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Table of Contents

Preface

As editor-in-chief, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to researchers around the world for their interest in IJREE and for submitting excellent manuscripts. In light of the amount and content of papers submitted since the publication of the last issue, it appears that researchers who seemed to have contracted due to COVID-19 are regaining their vitality and are actively conducting research on various topics.

This first issue of 2022 published four phenomenal research articles and one very informative research report in the development section.

The first article provides in-depth study results about the concerns of teachers at Swedish school-age educare centers when faced with calls for school reform related to digital activities in the age of digital transformation. The research findings provide what happens to teachers who actually implement digital-related innovations in their schools when digital transformation-related innovations are required, and what should be taken into account for government reform policies to be successful.

The second paper presents the results of a study on the influence of school culture and work-related emotional variables on the affective commitment of teachers in all day schools in Germany. Two authors analyzed data collected from 649 teachers using a structural equation model. This study is very interesting in that, like the regular classes, the quality of education also depends on the teachers.

The third paper investigated the relationship between motivation (intrinsic, extrinsic) and friendship processes (selection, influence) within an American college marching band. Using social network analysis, the study looked for evidence of selection but not influence on motivation. The authors also described unexpected findings in the context of highly specialized extracurricular activities.

The last article investigated how patterns of High Impact Practices (HIP) participation differ among students at Korean universities. The study also investigated whether there is an association between the likelihood of a student belonging to a specific group and their individual characteristics along with their university's supportive campus environment. Using latent profile analysis and multinomial logistic regression, this study discovered five distinct patterns of HIP participation. The study also found that family income and the level of student-faculty interaction determined the group a student belonged to.

Finally, one project report is presented in the development section. This project is funded within the "Framework Program for Empirical Educational Research" by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research. This project was designed as a qualitative study divided into four phases and is currently in progress. We look forward to the final result.

I would also like to thank the IJREE editors and many reviewers who has made great efforts. With your support and dedication, IJREE has become a world-renowned journal in the field of extended education.

Sang Hoon Bae

Digital Learning Activities at School-age Educare when Policy Reforms Calls for Educational Change

Linnéa Stenliden, Helene Elvstrand, Lina Lago

Abstract: This study examines teachers' accounts of what is happening in practices of the School-age Educare centre (SAEC) when faced with pressure from policy reforms to adopt digital technology and promote digital competence as both a requirement and a right for all children. The aim is to explain anticipated tensions that may produce the (im)possible digital practices of SAECs. The study is conducted with teachers from three SAECs in Sweden. Reflection conversations and interviews were used to produce data that was analysed using a constructivist grounded theory approach. The study contributes to understandings of teachers' main concerns when SAECs are requested to adopt technology and align with reforms. It explains how tensions emerge, impact SAEC teachers' actions towards revised curricula and affect the distribution of digital learning activities. Attention is asked to ensure that the rights of also young pupils are upheld in the digital world of today and tomorrow.

Keywords: School-age Educare, policy reform, digital competence, digital learning activities, main concerns, educational change

Introduction

As we enter the second decade of the 21st century, our society is increasingly becoming a digital culture. Today, children are active users of digital tools from an early age. The internet and digital worlds are central parts of their everyday lives. In other words, digital technology has become a significant feature of modern childhood (De Felice, 2017). At the same time, children have become objects of a multitude of monitoring devices including mobile media, wearable devices and social media platforms that generate detailed data about them (Lupton & Williamson, 2017). Accordingly, recent policy reforms highlight that those children are entitled to profit from these environments but also to understand their privacy rights online, to freedom of expression as well as be protected from sexual and aggressive threats variously mediated and amplified by the internet (e. g. Livingstone, 2016; UN, 2018; UN, 2021). Hence, digital competence has been underlined in educational policy both as a requirement and a right for these children (Ferrari, 2013; Long & Margerko, 2020), since both national and global authorities consider policy implementation appropriate means of control, govern, and change of standard in education (Ball, et, al., 2012; Braun, et, al., 2010; Viennet, & Pont, 2017). This paper reflects on the pressure for educational practices to align with the policy reforms that concern digital competence (European Commission, 2018; Ministry of Education and Re-

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search, 2017; UNESCO, 2019; UNICEF, 2020) using Sweden's School-age Educare centres (SAEC) as an example. The attention is directed to SAEC as it is an important emissary arena for developing children's digital skills, at the same time the Swedish policy documents both leave much space for interpretation and little guidance for the SAEC teachers in this regard (Martinez, 2019). Understanding SAEC teachers' practices and factors that contribute to various approaches to digital media is essential, because disregard may effectively hinder children from their entitled rights to develop digital competence.

