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Editor's Preface

In the 2/2018 issue, IJREE has five articles in the Special Section, one paper in the General Contribution, and three reports in the Development in Extended Education section.

In December 2017, WERA IRN organized a conference with the theme of '*Extended education from an international comparative point of view*' at University of Bamberg, Germany. During the conference, one of the sessions to which many participants showed great interest was '*A discussion about the terms in the field and about the field of extended education.*' The goal of this session was to explore the terms of extended education which vary across the nations and conceptualize the meaning and scope of extended education. Given the importance of the concepts in the development of research, IJREE editors decided to include the *Special Section* on this issue. Authors who presented at the WERA IRN conference were invited. Five manuscripts which underwent rigorous reviews were finally included in this section.

In the *General Contribution* section, one article by Isa Steinmann & Rolf Strietholt was included. Given the continuing transformation of the traditional half-day school system into the all-day school system in Germany, the authors examined whether all-day schools promote student achievement and reduce social achievement inequalities. Their research found that all-day schools did not make a difference for student achievement nor reduce educational inequality at the secondary school level in Germany.

Three short reports are presented in the section of *Development in Extended Education*. Fuyuko Kanefuji provides information about the recent Japanese government's policy on afterschool programs which emphasizes school-community collaborations. Hanna Koskimies, Iina Berden, Emma Harju present the report about the Finnish Government's key projects of which the goal is to incorporate culture into children's and young people's daily lives, support their creativity, and make art and culture easily accessible to them. These two policy reports would contribute to expanding our knowledge on extended education, particularly from the public policy point of view. Finally, Myung Suk Woo's report suggests that the economics of education perspective can be employed to understand human behaviors in relation to extended education. Based on the human capital theory, she argues

that students, regardless of achievement level and family backgrounds, invest time and money into extended education for a learning supplement or a future-oriented investment. Her contribution is of great value in that until now a large amount of research has been conducted relying on the sociological perspective.

We thank all authors for valuable contributions. Special thanks also go to all reviewers for their commitment to the development of extended education research and IJREE.

Sang Hoon Bae

Introduction: A Discussion About Concepts and Terms in the Field of Extended Education

Marianne Schuepbach

The starting point for this special section, “A Discussion About Concepts and Terms in the Field of Extended Education,” is the strongly growing field of out-of-school time and extra-curricular education for children and adolescents in learning societies today. Facing similar societal changes, the individual countries have developed extended education largely independently of one another. In English as the language of science, there are as yet no key concepts and terms that can be understood cross-culturally or for which there is a common understanding in the scientific community. Recent use of the umbrella term ‘extended education’ is an attempt to establish a culturally independent term. The research network WERA-IRN EXTENDED EDUCATION (WERA-IRN EXTENDED EDUCATION, 2018)—an international network of the World Education Research Association (WERA)—has been trying in recent years, among other things, to clarify and generate concepts and terms in English that are clear and understandable across regions and countries.

At the WERA-IRN Conference, Extended Education from an International Comparative Point of View, which took place at the University of Bamberg from November 30 to December 2, 2017 (reported in *IJREE* 1/2018; see Schuepbach & Stecher, 2018; see also special section in *IJREE* 1/2018), a self-organized symposium was conducted on concepts and terms in the field of extended education. Researchers from Sweden, Switzerland, Germany, South Korea, the United States, and Finland presented papers dealing with the question as to what belongs to the field of EXTENDED EDUCATION, what terms are used in each country’s language, and what are useful terms in English in this new field from an international point of view. All established research fields have developed commonly used terms and concepts in English; this allows the international scientific community in the social sciences to use, read, interpret, and evaluate them.

This special section is based on that conference symposium, which was organized by Marianne Schuepbach. It contains five contributions, which are described in brief as follows:

The first contribution, by Anna Klerfelt and Anna-Lena Ljusberg, is entitled “Eliciting Concepts in the Field of Extended Education – A Swedish Provoke.” In this article Klerfelt

and Ljusberg focus on the concepts used in the field of extended education from a Swedish perspective. Based on a review of concepts used in national and international research and formulated in Swedish policy documents, they discuss the concepts traditionally used in Sweden's School-Age Educare. Further, they point out that the concepts 'complement' and 'compensate' are central to the curriculum when the mission of Swedish School-Age Educare is described. Klerfelt and Ljusberg also look at content play (often called free play), which is important in Sweden. They close with the introduction of new concepts. This contribution provides a critical reflection on certain concepts used in the field of extended education in Sweden to stimulate worldwide discussion.

The second contribution, by Marianne Schuepbach, is entitled "Useful Terms in English for the Field of Extended Education and a Characterization of the Field from a Swiss Perspective." Schuepbach first clarifies current concepts and terms used in Switzerland and then focuses on possible useful terms in English in this new field from an international point of view. The third part of the paper presents an attempt to outline the field of extended education by means of basic points, taking Switzerland as an example. Schuepbach proposes this as a possible characterization tool that contains eight aspects for structuring and describing the field of extended education in different countries: the age range of the participants, the focus of the program, the form of the program, the time point of the program, the provider of the program, the location of the program, the participants, and the professional background of the staff.

The third contribution, by Ludwig Stecher, "Extended Education – Some Considerations on a Growing Research Field," is written from a German perspective. Stecher first outlines the field, examining what belongs to the field of extended education. Based on that, he then arrives at a definition of extended education as having six characteristics. These characterize the main aspects of the field. Further, he views extended education as an interdisciplinary field of research. Here he considers psychology, and especially educational psychology, but also sociology and thus both micro and macro perspectives as important. The last part of the article looks more closely at the term 'extension.' Here Stecher sees multiple forms of extension: Extended education means an extension of time, of methods, of content/outcomes, and of the professionals.

The fourth contribution, by Sang Hoon Bae, focuses on "concepts, models, and research of extended education" from a South Korean perspective. Bae first looks at terms in extended education. To conduct research about extended education, concepts and terms must first be clarified and understood. He then examines different development models of extended education that you find in different nations and regions: models driven by school reform, youth development, social need, or social reproduction. He attempts to describe the field of extended education by means of a schema with four fields. It is a conceptual framework that classifies students' learning opportunities by time (in school hours, out of school hours) and space (in school, outside school). In the last part, Bae presents a typology that categorizes extended education in each country into three types based on their major concerns and conceptions of the purpose of the programs.

Finally, from a U.S. perspective, the fifth contribution, by Gil G. Noam and Bailey B. Triggs and entitled "Expanded Learning: A Thought Piece about Terminology, Typology, and Transformation," develops a typology of a variety of afterschool programs: academic

cram schools, free play, and a hybrid approach that focuses on both academic and exploration-based, social-emotional opportunities. Noam and Triggs then discuss underlying transformations in education that will increase the importance of expanded learning. They identify several trends that “are influencing a universal movement toward a more expanded view of this important time outside the classroom” (p. 168). Noam and Triggs discuss various terms that are used in the field and clarify the distinction between extended and expanded learning.

Eliciting Concepts in the Field of Extended Education – A Swedish Provoke

Anna Klerfelt & Anna-Lena Ljusberg

Abstract: The aim of this article is to contribute to the discussion concerning the concepts used in the field of extended education by scrutinising different concepts that can contribute to research and guard the specific educational attitude of extended education as viewed from a Swedish perspective. The discussion will be based on a review of concepts used in both national and international research, as well as those formulated in Swedish policy documents and traditionally used in Swedish school-age educare activity. Defining extended education as a social practice that aims at meaning making based on experiences from everyday life will be an important theoretical starting point to which the discussed concepts will be related. The significance of taking a point of departure in children's perspectives is central in the article. Finally, some newly created concepts will be suggested as significant for the development of extended education.

Keywords: extended education, Swedish concepts, theories, values

Introduction

There is a variety of concepts used in the field of extended education, due to different societal expectations and dissimilar underlying theoretical and philosophical starting points. To be able to construct a worldwide critical discussion among researchers, teachers, and policymakers with the purpose of developing this area of research and field of knowledge, definitions of different concepts and an endeavour to develop new concepts or modernise the use of traditional ones are needed. The world is created by language and language is performative (Butler, 1999). Language structures and explains the world and forces people to act. Concepts can quickly and efficiently give a basic and fundamental understanding of contexts and conditions, and can mediate meaning. However, the concepts can have a contrary effect if they are vague and equivocal. In such cases they might rather shape confusion and ambiguity than communication and understanding. Several concepts within the Swedish field of extended education, that is, school-age educare, suffer from flaws. Some of them originate from the beginning of the twentieth century when the activity of school-age educare was characterised by features other than that which characterises the activity today. At that time school-age educare were governed by the National Board of Health and Welfare. The activity has then been ex-

posed to several extensive reconstructions from within political and societal changes which lead to that the responsibility for the activity was transferred to the Ministry of Education 1998. The transfer of school-age educare from the social sector to the education sector entailed a change in language, but when using Swedish formulations, or Swedish concepts translated into English, deficiencies appear. Among the most significant deficiencies are that some formulations do not always express the changes in the activity and that outdated concepts are not always replaced, but can remain both in the policy documents and in spoken language. The aim of this article is to contribute to the discussion about those concepts used internationally in the field of extended education by scrutinizing different Swedish concepts. The chosen concepts are cornerstones to understand the purposes and the significance of school-age educare in Sweden. Our intention is to contribute to scientific clarification and to guard the specific educational attitude that characterises extended education as viewed from a Swedish perspective. Taking a specific perspective has to do with orientation, as well as with gaze and position, with how to regard something and where to stand. It can also mean theory, visual angle, point or direction from which something is seen or depicted (Ljusberg, 2009, p.10). In this article we with a Swedish perspective mean that we analyze the phenomenon “concepts in the field of Extended Education” from a particular position as Swedish researchers, discussing and scrutinizing concepts used in this activity with traditions that comprises experiences from more than one hundred years. There is a need, both in Sweden and in other countries, to find or create new concepts that can in a more complete way create understanding concerning the activity performed today. We start a review of concepts by providing examples of Swedish school-age educare as described and regulated in Swedish policy documents and problematise that from without theoretical and activity based perspectives.

Swedish school-age educare as depicted in policy documents

Swedish school-age educare emanates from values and is a part of the public school system. The school-age educare and the school are based on democratic foundations and the education should impact and establish respect for human rights and the fundamental values on which Swedish society is based. Equality and solidarity, understanding and compassion for others are highly emphasised. The values are described in the Education Act (SFS 2010:800) and section 1 and 2 in the curriculum (The Swedish National Agency for Education¹, 2011, rev. 2018). An important task for the school-age educare is to mediate these values. A consequence of this starting point is that Swedish school-age educare is highly estimated and recognized. But at the same time somewhat taken for granted, since there is no need to prove its existence which also might be a reason for the low interest from the society to devote funding for research directed towards the field of school-age educare.

School-age educare has a section of its own in the curriculum (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018, section 4, pp. 23-26), which clarifies the purpose and core content of the educational programmes in school-age educare. This section begins by declaring a holistic approach to the activity of school-age educare, by formulating that the concept of “...the educational programme should be given a broad interpretation in school-age educare, where care, develop-

1 The abbreviation SNAE will be used in the text to come.

ment and teaching constitute a whole” (p. 23). The formulation *broad* is worth noting, and emphasises that the activity shall be seen as different in school-age educare compared to how it is viewed in compulsory school.

The aim of the educational programme is to:

...stimulate pupils’ development and learning, as well as offer the pupils meaningful leisure time. This should be done through the educational programme being based on the pupil’s needs, interests and experiences, while ensuring that the pupils are continuously challenged, by inspiring them to make new discoveries. The educational programme should introduce pupils to a variety of ways of working and expressing themselves, and offer them learning environments that integrate childcare and learning. (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018, p. 23)

As we can see, the child’s perspective is directly highlighted in this introductory paragraph, and further on, all policy documents governing the Swedish school and school-age educare, like the Education Act (SFS 2010:800) and its interpretations (SNAE, 2014), take their point of departure in children’s perspective. The curriculum for school-age educare states that the programme has to take its starting point in pupils’ needs, interests and experiences (p. 23). That means that the practice in school-age educare has to take the starting point in the child perspective. The concept child perspective used in research concerns the child and the child’s world as seen from the outside while the concept children’s perspective means that the children themselves have made their contribution (Ljusberg, 2009). When it comes to the school-age educare, learning from a child’s perspective not only means that the teachers, according to the curriculum, must listen to the children, but that they must also see children as competent actors (James, 2011; Mayall, 2002) in their own lives. This imply that the teacher must also translate the aims of the curriculum into practical situated action and plan on this basis.

Another fundamental task of the school and the school-age educare is to “encourage all pupils to discover their own uniqueness as individuals and thereby be able to participate in the life of society by giving of their best in responsible freedom” (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018, p. 5). The children are encouraged to learn to understand each other by taking each other’s perspectives, and in the common part of the curriculum, that regulate both school and school-age educare, we can read that the school and the school-age educare, is a social and cultural meeting place (p. 5). The pupils shall “broaden their understanding of different ways of thinking and being” (p. 23).

Educating democratic citizens is also a fundamental traditional value in the educational programme, and this is thus explicitly expressed in the curriculum. The children are encouraged to “develop familiarity with democratic principles, working methods and processes through participation, exercising influence and take responsibility in the activities” (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018, p. 24). In the curriculum, it is explicitly expressed that children’s rights are to be considered a part of the activity’s content (p. 26), in line with the Convention of the Child (UNICEF, 1989). Swedish school-age educare is based in children’s well-being and their possibilities for meaningful leisure and recreation, in care, education, and meaning making. The relation that connects care and education is explicitly marked out in the curriculum (p. 23). It is a question of both physical care and a question of the child’s right to attention, wellbeing and concern, as well as participation and democratic rights. School-age educare can never exclude care when it comes to education.

The curriculum also formulates that pupils in school-age educare shall be encouraged to try out and develop different modes of expression and experience feelings and moods.

Drama, rhythm, dance, music and creativity in art, writing and design should all form part of the activity.

This short description of the goals in the curriculum for Swedish school-age educare also includes examples of some concepts used in the curriculum, such as when stating the values grounding the activity. The Swedish curriculum for the compulsory school, the preschool class and school-age educare (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018) is an important document for revealing the concepts used on an official policy level. School-age educare is implemented throughout the country, and nearly all children aged six to nine (SNAE, 2018) attend this activity. Having a comprehensively implemented extended education gives Sweden, and to some extent the other Nordic countries as well, a special position from an international point of view. Having one curriculum that steers all school-age educare centres makes the curriculum a unifying tool that can support equality throughout the country (Klerfelt & Stecher, 2018).

Useful concepts – or concepts in use

Earlier, the designation *after-school centre*, *leisure-time centre* and/or *recreation centre* were used to translate the Swedish designation *fritidshem* into English. However, these translations all have shortcomings. School-age educare in Sweden is carried out before, during and after the school day, which make the designation *after-school centre* obsolete. As we understand the English word *leisure*, it is more connected with rest and lazing around, and the activity in Swedish school-age educare is absolutely not just lazing around, which makes the designation *leisure-time centre* unsuitable. The designation *recreation centre* is interesting, as it refers to the question of having recreation at the school-age educare centre, but it far from covers the variety of activities offered in the centres that fulfil the complexity of the multiplex goals stipulated in the curriculum. The designation *school-age educare* (launched by Klerfelt & Rohlin, 2012) has come increasingly into use. The strength in that designation is that it points out the age range the activity addresses and the relation between education and care. As mentioned in the earlier paragraph, the Swedish National Agency for Education has adopted this designation in their newly launched English Translation of the Swedish Curriculum (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018).

The transition of the school-age educare centre from *the social pedagogical arena* to *the educational arena* (Rohlin, 2001, 2012) has entailed a schoolification (Andersson, 2013) of the programme that also has been visible in the changed designations that name the participants, the content and the activity. Children participating in school-age educare centres are now called *pupils* in the governing documents. The concept 'pupil' is in Swedish translated to 'elev' borrowed from the French 'élève' and inherited from the traditional school-context. The concept is used to signify a person that receives knowledge, which in an educational context theoretically tunes toward the conduit metaphor (Reddy, 1979) and a passive take over of knowledge mediated by the teacher. Furthermore, the concept *learning* is used, and the activity is called *educational programme*, while researchers and teachers at school-age educare centres often still explain that children are viewed as participants with agency and as subjects, not merely an objectified school-pupil, which is in line with the perceptions about viewing children as 'beings' or 'becomings'. Researchers as James and Prout (1997) and

Qvortrup (1994) described in the late 90's the concept of 'human becoming' and 'human being' as a distinction between the traditional developmental psychological perspective of children and childhood and a more relational way. The traditional developmental psychological way of looking at children is described as 'human becoming' where children are considered more imperfect than adults and childhood becomes a shortcoming, something to be improved through development and socialization. From the more relational perspective, children are seen as 'human being' in which children are seen as fellow human beings with intentions and ability to make sense, even though they do not have an adult's conceptual device, or the same bodily and verbal ability (James & Prout, 1997; Qvortrup, 1994).

Discussing school-age educare when termed as a didactic arena is under debate in Sweden, with reference to the alternative approach to life and learning that characterise the content in the programme (Klerfelt & Stecher, 2018). An evaluation made by the Swedish Agency for Education 2018 (p. 42) shows that some teachers towards work in school-age educare centres criticize concepts used in the part of the curriculum regulating the school-age educare centres (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018) for signalling more of a traditional school culture than the school-age educare culture. There is a worry that the school-age educare with a tradition of emphasising care in combination with education will weaken and teaching and supervision increase (Andersson, 2014; Lager, 2015). There is also a worry that the teacher profession towards work in school-age educare will gradually more and more be dominated by the school tradition and lose characteristic features from the school-age educare tradition (Klerfelt, 2017a; Klerfelt & Stecher, 2018; Ljusberg & Holmberg, 2019). The school-age educare's point of departure in the child's perspective also argues to counteract the ongoing process of schoolification.

Interpretation of the mission of complement and compensate

The concepts complement and compensate are central to the curriculum when the mission of school-age educare is described. The concept *complement* targets how both educational activities, school-age educare and compulsory school shall cooperate, and the concept *compensation* concerns children's different and unequal access to resources.

Complement

The curriculum stipulates that "[T]he educational programme, in school-age educare, complements preschool and compulsory school, to a greater degree, by having learning be situationally governed, experience-based and group oriented, as well as being based on the pupils' needs, interests and initiative" (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018, p. 23). The formulation in the citation points out that the learning in both preschool/school and school-age educare shall be situationally governed, experience-based and group oriented, as well as based on the pupils' needs, interests and initiative. However, and this is important, the Swedish National Agency of Education insists, when using the reinforcing adjective *to a greater degree*, that the activity that occurs in school-age educare shall have additional features besides educational practices. This formulation highlights that the activity shall add and supply the educational programmes in compulsory school and preschool class. How school-age educare

shall design their activities to reach this goal for this supplementary activity is then described in section four of the curriculum, directly regulating the programme in school-age educare. Having confidence that school-age educare can provide complementation indicates a recognition of an alternative way to view knowledge and how learning is supposed to take place in school-age educare. It is this alternative way of perceiving education that school-age educare is entrusted with, which contributes to fulfilling the extension of the school-day for children, both when it comes to an extension in time and when it comes to an extension in educational attitude. That there is a reciprocity when it comes to the interchange between the different educational practices in preschool class, compulsory school and school-age educare, is also pointed out in the curriculum by the formulation, “[R]eciprocal exchange between the pedagogical approaches of the preschool class, the school and school-age educare can together help to enrich the pupils’ development and learning” (SNAE, 2011, rev. 2018, p. 9). In other parts of the curriculum, the formulations simply express that it is school-age educare that shall contribute to preschool class and compulsory school. In our opinion, the formulations in the curriculum could clarify and emphasise the mutuality in the reciprocity of this complement of the activity orchestrated by preschool class, compulsory school, and school-age educare (Klerfelt, 2017b). We assume that the somewhat sided formulation originated in earlier versions of the curriculum, which stipulated that school-age educare should complete the home (Ministry of Education and Research, 1994). The formulation that school-age educare shall complete preschool and school instead of the home has probably, just without reflection, been repeated when the curriculum was changed from that school-age educare shall complete preschool and school instead of the home.

Compensation

When it comes to the concept of *compensation*, this concept indicates school-age educare’s strong foundation in values. The intention, formulated in the Education Act (SFS 2010: 800), is that all children shall reach their utmost potential. The reality is that children grow up dependent on different living conditions. School-age educare is here in the policy documents depicted as a tool for affording children experiences that are not available in other environments where they already participate. Due to the children’s different experiences, it is a challenge for teachers in school-age educare centres to design their activity in different ways in order to direct different activities towards certain groups or individuals and thereby fulfil the goal of compensation. It concerns a whole range of the assignment’s different aspects, for instance, the experience of visiting museums, sporting, expressing themselves in arts and feeling safe. We also want to highlight that when it comes to compensation it is important to be aware of what different theories are in use. First, you need to base the reflection in if you perceive different childhoods conditions like problems or challenges. Second, it is important to acknowledge whether you see the question of different childhood conditions as a problem in the child or as a challenge to the education. In research where one takes an individual perspective, the problem is usually placed in the child, whereas research that takes a more relational perspective perceived it as a challenge placed in the encounter between children and staff in a particular context, such as school-age educare (Ljusberg, 2009; Skidmore, 2004). Our interpretation is that the legislation is clear and points to the fact that the teacher team has to see compensation as an educational challenge. In line with Wenger (1998), we under-

stand school-age educare as created by its participants. How children and childhood are defined is important for the demands, care and treatment that they receive and give.

Meaning making

If the concepts *learning* and *education* can be perceived as concepts based in a traditional school discourse, perhaps the concept *meaning making* might help broaden an educational discourse so that it also incorporates the child's perspective. The concept meaning making carries in itself a criticism of the division of individual human beings into separate parts, where mind, sense and emotion are kept apart (Wenger, 1998). School-age educare teachers take the opposite stance and discuss the importance of seeing the whole child and keeping mind, sense and emotion together (Klerfelt, 2017a). Wenger (1998) describes the making of meaning as taking place in everyday settings and in authentic situations. Meaning making occurs in social practices where human beings, by sharing resources, organise and coordinate their actions, mutual relations and interpretations of the world (Wenger, 1998, p. 13). Social practice includes language, tools, documents, pictures, symbols, well-defined roles and procedures, rules and contracts, which different practices use and make visible for different purposes. Wenger emphasises that a practice is produced by its participants through a constant and ongoing negotiation of meaning. Lave (1993) maintains that the human being appropriates meaning by learning to handle activities where the meaning functions. In an interactive perspective, focus for the cognitive processes is thereby transferred to social practice.

Viewed from a situated perspective (Lave & Wenger, 1991), the situation not only constitutes a context for, but are a part of the knowledge where concepts are tools which are appropriated by employment and making of meaning is a result of social negotiation. In that way, activity, concepts and culture become mutually dependent and come into expression as changed learning in a social practice. Lave (1993) emphasises that meaning is not created by individual intentions, but is "...mutually constituted in relations between activity systems and persons acting, and has a relational character" (Lave, 1993, p. 18).

The concept meaning making is used to signify children's strive to understand the world around them and create coherence in their life. School-age educare can be perceived as an educational practice where children create meaning from within experiences from their everyday lives. Knowledge is commonly created by children and teachers together by participation in this practice. The concept meaning making is used to designate this process (Klerfelt, 2007; Ljusberg, 2011a, 2011b). We perceive the concept meaning making as a superordinate concept that comprises learning and socialisation, and which keeps human and world together. At this point we turn from discussing the concept *meaning making* to another concept under debate, namely a significant activity in the school-age educare educational programme: *play*.

Play – Free play

One of the most important contents in Swedish school-age educare is *play*, often termed *free play*. However, there is a difference between the concepts *play* and *free play*. *Free play* is of-

ten explained as a voluntary activity where the children themselves decide what to do, with whom, how and where. This does not mean that the children always choose to play, they can for example choose to read a book (see e.g. Saar, Löfdahl & Hjalmarsson, 2012). Haglund (2015) describes “free play” as an activity “where the staff take their point of departure based on the children’s perspectives and the enhancement of democratic values and decision-making” (Haglund, 2015, p. 1556). Among all definitions of play we in this article choose to discuss two. One interpretation of play has been play for the sake of play, where the play has its own value (Kane, Ljusberg, & Larsson, 2015; Sutton-Smith, 1997). Another interpretation of play is an instrumental one, where play is used for a purpose, another purpose, such as for learning. This instrumental perspective values play for what children can learn in and through it (Kane, Ljusberg, & Larsson, 2015; Steinsholt, 1999). These two ways to look at play are both represented in the Swedish school-age educare. The authors of this article prefer the first understanding, play for the sake of play. Learning things and doing it throughout life is high on the agenda all over the world. Our point of view is that we are always learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Children learn while they play. We mean that play used for learning is no longer play but is teaching. Teaching may be playful but is still teaching.

