on traditional class based curriculum. 90 per cent of all-day schools have additional non-teacher staff members who are actively involved with pupils in the extracurricular time of the school day (StEG Konsortium, 2013, 2015). There are a variety of persons who are commonly referred to as non-teacher practitioners in Germany since there are no specifications to what qualification is required for this work. Most common depictions show childcare workers for young children with about 30 per cent as the largest group and social workers with about 10 per cent as the second largest group (Höhmman, Bergmann, & Gebauer, 2008). Newer analyses present a more heterogeneous picture showing that one-fourth of the practitioners have multiple qualifications (Kielblock & Gaiser, 2017).

The evidence presented in the next section originates from the second phase of the Study on the Development of All-day Schools (StEG; *Studie zur Entwicklung von*

Ganztagsschulen), which was funded by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF). In its first phase (2005–2011), the StEG broadly evaluated the implementation of all-day schools in Germany, a country that formerly had half-day schools as the most common form of education. The second phase of the study (2012–2015) focussed on more specific research questions. In addition to three other institutions that conducted the StEG in its second phase, the team at the Justus Liebig University Giessen, Germany (StEG-Q) analysed the quality and effectiveness of extracurricular activities. The data used in the following section stems from the StEG-Q study.

Table 1. Characteristics of the non-teacher practitioner sample.

School form	Pseudonym	Age	Part-/Full-time	Formal qualification
Primary	Ms A.	<30	part-time	other academic degree
Primary	Mr B.	31–40	full-time	pedagogue in special education (aca.) & caregiver in special education (voc.)
Primary	Ms C.	41–50	full-time	pedagogue in special education (aca.)
Primary	Ms D.	41–50	full-time	social worker (aca.)
Primary	Ms E.	41–50	full-time	geologist (doctorate) & coach (aca.)
Primary	Ms F.	41–50	full-time	other vocational training
Primary	Ms G.	41–50	part-time	other vocational training
Primary	Mr H.	51–60	full-time	childcare worker (voc.)
Primary	Ms I.	51–60	part-time	social worker (aca.)
Secondary	Mr P.	<30	voluntary	(not in training yet)
Secondary	Ms Q.	31–40	full-time	social worker (aca.)
Secondary	Ms R.	31–40	full-time	social worker (aca.)
Secondary	Ms S.	31–40	full-time	other academic degree
Secondary	Ms T.	41–50	full-time	librarian (voc.) & pedagogue (aca.)
Secondary	Ms U.	41–50	full-time	childcare worker (voc.)
Secondary	Ms V.	41–50	full-time	pedagogue (aca.)
Secondary	Ms W.	51–60	full-time	childcare worker (voc.) & social worker (aca.)
Secondary	Ms X.	51–60	full-time	childcare worker (voc.)
Secondary	Ms Y.	51–60	full-time	pedagogue (aca.)
Secondary	Ms Z.	/	full-time	other vocational training

Note: Categories for formal qualifications come from a short questionnaire after each interview. Abbreviations are used to indicate the qualification level: aca. = academic training; voc. = vocational training.

Locations and Study Participants

In 2013 and 2014, data was collected from nine different all-day primary and secondary schools in Hesse, Germany. The study focussed on collecting in-depth information on the perspectives of pupils, teachers and non-teacher staff.

For the interviews with non-teacher practitioners, study participants were selected to represent a range of different professions, years of experience, and the amount of regular hours at the school, etc. It was recognised that it was more difficult to make an appointment with a practitioner if he/she had fewer working hours at the school. This selection bias can clearly be seen in the part-/full-time column in table 1.

The analysis presented in this study focussed only on the non-teacher staff. A sub-sample of 20 non-teacher practitioners was interviewed during the Autumn/Winter 2014.

Data Collection

The selected practitioners voluntarily agreed to participate in the research. The audiotaped interviews took on average about 17 minutes each (minimum of 8 minutes and maximum of 25 minutes).

The problem-centred interview (Witzel & Reiter, 2012) was used for data collection. This interview technique “integrates dialogic and narrative forms of communication throughout the whole interview communication” (Witzel & Reiter, 2012, p. 79). Relevant topics are listed on an interview guide that the interviewer has learnt before the session.

Opening question: Imagine that a young person who just finished school is looking at different types of vocational training or academic studies. This person asks you what your job is like. What do you tell this person?

Relevant topics: (a) definition of own job (“professional self-concept”), (b) possible/desired future direction of their current job, (c) inclusion and (d) possible/desired future of inclusion

The opening question and the relevant topics were piloted and changes made before being used in the current study. Since we were especially interested in the use of research as an *integral* part of the professional strategy we decided to use this very general opening question. We were aware that more specific questions would have resulted in richer descriptions and stimulated narratives about research utilisation from more interviewees. However, our focus in this study is clearly on those non-teacher practitioners who *inherently* stress a credible evidence base, rigorous problem-solving, etc., when they are asked “what is your job like?”. We could interpret these cases as being what Kielblock and Monsen (2016) call the “new scientist-practitioner.” Yet, this clearly does not mean that the others who did not mention research utilisation in their interviews do not value or use research.

Data Analysis

The data was analysed using the following steps. First, the interview audio files were transcribed verbatim. Each audio tape was then listened to and a list was made of the topics discussed (e.g. Bohnsack, 2010, refers to this as “topical structuring”). From this list relevant passages in the interviews which linked to the research questions were identified. Selected passages were then paraphrased in order to understand the meaning (which is also recommended as an analytic step by Bohnsack, 2010).

At this early stage of the analysis, each interview was treated as a single case study (Yin, 2009). Three heuristic questions were used as a conceptual framework for the analysis and guided case-related in-depth analysis: a) what is the everyday job like in general, b) what problems, exceptions, challenges or unpredictable situations does the job bring with it and c) what coping strategies does the interviewee use/suggest. Each of the three questions for each interviewee were answered by doing an in-depth analysis of the qualitative interview material within a compact case description. Then each narrative was compared (Charmaz, 2005) and three groups of practitioners were subsequently identified representing three different kinds of “professional strategies” – a “use of research strategy,” a “research-oriented strategy” and a “non-research oriented strategy” (see Outcomes section).

Then we focused on two specific cases (Ms E. and Mr B.) for further in-depth analysis. These cases were selected because they provided rich examples of how research looks in the practice. Both practitioners incorporated the ‘use of research’ strategy. An explanatory case-study analysis was undertaken (Yin, 2009) with the focus being on explaining the practitioners’ research utilisation strategy.

Outcomes

Different Research-Related Strategies

The comparative analysis led to three different groups being identified. The first had incorporated ‘research use’ as an explicit work-related strategy (n=3; 15%; Mr B., Ms E. and Ms T.). They held positive attitudes towards research and provided evidence that they utilise the information to inform their practices. The second group had a ‘research-oriented’ strategy (n=8; 40%; Ms C., Ms Q., Ms R., Ms U., Ms V., Ms W., Ms X. and Ms Y.). This means that they mentioned the importance of research and research-oriented information (e.g. high-quality advanced training, etc.), but provided no evidence during the interviews that their research was actually altering their practice. The third group followed a ‘non-research-oriented’ strategy (n=9; 45%; Ms A., Ms D., Ms F. Ms G., Mr H., Ms I., Ms P., Ms S. and Ms Z.), which meant that emphasis was placed upon (non-systematically gathered) personal experiences and personal advice from colleagues.

A Researcher's Stance Fosters Innovative Practice

Ms E. was the first case identified for in-depth consideration. She was in the 41–50-year-old age range and worked in the extracurricular programme of an all-day primary school. She had an academic background as a geologist and a PhD in marine geophysics. “I have many occupational identities because I originally came from academia” (Ms E.; F3; 16–17)¹. However, she also saw herself as a ‘pedagogue’ at school. From her perspective, working as a non-teacher practitioner while also being a researcher made her professional profile unique.

In the interviews, Ms E. presented her *broad knowledge base*. For example, in one interview passage Ms E. discussed how neurosciences supported the idea that “relationships are very, very important” (Ms E.; F2; 13–16). Relationship building seemed to be a major facet of her approach, and she worked on developing positive relationships with her pupils as a necessary prerequisite for teaching (cf. Ms E.; F3; 19–22). Another example was that she placed an emphasis on the fact that a pedagogue needs to have “a great deal of background knowledge so that you can answer the questions that the children have. This also includes questions that are not directly on the track of the regular curriculum. Sometimes this is a challenge” (Ms E.; F2; 18–20).

In her opinion, especially non-teacher practitioners may “have the time that allows them to look to the left and right of the main track because they are not so deeply involved in the bureaucracy. I have the impression that teachers are no longer able to do this. They are so absorbed that they do not have enough time [...]” (Ms E.; F2; 43–46). These passages clearly showed that she did not believe that her position as a non-teacher practitioner was a shortcoming; instead, it is a specific strength and has potential. As a non-teacher professional, she had the time to accumulate a broad knowledge base so that she was well-prepared in most educational situations.

Ms E. was an active member of the committee on “Out-of-School Learning” at a major teaching association (the name of the association is not given to protect the anonymity of Ms E.). From her perspective, the meetings of the association are a good opportunity for gathering new concepts to improve her own practice. She said: “I believe that this is where you can learn very well from each other – and exchange fresh ideas” (MS E.; F1; 226–230).

Her teaching repertoire appeared to grow as a result of attending conferences. Ms E. was convinced that a good practitioner was curious and active: “An intelligent person [...] tries to learn things and then becomes active instead of simply sitting around and looking at what others do and doing what another person tells you to do” (Ms E.; F3; 25–30). She expressed concern that some people did not master the transfer from concepts into practices. She pointed out that these people seemed to simply take the practice recipe knowledge for granted. Her strategy was generally based on the utilisation of research. This facilitated the way that she embraced a comprehensive repertoire of teaching concepts, which were based on the best available information.

1 Citation format: F1=1. Field work phase (autumn/winter 2013), F2=2. Field work phase (spring/summer 2014), F3=3. Field work phase (autumn/winter 2014). The following numerals = line number in the transcript.

Ms E. mentioned that she had recently had to deal with pupils who were a “little more difficult.” Right before the interview, she participated in an advanced training session on Non-Violent Communication. Now she tries “to transfer a little bit of it, in the sense of Rosenberg” into her practice (her interviews were actually full of the “big names” in educational research) and described her conviction that this has “enormous value” for the pupils (Ms E.; F1; 108–112). This example showed that she succeeded in interlinking newly gathered information (in this case, from the advanced training session) into her everyday practice. She implemented new ideas in her work and stressed their importance for the pupils.

Practical Problems can be Managed More Effectively by Using Research

Mr B. was chosen as a second case for in-depth consideration. He was in the 31–40-year-old age range and director of a daycare centre that collaborated with an all-day primary school. The daycare centre provided most of the extracurricular care time so that the primary school could be called an all-day school. Mr B. was a caregiver in special education (vocational training) and also a pedagogue in special education (academic training). Like Ms E., Mr B. appeared to be a ‘researcher’ during the interviews. He strongly emphasised knowledge and staying up-to-date. His narratives also included many big names and concepts in educational research. Moreover, he provided empirical evidence that his conceptualisations were applied rigorously in solving practice problems.

In contrast to Ms E., Mr B. almost always spoke of “we” as a team (and not “I”) when he described his work. In the passage discussed below, he was not the only person who had the solution for a problematic issue. The whole team observed the situation, gathered ideas from the literature and then implemented the advice drawn from these sources.

The following example illustrates a new facet that was not as apparent in the analysis of the Ms E. interview. In this passage, Mr B. explained how research was utilized to improve problem-solving:

“We have a new child here. This child’s parents became exasperated because he refused to do his homework at home. This turned into a fight, and he wouldn’t do his homework. Then he came to us, and we observed the child and the situation. We thought about how we can conceptualise what we observed. We did not think that he, as a fourth grader, must know this and that. Instead, we focussed on his problems. Where could we possibly find research literature or the like for his case? One colleague in particular found something and said: ‘This learning type that I found reflects the child relatively well. So let’s apply the ideas and advice for this learning type to this child.’ Since then, there is no more frustration: The child is not frustrated and there is no more frustration at home.” (Mr B.; F3; 268–303)

In this passage, the act of consulting the research literature had a positive effect on the teaching practices. It becomes clear that the teams’ systematic approach led to an adequate conceptualisation of the situation. Implementing the advice given in the literature resulted in positive outcomes for the child, but also for everyone else involved (practitioners, parents, etc.).

Discussion

This study emphasises research utilisation as a relevant topic within extended educational research. It presented evidence that three distinct groups of non-teacher practitioners could be identified from the sample of 20 in terms of the degree to which they used research to inform their practice: a use of research strategy, a research-oriented strategy and a non-research oriented strategy. In-depth analyses showed that innovative practice become apparent when a practitioner adopted a more scientist-practitioner stance.

In light of the methodological approach adopted in this research study there are both strengths and limitations. The qualitative sampling technique might have underestimated the possible range of cases. For example, this might influence how the three groups of diverse professional strategies are generated: If there were completely different cases in the sample, these three groups might have looked different or even more groups could be found. A second limitation is that the specific context plays a crucial role for research utilisation (as mentioned earlier, Mr B. acted as part of a team and Ms E. operated more or less on her own). It was not possible in this initial exploratory study to go into anymore depth on this important area. Future studies may allow more explicit reflections on how the complex context affects research use. The methods used have potential strengths as well. The interviewees were not explicitly asked about their use of research. The rationale for this was that the interviewees would be open to share their self-conceptions and professional strategies in order to analyse whether research utilisation was deeply rooted within the individuals' strategy.

The conceptualisation of three distinct groups in terms of their *professional strategies* may be useful in explaining what we know from the literature: the relatively high proportion of those *considering* research (both the research-use strategy and the research-oriented strategy) and the low proportion of those *applying* research (just the research-use strategy).

Overall, the current study is consistent with the literature presented earlier in this study. For example time is being a critical factor in enabling research utilisation (Borg, 2007, 2009; Hamilton et al., 2013; Manuel et al., 2009; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). Both case studies support the impression that it is time-consuming to continuously keep one's own knowledge current (Ms E.) and solve problems using the best available research information (Mr B.). Yet, the analysis showed that it can be possible to invest this time under specific circumstances. For example, Mr B.'s daycare centre team had so many obligations that it would have not been surprising if they had said that it was impossible to do an individualised investigation for just one child. Yet, the evidence showed that the daycare centre team *takes* the time for the children who need more attention. One interesting reflection was that Mr B. expressed this approach as being a normal obligation of his job. (As a reminder: The interviews in this study focussed the professional self-understanding and not e.g. individualised forms of support.)

Both of the cases are valuable for presenting examples of what research use can look like in the practice. This may not only be helpful to researchers in our research

field but also to staff in the sector of extended education. From an international perspective, we are starting to understand the many positive outcomes of practitioners' research use. We acknowledge that Germany is beginning to embrace more evidence-based practices in the extended educational sector. Yet, it is hoped that this study provides some suggestions for the future direction of educational policy, practice and research.

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Improving Pedagogical Practices through Gender Inclusion: Examples from University Programmes for Teachers in Preschools and Extended Education

Susanne Kreitz-Sandberg

Abstract: Working with gender equality in teacher education embraces a wide range of policies and practices. Against the backdrop of relevant research on gender in preschools, universities and teacher education, the study provides an outlook of the praxis on selected Swedish university programmes for preschool teacher education and teachers in extended education. The study is inspired by educational ethnography and applies quantitative and qualitative text analyses of programme and course documents. The article describes how gender perspectives can be systematically incorporated into university teaching through curriculum design and constructive aligned teaching. The author discusses whether the described pedagogical practices and gender inclusion in higher education have the potential to promote (preschool) teacher students' systematic acquisition of values, knowledge and skills as a precondition for improving sustainable pedagogical practices. The article also touches on the relevance of the results for the field of extended education and academic training for pedagogues and teachers who work in non-formal educational settings.

Keywords: gender, preschool, extra-curricular education, preschool teacher education, sustainability, intersectionality, theory and practice

Introduction

Improving pedagogical practices in extended educational contexts and the use of research have become connected poles in discussion of out-of-school education in information and knowledge societies. Pedagogues are encouraged to develop their professional skills through life-long education (Stecher & Maschke, 2013). An increasing number of children are participating in non-formal education contexts, which are generally linked to institutions and (educational) organisations. Certification has less importance in informal than in formal education and self-directed learning is stressed. "An essential task of out-of-school educational research is therefore to answer the question of how non-formal educational contexts should be designed so that successful and optimal learning processes are being made possible"

(Stecher & Maschke, 2013, p. 19). Structures and processes as well as training for professional groups working in extended education have come to attention.

Klerfelt and Haglund (2014) describe that the training and education for pedagogues working in extended education is not to be underestimated and give examples from research on extended education in Sweden. Preschool teacher education as well as teacher education had been integrated into Swedish universities since the 1970s. There are overlapping fields for preschool teacher programmes, primary teacher programmes and secondary teacher programmes. With recent reforms in teacher education in 2011 the professional title for pedagogues working in after school institutions has changed from “leisure-time pedagogue” to “teacher working in leisure-time centres” (Klerfelt & Haglund, 2014) or – in some other places – “teachers working in extended education”.¹ This change in terminology indicates that both training and tasks of pedagogues working with children after school have become increasingly formalised. However, if we follow the logic in the introductory chapter to this issue, both after-school institutions and preschools can be described as extended education as they are not subject to certification, compulsory attendance and systematisation to the same extend as formal schooling (Kielblock & Monsen, 2016). In other words, these institutions leave much room for self-directed learning and we might want to consider which expectations this places on the training of teachers in preschools and extended education, also in relation to gender.

Internationally, gender equality and equity are highly relevant topics for teachers’ education. Working with gender equality in teacher education embraces a wide range of policies and practices which according to UNESCO (2015) range from formulating gender-responsive policies and plans, working with institutional culture, environments and teacher attitudes, to designing gender sensitive instructional materials and pedagogy. On a macro level, management tools and evaluation strategies have to be developed in accordance with aims of gender mainstreaming. The curriculum for teacher education institutes (TEI) has to be assessed and developed.