Many countries in Europe and Asia, as well as the US, are currently developing various extended activities like afterschool care or all-day school (see e. g., Durlak, Mahoney, Bohnert, & Parente, 2010; Huang, La Torre & Leon, 2014). Some afterschool programs are affiliated with national organizations, while others are sponsored by public institutions or agencies or operate as subunits within private organizations. The Swedish SAEC can also be described as an afterschool programme. However, compared with many other countries, Sweden has a long history of distributing afterschool care, dated back to the 19th century. Gradually, the afterschool care has become incorporated to the national educational system during the 20th century. The Swedish SAEC has been regulated by the domestic curriculum since 1998 (Rohlin, 2012).

Afterschool programmes in general, have often been described as intermediary spaces, which highlights the tensions around the social purposes in connection with children's wellbeing and the role of afterschool programmes emphasizing improved educational achievement (Noam, Biancarosa & Dechausay, 2003). Adding to the complexity around the social versus academic purposes of afterschool programmes, there are competing discourses about what children and young people need from digital media and how to serve those needs (Ammari, et al., 2015; Livingstone, 2016). This situation might be emphasized in Swedish SAECs because the institution, as mentioned, is being coordinated by the government policies for the educational institutions. This could make some of the highlighted issues more visible in the Swedish SAECs.

The regulations stipulate that Swedish SAECs are places where self-directed and group-based learning should be designed around each pupil's interests, adapted to children's culture and formal learning goals. In 2016, the national curriculum for SAECs was first revised to strengthen the learning goals in general, and then also the importance of developing digital competence among children was highlighted (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017; Swedish National Agency for Education, 2011, rev. 2018 and 2019; Swedish Municipalities and Regions, 2019). So, teachers working at SAECs in Sweden, who undergo three-year teacher education at the university level, are increasingly expected to be adept at a variety of technology-based approaches for content delivery, goal-oriented learner support, and assessment. At the same time, they are also supposed, as mentioned, to organize learning activities that are characterized by informal learning situations where children's perspectives are considered important (Lager, 2020).

Hence, in this study it is of particular interest, to examine teachers' accounts of what is happening in SAECs practices when faced with pressure from policy reforms to adopt digital technology and make SAECs an institution where digital competence is promoted as both a requirement and a right for all children (UN, 2021). The aim is to explain anticipated tensions that may produce the (im)possible digital practices of SAECs by scrutinizing the following research questions:

1. What main concerns do SAEC teachers have in relation to digital activities at SAECs?
2. What consequences might emerging tensions have on the digital practices at SAECs?

The study is conducted in two medium-sized cities in Sweden using reflection conversations and interviews with teachers from three schools, who all work at their SAECs with the younger children (age 6–8).

School-age Educare: Digital Activities and Traditions

The Swedish Schools Inspectorate (2018) highlights that the practices at Swedish SAECs are not yet sufficiently supported by digital tools. They found in their review, that few SAECs used digital tools in the learning activities. At the SAECs, it was primarily the older pupils (aged 9 to 12 years) who were given opportunities to work with digital tools and play digital games. For the younger pupils (aged 6 to 8 years), the teachers decided which games were suitable or unsuitable for them to play. Interestingly, in a recent study, Lago & Elvstrand (2021) have found that pupil's themselves emphasize the importance of having access to digital tools in the SAEC.