New concepts

There is a need for new concepts to communicate the character of school-age educare and explain and define the activity with respect to other educational practices. Thus we would here like to discuss new possible concepts, and especially the designation *school-age educare*. As already mentioned, this name has strengths; while it avoids words like leisure and recreation, it is a weakness that it lacks connections to meaningful free time with an aspiration to ease and happiness. In one study (Klerfelt, 2017a), teachers in school-age educare centres talk about their work as sharing joy with the children every day and how they use jokes and fun as means for creating a happy atmosphere. They talk about ‘seeing’ the children. They also talk about that they encourage curiosity and creativity, creating an environment in which the children feel happy and secure and challenged to try things they would otherwise not do. This has led to the launching of a new concept concerning with describing the purpose of school-age educare’s inner core of the: *life affirming attitude* (Klerfelt, 2017a; Klerfelt & Ljusberg, 2017). This new concept is possible to connect to Rancière’s (1991) theories about care and love as an educational space between pupils and teachers. Just like the school-age educare teachers in the before mentioned study, Rancière speaks about the importance of the gaze: greeting the children and seeing them with humility and appreciation. He introduces the concept *attention* for involving the child in this educational space, and this concept builds upon an assumption of equality, which we can see is in line with the values underlying school-age educare. Rancière describes being *attentive* as the mode of a human being who verifies equality and who is verified in its turn by other speaking human beings. This is an educational stance that has serious consequences for how to understand not only the individual but also society. Rancière declares that this is “...the moral foundation of the power to know” (1991, p. 57) and we see these theories as a means to clarify the possibilities to educate caring pupils in school-age educare centres.

In this article we have given a critical reflection of certain concepts used in the field of extended education in Sweden as a contribution to a worldwide discussion. We have earlier pointed out the strengths in the designation *school-age educare*, but a weakness is that it lacks intonation to joy and happiness. The inner core of the activity in words of *affirmation to life* is not visible in the concept, nor is *children's perspectives*, the *complementary* and *compensating* aspects, *meaning making* or *play*. We want to point out that there is a need for extending, renewing and developing the concepts, as well as clearing out the outdated ones, to make them into active, efficient tools for clarifying the contribution of the activity to children and society. Consciousness about underlying theories and efficient linguistic tools are needed as support for humans to act in school-age educare in Sweden and to guard the specific educational attitude of extended education.

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Useful terms in English for the field of extended education and a characterization of the field from a Swiss perspective

Marianne Schuepbach

Abstract: In the last 20 years, interest in the field of extended education has been growing worldwide. Countries in the East and the West have been investing in developing systems to support student learning after traditional school hours. In this contribution, we first clarify concepts and terms currently used in Switzerland and then, from an international point of view, focus on possible useful terms in this new field in English. In the third part, we attempt to outline the field of extended education by means of basic points, illustrated using Switzerland as an example.

Keywords: Extended education, concept, term, characterization, Switzerland

Introduction

In learning societies today, there has been an increase in out-of-school time and extracurricular education for children and adolescents compared to the past. The last 10 to 20 years have seen numerous efforts to expand education and care opportunities to supplement schooling in almost every modern country in Asia, North and South America, Europe, and Australia. The discourse on educational contents and the importance of the education system has been shaped by the societal changes of the 20th century, including demographic and family changes, changing conditions of socialization, increased institutionalization of childhood, the need for better reconciliation of family and work life, the growth of electronic media, and the increased importance of schooling (Schuepbach, 2010). Thus, out-of-school time and extracurricular education are often seen as a possible response to growing challenges and demands, and expectations are manifold.

In modern countries, children and adolescents attend various public or private forms of educational opportunities outside regular school hours. They participate in school-, faith-, or community-based programs in the form of private tutoring or afterschool programs, or they enroll in all-day schools. In all of the countries, these programs focus on the social, emotional, and/or academic development of children and youth, and they are structured educationally to make it easier for the participants to learn general or specific contents. These

programs have common institutional features, as mentioned above, but their developments vary across the individual countries (Schueppach & Lilla, in press).

Starting out from similar societal changes, the individual countries have developed extended education largely independently of one another. The developments even vary across regions, which is the case in federalist Switzerland, for example,¹ where different developments in this field can be found in the different language regions of the country and in part in the different cantons (states); the constitution of the different models and the choice of concepts and terms vary.

Alongside recent debates conducted in the national languages in the individual countries, from an international comparative perspective the research network WERA-IRN EXTENDED EDUCATION (WERA-IRN EXTENDED EDUCATION, 2018), an international network of the World Education Research Association (WERA), has been trying in recent years, among other things, to clarify and generate concepts and terms in English that are clear and understandable across regions and countries. The aim is to increase clarity and achieve high recognition value. In addition to this conceptualization and clarification, WERA-IRN is characterizing existing extended educational opportunities in this field according to key aspects. This characterization and the clarification of terms in English will provide an important basis for comparative education and especially for research on extended education from an international comparative point of view. In recent years, the term *extended education* has been used popularly to identify this field of education internationally.

In this contribution, we first clarify current concepts and terms in Switzerland. We then focus on possible useful terms in English in this new field from an international point of view. In the third part, we attempt to outline the field of extended education by means of basic points, taking Switzerland as an example. We propose this as a possible tool for structuring and describing the field of extended education in different countries.

Extended education in Switzerland: Current concepts and terms

Within a country, such as Switzerland, one will often find not only several differently organized extended education offerings for children and adolescents but also no uniform concepts and terms for one and the same offering. For instance, in the German-speaking part of Switzerland, the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK) and the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Social Affairs (SODK) use the umbrella term *Tagesstrukturen*, which translates into English as ‘day structures.’ Day structures are defined as all extra-family care services meeting the needs of children and adolescents from birth to the end of compulsory schooling (or in special education, to the age of 20) (EDK & SODK, 2008, p. 1). A variety of models are found in Switzerland today in the schools or, supplementary to that, offered by different providers; they can all be subsumed under the

1 Switzerland is a federal state in which the Confederation, the cantons, and the municipalities cooperate on a federal basis and according to the principle of subsidiarity (Schueppach, 2014). This means that the federal government enacts legislation and has responsibilities only in matters that cannot be sufficiently achieved by the smaller political units. It is the cantons that have supreme authority in matters of education.

umbrella term. The definition of day structures encompasses both education and care from early childhood through the school years. The term focuses on 'structuring the day' for children and adolescents, which is a phrase that is commonly used in social work. There is no explicit focus on education of children and young people. But we also find use of the terms *familienergaenzende Betreuungsangebote*, the direct English translation of which is 'extra-family care services,' and *schulergaenzende Betreuungsangebote*, or in English 'extra-school care services.' We have to consider that in Switzerland and also in many other countries, there are no uniform or officially binding English-language terms. The choice of terms also reveals the positioning of the offerings and the prevailing self-understanding of them. In the German-speaking part of Switzerland, the commonly used term *familienergaenzend*, or in translation 'extra-family,' expresses the idea that the family is no longer able to fulfill its responsibilities and that something supplementary is needed. The term *schulergaenzend*, or in English 'extra-school,' suggests similarly that support complementary to the school is needed. This calls for a change in the responsibility of the school and the family. In Switzerland, Herzog (1997) postulated already at the end of the last century that the school would have to find ways to put itself in an altered relationship with the new types of families. Herzog further stated that there would have to be a new balance in the relationship between the family and the school. Today, what is needed is a reciprocal adaptation by the school to the family and thus an expansion of educational functions on the part of the public sector.

However, in Switzerland the German term *Bildung*, or 'education' in English, is not found in this context. Instead, the term largely used is *Betreuung*, or 'care.' The professional discourse in the German-speaking part of Europe in recent years, in connection with this development, has indeed examined the question as to what "modern, up-to-date education" is today (Otto & Oelkers, 2006). Rauschenbach et al. (2004), for example, proposed an extended concept of education that gave more weight to non-formal and informal education in addition to formal education, which mean the following (Bundesjugendkuratorium, 2001, p. 23):

- Formal education: Formal education is hierarchically structured, is binding, leads to achievement certificates (credentials), and has a chronological sequence in the school, education and training, and university system.
- Non-formal education: Non-formal education refers to organized educational processes that are opportunities on offer and thus voluntary.
- Informal education: Informal education takes place unplanned, triggered by inner and external impetus; it is not a conscious process, there is no educational intention; it is learning acquired in work and play from family, friends, neighbors, the media. Informal learning contains an inductive process of reflection and action. At the same time, it is the indispensable prerequisite to and foundation upon which formal and non-formal educational processes build.

However, as one can see from the terms above, this discussion does not seem to have found a place in the minds of education and social policy makers and in administration in Switzerland. Instead, certain policy-making circles continue to ascribe mainly a custodial function to extended education. They maintain that children and adolescents are to be safely "attended to" and "kept safe." Here, education is a minor point.

What are useful terms in English in this new field from an international point of view?

In established research fields, commonly used terms and concepts have been developed in English (as the universal language of science). This allows the international scientific community in the social sciences to use, read, interpret, and evaluate them.

In the new research field of extended education, discussions on key concepts and terms have taken place up to now mainly in individual countries, in federalist countries, and even in regions. A variety of terms are used in each country's language(s). Even in countries that have the same official languages, different concepts and terms have sometimes developed in recent years, such as for example in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia. As mentioned above, in many countries there are no uniform or officially binding terms in English for the field of extended education. As a result, there are no key concepts and terms that can be understood cross-culturally or commonly understood in the scientific community. This means that the different concepts and terms in English used are selected depending on the particular researcher or country of origin; they are then read by the target audience, which interprets and evaluates them depending on their own backgrounds.

In the WERA-IRN EXTENDED EDUCATION research network (WERA-IRN EXTENDED EDUCATION, 2018), we are attempting to clarify and generate concepts and terms in English that are understandable across regions and countries.

Due to the existing great variety of terms used in English-speaking countries, with concepts that are situated in the particular context, a new umbrella term was chosen: extended education. In my view, 'extended education' has up to now not gained currency in the English-language cultural context. The concept and term 'extended education' focuses neutrally on extension of the regular school day. In addition, there is an extended concept of education—formal, non-formal, and informal education—behind it (see above, Bundesjugendkuratorium, 2001). Based on definitions by Little (2007) and Mahoney, Larson, Eccles, and Lord (2005) for this field in the United States, we propose the following definition, which is intended to be culturally independent and non-cultural:

Extended education represents a multitude of programs/activities/offerings, among other things, that provide children and adolescents with a range of supervised activities designed to encourage learning and development, for children to be supervised and safe, and extending the regular school day. Some of them pursue general goals, such as psychological well-being and social competence, others focus on specific educational outcomes and goals. They are extracurricular, meaning that they are non-credential and voluntary. They can be offered in school-, faith-, and community-based settings, for any age range, and can be held before school (in the morning), between school hours (lunchtime), after school (afternoon), on weekends, or during school vacation.

Further, a variety of terms are used in the languages of each country. It is not meaningful to limit usage to just one term in English, because the terms used do not have exactly the same meaning and would not fit in every case—particularly as there are different forms of extended education all over the world. Some adequate terms having different focuses seem to be, among others:

- Program: This is "a set of related measures or activities with a particular long-term aim" (Oxford Living Dictionaries (English), 2018). Program means that, e.g., a child or

adolescent voluntarily takes part in a specific program with a particular long-term aim. This participation at certain times—with a starting time and end time, conducted regularly—takes place in a group of regular participants (who have registered for the program).

- **Activities:** These are many different ‘guided activities’ led by adults or ‘free play activities’ in an educational setting (EduCare-TaSe, 2013). The activities are extracurricular. ‘Guided activities’ means that, e.g., a child or an adolescent voluntarily takes part in a course or activities with a particular long-term aim; these courses or activities at certain times—with a starting time and end time, conducted regularly—take place in a group of regular participants who have signed up for these activities. In addition, there is supervised ‘free play’ in an extracurricular educational setting. ‘Free play’ means that students may choose freely among various activities and may also change their activities (EduCare-TaSe, 2013).
- **Offering:** ‘Offering’ is the most general term. It is something that you give or offer to someone, who can choose to take part in it. There are specific or general aims concerning the child’s or adolescent’s development or concerning supporting the family through child care. Offering comprises all forms of extended education; it is the broadest term.

The field of extended education: Basic points and a characterization

Mahoney et al. (2005), providing definitions and a characterization for the diverse field of organized activities in the United States, defined organized activities as “characterized by structure, adult supervision, and an emphasis on skill-building”; “[...] These activities are generally voluntary, have regular and scheduled meetings” (p. 4). Further, they characterized these activities according to basic points. This will serve as an initial starting point for the following characterization.

Based on Mahoney et al. (2005), we try to outline the field of extended education,² illustrated using Switzerland as an example (see Table 1). This is a tentative characterization tool.

2 Extended also to include free play activities.

Table 1. The Field of Extended Education: A Characterization

Extended education	Aspects	Aspects, e.g., in Switzerland
(a) What is the age range of the participants?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School-age children and adolescents in compulsory schooling • General goals versus specific goals • Goals promote positive development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children and adolescents from the age of 4/6 to 12 years → ISCED 020, ISCED 1 • Only programs with general goals and almost no specific goal-oriented
(b) What is the focus?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academically oriented, social competencies oriented, or recreational orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mostly social competencies oriented, and a recreational orientation, except homework support, which is academically oriented.
(c) What form does it take?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guided activities • Supervised free play activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mostly supervised free play activities
(d) When does it take place?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Before school (in the morning), between school hours (lunchtime), after school (afternoon), on weekends, or during school vacation • Private organization: group of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and non-profit organizations (NPOs) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Between school hours (lunchtime), after school (afternoon)
(e) Who is the provider?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public organization: realized on different levels, such as municipality level, state-, and/or country level • School, faith, or community based • Different institutional ties 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mostly public organization • Most offerings are organized by the municipality, some by the municipality and canton together; initial funding on country level
(f) Where is it located?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Separated in structure and/or content from school versus entity in structure and/or content, school-based • Intended: all children and/or adolescents versus only a special group of children and/or adolescents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (a) an entity in content and structure, school based • (b) clearly separated in structure and/or content from school, mostly community based
(g) Who participates?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only a self-selected group participates 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intended: all children and in rarer cases for adolescents
(h) What is the professional background of the staff?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No specific certifications • Specific certifications • Heterogeneous situation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No specific certifications • Specific certifications • Heterogeneous situation

In the following section the aspects of characterization are discussed in more detail. Each point then includes relevant information in general and then focuses on the context in Switzerland.

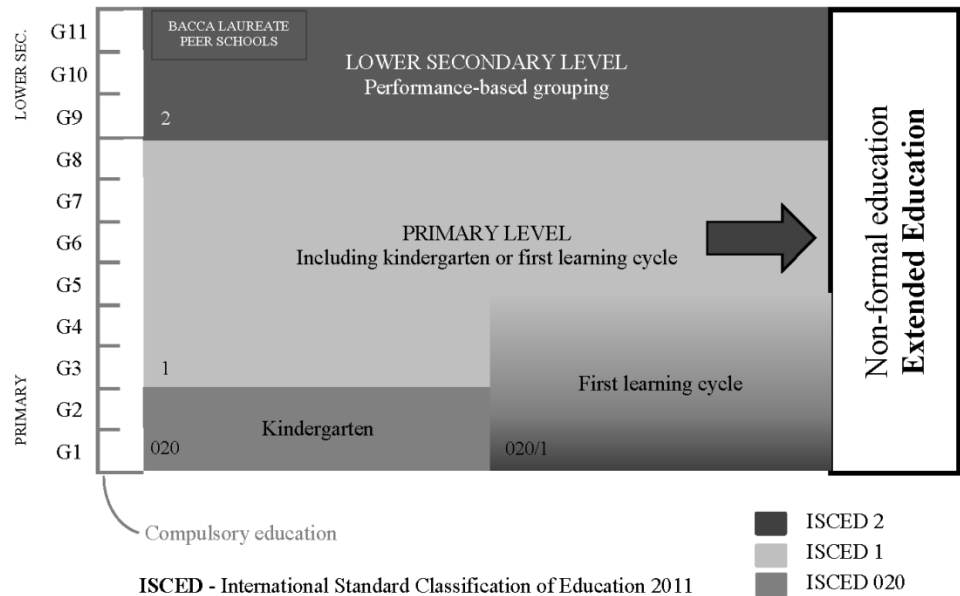
(a) What is the age range of the participants?

For the United States, Mahoney et al. (2005) subsume children and adolescents 6 to 18 years of age as the age range in the field of extended education. This corresponds to the age of children and adolescents in compulsory education in the United States, where many states require school attendance up to age 17 or 18.

The period of compulsory education and thus formal schooling in Switzerland is to 11 years total. The primary level—including 2 years of kindergarten or a “first learning cy-

cle”³—comprises 8 years. Generally, compulsory education begins at age 4. Following the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), this is ISCED 020 pre-primary education and ISCED 1 primary education. The lower secondary level is 3 years and corresponds to ISCED 2 lower secondary education. Figure 1 below also adds non-formal education, which was not shown in the original figure taken from the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK). This field comprises extended education in Switzerland: non-formal education during the compulsory school years. This means that extended education in Switzerland would apply to children and adolescents from around the age of 4/6 to 19 years, or ISCED 020, ISCED 1, and ISCED 2. However, at the present time in Switzerland, extended education is not found at the lower secondary level (ISCED 2), which means that the actual age range is from around 4/6 to 12 years.

Figure 1. The Swiss education system: Formal education and non-formal education (extended education) (adapted from “Swiss education system EDK” (Formation.ch, 2018)).



(b) What is the focus?

The focus is on non-formal education. In general, extended education is in out-of-school time and is extracurricular. It is part of non-formal education, meaning that it is non-credential based and voluntary. The offerings extend (traditional) schooling, which means that they extend the child or adolescent’s school day. They are education and/or care opportunities.

3 The first learning cycle encompasses kindergarten plus the first or first and second years of primary school.

The programs have different orientations and goals. Extended education pursues general goals versus specific goals. The aim is to promote positive child and adolescent development through, among other things, academic support, educational enrichment, STEM (science, technology, engineering, and math), cultural and social development, recreation, sports, fitness and wellness, visual and performing arts, tutoring and homework help, civic engagement, leadership skills, career exploration, service learning, college preparation, and development of the whole child (Little, 2007). In general, extended education can be academically oriented, social competencies oriented, or have a recreational orientation.

In Switzerland today, almost all offerings have general goals and almost no offerings are oriented towards specific goals. Extended education is mostly social competencies oriented and has a recreational orientation, except for homework support, which is academically oriented.

(c) What form do the activities take?

There are various forms of extended education activities. There are ‘guided activities’ led by adults; they have a certain starting time and end time, are conducted regularly, and take place in a group of regular participants. In addition, there is supervised ‘free play’ in an organized, educational setting. Free play means that students may choose freely among various activities and may also change their activities.

The EduCare-TaSe study, conducted in open-attendance all-day primary schools in the German-speaking part of Switzerland,⁴ found that, free play—and thus free play activities versus guided activities—clearly predominate. Further, the study found that free play is very important in all-day schools and that the children have considerable free play opportunities. At almost all all-day schools, extended education offerings mainly include exercise and sports and handicrafts and art activities (Schüpbach, von Allmen, Frei, & Nieuwenboom; Schuepbach, Rohrbach-Nussbaum, & Gruetter, 2018). As for ‘guided activities’ led by adults, homework support is offered at almost all all-day schools. It appears to be a supporting element that, according to statements by persons responsible for extended education, is the main reason for some parents to sign up their children for extended education. Another central element is meals, mainly lunch and afternoon snack. Frequently offered in the all-day schools are guided activities in the areas of recreation, exercise, health, and social learning, with sports activities making up the largest share (Schuepbach et al., 2017; Schuepbach et al., 2018). It must be mentioned here that these are not goal-oriented *courses* or *programs* providing targeted instruction on a topic a semester long. All in all, the current focus is on free play activities.

4 All-day schools, a form of extended education, are defined by the EDK as schools with all-day offerings (including lunch) on several days per week (EDK, 2013). These are extracurricular offerings that are usually under the care of the school principal and are conducted by a director of extended education. Some all-day schools have compulsory extended education, which means that all students attend certain offerings in addition to regular hours of school instruction. Much more common are open-attendance all-day schools, where the children attend regular hours of school instruction and may voluntarily attend optional modular offerings (Schuepbach, 2010). The open all-day school has fixed regular hours of school instruction plus optional extended education offerings attended by a part of the students.

(d) When does it take place?

Extended education can be held before school (in the morning), between school hours (lunchtime), after school (afternoon), on weekends, or during school vacation (Little, 2007; Mahoney et al., 2005).

In Switzerland today, as mentioned above, different models exist, and similar models are often given different names. In general, extended education is the most common during lunchtime and after school. All students attend regular hours of school instruction, but only a part of the students attend extended education—in the morning before school, over lunchtime including lunch, and/or in the afternoon after school. Students not utilizing extended education are at home during those times and, for example, have lunch at home.

(e) Who is the provider?

In Taiwan, for example, extended education is run by public (government) and especially by private organizations; a group of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and non-profit organizations (NPOs) have also committed themselves to offering extended education programs (Schuepbach & Huang, in press). Especially in countries with a decentralized organization, public (governmental) extended education is realized on different levels, such as the municipality, state, and/or country level.

In Switzerland, you often find public extended education. There is also extended education organized by foundations or associations, or NPOs. Additionally, in recent years there has been an increase in NGOs as providers. Depending on the canton, the public extended education offerings are organized by the Department of Education or the Department of Social Affairs. Public programs are realized on different levels. In Switzerland, with its federalist organization, most offerings are organized by the municipality. Some of them are provided by the municipality and the canton⁵ together. Recent years have seen initial funding on the country level⁶ (EDI & BSV, 2016), which has benefitted the set-up or restructuring of some offerings for school-age children and youth.

(f) Where is it located?

In general, extended education is school, faith, or community based (Mahoney et al., 2005) and located in a variety of settings, including public facilities such as schools, libraries, parks and recreation or community centers, colleges and universities, and private facilities.

Further, there are differences in the institutional ties of extended education. In some countries, such as the United States, extended education is mostly clearly separated in structure and/or content from school instruction in school time or out-of-school time. In contrast, Switzerland and German-speaking countries as a whole are establishing and further developing all-day schools. In Switzerland, for example, all-day schools are schools that have extended education activities (including lunch) on several days per week (EDK, 2013). Some all-day schools have compulsory extended education, which means that all students attend extended education in addition to regular hours of school instruction. Much more

5 Comparable to states in the United States.

6 Federal Law on Financial Assistance for Childcare (2003 to 2019).

common are open-attendance all-day schools, where the children attend regular hours of school instruction and may voluntarily attend optional extended education (Schuepbach, 2010). The all-day school is designed to be an educational and organizational unity, or entity, in content and structure. The whole all-day school is usually under the care of the school principal, with extended education being led by a director of extended education. This model can be found in several cantons but not always under the term ‘all-day school.’ However, there are also models in Switzerland where extended education is clearly separated in structure and/or content from the school, and these offerings are mostly community based. However, in all forms in Switzerland, homework support is an important element and tie between school instruction and extended education.

(g) Who participates?

Extended education addresses different groups of children and/or adolescents: it focuses on all children or/and adolescents versus only a special group of children or/and adolescents. Alternatively, only a self-selected group participates versus all children or/and adolescents have the same chance to participate. On the one hand, in the United States for example, there are afterschool programs that have a clear focus content-wise and follow specific goals that are often for a certain group, mostly at-risk children or adolescents. On the other hand, in Germany’s all-day schools, for example, extended education targets all children and adolescents. It is the same situation in Switzerland: Almost all offerings are intended for all children and, in rarer cases, for adolescents.

(h) What is the professional background of the staff?

In many countries, the staff’s professional background is very heterogeneous, and by no means all of the staff have degrees in education. In the United States, program directors, or site coordinators, typically “are recent college graduates and have some work experience in education and/or child care” (Khashu & Dougherty, as cited in Vandell & Lau, 2016, p. 54), and “there are no specific certifications or clearly demarcated educational program to prepare site coordinators for their myriad of managerial and instructional duties” (Vandell & Lao, 2016, p. 54). Numerous countries are facing such problems in connection with the fast-growing field of extended education. In contrast, in Sweden most of staff working in the Swedish School-Age Educare activities are trained School-Age Educare teachers who have completed a three-year university-based teacher education program. There are no volunteers working at the Swedish School-Age Educare centers (Klerfelt, 2017). Worldwide, there is increasing discourse on professionalization and professionalism in extended education (Schuepbach, 2016).