The curricula adopted by TEIs in preparing future teachers should be carefully revised. A quick look at the curricula set by many TEIs around the world [...] reveals a grave shortcoming regarding issues of gender equality. For example, students being prepared to become schoolteachers are given courses on education theories, the psychology of learning, teaching methodologies and class management, evaluation and assessment, and one or two practicum courses. *Nowhere can any emphasis on gender equality issues be seen.* Even courses on curriculum design do not address such issues. This problem of omission needs to be addressed by curriculum designers of TEIs. (UNESCO, 2015, p. 60, emphasis added by the author)

UNESCO strongly recommends including gender into the different courses that form the curricula. However, they also mention that there is so far a shortcoming with such initiatives.

Over the last decade, teacher educators and gender researchers in the Nordic countries have worked with gender inclusion and gender-sensitive teaching in university programmes (e.g. Erixon Arreman & Weiner, 2007, Hedlin & Åberg, 2011, Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013). Teacher educators in Finland have worked strategically with gender awareness in teacher education programmes (Lahelma, 2006, 2011).

1 Primary teacher programmes include in Sweden four branches now; one for teachers from preschool-class to year 3, two for teachers from year 4-6, alternatively 7-9, and finally one for “teachers in extended education”.

In Sweden, Lenz Taguchi (2005) recommends introducing post-structural feminist thinking into preschool teachers' education and Reimers (2006) favours understanding of intersections of norms about nationality, sexuality, and ethnicity as topics for preschool teacher training (Reimers, 2006). Norm-critical positioning and intersectional gender pedagogy are seen as possibilities to change university teaching (Kallonaityte, 2014; Bromseth & Sörensdotter, 2012; Lykke, 2012).

Gender inclusion is – as this article will argue – important in all pedagogical university programmes, training primary and secondary school teachers as well as preschool teachers and teachers in extended education. Gender dimensions are important in university pedagogy (Metz-Göckel, 2012). Gender inclusion integrates ideas of gender mainstreaming and gender sensitivity into university teaching (Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013). Working with gender inclusion is meant to prepare students to develop socially sustainable pedagogical practices that build on gender equality and gender fairness in their pedagogical work with children. In higher education, gender inclusion is not an end in itself but a means to inspire students to incorporate gender discourses into their pedagogical work in practical fields. Gender inclusion is a set of working strategically for gender equality in university studies by engaging all university teachers into the work for more gender equal and gender sensitive teaching (Bramberger, 2015; Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013). Gender inclusion aims at the pedagogical dimensions of realising gender equality policies and can be seen as a complement to gender mainstreaming, which is more of a political tool.

The purpose of this article is to investigate how gender inclusion as a pedagogical practice in higher education has a potential to promote (preschool) teacher students' systematic acquisition of values, knowledge and skills as a precondition to improving sustainable pedagogical practices in extended education. The basic assumption in this article is that knowledge for designing courses for higher education (e.g. Biggs, 1999; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Toohey, 2002) can also provide necessary perspectives on working with education for pedagogues and teachers in the extended education field. The article features how working with gender equality issues can systematically be included into university programmes through curriculum design and constructive aligned teaching. *Constructive aligned teaching* concentrates on the learning outcomes of different activities. It describes intended learning outcomes, creates learning activities and assesses students' performance according to standard grading criteria (Biggs & Tang, 2011).

The author exemplifies different strategies with illustrations from selected Swedish university programmes, one programme for preschool teacher education and one for teachers in extended education. The examples are chosen from an internal programme evaluation grounded in systematic quantitative and qualitative text analysis of programme and course documents. In the following article, this data will be analysed in order to gain a deeper understanding how gender inclusion in the university curriculum can play an important role for pedagogical practices in extended education. Methodological considerations and research ethical concerns are being introduced. The reader will be guided through different steps of quantitative and qualitative analysis of a preschool teacher curriculum in order to discuss possibilities of a systematic inclusion of gender perspectives into the training of pedagogues. Guiding questions are how gender, equity and related topics are being addressed in

programme and course syllabuses, and how intended learning outcomes, learning activities and assessment of related topics are organised. Pedagogical implications will be discussed for the field of extended education with a focus on weather and how such strategic work in higher education can be regarded as precondition to improving pedagogical sustainable practices in non-formal education.

Methodology Framework

The study introduced here is in some means inspired by educational ethnography. According to Hammersley and Atkinson (2003) ethnography is best understood as a reflexive process. However, the general goal of ethnography is to gain knowledge and many ethnographers would not want to apply ethnography with a goal of programme development. However, the inspiration this study received from ethnography is that more than only one source of material will contribute to a more complex picture of the educational reality described. As a case the author chose one university in Sweden that in over a decade has strategically worked with gender inclusion in all teacher education programmes. As far as the interest of this article is on extended education, two programmes were chosen, preschool teacher education and the programme for teachers in extended education. However, due to limitations only results from the preschool teacher education programme are presented.

The study builds on data from an internal program evaluation. When compared with external evaluations, an internal evaluation has the advantage that the evaluators have access to certain informal knowledge of the programme that they are already familiar with (Conley-Tyler, 2005). According to Conley-Tyler (2005) “an internal evaluator will need to rely on standards such as ‘professional competence, objectivity, and clarity of presentation’ [and to] a transparent methodology that will allow the results to speak for themselves” (Conley-Tyler, 2005, p. 8).

The study builds mainly on text analysis of programme and course documents. Analysis of student examination, informal interviews with course representatives and the director of studies, as well as some observations during programme meetings and courses are used for contextualisation of information that was gained through the below more systematically described document study.²

Research Ethical Concerns

Both internal and external evaluators face a number of ethical issues. Internal evaluators are said to deal with stronger cases of divided loyalty and pressure to suppress negative results, but there is according to Conley-Tyler (2005) no compelling ethical reason to prefer external to internal evaluators. Informed consent, privacy, avoiding

2 While programme development was an interest of the initial internal evaluation, the results presented here aim to contribute to a more complex analysis on how constructive alignment in higher education can support students' systematic acquisition of values and skills as a precondition to improving pedagogical sustainable practices in non-formal education, over the boarders of the university programmes described just here.

harm or exploitation and considering consequences for future research are relevant ethical concerns for ethnographic studies (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2003).

Participation in the study was voluntary. The director of studies and all course representatives were informed about the study. The programme documents, which were analysed are public and were downloaded from the university server. So these are not confidential. Students' examinations were anonymised before analysis. The project is not about evaluating certain actors' engagement and no names will be given in the text. However, as the university is widely recognised, there is a risk that information about certain participants may be revealed. Participants were invited to discuss the early results before publication. The study does not risk harming individual participants or invade their privacy and results are only published in the context of research and with the intention of programme development. The study follows research ethical concerns (Bryman, 2016; CODEX, 2010).

Material and Analysis

The quantitative and qualitative document analysis for the preschool teacher programme builds on the following documents:

- Programme syllabus
- Course syllabus for all courses (28 courses)
- 17 study guidelines³
- Written examination from a selected course
- Other programme documents, e.g. related to teaching practice
- Conversation and E-mail communication with teachers in the programmes and head of programme (after consent)
- Participation in courses and programme meetings

Different steps of analysis are described in connection to the presentation of the results.

Local Background

The curriculum for Swedish preschools (Lpfö 98, rev. 2010) states:

The preschool should counteract traditional gender patterns and gender roles. Girls and boys in the preschool should have the same opportunities to develop and explore their abilities and interests without having limitations imposed by stereotyped gender roles. (The Swedish National Agency for Education, 2010, p. 4)

3 Each teaching practice is considered being an own course and has an own syllabus but study guidelines include information both on the course and associated teaching practice. This results in fewer study guidelines. Three guidelines were not available because they were under revision before an upcoming course.

If preschools shall live up to this central aim in the preschool curriculum preschool teachers need to be trained for this task. Gender equality has been given a lot of attention in Swedish preschool research during the last decades (Dolk, 2009, 2013; Eidevald, 2009; Karlson & Simonsson, 2008, 2011; Heikkilä, 2015; Hellman, 2010, 2013; Lenz Taguchi, 2005). In Swedish preschool policy and practice, gender equality has since the 1960s focused on treating girls and boys equally, based on assumptions that this is desirable. According to Edström (2005, 2010), this is still the approach. Working critically with gender in preschool education can be perceived as a self-evident content. Including feminist theory and introducing norm-critical perspectives is therefore no new recommendation in Swedish preschool teacher education (Lenz Taguchi, 2005; Reimers, 2006). What is new for this study is that it systematically follows up how related topics can be incorporated into specific programmes and that it starts off in an evaluation of how gender equality and equity matters are being touched on in specific (preschool) teachers' programmes.

In Sweden preschool teacher education is studied at university. National aims for all preschool teacher education programmes are stated in the National directions for higher education and are regulated in the Swedish Higher Education Act⁴ and according to further regulations (e.g. Ordinance 2009:1037, Ordinance 2006:173). New teacher education programmes were introduced throughout Sweden in 2011.

The students study 60 credits educational science (ESc), 120 credits preschool education (PrE) supplemented with 30 credits teaching practice (TP). ESc courses are on topics such as the Preschool's role in society, Development and learning, Documentation, Social relations, Special needs education, Preschool evaluation and Research methods. PrE courses cover topics like "Preschools' educational content and objectives in relation to children, parts 1 and 2", Play, Aesthetic learning as well as Preschool mathematics, Language and Natural sciences. Many of the courses are combined with TP. The final four-week TP and the Degree project are in the field of preschool education.

Local universities are governed by the National Ordinance, but define their own policy documents like the syllabus for the programme and the courses, so there is some flexibility in the aims and goals a university or faculty defines for its programmes. Similar to preschool teacher education, the programme for teachers in extended education is studied in close collaboration with other teacher education programmes. The programme for teachers in extended education comprises 180 ECTS; 60 ECTS in educational sciences (ESc), 30 ECTS in practical and aesthetic subjects (PAeS), 60 ECTS in extended education (EE). The final thesis and 30 ECTS in teaching practice (TP) are conducted in relevant fields for extended education. So, although these are programmes training staff for extended education the structure of the programmes is very similar to other teacher education programmes.

4 Higher Education Act, Chapter 1, Sections 8-9; translation available through The Swedish Council for Higher Education 2013.

Results

The programme syllabus for the preschool teacher programme contains 22 targets that describe values, knowledge and skills to be mastered by the students. Three of these goals address values and skills concerning gender and equity:

- Communicate preschool values, including human rights and democratic values
- Prevent discrimination and degrading treatment of children
- Consider, communicate and establish an equality and equity perspective in educational activities (Ref: LiU-2016-00393, revised 2016-02-16, author's translation).

The term equality (Swedish: *jämställdhet*) focuses on gender-equal relation and the term equity (Swedish: *jämlikhet*) addresses the acquisition of similar rights and positions for people from different social backgrounds.⁵ These goals are directly taken from the national ordinance for preschool teacher education. Each university decides how the national goals are to be realized. The local preschool teacher education programme syllabus states: "The programme acknowledges and supports critical reflection about gender, class and ethnicity dimensions in learning and teaching." (Ref: LiU-2016-00393, revised 2016-02-16, author's translation) This sentence is quite relevant, as we will see that similar formulations are used in many of the course syllabus in the university's (preschool) teacher education programmes.

Quantitative Analysis of the Curriculum (Course Content and Goals)

All documents, programme syllabus, course syllabus and most study guidelines were available from the university website. Through a systematic quantitative analysis of course documents it will be illustrated which courses address gender and related topics and whether the terms are explicitly mentioned in the description of the content and the goals (X) or somewhere else in the course documents (O).

Relevant terms were chosen after an in depth study of course documents for the first year of study. See table 1 for the distribution of terms such as gender, class, ethnicity, norm-critical, intersectional, women, men, and children's rights. The search was extended to closely related terms, like sex, social background, diversity, norm, normalization, and democracy or democratic (x, o). In the search process truncation was applied. I double-checked the context where the terms appeared, e.g. that class was really aiming at social class and not at school class.

⁵ This aim is represented both in the syllabus for teachers in extended education and for preschool teachers.

Table 1. Gender content in the courses.

	Classification TP included	Gender (sex)	Class (social background)	Ethnicity (diversity)	Normcritical norm,normaliz).	Intersection	Equality (equity)	Man/men Woman/women	Children's rights democra-).
Year 1									
Preschool & society	ESc TP	X	X	X	O		O	O	X
Development & learning	ESc	X	x	X	o			O	o
Documentation	ESc				o			O	O
Preschool & Children, 1	PrE	X	x	o	X	O		O	
Play	PrE TP	X	X	o				O	
Aesthetic learning, 1	PrE TP	X	X	X	O	O		O	
Year 2									
Language, 1	PrE TP	X	X	X		X		O	
Mathematics	PrE TP	X	X	X				O	
Science and technology	PrE TP	O						O	
Language, 2	PrE							O	
Year 3									
Aesthetic Learning, 2	PrE	X	X	X				O	
Preschool & Children, 2	PrE TP	X	X	X	X			O	
Collaboration	PrE TP	O						O	O
Pedagogical leadership	PrE	X	X	X	X	X	X	O	
Social relation	ESc	X						O	
Special education	ESc	x	X	X				O	
Preschool evaluation	ESc							O	
Year 4									
Research method	ESc							O	
Teaching Practice	TP (PrE)						O	O	
Thesis	PrE	O		O				O	

Note: Educational science=ESc, preschool education=PrE, teaching practice=TP; X (capital letter in bold style) indicates that the term is explicitly mentioned in the course content or goals; O indicates that the term is mentioned somewhere else in the syllabus, in the list of references or in the study guideline. x and o indicates use of related terms which are in (brackets) in the syllabus or guidelines.

Table 1 shows that gender perspectives are mentioned in the syllabus and study guidelines of courses with quite diverse content, both in the field of ESc and PrE. Most of the syllabuses relate to the topics gender, class and ethnicity. This is not only related to courses on values, democracy and children's rights, where one could expect social categories as a self-evident content. Also in other courses that are not explicitly related to questions of value education or democracy, perspectives on gender, class and ethnicity are according to the quantitative analysis integrated into the course content. The students encounter norm-critical perspectives in quite a few courses and the term intersectionality is used on some occasions. Gender is slightly more frequently mentioned in the syllabus than social background or ethnicity. The concepts of equality or equity are mentioned three times, but only once in the syllabus and twice in study guidelines or teaching practice documents.

However, there was also a number of topics or terms that were missing in the documents. These are for example masculinity, queer or transsexual, violence in the family or violence against women. Norm-critical and norm-creative studies that pay attention to questioning norms and heteronormativity, are definitely included into the course literature and teaching (e.g. Martinsson & Reimers, 2014). However, the topics mentioned above are not explicitly visible in the course documents and from a university pedagogy perspective we could say that alignment is missing (Biggs & Tang, 2011). It is worth mentioning that the term violence was missing in course documents, as the Swedish Higher Education Authority (UKÄ) is encouraging all university programmes training professionals such as doctors, nurses, social workers or teachers and preschool teachers to include teaching on violence in the family in their teaching (UKÄ, 2015).

Masculinity studies would be another important field, however, it seems to be overlooked. The programme seems to miss out highlighting in their course documents that a gender focus is not, as sometimes wrongly expected, only important from a woman's perspective. Lykke and Pernrud (2013) showed at the same university that many men engaging in preschool teacher education had interest for gender studies and were looking for alternative role models. However, the number of men being trained for and working with education for younger children is still small.⁶ Men's role in preschool has been discussed extensively both in Sweden and internationally (e.g. Heikkilä & Hellman, 2016), and this is definitely a field worth addressing more explicitly with students in preschool teacher education programmes.

The terms "women" and "men" appear in all syllabuses as far as there is a standard sentence included in every syllabus at the education (and most of the other) departments stating that "The course is carried out in such a way that both men's and women's experience and knowledge is made visible and developed". This sentence can be understood to aim at gender sensitive teaching but also encourages for norm critical perspectives in courses. As one course representative in a teacher education programme states, this sentence means "that both men and women participate actively in the course, that male and female students' voices are being heard equally, that as course representative, I have a norm critical approach and am observant on how we talk and write about men/women in the course. It also means that we use a

⁶ Locally only 14 of 210 new admitted students in preschool teacher education were men (6,66%).

variety of different examination forms in order not to disfavour a certain category of students. And finally, that we, if possible, adapt the content of our course (literature and research) to recognize the importance of gender in relation to the courses content” (quote from an internal evaluation, translation by the author). This description interprets the central university policy and illustrates approaches to include a gender perspective throughout courses. The qualitative analysis will provide further examples of this.

Qualitative Analysis: Teaching Strategies and Learning Opportunities

Obviously, there is no easy way to understand what students actually learn in a course and it will be even more difficult to evaluate which practical skills they attain for their future work. “A quality curriculum must necessarily include gender equality as an outcome of teaching and learning, and the school’s socialization process” (UNESCO, 2015, p. 58). The curriculum analysis presented here focuses on intended learning outcomes (Biggs & Tang, 2011). The inclusion of gender perspectives into the courses will be further investigated in order to understand *how* gender, equity and related topics are being addressed in documents and courses; guiding questions are how intended learning outcomes are formulated and which learning activities are being planned in order to provide learning opportunities for students. Courses with relevant gender content according to the quantitative results were analysed more in detail. The main source for this analysis was study guidelines. On top of that some written examinations are being analysed.

Introduction of Concepts

The first course in the programme “Preschools role in society, pedagogy and democracy” provides a foundation on normative and critical perspectives on pedagogical work in the preschool. Normality and deviation are central topics, and age, gender, ethnicity and class are introduced. UN children’s convention, and children as democratic actors are in the centre when the preschools’ education mission and value educational are being discussed. Two lectures touch on gender, norm-critical pedagogy and social categorisation in preschools. The lectures are followed up in seminar groups of about 30 students. The topic for the seminar is class, sex, age and ethnicity in preschool and course literature is being discussed (Björk-Willén, Gruber, & Puskás, 2013; Lenz Taguchi, Bodén, & Ohrlander, 2011). Note that the term used in the study guideline in this first course is “sex” and not “gender”, the term to be introduced for social sex.