A possible explanation for the lack of access and digital activities could be a central mindset among many teachers at Swedish SAECs today. An important value in the history of the institution is that children's development and learning are related to their practical "doings" (Jansson, 2018). There is, for example, a long tradition of praising "the handicrafts of the hand" and discountenancing technology as affording the extension of thought. Handicraft activities are valued and presented as "good" choices for children (Halldén, 2009). Studies indicate a more ambivalent attitude towards digital activities (Lago & Elvstrand, 2021; Martinez, 2019). Another related mindset is that children's senses and curiosity should be stimulated in "the wild" (Sandberg & Vourinen, 2006). Children's health, motor skills and environmental thinking are linked to fresh air and time spent outdoors (Mårtensson & Jansson, 2014). Thereby, at least in the Nordic countries, nature and outdoor activities signify a proper environment for children and are symbols of a "good" childhood (Halldén, 2009). Klerfelt (2007) explains how this kind of thinking creates a distance to children and their involvement with digital media.

At the same time, the integration of digital media into children's everyday lives and their interest in its adaption (Johnson, et, al., 2014), leads to the argument that SAEC activities should provide ways for young pupils to continue to choose and engage in digital activities according to their interests and required learning goals (Harvard, 2015; Martinez, 2019; 2021; Lago & Elvstrand, 2021). The making of the educational practice thus becomes a complex process when teachers' norms about childhood, their ideas about their assignment, their traditional habits within the institution and new digital demands from policy and curriculum incentives all come together (cf. Hallett & Meanwell, 2016). For example, Haglund & Peterson (2018) have through a web survey, in a Facebook group around SAEC, studied the use of board games and digital games. Board games are seen as contributing to the core work of SAECs which is looked upon as supporting social structure. Digital games are not, as they are viewed as enacted in isolation and therefore do not enhance children's social competence. Furthermore, Martinez has with help of interviews studied how teachers in SAEC work to

promote responsible online communication (2021) and critical digital literacy (2019) and showed how various frictions evolved among the teachers concerning their teaching assignment.

Through this review of afterschool programmes and Swedish SAEC about digital media and digital activities, it is evident that the 'digital' spheres present challenges for the afterschool institution. As the Swedish Media Council (2017) highlights, it is of uttermost importance to develop digital competence among children, as digital tools play a central role for them. The Council argues that to understand the digital worlds, children cannot be left alone in their interactions with digital media. Policy both expect education initiative and continued systematic digital transformation work (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2011; Ministry of Education and Research, 2017; Swedish Parliament, 2020) and claim the rights of children (UN, 2018: UN, 2021). Hence, more empirical studies are needed to better understand digital practices within SAECs.

Symbolic Interactionism and Inhabited Institutions

In this study, a constructivist grounded theory approach is used to understand how teachers create meaning about their pedagogical practice, how they might change or preserve according to altered policies (cf. Charmaz, 2014). Many terms are trying to define this process, bringing together altered policies with the process of change or reform as "enactment" (Bell & Stevenson, 2015), "realisation" (Donaldson, 2015) or "educational change" (Fullan, 2015). The process can also be expounded by the theoretical frameworks of symbolic interactionism (SI) (Blumer, 1969). SI describe the process to create meaning as emerging through human interaction. As humans are social and reflective actors, they interpret these actions and different situations are thereby defined (Blumer, 1969). As highlighted by Everitt (2012) the interpretation of situations is an ongoing and constantly changing process. In this case the teachers' interpretation of a situation includes expectations from new policy related to digital competence that in one way or another influence them and their actions. Consequently, in this study SI provides tools to understand how situations are defined and tensions might emerge for SAEC teachers as they confront new policies for practice at SAECs.

Furthermore, the history and norms of the institution also become important prerequisites for teachers' possibilities to act within the institution while maintaining, shaping and changing what is possible within the institution through their actions. According to Hallett and Ventresca (2006), this is illustrated by the concept inhabited institution. On the one hand, institutions provide material conditions and guidelines for social interaction, and on the other hand, the meanings of these institutions are constructed by the actors through their social interaction. Hence, this concept can further help us understand the processes of how teachers interpret and enact new policy expectations.

As Everitt (2012, p. 205) points out, "people interpret and change in their institutional environment based on how they define their prior experience within that environment" (cf. also Weick, 1976). What people see as important in the environment is determined by institutional rules, (here for example the SAEC organization's policies), and how these rules are enacted. This is explained by Charmaz (2014) as people's main concerns. Main concerns are

often unstated in conversations; they involve interpretations of what becomes important when participants reflect on a subject (Charmaz, 2014).