In Switzerland, the professional backgrounds of extended education staff are very heterogeneous. Some staff are teachers, others have a background in education in general, most of them have vocational education and training, and some of them have no professional background in education at all.

Conclusions

In this contribution from a Swiss perspective, we looked at concepts and terms for the newly developing field of out-of-school time and extracurricular education for children and adolescents. A critical discussion of current concepts and terms, based on those used in the German-speaking part of Switzerland, points up that the concepts and terms reveal that the societal discussion on the (changing) responsibilities of the school and the family has still not been concluded. Extended education is called, among other things, *schulergaenzend* [extra-school] or *familienergaenzend* [extra-family]. But in the present-day professional discussion, this rapidly developing field is being viewed not so much as a complement to an institution that is not fulfilling its task but rather, and much more, as an extended concept of education that has become necessary as a response to societal changes in the last decades and that is thus also needed by the school and the family.

Discussions on the key concepts and terms in this new research field have up to now taken place mainly in individual countries, with the result that there are a variety of terms used in each country's language(s). And in English as the language of science, there are as yet no key concepts and terms that can be understood cross-culturally or for which there is a common understanding in the scientific community. Recent use of the umbrella term 'extended education' has been attempt to establish a culturally independent term. In this contribution, we looked at the concepts behind it and proposed a culturally independent and non-cultural definition. The definition is intended to work out the commonalities in extended education as well as to take into account the characteristics of the very different forms of extended education found worldwide.

Starting from the definition, we attempted a characterization with the aid of basic points. A characterization tool was developed and applied to Switzerland as an example. We hope that the tool can be applied to other countries as well and thus lead to an initial overview for international comparative education research.

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Extended Education – Some Considerations on a Growing Research Field

Ludwig Stecher¹

Abstract: In most modern countries, much learning in childhood and adolescence takes place outside of regular school hours. That holds for community-based programs – like afterschool programs – as well as for private offerings – like private tutoring. In the international research literature, this field of learning opportunity is called extended education. This article attempts to define the term, extended education, and to describe in some detail the common features of extended education programs and activities, focusing among other things on questions of methods, outcomes and professionals working in this field. The article addresses additionally the question whether learning in the field of extended education decreases social inequality, or, on the contrary, widens the social gap. The most important conclusion is that many relevant questions regarding social inequality and the effectiveness of extended education are still empirically open to research.

Keywords: Extended education, learning society, learning opportunities, social inequality, family socio-reproduction strategies

Introduction

We are living, as Antikainen and colleagues put it (Antikainen et al., 1996), in a learning society. Learning societies are not only characterized by a rise in the level of formal education, but also by an increase of out-of-school and extracurricular learning in childhood and adolescence, when compared to the past. We can take after-school programs in the US and in South Korea, Swedish school-age educare centers, or German all-day schools as examples (see main topic in IJREE 1/2018). Aside from these – *state-run* and official – educational programs and initiatives, a *private* market for out-of-school education has been established in most countries as well (Bray, 2007). Wrapping up the current situation, it is safe to say that in most modern countries a lot of learning during childhood and adolescence takes place outside regular classroom teaching – or as Sefton-Green (2013) put it: A lot of learn-

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ing takes place at not-school. In the last ten years or so, the term *extended education* has been established to encompass this educational area.

Besides the fact that the term extended education has, step by step, been entrenched in the scientific and public debates, the term has remained somehow diffuse. This refers among other things to the lack of a clear definition of the term, to the lack of a far-reaching description of what kind of activities are object to research and to an uncertainty concerning which scientific disciplines are needed to deal with the various research questions arising in this field. In this article I will try to provide some answers to these questions in two steps. In the first step the article will offer a definition of the term, extended education, and discuss in short which implications the given definition has regarding research objectives and the involvement of various scientific disciplines.

In a second step I will delve deeper into the specific characteristics of extended education and address the question concerning what we mean if we say that extended education is ‘extending’ regular classroom teaching. These aspects have various implications, not only for putting extended education programs and activities into practice, but also for designing research projects.

What Belongs to the Field of Extended Education?

Browsing through international research literature, many different terms can be found referring to learning contexts and opportunities outside regular classroom teaching – after-school programs (Scott-Little, Hamann, & Jurs, 2002), after-school education (Noam, Biancarosa, & Dechausay, 2003), extra curricular activities (Eccles et al., 2003; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005), organized activities (Mahoney, Larson, & Eccles, 2005), or structured informal contexts (Vadeboncoeur, 2006). In Germany we talk about non-formal learning contexts (Maschke & Stecher, 2017; Rauschenbach et al., 2004), school-based extra curricular activities (at all-day schools; Fischer & Theis, 2014), out-of-school education (Trautwein & Wild, 2009; Stecher, 2010) or all-day education [Ganztagsbildung] (Coelen & Otto, 2008a, b).

On the one hand, all of these terms refer to provisions which supplement classroom teaching by extending the opportunities for young people to learn. On the other hand, they refer to – though sometimes only slightly – different learning situations or settings within or out of school. From my point of view, a term used to encompass the whole research field has to include both aspects: Firstly, that it is about learning or education (in a broad sense), respectively, and, secondly, that it is about a broad array of various learning provisions within or out of school. From my perspective, the term ‘extended education’ covers both aspects very well.

So from my point of view – at least for the German context, but possibly internationally as well – it makes sense to use this term. At the beginning of this decade in Germany, the term extended education was kind of a new ‘brand’ but has since been established in the scientific discussion.

A Definition

But how can we define extended education? Based on some articles colleagues and I wrote concerning extended education and its characteristics as a learning context outside the classroom, I would suggest the following definition:

The field of extended education encompasses all “activities and programs which are (1) based on a *pedagogic intention* and *organized* to (2) facilitate learning and educational processes of children and adolescents (3) not (completely) covered by school curriculum-based learning and (4) which aim at fostering academic achievement, (5) success at school, or (6) in general to accumulate cultural capital in the broader sense.” (Stecher, Maschke, & Preis, 2018)

From my point of view, these six points together characterize the main aspects of the field of extended education. The first aspect (1) refers to the fact that we would expect in most cases that the learning situation is designed and organized based on pedagogical principles (such as principles of learning, principles of participation, of learner motivation, etc.) aiming at enabling and facilitating learning processes (2). Though provisions in the field of extended education can be narrowly focused on academic *curricular* contents like math and language – see for example private tutoring –, some of them focus on contents expanding or exceeding the academic curriculum (like dancing, drama, cooking, trendy sports, etc. (3)). The goals of the programs are fostering academic achievement, success at school, and education in a broad, holistic sense (Bae; encompassed by the German term ‘Bildung’) – or, to put it in a less ambiguous and more human capital oriented sense: fostering the accumulation of ‘cultural capital’ (sensu Bourdieu; 4 to 6).

There are at least two main perspectives that can be derived from this definition: Firstly, with regard to the viewpoint that extended education programs and activities are intentionally designed and goal-oriented, they are generally open to questions of educational quality, educational effectiveness and educational efficacy. In this sense, research on extended education in some respects is very similar to research on school-based learning processes and can be based on models and findings in this research area (Stecher & Maschke, 2013²).

The second aspect refers to social inequality. On the one hand, from a *community and school-based* point of view, the additional offers in the field of extended education can be seen as comprehensive efforts to expand and develop public learning opportunities, in particular to foster low performing students and students with a low socioeconomic and/or low educational family background. Programs like the German investment program, A Future for Education and Care (IZBB), can be taken as examples of this type of extended education effort. Within this particular example, the development of German all-day schools was supported by the German Federal Ministry of Education and the Research (BMBF) with four billion Euros. One aim of this program was to foster in particular students with low academic performance and students with a low socioeconomic family background (Holtapels, 2005). In this sense, *extended education provisions are part of the fight against social and educational inequality* (Bae & Jeon, 2013; Steiner, 2016). On the other hand, we can look at the field of extended education from the students’ and families’ point of view, respectively. From this perspective, extended education options can be seen as part of the

2 In addition, there are some differences to be noted (see Stecher, Maschke, & Preis, 2018).

families' socioeconomic reproduction strategies (Stecher & Preis, 2013). Take for example the German case. With the decreasing return [Rendite] of formal education certificates during the last circa forty to fifty years, the importance of additional education and further training outside the classroom and outside the school has increased (Krämer, 1998). And thus, as part of the changing social (re)production conditions in general, parental reproduction strategies face adjustment pressures as well, in particular with a view to the accumulation of cultural capital and the associated status advantages for their children. In other countries, this pressure is further aggravated by the restricted access to prestigious academic careers (for example the restricted access to prestigious universities, as is often the case in Asian countries). From this point of view, different profiles of extended education provisions used by the families can widen the social gap (Zinnecker, 1994).

Whether extended education reduces or expands the social gap is a question only empirical research can answer.

Extended Education as an Interdisciplinary Field of Research

From my point of view, it is evident that research on extended education is per se interdisciplinary. For example, to give an answer to the question which programs and activities are effective with regard to student outcomes, we need psychological research that is competency-oriented (as mentioned before, we can base our research on classroom research that is in particular focused on pedagogic psychology [Pädagogische Psychologie]). To give an answer to the question how effective programs should be designed, we need intervention studies – a focus of pedagogic psychology as well as empirical educational research.

To address the aforementioned question whether extended education programs narrow or widen the social gap, we need research that takes into account effects of participating in extended education activities on the macro level of society. That is the specialty of the field of sociological research. To answer the question which societal role extended education plays with regard to the economy of a country – for example if we look at the private sector of extended education – we need economic science.

In as far as extended education defines a broad field of research, the relevant questions cannot be answered only from the point of view of one scientific discipline, based on only one methodological perspective, and by focusing either on the micro perspective of learning or on the macro perspective of societal developments. All these perspectives and methods must be brought together to shed light on the research field of extended education as a whole.

Extended Education – Extension of What?

In the description and aforementioned definition of what extended education is, we used classroom teaching and learning as a kind of comparative template. Based on this template we can describe the meaning of 'extended' in more detail. I will explain that with regard to four aspects or dimensions: *time* (extended time frame), *methods* (how learning is designed), *content* and *outcomes* (what content is taught, which outcomes the activities aim

at), and who is teaching/instructing. In the following I will discuss some of the expectations that are interlinked with these aspects. The following explanations should be treated as hypotheses, not as descriptions of real practice.

Time

Participating in extended education provisions prolongs the time provided for learning processes. The underlying expectation is that the more additional time children and adolescents spend on learning tasks, the better the respective outcome will be – taking the educational quality of the activity into consideration. From this point of view, ‘extended’ means an extension of learning time – or, to use the scientific language of pedagogic psychology, an extension of time on task (Stecher et al., 2009, p. 188).

Methods

In as far as extended education provisions do not underlie traditional classroom regulations regarding methods and didactics – for example, instructors in extended education provisions are not forced to evaluate the learning process of participants based on grades, as teachers are forced to – it can be expected that instructors have more freedom to create their own ways of teaching. Thus, methods can be used which are based on a participatory approach (involving the participants’ view on methods and their own way of learning), which are based on arts and cultural education (freedom of individual creativity), on group learning/peer learning processes or even on outdoor education. From this point of view, ‘extended’ means an extension of teaching methods and learning strategies put into practice (see also the following section).

These new methods and strategies, based among other things on the self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan (1993; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001) should activate learners in a new and powerful way and strengthen their motivation to learn (Stecher et al., 2009, pp. 190f.). With regard to the German all-day school debate, researchers expect that a new culture of teaching and learning could be established out of traditional classroom learning (Horstkemper & Tillmann, 2014).

Content/Outcomes

As mentioned before, extended education refers to learning contents not (completely) covered by school curriculum based learning. This means that, parallel to extending classroom content, the outcome perspective on learning processes shifts from academic achievement outcomes, in a stricter sense, to a broader variety of additional or alternative outcomes. As Klerfelt describes for Swedish school-age educare centers: The outcomes of learning processes are focused in school-age educare on “the children’s imagination and ability to learn together with others through play, physical activities and art, and includes aesthetic learning processes as well as exploratory and practical learning processes.” (Klerfelt & Stecher, 2018) The outcomes that all-day schooling in Germany aim at are, for example, cultural learning (including drama and music), social and intercultural learning, the individual development of effective learning strategies (for example self-directed learning) or the development of physical health and health consciousness.

This content-related opening can help to adapt content to the desires and individual interests of students and, therefore, foster student engagement and motivation for learning (Stecher et al., 2009, p. 191).

Who is Teaching/Instructing?

Let us take German all-day schools as an example. Whilst classroom teaching is invariably done by teachers (with a teacher degree), extracurricular activities are provided partly by teachers, partly by other professionals (like social pedagogues), semi-professionals (like sports coaches), and laymen. There are nearly no common regulations with regard to the qualification of additional instructing personnel in Germany (Klerfelt & Stecher, 2018). Figures from 2009 show that 39 % of additional instructing personnel do not have a pedagogical degree at all (Coelen & Rother, 2014, p. 133). Independent of the – serious – question whether all personnel members at German all-day schools are well trained for their job, ‘extended’ means that the participants are exposed, not only to teacher profession, but also to other professional perspectives as well (for an overview, see the main topic on staff professionalism in *IJREE* 1/2016, edited by Marianne Schüpbach). This ‘opening of the school toward new professions’ (Holtappels, Krinecki, & Menke, 2013, p. 47) could lead to a more diversified teaching and learning culture at (German) all-day schools that enables new learning experiences for the students and that fosters the individuals’ development based on a multi-professional approach. As research has shown, students at German all-day schools say that their relationship to the instructors working at their school in the extracurricular area is more supportive and more positive than their relationship with teachers in the classroom (Radisch et al., 2008).

Conclusion

What conclusions can be drawn from this short paper? In my view, it is irrefutable that extended education is becoming more and more important when discussing the effectiveness of modern educational systems from a holistic perspective. If we look at the features of extended education which differentiate it from traditional classroom teaching – with regard to time, methods, content/outcome, and teaching personnel –, it is not unreasonable to expect that participating in extended education provisions has the potential to foster individual learning processes in a new way – taking educational quality of provisions into consideration. From this point of view, extended education may have the potential to decrease educational and social inequality – if all students from all socioeconomic backgrounds have free access to, and are willing to participate in, such programs. However, we have also argued that families with a high socioeconomic or education status can derive specific advantages from these additional learning opportunities to foster their children’s academic achievement. That holds true in particular with regard to (expensive) private learning offerings. From this point of view, extended education becomes part of the families’ social reproduction strategies that will only widen social inequality. Whether extended education reduces or widens the social gap remains empirically unanswered.

This leads to the most important conclusion of this article – that many questions regarding the effectiveness and the societal effects of extended education remain yet unanswered, and that further empirical research will remain highly crucial in the near future. Furthermore, in order to improve our mutual understanding and knowledge, we need above all international comparative research in this area – as has been done for classroom learning since FIMS/SIMS/TIMSS, PEARLS, or PISA. This research will show the extent to which the success of modern societies is based on learning outside the classroom – and I am sure that part will not be a small one.

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Concepts, Models, and Research of Extended Education

Sang Hoon Bae

Abstract: Extended education flourishes all over the world. Within different cultures and sociopolitical backgrounds, it takes different terms, forms, and developments across nations. Without identifying the common concepts of extended education, we may not expect further developments in extended education research. This study examined the terms that are used to describe extended education in each country. Research focus was given to the kind of connotations the terms contain – in what ways the terms are perceived. Given that extended education in each nation has its own heritage and historicity, the study also suggested four extended education development models. The four models mainly concern the origin of extended education – for what reasons a certain type of extended education was introduced and developed as a legitimate educational arrangement. Finally, this current study attempted to explore the common features and concepts of extended education as an area of education research and academic discipline.

Keywords: Extended education, Terms, Development Model, Concepts, Typology

Introduction: Concepts and Research of Extended Education

The goal of all science is to better understand the world in which we live. No matter what fields researchers are engaged in, one of their ultimate goals is to find general explanations to phenomena that interest them. In other words, researchers conduct scientific studies to establish and develop “theories” in their respective areas.

Theory is a set of interconnected concepts, assumptions, and propositions that serves to describe and explain regularities and predict the future as much as possible (Kerlinger, 1986). Concepts are the core component of theories. Therefore, it is not surprising that researchers begin to explore concepts related to their research topics before they establish hypotheses or assumptions to be investigated and tested.

Concepts are by nature abstract. They are expressed by terms, i.e., words, which generally contain certain connotations. For a better understanding of concepts, therefore, it is essential to have a good grasp of the meaning of terms particularly in the real-world setting. Nonetheless, it is true that due to abstractness and simplicity neither concepts nor terms alone are enough to describe and explain reality. In addition, the meaning of terms is social-

ly constructed and institutionalized. Once it is constructed, people tend to maintain the way of understanding and interpreting the meaning of the terms. It is treated like social norms.

Another feature of concepts is that they manifest heritage and contain “historicity.” In other words, concepts are a product of history. Consequently, to explore the meaning of concepts, it is essential to understand the social context and historical background in which the concepts are established, used, and interpreted.

The notions discussed above hold true for research in extended education. Although “extended education” was created as an umbrella term, its features and manifestations are greatly diverse and dynamic across nations. Each nation and region has developed its own extended education in response to its unique social, political, and educational needs. Even though the concept of extended education is shared among scholars and practitioners, the terms and names used to describe it vary greatly among countries – e.g., programs, activities, offering. To summarize, extended education in each country has its own heritage, historicity, social background, and therefore, name.

Extended education has become one of the fastest growing fields in education systems. During the past few decades, there have been an increasing number of studies in this area. However, as mentioned earlier, extended education in each country and region has evolved with its own term, historicity, and social background. A variety of programs exists from early childhood to adult education levels. Such diverse and dynamic nature of extended education is the most fascinating aspect of research in this area. However, it is also true that research in extended education may not progress further if we fail to conceptualize its meaning and scope.

The purpose of this paper is threefold. First, this study set out to investigate the terms that indicate extended education in each country and region. The cases of nine countries and regions were examined – Netherlands, Switzerland, Germany, England, Sweden, The US, Hong Kong, Japan, and Korea. Research focus was given to the kind of connotations the terms contain, intentionally or unintentionally, and why they were chosen. Second, the extended education development models were suggested. As stated earlier, extended education in each nation has its own heritage and historicity coupled with social, political, and educational backgrounds. In this context, the models were suggested to present the reasons for which a certain type of extended education was introduced and developed as one of the legitimate educational arrangements. Theories were examined to support each model. Third, this study attempted to explore the common features of extended education. By doing so, the study aimed to conceptualize extended education as a topic or an area of research.

Terms for Extended Education

To conduct research about extended education, it is necessary to understand the terms that explain and describe the concept to be studied. It is particularly true when international comparative studies are performed. This is because each nation has developed its own terms, which contain certain connotations and heritage. By examining them, we may learn

what purposes and perspective are overtly and covertly incorporated and embedded in their practices and policies implemented under the name of extended education.

There are a variety of terms used to describe extended education and related phenomena across each nation and culture. Among many, this study examined three themes that help understand the institutional features of extended education.

Out-of-school time (OST)

“Out-of-school time (OST)” is one of the most widely used terms employed to explain the concepts of extended education. OST suggests that learning and developmental opportunities provided by extended education may take place outside the typical school day. More specifically, the scope of OST includes before school, after school, weekends, or seasonal breaks. Among them, afterschool programs are the most prevalent in many countries such as Korea and the US (Bae & Jeon, 2013; Mahoney, 2016).

The term OST reflects independence and difference from the conventional public schooling and regular classes in terms of when, what, how, and where children and youth learn. Therefore, it is a particularly narrow understanding of OST to only emphasize the difference in time (when) and place (where) between OST and the traditional education setting. The term OST incorporates the concept of expanded learning in terms of the goal and content of learning (what and why) and way of teaching (how). Accordingly, it is obvious that the wide use of the term OST contributed to developing a broader concept of learning and development among education researchers. Meanwhile, the OST activity trend may be understood in relation to the liberalist tradition of education philosophy. The underlying ideas of OST may be “resisting educational standards and preserving local control of education” (Labaree, 2000). Since a great deal of research has revealed that a major reason for the achievement gap among different socio-economic status groups is the availability of opportunities to learn and develop outside the regular school time, greater policy support is given to OST activities and programs, particularly for students at risk (Mahoney, 2016).

Activities vs. Programs vs. Offering

Extended education in most countries employs one of these three terms. However, the connotations of each term differ. Compared to “programs,” the term “activities” implicitly shows the participant-oriented nature of extended education and often anticipates the “accidental learning” of children. Examples are summer camp, play, sport club, arts club, and leisure time activities. The most frequently cited theory supporting children-centered extended education activities might be the positive youth development theory (Benson, Scales, Hamilton, & Sesma, 2006). Those who support this idea also tend to believe that playing and having free time outside school time, although provided with the supervision of adult professionals, are considered children’s right. Meaning making from the activities is emphasized. A case in point is the school-age childcare services provided at leisure-time centers in Sweden (Narvanen & Elvstrand, 2015; Klerfelt & Haglund, 2014).

However, when researchers, practitioners, and parents use “programs,” the term tends to emphasize pedagogically designed and instruction-engaged practices often having clearly specified goals. In other words, in comparison to the term “activities,” the term “programs”

contains the connotation of “intentionality,” indicating that extended education pursues certain goals accomplished by collaboration between students and qualified professionals. It is also notable that “programs” generally consist of a series of learning processes or steps, not a one-time event. The afterschool program in Korea is one of typical cases. For instance, in many countries, afterschool programs have been introduced as an educational reform initiative for responding to students’ diverse needs and changing educational environment. In most cases, they began to promote the academic achievement of students, particularly students at risk. In recent years, however, they are implemented for wider purposes such as the socio-emotional development, health, and well-being of students.

When it comes to “offering,” the Oxford dictionary defines it as “a thing offered, especially as a gift or contribution.” With this definition, it may be perceived as a provider-led initiative even though it does not intend to deliver the sense of “provider-oriented intervention.” While “activities” are more likely to be student-centered service, “offering” has the connotation of a school-centered approach. Further investigations on the origin of this term may be of interest.

Finally, whether it is called activities, programs, or offering, what is important is that they are not part of the regular curriculum, and they are offered outside the school hours. In addition, the providers include not only schools but also a variety of private vendors.

Extended schools and Expanded schools

Whereas the two terms, activities and programs, pursue student-centered educational and recreational arrangements, the other two terms, “extended schools” and “expanded schools,” are related to the new trend about the wider roles of public schools. They have been introduced in England and the US respectively as one of the education reform initiatives that encourages local schools to extend and expand time, space, and responsibility in response to the increasing and diverse needs of students, families, and the community (Dyson & Jones, 2014). In this case, schools are expected to actively interact with the community. Advocates suggest that these schools would contribute to “comprehensive school reforms that restructure the school day” (Mahoney, 2014, p. 64).

Accordingly, this concept of extended education emphasizes the strong partnership and mutually beneficial relationships between schools and the community. In the case of East Asian countries such as Korea and Japan, this idea has been developed in relation to the movement in education toward school-community collaboration (Bae & Kanefuji, 2018) and “the Village-based Education Community (Kim, 2015).” Place-based education (Sobel, 2005), community based learning (Kim, 2015), and area-based learning (Kerr & Dyson, 2014) may also be included in the concept of extended schools that aim to take advantage of a community’s local educational assets to promote the learning and development of children and youth.

Private supplementary tutoring (Shadow education)

Undoubtedly, private supplementary tutoring, also known as shadow education, is a major part of extended education. It has been widely examined as a dominant education system because it has huge impact on individual participants as well as the entire society in terms

of educational equality and excellence, as the mainstream formal education system does. Researchers (Bray, 2013; Bray & Lykins, 2012; Mori & Baker, 2010) contend that it is becoming increasingly normative and is being institutionalized across many societies. It was explored as a major educational phenomenon in East Asia but is currently viewed as a global phenomenon. According to Bray (2013), it has three distinctive features compared to the formal education in public schools. The first feature is “supplementation,” indicating that tutoring covers subjects that are already taught in schools. The second is “privateness,” which suggests that tutoring is offered by private vendors and individuals for profit-making purposes. The last is “academic subject-focused,” meaning that its main purpose is to help participants raise their test scores in academic subjects and compete for better grades and entrance to prestigious institutions. It differs from other kinds of extended education programs that aim to promote the growth and development of children and youth and contribute to the shaping of educational and social values such as equality of education, family support, community development, and social cohesion.