In the following educational science course on development and learning, gender and diversity dimensions are also evident. There is a goal in the course that students shall be able to describe significance of diversity in preschool. The course treats among others how differences between children regarding social background, gender and ethnicity are linked to development and learning. Also here the pattern is lecture, course literature (Martinsson & Reimers, 2014) and follow-up in seminar groups.

When being introduced to the field of preschool education in the second term, students start with a course on *Preschool educational content and objectives in relation to children*. Students shall demonstrate their understanding of consequences of different approaches and perspectives for understanding children's daily lives. A variety of goals are taken into account, such as "explain how the child's living conditions and perception of children varies over time and context", "describe the consequences of different approaches to children on everyday life in preschool or day-care" and "describe how different social categories affects children's cognitive and socio-emotional development". Students are theoretically introduced to the concept of intersectionality, in order to get some tool to understand that different social conditions interact in the children's life. In a lecture and a following seminar, students are introduced to understandings of gender as a construction and to the importance of gender awareness in preschools. Students meet in workgroups, where together they discuss course literature. They also have to find by themselves a journal article touching on gender and diversity in preschool contexts. The different groups shall introduce the content of their chosen articles to students in the other working groups and engage into a discussion on implications of *doing gender* in preschool.

The introduction of gender and related topics is, as recommended in guidelines on working with gender in university, early in the programme (Fogelberg Eriksson & Karlson, 2006). Step-by-step, students are introduced to different terms and are encouraged to understand gender concepts in relation to children's backgrounds and life and pedagogy in the preschools. Students have to engage in exercises for reading, discussing and introducing others to their knowledge. By finding articles by themselves in the library's database they attain what has been described as "generic competence" for their professional life. That hopefully can build a foundation for life-long learning, relevant for well-prepared pedagogue who can interact with research in order to base their pedagogical actions on scientific evidence.

Application of Concepts

Towards the end of the first year of studies and during the second year, a gender perspective is applied to different contents of study. Gender perspectives can be applied in all subjects (Kampshoff & Wiepcke, 2012). I will refer to three courses, one on aesthetic learning, one on language acquisition and one on mathematics in preschool.

The course *Aesthetic learning processes, creation and learning* builds on theoretical and practical moments with focus on aesthetic learning processes and children's active creativity. Students are enrolled in art, drama, music or PE. The course touches on how children learn and communicate through aesthetic processes, which are to be discussed "as a tool for learning and development, taking into account various factors such as ethnicity, gender and class". Students are offered a lecture on how esthetical learning processes and gender are related to each other. The lecture gives examples on how gendering in the preschool becomes evident in material, rooms and encounters and how alternative strategies can be build. This can be seen as preparation for the two-week teaching placement included in the course. One task in the course is a role-play or performance, which aims to take children's social conditions with regard to ethnicity, gender and class into account. Another task is to assess a mobile application for children from a gender perspective, for example, with regards

to colours, form, sound, characters and so on. In this course, the topic is aesthetic learning but during the tasks students get a chance to apply concepts on gender and diversity in creative learning exercises. The focus is on gender but other social categories like ethnicity and class can alternatively be chosen. The variety of compulsory exercises answers to claims that different examinations fit different student groups.

In the course *Children's language development and communication* children's linguistic development is discussed and problematized from an intersectional approach taking gender, class, ethnicity and age into account. Multilingualism, as a central topic in the course, sets also an agenda on central perspectives. The course literature takes up both a gender and diversity perspective (Björk-Willén, Gruber, & Puskás, 2013; Eidevald, 2009; Eilard, 2004). The course literature covers both a number of chapters in a student literature anthology and a dissertation thesis, so the students meet both popular science and research perspectives.

In the course on preschool mathematics the students pay attention to how different conditions such as, for example, gender, class and ethnicity affect children's learning in mathematics. The students read *How to become mathematical: Building new relations to mathematics and gender in the work with young children* (Palmer, 2011). Obviously the availability of research on gender in applied fields is an important precondition for university teaching in that field. Previously there might have been an interest in problematizing the learning pattern of girls and boys but without available literature there was also a risk for stereotype description, which can counterwork the teachers' intentions (Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013).

These examples illustrate different ways and possibilities to connect mainstream topics in (preschool) teacher education with a gender perspective. Students experience varied possibilities to apply theoretical gender concepts in a praxis-oriented context during their studies. High quality course literature with a gender perspective is an important precondition. Gender is one of the perspectives course representatives have to take into account, just as they used to do with other fields of research related to the subject of their course. The examples above also show that creativity in relation to working forms and examination tasks can be an advantage in order to apply a gender perspective in a way that is attractive for students and relevant in connection to the core content of the programme.

Synthesis

In the third year there is one course that sticks out in the quantitative analysis as far as almost all relevant terms are being used. The course is on *Pedagogical leadership in preschools*. The course touches upon "how social categories as age, gender, ethnicity and class can be approached from intersectional and norm critical perspectives in order to contribute to equality and equity perspectives in the preschool field" (author's translation). One goal is to "be able to explain and analyse the importance of pedagogical leadership for equality and equity in the pedagogical field". Here, the students have to show their knowledge in a short report of 4–6 pages. The purpose of this exercise is to describe how preschool teachers, with a starting point in the preschool curriculum, can lead pedagogic activities so that children have the opportunity for participation, equality, equity and equal opportunities, and at the same time learn about various topics. The preschool teacher students shall work with the inte-

gration of different topics from fields like for example language or mathematics with equity learning. Students have to synthesise their knowledge from different fields.

During the most recent course 112 students took this examination, 37 received the grade pass with distinction, 60 passed and 15 failed. This is a good result compared with other earlier courses where more students failed. This might indicate that students have a good basis to solve the problem including searching for and using own articles as required by the task. Although it is difficult to judge whether such a written examination can show students' practical learning, we can see that they at least show a theoretical understanding about how gender and other topics can be practically integrated. The course representative describes this as a precondition for a readiness to act, which students would not have otherwise. "The didactical input is to connect [preschool] didactic knowledge with child participation and gender, which also can contribute to practical expertise". (E-mail communication)

13 student papers (4 pass with distinction, 7 pass and 2 fail) were anonymised and further analysed. Papers with high grades (pass with distinction) showed a high competence in applying gender perspectives. The ability to integrate didactic thinking and equity policy contributed to passing and the students who failed did not show the basic skills for writing such a reflective academic paper. "I think it is important that the whole team tries to lead continuous discussions on how one should meet the children in different situations. [...] It's about the need for staff to constantly question, thematise and problematize their ideas on how they view children in relation to gender norms but also in relation to the attitudes they have on children's initiative and activities" (quote from student paper with grade pass, 2016, author's translation). This quote shows how a student with reference to Arnér's (2009) book on children's agency in preschool describes how ideas on gender and democracy can be treated in preschool practice. Although university studies cannot directly guarantee students' pedagogical actions, it can very well prepare the students to reflect on their future profession and their own role in pedagogical practice.

A Gender Perspective in the Teaching Practice, Possibilities of Choice and Advancement

During the studies, students are prepared for and learn through teaching practice (TP). 20 weeks of TP is divided into blocks of one to four-weeks in combination with different courses; there is a TP in almost each term. The final TP is four weeks long and is to provide "practical application of various teaching abilities in preschool" (author's translation). There is a learning aim related to gender; claiming that the students shall "demonstrate an ability to prevent and counteract discrimination and degrading treatment of children and showing an active and conscious approach to gender equality and equity in educational activities" (author's translation). The preschool teacher who supervises the student during the TP has to attest that the student meets a number of didactical and social competences. Two criteria touch solely on these matters, to prevent degrading treatment and to demonstrate a conscious approach to gender equality and equity in educational activities. Theory and practice are being combined when students participate in TP and university based studies with related study goals (Schanz Lundgren & Lundgren, 2012, Hultman, Schulz, & Stolpe, 2011). So students, teacher educators, teacher trainers in the TP and acting

preschool teachers have to communicate and position themselves in relation to pedagogical leadership and gender.

Finally, after the programme has prepared all students for a gender aware practice, students can individually specialise on gender topics related to preschool education. In the degree project (15 ECTS), students have relative freedom to choose their field of study. This provides a possibility that if they are interested in gender perspectives and want to advance further, they can choose a topic with scientific and pedagogical relevance in relation to gender and preschool education and develop their competence to synthesise gender with various aspects of learning.

Preschool teacher students at this level will soon work in preschools, after-schools and other pedagogical work places where they will meet and teach highly diverse groups of children. Also students have a right to be treated with equal opportunities during their studies. As Kalonaityte (2014) states, the university needs to interact with the students in such a way that everyone understands that they are welcome. This – combined with the well-planned curriculum – hopefully provides conditions where the highly diverse group of preschool teacher students will be prepared to apply academic knowledge, develop professional identities and become reflective and gender aware practitioners, able to plan and act on the basis of well integrated gender knowledge and competence.

Discussion

The purpose of this paper was to describe how gender inclusion as a pedagogical practice in higher education has a potential to promote (preschool) teacher students' systematic acquisition of values, knowledge and skills as a precondition to improving sustainable pedagogical practices in extended education. In this context, extended education is viewed as a pedagogical field, which leaves much room for self-directed learning and is not subject to certification, attendance obligation and systematisation to the same extent as formal schooling (Kielblock & Monsen, 2016). Academic training for pedagogues in non-formal education institutions is regarded as important (Klerfelt & Haglund, 2014) and this article describes major traits to be taken into account, not only when working with gender inclusion. The fields to be discussed here are how a progression within the programme can be built and how programme planning can also contribute to bridging the tension between theory and practice often described (e.g. Lane & Corrie, 2006). Finally, pedagogical implications for the wider field of extended education will be discussed.

Gender Inclusion, Academic Progression and Evaluation

Gender inclusion is, as earlier described, a pedagogical tool that can be combined with gender mainstreaming at universities (Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013, Bramberger, 2015). Understanding basic features of gender inclusion can contribute to the broad discussion of working with gender in higher education and is seen as an important

compliment to gender sensitive teaching in higher education (Bondestam, 2004), gender awareness in teacher education (Lahelma, 2011) and intersectional and norm-critical teaching at universities (Bromseth & Sörensdotter, 2012, Kalonaityte, 2014, Lykke, 2012). Gender inclusion focuses on pedagogical questions when curriculum planning and university didactics are central.

Pedagogical and scientific progression is regarded as relevant in university education programmes. The point of departure of different taxonomies and models is that students develop from easier to more complex activities, and that the teaching activities can be described with respective verbs (Biggs & Tang, 2011). These ideas are very influential in university teaching. A classic model for progression is Bloom's revised taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). Key-concepts for university teaching are to *remember*, with students showing that they are able to recognize and recall facts, to *understand*, with focus on understanding what facts mean, to *apply* the facts and rules, concepts and ideas. The next step, *analyse*, asks for an ability to break down information into component parts; *evaluate* demands an ability for judging the value of information or ideas and finally students should reach the goal to *create* by combining parts to make a new whole (Biggs & Tang, 2011). Ideas of such a progression are reflected in university programmes, at least after the Bologna process, where study programmes build on basic level, continuation level, intermediate and advanced level within the first and second-cycle of higher education.

For the analysis of gender inclusion in the preschool teacher programme such a progression became evident. Students were introduced to terms and basic concepts related to gender and education early in the programme. Students got a variety of possibilities to apply concepts on gender and diversity e.g. to fields like aesthetic learning, preschool mathematics and language acquisition in the end of the first year of studies and during the second year. This was embedded in a variety of learning exercises and examinations. Students had to synthesise and argue for the relevance of gender and diversity perspectives for practice in the preschool during the final year. Both theoretical reasoning and practical engagement were part of the students' performed capacities' examination. Finally, students with a specific interest in gender could develop their competence in the field in the degree project. This provides a deep approach to learning, as "students who make their own choices of units are more likely to take a deep approach to learning because they are choosing to pursue an area in which they already have some interest" (Toohey, 2002, p. 15). The combination of providing all students with necessary knowledge and understanding and also leaving room for individual choice (Fogelberg Eriksson & Karlson, 2006) strengthen the gender approach in this curriculum design.

In other words, curriculum design is an obvious path for working with the systematic inclusion of gender equality issues in (preschool) teacher education and this can also serve as a model for other programmes in the field of educational sciences. It has been argued recently that gender equality issues are being neglected in most teacher education curriculums internationally (UNESCO, 2015). However, university pedagogy provides tools for working systematically with gender inclusion. The examples presented in this study can inspire the design of this work. The first step is to ground relevant goals connected to gender equality in the programme syllabus and encourage course representatives to include relevant learning goals related to gender

in all course syllabuses. It is important not just to expect that some relevant content will be touched upon in the course but to describe explicit goals where gender and the respective course content meet. Goals are relevant for students' examination, and in effective course planning intended learning outcomes and examination criteria are to be connected (Biggs & Tang, 2011). This, what is called constructive alignment in the context of university pedagogy, can be applied in order to ensure the systematic inclusion of gender and equity work in professional university programmes.

Is this something that all universities could do? Obviously, there are a few features that have supported the process in the university exemplified here. A gender focus was already apparent in the teacher education programmes before their reform in 2011. Fogelberg Eriksson and Karlson (2006) warned that times of reforms also are full of risks insofar as change involves a risk that e.g. progressive gender strategies could be lost. However, in this case, the commitment of many actors contributed to maintaining the gender focus. Practically, intersectional thoughts have been present in teacher education programmes at this university insofar as gender, class and ethnicity (and age) have been discussed in education science courses as important pre-conditions for learning and teaching at least since the mid-90s. Ideas about a need to build a progression into the programme beyond courses (Lindgren & Klinth, 2008) have been included in all teacher education programmes. And this may also have had a positive effect in relation to gender inclusion. However, that does not mean that curriculum design with a gender inclusive focus is confined to certain universities.

Obviously, working with gender inclusion is a process that has to be driven and continuously evaluated. It is not something that happens once but something that needs to be an integrative part of programme evaluation and development. And this can be achieved at any university.

Pedagogical Implications

The article also aims – as mentioned in the introduction – to discuss the potential of gender inclusion to promote the systematic acquisition of values and competences as a precondition for improving pedagogical sustainable practices in preschools. Here, this was illustrated for the preschool teacher education programme, but the implications of the study can also be applied to university programmes in other pedagogical fields, specifically in extended education. The general climate in Sweden, where social construction had been the dominant discourse over decades in public debates and steering documents (Edström, 2010), obviously also plays a role for a generally positive approach towards gender inclusion. Citing Karlson and Simonsson (2011) and their analysis of gender sensitive policies in Swedish preschools: “Opportunities for teachers to strengthen their professional positions by gender- and equality-related competences are evident.” (p. 281) There is a wealth of documentation on how gender sensitive work can be conducted in preschools. Connecting these discourses on gender in the pedagogical field and gender in (preschool) teacher education is a fruitful approach for developing sustainable practices in the broad field of non-formal education.

There is, as described, a wide range of theoretical orientations within the gender discourse. Different discourses and central terms are being introduced to students in the programme, with a certain focus on norm-critical and intersectional perspectives. Introducing a diverse – rather than dominant – theoretical perspective, considered to be the “right” perspective, provides room for critical thinking. Students had to search independently for articles and this might be seen as a generic competence, which they can take with them into their working life. If pedagogues are, as Stecher and Maschke (2013) call for, to be encouraged to develop their professional competence through life-long learning, they must receive competences during their professional training to continue reading and evaluating research-based literature and thereby be prepared for an evidence-based pedagogical practice when working in the profession. They also need to systematically build up a value system that is based on evidence and reflected on critically. I hope that the study presented here could illustrate how such training can be designed.

Needless to say, this study is part of an ongoing process of programme development. In connection with this study the author has already met some of the course representatives to discuss the results. When I presented the results to teachers on the programmes they responded directly e.g. in relation to “missing subjects”. The author works with and studies possibilities of gender inclusion in all teacher education programmes from preschool education to secondary school education. Some of the results of the work with gender inclusion have been published earlier (Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013). Each programme faces different challenges in combination with the content taught and the student and teacher population. A brief analysis of the programme for teachers in extended education showed that the gender focus was not as clearly rooted in that programme as in the courses in the preschool teacher education programme. However, a strong focus on democracy, children’s rights and participation is evident, which is another topic argued for as being important in extended education (Elvstrand & Närvänen, 2015, 2016). Further studies have to show how democracy-oriented content and gender inclusion can be developed further in higher education programmes with a goal of sustainable pedagogical practices for pedagogues and (preschool) teachers in extended education.

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Extended Education and Externalizing Behavior: Utilization Intensity, Interaction Quality and Peers as Possible Moderators

Lukas Frei, Marianne Schuepbach, Wim Nieuwenboom and Benjamin von Allmen

Abstract: So far, empirical evidence regarding the effects of extended education on externalizing behavior is mixed. To explore possible moderators, multilevel-analyses were conducted in a longitudinal sample of 492 students from 51 all-day schools in Switzerland. No main effects of utilization intensity, interaction quality and externalizing behavior in peers on the development of externalizing behavior from grade 1 to grade 2 were found. However, the relationship between utilization intensity and change in externalizing behavior was moderated by externalizing behavior in peers and by caregiver-student interactions. Subsequent analyses display a complex pattern of these cross-level interactions, indicating confounding characteristics. Implications for future research are discussed.

Keywords: extended education, all-day schools, externalizing behavior, quality, peer contagion

Introduction

Expectations regarding the benefit of extended education are manifold, including the promotion of prosocial and desirable behavior while counteracting externalizing behavior such as physical or verbal aggression, disruptive manners, delinquency and the like. And why should this not be the case? Extended education settings offer structure, supervision, activities and interactions with both peers and adults, which might otherwise be missing. However, empirical evidence so far is inconclusive, and some studies have even found adverse effects of extended education, amplifying the need to find out more about the conditions under which extended education succeeds in reducing externalizing behavior (Durlak, Weissberg, & Pachan, 2010; Fischer, Kuhn, & Züchner, 2011; Kremer, Maynard, Polanin, Vaughn, & Sarteschi, 2015; O'Hare, Biggart, Kerr, & Connolly, 2015; Schüpbach, Ignaczewska, & Herzog, 2014; Wade, 2015). In this article, several possible moderators are addressed in a longitudinal sample of primary all-day schools in Switzerland: Does the degree of externalizing behavior in peers, the quality of interactions between caregivers and students, or the intensity of extended education utilization influence outcomes?