In the study, symbolic interactionism, inhabited institutions and the concept of main concern are used as analytical tools that help to clarify teachers' accounts of digital activities in the practices of SAECs. They are used to analyse how emotions or traditions may produce options for the actions, come into conflict and/or create tensions for specific individuals and the institution. This study will thereby contribute to understandings how SAECs as educational institutions meet new policies promoting digital competence and children's rights. That is, how teachers understand the "changed" expectations on their assignment in terms of how they receive, interpret, and translate the policy into their pedagogical practice.

Method

The study is a part of a larger action research project where different aspects concerning SAECs were studied, and the use and perceptions of digital tools were one aspect.

This study builds on reflection conversations with a group of seven SAEC teachers involved and individual interviews with two SAEC teachers. The teachers who participated in the reflection conversations worked at the same school while the interviews were conducted with teachers from two other schools. Altogether, the sampling consists of teachers from three different schools. All the participants were asked to participate in the study. The SAEC teachers who participated in the reflection conversations had registered their interest in participating in the action research project and the SAEC teachers who took part in the individual interviews were asked by the researchers if they wanted to participate in the study.

Reflection Conversations

Reflection conversations were used to allow the participating teachers to share views, understandings, and feelings in a dialectical process as such discussions may cover various subjects and can include a variety of voices (Feldman, 1999). Participants in such conversations can come close to one another, "to what they know, desire, imagine and believe in" (Buchmann, 1983, p. 21). This was one way to grasp emerging concerns among the teachers which often are implicitly expressed in conversations – an approach to understanding what becomes important when participants reflect on a subject.

The reflection conversations were conducted in the form of a series of meetings that ran for a period of one year and consisted of six meetings. Each individual meeting was about ninety minutes long and the same group of SAEC teachers participated in the entire series. During the reflection conversations the participants had the agenda to raise questions which was of importance for them. The discussions therefore dwelt on many different issues but contained several examples of how the SAEC teachers talked about and related to digital tools and their use at SAECs in different ways. In the conversations, the teacher's different ideas could collide and mingle with other ideas. The discussions had an allowing character which means it was enough that the teachers entered the conversation and liberated their opinions,

they did not have to insist that their colleagues followed and agreed on what was deliberated (Feldman, 1999).

Semi-structured Interviews

To gain an even deeper understanding of the use of digital tools at SAECs semi-structured interviews were also conducted with two SAEC teachers to follow up the data in the reflection conversations. This kind of interview is a flexible and powerful way to capture voices and the ways people make meaning of their experiences (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008). The interviews were carried out using snowball sampling as we were looking for people who had experiences of digital activities at SAECs (Bryman, 2014). The two interviewees were initiated and therefore provided rich material. The disadvantage of this is that we have probably obtained a selection of SAEC teachers who might be explicitly positive about using digital tools. In these interviews, the use of digital tools at SAECs was the explicated topic. This distinguishes the interviews from the reflection conversations, and they provide more focused data. Each interview was approximately 1 hour.

Analysis

Both the reflection meetings and the interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed. As previously mentioned, the data were analysed using a constructivist grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2014). The data were coded and categorized according to the ideas of theoretical sampling (Ibid.), meaning that the work involved in gathering and analysing the data was an ongoing process where initial findings led us further in the data sampling process. Thornberg (2016, p. 357) describes this as a process where "data and theories are not simply discovered but constructed by the researcher and participants". In the analyses of the teachers' discussions and statements, the focus was on the participants' main concerns in relation to their work with digital activities in SAEC (Charmaz, 2014). Main concerns can be understood as something that is negotiated between the actors in SAEC (teachers and pupils), policy demands and values.

The codes were categorized identifying five different actions described by the teachers to relate to digital activities in SAEC:

- Avoid
- Protect
- Support
- Integrate
- Adding value

Building on the codes and categorizations two main concerns emerge among the SAEC teachers regarding digital activities in SAEC, these can be described in terms of a tension between to keep away versus embrace digital activities.