Extended Education Development Models

Extended education has evolved with the historical and social context of each society. For a better understanding of practices and research in the area of extended education, it is crucial to examine what has driven extended education in each respective nation and region. Simply speaking, the origin of extended education shapes the current policies, practices, and research trends. Based on the extensive and critical review of the related literature, four development models are suggested in this paper. They are not mutually exclusive but are partly associated with one another.

School reform-driven model

In this model, extended education is considered as an education reform initiative. This model shows that it has been developed to address the public concerns about the problems of public schools – particularly the less open and less flexible regular curriculum. One example is the afterschool programs in Korea that were introduced to promote student-centered education (Bae & Jeon, 2013). Another example is the extended schools in England that were initiated to extend the role of schools in the support for children, families, and the community (Dyson & Jones, 2014). In recent years, it has been greatly emphasized by education reformers to help students cultivate key competencies for citizens in the age of digital transformation and therefore to introduce the innovative approaches in teaching and learning to public education. Among the many school reform initiatives, the one observed with the keenest interest by policy makers across nations has been extended education which has great potential for adopting and implementing innovative ideas, approaches, and practices. In this model, extended education has been generally developed and implemented by top-down approaches with strong government leadership and financial support. However, the frequently reported problem is the lack of autonomy at the local and school levels. In addition, greater attention is given not only to its own educational values but also to societal needs. Research topics include a) the effectiveness of extended education programs as a

public policy, b) the relationship between extended education programs and the regular curriculum, c) efficient management of extended education program implementation, and d) building a model to promote cooperative relations between schools and the community. Useful and related concepts are policy effectiveness, policy evaluation, the community school, professional development, etc. Related theories and academic disciplines may include economics of education, institutionalization, educational administration, public policy theories, etc.

Youth development-driven model

In this model, extended education is understood as a means for helping local children and youth develop their skills, aptitudes, and talents – e.g., leadership, communication, decision-making, self-esteem, dependability, and personal control. Extended education programs have been generally developed and maintained by local professionals, activists, and the community. These programs originally started with the principle of local autonomy on what and how to educate their children. However, in recent years, government support is increasingly requested due to financial reasons. Good examples are OST activities in the US and leisure time activities in Nordic countries (Klerfelt & Haglund, 2014). Research topics may include a) the effectiveness of programs and activities on the developmental outcomes of participants, b) participation patterns among different socio-economic status groups, and c) gaps in developmental outcomes among groups with different backgrounds. Related concepts and theories include human development, positive youth development, human capital investment, and psychometric assessment and measurement.

Social needs-driven model

This development model implies that extended education, as a social institution, is part of the ecology of the entire society. In this case, extended education is expected to deal with the social needs and other environmental factors of the community (Dyson & Jones, 2014). In recent years, the kinds of extended education that meet these societal needs are increasing. Examples include language programs for immigrant and minority students, child-care services for dual income families, summer camp for students who are left behind, etc. With the growing number of immigrants, increasing social disparity, and widening achievement gaps among groups, extended education is gaining greater popularity among policymakers in many countries (for the case of Germany, see Fischer, Theis, & Zuchner, 2014; for the case of England, see Kerr & Dyson, 2014). In addition, it is also said that the growing extended education opportunities contribute to the creation of jobs in this sector. Related research topics include a) the effectiveness of extended education implementation on social outcomes at the regional and national levels, b) the educational and developmental needs of underprivileged students, and c) the participation patterns of disadvantaged students. Related concepts and theories may be education welfare, cultural assimilation and acculturation, child-care, critical theory, and labor market theory.

Social reproduction-driven model

Extended education in this model is understood as a vehicle for social reproduction. This model points out that extended education has been developed based on the belief in upward mobility through education, and affluent families may have better access to quality extended education programs that help their children enhance academic achievement. According to researchers, this type of extended education is being institutionalized worldwide (Mori & Baker, 2010; Bray & Lykins, 2012). The best examples are private supplementary tutoring and cram schools. They are now known as “shadow education” (see Bray, 2013). Research topics include a) extended education as social reproduction strategies of families, b) the effects of extended education participation pattern on mobility variables, c) participation patterns and gaps among different SES groups, and d) the origin and social problems of chronic shadow education. Related concepts and theories include social reproduction theory, social and educational stratification, social mobility, social justice, cultural capital theory, and critical theory.

Concepts and Fields of Extended Education

Concept

The final question is whether extended education can be considered a domain of knowledge and a field of research. From the academic point of view, whether or not a certain area of research is established and accepted as an independent academic discipline may be determined by answering three questions – 1) whether there exists a distinct field to be studied in comparison to other areas, 2) whether the research community is established and active in this area, and 3) whether there exist research methodologies applicable and suitable to the field. The concepts of extended education concern the first question.

To be an area of academic research, there should be a clear and distinct area and definition for extended education. Many researchers have attempted to create a definition of extended education. However, due to the variety of goals, scopes, learning structures, and providers, a uniform definition of extended education is very challenging. However, it seems many researchers agree that extended education is not part of the regular curricular activities and is typically offered before and after school, and at locations outside of the school site. Taking this into consideration, the best approach to explain and describe extended education is to identify the common concepts that may be widely applicable to various aspects of extended education programs and activities across various nations. Conducting a comprehensive review of previous studies, Bae & Kanefuji (2018, p.30) suggested the following common and important concepts of extended education:

- Intentionally organized learning and developmental programs and activities,
- Incorporation of teaching and learning and/or developmental processes that typically occur between adult professionals and young participants,
- Implementation outside of the allotted school time, including before school, after school, and during the summer/winter break,

- Implementation in the school context -although some programs take place at locations outside of the school site, and
- Participation is typically on a voluntary basis

Fields

Another way to conceptualize the institutional features of extended education as the target of education research is to identify the scope of extended education research. Figure 1 represents a conceptual framework that classifies learning opportunities that students may have by time and space.

First, it is obvious that area 1 and 4 do not belong to the genuine area of extended education. The educational activities in area 1 are based on the traditional school-based regular curriculum. Although the education programs and students' activities provided in area 4 occur outside the school buildings, they can be viewed as an extension of the regular curricula activities. Examples include field trips and sports activities as part of regular classes that usually occur outside the school. As discussed earlier, what the extended schools in England do is considered one of the extended education programs. However, it should be noted that extended schools perform their work beyond the traditional role – i.e., teaching traditional students in conventional ways at the school building – and thus, the educational programs and activities that they provide are regarded as part of extended education.

The major aspects of extended education can be found in area 2 and 3. The conceptual difference between area 2 and 3 relates to who provides and/or coordinates the programs. The educational activities and experiences in area 2 are offered outside school hours, but they are “school-based” programs. “School based” can be interpreted in many ways. First, it means that the programs are run by schools. Some programs are directly offered by the schoolteachers, while others are implemented under the supervision or control of other school staff. In the latter case, schools hire or collaborate with extended education professionals to provide the various educational and developmental programs. One example is the afterschool program coordinator in Korea and Japan (Bae & Kanefuji, 2018). However, the important thing is that schools are not obliged to conduct these activities as part of either their legal mandate or ethical duties. Second, another meaning of “school based” is that whoever runs the programs, they are offered “in the school site.” School-based programs in this sense are preferred by parents and students because schools have long been considered as a safe place protected from educationally harmful factors. One example is the school-based afterschool programs in South Korea (Bae, 2013). It is reported that more than 70 % of all Korean students participate in one or more afterschool programs as of 2016. Due to the safety and assurance of educational quality, school-based extended education programs are widely advocated by educators, policy makers, and parents.

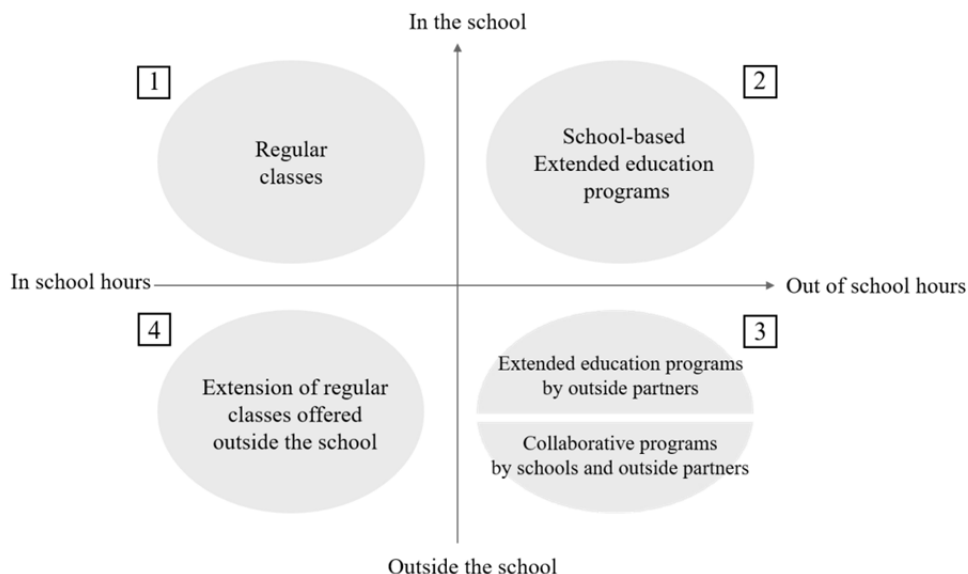


Figure 1. Scope and field of extended education

The educational arrangements in area 3 are the primary focus of extended education research. Extended education programs and activities in this area are provided and organized outside the school and outside school time. Some programs are run solely by non-school vendors such as the community-based institutions and for-profit private institutions, while others are implemented by the collaboration between the schools and external partners. The key features of extended education programs in this area include variety, flexibility, and sensitivity to the needs of customers – i.e., students and possibly residents. Compared to regular curricular activities, one distinct characteristic of extended education in this area is the governance system that is ruled by the “competition and choice paradigm,” which is the major institutional feature of the “market.” In this sense, it may be argued that extended education is located at the crossroad between the public education and the market systems. Meanwhile, it should be also noted that extended education ultimately pursues the learning and development of children and the youth. Accordingly, it can be justified as one of the legitimate education systems in the society. In this context, the quality and equality issues become significant and major topics of extended education research, as in the general education research setting.

Finally, another important educational activity in area 3 is private supplementary tutoring. From the sociological viewpoint, a major driving force of this activity is the desire of families for upward social mobility and reproduction, for which education is viewed as a powerful mechanism. As mentioned earlier (Bray, 2013; Bray & Lykins, 2012; Mori & Baker, 2010), it has become normative and taken for granted across many countries, particularly in East Asia.

To have a better understanding of the field of extended education research, time and place are employed as the criteria in this paper. However, it should be noted that the two

factors are not the only ones to determine the scope and values of extended education research and practices. For instance, who the providers are, what contents they deal with, and how innovative they are in terms of teaching and learning are also important in determining the institutional aspect and values of extended education programs and activities.

A typology

Extended education in each country has been developed with its unique name. Despite the great deal of common features as an alternative educational arrangement, each program has been shaped per different social needs, historical background, and educational approach. For the sake of research, classification of extended education programs and activities may be possible using diverse criteria.

In this paper, extended education in each country is categorized into three types based on their major concerns and conceptions about the purpose of the programs: a) child development-focused conception, b) role of the school-focused conception, and finally c) family reproduction-focused conception. Figure 2 shows an ecology of extended education with three different focuses and cases based on their initial goals and approaches. As shown in Figure 2, one program or activity may not belong to only one category but could have multiple pursuits and purposes (e.g., afterschool program, extended schools). Given the varied nature of programs and activities, finding suitable criteria and standards for typology may be a good topic for future research.

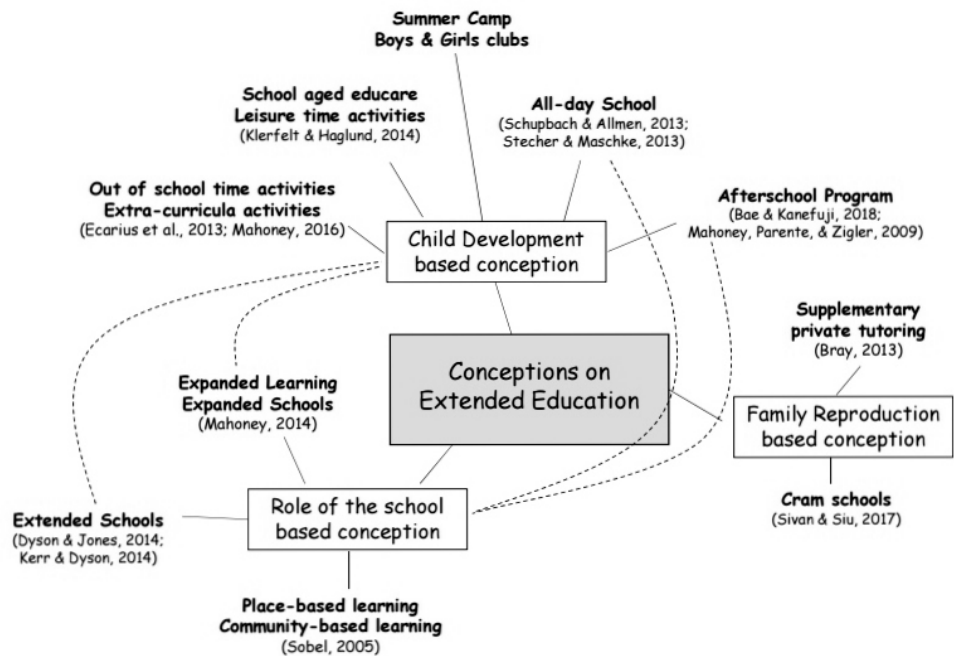


Figure 2. Typology of extended education

Conclusion

Extended education flourishes all over the world. Within different cultures and sociopolitical backgrounds, it takes different terms, forms, and developments in each country and region. Accordingly, it has been developed with different concepts within each nation. Without identifying the common features and concepts of extended education, we may not expect further developments in extended education research; in addition, it would be hard to argue for extended education to be considered as a field of educational research, and the extended education research community would be jeopardized.

The concept is by nature abstract. Therefore, it is expressed by words – i.e., terms. Given that extended education has evolved interacting with the social, political, and educational environment, the terms used to describe extended education in various countries manifest their own heritage and historicity. In this sense, it is essential to understand the meaning and connotations of the terms that reflect the social and educational background of the society where extended education has developed. Meanwhile, because each society has encountered different and unique social and educational issues and problems, the origin of extended education differs across nations. From this point of view, this paper suggested four conceptual models to explain the different nature of extended education development within each nation. This attempt contributes to the development of extended education research; this is because a better understanding of the origin of extended education helps us learn why researchers have developed different interests, views, and research topics in this area and the kinds of theories we may employ to conduct research in extended education. Finally, this research suggested the key concepts of extended education that help distinguish this field from the mainstream formal and regular education system. The findings of this research on the key concepts and development models will contribute to establishing extended education research as a legitimate academic discipline.

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Expanded learning: A thought piece about terminology, typology, and transformation

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Abstract: What is it about afterschool that gives it so much potential to powerfully influence educational best practices around the world? This paper will explore what truly defines “afterschool” beyond the time- and location-based pedagogy of the term and will make the case for the use of “expanded learning” or “expanded opportunities” as the terms that most clearly describe this critical time of youth learning and development. This paper will explore the cultural and bureaucratic differences countries have that influence how young people spend their time and what those differences say about a country’s views on child development and its aspirations for its youth. Beyond an exploration of cultural differences, this paper will also discuss the trends that are influencing our international efforts to shift the view of expanded learning programs beyond a safe place to keep children occupied while their parents work, toward a fundamental space for child development and educational innovation.

Keywords: Expanded learning, afterschool, youth development, social-emotional skills

An international need for afterschool programs

There is a universal increase in demand for safe, supportive, educational experiences for youth outside formal education. Changes in the global workforce, growing gaps in financial inequality, and concerns about financial stability in old age have led more people into the workforce than ever before. For example, the rate of women’s participation in the labor force in East Asia has steadily risen since the 1980s (Kim, 2017), with Japan seeing a sharp rise in dual income households and a labor force that increased by 3 million people since 2012 (Miura & Higashi, 2017). The rise in dual income households with parents who work full time led to a rise in children who require additional supervision and enrichment while their parents are at work. Countries in Scandinavia, acknowledging the shift toward dual income households that began in the 1970s, have developed a dual-earner career model to facilitate participation in the labor force by both men and women with children (Ferrarini & Duvander, 2010; Rostgaard, 2014). Additionally, there are growing concerns in many societies about the income and cultural capital gap among their population and the need for added support and opportunities for those who are left behind. There is also the recognition

that schools alone cannot fulfill all the essential learning needs of children and youth, and that other socializing spaces have to be strengthened at a time when religion and busy home lives and the reduced influence of the extended family are all taking a toll on moral, ethical, and whole child development.

Research has found that programs which run outside of traditional educational settings¹ have the potential to provide more than a safe place for children to be while their parents are at work. There is a growing body of evidence to support the idea that these programs can foster youth development, including positive feelings and self-esteem, attitudes, and social behaviors (Durlak & Weissberg, 2007). This type of program plays an important role in youth development and impacts can extend to improvements in school performance (Lauer et al., 2006). For example, a meta-analysis of afterschool programs² in the United States showed that participants in programs that addressed personal and social skills demonstrated significant increases in their self-perceptions and bonding to school, positive social behaviors, school grades and levels of academic achievement, and a significant reduction in problem behaviors (Durlak, Weissberg, & Pachan, 2010). This is not a surprising finding, due to the relationship-centric nature of many afterschool programs where adults mentor youth on a range of topics from study tips to social-emotional coping skills in the face of adversity.

Another strength of afterschool is its ability to foster strong peer relationships by focusing many of its projects around teamwork and collaboration. These programs are often offered to youth from a variety of age groups, which allows students at different stages of development to benefit by learning from each other. Finally, afterschool programs' flexible structure allows youth to choose the topics they want to pursue based on their interests, share their opinions, and influence the direction of their learning experiences. Because these programs allow for so much innovation, they can drive education opportunities forward and serve as pilot sites for advancements that can then be brought into the classroom. With so much potential for powerfully influencing educational best practices, it is important to better understand the diverse approaches taken across the world regarding how these programs are designed to meet the needs of the youth they serve, and to identify the commonalities that unite these programs and can drive innovation and improvement for all.

International approaches to expanded learning: A typology

Despite a common need for enriching experiences for youth outside the classroom, there are broader cultural influences that inform how different countries approach this afterschool time. Our research has found three different types of afterschool programs: (1) academic cram schools; (2) free play; and (3) a hybrid approach that focuses on both academic and exploration-based, social-emotional opportunities. These three different approaches are influenced by cultural values and market demand, as determined by the priorities and expect-

1 For the purposes of this paper, traditional educational settings are defined as classroom-based instruction provided by trained teachers.

2 For the purposes of this introduction, we will refer to these programs as "afterschool" due to the term's popularity in the United States.

tations of parents, and are often supported through government policy (Ferrarini & Duvander, 2010; Yano Research Institute, 2017). In this next section, we will briefly explore all three approaches and how they can inform and enrich our understanding of after-school.

Academic cramming

“Cram schools,”³ popular in countries across Asia like Japan, Taiwan, and Korea, are programs that focus primarily on academic achievement as a way to extend and reinforce the learning happening during the school day. There are several cultural factors that explain why a rigorous academic approach to extended learning is highly valued and socially important to these societies. Many of the countries that support cram schools have similar social factors that help make this approach so popular, including small nuclear families where more financial resources can be spent on a child, parents with busy work schedules who are looking for structured activities for their children outside of school time, a school culture that focuses on examinations as proof of student learning, and a society-wide importance placed on math and English education (Kwok, 2004). Research has found that students who attend these “cram” afterschool programs define learning as “memorizing and internalizing school knowledge,” and that they reported that they were mainly motivated by external rewards like high test scores (Harnisch, 1994; Maksić & Iwasaki, 2009; Tsai & Kuo, 2008). Two cultural beliefs helped popularize the cramming approach to afterschool education: 1) Students’ success on test results leads to upward social mobility, and 2) Discipline and dedication are two of the greatest personal values, as influenced by Confucian traditions (Bray, 1999; Kwok, 2004).

Free play

On the other side of the spectrum are programs in countries like Finland and Sweden where afterschool is seen as a protected space that emulates features of home and the natural peer world of children (Kane, 2015; Ljusberg, 2017). In these programs, children are often able to direct their own leisure time activities with supervising adults present (Haglund, 2015). This approach is taken as not just fun for the sake of fun, but because play-based learning is seen as an important way to build important life skills beyond academic achievement (Kane, 2015; Klerfelt & Haglund, 2014).

The hybrid approach

In the United States, afterschool programs often employ a hybrid approach with the goal of creating a safe place for kids in a world that is perceived to be—and in some contexts is—objectively dangerous and requiring adult supervision. These programs have an added focus on strengthening academic support through activities such as homework and tutoring. Additionally, there is a focus on enrichment in areas such as science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) activities that are not tied to school, and can also include play, sports, and the arts. As more mothers joined the workforce during the 1960s and ‘70s and relied on

3 Known as *juku* in Japan, *buxiban* in Taiwan, and *hagwon* in Korea.

child care options outside the home, the tension between supporting academics and providing a protected care and play space was experienced in youth-serving organizations such as the Y (formerly, YMCA) and the Boys & Girls Clubs of America (BGCA). In the 1980s, the focus shifted to child protection and violence and crime prevention. During this period, afterschool was seen as a safe space protecting children from risks, violence, gangs, and drugs (Modglin et al., 1995). In the middle to late 1990s, afterschool programs were increasingly seen as a way to address educational inequities and academic contributions across race, ethnicity, and social-economic status by increasing funding to better reach and serve minority populations in the community (Noam, 2002).

In the last decade, educators in the United States have been challenged with the question of how to create intentional learning environments that go beyond extra time for homework or play. This is an important issue because almost a quarter of families in the United States currently have one or more children enrolled in an afterschool program (Afterschool Alliance, 2014). Most recently, the focus has shifted toward academic accountability. The limited funding for afterschool programs in the United States allows government and private funders to exert pressure on programs, many times by requiring that afterschool programs collect and report on quantitative data as evidence of program improvement. While these new expectations can be challenging for programs without an established data collection system, they also provide an opportunity for afterschool programs to demonstrate their impact on students over time. Data can be used both to build a case for additional funding and to support a more personalized approach to learning that can drive student satisfaction and learning outcomes.

To understand the variety of approaches to afterschool programs across cultures, we are overstating the point to accentuate the differences. Many afterschool programs in countries that focus primarily on testable academic achievement also have other, more leisure-based activities. For example, education reform in Hong Kong over the past two decades has led to a whole-child approach that provides youth in afterschool programs with more experiential learning opportunities (Sivan & Siu, 2017). Similarly, Japanese researchers looked closely at afterschool programs designed to support social-emotional development and found that these programs contributed to students' empathy and educational interest and ambition (Kanefuji, 2015). The more play and peer-centric Scandinavian approaches to leisure centers, as they're often called, can also include homework time. But as ideal types they are very different in philosophy, priority, and desired outcome and reflect each society's priorities and education system. Despite so much globalization and internationalization of academic measurement through the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) system, the ideals of and goals for child and youth development and education differ immensely across continents, regions and countries.

Underlying transformations in education that will increase the importance of expanded learning

Despite these three differing approaches to afterschool, there are several trends that are influencing a universal movement toward a more expanded view of this important time outside the classroom. These trends include a movement toward personalized learning with a deeper emphasis on student engagement, choice, and purpose; the growing understanding that social-emotional skills are crucial to future youth success, particularly within the workforce; and an increased reliance on data as a driver for educational decision-making.

Advancements in technology and theories about relationships have increased personalized learning opportunities for youth, have become popular in school settings, and have the potential to extend beyond the confines of the bounded school day (Bernstein-Yamashiro & Noam, 2013; Pane, Steiner, Baird, & Hamilton, 2015). These shifts have created fast advances in the design and deployment of afterschool programs that push against the traditional ways in which schools are organized. School as an institution has a long history and traditions are hard to change; however, this information revolution is challenging everything else in society and will not stop in front of the schoolhouse.