Most primary schools in Switzerland provide school hours during five mornings a week and additional school hours in one to four afternoons (EDK, 2013). Beyond those regular school hours, supervision usually has to be organized by the parents. However, especially in the past decade, societal changes and political efforts have led to an increase in all-day schools across Switzerland (Stern et al., 2013), which are defined as schools not only comprising regular school hours but also offering education and care during the rest of the day (EDK, 2013). Those services (referred to as extended education) generally include lunch, a supervised program in the afternoon (e.g. activities, free-play, or homework), and, although less frequently, before-school care. While utilization of extended education is obligatory in some instances (obligatory all-day schools), most all-day schools implement an open-attendance model, referring to a modular system of extended education, which allows parents to decide whether their children use the respective services or not (voluntary all-day schools).

Since all-day schools offer additional opportunities to develop positive relationships in a structured and supervised environment, they are met with high societal and academic expectations regarding children's socio-emotional development (Aeberli & Binder, 2005), including the reduction or prevention of externalizing behavior. Externalizing behavior refers "to a grouping of behavior problems that are manifested in children's outward behavior and reflect the child negatively acting on the external environment" (Liu, 2004, p. 93), such as disruptive, hyperactive and aggressive behavior. Externalizing behavior during the first school years has been found to reduce the probability of receiving a high school degree (McLeod & Kaiser, 2004), was linked to low academic performance in higher grades (Metsäpelto et al., 2015), and predicted substance use, abuse and dependence in late adolescence and young adulthood (Fergusson, Horwood, & Ridder, 2007). Additionally, even milder levels of externalizing behavior during school years seem to increase the likelihood of developing clinical disorders (Goodman, Lamping, & Ploubidis, 2010).

Review of the Literature

Effects of Extended Education on Externalizing Behavior

So far, little is known about the actual effects of extended education in all-day schools on externalizing behavior, especially regarding such schools in Switzerland. In a sample of 295 first- to third-graders, Schüpbach et al. (2014) did not find a significant effect of participation in extended education on the development of parent-rated socio-emotional behavioral strengths (including items measuring hyperactivity). Additional research regarding all-day schools stems from Germany, where a comparable education and care system has been implemented. Fischer et al. (2011) examined 6'853 fifth-grade students, using 3 measurement points during 2005 to 2009. Participation in extended education was associated with a decrease in self-rated problematic behavior at school, as well as in self-rated violence and absenteeism. Kanevski and von Salisch (2011) explored physically aggressive behavior in a sample of 380 seventh-grade students. Male students from all-day schools showed a de-

crease in peer-rated physically aggressive behavior during seventh-grade, compared to male students from half-day schools. However, for female students, the opposite results were found, favoring half-day schools.

Although not identical to all-day schools, after-school programs, which have been implemented in several other countries, share some properties in that they provide a structured and supervised setting for children after regular school hours, and offer a variety of social activities and academic enrichment. Yet, as the name implies, after-school programs are comprehensive programs, often targeting specific developmental aspects, and they are not part of the school itself (Kremer et al., 2015). Beside these differences and keeping in mind that all-day schools may also strongly vary in goals and activities, the extensive research on after-school programs provides some insight regarding the possible effects of extended education on externalizing behavior. However, results from meta-analyses are mixed (Durlak et al., 2010; Kremer et al., 2015). In fact, several studies even reported adverse effects of after-school programs on externalizing behavior (O'Hare et al., 2015; Wade, 2015), highlighting the need to consider and explore possible moderating aspects.

Since both after-school programs and all-day schools can be considered as prevention programs, the broader field of prevention research may offer valuable clues regarding such moderators. Extensive reviews of prevention efforts identified several features, distinguishing successful interventions from rather ineffective ones (Browne, Gafni, Roberts, Byrne, & Majumdar, 2004; Nation et al., 2003), including sufficient dosage, opportunities to develop positive relationships, and well-trained personnel. An additional review points to potential negative influences of peers ("peer-contagion", Dishion & Tipsord, 2011), especially when elevated levels of problematic behavior are prevalent.

Utilization Intensity

Among possible moderators, utilization intensity has probably received the biggest attention in past studies. In their review on participation in after-school programs, Roth, Malone, and Brooks-Gunn (2010) defined intensity as "frequency of attendance during one program year" (p. 314). Although some of the reviewed studies reported that intensity had a positive effect on various developmental outcomes, including problem behavior and peer relations, this was mainly the case when students with high participation were compared to students with no participation. Most studies exploring higher versus lower participation did not find that intensity was a significant influencing factor. The authors conclude that, "general statements proclaiming that greater participation in formal afterschool programs leads to improved outcomes are premature and inaccurate" (p. 321). As with general utilization, intensity alone does not seem to warrant positive effects which raises the question of possible moderators. Regarding the cited studies on all-day schools, only Schüpbach et al. (2014) explored a possible influence of intensity on externalizing behavior: Among 34 students utilizing extended education, utilization intensity was not linked to the development of socio-emotional behavioral strengths.

Caregiver-Student Interactions

One of the main assumptions underlying expectations of positive socio-emotional outcomes through all-day schools and after-school programs is the provision of a structured environment where children experience positive interactions with peers and caregivers (Fischer et al., 2011; Wade, 2015). In line with those expectations, positive caregiver-student relations in after-school programs have been linked to a more favorable socio-emotional development, also with regard to externalizing behavior (e.g. Pierce, Bolt, & Vandell, 2010; Wade, 2015). Even more importantly, in one study, participants who experienced negative relationships with their caregivers showed an increase in externalizing behavior compared to non-participants (Wade, 2015). With regard to all-day schools, Fischer et al. (2011) included caregiver-student relationship (rated by students) as predictor of problematic behavior at school, finding a negative association for all three time points. Unfortunately, they did not include caregiver-student relationships to predict change in problematic behavior nor as a possible moderator of the effect of all-day schools. Further, none of the other reviewed papers investigating all-day schools considered caregiver-student interactions in their analyses.

Externalizing Behavior in Peers

In their review regarding peer contagion, Dishion and Tipsord (2011) point out that peers can exert both positive and adverse influences during childhood and adolescence. The latter can be caused through deviancy training, which refers to interactions promoting deviant talk or behavior. For example, one reviewed paper studied coercive behavior in children and found that coercion by peers at age 5 had a significant effect on conduct problems at age 8 (Snyder et al., 2008). Such processes can be particularly problematic in settings, where children with elevated levels of externalizing behavior are aggregated, as is often the case in intervention studies but may also happen in general education settings, sometimes with adverse outcomes (Kellam, Ling, Merisca, Brown, & Ialongo, 1998; Warren, Schoppelrey, Moberg, & McDonald, 2005). Since many after-school programs specifically target students at risk, it may seem surprising that this aspect has received little to no attention so far. There are no publications we know of to date, that have explored the possible (moderating) effect of externalizing behavior in peers with regard to after-school programs or all-day schools.

Hypotheses

According to our review of the literature, previous studies produced mixed results regarding the effects of extended education on externalizing behavior. Therefore, it seems important to understand under which circumstances extended education can reduce externalizing behavior. While a possible moderating effect of utilization

intensity has been studied in several articles, the quality of caregiver-student interactions and especially possible adverse effects of externalizing behavior in peers have received little to no attention. Taking a longitudinal approach towards change in externalizing behavior in a sample of first to second graders enrolled in extended education, this contribution aims to explore the following research questions: (1) Does the intensity of extended education utilization influence change in externalizing behavior? (2) Does the level of externalizing behavior in peers influence change in externalizing behavior? (3) Does the quality of caregiver-student interactions influence change in externalizing behavior? (4) With regard to change in externalizing behavior, does the intensity of extended education utilization interact with externalizing behavior in peers or with the quality of caregiver-student interactions? Consequently, the hypotheses with regard to main effects of possible moderators (H1 – H3) and their interactions (H4a – H4b) are formulated as following:

- H1: Higher intensity of extended education utilization predicts change in externalizing behavior (i.e. increase or decrease) compared to lower intensity.
- H2: Higher levels of externalizing behavior in peers predict an increase in externalizing behavior compared to lower levels.
- H3: Higher quality of caregiver-student interactions predicts a decrease in externalizing behavior compared to lower quality.
- H4a: With increasing levels of externalizing behavior in peers, the effect of utilization intensity on externalizing behavior becomes more positive (i.e. less favorable: greater increase or smaller decrease in externalizing behavior as an effect of higher utilization intensity).
- H4b: With an increasing quality of caregiver-student interactions, the effect of utilization intensity on externalizing behavior becomes less positive (i.e. more favorable: smaller increase or greater decrease in externalizing behavior as an effect of higher utilization intensity).

Method

Sample

Data for this article are drawn from the longitudinal research project *EduCare-TaSe – All-Day School and School Success?*, which is funded by the Swiss National Science Foundation. EduCare-TaSe is studying children in grades 1 and 2 at voluntary all-day schools, with some children utilizing extended education, whereas others do not. For economic reasons, only primary schools with at least two parallel classes at the primary school level were considered. Based on the definition proposed by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK, 2013), all-day schools were defined as schools with (1) open-attendance, voluntary extended education, (2) extended education on at least 3 days per week, and (3) extended education at lunch-

time and in the afternoon. Using estimates provided by the education departments of the cantons in German-speaking Switzerland, 251 primary all-day schools were identified, of which 53 schools with a total of 1'990 students agreed to participate, representing 13 cantons from the German-speaking part of Switzerland. By the end of grade 2, the sample decreased by 127 students, with additional students missing ratings regarding their participation in extended education (58 students), their externalizing behavior (234 students) or their sex (10 students). Only students enrolled in extended education for at least one year are considered for this article, resulting in a subsample of 492 students from 102 classes and 51 all-day schools which is used in subsequent analyses.

Data-Collection

Data-collection took place in between 2014 and 2015. At the end of grade 1 and again at the end of grade 2, class-teachers rated each of their students' externalizing behavior via online-survey. For each grade, intensity of extended education utilization was inquired through the head of extended education. Additionally, at the end of grade 1, quality of caregiver-student-interactions was rated via observational measure.

Change in Externalizing Behavior

The German version of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire for teachers (SDQ; Goodman, 1997) was used to measure students' externalizing behavior. The SDQ for children and adolescents aged 4–17 consists of five subscales, including behavioral problems and hyperactivity, which can be rated by teachers, parents, or in the case of adolescents, by students themselves. Factorial structure, internal consistency, test-retest reliability, inter-rater agreement between parents and teachers, concurrent validity and predictive validity regarding subsequent clinical diagnoses has been explored in several international samples with generally good results, especially for the teacher version (Stone, Otten, Engels, Vermulst, & Janssens, 2010). Regarding the German translation, factorial structure and internal consistency has been confirmed in a representative sample (Woerner, Becker, & Rothenberger, 2004). However, because of the low discriminative validity between behavioral problems and hyperactivity in general population samples, Goodman et al. (2010) proposed a second-order factor to combine those two subscales into externalizing behavior. The resulting scale consists of ten items such as "Often fights with other children or bullies them", "Often has temper tantrums or hot tempers" or "Generally obedient, usually does what adults request" (the complete SDQ-survey including its German translation can be accessed on www.sdqinfo.org). Teachers are asked to rate each item with respect to a child's behavior over the last six months as "Not True" (0), "Somewhat True" (1) or "Certainly True" (2) and ratings are added up to a subscale representing externalizing behavior, with possible values from 0 to 20. Internal consistency is good ($\alpha = 0.86$ for grade 1, 0.87 for grade 2) and comparable to those found by Goodman et al. (2010; $\alpha = 0.88$). Since the SDQ is a screening instrument

with a non-normal distribution and a strong floor effect, the difference in externalizing behavior between the two time-points was calculated by subtracting the level of externalizing behavior at the end of grade 1 from the level of externalizing behavior at the end of grade 2. The resulting dependent variable, representing change in externalizing behavior (scaled from -20 to 20), has an approximately normal distribution with positive scores indicating an increase and negative scores a decrease of externalizing behavior between t1 and t2, respectively ($M=-0.48$, $SD=2.60$). To control for initial levels, externalizing behavior at the end of grade 1 was included as control variable ($M=4.71$, $SD=4.16$).

Student's Sex

As a second control variable, student's sex was inquired through class lists and a short survey with students during grade 2, and coded as male (0) or female (1), with 51% of the students being female.

Utilization Intensity

At the beginning of each grade, parents usually have to register their children for certain days and modules of extended education during that school year (e.g. each Wednesday from 11:45 am to 4:30 pm). For each child, intensity of extended education utilization (in minutes) during both grade 1 and grade 2 was inquired through the head of extended education. With regard to this paper, the average amount of hours spent taking part in extended education during both grades was calculated. On average students utilized extended education for 8.14 hours per week ($SD=7.24$).

Externalizing Behavior in Peers

Since classmates constitute a student's primary peer group in school, we also expect them to spend more time together during extended education. Therefore, teachers' ratings of externalizing behavior in students utilizing extended education during grade 1 were aggregated at the class level, indicating higher or lower initial levels of externalizing behavior in peers, with possible values from 0 to 20 ($M=4.65$, $SD=2.69$).

Quality of Caregiver-Student Interactions

At the end of grade 1, trained members of the research team took observations within extended education. Observations took place for at least four hours with the "Hort- und Ganztagsangebote-Skala" (HUGS; Tietze, Rossbach, Stendel, & Wellner, 2007), an adaption of the School-Age Care Environment Rating Scale (Harms, Jacobs, & White, 1996) being used as rating instrument. HUGS consists of fifty features, of which nine features constitute a subscale measuring interactions. Since three of those features specifically tap into caregiver-parents interactions or aspects of collabora-

tion, we only consider six features (i.e. communication between caregiver and children, interactions between caregiver and children, code of conduct / discipline, child supervision, welcome- and goodbye-procedures, handling of interactions between children) as representing caregiver-student interactions in this contribution. For each feature, ratings between 0 (inadequate quality) and 6 (excellent quality) were possible. Internal consistency for caregiver-student interactions is acceptable ($\alpha=0.72$).

Results

Analytic Strategy

Multilevel regression analyses were performed using Mplus 7.3 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). Descriptive statistics for all variables in our models are presented in table 1. To test our hypotheses, several three-level analyses were performed to predict change in externalizing behavior, with students (level 1) nested into classes (level 2) nested into schools (level 3). First, we calculated a one-way ANOVA model (null-model) to determine the variation in the development of externalizing behavior for different levels. Second, we calculated several random-intercept models by adding predictors at the student level (model 1), the class level (model 2) and the school level (model 3).

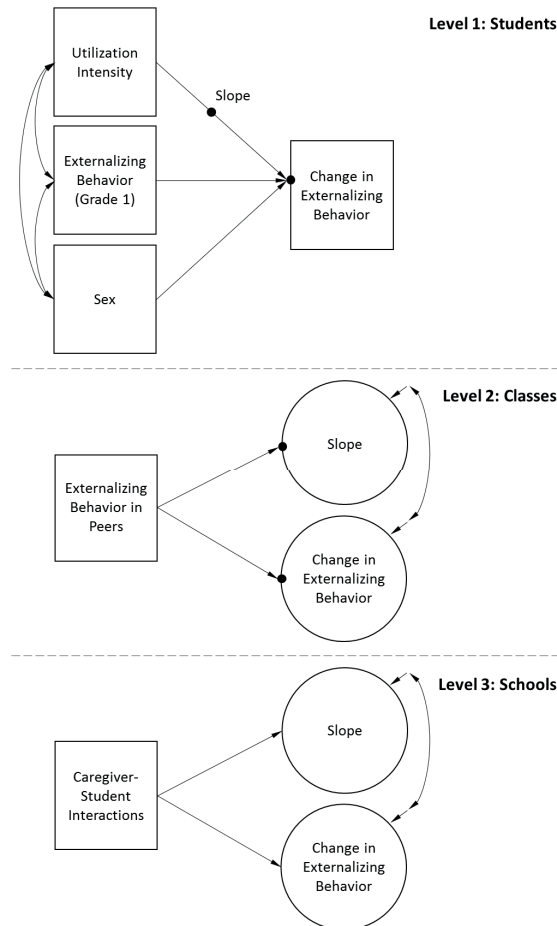
Table 1. Descriptive Statistics.

	N	Min	Max	M	SD
<i>Students</i>					
Change in Externalizing Behavior	492	-9.00	8.00	-0.48	2.60
Utilization Intensity	492	0.50	36.67	8.14	7.24
Externalizing Behavior (Grade 1)	492	0.00	18.00	4.71	4.16
Sex	492	0.00	1.00	0.51	0.50
<i>Classes</i>					
Externalizing Behavior in Peers	102	0.00	13.50	4.65	2.69
<i>Schools</i>					
Caregiver-Student Interactions	51	1.20	6.00	4.48	0.95

Measurement Scales: Change in Externalizing Behavior (-20 to 20), Utilization Intensity (ratio scale), Externalizing Behavior (0 to 20), Sex (0=male, 1=female), Externalizing Behavior in Peers (0 to 20), Caregiver-Student Interactions (0 to 6)

Finally, we calculated an intercept-and-slopes-as-outcomes model (model 4; figure 1) to explore possible cross-level interactions. As an estimator, we used ML estimation with robust standard errors (MLR) and predictors were centered at the grand-mean. Additionally, externalizing behavior in peers and caregiver-student interactions were z-standardized. Unstandardized coefficients are reported and we calculated R^2 for each level by comparing the initial variance estimates to those in the respective models as proposed by Heck and Thomas (2015). Since the total amount of variance on each level also varies across models, R^2 -estimates have to be considered with caution. Therefore, we further provide log-likelihood and AIC to allow for a better comparison of different models, with lower values indicating better model-fit (Byrne, 2012). A robust chi-square difference test based on log-likelihood and scaling correction factors was used to compare models (<http://www.stat-model.com/chidiff.shtml>), as proposed by Muthén and Muthén (1998–2012).