Ethical Considerations

Throughout the whole research process, we have taken into consideration the ethical guidelines of social science research formulated by the Swedish Research Council (2017). Specifically, this means that we have informed all the participants about the overall aim of the research and asked for their consent and all participating teachers and schools are anonymized. In relation to the reflection conversations that were part of the larger action research project, continual ethical reflection has been of particular importance. As action research goes on for a long time, the consent to participate needs to be confirmed.

Results

The results are presented based on the identified "actions", avoid, protect, support, integrate, adding value and concluded by highlighting the tension between the participants' main concerns, to keep away versus embrace digital activities. The main concerns and related actions are presented separately from each other, but this is an analytical simplification to reach visibility and enable a discussion of the teachers' different approaches. The categories are more or less entangled in the teachers' reasoning and even if an individual teacher to a great extent describes one action, he or she can also describe other and conflicting actions.

To Keep Away from Digital Activities

The participants' main concern related to keep away from digital activities include the associated actions; avoid and protect. Consistently, the analyses considering the tension regarding this main concern will be presented in the following corresponding two subsections.

Avoid

One important aspect related to digital activities in SAEC that emerged was the teachers' preconceptions of the role digital tools play in society and within children's lives.

Some of the teachers talked about how the SAEC should be a sort of "sanctuary" where pupils are offered an expanded repertoire of activities and where digital activities should be avoided. The underlying idea is that children already encounter digital activities to a large extent and that SAEC should avoid further contributing to one-sided activities for pupils. Anna explains how her colleagues argue about giving pupils alternative activities:

> Many teachers think children should do pottery rather than playing computer games. That is a fact. But I think… when in world history have parents not had a hard time accepting their children's culture?
> (Interview)

Anna, critically, describes a notion where teachers are concerned about what kinds of activities children are supposed to engage in, what is "good" for them and what signifies proper activities for children. In this case, Annas colleagues promote learning activities related to practical references such as handicrafts and digital activities that are avoided by some teachers. It is also clear that it is difficult for teachers to agree on how to adapt to children's

culture or if digital technology is appropriate for SAEC activities. We can see similar arguing in other teachers talk about their thinking.

Digital tools are also described in terms of risk – digital activities are interpreted as not being very good for pupils. Instead of offering opportunities for digital activities, with the risk that pupils becoming sedentary, teachers argue that SAECs should become a place for movement and outdoor activities. Kim advocates this:

> I think the children of today spend too much time using computers. A whole net is open and there is no filter at all, everything is only one push of a button away. I think we at the SAEC have a mission, to show them other things. Like being outdoors, learning about nature and so on. Therefore, we do not use computers in our daily activities.
> (Reflection conversation)

Nature and outdoor activities thereby seem to be viewed as central for children, signifying a more "proper" environment for pupils, and as such become a symbol of a "good" childhood (cf. Halldén, 2009). The teachers also see themselves as having a mission to give children opportunities to do other things than using digital tools.

Protect

The avoidance of digital activities is also related to protection. Teachers argue that digital activities like surfing the net or engaging in social media are unsuitable activities for children. Their view is that there are various risks associated with for example using the internet, like online bullying or coming across paedophiles. Hence, to "keep away" digital technologies as computers from SAEC seems to be one approach. Nor is the use of mobile phones an option for this group of teachers. Kim goes on to describe the opinions among her colleagues when it comes to mobile phones:

> … a sensitivity barometer among my colleagues would suggest a complete ban. We have chosen not to allow mobile phones at the SAEC for various reasons: jealousy, equality for all and our decision that we are going to work with the technology we have…
> (Reflection conversation)

It seems like this teacher, tries to establish the opinion that most of the teachers understand digital technology as something which risks having several negative consequences for children in SAEC. To protect children from these negative consequences, digital activities and technologies are banned. Instead, they emphasize other values and activities in SAEC.

To Embrace Digital Activities

The participants' main concern to embrace digital activities include the identified actions; support, integrate and add value. Correspondingly, the analyses regarding this concern will be presented in three subsequent sections.