Another aspect of an increased momentum toward new contents and contexts of learning are the new needs of employers. What do today's students need to succeed in the workforce? In the United States, college was believed to be the final step to prepare youth to enter the workforce; however, there is a rising charge that today's college students lack resiliency, and higher education responded by creating educational environments free from challenge. This rhetorical backlash of our culture's advances in understanding the importance of student mental health focuses more on critiquing a generation of students, than understanding how we as educators can work together to increase the skills that will lead to long-term student success.

The message from research is clear: to perform well in school and life, students need more than just academic skills—they need ways to enhance social and emotional capital (Knowles-Cutler & Lewis, 2016). Call them what you will—resilience, emotional intelligence, non-cognitive abilities—these so-called “soft skills” coupled with core competencies in reading, writing, math and science together define success for our students. And while there is a great deal of buzz around social-emotional skills, there is also a great deal of confusion surrounding them (Noam & Triggs, 2018). It is critical that as educators, we narrow down this long list of skills so that we can get down to a workable number around which we can develop an agenda, train teachers and afterschool providers, and engage parents and students.

A further element of change in many countries is precise uses of data to drive decision-making. In education, this data-orientation has been elevated through the participation of many countries in the PISA rankings. This competition has led countries like Korea, Japan, and Singapore to put an intense focus on academics, with practices that include longer school days, memorization, outside tutoring for exams, and the cramming programs that define a large portion of their extended learning offerings. On the other hand, Finland continues to score top marks in academics, scoring 5th in the most recently released 2015 PISA rankings for Science, Reading, and Math, while taking a more play-centered approach to its

extended learning opportunities. This approach to student academic skills has made education ministries and school administrators across the world data-oriented. PISA has expanded its focus to begin to include 21st-century skills, and many educators are interested to learn what other elements one can measure that correspond with a wider view on after-school programs, such as critical thinking, perseverance, student engagement, empathy and more. Developing strategies of data use that are non-punitive and include elements of expanded opportunities (even measuring them) and learning are becoming an important international perspective.

These trends are cutting edge for everyone in the business of raising children: from education systems, schools, afterschool settings, to the teachers, youth workers, parents, and most importantly, the students themselves. The demands on children have changed and the world they inherit requires different, expanded learning skills. Countries that are fixated on test scores—as most are—will soon be left behind as critical thinking, complex problem-solving, non-hierarchical teamwork and creativity help drive computer and robot-assisted economies. Facts and knowledge still matter, but with the advent of most information being readily available on our phones and other devices, rote learning and fact-based memorization will soon be a thing of the past. The faster societies change their teaching and learning approach both in schools and out, the better they will prepare their students, societies, and their citizens for the fundamental changes that are upon us. Given these underlying changes toward a similar updated of education systems, it is important to tie the innovations of afterschool to these transformations taking place. For this purpose, it is worth reflecting in what is “in a word.”

An exploration of terminology

Most terminology covering the afterschool space worldwide is focused on time and space. What is clear is that big educational transformations across the world are tied to philosophy, technology, and data. Given these shifting priorities and influences, it is important to find a term that describes not only a new time and space where these programs can take place, but also acknowledges the modern needs of families and the global workforce. This term should highlight the *opportunities* children need, not just the outcomes we want to see from these programs. It should describe how we support not only student achievement, but a true equity of opportunity for youth, particularly those whose families do not have the funds for private tutoring or expensive sports or travel camps outside of school time. These terms must share an expanded vision of what this education is for and what opportunities are truly available to youth.

Educators have struggled over the past few decades to find an encompassing term to describe and define programs that provide care, learning, and development opportunities for children and youth outside of the classroom. There are many names for this “extra” time and space, and the names a society chooses reveal a great deal on the values and expectations they place on these type of programs. In East Asian cultures that favor “cram schools,” the names chosen for this program focus on the school connection, as well as highlighting the additional expense of these private, for-profit enterprises. For example, in

Japan these programs are known as *juku* (cram school), *buxiban* in Taiwan (tuition class), and *hagwon* in Korea (for-profit private institute). In Scandinavia, the terms for these programs emphasize leisure, freedom, and a home-like environment that belies the cultures approach to this time outside the classroom. For example, in Norway there are *Skolefritidsordning* or *SFO*, which translates to “school free time/leisure scheme.” In Denmark and Sweden, they also have youth clubs called *Fritidshjem* and *Fritidshem* respectively that both translate to “leisure centers,” or literally, “free time home.” In Finland there are *Asukaspuistot* (resident parks), which are open playgrounds for school children to play in the morning and afternoon. Staff work with the children to participate in activities outdoors or indoors. In Germany and Switzerland, the popular terminology is “full-time, or all-day school” (*Ganztagsschule*). In the United States, one of the most common terms to describe this organizational time and setting is *after-school*. The problem with this term is that it is linguistically limiting the definition of these programs by time (“after”) and place (“school”). This is important because a limited definition can lead to a limited vision that prevents important innovation. Many of the popular terms (e.g., *after-school* and *out-of-school time*) define themselves in relation to school, while implying this time is not school. The term *after-school*, although popular in the United States, adds the additional limitations of excluding programs that meet before school, during the summer, or during other school breaks. *Out-of-school time* also holds popularity in the United States for this reason, but still centers around the concept of the program being held “outside” of school (at least it can be misinterpreted as such), when often these programs are held within school building as a way to share limited educational resources.

Because of these limitations, new terms have emerged to address this evolution of non-school programs, including *extended* and *expanded learning*. These terms sidestep the location-based limitations of *after-school* and *out-of-school time* and introduce the word “learning” or “education” as the unifying concept, rather than schooling. *Expanded learning* is the broadest term of the two, because “extend” implies prolonging the existing, in-school learning opportunities, whereas “expand” implies a more flexible, broad approach that pushes the boundaries of these programs both in time and opportunities. But the difference is not great, and it is possible to use them almost interchangeably.

No term will ever satisfy everyone, but in our experience, youth development leaders and staff are no less committed to an expansive view of their work, no matter what we decide to call it. But naming is important, and the field would benefit by coming together and embracing the term *expanded learning*. This term approximates what this multi-national movement is beginning to embrace, i.e., that the innovation and the societal need is not only about extending time but also supporting a whole child in purposeful, playful, contextual, and deep exploration and learning. But we are far from a consensus both intra- and internationally, and we have to build out the term *expanded learning* or *expanded education* to not alienate communities and countries and to embrace ideas and ideals that are child-centered and holistic.

To achieve this balance, we define *expanded learning* or *expanded education* as an experience that provides opportunities for children and youth to increase their motivation, passion, and engagement in understanding the world. These programs should help youth gain added skills or deepen the ones they learn at school, at home, and in their peer group.

If these programs were designed to only repeat and reinforce school learning, we would call them *extended schooling*, not expanded learning. *Expanded learning/education*, as we define it, takes place in settings that involve adults who can serve as facilitators, tutors, and mentors and can be run in schools, in community centers, or in sports clubs, arts organizations, businesses, and in nature.

Conclusion

The expanded education space is an ideal innovation for new ideas that, once established, will provide the inspiration schools need to harness the power of this recent wave of technology-based reform. When looking to the future, we must acknowledge that the opportunities available to today's youth are shifting more toward STEM, particularly in the workforce. As advances in technology automate our workflows, more and more jobs will be available for youth who develop complex problem-solving skills necessary for success in STEM fields. At the same time, the workplace of the future will become less hierarchical and less centered on individual accomplishments. Internationally, this will play out in a variety of ways, because the cultures of different countries play a big role. It is clear that people will have to innovate in groups and have a more scientific approach to cope with disappointments and failures. The sooner we can help kids embrace those ideas, the better. Expanded learning is more than capable of meeting our societal needs, often more than today's schools. Now that we have a clear sense of the trends influencing education, the field can support common measurement and best practices as we learn from the wide diversity of experience across the globe. We must fight for innovation and a more child-centered educational practice in all spheres of a child's life, which makes education both extended and expanded. Just as our ideas of education are expanding, so are the opportunities for learning and the environments where these programs take place. As programs around the world incorporate the concepts and practices of expanded learning, young people will be more prepared for the new world than ever before.

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Student achievement and educational inequality in half- and all-day schools: Evidence from Germany

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Abstract: Several countries have expanded extended education in recent years. In Germany, the most substantial educational reform is the ongoing transformation of the traditional half-day school system into an all-day school system. Among politicians, expectations are high that all-day schools will promote student achievement and reduce social achievement inequalities. To test these assumptions, we used representative data from the National Educational Panel Study (NEPS) to estimate two-level latent growth models for achievement in grades 5, 7, and 9. The analyses revealed initial achievement differences but no differences in achievement growth or changes in inequality throughout secondary school. This suggests that selection mechanisms are at work but that half- and all-day schools are not differentially effective. We discuss these findings in light of the international debate on the quality of extended education.

Keywords: extended education, all-day school, mathematics achievement, reading achievement, educational inequality

Introduction and Research Question

Learning takes place in various contexts, which can be depicted on a continuum from informal to formal settings. Informal learning is not organized and takes place unintentionally and continuously in everyday life. By contrast, formal learning takes place in organized, highly structured contexts that are designated for learning (e.g., regular school lessons). Between these two poles lies non-formal learning (Werquin, 2010). Extended education—like private tutoring or extra-curricular activities at schools—is a group of non-formal contexts that is intended to promote learning and is pedagogically structured but less formalized than regular classes (see Stecher & Maschke, 2013). Especially school-based, non-formal extended education is increasingly politically relevant in many countries because it is (a) expected to improve student learning outcomes and (b) more open to external influence than,

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for instance, private tutoring (see Kuger, 2016; Plantenga & Remery, 2013; Vest, Mahoney, & Simpkins, 2013).

In Germany, the largest education policy reform of the past decades concerns school-based extended education. In the 20th century, the school day in most schools consisted of morning classes but no afternoon program.¹ Between 2003 and 2009, a federal investment program of more than four billion euros (BMBF, 2003) prompted a large increase in the proportion of all-day schools from 16% in 2002 to 68% in 2016 (KMK, 2008, 2018). The program supported the founding of new all-day schools and the infrastructural development of existing ones. One aim behind the massive expansion of all-day schools was that the extended supervision of children would facilitate maternal employment (e.g., Fischer, Theis, & Züchner, 2014; Plantenga & Remery, 2013). However, politicians also expected the schools to increase opportunities to support learning and reduce educational gaps between social groups (e.g., BMBF, 2003; Fischer et al., 2014). The definition of all-day schools adopted by the investment program was: (a) All-day schools provide lunch and at least a seven-hour program on at least three days per week. (b) This program is supervised by (and conducted in close cooperation with) the school administration, which is also accountable for the program. (c) It is conceptually connected to the regular classes (KMK, 2008). Expectations were high that all-day schooling improves learning outcomes because all-day schools provide additional time and personnel resources that can be used to enhance schooling, for example, by providing more individual support and diverse learning activities (BMBF, 2003). Learning benefits were especially expected for socially disadvantaged students who have less stimulating environments in the afternoon at home and for children whose families do not speak German at home. Therefore, all-day schooling was expected to contribute to a reduction of social achievement gaps (e.g., BMBF, 2003; Steiner, 2009; Züchner & Fischer, 2014).

Based on the aforementioned all-day school definition, it is reasonable to expect that all-day schooling would extend formal learning opportunities. In fact, however, at all-day schools the regular morning classes are typically supplemented by non-formal components in the afternoon, not by additional formal instruction. Although the definition requires that the all-day program and regular classes are conceptually related, research indicates that this does not hold at about half of all-day schools (StEG, 2015). Generally, the definition gives schools considerable room for interpretation: It does not define qualitative characteristics such as the pedagogical content or the qualifications of the supervising staff. The schools decide whether participation in afternoon activities is nonmandatory, partially mandatory (e.g., for students in certain grades), or fully mandatory for all students. As a result, the organization of all-day schools varies within and between states, primary and secondary schools, and school types/academic tracks (KMK, 2015; StEG, 2015). In addition, all-day programs are often not supervised by teachers but by differently and often less qualified staff. Programs designed to promote student learning are much less common than those promoting leisure and sports activities (StEG, 2013, 2016). Moreover, the student enroll-

1 In the 1970s, some initiatives started to establish "Gesamtschulen" in Germany. "Gesamtschulen" were a new school type that intended to overcome the traditional ability grouping in different school types and combine ability tracks within schools. Furthermore, they were organized as all-day schools. However, the share of those schools was small and they were limited to few federal states.

ment rates are often low, even at schools with a broad all-day program, which sets limitations to the potential benefit of all-day over half-day schools. However, students with working parents, low socioeconomic status, or an immigrant background are especially likely to make use of all-day schooling, even though many schools charge fees for lunch and/or attending programs (StEG, 2016; Steiner, 2011). The observation that all-day programs seem to be able to reach disadvantaged groups reinforces the idea that all all-day schools may decrease social inequalities in achievement (cf. also Steiner, 2009; Steinmann, 2018; Züchner & Fischer, 2014).

The heterogeneous characteristics and implications of all-day schooling are especially relevant in light of models on the effectiveness of extended education, which highlight the importance of *how* extended time resources are used. Such models suggest that both program characteristics and student participation mediate effects on student outcomes. Among other things, the assumed quality prerequisites for effective extended education include the types of activities and their level of structure (e.g., curriculum, alignment with learning) as well as personnel resources (e.g., small staff-to-child ratios, high staff qualifications) and students' frequent and intensive participation (cf. Fischer & Klieme, 2013; Miller & Truong, 2009). The models suggest that extended education programs that are closer to the formal pole of the informal-formal learning continuum are more successful in promoting student learning. Therefore, one empirical question is whether non-formal learning provided in addition to regular schooling at all-day schools actually improves the learning outcomes of (groups of) students. In the present study, we investigated whether all-day schools are more successful in promoting student achievement and reducing educational inequality between social groups than traditional half-day schools.

Review of Literature

Despite the substantial recent investment in all-day schooling in Germany, few studies have evaluated its effects on achievement and inequality. Studies with robust research designs are particularly rare. One group of longitudinal studies compared students who participated in non-formal all-day programs with students who did not attend all-day programs. None of these studies found effects on student achievement after controlling for prior achievement and further background characteristics (Bellin & Tamke, 2010; Fischer, Sauerwein, Theis, & Wolgast, 2016; Linberg, Struck, & Bäumer, 2018; Lossen, Tillmann, Holtappels, Rollett, & Hannemann, 2016; Steinmann, Strietholt, & Caro, 2018). Bellin and Tamke (2010) further investigated if students with a migration background profit more from the all-day participation than native peers but found no support for this assumption. However, there are general issues with studies at the student level, resulting from possible spillover effects within schools that are related to remedial education measures (e.g., nonparticipating students may receive more attention during regular classes).

Studies that investigated all-day schooling as a school-level measure circumvent some issues related to selection mechanisms and spillover effects that operate at the individual level within schools. Only three studies used proxies or test measures of prior achievement as controls to compare performance at half- and all-day schools or at schools with and

without afternoon programs offering homework supervision and remedial courses. Again, none of these studies revealed student achievement effects (Linberg et al., 2018; Steinmann & Strietholt, in print; Strietholt, Manitius, Berkemeyer, & Bos, 2015). Two of the three studies investigated effects on educational inequality and found null results (Steinmann & Strietholt, in print; Strietholt et al., 2015). They examined for example inequalities in achievement scores between students with a high and a low social status or between students with and without German as first language. However, the longest investigated time span was two years. Furthermore, all these studies failed to take into account the ongoing changes from half- to all-day schools because they only determined the schools' organization form at one time point. This lack of precision likely led to biased effect estimates.

In order to contextualize the findings for Germany, we briefly summarize findings on the circumstances under which non-formal extended education programs are found to foster learning. In the US, extended education programs (e.g., afterschool programs, summer schools) have been studied extensively in experimental and quasi-experimental studies. Meta-analyses and literature reviews of this research suggest that some programs had no effects while others showed positive effects on student achievement. In contrast, positive effects were observed for programs with the following characteristics: They were designed to promote specific competences, they were closely linked to the regular curriculum, or they employed evidence-based educational approaches (Apsler, 2009; Cooper, Charlton, Valentine, Muhlenbruck, & Borman, 2000; Durlak, Weissberg, & Pachan, 2010; Lauer et al., 2006). Programs targeting at-risk students showed particularly positive effects (Durlak et al., 2010; Patall, Cooper, & Allen, 2010). Effective programs also employed highly qualified staff (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Lauer et al., 2006). However, programs that did not meet these quality characteristics showed smaller and often no effects on student outcomes (Apsler, 2009; Durlak et al., 2010; Roth, Malone, & Brooks-Gunn, 2010). In summary, programs that were located at the formal rather than the informal end of the learning continuum—i.e., that were more comparable to regular schooling—showed the most promising results. Additionally, some studies indicated that disadvantaged groups like students with a low socioeconomic status profit more from extended education, which implies that all-day schools reduce social achievement gaps (Lauer et al., 2006; Patall et al., 2010).

Hypotheses

The present study aimed to compare achievement levels and social inequalities in achievement in half- and all-day schools in Germany. Specifically, we investigated three research questions: Did the school's organization form have an impact on (a) reading and mathematics achievement, (b) achievement inequality regarding social status, and (c) achievement gaps between students who did and did not learn German as a first language? The political sphere expects all-day schooling to boost achievement levels and reduce educational inequality in achievement, while the scientific debate and previous findings cast doubt on these optimistic expectations. We used representative longitudinal large-scale data with test information for grades 5, 7, and 9 to investigate the three research questions.

Methods

Data

This paper used data from the National Educational Panel Study (NEPS; Blossfeld, Roßbach, & von Maurice, 2011).² NEPS collected longitudinal data on achievement, educational processes, and educational organizations, as well as on returns to education for different age cohorts. In the present study, we focused on a sample of secondary school students who were first tested and surveyed in grade 5 (Frahm et al., 2011; Strietholt et al., 2013). We limited our analyses to the $N=3444$ fifth graders who remained in the survey, i.e. they stayed at the same 164 schools until grade 9. Further, we excluded 20 schools whose principals' did not specify their schools' organization form at any measurement point (for more information, see section 4.2.5). In total, we investigated a sample of $N=3024$ students at 144 regular schools in 15 federal states³ who were followed from grade 5 (school year 2010/11) until grade 9 (school year 2014/15). They were on average 10.9 years old in grade 5 and 49% were female.

Variables

Student Achievement

Mathematics and reading achievement scores are available for grades 5, 7, and 9. The achievement scales are comparable over time because the paper-pencil-based tests were linked by the anchor-item design they employ (Fischer, Rohm, Gnams, & Carstensen, 2016). We used longitudinally linked weighted maximum likelihood estimates.⁴ Table 1 shows roughly linear achievement increases between the measurement points. The overall increases between grades 5–9 corresponded to a bit more than one standard deviation. While there was some variance across measurement points in the reliability of the tests, the EAP/PV reliability was constantly high, ranging between .76 and .81 (Duchhardt & Gerdes, 2012; Krannich et al., 2017; Pohl, Haberkorn, Hardt, & Wiegand, 2012; Scharl, Fischer, Gnams, & Rohm, 2017; Schnittjer & Gerken, 2017).⁵

2 NEPS drew a representative random sample of fifth graders in the school year 2010/11 (*Starting Cohort 3*, doi:10.5157/NEPS:SC3:7.0.1). From 2008 to 2013, NEPS data was collected as part of the Framework Program for the Promotion of Empirical Educational Research funded by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF). As of 2014, NEPS is carried out by the Leibniz Institute for Educational Trajectories (LfBi) at the University of Bamberg in cooperation with a nationwide network.

3 Berlin was excluded, because no school entirely covered grades 5–9. This is because the transition from primary to secondary schools in Berlin typically takes place between grades 6 and 7.

4 We rescaled all achievement scores by multiplying the original by 100 to improve the readability of the estimates in the main analyses.

5 Reliability information on the mathematics test in grade 9 has not yet been published.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for student and school characteristics

	All schools	Divided by school organization form		
		Half-day school	All-day school	Changed status
<i>Student characteristics</i>	<i>N=3024</i>	<i>N=731</i>	<i>N=1326</i>	<i>N=967</i>
Student achievement				
Mathematics grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	-1.67 (113.40)	-35.12 (120.51)	14.87 (110.92)	6.50 (104.94)
Mathematics grade 7 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	74.83 (122.68)	37.35 (129.96)	92.81 (118.08)	84.53 (115.48)
Mathematics grade 9 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	151.27 (116.96)	114.26 (118.47)	166.25 (117.66)	163.67 (108.84)
Reading grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.19 (122.64)	-31.94 (126.29)	12.63 (121.10)	11.54 (117.01)
Reading grade 7 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	70.44 (132.19)	39.40 (132.08)	77.84 (136.33)	86.07 (123.92)
Reading grade 9 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	125.25 (107.92)	98.64 (107.20)	136.65 (110.62)	133.53 (102.17)
Student background				
Parental education grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	2.68 (1.13)	2.47 (1.11)	2.77 (1.10)	2.69 (1.16)
Language of origin German grade 5	88.0%	78.9%	91.3%	90.4%
<i>School characteristics</i>	<i>N=144</i>	<i>N=43</i>	<i>N=56</i>	<i>N=45</i>
School type				
Hauptschule/Volksschule	27.8%	43.4%	17.7%	21.2%
School with several courses of education	13.8%	12.6%	12.0%	16.3%
Realschule	17.3%	16.6%	13.6%	20.9%
Gesamtschule	8.5%	7.6%	11.7%	6.9%
Gymnasium	32.6%	19.8%	45.0%	34.6%
School composition				
Social composition grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	2.60 (0.54)	2.35 (0.49)	2.77 (0.54)	2.71 (0.49)
Language composition grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.85 (0.21)	0.76 (0.25)	0.92 (0.12)	0.87 (0.19)

Note. The descriptive analyses were based on imputed data of *N*=3024 students at 144 schools; “w_t_cal” was used as a sampling weight. Unstandardized social and language composition variables were used.

Parental Education and Language of Origin

We investigated two facets of student background, which were both assessed in computer-assisted telephone interviews with parents in grade 5 (see Table 1). We operationalized social background as parental education level in line with the International Standard Classification of Education. Information on parents’ highest general educational qualification were categorized from 0 (“level 0/1A: Inadequately completed general education”) to 5 (“level 6: Doctoral degree and postdoctoral lecture qualification”). We treated this variable as continuous. We operationalized immigrant background by the student’s language of origin. Answers to the question regarding the language students learned in the first three years in the family were dichotomized to 0 (“other than German”) and 1 (“German”).

School Organization: Half- and All-Day Schools

The main explanatory variable was school organization form. In questionnaires in grades 5, 7, and 9, principals were asked whether their school was a half- or all-day school. In the questionnaires, all-day schools were further categorized into nonmandatory, partially mandatory, and fully mandatory all-day schools. The sample sizes were, however, too small to estimate the effects of schools that remained fully mandatory over time, for example. For this reason, we subsume them as all-day schools. Due to the massive investment in all-day schooling, several schools converted from half- to all-day schools in the period of investigation, while some also changed from all- to half-day schools (see also KMK, 2018; Steiner, 2011). For a clearer interpretation of our main explanatory variable, we categorized such schools as a separate group in our analyses. The sample covered 43 half-day schools, 56 all-day schools, and 45 schools with a mixed status over time. The organization form was analyzed as two dummy variables, with half-day schools as the reference category. Table 1 depicts the characteristics of these groups and shows that half-day school students constituted a less privileged group than those attending all-day schools.

Covariates

Germany has a stratified secondary school system with different ability tracks. The school types corresponding to those tracks were part of the explicit strata in the NEPS sampling design and were used as covariates in the form of four dummy variables (“school with several courses of education”, “Realschule”, “Gesamtschule”, and “Gymnasium”, with “Hauptschule/Volksschule” as reference). To control for differences in student composition, we aggregated the student background information on parental education (social composition) and the language of origin (language composition) at school level. Both variables were treated as continuous variables in the analyses (see Table 1).

Missing Value Imputation

The dataset used in this analysis contained missing data (see Appendices A1 and A2). Twenty schools whose principals did not respond to the organization form question at any of the three measurement points were excluded from the analyses because we regarded the variable base as too poor for sound imputation. Apart from this, we imputed missing values five times by using two-level predictive mean matching, which is a simple extension of ordinary multiple imputation technique for non-clustered data (van Buuren & Groothuis-Oudshoorn, 2011). In order to replicate the data structure, we included the sampling weight as an imputation predictor as well as a rich set of further variables (see Appendix A2): all aforementioned variables, complementary variables, their repetitions in other waves, and counterparts in other instruments. The Appendix A2 also depicts which variables lied on school and student levels in the two-level imputation. We reran all analyses for the five imputed datasets and combined the estimates using Rubin’s rules (1987).