Figure 1. Intercept-and-Slopes-as-Outcomes (Model 4).



Variance Partitioned at the Student, Class, and School Level

On average, externalizing behavior decreased by 0.46 scale points from grade 1 to grade 2. Most of the variance in this change in externalizing behavior is due to student characteristics (86.3%), with class characteristics (8.5%) and school characteristics (5.2%) having a smaller impact. Results for subsequent analyses are reported in table 2.

Hypothesis 1: Intensity of Extended Education Utilization

To examine a possible main effect of extended education utilization intensity on change in externalizing behavior, we added utilization intensity as a predictor on the student level, while controlling for initial levels of externalizing behavior and student's sex (Model 1). As results show, the development in externalizing behavior is more favorable for students with higher initial levels of externalizing behavior ($p \leq .001$): A one-point increase in externalizing behavior in grade 1 is associated with a 0.20 decrease in externalizing behavior by the end of grade 2. For student's sex, a trend emerged, with female students having a 0.47 decrease in externalizing behavior ($p \leq .10$) compared to male students. In contrast, intensity of extended education utilization failed to exert a significant impact. Compared to the null-model, those three predictors explained about 9% of the variance at the student level, 11% at the class level and 19% at the school level. Model-fit also improved significantly ($\chi^2=37.92$, $df=3$, $p \leq .001$), with both smaller log-likelihood and BIC.

Hypotheses 2 and 3: Peer Group and Caregiver-Student Interactions

Next, we tested a possible main effect of initial externalizing behavior in peers on the development of externalizing behavior by adding this variable at the class level (Model 2), although with no significant result. Similarly, we tested a possible impact of caregiver-student-interactions (Model 3) at the school level. Again, no significant main effect was found. Both model 2 and 3 did not substantially improve R^2 or fit indices, compared to model 1.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b: Cross-Level Interactions

In order to test possible interactions between predictors, the slope between utilization intensity and change in externalizing behavior was allowed to vary between classes and schools and was tested for cross-level interactions. As can be seen in Model 4, the impact of extended education utilization intensity on externalizing behavior was moderated by both initial externalizing behavior in peers and caregiver-student interactions: For a one standard-deviation increase in peers' externalizing behavior, an additional hour of extended education utilization predicted a 0.05 increase in externalizing behavior by the end of grade 2 ($p \leq .05$).

Table 2. Multilevel-models predicting change in students' externalizing behavior.

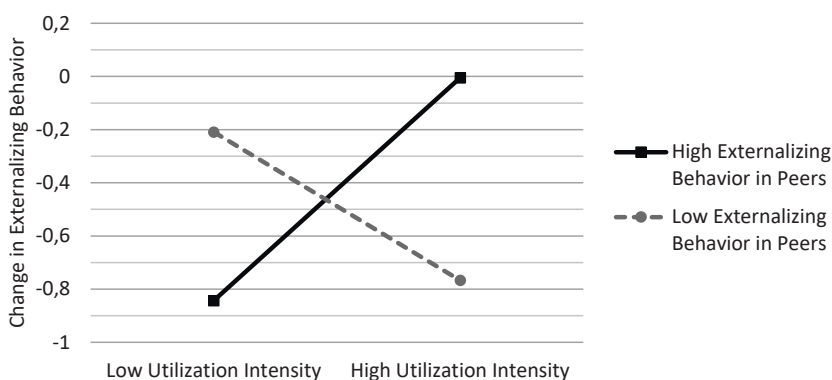
Parameter	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Intercept	-0.44** (0.16)	-0.44** (0.15)	-0.44** (0.15)	-0.46** (0.15)
Level 1: Students				
Utilization Intensity	0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)
Externalizing Behavior (Grade 1)	-0.20*** (0.03)	-0.21*** (0.03)	-0.21*** (0.03)	-0.20*** (0.03)
Female	-0.47* (0.25)	-0.47* (0.25)	-0.48* (0.25)	-0.48* (0.24)
R ²	0.09	0.10	0.09	0.14
Level 2: Classes				
Externalizing Behavior in Peers		0.04 (0.13)	0.04 (0.13)	0.00 (0.30)
Externalizing Behavior in Peers * Utilization Intensity				0.05* (0.02)
R ²	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.09
Level 3: Schools				
Caregiver-Student Interactions			0.03 (0.15)	0.04 (0.15)
Caregiver-Student Interactions * Utilization Intensity				-0.04** (0.02)
R ²	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.42
Fit Indices				
Model 0	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Log-Likelihood	-1158.82	-1133.59	-1133.57	-1124.03
AIC	2325.65	2283.18	2285.15	2278.05

N = 492(students) 102(classes) 51(schools); unstandardized B coefficients (SE); *p≤.10, **p≤.05, ***p≤.001.

Additionally, for a one standard-deviation increase in caregiver-student interaction quality, an additional hour of extended education utilization predicted a 0.04 decrease in externalizing behavior by the end of grade 2 ($p \leq .01$). In short: Lower levels of externalizing behavior in peers and higher quality of caregiver-student interactions were both linked to a more favorable relationship between utilization intensity and change in externalizing behavior. Compared to model 1, after adding both cross-level interactions, another 5% of the variance at the student level and another 23% at the school level was explained. Model-fit also improved, with both lower log-likelihood and AIC ($\chi^2=20.32$, $df=8$, $p \leq .01$).

To allow for an easier interpretation of those cross-level interactions, the same model was calculated with z-standardized utilization intensity. Regression-coefficients were then used to estimate change in externalizing behavior for students with high levels (1 standard deviation above mean) or low levels (1 standard deviation below mean) of different characteristics (Richter, 2007). As figure 2 shows, for students with high levels of externalizing behavior in peers, higher utilization intensity seems to increase externalizing behavior. In contrast, for students with low levels of externalizing behavior in peers, higher utilization intensity seems to reduce externalizing behavior. Also in line with our hypothesis, students who experience high levels of externalizing behavior among peers seem to develop less favorably than students who experience low levels of externalizing behavior among peers, if they use extended education more intensively. However, for students with low utilization intensity, the contrary seems to be the case, even suggesting an adverse effect of lower externalizing behavior in peers.

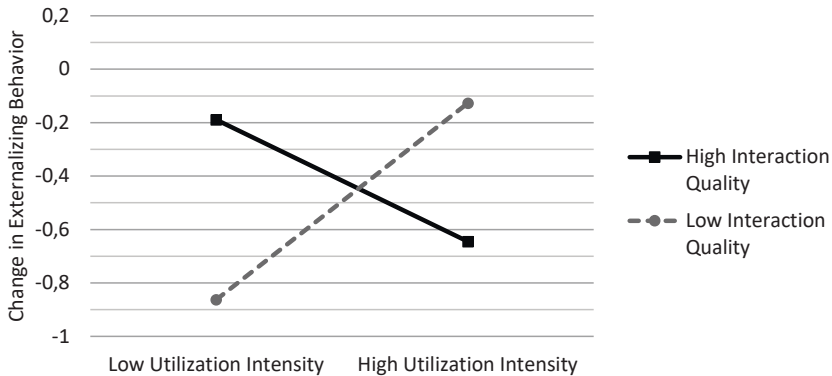
Figure 2. Differences in students' development of externalizing behavior, based on externalizing behavior in peers (± 1 SD) and utilization intensity (± 1 SD), controlling for individual and school level variables.



Similar results have been found with regard to caregiver-student interactions: As figure 3 indicates, higher utilization intensity decreases externalizing behavior compared to lower utilization intensity, if caregiver-student interactions have a higher quality. For schools with lower interaction quality, the contrary seems to be the case. Furthermore, students who experience high quality caregiver-student interactions seem to develop more favorably than students from schools with low quality inter-

actions, if they use extended education more intensively. However, for students with low utilization intensity, high quality of interactions seems to have an adverse effect.

Figure 3. Differences in students' development of externalizing behavior, based on staff-student interactions (± 1 SD) and utilization intensity (± 1 SD), controlling for individual and school level variables.



Discussion

In short, the lack of any main effects suggests that neither extended education utilization intensity, nor externalizing behavior in peers nor caregiver-student interactions alone affect change in externalizing behavior, negating hypotheses 1 to 3. However, in line with hypotheses 4a and 4b, we did find two cross-level interactions: Higher utilization intensity was more favorably linked to the development of externalizing behavior if caregiver-student interactions had a higher quality and if initial levels of externalizing behavior in peers were lower.

Utilization intensity alone does not seem to affect the development of externalizing behavior. This result confirms findings from a previous study in Switzerland (Schüpbach et al., 2014) and is also in line with the conclusion from Roth et al. (2010). While utilization intensity as a factor may potentially provide more information and thus be helpful in explaining different findings, rather than only considering mere participation, it seems reasonable to assume that any effects of extended education settings – no matter how intensively they are used – still depend on additional characteristics.

As previous research on child contagion suggested (Dishion & Tipsord, 2011), externalizing behavior in peers may influence the development of externalizing behavior. In our study, we could not confirm such a general notion. This may seem surprising, as students not only share extended education but also regular school hours with the respective peer group. However, regular school hours may be more firmly structured and supervised than extended education, which may counteract the possible effect of externalizing behavior within peer groups (Dishion & Tipsord, 2011).

Contrary to findings regarding after-school programs (Pierce et al., 2010; Wade, 2015), results did not indicate caregiver-student interactions having a general effect

on change in externalizing behavior. It is possible that overall utilization intensity was not strong enough to elicit such an effect, which would be supported by our finding of a cross-level interaction between the quality of caregiver-student interactions and utilization intensity.

To our knowledge, our contribution is the first to explore externalizing behavior in peers as a possible moderating factor of the effects of extended education. As expected, lower levels of externalizing behavior in peers predicted a more favorable relationship between utilization intensity and change in externalizing behavior: Students who experienced low levels of externalizing behavior among their peers developed more favorably, if they used extended education more intensively and the contrary was found when levels of externalizing behavior among peers were high. Consequently, for students with high utilization intensity, higher initial levels of externalizing behavior among peers were associated with an increase in externalizing behavior, compared to students with lower levels. So far, those results are in line with literature regarding peer contagion (Dishion & Tipsord, 2011). However, the development of externalizing behavior in students with low utilization intensity also differed. Among these students, higher levels of externalizing behavior among peers predicted a more favorable outcome, that is, a decrease in externalizing behavior. This finding is difficult to explain, especially since we could not find any influential outliers. In fact, inspection of the scatterplot indicated a strong linear relationship between externalizing behavior in peers and the slope between utilization intensity and change in externalizing behavior. Since it seems unlikely, that higher levels of externalizing behavior in peers would exert a favorable influence on the development of externalizing behavior, results point to confounded variables, either at the class or at the individual level.

Similar results emerged with regard to the cross-level interaction between quality of caregiver-student interactions and utilization intensity: For students with low quality of interactions, higher utilization intensity predicted an increase in externalizing behavior. In contrast, higher utilization intensity was linked to a decrease in externalizing behavior, when quality of caregiver-student interactions was high. Consequently, higher quality caregiver-student interactions were associated with a decrease in externalizing behavior, when extended education was utilized intensively. So far, results are in line with Wade (2015) who found that an after-school program resulted in an adverse effect when caregiver-student interaction quality was low. However – analogical to the other cross-level interaction – converse results were found for students with low utilization intensity, that is, with higher quality of caregiver-student interactions being linked to adverse outcomes. Again, such an effect seems unlikely and implies confounding variables, either at the school level or at the individual level.

Limitations

While the longitudinal multilevel design of our contribution allowed us to explore possible influences of change in externalizing behavior on their respective levels, there are several limitations: (1) With an average of only about 5 students per class

and about 10 students per school, sample size was already quite small, especially considering the small amount of variation at class- and school-levels. (2) Other relevant variables such as socioeconomic background or intelligence could not be included in analyses because they would have led to yet another reduction of sample size. (3) Ideally, the degree of externalizing behavior in peers would have been accounted for by including externalizing behavior at the end of grade 1 as latent predictor at the class level, because the simple aggregation variables of a lower cluster might bias standard errors. However, three-level models in MPlus do not allow predictors to be specified at more than one level. (4) Furthermore, the level-2 unit “classes” could refer both to a student’s classmates and to his or her peers in the respective extended education setting. While consideration of externalizing behavior in all peers during extended education might be the most straightforward approach, our sample was limited to a few classes per school and did not represent all children utilizing extended education. Therefore, focusing on a student’s classmates, which were also enrolled in extended education, seemed appropriate.

Conclusion

This contribution explored several possible moderators which may help to explain differential effects of extended education on externalizing behavior. Per se, utilization intensity, externalizing behavior in peers and caregiver-student interactions did not predict change in externalizing behavior. However, the effect of utilization intensity on externalizing behavior was moderated by both externalizing behavior in peers and caregiver-student interactions. While those findings generally confirm our assumption that utilization intensity has a favorable effect on externalizing behavior when the degree of externalizing behavior in peers is low and the quality of caregiver-student interactions is high, further inspection of both cross-level interactions raises caution. Further studies should reexamine those interactions in larger samples while controlling for additional characteristics at the individual, class, and school level (e.g. socioeconomic background, intelligence, quality of extended education beyond caregiver-student interactions), allowing for a more thorough inspection of possible confounders.

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Social Activism and Extended Education

Chitra Golestani

Abstract: Partnerships between schools and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are common in extended education providing students broader choices in after-school programing. This article explores how collaboration between educators teaching in after-school clubs and an international human rights NGO, Invisible Children, mobilized student activism across the United States in middle schools, high schools and on junior college campuses. This study suggests that collaboration between teachers in and out-of-school time (OST) with one or more NGOs produced insights in three categories: 1) teachers' perceptions about student sociopolitical consciousness (SPC), 2) teacher pedagogy and praxis, and 3) student leadership and activism. The results pose opportunities to conduct further research on: 1) the impact of a mutually reinforcing process of teacher and student activism, 2) benefits and constraints of NGO collaboration within schools, and 3) emergence of global citizenship education for sustainable social change.

Keywords: After-school, student activism, global citizenship, youth development

Introduction

From a socio-historical context, youth activists have made their mark as key actors in social transformation that challenged the *status quo*. Addressing multifarious social justice issues from environmental degradation to modern slavery, these movements are embedded in their distinct cultural realities yet adopted similar strategies that built on each other (McAdam, 2000). Youth¹ have demonstrated their power of perception, collective problem solving, and effective implementation of a new reality they envision (Kirshner, 2007). Broad youth and student activism will be considered to set the stage for a more specific analysis of lessons learned from this study involving after-school student activism in partnership with a human rights NGO.

1 For the purpose of this overview, the United Nations definition of youth as ages 15 to 24 will be used. The examples below illustrating the political agency of 'youth activist' refers to mostly university student activists while the data for this empirical study involves 'student activists' mostly in middle and high school with some college students.

Youth Activism

Recent history demonstrates how youth activism is relevant to the social, political and economic landscape of many nations. On the political front, the following examples offer a window to seeing the agency of youth as a catalyst for challenging authoritarian governments. In Georgia, youth built on earlier organizing against a corrupt education system and protested against rigged elections that led to the resignation of President Shevardnadze in 2003. In 2007, students and Buddhist monks and nuns in Burma/Myanmar organized for non-violent change of military rule that resulted in the ruling general to become a civilian president in 2011. In Egypt that same year, the revolution in Tahrir Square resulted in President Mubarak's resignation only 18 days later (Kimball, 2014). Hugo-Lopez posits, "Youth movements are especially threatening to adult authorities, often creating societal turmoil and sometimes toppling governments" (2006). While the results of changed governments may not be what youth activist set out to achieve, the willingness to strive for change is undeniable.

These instances of significant impact on social change can be tempered with myriad untold accounts of youth led organizing or activism that failed to accomplish intended goals. Nevertheless, youth and student activism is a social force that has unleashed its potential with the use of social media and participatory democratic organizing to impact social, economic, and political landscapes worldwide. The Millennial Generation lives in a new age reflected in studies such as a Viacom survey of 15,000 young people in 24 countries which "reported that most (84%) believe that their age group has the potential to change the world for the better. At no time in history have more youth lived under some form of democracy and has the proportion of youth been so great..." (Kimball, 2014).

Student Activism

Today, student activists are demonstrating their agency as influential actors in social movements and encouraging other young people to challenge local and global social norms. Various groups of student activists cannot simply wear clothes without seeing the realities of sweatshops, eat chocolate without tasting child labor, watch intelligent creatures such as *orcas* held captive without finding more humane sources of entertainment, and witness documentaries depicting atrocities of child soldiers in war torn countries without organizing for social justice as global citizens.

Along with diverse sectors in society with specific agendas, NGOs realize the potential of youth/student activism and collaborate with student activists at educational institutions. Through teachers' perspectives, this exploratory study examines the collaboration between Invisible Children (IC), a human rights NGO, and student activism during *out-of-school time* (OST) in the U.S. for its unique set of characteristics including: 1) mobilization of tens of thousands of student activists and establishment of after-school clubs formed to address the issue of child soldiers in Uganda, 2) teachers' perception of the impact of activism on students including inspiration for students to create their own NGOs, and lastly, 3) success advocating for legisla-

tion by the U.S. government such as the Lord's Resistance Army Disarmament and Northern Uganda Recovery Act of 2010. This act solidified American policy to capture Joseph Kony and to abolish his Lord's Resistance Army responsible for forcibly kidnapping boys to use as soldiers and girls as sex slaves.

While some believe that "education cannot be neutral on the critical issues of our time" (Zinn, 2002), school culture in U.S. education is characterized by respect for neutrality in teacher positionality during school and out-of-school time in order to avoid divisiveness. Thus, social activism in after-school programs, in the form of a club, necessitates that teachers have a certain level of professionalism to tread the waters of neutrality in politics and controversial issues while trying to teach students about social change through action. When schools allow clubs to be formed around social activism, what are teachers' perceptions of the impact on their students? Did the collaboration with Invisible Children affect teacher praxis and student sociopolitical consciousness (SPC), student leadership/activism, and global citizenship? The following exploratory research questions were raised:

- 1) How did teachers become inspired to collaborate with Invisible Children?
- 2) How did Invisible Children's outreach and professional development impact teachers' pedagogy and praxis?
- 3) What were teachers' perceptions about the effects of student activism in after-school clubs on students?