Analyses

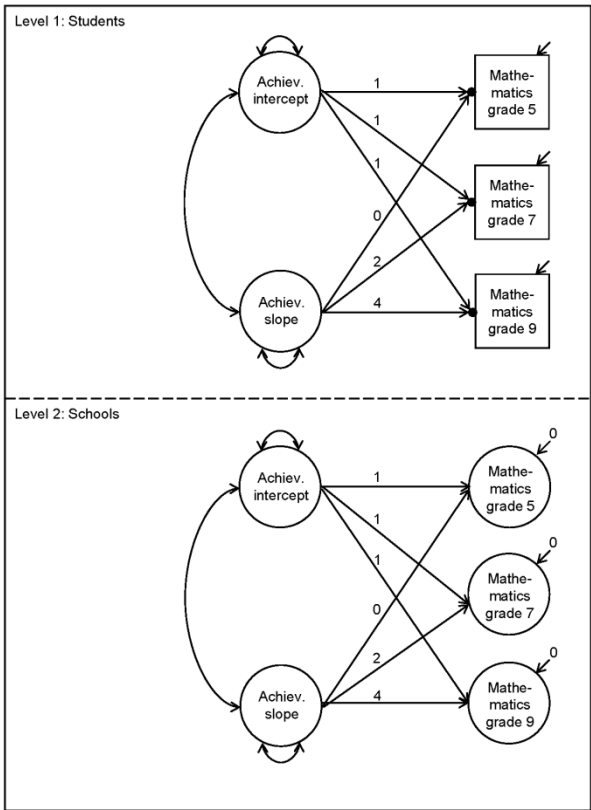
To explain our general analytical approach, we will describe how we modeled achievement growth and changes in inequality in achievement before outlining how we tested for differ-

ences between half- and all-day schools. All analyses were replicated for mathematics and reading in separate models.

Modeling Effects on Student Achievement

Two-level linear latent growth modeling was used to investigate achievement growth. At the student level, achievement scores in grades 5, 7, and 9 were used to model an achievement intercept for achievement in grade 5 and an achievement slope for the annual growth in achievement (see Figure 1). As in the student-level models, for the school-level models the schools’ achievement scores in grades 5, 7, and 9 were used to model an achievement intercept and slope. The school level achievement intercept reflects that schools could vary in their initial achievement in grade 5 and the achievement slope indicates that the schools could differ in their growth rates.

Figure 1. Measurement model for latent growth in mathematics achievement



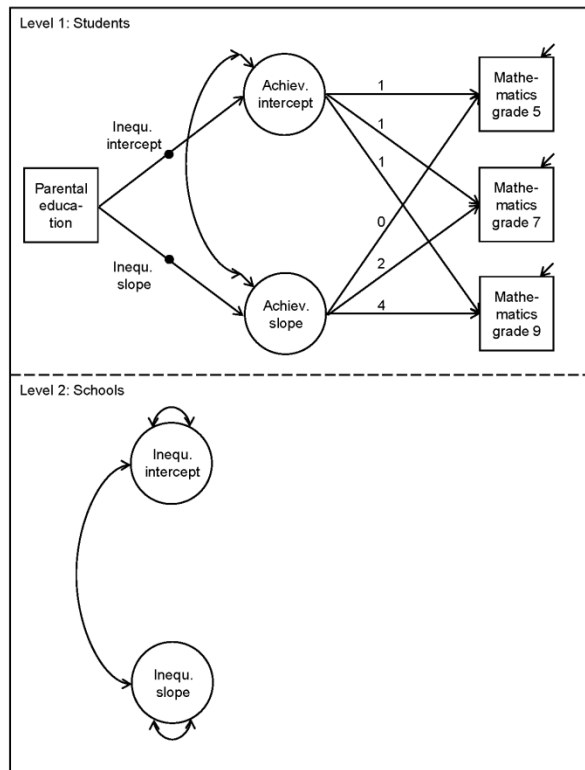
Note. The two-level latent growth model shown in this figure was estimated; the dots in the individual-level graph represent random intercepts; the random intercepts are shown in circles in the school-level graph because they are continuous latent variables that vary across schools; school-level residuals are constrained to zero to avoid negative variance. The school-level achievement intercept and slope serve as dependent variables in further analyses.

To answer the first research question on the effects of organization form on student achievement, we regressed both school achievement intercept and slope on the dummies for the organization form. The key parameter of interests is the achievement slope, because we were primarily interested in effects on learning progress. The main advantage of using longitudinal modeling is that it reduced the risk of confounding variables biasing the effect estimation of interest. Even with longitudinal data, confounding variables may bias the analyses. To further minimize the risk of confounding variables, we also controlled for school type and composition.

Modeling Effects on Inequality Regarding Parental Education

To model social inequalities within schools, we extended the previous student level model by regressing the achievement intercept and slope on parental education (see Figure 2). We call the within-school association between the achievement intercept and parental education the inequality intercept, and the within-school association between the achievement slope and parental education the inequality slope. The inequality intercept and slope were modeled as random parameters.

Figure 2. Measurement model for latent growth in social inequality in mathematics achievement



Note. The two-level latent growth model shown in this figure was estimated; the dots in the individual-level graph represent random parameters that vary across schools; the inequality intercept represents the achievement gap be-

tween students from more and less educated parents in grade 5 and it varies across schools; the inequality slope is the gap in achievement growth between students from highly and little educated parents and it varies across schools. The school-level achievement intercept and slope serve as dependent variables in further analyses.

To answer the second research question on the impact of half- versus all-day schools on educational inequality, we regressed the school level inequality intercept and inequality slope on the school organization dummy variables. The first parameter reflects differences between half- and all-day schools in the initial degree of social inequality in achievement in grade 5. The second parameter is the estimate for differences between school organization forms in terms of changes in social inequality in achievement. We were mainly interested in the second parameter. Again, we also included school controls (see previous section).

Modeling Effects on Inequality Regarding Language of Origin

In order to answer the third research question, we replaced parental education with language of origin and replicated the analyses described in the previous section. The resulting model investigated initial achievement gaps and gaps in achievement growth between students with and without German as a first language.

Results

Effects on Student Achievement

Table 2 summarizes the results of the latent growth analyses on student achievement for models with and without control variables for mathematics and reading. The column 1 shows that the mathematics achievement level in grade 5 was significantly higher in all-day schools than in half-day schools. We also observed higher performance levels in schools that changed organization form, but the difference was not significant and should not be over-interpreted because of the difficulty in interpreting the status of these mixed schools. However, the observed differences at the beginning of secondary school may be due to selection effects. The more important estimate of the effect of the organization form on achievement is the parameter of the regression of the achievement slope on the organization form (column 2). The key result is that there is no evidence of differing achievement growth rates in half- and all-day schools.

The observed large difference in the achievement intercept vanished after controlling for key school covariates (column 3). This finding confirms the presumption that differences in initial achievement levels were mainly due to differences in school intake. Importantly, however, the effects of organization form on the achievement slope did not change after controlling for key covariates (column 4).

The findings for reading replicated those for mathematics. Initially observed differences in performances levels in grade 5 were no longer significant when further school characteristics were controlled for. Furthermore, the achievement slopes were unrelated to the organization form.

Table 2. Predictors of growth in achievement at half- and all-day schools

	Mathematics				Reading			
	Model 1a		Model 1b		Model 1c		Model 1d	
	Achiev. intercept (1)	Achiev. slope (2)	Achiev. intercept (3)	Achiev. slope (4)	Achiev. intercept (5)	Achiev. slope (6)	Achiev. intercept (7)	Achiev. slope (8)
All-day school ¹	52.32* (19.58)	-0.16 (1.85)	12.81 (9.11)	-0.28 (1.88)	46.30* (20.15)	-1.76 (1.65)	6.86 (11.24)	-0.34 (1.80)
Changed status ¹	47.83 (27.86)	0.82 (1.91)	13.47 (11.34)	1.16 (2.05)	48.99 (28.80)	-2.00 (1.85)	17.22 (12.08)	-0.57 (1.97)
School with several courses of education ²	–	–	44.06* (16.26)	-2.85 (3.16)	–	–	28.55 (22.69)	1.96 (3.72)
Realschule ²	–	–	68.89* (13.19)	-5.59* (2.54)	–	–	58.16* (19.04)	-2.46 (2.95)
Gesamtschule ²	–	–	37.17 (23.93)	-0.78 (3.86)	–	–	30.13 (26.66)	3.28 (3.97)
Gymnasium ²	–	–	135.64* (25.09)	-3.15 (3.10)	–	–	109.10* (29.45)	-3.57 (4.06)
Social composition	–	–	19.83 (10.51)	0.66 (1.19)	–	–	26.73* (9.42)	-0.77 (1.40)
Language composition	–	–	7.89* (3.85)	-1.43* (0.70)	–	–	3.64 (3.59)	-0.79 (0.66)

Note. The two-level analyses were based on imputed data of $N=3024$ students at 144 schools; “w_t_cal” was used as a sampling weight; maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors; unstandardized parameters with standard errors in parentheses; * statistically significant at $p<0.05$. ¹ The reference category was “half-day school”. ² The reference category was “Hauptschule/Volksschule”. Standardized social and language composition variables were used in order to improve the interpretability of the results.

Effects on Inequality Regarding Parental Education

Table 3 summarizes the results of the analyses on social inequality in student achievement for models with and without control variables for mathematics and reading. The column 1 shows that the degree of social inequality in grade 5 was significantly higher at all-day schools than at half-day schools. However, this difference at the beginning of secondary school may be due to selection effects. The more important estimate for effects on inequality is the parameter of the regression of the inequality slope on the organization form (column 2). The key result is that there is no evidence of differing inequality growth rates in half- and all-day schools.

The observed difference in the inequality intercept was no longer significant when controlling for school covariates (column 3), which supports the assumption that initial inequality differences between schools were mainly due to differences in school intake. Importantly, the null effects of organization form on the inequality slope remained stable when controlling for school covariates (column 4).

The reading analyses produced equivalent findings. Differences between inequality levels in grade 5 for half- and all-day schools were no longer significant when school controls were included in the analyses. The inequality slopes did not significantly differ between half- and all-day schools.

Table 3. Predictors of growth in achievement inequality related to parental education at half- and all-day schools

	Mathematics				Reading			
	Model 2a		Model 2b		Model 2c		Model 2d	
	Inequ. intercept (1)	Inequ. slope (2)	Inequ. intercept (3)	Inequ. slope (4)	Inequ. intercept (5)	Inequ. slope (6)	Inequ. intercept (7)	Inequ. slope (8)
All-day school ¹	19.43* (7.61)	-1.25 (0.90)	4.39 (3.00)	-0.08 (0.82)	17.25* (7.91)	-1.58 (0.82)	2.36 (3.90)	-0.17 (0.75)
Changed status ¹	18.86 (10.30)	-1.01 (0.86)	5.06 (4.26)	0.14 (0.73)	18.41 (11.04)	-1.55 (1.01)	5.49 (4.71)	-0.41 (0.76)
School with several courses of education ²	–	–	20.92* (5.99)	-1.73 (1.28)	–	–	15.06* (5.91)	0.17 (1.15)
Realschule ²	–	–	29.79* (5.27)	-2.74* (1.20)	–	–	26.58* (4.88)	-1.39 (0.96)
Gesamtschule ²	–	–	18.23* (7.71)	-0.66 (1.66)	–	–	18.23* (7.72)	0.45 (1.29)
Gymnasium ²	–	–	48.97* (6.07)	-1.82 (1.14)	–	–	41.45* (6.54)	-1.65 (1.13)
Social composition	–	–	7.30* (2.01)	-1.49* (0.38)	–	–	9.08* (2.23)	1.48* (0.43)
Language composition	–	–	3.43* (1.54)	-0.15 (0.34)	–	–	3.45* (1.64)	-0.30 (0.29)

Note. The two-level analyses were based on imputed data of $N=3024$ students at 144 schools; “w_t_cal” was used as a sampling weight; maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors; unstandardized parameters with standard errors in parentheses; * statistically significant at $p<0.05$. ¹ The reference category was “half-day school”. ² The reference category was “Hauptschule/Volksschule”. Standardized social and language composition variables were used in order to improve the interpretability of the results.

Effects on Inequality Regarding Language of Origin

Table 4 summarizes the findings on language-related inequalities in mathematics and reading from models with and without controls. The analyses on the effects of school organization form on inequalities related to students’ language of origin were identical to the analyses on social inequalities except that parental education was replaced with language of origin. The analyses basically replicated the results for parental education (see previous section). The findings did not support the assumption that all-day schools would differ from half-day schools with respect to the relationship between achievement growth and language of origin (see Table 4). There were no significant differences in language-related inequality levels in grade 5 between half- and all-day schools, when controlling for school type and composition.

Table 4. Predictors of growth in achievement inequality related to language of origin at half- and all-day schools

	Mathematics				Reading			
	Model 3a		Model 3b		Model 3c		Model 3d	
	Inequ. intercept (1)	Inequ. slope (2)	Inequ. intercept (3)	Inequ. slope (4)	Inequ. intercept (5)	Inequ. slope (6)	Inequ. intercept (7)	Inequ. slope (8)
All-day school ¹	51.47* (19.10)	-0.33 (2.02)	11.70 (9.33)	-0.43 (1.99)	42.90* (20.70)	-1.39 (1.84)	4.22 (11.49)	-0.10 (1.92)
Changed status ¹	47.61 (27.41)	0.54 (2.03)	11.86 (11.55)	1.12 (2.07)	44.90 (28.70)	-1.32 (1.90)	11.57 (12.60)	-0.16 (2.00)
School with several courses of education ²	–	–	44.61* (15.32)	-3.21 (3.16)	–	–	30.00 (15.48)	2.08 (3.06)
Realschule ²	–	–	68.08* (12.04)	-5.09 (2.63)	–	–	58.99* (13.10)	-1.96 (2.49)
Gesamtschule ²	–	–	32.87 (19.88)	1.90 (3.62)	–	–	37.03 (21.75)	4.58 (3.44)
Gymnasium ²	–	–	132.39* (17.09)	-2.34 (2.92)	–	–	108.63* (18.89)	-1.97 (3.04)
Social composition	–	–	21.16* (5.75)	0.14 (1.07)	–	–	26.36* (5.88)	-1.34 (0.97)
Language composition	–	–	5.60 (3.90)	-0.66 (0.78)	–	–	4.26 (3.50)	-0.43 (0.74)

Note. The two-level analyses were based on imputed data of $N=3024$ students at 144 schools; “w_t_cal” was used as a sampling weight; maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors; unstandardized parameters with standard errors in parentheses; * statistically significant at $p<0.05$. ¹ The reference category was “half-day school”. ² The reference category was “Hauptschule/Volksschule”. Standardized social and language composition variables were used in order to improve the interpretability of the results.

Robustness Analyses

Student Participation Profiles

Previous research showed that student participation in all-day programs varies in many regards. For example, not all all-day school students attend programs—especially not academic programs—and if they do, they may not spend substantial amounts of time in them (e.g., StEG, 2016). It could be assumed that all-day schools with more preferable participation characteristics had achievement-increasing or inequality-decreasing effects. Therefore, using ranking and median-splitting, we divided the 56 all-day schools into two groups based upon eight participation variables (see Appendix A3). In additional analyses, we reran all models for mathematics and reading with the new dummy variables for low- and high-profile all-day schools and mixed schools, using half-day schools as reference. The results showed that high-profile all-day schools did not show higher achievement growth or lower inequality gradients than half-day schools.

Alternative Social Inequality Indicators

In the main analyses, we chose parental education and language of origin (both assessed in parent interviews) as student background indicators. In order to increase the generalizability of our findings, we reran models 2b, 2d, 3b, and 3d for mathematics and reading with alternative indicators. These indicators were books at home and countries of birth, and both were assessed in the student questionnaires in grade 5. The results were qualitatively identical to the main findings.

Federal States

Although previous research documents that the federal states conduct all-day schools differently (e.g., KMK, 2015), we did not control for this in the main analyses because the samples from some states included only few schools. In additional analyses, we extended models 1b, 1d, 2b, 2d, 3b, and 3d for mathematics and reading by adding dummy variables for federal states. The results were qualitatively the same as the main findings.

Schools with Missing Information on Organization Form

We excluded 20 schools whose principals did not provide information on the organization form in the main analyses because we only had limited information to impute the missing data (see section 4.2.5). At the same time, we acknowledge that the exclusion of schools limits the generalizability of our findings. To address this issue, we replicated all analyses for the full sample of $N=3444$ students at 164 schools with imputed missing data on the organization form based on the limited available data. Again, the results were qualitatively the same as the main findings.

Discussion

The present study investigated whether the school organization form—i.e., half- and all-day schools—affected the development of student achievement and educational inequalities. The longitudinal comparison of schools that continued to offer half-day schooling versus those that offered all-day schooling between 2010 and 2015 in two-level latent growth curve models showed no evidence supporting the assumption that organization form influenced mathematics or reading achievement growth and changes in educational inequality in the course of secondary schooling. Neither the achievement slopes nor the inequality slopes (related to social or language background) differed significantly between half- and all-day schools.

We found, however, that half- and all-day schools operated under different conditions. Simple models indicated higher initial levels of achievement and educational inequalities at all-day schools than at half-day schools. These differences were no longer significant when controlling for further school characteristics. Therefore, the differences in the achievement and inequality intercepts seemed to result from selection effects. For example, in the tracked German school system, students are allocated to different school types after primary school. This results in both performance-related and social segregation between school types (e.g., Maaz, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2008). In the investigated sample, the most selective school type “Gymnasium” was overrepresented among all-day schools.

The fact that our study did not find significant differences between half- and all-day schools in terms of achievement and inequality development is in line with previous studies (Linberg et al., 2018; Steinmann & Strietholt, in print; Strietholt et al., 2015). One possible explanation for the absence of an effect is the quality of all-day schools in Germany. The literature suggests that international extended education programs should, for example, be aligned with learning goals and supervised by teachers to be effective, i.e. they should be rather formal than non-formal learning opportunities (e.g., Durlak et al., 2010; Miller & Truong, 2009). Previous research on the quality of all-day schools suggests that this is not the case in Germany (e.g., StEG, 2013, 2015, 2016). Indeed, the programs offered by all-day schools in the present sample were on average attended for less than three hours per week. The average shares of students who attended the academic all-day programs offering homework support, remedial education, or subject-specific programs were 15% or lower.

Scope

The study extends the existing research in three important regards. Most importantly, this is the first study that compared the developments of half- and all-day schools over a period of four years. The first of the three previous robust studies used cross-sectional data (Strietholt et al., 2015), the second had a one-year longitudinal section (Steinmann & Strietholt, in print), and the third had a two-year longitudinal section (Linberg et al., 2018). A second important benefit is that the present study compared schools that remained half- or all-day schools over four years and therefore took into account the changes in organizational structure undertaken by many schools in the investigated time span. Indeed, 31% of the schools reported a mixed organization structure over time. In the previous studies, organization form was assessed only once (Linberg et al., 2018; Steinmann & Strietholt, in print; Strietholt et al., 2015). Therefore, the all-day schools might have changed their organization structure immediately before or after this single point of assessment. Such schools might not have made enough progress in the school development process of becoming all-day schools in order to be fully effective (cf. StEG, 2013, 2015). This explanation for the null effects of all-day schools is less likely in the present study. Third, the study minimizes the risk of the regression-towards-the-mean phenomenon because it uses three measurement points for student achievement.

Apart from these advantages, the scope of the present study has certain limitations. Importantly, we only investigated effects on student achievement development and social disparities in this development. Needless to say, these are not the only important outcomes of extended education. For example, all-day schooling has been found to have beneficial effects on students' psychosocial development (StEG, 2016). Additionally, our analytical sample consisted of students who did not change schools between grades 5–9, which limits the generalizability of our results. Another major issue is that we simply compared half- and all-day schools, although previous research has shown that the quality of actual extended education at all-day schools is rather low. The data we used only allowed a further investigation of mediators to a limited extent. In additional analyses, we found that all-day schools with favorable student participation characteristics did not have significantly different achievement or inequality developments than half-day schools either. It was, however, not possible to investigate the effects of all-day schools with mandatory all-day participation for all students.

Future Research

We derive some conclusions for future research from the discussed scope of the present and previous studies. Given that U.S. studies showed that high-quality extended education can increase student achievement, especially among disadvantaged students (e.g., Durlak et al., 2010; Lauer et al., 2006), more research is needed on the circumstances under which all-day schools in Germany can be effective. For example, one current project aims to develop a reading support program that can also be effectively delivered by staff without teacher training (DIPF, 2018). Generally, one reason why international findings on effective extended education programs cannot be directly transferred to all-day schools is that all-day schooling is a rather nonspecific intervention with diverse implications, as the schools are highly autonomous in how they organize their all-day program. Causal relationships between all-day schools' setups and resources, all-day program features, participation characteristics, and student outcomes should be examined in greater detail in future studies (cf. Fischer & Klieme, 2013; Steinmann, 2018; Vest et al., 2013).

From an international perspective, German all-day schooling is an interesting example of an up scaling of non-formal extended education. However, in line with previous research, our study suggests that all-day schools rather provide childcare than extended formal learning opportunities to support student achievement. The study therefore contributes to the international state of research by illustrating that the extension of time at school is not sufficient to extend formal learning opportunities. In fact, the lack of standardization and highly qualified staff for example seem to limit the effectiveness of German all-day schools. This conforms to findings on comparable afterschool programs and summer schools in the US (cf. Apsler, 2009; Durlak et al., 2010; Roth et al., 2010). From an overall perspective, these findings highlight that international comparisons need to pay particular attention to qualitative characteristics of extended education programs.

Conclusion

Our findings do not support the assumption that all-day schools make a difference for student achievement or educational inequality development in Germany. Given the discussed literature, we draw two tentative conclusions: First, all-day schools do not yet seem to be of sufficient quality to increase student achievement or to decrease social inequalities, at least not on a large scale (see StEG, 2015, 2016; Steinmann, 2018). Second, in order to attain the educational goals of higher achievement gains and lower social inequalities, policy makers may be advised to consider investing in the quality of all-day schools (cf. Fischer et al., 2014; Lossen et al., 2016; StEG, 2016).

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Appendix A1. Descriptive statistics of student and school characteristics prior to imputation

	All schools	Divided by school organization form			
		Half-day school	All-day school	Changed status	Missing ¹
<i>Student characteristics</i>	<i>N=3024</i>	<i>N=297</i>	<i>N=744</i>	<i>N=433</i>	<i>N=1550</i>
Student achievement					
Mathematics grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	-1.35 (114.89)	2.86 (119.56)	23.34 (107.78)	11.74 (100.68)	-14.51 (118.33)
Mathematics grade 7 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	75.32 (122.51)	75.23 (132.76)	106.10 (112.20)	89.47 (119.53)	59.90 (122.44)
Mathematics grade 9 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	152.13 (117.12)	148.21 (118.74)	176.72 (113.08)	176.41 (101.60)	136.05 (120.15)
Reading grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	1.82 (122.81)	1.71 (129.18)	20.61 (114.26)	13.19 (110.75)	-8.02 (126.73)
Reading grade 7 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	70.96 (131.81)	62.93 (131.71)	82.02 (134.78)	85.41 (118.14)	63.89 (134.18)
Reading grade 9 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	127.09 (107.76)	124.14 (106.72)	138.55 (106.52)	133.02 (95.82)	121.65 (111.62)
Student background					
Parental education grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	2.81 (1.10)	2.67 (1.02)	3.02 (1.06)	2.87 (1.11)	2.73 (1.11)
Language of origin German grade 5	92.1%	90.2%	93.9%	95.4%	90.5%
<i>School characteristics</i>	<i>N=144</i>	<i>N=18</i>	<i>N=29</i>	<i>N=19</i>	<i>N=78</i>
School type					
Hauptschule/Volksschule	27.8%	22.3%	12.7%	3.7%	37.5%
School with several courses of education	13.8%	4.9%	6.6%	9.0%	17.8%
Realschule	17.3%	47.5%	14.8%	39.2%	8.0%
Gesamtschule	8.5%	0.0%	17.0%	15.4%	6.4%
Gymnasium	32.6%	25.3%	49.0%	32.6%	30.2%
School composition					
Social composition grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	2.59 (0.61)	2.66 (0.45)	2.92 (0.51)	2.89 (0.34)	2.43 (0.65)
Language composition grade 5 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.79 (0.34)	0.90 (0.18)	0.94 (0.07)	0.94 (0.12)	0.71 (0.40)

Note. The descriptive analyses were based on non-imputed data of *N*=3024 students at 144 schools; “w_t_cal” was used as a sampling weight. ¹ Students at schools where school organization form information is missing for at least one out of three measurement points. Unstandardized social and language composition variables were used.

Appendix A2. Variables in the imputation model on the student and school level: Sources, measurement points, and percentages of missing values

	Source	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
Replication weight	cohort profile	0.0%				
School level variables						
School type	cohort profile	0.0%				
Federal state	cohort profile	0.0%				
Social composition	aggregated student data	0.6%				
Language composition	aggregated student data	0.6%				
Cross-sectional organization form variable	principal quest.	35.9%		24.4%		39.3%
School offer of						
Homework supervision	principal quest.		15.5%		36.3%	
Enrichment groups: students with high grades	principal quest.		18.5%		36.6%	
Remedial instruction: students with low grades	principal quest.		16.6%		35.9%	
Remedial instruction: non-native speakers	principal quest.		17.4%		37.7%	
Language of origin instruction	principal quest.		17.4%		37.9%	
Subject-specific offering in mathematics	principal quest.		19.5%		39.5%	
Subject-specific offers in science	principal quest.		17.8%		38.1%	
Subject-specific offers in German	principal quest.		19.8%		41.1%	
Subject-specific offers in foreign languages	principal quest.		18.2%		40.2%	
Sports offers	principal quest.		17.6%		38.8%	
Music/art offers	principal quest.		16.0%		37.7%	
Religion offers	principal quest.		24.0%		43.0%	
Trades and home economics offers	principal quest.		16.7%		38.6%	
Technology/new media offers	principal quest.		16.4%		36.0%	
Community activities/student government	principal quest.		15.5%		37.8%	
Forms of social learning	principal quest.		15.9%		38.1%	
Forms of intercultural learning	principal quest.		15.3%		43.4%	
Required free-time activities	principal quest.		16.0%		38.7%	
Voluntary free-time activities	principal quest.		15.7%		38.9%	
All-day provision for grade 8	principal quest.				35.5%	
Number of staff in all-day program						
Without definite university degree	principal quest.				56.2%	
With university degree	principal quest.				61.0%	
No. days all-day progr. in 8 th and/or 12 th grade	principal quest.				38.9%	
Student level variables						
Student achievement						
Mathematics	student test	8.9%		4.8%		7.1%
Reading	student test	9.0%		4.9%		15.1%
Orthography	student test	8.7%		4.8%		7.4%
Perceptual speed	student test	8.9%				11.8%
Cognitive reasoning	student test	9.1%				11.5%
Declarative metacognition	student test		4.4%			11.2%
ICT literacy	student test		5.3%			7.3%
Scientific competence	student test		5.3%			7.3%
Reading speed	student test	8.7%				7.1%

	Source	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
Time between tests	student test			13.5%		11.2%
Student participation in						
Homework support	student quest.		10.8%		13.4%	
Remedial education	student quest.		11.4%		13.7%	
Subject-specific programs	student quest.		12.2%		14.7%	
Subject-unrelated projects	student quest.		10.9%		14.4%	
Leisure facilities	student quest.		12.1%		14.9%	
Participation frequency	student quest.		16.8%		24.4%	
Student rating of all-day program						
Enjoyment	student quest.		35.3%		55.4%	
Useful in class	student quest.		36.4%		56.1%	
Wish for more offers	student quest.		36.4%		56.2%	
Learning new things	student quest.		37.1%		56.5%	
Preferred free time	student quest.		37.3%		56.7%	
Made new friends	student quest.		37.3%		56.7%	
Improving grades	student quest.		37.4%		56.7%	
Not alone in the afternoons	student quest.		37.5%		56.8%	
Student background						
Books at home	student quest.	14.2%		7.9%		8.0%
Parental education	parent interv.	37.9%		43.3%		55.0%
Partner parental education	parent interv.	50.3%		49.6%		60.2%
Family native-born	student quest.	8.2%		8.2%		
Language of origin	parent interv.	37.1%		37.1%		
Gender	cohort profile	4.8%		1.3%		
Age in years	cohort profile	12.1%		7.3%		

Appendix A3. Descriptive statistics for the subsamples of all-day schools with high and low student participation profiles for robustness analyses

	All-day schools	Divided by student participation characteristics	
		Low profile all-day school	High profile all-day school
<i>School characteristics</i>	<i>N=56</i>	<i>N=28</i>	<i>N=28</i>
Average student participation frequency ¹			
Average frequency grade 6 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	2.47 (1.48)	1.79 (0.78)	2.97 (1.66)
Average frequency grade 8 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	1.61 (1.38)	1.19 (0.72)	1.92 (1.64)
Percentage of students participating in programs ²			
Homework support grade 6 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.15 (0.15)	0.07 (0.07)	0.21 (0.16)
Homework support grade 8 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.09 (0.08)	0.04 (0.04)	0.12 (0.09)
Remedial education grade 6 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.13 (0.11)	0.08 (0.08)	0.17 (0.12)
Remedial education grade 8 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.10 (0.08)	0.05 (0.05)	0.14 (0.09)
Subject-specific learning offers grade 6 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.06 (0.07)	0.04 (0.04)	0.08 (0.08)
Subject-specific learning offers grade 8 (<i>M(SD)</i>)	0.09 (0.08)	0.05 (0.05)	0.11 (0.09)

Note. The descriptive analyses were based on imputed data of $N=1326$ students at 56 all-day schools; “w_t_cal” was used as a sampling weight. All variables were taken from student questionnaires. ¹ Aggregated variable on hours per week students made use of all-day offers overall; open answering format. ² Aggregated variables on the participation in specific all-day programs; binary answering format with 0 (“no participation”) and 1 (“participation”).

Japanese Policy for After-School Programs: Education through School-Community Collaborations

Fuyuko Kanefuji

Introduction

A school-community partnership is being studied that brings beneficial outcomes for both students and the community (Gouëdard, 2018). A school-community partnership is an important common effort for future educational policy and practices around the world. This article reports on policies supported by the Japanese government for after-school programs which emphasize partnerships between schools and communities.

Promoting education through collaboration between schools and communities has been a central theme of the educational policy and reform in Japan since 2006, when the Education Basic Law was amended. This is a crucial theme not only for extended education, such as after-school programs, but also for regular classes in primary and secondary education. Such efforts in Japan are regarded as educational reforms to build school-community partnerships (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, MEXT, 2018a). There are four main objectives of this partnership: 1) to promote a curriculum open to society, 2) to assist students to learn actively, 3) to strengthen both schools and the community, and 4) to create a hub for multiple services and activities. Japanese after-school policy is regarded as one way to achieve partnerships between schools and their local communities.

The new plan for after-school programs in Japan

Since 2007, the Japanese after-school policy has been promoted in cooperation with the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare: MHLW and MEXT. “The New General After-School Children’s Plan,” presented in September 2018, is a revised national plan for after-school policy during 2019-2023 fiscal years.

The plan has set some concrete goals for after-school programs. In the plan, there are four proposed national targets. The first is to increase the number of children participating in After-school Children’s Clubs Project (AS Clubs Project)¹ from 1.22 million to 1.5 mil-

1 AS Clubs Project is an after-school program under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (MHLW).

lion. The second is that all elementary schools² should provide after-school programs, in cooperation with AS Clubs Project and the After-School Classes for Children Project (AS Classes Project)³. The third goal is that more than 10,000 schools should integrate the implementation of the AS Clubs Project and the AS Classes Project. This means that the children in both projects can participate in the same program activities together. The fourth national target is that, in these newly developed integrated projects, school facilities should be fully utilized, and 80% of the newly launched AS Clubs Project should be implemented at elementary schools' premises (MEXT 2018c).

In the new plan, the government emphasizes after-school support that makes much better use of school facilities. In general, each public as well as private primary and secondary school in Japan has a variety of educational facilities, including a playground, a gymnasium, an outdoor pool, a cooking room, and a science laboratory. The notice "school facilities should be used thoroughly" means that the government calls for utilizing these facilities not only for regular classes, but also for after-school programs.

It should also be noted that additional measures for children who need special consideration, including those with disabilities or who experience abuse or bullying, are considered important. Facilitating cooperation between various private services, such as cram schools (specialized schools for test preparations), English conversation schools, and piano or dance lessons, with after-school programs is also considered important. In order to respond to such diverse needs and to foster the next generation to recreate the community itself, collaboration between schools and the community is considered indispensable in Japan.

The role of the Board of Education

To promote education through school-community collaborations, the cooperative activities as well as the roles of the administrative jurisdiction and municipal Board of Education are specified in the Social Education Law that was amended in March 2017.

The cooperative activities between schools and the community is named "Community Cooperation Activities for Learning and Education" (CCALE). It is described as follows: "CCALE are activities that involve the participation of a wide range of residents, such as elderly people in the community, adults, students, parents, parent-teacher associations (PTAs), non-profit organizations (NPOs), private companies, other organizations and institutions. In various activities schools and local communities cooperate to support children's learning and growth throughout the region, as well as in 'creating a community centered on schools'" (MEXT, 2018d).

The Board of Education is expected to play a leading role in developing the system in each region. It is specified in the law that the Board of Education is responsible for developing cooperative systems with communities and schools, and for taking measures to spread awareness of these activities (Article 5 of Social Education Law). It is also specified that the

2 There are 19,892 elementary schools in Japan (MEXT 2018b).

3 AS Classes Project is an after-school program under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT)

Board of Education has the authority to designate those who serve to connect the communities with schools as “coordinators of CCALE” (Article 9 of Social Education Law).

In the Japanese context, social education is defined in the Social Education Law as follows; “It refers to systematic educational activities including physical education and recreational activities that are mainly conducted with children, youth, and adults, but it does not cover educational activities conducted as school curriculums” (Article 2 of Social Education Law). The Social Education administration covers learning activities for people of all ages. Social educational facilities include libraries, museums, and other lifelong learning centers, with extracurricular activities for children. In this sense, after-school support for children is often undertaken by the jurisdiction of the Board of Education, within the Social Education or Lifelong Learning Section.

To further promote CCALE, activity guidelines, handbooks for coordinators, and a reference guide for commissioning coordinators for the Board of Education are published (MEXT 2018d, 2018e, 2018f, 2018g). The government provides these documents on their website as well, as it aims to promote the understanding and dissemination of the system nationwide.

The government states that concrete roles of the Board of Education are: to secure and commission coordinators of CCALE; to conduct training programs to improve the management skills of principals in community schools (described in the next section); to implement workshops for school management council members, school faculty, staff, and CCALE coordinators; and to secure expenses for various projects to promote CCALE (MEXT 2018e).

Main mechanisms for achieving the school-community partnerships

Main mechanisms for promoting education through school-community collaborations are community schools and the Community Cooperation Network for Learning and Education (CCNLE). Community schools are schools that have adopted the School Management Council system. Council members are residents, parents or guardians, and the coordinator of CCALE, newly appointed by the Administrative Law on Local education in 2017. Specifically, council duties include: 1) approving basic principles of school management created by the school principal, 2) giving opinions on school management to the Board of Education or to the principal, 3) giving opinions on teacher appointments, and 4) promoting cooperation between schools and communities (MEXT, 2017). As of April 2018, there are 5,432 community schools established nationwide, with further increase expected in the future (MEXT, 2018h).

CCNLE is a network formed by the participation of a wide range of residents, organizations, and community partners. The coordinator of CCALE is expected to play a central role in its operation. According to 2017 statistics, there are 5,168 CCNLEs established in elementary and junior high schools nationwide (MEXT, 2018i). The government aims to establish CCNLE in all elementary and junior high schools⁴.

4 There are 30,162 elementary and junior high schools in Japan (MEXT 2018b).

Key personnel for achieving the school-community partnerships

In order to promote education through collaboration between schools and the community, human resources are needed. The author believes the following three types of personnel are key to promoting the CCALE: coordinator of CCALE, community liaison school staff, and the Social Education Director.

As previously mentioned, coordinators of CCALE are expected to play a central role in CCNLE. The role of coordinator is diverse and the government presents its main objectives as follows: 1) planning CCALE according to the actual conditions of the region and schools; 2) coordinating with school staff, local residents, and other stakeholders such as companies and organizations; 3) recruiting and securing regional volunteers; 4) administrative processing and expense processing of CCNLE; 5) providing information and advice to local residents; and 6) promoting activities of local residents. As the responsibilities of the coordinator are significant, the government suggests that the Board of Education may assign multiple coordinators to one region to share roles, and to work as a team to promote CCALE (MEXT 2018f).

The second category of key personnel are community liaison school staff, who represent a general opening for CCALE at schools. In many cases, certain teachers or office staff perform the role of the community liaison school staff. The government provides examples of potential roles for the community liaison school staff as follows: 1) to contact and coordinate with the Board of Education, and to coordinate, within and between, schools and districts; 2) to understand and support the needs of school staff; 3) to plan and implement training programs for community cooperation in schools; and 4) to coordinate the management and operational activities undertaken by school management councils (MEXT 2018f). The government is considering that the community liaison school staff also be specified by law, but currently it is not⁵.

The third category of key personnel is the Social Education Director, an educational specialist stipulated in the Social Education Law since 1954, who is mainly placed at the prefectural and municipal Board of Education and promotes social education in the region. The training curriculum to acquire the qualification of Social Education Director was revised in February 2018, by order of the Ministry, and will start in 2020. In the new curriculum, “lifelong learning support theory” and “social education management theory” are added. The government states the reason for the curriculum revision as follows; “The Social Education Director is expected to play a core role in promoting social education and community development, by supporting learning activities of local residents by cooperating with diverse agents such as NPOs, enterprises, etc. The curriculum is revised to train the fundamental qualities and abilities that are needed for doing such missions of Social Education Director” (MEXT 2018j).

It is important for the Social Education Director to be trained in coordinating between different stakeholders, such as local residents, companies, and organizations in the community, and in facilitating learners’ activities. According to 2015 statistics, there are 2,047 So-

5 The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has stated on the website that it is considering legally stipulating community liaison school staff.

cial Education Directors nationwide. The government aims to expand both the number of Social Education Directors, as well as to improve their abilities.

Those who learn the new curriculum and acquire the qualifications will also earn the professional title of “Social Education Coordinator: tentative name (shakai kyouiku shi).” This ministerial ordinance aims to increase personnel with such expertise not only with regard to the staff employed within the Board of Education, but also with regard to those who work as CCNLE coordinators and NPO staff.

Future direction and challenges

The policy of promoting after-school collaborations between schools and communities has been underway since 2009 in Japan. At present, reform of primary education is being established, with the further promotion of after-school policies in secondary education expected.

There are some challenges the policy needs to focus on in the future (Bae & Kanefuji, 2018). One of the biggest issues is regional disparity. The degree of promotion of CCALE, CCNLE and community schools differs, depending on the region. It is also uncertain whether the training and arrangement of coordinators of CCALE and Social Education Directors will progress smoothly or not.

The discretionary power given to the principal of a Japanese school is less than that afforded to the principal of a western school. On the other hand, the Board of Education has the right to distribute the budget to each school and the right to recruit and reassign teachers in public schools. It is necessary to determine whether such mechanisms work as positive factors, or not, for promoting school-community partnerships, and what changes and effects there will be to Japanese education.

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New art and culture – inspired pedagogy to Finnish schools

A child-centred approach to organising extracurricular activities

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Introduction

Promoting the accessibility of and facilitating access to arts and culture is one of the key priorities of cultural policy in Finland. Since 2016, the Ministry of Education and Culture has promoted and facilitated children's and young people's access to basic art education, arts and culture in a Government key project, which has in many ways proved successful in integrating arts and culture into the everyday life of children and young people. Rather than bringing children to arts and culture, the key project has brought arts and culture to children and young people by going where they spend a significant part of their time – their schools.

The premise of the key project has been to encourage children and young people to take an active part in arts and culture by providing them with highly accessible opportunities to participate in high-quality art and culture activities taught by professional instructors and educators.

In the first phase of the key project, these activities were introduced to primary schools as voluntary extracurricular classes or clubs scheduled during or after the school day. The Ministry hoped that this would prove effective in encouraging participation by removing obstacles such as lack of time, travel, access or an overall limited offering of activities, the latter three of which were considered possible hindrances especially in the case of smaller municipalities and more remote areas. To ensure that children and young people would get to take part in activities they found interesting and meaningful, the Ministry launched a national pupil survey to map preferred activities to all comprehensive schools in Finland.

The project has since evolved further into another initiative called the *Curious Class* (2018), which applies arts and culture in education during the school day, i.e. not only as extracurricular classes. Inspired by the OECD project on the same subject and still based on strong professional partnership, the initiative aims to support creativity and critical thinking among children and young people while improving access to culture.

The projects have also been aimed at increasing cooperation between professionals in children's culture, basic art education, primary schools and early childhood education and care as well as at promoting equal opportunities for pursuing art and culture in school

premises through the implementation of the Government key project. So far, the results of the key project have been promising in terms of accomplishing the project's main goals. According to the evaluation of all key projects' club activities funded by the Ministry in 2016–2018, approximately 90,000 pupils and day care children in 1,100 primary schools and 300 child daycare centres in Finland took part in extracurricular activities. A large percentage of these children found themselves a new favourite art or cultural hobby through the project.

To date, the national pupil survey to comprehensive schools has been carried out twice, receiving 200,000 individual responses. These responses have led the design of all club activities in the key project, thus indicating a strong commitment to the importance of consulting children on matters concerning them and their immediate wellbeing.

This introduction will elaborate on the key project at hand and present some of its key findings. In conclusion, some notions on best practices and future orientations are considered.

The implementation project on children's culture and basic art education

In their strategic programme for 2015–2019, Prime Minister Juha Sipilä's Government introduced twenty-six *key projects*. As indicated by their attribute, the key projects are projects that the Finnish Government has deemed especially important to promote. One of the key projects is dedicated to art and culture and focuses on new club activities for children and young people. This key project is called *Access to art and culture will be facilitated*.

Implementation of the key project above was launched at the Ministry of Education and Culture in two different ways. One was aimed at improving access to children's culture and basic art education, and the other at supporting the effects of culture on wellbeing by investing in the acquisition of art in public buildings. Combined, these two implementation projects received approximately EUR 10 million in funding, of which approximately EUR 8 million were allocated to the implementation project on children's culture and basic art education for the years 2016–2018.

The goal of the implementation project at hand is "to offer children and young people greater opportunities to take an active part in art and cultural pursuits, as well as to improve their creative skills, cultural competence and capacity for learning." (Pulkkinen, Berden, & Koskimies, 2018, "2.4. The Key Project: Improving Access to Arts and Culture", para. 2.) The goals and implementation of the implementation project are based on numerous findings on the positive effects that cultural activities have on children. Previous research indicates that it is worth investing in artistic and cultural hobbies. Participation in music and handicraft improves pupils' academic (reading, writing, calculating) and social (regulation of emotions and behaviour) skills (Metsäpelto & Pulkkinen, 2012, 2014), and self-control in general. In addition, incorporation of hobbies into a school day, thereby integrating the school day, can at best reduce anxiety and symptoms of depression (Metsäpelto, Pulkkinen & Tolvanen, 2010).

As such, the key project has also been aimed at renewing the current operating culture of schools as well as strengthening and consolidating the cooperation of comprehensive and early childhood education with arts and cultural organisations.

Spanning over three years, the project has been steered by the Ministry through the use of grants. Three calls for proposals have been published with the purpose of organising voluntary activities or clubs at schools. The project has also encompassed activities organised at daycare centres for younger children, with certain exceptions to the common criteria for the awarding of grants.

The implementation project has from the beginning been built upon the idea of quality and professionalism, requiring all activities to have been planned and carried out by cultural operators within the art and cultural education infrastructure that exists in Finland in addition to art education in schools:

- Basic Art Education is provided in various art and educational institutions in approximately 85 per cent of Finnish municipalities. Basic education in the different fields of art progresses in a goal-oriented manner from one level to the next, and the core curriculum has been confirmed for visual arts, crafts, media arts, music, literary art, circus art, dance and theatre.
- Children’s Cultural Centres provide art education in municipalities and regions. A total of 27 centres cooperate nationally through travelling exhibitions and art workshops, by exchanging performances and methods and by engaging in joint productions.
- Other art and cultural operators such as art and cultural institutions, cultural heritage organisations, museums, libraries, choirs and the University of Arts arrange various forms of activities in the field of art and culture education. (Pulkkinen et al., 2018, “2.4. The Key Project: Improving Access to Arts and Culture”, para. 4.)

Moreover, organisation of the activities had to follow certain criteria, which included a minimum requirement of thirty lessons (over the school year) and adherence to the wishes expressed by pupils in the national pupil survey. These criteria were not fully applied to activities at daycare centres, since under section 3(3) of the Act on Early Childhood Education (2018/540), the pedagogy of early childhood education in Finland should be partly based on art and cultural heritage education, providing children with positive learning experiences. Hence, organisations hoping to provide activities for younger children were invited to adopt a more sporadic approach, providing children with opportunities for unique and out-of-the-ordinary experiences.

The national pupil survey as a basis for a child-centred approach

The implementation project strongly emphasised pupil involvement in its implementation. The subjects of club activities have been determined by the results from consultation. The national pupil survey drafted to enquire about the preferences of pupils aged seven to sixteen was launched by the Ministry of Education and Culture as part of the Government’s key project. The survey was designed and developed to be child-friendly, making use of gamified elements to map the preferences of pupils in terms of the arts, cultural and sports activities they were most interested in trying at schools. All club activities provided at schools as part of the key project had to be designed on the basis of pu-

pils' interests and only club activities corresponding to pupils' interests could receive support from the Ministry.

In the survey, children and young people were asked to rate different activities and answer a set of questions concerning their cultural and artistic pursuits, and a personal history of recreational activities. The students were also able to state their preference in terms of when they would like to take part in different activities. Children's Cultural Centres were consulted in drafting the set of alternatives. The link to the survey was then distributed to 230 comprehensive schools in Finland.

With its 200,000 individual responses over three years, the survey has provided valuable information on the demand for arts and culture activities among children and young people in Finland. The response rate corresponds to a third of all pupils in Finland, and the results show that many of the respondents are interested in more than one activity (Pulkkinen et al., 2018). All results of the survey have been published to encourage municipalities to consider their cultural offering in terms of demand.

Evaluation and exemplary cases of successful cooperation

The first phase of the key project (2016–2017) was evaluated externally in the Niilo Mäki Institute. Concluded in 2018, the evaluation considered the performance of the project in terms of the overall reach and performance of the projects financed, the rate of success experienced by the parties involved and the improvement in access to arts and culture. The evaluation was based on three quantitative sets of material and one qualitative set of material. Quantitatively, most of the material consisted of survey data collected for the Niilo Mäki Institute's report. Data from the feedback collected by the Ministry and the grant applications submitted during the first call were also used.

Two cases of individual implementations of the key project are considered below to provide a concrete illustration of the fieldwork of the projects and the factors affecting their success. The projects described in more detail have been analysed as part of the evaluation by the Niilo Mäki Institute.

Both of the cases considered below have continued and developed their projects in their municipalities over the whole three-year period (2016–2018). In both cases, project workers have continued their work and developed their projects in their municipalities over the whole three-year period (2016–2018).

Architecture! Introduction to architecture at school clubs in Kuopio

Architecture! was a project by Lastu School of Architecture and Environmental Culture. The project took place in two lower comprehensive schools (covering ages seven to twelve) in Kuopio, where the goal was to introduce basic architecture education to local schools. Kuopio is located in the region of Northern Savonia (Pohjois-Savo) and is Finland's ninth most populous city. Although the city's population is well spread, the city's urban areas are populated comparatively densely thereby making Kuopio Finland's second-most densely populated city.

The pupils participating in the project practiced expressive skills, creativity and crafts, and explored different sides of architecture by building models and model cities using recycled materials. Both Lastu and the schools in Kuopio regarded the cooperation as being successful. As regards resources, the schools provided the space and some of the materials, whereas Lastu took care of communications, most of the materials, etc. (Määttä, Korpivaara & Palmu, 2018.)

Another goal of the project was development-oriented, as the project also sought to map the possibilities of consolidating basic architecture education in the city of Kuopio. This proved challenging due to financial restraints but the importance of this spirit of development for the success of the project was recognised in the evaluation. Furthermore, the school principal highlighted the importance of having a professional instructor to lead the clubs. On the one hand he referred to the lack of resources at schools for organising extra-curricular activities such as clubs, and on the other hand he pointed out that when working in a school setting, possessing strong pedagogical skills is paramount. (Määttä et al., 2018.)