Although usually after-school programs are facilitated by OST staff/practitioners, for the purposes of this study teachers and practitioners are used interchangeably since teachers during school become practitioners out-of-school. The following section will review three themes: a) theoretical underpinnings of critical pedagogy employed by teachers in the study, b) limitations and opportunities of NGO and student collaboration, and c) Global Citizenship Education.

Literature Review

Theoretical Underpinnings for Liberatory Pedagogy

Under the deficit-thinking model, Western youth of today are characterized as self-absorbed, materialistic, and apathetic. Alternatively, through the lens of critical theory and pedagogy, youth, can, and have, demonstrated leadership in reading their reality and transforming oppression into liberation in various movements. Recent activism can be categorized into three arenas including human rights, environmentalism, and animal welfare (Weil, 2016). "Issues that have captured the activist attention of young people during the past decade are child labor, environmental protection, animal rights, sweatshops" (Sherrod, 2006, p. 2) and issues surrounding violence, institutionalized racism, immigration and war. The key question is whether youth are given the theoretical and practical tools to be agents of positive social change.

Born out of Critical Theory, Critical Pedagogy offers educators an alternative philosophy of education that is not top down “vertical” education but dialogical, “horizontal” and problem-posing education² that empowers students to not only “read the word”, but to “name the world and change it” (Freire, 1993, p.69). A central figure in critical pedagogy, Paulo Freire, clearly distinguished between traditional educational structures and liberatory education. Known globally for his conceptualization of critical pedagogy, Freire, was concerned with the development of *conscientização* (critical consciousness).

Impact of Student Activism

With many schools bound by state standards and pressured to perform on standardized tests, critical pedagogy sometimes becomes nothing more than a glorified philosophy occasionally referred to when searching for alternative approaches during school hours. Where do teachers and students find space to engage in critical pedagogy, praxis, and social action? (Gilgoff & Ginwright, 2015). Out-of-school time presents a unique venue where teachers, after-school practitioners, and students can have greater freedom to experience sociopolitical consciousness (SPC). Built on Ladson-Billings conceptualization of culturally relevant pedagogy (2009), sociopolitical consciousness has four key elements: critical reflection, political efficacy, critical/sociopolitical action, and collective identity development (Murray & Milner, 2015).

The development of SPC, referred to as sociopolitical development (SPD), is defined as the process that people, especially during adolescence, “acquire the knowledge, analytical skills, emotional faculties, and the capacity for action in political and social systems necessary to interpret and resist oppression” (Watts, Williams, & Jagers, 2003, p. 185). Research suggests that SPC has significant implications for youth development. A quantitative study by Christens and Peterson (2012), found that “as students felt more empowered to influence sociopolitical conditions in their lives and communities, their overall development outcomes improved” (Murray & Milner, 2015).

For educators, finding “in and out-of-school” time to create a learning environment that produces the kind of youth development described above is no easy task. As teachers and students increase their critical consciousness and engage in social activism there are many pitfalls to be avoided. For example, if teachers themselves are “not ‘critically literate’ to engage with assumptions and limitations of their approaches, they run the risk of (indirectly and unintentionally) reproducing the systems of belief and practices that harm those they want to support” (Andreotti, 2006).

2 Problem-posing education is the antidote to conventional “banking education” characterized by depositing information from teacher to student because it emphasizes critical thinking through questions that pave the way for dialogical learning.

Towards Global Citizenship Education

Educators with a critical orientation unpack old paternalistic patterns of global citizenship such as unexamined assumptions of ‘haves’ saving the ‘have-nots’, limited analysis of the root cause of social issues, and “false charity” that results in creating dependency between the provider and recipient thereby stifling self-efficacy. “True generosity,” Freire elucidates, “consists precisely in fighting to destroy the causes which nourish false charity. False charity constrains the fearful and subdued, the ‘rejects of life,’ to extend their trembling hands. True generosity lies in striving so that these hands – whether of individuals or entire peoples – need be extended less and less in supplication, so that more and more they become human hands which work and, working, transform the world” (Freire, 1993, p. 27).

Table 1. Distinction between soft and critical global citizenship.

	Soft global citizenship education	Critical global citizenship education
Problem	Poverty, helplessness	Inequality, injustice
Nature of the problem	Lack of ‘development’, education, resources, skills, culture, technology, etc.	Complex structures, systems, assumptions, power relations and attitudes that create and maintain exploitation and enforced disempowerment and tend to eliminate difference.
Understanding of interdependence	We are all equally interconnected, we all want the same thing, we can all do the same thing.	Asymmetrical globalization, unequal power relations, Northern and Southern elites imposing own assumptions as universal.
What individuals can do	Support campaigns to change structures, donate time, expertise and resources.	Analyze own position/context and participate in changing structures, assumptions, identities, attitudes and power relations in their contexts.
Basic principle for change	Universalism (non-negotiable vision of how everyone should live what everyone should want or should be).	Reflexivity, dialogue, contingency and an ethical relation to difference (radical identity).
Goal of global citizenship education	Empower individuals to act (or become active citizens) according to what has been defined for them as a good life or ideal world.	Empower individuals to reflect critically on the legacies and processes of their cultures, to imagine different futures and to take responsibility for decisions and actions.

Source: This table contains abbreviated parts of an original table from Andreotti (2006, p. 46-48).

As critical pedagogues in this study collaborated with a human rights organization to address the issue of child soldiers in Uganda, they grappled with how to facilitate global citizenship education³ in after-school clubs. Although defining global citizenship is a contested terrain, for the purposes of this study, global citizenship education will simply be defined as pedagogy addressing civic engagement in global issues of a social, political, economic, or environmental nature with the intent to build a more just and peaceful world. Table 1 demonstrates the distinction between soft and critical global citizenship as explicated by Andreotti (2006, p. 46–48).

Central to Andreotti's conceptualization of critical global citizenship education is the ability to use critical literacy to imagine and create new realities. Thus, "critical literacy is not about 'unveiling' the 'truth' for the learners, but about providing the space for them to reflect on their context and their own and others' epistemological and ontological assumptions: how we came to think/be/feel/act the way we do and the implications of our systems of belief in local/global terms in relation to power, social relationships and the distribution of labor and resources" (2006, p. 49). The following case portrays how student activists employed critical global citizenship and worked to embody an ethical North-South relationship yet were unable to attain their long-term goal of Fair Trade labeling with collaborating organizations.

Limitations of Collaboration – The Fair Trade Case

Youth activism has not only made political history on a macro level as discussed in the introduction section but impacts micro level economic choices from conscious consumerism to socially responsible investments.

On an economic front, the following example exemplifies the success of youth activists in creating a thriving market for Fair Trade products to stand in solidarity with poor farmer and labor organizations globally and notes the limitations imposed by corporate forces to take control over the Fair Trade labeling process. For over a decade, United Students for Fair Trade (USFT) activists (comprised of over 150 student Fair Trade groups) collaborated with a non-profit organization, and leading third-party certifier, FairTradeUSA to build the reputation of the Fair Trade Certified (FTC) label, on college campuses across the U.S.

When FairTradeUSA's model promoted corporations such as Coke (with alleged human rights abuse records in Colombia), McDonald's, and Wal-Mart, student activists in USFT withdrew their support claiming that income from FTC label licensing compromised FairTradeUSA's third-party status as independent from corporate retailers which clouded Fair Trade principles with profit-seeking agendas. Students' acute sense of justice for a democratic global economy was captured in this reflection by a USFT member:

We're not just a consumer movement... just increasing the volume of certified products sold. Our goal is also that of a social justice movement even though we may come at it from a market angle. We are trying to create solidarity and empowerment – Fair Trade is about creating

3 Global Citizenship Education, as defined by UNESCO, "aims to empower learners to assume active roles to face and resolve global challenges and to become proactive contributors to a more peaceful, tolerant, inclusive and secure world." Retrieved from <http://en.unesco.org/geed>

communities. And there are more ways of making that a reality than just through certification and the market (as quoted in Wilson, 2013).

While students poured years of *affective* labor into promoting Fair Trade labeling, they asked critical questions about whether their collaboration with the “non-profit organization”, FairTradeUSA, would help or hurt the promotion of a more equitable economy. They asked who would benefit from their partnership and how to best utilize their energies.

Although the activists in this situation employed a critical global citizenship lens, their partners did not. This highlights the importance of critical analysis for teacher and student activists assessing their partnerships with other entities. The example of student activism in Fair Trade labeling illustrates students’ power to influence ethical consumption in the face of corporatization of their efforts through the third party certifier organization. In contrast, the following section will present a case of an effective collaboration between an NGO, students, and teachers. While the two cases are unique and not comparable, there are lessons in each.

Successful Collaboration – The Human Rights Education Case

In the southern state of Tamil Nadu, India, a local non-governmental organization, the Institute of Human Rights Education (IHRE), has worked for over two decades to provide Human Rights Education (HRE) to six, seven, and eight graders in public schools. The results of a study conducted to uncover the effectiveness of the collaboration of the NGO with the schools revealed that where teachers were engaged in implementing HRE, the impact was “transformational” for students and teachers alike.

Students manifested their raised consciousness about human rights in four areas: “(1) personal changes; (2) attempts to intervene in situations of abuse; (3) reporting (or threatening to report) abuse; and (4) spreading awareness about human rights... While many students and teachers became active in confronting abuses in their schools through HRE, some went beyond the school gates to address issues taking place in the larger community, be they related to caste or gender discrimination, child labor, or early marriage” (Bajaj, 2012).

Teachers and students who confronted human rights abuses were often faced with resistance. Students faced stiff punishment for speaking up about injustices they witnessed and did not witness the social change they wished to propel. Nevertheless, successes were profound as captured in this account of a group of HRE students recounting their decision to address female infanticide still prevalent in the region:

After reading human rights education in 6th, I overheard in my area that a neighbor was planning to kill their newborn girl baby. I formed a group of classmates and we went to their homes. We explained to the lady [that this is wrong], but the father didn’t accept. He scolded us and slapped us. We told [him] that the child also has a right to life, you should not kill the child. We said, “If you are going to kill the child, we will complain to the police, we won’t move from this area. We will stand here and watch what you are doing with this child.” Often we used to go to that home and watch that child. But now that child is older and is even studying in school (Bajaj, 2012, section 5.1.3).

Students were highly encouraged witnessing their agency to challenge the status quo through their own intervention and collective action. Active HRE teachers faced

their own opposition from adults during interventions to stop child labor yet they continued to support student efforts. Thus collaboration between the NGO, IRHE, teachers and students produced a coherent vision for action leading to greater appreciation for human rights in Tamil Nadu.

Filling the Gaps

Youth and student activism has gained increasing attention in social science research as local and global youth organizing shapes community development and stimulates a culture of change (Shah, 2011; Watts et al., 2006; Burgess, 2002). In the first Fair Trade example above, negative outcomes of collaboration were uncovered and the importance of using a critical global citizenship lens was highlighted. The second example of Indian students intervening in social circumstances to operationalize their knowledge of human rights demonstrated the positive impact of HRE in the home, school, and community through collaboration with a local NGO. In both cases, NGOs targeted students for collaboration towards a desired outcome. Determined acts of youth attract organizations in various sectors of society for collaboration. Increasingly, youth organizers are forming their own groups, setting their own agendas, and securing their own funding (Terriquez, 2015).

More research is needed to examine multi-dimensional aspects of student activism with multiple actors such as students, teachers, NGOs, funders and governmental organizations. This study aims to contribute to learning in this arena by investigating the impact of Invisible Children's collaboration with educational institutions where teachers in and out-of-school time (OST) created a unique environment for fostering sociopolitical consciousness (SPC), social activism, and global citizenship. In the following section, the methodology employed to conduct this study will be discussed.

Methods

Background

High schoolers, college students, 1500 activists, researchers, dozens of non-profit organizations and educators from 27 countries traveled to Los Angeles to attend the Fourth Estate Leadership Summit August 2013⁴ organized by Invisible Children. Researchers from several institutes in Southern California, including University of California, Irvine (UCI), University of Southern California (USC), and the Paulo Freire Institute (PFI) at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) met to discuss gaps in literature on the human rights work of Invisible Children. Collective review of qualitative and quantitative studies with all the above-mentioned institutes

⁴ Details of the Fourth Estate Summit found at www.invisiblechildren.com (Retrieved from <http://invisiblechildren.com/program/fourth-estate-summit/>).

presented a need to examine the relationship between teachers' pedagogy, student activism, and Invisible Children.

Research Methods

The exploratory nature of this research called for qualitative methods and the use of phenomenological research design to better understand the "lived experience" of seasoned teachers as main actors in partnership with schools where they taught, their students, and a human rights NGO. According to Lester (1999), focusing on personal perspectives and lived experiences is "powerful for understanding subjective experience, gaining insights into people's motivations and actions." Thus, by investigating and analyzing teachers' experiences, this study hopes to offer insight into the phenomena of student activism, through the eyes of those engaging on the frontlines with these activists.

This study is also supported by the grounded theory approach as a "qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Below, more detail is provided on the methods employed for gaining access, data collection, and analysis.

Selection of Participants

Upon receiving Institutional Review Board permission, PFI met with an Invisible Children representative to gain access to the subjects and identify criteria of potential participants. Based on the subjects' itineraries in Los Angeles, teaching experience, involvement with IC such as participating in the Teacher Exchange Program or starting an after-school club, and representation from rural, urban, public, private, magnet, and charter schools, affluent and economic disadvantaged communities, and other diverse demographics, nine teachers from various parts of the U.S. were able to participate in the study. The informants in the study met the following criteria: a) had a minimum of three years teaching experience; b) taught in middle or high school or at the college level; c) had experience in teaching social justice and global citizenship in and out-of-school time. IC's role with gaining access to informants and assisting them to find the PFI interview site on UCLA's campus was necessary for successfully conducting the interviews.

Data Collection

The qualitative research methods employed in this study included one-on-one open-ended interviews in person with nine teachers, follow-up emails with teachers for further clarification about initial interviews, follow-up interviews via phone, emails with three Invisible Children staff, and collection of relevant documents. The various sources of information served to triangulate data for more accuracy. Three research associates of the UCLA Paulo Freire Institute conducted the interviews in

2013 during IC's Fourth Estate Leadership Summit conference at UCLA. Researchers used digital voice recorders to capture the in person interviews and used smart phone recorders for back-up recording.

Data Analysis

The research associates began with the transcription of the nine interviews, thorough review of all relevant materials collected from IC including studies conducted by independent researchers and institutes on IC's impact in the U.S. and Uganda, and conducted follow up interviews via phone and correspondence with interviewed practitioners to better understand teachers' lived experiences with students both in and out-of-school time.

The first step was becoming immersed in the analysis of the nine initial interviews. Units of analysis were identified generally as a few sentences or a short paragraph. The second step of analysis involved open coding; in other words, labeling each unit with a word or phrase that adequately represented the idea being conveyed. Once all codes were identified, they were reduced for redundancy and manageability using constant comparison. The third step involved categorizing the codes into categories using closed coding to group open codes. In the fourth step, Grounded Theory was used to categorize and identify emerging themes. Major and minor themes were examined in the fifth step for quotes that illustrated the categories and themes. Finally, an additional step of seeking relationships between themes was taken.

Limitations of the Study

Due to the fact that the informants were teachers from all over the United States and PFI did not have the necessary budget to send researchers to visit the schools where teachers worked, observations were not included as a part of data collection. Nevertheless, the teacher's descriptive interviews of their practices provided ample data to analyze. In the following findings section, the research questions this study set out to examine (described in the introduction) will be explored in the following categories: 1) The Spark of Collaboration, 2) Professional Development for Critical Pedagogy and Praxis, and 3) Teachers' Perceptions about Student Activism.

Findings

The Spark of Collaboration

This section will describe data revealing conditions of how partnerships between teachers, students, Invisible Children, and a Ugandan NGO emerged. Ways in which teachers discovered and partnered with Invisible Children (IC) were multiple, yet the catalyst that inspired the drive for teachers and students to start after-school clubs and take action was overwhelmingly dependent on viewing footage from the films

produced by IC depicting how Kony and the Lord's Resistant Army (LRA) caused atrocities such as abduction of boys for soldiery and girls for sex-slaves in Uganda.

Informants in this study had a wide spectrum of awareness about the conflict in Uganda and IC's work before teaching. On one end, a teacher had viewed the *Rough Cut* film produced in 2006 as a college student while another informant became aware through her students viewing *Kony 2012* years later. Collaboration between teachers and IC started under various circumstances such as a high school sending students to a community service conference, students receiving a research assignment on social issues they were passionate about, and teacher's existing partnerships with like-minded organizations. Regardless of the entry point for the informants in this study, the role of media to ignite action among teachers and students was paramount.

School culture, orientation, and flexibility are integral to providing teachers with the opportunity to learn about social issues and implement ideas outside of traditional programs both in and out-of-school time. For example, at an all boys parochial school, service to the community was in their mission statement. On the occasion when the school needed a chaperone to take students to a conference about community service, a teacher volunteered for no other reason than to have a change of pace from the classroom. At a community service conference in 2005:

The boys did not see anything that was really turning them on. There was this movie; I don't know something about Africa. I said, 'I am going to watch this movie; do you guys want to come?' They said, 'Yeah'. That being the *Rough Cut* film at that time. I had two children at that time... so when they were talking in the *Rough Cut* about kids being abducted between the ages of five and fourteen years old, I just pictured my daughter in that situation. That really affected me. That also really affected another boy that was there and one of the other students. And so the next day he found me in the school and said we cannot have seen this and do nothing. We need to do something. I said, 'What do you want to do?' And the whole thing started there (Interview 9, 2013).

The students initiated the after-school club and after a year of fundraising they managed to have a group of teachers and students travel to Uganda every year for various projects. After the school club met a Ugandan woman affiliated with IC who had started her own NGO in Uganda, students decided to start their own non-profit organization to directly work with a Ugandan educational NGO. While the after-school club did not want to abandon fundraising for IC, in consultation with IC, all parties involved decided that starting their own NGO was the best thing to do. Shortly thereafter, 19 other high schools became involved with the new student led effort that partnered directly with the Ugandan NGO. The ripple effects of beginning after-school clubs for social activism demonstrated the power of teacher-student relationships, courage of students and teachers to visit an unfamiliar country, collaboration between NGOs, and networking of high school students with friends in other schools to grow their NGO.

During school hours the above-mentioned educator taught a course on non-profit organization in addition to her mainstream classes. The interest generated from in school hours expanded to the after-school club. The enthusiasm from the club spread across the campus and to other high schoolers. Establishing a new student led organization with the mission to assist Ugandan children was challenging but ran with the

dedication of the students to ‘do something’ about the injustice they had witnessed through IC films.

Another teacher shared how she was introduced to IC through a student in her class. She had challenged her English class to do a “social issues research project” which required students to pick something that truly mattered to them, “not something that they’d thought would be easy but something that they’re passionate about and one of my students said, ‘I need to tell you about this cause that’s an issue I care about; it’s Invisible Children.’ So I went home and watched one of the videos online and I was bawling and I bought a video... and had a screening at the school which marked the beginning of their after-school club” (Interview 3, 2013). This student led club did many activities to raise awareness, mobilize other students in after-school clubs, and lobby their congressional representatives. In this school, students manifested their sociopolitical consciousness (SPC) by mobilizing campaigns with tools readily available on IC’s website to lobby their representatives and demonstrated leadership with organized action.

Throughout the data, the reoccurring theme of how in and out-of-school time mutually reinforce student learning and activism became apparent. The connection between in school and afterschool education created an environment for students to not only advance academically but to exercise their sociopolitical consciousness as emerging global citizens. In high schools especially, the connection between history and social studies courses and/or departments with teachers and students introducing Invisible Children played an important role in getting students to participate in OST social activism.

Professional Development for Critical Pedagogy and Praxis

At the start of the study it was assumed that one of the fruitful components of collaboration between Invisible Children and OST educators was a formal and on-going professional development program. This was not the case for most teachers involved with IC who benefited from a more informal support system for teachers. Data revealed that for the majority of teachers, the use of IC’s media, simple curriculum to accompany films, accessible tools and resources, online teacher group discussion facilitated by IC staff, and visits from “Roadies” who visited campuses for special programs were essential to their motivation for social activism with students.

Conversely, a smaller number of educators were a part of a formal and unique professional development, the Teacher Exchange Program (TEX) offered by IC. During 2007 to 2013, 143 U.S. and 216 Ugandan teachers team-taught for six weeks in summer and winter sessions in American and Ugandan schools. Before starting their team teaching all teachers participate in a week long teacher development on critical pedagogy and cultural relevancy. With explicit goals of fostering critical pedagogy, dialogical learning, and cultural engagement, both Ugandan and U.S. teachers reported positive professional development in both qualitative and quantitative studies of the program. One evaluation reported, “84.8% of participants expressed professional growth due to dialogue, partner teaching, readings and resources and

the immersion experience” and over 96% of all participants expressed broadened perspectives as educators. (Hanna, C, 2013).

The impact of the program was life-changing for some of the informants in this study and showed a glimpse of how such programs can have lasting effects as many informants referred to their experience with TEX as motivation for social activism in their U.S. schools. In school clubs supported by teacher activists, students raised over one million dollars annually for several years for the “Schools for Schools”⁵ program that built eleven high schools or rehabilitated them in LRA affected areas with over nine thousand Ugandan students benefiting from the program. Additionally, the “Mend” seamstress program trained 24 young ladies directly affected by LRA conflict for sustainable financial independence coupled with rehabilitation and counseling.

Upon arriving home from TEX, one teacher remembered telling her high school students, “You can do whatever you want but do something meaningful. One student took it [Invisible Children] to a middle school, got them on board and they decided to do the Schools for Schools campaign that year.” (Interview 4, 2013).

TEX prioritized praxis as weekly dialogue/round table meetings and reflection were central to the summer program while in the winter session round table dialogues were held via Skype. Participants of TEX also “document their discoveries online, which allows the entire partner teaching community to read the reflections of others, further multiplying the conversation. In the reflection document, partners discuss experiences inside and outside the classroom, their perception of student outcome, methods and practices that are successful, challenges they encounter and other ideas and thoughts they encounter in their work together” (Hanna, C, 2013).

In extended education, professional development has different needs and goals. Yet this data suggests that the conceptual framework of critical pedagogy, dialogical education, regular and sustained forums for teacher/practitioner exchanges, praxis, appropriate use of media, technology, and easily accessible tools for educators are essential for sustaining any dynamic learning whether it be in or out-of-school hours.

Teachers’ Perceptions about Student Activism

The informants in this study taught a wide range of subjects in middle schools, high schools, and colleges. Courses taught included history, social studies, math, English, theater, social entrepreneurship and non-profit management. Informant’s perceptions about student activism was embedded in critical pedagogy and global citizenship. The level of experience a teacher had with social change was reflected in their ability to inspire students to think critically about their efforts and to flourish in the after-school clubs. Teacher’s experiences about student activism at their schools demonstrated concrete changes in youth’s personal and social development.

Students displayed heightened critical thinking skills, independent quest for researching social justice issues, and long-term commitment to local and global causes through volunteering. They started new social businesses, increased networking

5 For a description of the Schools to Schools program see: <http://invisiblechildren.com/program/schools-for-schools/>

among peers and organization, created and sustained new organizations, and lobbied congressional representatives. The educators perceived their role as facilitators of a self-perpetuating process for teaching social change and global citizenship. An informant shared, “The students began to research issues on their own in classes; they go out and say, ‘I didn’t realize that child slavery was still taking places, or child prostitutions was still going on in some places in California!’ So they became more and more aware of things” (Interview 8, 2013).

Between June 2009 and March 2010 when IC mobilized youth activist to support the passage of the LRA Disarmament and Northern Uganda Recovery Act, youth participated in writing letters, calling and having in person lobby meetings. On the occasion when IC asked the president of an after-school club to support the effort, an informant noted, “It’s so fantastic to watch such young kids, also, sit there in a meeting, you know, with our US representatives and Congressmen and making changes at 16 and 17 years old” (Interview 3, 2013). Teachers, themselves, shared how they were personally transformed while working with students in after-school clubs. The student activism they witnessed went beyond their expectations especially in middle and high schools.

Teachers’ perception of student capacity for sociopolitical consciousness (SPC), social activism, and global citizenship was enhanced while collaborating with various organizations such as Invisible Children and *Enactus*. Nevertheless, collaboration with NGOs can have limitations as discussed in the following section. Participating in OST social activism was new for most students referred to in this study. For this reason, they did not dig deep into the structure of their NGO collaborators. Teachers and students in after-school clubs generally did not question whether their NGO collaborators were aimed toward critical global citizenship or traditional forms of charity that can be unsustainable and result in creating dependency.

Discussion

The Findings section revealed various ways in which NGO collaboration lead to increased SPC, improved pedagogy and praxis and created an environment for student leadership and activism. Nonetheless, limited data posed opportunities to delve deeper through future research into 1) the impact of a mutually reinforcing process of teacher and student activism, 2) benefits and constraints of NGO collaboration within schools, and 3) emergence of global citizenship education for sustainable social change.

A Mutually Reinforcing Process

A classic example from the data is a teacher who practiced problem-posing education in her class raising critical questions about modern slavery, students responding with research and requesting to take action outside of class. Student activism outside of class motivated and reinforced the teacher’s commitment to do more praxis –

snowballing into sustained community building and activism. The relevance of this mutually reinforcing process of teacher-student teaching and learning in and out of class offers policy makers, practitioners, educators, administrators, and others in the educational arena creative approaches to addressing student motivation, academic achievement, civic engagement and student leadership.

Benefits and Constraints of NGO Collaboration

Reflections on the findings indicate that on a short-term basis, IC, and social activist NGOs like it, can sustain their collaboration with educators and schools to make a significant contribution while addressing vital human rights issues. On a long-term basis, it is questionable due to the mission and capacity of the collaborating NGO. In this study, participants in the after-school clubs gained a unique perspective on transnational organizing from the United States to Uganda, yet did not seem to grasp the complex socio-political complexities in Uganda that gave rise to conflict and emergence of child soldiery. Similarly, IC was harshly accused of over simplifying the LRA conflict in Central Africa after Kony 2012 went viral with over 100 million views on by the sixth day of its release. Years of student activism across the U.S. with IC resulted in significantly curbing child soldiery in Uganda but did not change systems to address the root of the problem. The Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect reports, “there have been no reported LRA attacks in Uganda since 2006 or in South Sudan since 2011. After several years of small-scale attacks on remote populations, the group [LRA] has increased its activity since late 2015, particularly in eastern Central African Republic and northeastern Democratic Republic of Congo” (June 2016).

Towards Critical and Humane Global Citizenship Education

Upon becoming aware of child soldiers in Uganda, student activist and teachers, like other humanitarians in the North, felt compelled to demonstrate global citizenship through collaboration with Invisible Children. Ultimately, IC’s own sustainability in the U.S. was in question and IC’s main operations were moved to Uganda. While the findings demonstrate that students gained invaluable experience as described in the findings section, lasting development requires initial and sustained involvement of the local population as international aid from the North to South often results in unintended negative consequences.

In the book, “Governing Disasters: Engaging Local Populations in Humanitarian Relief” Ali, examines the connections “between law, governance and collaborative decision making with international, state, private sector and community actors in order to understand the dynamics of a global decentralized yet coordinated process of post-disaster humanitarian assistance” (2016, p.i). The findings of the empirical study of six case studies of various nations and 69 entities of the relief sector showed, for example, “international aid without community input can lead to significant complications. In areas that did not directly and systematically draw on com-

munity input, many rebuilt homes had to be demolished and replaced by a new road” (Ali, 2016, p. 5).

Teachers, youth, and NGOs engaged in social action are gaining a deeper appreciation through reflection on critical questions such as the following: Do mainstream patterns of charity foster dependency or self-efficacy? Do activist and NGO partnerships help support soft global citizenship or critical global citizenship? What systems would need to be transformed to truly change the reality in Central Africa and our interconnected world? This process of consultation, action, and reflection – praxis – will bring questions of sustainable social change into focus.

Human rights abuses, such as child soldiery and slavery, are symptoms of an ethically bankrupt global order. Lobbying existing governments that may be plagued with various levels of corruption and vested interests may lead activists to denounce old strategies and critically analyze how their efforts can produce long lasting results.

In his book, *Eleven*, Paul Hanley posits that large scale sustainable social change requires “various aspects of change on a number of fronts simultaneously, at different speeds, and multiple cycles... Such a process would require spaces to be created to foster ever-wider participation by individuals, institutions and communities.” (2014, p. 321). Hanley asserts that “Transformation cannot be achieved using traditional political means that feed on the pursuit of power. In the future, leadership will be synonymous with service, not power.” (ibid, p. 312). He demonstrates with multiple examples how an ethical transformation in the consciousness of humanity can bring enduring change.

As theories emerge about effective student activism in OST, the concept of *solutionary* thinking as developed in *Humane Education* can be explored. Humane Education is a lens for solution-based pedagogy that examines the interconnected dimensions of human rights, environmental stewardship, and animal protection toward building a more just and sustainable future for all. The capacities for solutionary thinking include critical, creative, and systems thinking. A “solutionary” as a noun “is a person who identifies inhumane, unsustainable, and exploitive systems and then develops practical, effective and visionary solutions both large and small, to replace them with those that are restorative, healthy, and just for all stakeholders” (Weil, 2016).

In the context of this study, students utilized their critical *thinking* to become aware of child soldiers in Central Africa and advocate for change. Students used their *creative thinking* to raise awareness and even start their own organizations. A missing component was the ability to employ *systems thinking*, emphasized in Humane Education, to better understand the complexities of the human rights issue in Central Africa. Deep rooted issues including international policy, inequitable trade policies that put developing countries at a disadvantage, prolonged violent ethnic conflict between and within African countries, lack of sound governance and inadequate education to raise human capacity toward sustainable development (John Templeton Foundation, 2010).

Expecting students to look at big picture questions that experts and scholars struggle with may be a tall order. Nevertheless, there are already glimmerings of solutionary thinking in schools where teachers, in and out of class, work with students to research pressing local/global issues they are passionate about. Next, they

develop practical solutions and invite local experts to the school to explore possible implementation. These student groups often participate in a “Solutionary Congress” where groups come together to present innovative outcomes (Rakestraw, 2016).

Future research on how student activists develop “solutionary” thinking in OST will be important to advancing a new conceptual framework for humane global citizenship. Building on critical global citizenship, the emergence of a theoretical framework for humane global citizenship will challenge teachers, students, and organizations to move beyond compartmentalized solutions to analyze root systems for comprehensive and sustained social change. The trajectory of student activism is challenged with the legendary words of Buckminster Fuller, “You never change things by fighting the existing reality. To change something, build a new model that makes the existing model obsolete.” (As quoted in Hanley, 2014, p. 301).

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Expanding the Horizon of Research in Extended Education: Perspective, Fields, and Methods

Sang Hoon Bae and Jee In Hong

Introduction

No matter what it is called, extended education is worldwide becoming one of the fastest growing areas in education systems. A variety of programs exists from early childhood to adult education levels. Some programs are publicly funded and implemented at public spaces, while others are run mainly for profits by private vendors – for instance, for-profit supplementary private tutoring. Extended education, often called extracurricular activities, differs from regular curricular activities in many aspects (see e.g. Kielblock & Monsen, 2016). Major differences include when and where educational programs are offered. More specifically, extended education is in general provided out of school time and outside regular classes.

However, there seems to be no big difference between the two in that both by nature involve teaching and learning processes, interactions between educators and students, administrative supports, the staff, etc. Above all, both of them ultimately share the goal, seeking for growth and development of participants. Nevertheless, while a countless number of studies have conducted in the traditional field – i.e., regular curricular activities in the public schooling setting, fewer attention has been given to extended education. In other words, extended education has been under-researched.

In 2016, NEO ER, *the Network on Extracurricular and Out-of-School Time Educational Research*, hosted the fourth meeting in Seoul with the theme of ‘*Expanding the horizon of research in extended education: Perspective, fields, and methods.*’ Participants presented what areas have been unnoticed, less studied and unfound in this area. In addition, presentations and discussion were made about new perspectives for research, less-investigated fields, and effective methods that may well be used for research in extended education. This paper aimed to critically review and synthesize what was presented and discussed during the conference. The paper also suggested implications for future research.

The 4th Meeting of NEO ER

NEO ER is an international research network with researchers and professionals in the field of extended education. Since it was formed at the 2010 Giessen, Germany meeting with the topic of '*Extended Education: An International Perspective*', it has taken an academic leadership role in this field. One product of the 1st meeting in Giessen was the book published in 2013 – *Extended education: An international perspective, Proceedings of the international conference on extracurricular and out of school time education research* (Ecarius et al., 2013). In 2013, NEO ER also launched an internationally refereed journal, *the International Journal for Research on Extended Education* (IJREE)¹. Since then, the journal has been published twice a year and is now internationally recognized as the unique academic journal in the field of extended education.

The 2nd meeting was again held at the Justus Liebig University Giessen in 2013. The theme of the meeting was '*Extended Education and Social Inequality*.' The 3rd NEO ER conference was hosted by Sungkyunkwan University, Seoul in 2014. The topic of the Seoul meeting was '*Values and Prospects of Extended Education*.' Experts from eight countries presented their works in the meeting. A comprehensive review and summary of the proceedings was published in the IJREE (Bae, 2014). The recent 4th conference was cohosted by NEO ER, Sungkyunkwan University, and the Korean After-school Study Association (KASA) in Seoul. The topic was '*Expanding the Horizon of Research in Extended Education: Perspective, Fields, and Methods*.' Presenters came from six countries – Germany, Switzerland, Japan, the US, Australia, and Korea.

The 4th NEO ER Conference at Sungkyunkwan University Seoul



¹ Please find more information about the IJREE on <http://IJREE.budrich-journals.de>

Expanding the Horizon of Research in Extended Education

Safety as a Foundation for the Quality Programs but the Area Lacking in Research

Among the conference participants there was agreement that given the importance of safety as a foundational factor for achieving the quality of extended education programs, little attention has been paid to and few studies have been conducted on this issue. What was shared among participants was that children's safety is an essential prerequisite to all other developmental outcomes like psychological and safety/security needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

In this context, the work done by Maschke, Kielblock, & Stecher (2016), *'Perspectives on extracurricular activities which have gone unnoticed so far: Physical and psychological safety'*, gained keen interests among the conference participants. To suggest the critical role of safety and security of children in achieving educational outcomes, the authors at first presented the conceptual model of the quality of extracurricular activities that includes main features of effective programs. This model was created by integration of two models – the Model of Program Effectiveness by Miller (2003) and Key Indicators of Quality in Afterschool Programs by Huang et al. (2008). In this model, they suggested two features of safety – physical safety and psychological safety. The authors, however, pay more attention to physical safety – particularly, sexual violence in the context of extended education. Based on the socio-structural approach they argued that while it is evident that extended education programs provide a variety of educational benefits to participants as well as the society as a whole, the program also should provide safe environment in order to achieve the outcomes and benefits. Particularly, more attention should be paid to peer-to-peer sexual violence at “*uncontrollable spaces*” where peer groups develop their own values and culture in their own world. Concerning the reason few studies have been done in Germany from this perspective, the authors explained that researchers usually have a tendency to look into the positive side of extended education. Pointing out this trend, the authors insisted that due attention should be given to negative experiences and outcomes such as sexual violence and stress. All in all, the central contribution of this paper is to broadening the perspective in the field of extended education.