Overall, the project received positive feedback and increased equal opportunities for students to participate in artistic and cultural pursuits. Besides the above, the genuine will of schools to cooperate was a significant factor in the project's success. Both the pupils and their teachers reported being happy with the clubs. The pupils were reported to have asked for longer sessions and the school principal also pointed to the pride that the pupils felt over their work. (Määttä et al., 2018.)

“PopUpSipoo” Improving the availability of children’s culture in Sipoo

The “PopUpSipoo” project in Sipoo was aimed at enhancing the availability of children’s culture in Sipoo, located some thirty kilometres to the northeast of Helsinki, the Finnish capital. The project was initiated and developed by the municipality of Sipoo, which has strong ties to the education administration. The goal of the project was to introduce and develop extracurricular activities at schools. This is something that had not earlier been done at the municipal level. The hope was to offer the pupils new experiences. (Määttä et al., 2018.)

The municipality of Sipoo has large centralised schools and many small village schools, which posed challenges with regard to the activities. There were thirty extracurricular groups tailored according to pupils’ wishes, with twenty-one instructors in nine schools in the school year 2016–2017. The activities included animation, piano playing, film, architecture, beatboxing and parkour, the latter of which was the most popular of all the club activities. Not everyone who wanted could participate in the parkour groups because increasing the group size could have presented a safety hazard. (Määttä et al., 2018.)

Challenges occurred related to the short-term nature of financing, finding instructors in the sparsely populated areas of Sipoo, facilitating coordination and information exchange. Despite these difficulties, the PopUpSipoo project managed to improve and diversify the availability of children’s culture. Through the project it became possible for the local children and young people to engage in cultural forms, such as beatboxing, architecture and pop singing, that were not previously available. These opportunities were also seized. The PopUpSipoo project introduced a new type of operating culture to schools; pupils began to see school as a place where they can stay after lessons to pursue a hobby. The success of

the project was attributed to three key factors, i.e. the active involvement of municipal education administration, the positivity of the art practitioners' in carrying out the activities and, as in the case of Kuopio, the willing attitude at schools to cooperate. (Määttä et al., 2018.)

Curious Class pilot

The importance of cultivating the creativity and critical skills of pupils in formal education is widely shared. As pointed out by the OECD however, there is only limited evidence of it being carried out systematically. Systematic development of these skills has been considered by the OECD to be hindered by the lack of formal assessment of these competencies in education systems, thus offering little incentive to teachers to develop such assessments. The OECD also maintains, that despite the wide agreement on the importance of the matter, grasping creative and critical skills on a more concrete level, such as that of curricula, has remained unclear. (OECD, 2015.)

The OECD CERI's international project is rooted in the effort of providing a framework for the assessment of developing creative and critical skills at schools. It is assumed that by developing an international framework that can be used to assess creative and critical thinking skills, teachers and pupils can be helped to develop these skills. Skills development would be founded on a more concrete understanding of their meaning and cultivation, and the progress in making these skills visible in schools. The assessment tool is further elaborated in the OECD report on the subject, making clear the manifold efforts to ensure its commitment to student- and teacher-friendly language. Moreover, concrete tools so as to provide proof on the cultivation of creative and critical skills at schools alongside the more traditional skills have been developed. (OECD, 2015.)

Based on the OECD project findings and pedagogical frames developed, a pilot project in Finland has been carried out since 2018 as part of the implementation project. Approximately 2,500 students in fifty schools are involved in projects, in which school teachers and art professionals and educators work closely together in school surroundings. The whole project phase contains an inner evaluation element, with institutional monitoring (classroom observations) and comparison and analysis of the project planning forms with the contents of the completion forms. Additional research activity measuring the impact of the *Curious Class* project on children's academic achievement, social competence, self-concept, creative skills and critical thinking will be performed by researchers from the University of Helsinki.

Key findings and conclusions

In terms of the overall performance of projects funded by the Ministry, the evaluation by the Niilo Mäki Institute concluded that in successful projects, club instructors had both good pedagogical and group management skills, support from the work and school communities, good cooperation skills and, obviously, shared an enthusiasm for doing artistic or

cultural work with children. If pupils' wishes had been taken into account in the schools, the school had a culture-friendly attitude, the school's facilities and tools could be used for project work and information about the extracurricular groups for pupils was effective, the project turned out to be successful (Määttä et al., 2018).

The national pupil survey revealed that most pupils were interested in many forms of art and culture (Pulkkinen et al., 2018). The results presented a challenge to the municipalities in Finland to improve pupils' access to art and culture for which there was a clear demand. In successful projects, the support of local authorities played a major role, as it was crucial that the local authorities had a positive attitude to improving the accessibility of art and cultural activities (Määttä & et al., 2018).

The project has shown that there are pupils who have a strong interest in, for example, cultural heritage, architecture and dancing, and identified the importance of bringing these activities even to those pupils who live in very tiny villages and in the far north of Finland.

In conclusion, the project has so far offered new openings for art and culture-inspired pedagogy in Finnish schools, as shown by the Ministry's own and external evaluations. The implementation project has first and foremost been aimed at creating a new operating culture. The project has proved successful in this regard by establishing a new model of organising extracurricular and club activities as part of the school day. In comparison to more traditional activities, the project marked a prominent change in terms of the involvement of pupils. Their wishes were used in determining the demand, which also led to a wider offering of activities. Had the children's wishes not been known, the actions would likely have been less successful. As for the future, the way ahead looks promising with the model spreading continuously and the new operating culture sparking increased interest nationwide.

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Extended Education in Korea from the Perspective of the Economics of Education

Myung Suk Woo

Introduction

Extended education was introduced as a measure to supplement school education, reduce private tutoring, realize education welfare, and socialize school education (The Ministry of Education and Human Resources, 2006). The effects of extended education are expected to improve academic performance, reduce private tutoring by decreasing the education gap among students from different socioeconomic backgrounds, develop social and affective skills, and enhance students' school satisfaction and community in Korea (Bae, Kim, Yang, 2010 Shin, Kim, Min, and Oh, 2015; Woo and Lee, 2010). Extended education increased programs focusing on math, English, and the Korean language as a substitute for private tutoring. The effects of extended education on reducing private tutoring and enhancing academic achievement have been analyzed, with some positive and negative results. Extended education programs are divided into subjects to enhance academic performance and talent and aptitude programs.

The perspective of the economics of education helps researchers to understand the behaviors of students, parents, and schools, which allocate scarce financial resources to different areas in order to maximize their benefits. This perspective has focused on three concepts and research areas: human capital, market and market failure, and education production. As regards extended education, human capital and education production are applied to explain reasoning for participation in and the effects of extended education. First, the concept of human capital is concerned with the association between education and individual outcomes such as earnings in the labor market. Human capital is measured by knowledge and skills that have been accumulated through education and training. Individuals invest time and money into education and receive benefits such as lifetime earnings in the labor market (Paik, 2009). Human capital theory is applied to explain why students and parents decide to participate in extended education programs. Second, the education production function is used to assess the efficiency and effectiveness of extended education when humans and institutions produce education. Economists use the education production function with an input-output framework in analyzing education (Brewer et al., 2010). The education production function estimates the relationship between inputs (e.g., educational resources) and output or outcomes (e.g., academic achievement) (Harris, 2010). It is common to use statistical models to analyze the relationship between inputs and outputs or outcomes.

However, causal effects of education inputs on outcomes such as academic achievement have been estimated with available data over time (Hanuskek, 2010; Harris, 2010).

In this chapter, first, statistical methods and research findings on the effects of extended education are reviewed. Second, theories and results on extended education from the perspective of the economics of education are discussed.

Economics of Education Theories

Human Capital Theory

Human capital is defined as “productive capabilities” (Eide and Showalter, 2010). Human capital theory can be traced back to Adam Smith. Smith did not use the term “human capital” directly, but considered human abilities as a foundation of wealth in *The Wealth of Nations* in 1776. The study of human capital explored the residual error or unexplained part of the total sums of inputs, concluding that an unexplained factor led to an increase in labor productivity, which had not been measured properly. In the 1950s and 1960s, Jacob Mincer, Theodore Shultz, and Gary Becker focused on education as an investment in human capital. They considered an investment in education as an increase in human capital and labor productivities (Eide and Showalter, 2010).

Human capital theory assumes that education and training increase knowledge, skills, and productivities, and that individuals receive rewards of enhanced earnings for productivity in the labor market. Direct and indirect costs such as tuition and forgone earnings are incurred when individuals invest in education (Baik, 2009; Brewer, Hentschke, and Eide, 2010).

A question arises as to how much individuals should invest in education. Individuals make rational decisions to invest in education if the rate of returns on investment exceeds market interest. One of the policy targets of extended education in Korea is to create substitutes for and reduce private tutoring. Ihm, Woo, and Chae (2008) found that students who were higher achieving and received more private tutoring participated in extended education. They explained that extended education may be assumed as “a future-oriented investment strategy” or “a learning supplement” according to the human capital theory.

Education Production Function

The education production function is the educational version of the production function in microeconomics. Education output is a function of education input through the education process as if production is a function of labor, capital, and land or raw materials. The education production function expresses how outputs of the education process are related to inputs. The education production function is specified as follows:

$$A_{it} = f(S_{it}, S_{it-1}, \dots, F_{it}, F_{it-1}, \dots, I_i, \varepsilon_{it}) \quad [1]$$

A_{it} is the education output of individual student i at time t . It is a function $f(\cdot)$ of school inputs S and family inputs F at the current time and previous times, a fixed student contribution I_i , and an error term ε_{it} . Education inputs include funding for schools, class size, teacher education and experience, and a variety of education programs and policies. Education outputs are represented by academic achievement and emotional development. Many research findings such as the Coleman Report suggested that family inputs represented by parents' education and family income explained the variations of education outcomes more than did school inputs. A fixed student contribution is innate ability, such as intelligence quotient, which may have considerable impact on achievement but cannot be collected as data. Therefore, family inputs and a fixed student contribution need to be controlled for when the effects of school inputs are isolated. Family inputs and a fixed student contribution are hard to measure or collect as data and are also difficult to control for. However, if data are collected over time, it is possible to estimate the effects of school inputs by controlling for family inputs and student contribution (Harry, 2010). Controversy over school resources and educational outputs has continued. Hanushek argued that there were no systematic relationships between school inputs and academic performance and that incentives for teachers might be a possible way to use school resources (Hanushek, 1989; Hanushek, 1994). However, Grenwald, Hedges, and Laine reanalyzed Hanushek's studies and found that school inputs had a "systematic positive relation between resource inputs and school outcomes" (Hedges, Laine, and Greenwald, 1994).

Extended education has been an important policy that is assumed to act as a substitute for private tutoring and improve student achievement, especially for students from low-income families and rural areas and small towns. Governments have funded extended education vouchers for needy students. While students from families with a low socioeconomic status received extended education vouchers for free, about \$600 during one semester, students who are not subsidized participated in extended education with a relatively low price when compared to private tutoring.

Even though extended education and private tutoring have similar aims, namely to supplement and prepare lessons, the price and the quality may differ. Researchers have assessed the effects of value-added academic performance of extended education per unit of price compared to private tutoring (Kim, 2012; Kim, 2014). Other studies have studied the relationship between inputs like extended education programs and outputs such as academic performance and the substitution effect of private tutoring (Bae, Kim, and Yang, 2010; Byun, Hwang, and Kim, 2011; Kim, Byun, and Jo, 2010; Kim, Kwon, and Park, 2014; Lee, 2013).

Empirical strategies

When the impact of education inputs on outputs or outcomes is estimated, it is common to use statistical models such as regression and analyze the relationships between education inputs and outputs. However, the commonly used regression model has some limitations, such as endogeneity problems of explanatory variables like school inputs to infer the causal effect of education inputs on outputs or outcomes. In the regression model, the explanatory variables and error term are supposed to affect dependent variables and have no correlation

with each other. The causal relationship between inputs of interest and outputs or outcomes is key. Research findings on the cause and effect may provide a foundation for a discussion of the effects and future direction of policies or programs.

Research strategies have been sought to isolate the causal effect of education inputs on outputs while controlling for confounding factors. To infer the causal effects, research methods include experimenting with random assignment and quasi-experiments. When random experiments are hard to design and conduct, a quasi-experiment, such as a fixed effects model, a random effects model, and differences-in-differences, is used to evaluate education inputs such as an extended education policy. For example, fixed effects for schools, students, and time can infer a causal relationship, controlling for constant differences among schools with panel data collected over time on the same individuals or schools (Angrist and Pischke, 2009). Fixed effects models observe students' achievement over time with constant unobserved variables and estimate the causal effects of education policies.

In that fixed effects and differences-in-differences need panel data, a large amount of data collected from students, classes, and schools over time make it possible to assess a causal relationship between education inputs or policies and educational outcomes. Research methods of extended education have evolved with a variety of panel data inputs, starting with regression models and now focusing on quasi-experiments in Korea. Empirical research methods from the perspective of the economics of education attempt to identify causal relationships between inputs or policies and educational outputs or outcomes (McEwan, 2010), which can be interpreted as causal effects of inputs or policies. The educational input of interest is extended education. Extended education has a variety of outputs or outcomes, including academic achievement and non-academic development. Confounding variables are controlled for in empirical studies.

Empirical literature review on extended education

Research on extended education from the perspective of the economics of education has been used mainly in the education productivity function in order to evaluate the effects of extended education. From the human capital theory, very little research has been conducted, but some research can be explained by focusing on who participates in the program, as well as how long and how much students invest in time and money on extended education. Researchers have used a variety of statistical models, from regression to fixed models. Research findings are not consistent regarding the effects of extended education, examining whether extended education has an impact on improving academic achievement and acting as a substitute for private tutoring. Research findings on the impacts of extended education have been reviewed using the human capital theory and the education production function.

Extended education from human capital theory

The human capital theory can be applied to explain research on students' participation and investment in extended education. Kim and Hwang (2009) used data from the Korea Education Longitudinal Survey (KELS) and analyzed participants in the extended education programs at the middle school level, using hierarchical generalized linear models (HGLM).

They found that a majority of middle school students attended extended education programs as supplementary lessons and for talent and aptitude education. Students who had previously participated were more likely to attend. The quality of extended education was one influential determinant. In particular, students from low-income families and rural areas and small towns participated more actively in and benefited from extended education (Kim and Hwang, 2009). Extended education has some merits. The cost of extended education is low compared to expensive private tutoring fees. Students from low-income families are subsidized by the government. In rural areas and small towns, since there are very few private academies, schools offer extended education, and students participate in extended education. For these reasons, students (especially those from low-income families and rural areas and small towns) invest their time and money into extended education. Shin and Kim (2012) also showed that students from lower socio-economic status families tended to supplemented classes of extended education at the elementary schools, using data from the National Assessment of Educational Achievement for all sixth graders in Korea. Extended education vouchers offered from the government amounting to about \$600 during a semester allow low socio-economic status students to participate more easily for free.

By contrast, Chae et al. (2009) found that students who have already spent high expenditures on private tutoring and are high achievers are more likely to attend extended education, using survey data from 24 high schools under five Offices of Education and hierarchical linear models (HLM). They explained that higher achieving students with higher expenditures on private tutoring participated more actively in extended education than did lower achieving students. The result is the same as when students with higher academic scores receive more private tutoring. Extended education as well as private tutoring can be an investment in education as “supplementary learning” or “investment in the future” (Ihm et al., 2008). It is likely that students from wealthier families have more options for investing in education and are less sensitive to price. Thus, they invest time and money in extended education just as they do for private tutoring. Lee and Park (2012) found that government grants for extended education might allow students from low-income families to make use of extended education. Since objects of analysis differ at the school level, the participants from the former study in middle school and those from the latter study in high school, the findings may not be comparable. Even though there are few research findings, extended education cannot completely take the place of private tutoring. Regardless of socio-economic status, school levels, and location, students consider extended education as one option for “supplementary learning” or “future investment” activities.

Extended education from the education production function

Extended education and achievement

Empirical research on extended education since 2009 is reviewed here. Nine out of 11 studies reported that extended education had significant positive impacts on achievements. Only two studies showed negative impacts of extended education on students' achievement. Most studies (Chae et al., 2009.; Kim et al., 2010.; Bae et al., 2010; Woo and Lee, 2010; Kim, 2012; Lee and Park, 2012; Shin and Min, 2014; Kim 2014; Park et al., 2014) reported that students who participated in extended education received higher scores on academic tests.

The programs and the quality of extended education at the school level may be important. The participation rate of extended education was higher at schools where fewer students took part in private tutoring and which were located in rural areas and small towns (Shin and Min, 2014). As the quality of extended education measured by a satisfaction survey on such programs was rated as higher, the effects were higher on achievement (Woo and Lee, 2010). Extended education vouchers, which are offered to students from low-income families, had a positive impact on their achievement (Lee and Park, 2012). At the local level, where the participation rates of extended education are higher, students participated less in private tutoring (Kim et al., 2010).

Negative effects were reported in two studies (Byun et al., 2011; Shin and Min, 2012). Byun et al. (2011) also found that the effects of extended education were positive in Korean language and in English in rural areas and small towns.

Since the price of extended education was much lower than that of private tutoring, the impacts of extended education on achievement were more efficient (Kim 2012; Kim 2014). Kim (2012) found that students who participated in extended education at the high school and were in mid-upper grader received higher scores. Kim (2014) also reported that the achievement effect of extended education at the high school level surpassed that of private tutoring. They concluded that extended education programs were more cost-effective. Kim (2014) found that the achievement of students attending extended education improved more per time spent compared to private tutoring.

These empirical studies used a variety of statistical models such as regression, hierarchical linear model, and fixed effect. Some studies inferred a causal relationship between extended education and student achievement (Kim, 2012; Lee and Park, 2012; Byun et al., 2011; Kim 2014; Park et al., 2014). Studies exploring the causal relationship used fixed effect and propensity scoring matching method and found positive effects on achievement, with the exception of one study (Byun et al., 2011). Byun et al. (2011) and Byun and Kim (2010) used the Korean Education Longitudinal Study and evaluated the causal effects of extended education on achievement. Kim (2012) and Kim (2014) used the Private Tutoring Survey and fixed effects models. The propensity score matching method was used as a quasi-experiment to infer a causal effect (Part et al., 2014; Byun et al., 2011; Byun and Kim, 2010; Lee, 2013). Lee (2013) and Byun and Kim (2010) used the Heckman model to control for sample selection bias. As longitudinal data become available, the studies are increasing with a variety of quasi-experiment methods.

Extended education and private tutoring

One of the main targets of extended education has been to act as a substitute for private tutoring. Most empirical studies reported that extended education reduced the expenditure on private tutoring (Bae et al., 2010; Woo and Lee, 2010; Kim, 2012; Kim, 2014; Lee, 2013; Kim et al., 2014). Kim (2012) and Kim (2014) found the effects of substituting private tutoring to be small. The effects of extended education were not enough to crowd out private tutoring (Kim, 2014).

Park et al. (2014) found that extended education decreased private tutoring at the middle school, but increased it at the high school. Byun and Kim (2010) found no impact of extended education on the participation and expenditure levels of private tutoring.

The crowding-out effect of extended education differed according to school levels and residential areas. Kim (2012) and Kim (2014) reported that extended education decreased private tutoring in most areas, with the exception of Gangnam where wealthy families live and many students participate in private tutoring. Extended education was reported to crowd out private tutoring at the middle school in some studies (Kim, 2012; Park et al., 2014), but at the high school in other studies (Kim 2014; Park et al., 2014).

The above studies evaluated the causal effects of extended education on decreasing private tutoring, which reported crowding-out effects (Kim, 2012; Kim, 2014; Lee, 2013) with one exception (Byun and Kim, 2010). Park et al. (2014) found a positive effect at the middle school, but a negative effect at the high school.

Extended education and non-academic development

While many studies focused on the effects of academic achievement, few studies have been conducted to evaluate the impacts of extended education on non-academic development. Students attending extended education built up positive relationships with teachers and classmates (Kim, Byun, and Jo, 2010). However, researchers have found no significant effects of extended education on students' problem behaviors such as unexcused absence, drinking alcohol, and smoking. Park, Ha, and Kim (2014) found that extended education had a positive impact, though it is not large, on academic self-efficacy. However, they found that students attending extended education programs are more likely to attend classes than those who do not, which is somewhat significant. In particular, the effect of extended education on school attendance was more significant for high school students. Researchers have reported that students attending extended education were more positive about the school climate than those who do not. Students who attended extended education were more satisfied with going to school than those who did not. Kim, Byun, and Jo (2010) also found that attending extended education contributed a significant effect on the positive relationship between students, teachers, and peers. Baek (2012), however, found no significant effect of extended education at school sites on school adjustment and the value awareness of school, while private tutoring and academies did have a significant effect. He also discussed the negative stigma effect, in that students from low-income families are more likely to attend extended education programs while those from middle-class and upper middle-class families attend private tutoring and academies.

Non-academic extended education, namely talent and aptitude education, had a positive impact on school life and students' sense of community (Shin, Kim, Min, and Oh, 2015). Attendance at extended education program means that students spend a greater amount of time with teachers and peers, which may result in positive feelings toward schools and learning.

Conclusions

Empirical studies of extended education in Korea have been reviewed from the perspective of the economics of education. Two concepts and research areas from the economics of education perspective include human capital and education production. Students from low-

income families and rural areas and small towns were more likely to participate in extended education programs. However, high-achieving students who received more private tutoring also participated in extended education programs. Based on the human capital theory, we can explain that students, regardless of achievement level and family backgrounds, invest time and money into extended education for “a learning supplement” or “a future-oriented” investment (Ihm, Woo, and Chae, 2008). Students make use of extended education to increase their knowledge and skills. The education production function is used to evaluate the effects of extended education on academic achievement and non-academic development. Empirical studies in particular include a causal relationship between the education input (here, extended education) and outputs or outcomes; such a relationship was inferred with hierarchical models and quasi-experiments such as fixed effects models and propensity score matching methods. By and large, the effects of extended education were positive on achievement, with some exceptions. In particular, students from low-income families received vouchers and made use of extended education programs. This could contribute to lessening the education gap among students from different SES statuses. Extended education was more cost-effective, considering the low prices of extended education, than private tutoring (Kim, 2014). However, few studies have explored the relationship between extended education and non-academic development. In addition, the effects of talent and aptitude extended education have also not been evaluated. As longitudinal data, such as the Korean Education Longitudinal Study and the Seoul Education Longitudinal Study, are becoming available, the causal relation between educational policies and outcomes may be further explored. Based on the causal effects of extended education, policy makers could discuss problems and results and suggest better alternatives.

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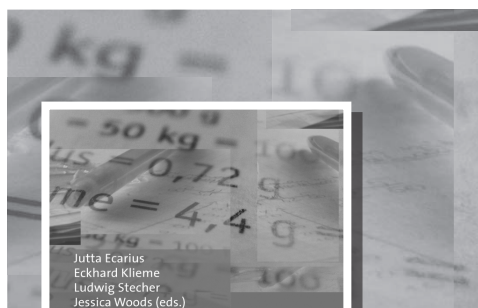
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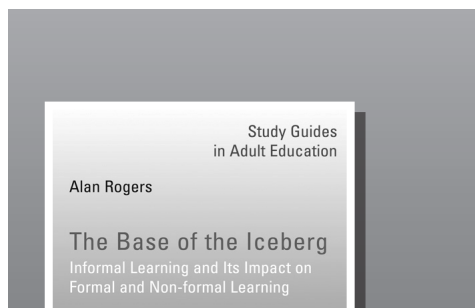
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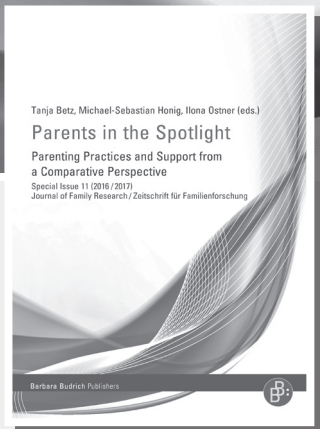
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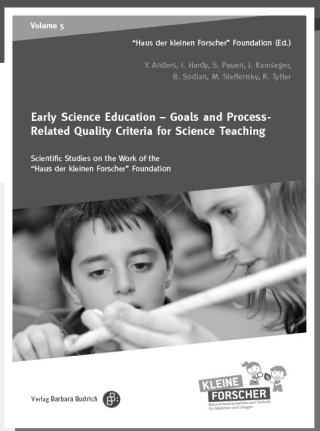
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Scientific Studies on the Work of the “Haus der kleinen Forscher” Foundation, vol. 5

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