Goals and Principles as the Determinants of the Quality in Extended Education Offerings

Pointing out the lack of research on the quality of extended education in Swiss, Schüpbach (2016) attempted to investigate the effects of goals and principles in the school guidelines on the quality of extended education offerings. Considering that most research have taken into account individual and family contexts, dosage, program environments, and instruction factors as determinants of outcomes, a close look at the impact of goals and principles in the implementation guideline on the

quality of the programs is of great value. It is also notable for this study to employ mixed methods approach including qualitative content analysis and quantitative analysis of data that measure the quality of extracurricular activities. According to this study, directors of extended education in Swiss consider opening up the schools to the community and promoting manual and practical skills of students to be most important goals, while psychological development and student learning is considered less important. As Schüpbach indicated, it is surprising that one-third of all-day schools sampled in this study have no mentions about educational principles and goals. However, the findings above should be interpreted in the context of the Swiss education systems and cultural backgrounds. As suggested during the conference, it may be of interest to conduct cross-national comparative research on this topic. Finally, it is noteworthy that Schüpbach's study employed 'multi-perspective approach' that made a comparison of perspectives on the quality of extended education offerings between outside observers and those who are directly responsible for the programs. To conclude, this study contributes to the development of research in extended education by providing new perspective focusing on goals and principles as predictors of the quality programs and suggesting the effectiveness of multi-perspective approach for better understanding of extended education.

Quality Benchmark Rating System Employing the Model of the Indicator System

The quality in education is the goal that most education professionals pursue. The same holds true for extended education. With the growing importance of educational opportunities out of school time, improving the quality of extended education programs became a key issue in many countries. However, while significance of quality assurance is one thing, measuring the quality of the programs is another. Without evaluating or measuring the quality, one cannot obtain information on what are problems and how to enhance the quality of the programs. With the comprehensive and in-depth reviews of the related literature, Huang (2016) proposed the *Theoretical Model of the Indicator System* that can be utilized in evaluating the quality or effectiveness of afterschool programs. The model consists of three major components – program organization, program environment, and instructional features. Each area has specific indicators to be used in the actual measurement of the quality of afterschool programs. Huang also suggested the *Quality Benchmark Rating System* that consists of the brief definition of benchmarks, indicators with the form of questions, and appropriate weight or point assigned to each indicator. With the effective use of the rating system, policymakers, researchers, and practitioners may gain valuable information on strengths and weaknesses for program improvement. Meanwhile, it should be pointed out that the quality benchmark rating system was initially developed based on the context of US afterschool programs. Therefore, extended education researchers, when they attempt to apply the standardized quality indicators, should pay particular caution taking into account particular contexts in which the programs are implemented. Huang's quality evaluation model would contribute to

program improvement in practices and help to conduct more elaborate and scientific research in the field of extended education.

Teachers: Extension of the scope and topic in extended education research

Kanefuji (2016) examined whether or not the existence of a *School Support Community Office* (SSCO) affects teachers' perception on their work conditions in Japanese elementary schools. She also investigated the impact of teachers' positive perception about cooperation with parents and the local community on their perception on working conditions. It is well known that teachers in Asian countries like Japan and Korea traditionally carry heavy workload at schools. In many cases they are expected to manage not only regular classes but also extracurricular activities after school hours. In this context, reducing school teachers' burden has been one of the top priorities among education policies. As Kanefuji pointed out, while there have been many studies on children and youth, little research has been conducted on teachers and care givers in the context of extended education. According to her work, teachers who work in schools having SSCO tend to feel fewer burdens on after-school hour works. Teachers who felt greater support from parents and the community are more likely to have positive notions on the cooperation among stakeholders. Finally, teachers with more positive perception on cooperation were found to have positive feeling on their working condition. The academic contribution of this study is to extend the scope of extended education research to teachers who have been less studied.

Out of class activities of college students: Emerging field of extended education research

Worldwide, higher education is becoming more and more universalized. In the case of Korea, more than 70% of high school graduates go to college. In line with this trend, research on students' experiences in college is gaining greater popularity among researchers. Particularly, there is a growing body of literature on the impact of academic and social experiences in college on student outcomes. It is obvious that out of class activities is important part of college experiences. Nevertheless, fewer studies have been conducted on this area in comparison with other aspects of student experiences in college.

Bae et al. (2016) intended to examine out of class experiences of college students and investigated the effects of these activities on selected educational outcomes in Korea. The conceptual framework of the study was built on the basis of the *Comprehensive Model of Influences on Student Learning and Persistence* developed by Terenzini & Reason (2005). This study involved the secondary data analysis. The data were collected from *Korean-National Survey of Student Engagement* (K-NSSE), the nationwide survey of student experiences. In their research, college students' out of class activities were measured by six categories including interaction with the faculty, preparing for class, working for pay on/off campus, co-curricular activities, community services, and relaxing and socializing. Most activities except one were found to be positively related to student outcomes – critical thinking, higher or-

der learning, learning social values and ethics, and collaborative learning. However, working for pay on/off campus out of the class time was not associated with the educational outcomes above. Furthermore, the study found that more working hours on/off campus led to less collaborative learning experiences of students. Given students' socio-economic state (SES) affecting the extent of working hours on/off campus, the findings imply that out of class activities of college students may influence inequality in higher education. This study is of great value, showing a new field of research in extended education.

Action Research Bridging Practices and Research in Extended Education

Cartmel (2016) in her work suggests benefits and advantages that action research projects may provide to researchers and practitioners in extended education. According to the literature (Peter, 2012; West, 2011), action research would help gain deeper and better understanding on real world problems and may contribute to building up the evidence-based knowledge. Likewise, action research as a "*reflective process of progressive problem solving*" helps promote the quality of professional development by allowing educators to acquire theoretical backgrounds and disseminate research findings within the community. Cartmel also argues that action research can be better performed through collaborative team projects and pave the way for knowledge sharing and subsequent changes in practice. Her research surveyed ten educators who have been involved in action research projects in Australia. It was found that action research, keeping educators motivated in their roles, helped to decrease staff turnover. In addition, the study found that those who participated in action research were able to build research competency, strengthen knowledge base, and finally improve practices. Given the importance of professional development in the field of extended education, this study shows the advantage of action research that can "*weave practice into theory and theory into practice*" and adds value to improving the professionalisation in extended education. An elaborated and peer-reviewed version of this presentation, including further analyses and interpretations, is published in this 2/16 issue of the IJREE.

Conclusion

Research in extended education is still in progress. There exist many issues that have received little attention among researchers. There are also many fields in extended education that have been less investigated. It would be effective for extended education researchers to employ theories, perspectives, and methods that have been well developed in the traditional fields of education research. However, it is also important for researchers to find perspectives and develop research methods that are suited for the context of extended education research. An attempt was shown at the NEO ER Seoul conference in 2016. All works presented and suggestions made at the conference would greatly contribute to strengthening the capacity of the extended

education research community. Furthermore, the papers presented at the Seoul conference will be published in the 1/17 issue of the International Journal for Research on Extended Education (IJREE).

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Informal Extended Education in Scotland. An Overview of School Age Childcare

Irene Audain

Introduction

Scotland has its own devolved Parliament since 1999, and the Scottish educational, legal and cultural context for out of school care has always been unique from the rest of the UK. Hence, in this article I will shed light on the education system and on the school age childcare services in Scotland. In the third part I will give an overview of the Scottish Out of School Care Network (SOSCN) which is the national organisation in Scotland that fosters high quality childcare, play and learning for children of school age.

In Scotland extended education and school age childcare is most often referred to as “out of school care”, then “after school care”, “holiday club” or breakfast club. There is also some extended education in Scotland in the form of homework support and other activities provided by teachers in schools, as well as summer schools for sports or the arts, however, the focus in this article is on the more prevalent school age childcare, which, although informal learning, is also a type of extended education.

Early Learning and Childcare is the preferred term of the Scottish Government for what might be called pre-school education or early education and care. Learning is used rather than education as this acknowledges what the child brings as an active learner. Care emphasises the relationships involved and that care and learning are part of the same processes.

The Education System

Children begin primary school at aged 4–5, after usually two years of part time free early learning and childcare, currently 600 hours per annum, with the Scottish Government aiming to increase this to 1,140 hours in the next five years. Disadvantaged two year olds also get free early learning and childcare. Parents pay for any childcare they need beyond the free hours, where available. Children move to high school or

secondary school generally at age 12/13 and are in full time education until they are 16 to 18.

Numbers

The population in 2015 was estimated at 5,373,000, with 17% of people estimated to be aged under 16, 65% aged 16–64 and 18% aged 65 and over (NRS, 2015).

There were 777,269 children, and over 50,000 teachers in education in September 2015; with 97,262 children in 2,492 early learning & childcare centres and 391,148 pupils in 2,039 primary schools, 281,939 pupils in 361 secondary schools and 6,920 pupils in 144 special schools (Scottish Government, 2016).

Schools Management and Curriculum

Local authorities manage all schools in Scotland, apart from some private fee paying schools, with only a handful opted out of local authority control; this is very different from developments in England. The Scottish Government sets the overall curriculum; this is the Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) (Scottish Executive, 2004). All teachers have to register with the General Teaching Council Scotland and hold degree or postgraduate teaching qualifications.

School Hours

The school day starts at 9am and finishes at 3.30 pm, Monday to Friday, with some areas of Scotland operating a half day on Fridays. There are around 40–42 weeks of school, over three terms, six weeks summer breaks and midwinter, spring and autumn breaks. Parent's employment hours are often 9 to 5 or longer.

School Age Childcare Services

School age childcare services often operate in the morning, from 8-9 with a breakfast club, after school from 3.30 to 6pm, or later, and all day holiday clubs in the summer or school breaks, 8am to 6pm.

The Care Inspectorate in Scotland regulates all services; standards for childcare include staff ratios and environment indicators, the quality of staff interactions with children, the management processes and staff training and qualifications. Ratios for staff never go beyond 1:10 and are lower for younger children and those with additional needs.

Staff in services must register with the Scottish Social Services Council (SSSC) and, like early learning and childcare, out of school care managers must be qualified or working towards a degree level childhood practice qualification (unless a

registered teacher), while practitioners and support staff all have specific levels of qualifications for their role.

There are around 4,500 staff in out of school care. A total 79,000 children aged (5–12) were registered with a variety of services in 2014 (Care Inspectorate, 2015). Childminders, who do not need to be qualified, looked after about 21,000 of those children, while the majority were in out of school care and holiday services and provision which has out of school care as an additional service (e.g. nurseries, family centres).

Premises for School Age Childcare

Nearly half of services operate in school premises, but are not directly managed by the school, apart from a small number in the Highlands. The rest operate in community centres, church halls, a few have their own premises. Half are voluntary committee parents managed, with paid staff, while a few local authorities manage direct provision; the remainder are in the private sector. Most schools in Scotland are run by their local authorities and access to school buildings, to provide out of school care, varies, with some offering free or low cost access, and others charging market rates.

Scottish Government Policies for School Age Childcare

The Children Act 1995 (Scotland) includes a duty to provide daycare for school age children in “need” before and after school and during the school holidays, therefore local authorities can purchase childcare places to cover these children in specific circumstances (this is not a large number of places). The Children and Young People Act 2014 (Scottish Parliament) contains a duty to for local authorities to consult parents on their early learning and childcare and out of school care needs. However, while there is a corresponding duty to provide at least 600 hours a year of free early learning and childcare, there is no such statutory duty for out of school care.

Help with Costs of Childcare (UK)

Services mainly survive through parental fee income. Some working parents get help with childcare costs if on a low income (UK childcare tax credits up to 70% of costs) or if their employer chooses to provide childcare vouchers. Some councils offer small grants for qualifications or inclusion of a child with disabilities.

The Scottish Out of School Care Network – Supporting Children's Rights to Play, Care and Learning

The Scottish Out of School Care Network (SOSCN), a charity established in 1991, is the national infrastructure umbrella organisation providing support, mentoring, training, quality assurance, information and resources to the over 1,000 school-aged childcare and holiday services in Scotland, which provide childcare, play and learning to more than 50,000 children. The work of SOSCN is underpinned by a strong commitment to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC).

SOSCN provides training, quality development, networking and information events for the school age childcare sector, and works on a national policy level with the Scottish Government, local authorities and regulatory bodies.

Policy and Development

Currently SOSCN is supporting the development of an updated national policy for out of school care in Scotland. This builds on their experience of helping create the first national policy for out of school care back in 2003; *School's Out – a framework for the development of out of school care* (Scottish Executive, 2003). Since being first funded in 1993, when there were less than 160 school age childcare services across Scotland, SOSCN has helped in various programmes with the creation of new services and supporting the sustainability of existing services for children of school age.

The two senior staff are also qualified researchers, including research with children, and are experienced trainers. There is an information officer managing the website and membership resources, and a qualified physical activity and wellbeing co-ordinator delivering related physical activities training. The organisation is currently grant funded by the Scottish Government.

Quality Improvement

A child in a full time after school place and a holiday club could spend 1,170 hours a year in out of school care, over five or six years, therefore SOSCN stresses the importance of the attachment relationships formed in this time.

SOSCN has their own quality improvement framework, Achieving Quality Scotland, centred on the UNCRC, Getting it Right for Every Child (GIRFEC) and the importance of play.

Qualified Professionals

SOSCN pushes for better recognition of out of school care staff as qualified professionals and in workforce surveys finds that staff do enjoy their work and increasingly see it as a career, despite low pay (SOSCN, 2013). In consultation events (SOSCN,

2015) across Scotland, staff felt that they are not treated as fellow professionals by teachers, social work or health professionals, despite knowing their work contributes to children and families wellbeing.

What Children Think about Out of School Care

In 2014 (Audain, 2015) over 400 children responded to SOSCN's children's national holiday care survey. It was found that the opportunities to play, to make friends and spend time with friends are what children value the most about out of school holiday care. There were very few negatives such as annoying behaviour of others or feeling left out. The overwhelming majority also felt that the staff cared about them, listened to them and they could tell them if they had a problem or worry.

Research and International Role

Research has demonstrated e.g. Tanner et al. (2016) and Kadar-Statat (2015), that out of school care, in particular, benefits more disadvantaged children in improving literacy and numeracy, yet out of school care is still often modelled on providing childcare for working parents, and not, as SOSCN argues, on the needs of children for the positive play, care and (informal) learning good quality services provide.

SOSCN recently carried out research for the Scottish Government led Play Strategy for Scotland Implementation Group. This report *Learning about Play* (Audain & Shoolbread, 2015) is discussed in another article.

In developing evidence based policy on out of school care the shortage of robust, recent research in this field is a barrier, therefore SOSCN would encourage academics to help build up a new evidence base, both in Scotland and internationally.

SOSCN maintains links internationally with colleagues in the field of school age childcare e.g.: from Australia and New Zealand, the US, Canada, Denmark and Iceland. Staff were previously involved in the European Network for School Age Childcare (ENSAC) which, sadly, is no longer active. SOSCN is keen that all in this field take part in international co-operation and would be willing to help co-ordinate a new international network.

Please do visit www.soscn.org to find out more about us.

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(Dis)Connection: Toward a more nuanced understanding of young people's learning and new media practices in 2016

A review of: Livingstone, S. & Sefton-Green, J. (2016). *The Class: Living and Learning in the Digital Age*. New York, NY: New York University Press.

*Book review written by Daniela Kruei DiGiacomo
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In the field of research on learning and development, the past few decades have been characterized by growing consensus on the nature of learning itself. Theorized by many in the neo-Vygotskian tradition as transforming participation in changing practices over time (Rogoff, 1990; Lave & Wenger, 1991), learning is now often conceptualized as “movement” (Gutiérrez, 2008) – as a socially, relationally, and culturally mediated phenomena that inheres within and across the ‘everyday’ (Scribner & Cole, 1973). But what exactly is the ‘everyday’ of 2016? In what ways does people’s participation in society look and feel different than it did ten, twenty, or even fifty years ago? What role does school and technology play, or can they play, in supporting young people to become active participants in the rapidly changing world around them? In *The Class: Living and Learning in the Digital Age*, Livingstone and Sefton-Green take on these important questions of what it means to live and to learn in today’s market-driven socioeconomic climate.

Attempting to authentically illustrate the texture of students’ everyday lives, Livingstone and Sefton-Green offer a descriptive and highly captivating picture of what it means to be a student and a young person living in a Western democracy in the year 2016. Bringing together their in- and out-of-school research expertise, the authors of *The Class* present their findings from a year of ethnographically informed fieldwork in a typical public secondary school in the London suburbs. Strategic about writing in a way that is accessible to parents, teachers, and policy makers, Livingstone and Sefton-Green address the prominent public and policy discussions linking digital media and young people, by situating everyday interactions within broader sociopolitical, socioeconomic patterns of late modernity.

The authors articulate an intention of their book as getting “beyond the many fearful claims circulating among adults about today’s youth” in order to prevent the

restriction of what they understand as potentially fruitful opportunities for learning and participation in contemporary society. Accordingly, their argument proceeds in the following way: an initial orientation for the reader as to the authors' rationale for writing this book, an overview of their theoretical perspectives on learning, a methods section, and an analysis of data that highlights issues of identity development, social worlds, and networks. Then, in chapters 5, 6, and 7, the authors take a deep dive into exploring their guiding questions of what it means to live and to learn in late modernity, illustrating the (dis)connectedness that exists amongst the young people's school, home, and digitally mediated spheres of being. Informed in part by theories of social capital, chapters 8 and 9 investigate the variety of lived realities that exist for the students of *The Class*, shaped largely by various race and class-based lines of difference. And in their final chapters, Livingstone and Sefton-Green tell a story of both social possibility and social reproduction, highlighting the complicated and often contradictory pathways that are navigated by young people today.

Cognizant of the fast-paced, highly interdependent yet disconnected world in which students' lives are embedded, Livingstone and Sefton-Green designed a multi-sited ethnographic study that would allow them to document students' learning and ways of being across both space and time. From observing the students inside and outside of the classroom, to interviewing family members in their homes, and getting tours of their online social media platforms, the authors took care in crafting a study that provided multiple vantage points from which to see the ways students went about their daily lives – from the choices they made, to the friends they kept, to their strategies for participation in their community and at school. Their methodological approach to the investigation of learning, then, aligns well with their theoretical perspective on learning – arguably one of the notable strengths of this book, and one that makes it a must-read for those in the field interested in pursuing similar strains of research that is at once interdisciplinary and humanistic. And of particular import for those interested in better understanding learning as a vehicle for equity, *The Class* serves as a modern day example of how to uplift and unpack the interwoven nature of the individual-in-society.

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