Support

Some of the teachers, pay attention to their supportive role and describe digital tools as characterizing our modern world, emphasizing the importance of giving children competence and knowledge to handle digital tools and ethical questions about the use of digital tools. Just as the teachers that describe an avoiding strategy and highlight that SAEC should provide

opportunities to other activities to complement the digital activities in children's lives, teachers who advocate a supportive strategy rather talk about how guidance is needed since digital activities already are happening in children's lives. Elsa expresses it as follows:

As a teacher you must know what the kids are doing on the web, you must follow them and give alternatives. (Reflection conversation)

This quotation can be interpreted as it being important for teachers to relate SAEC activities to digital media and to take into consideration the children's interests and their digitalized culture. At the same time, it is of importance to be active and show them alternatives during their activities online. SAEC should, hence, both utilize and support children's digital use.

Giving support is also related to possible risks and the teachers talk about how children must be given support to manage risk. In this, the teachers also struggle with their competence and uncertainty about whether they always have enough skills to support children's digital use. Karen explains:

I think the children are much more knowledgeable than we adults are because they have tried to push the buttons of a computer. And so I hope we are there and can help them if needed.
(Reflection conversation)

At the same time as children are viewed as competent digital users, this becomes a teaching problem since teachers might not always be able to support them properly. In Karen's statement, digital competence becomes both a strength to build on and an issue to be handled.

So, even when teachers seem positive towards using digital tools at SAECs, they also describe them as potentially problematic. Having digital skills as a teacher is largely about managing the dilemmas that can arise when using technology. The role of the teacher is to guide the pupils. Being able to do this, based on the interests of the pupils, probably requires teachers who are interested and present in the pupils' digital activities. As an example, the teachers at one SAEC described the characters in one of the computer games that the children played frequently as being very gender-stereotyped. To address this issue, the teachers created an avatar of their own and played the game with the children. The teachers' inside knowledge, in this case, created a good opportunity to discuss the activities within the games and gender issues.

Integrate

Some teachers emphasize that digital media brings value for pupils attending SAECs. These teachers see digital devices as tools for learning that offer enhanced options as communication tools, as searching tools, for Edu-gaming or collaborative learning. It is also highlighted, how the digital tools/activities are something that pupils need to gain knowledge about, now and for the future. The teachers emphasize that they have an important role to play in guiding and helping pupils in the digital world. They underline the importance of SAECs as a learning institution that should prepare pupils for the forthcoming need to use digital tools. It is also stressed that SAECs are an institution that might become especially qualified for this assignment, in this way, the digital activities are integrated into a SAEC approach. The teacher Martin says:

I think digital tools at the SAEC offer enormous opportunities to access things that few other institutions do. I'm thinking first and foremost about the socio-digital…

… and the possibility to teach children and pupils how to deal with the digital from a social perspective, and I almost think that we have exclusive rights, or the SAEC has such a unique opportunity to do it.
(Interview)

Here, the SAEC core assignment is underlined along with the opportunity to train pupils how to act and behave with social media and social digital networks. Martin has discovered that it might be possible to harness the social dynamics for learning agendas that are often keyed to adult social worlds and how the SAEC might have an exclusive opportunity for successful intervention in these socio-digital spaces that other institutions do not have.

Adding Value

There are also several other aspects highlighted by the teachers where they believe that digital tools add value for the pupils at the SAEC. They argue, for example, that digital media might offer time for relaxation and recovery for the pupils. One teacher, John, says:

I usually take an example of a pupil to explain how time with digital tools offers a space to relax. He comes around 7 am and has been at school the whole day. He has time for SAEC in the afternoon and a little bit in the morning, and when it's three o'clock he has time to sit down and play computer games for a short while. At that point, he has had eight hours of a social inferno.
As a teacher, I can understand that you may need to have time for gaming then and just take it easy because the activities we have at school and SAEC are all pumped up and we have few activities for those who need to recharge their energy.
(Reflection conversation)

As school days are long and intense, this teacher sees an opportunity for the pupil to relax and reenergize while gaming for a while, by himself. The teacher exemplifies this further by drawing a parallel to 'before' when the pupils did the same thing by reading comics. In this case, the fact that "digital tools offer a space to relax" contributes to the execution of one of SAEC's assignments, that pupils must be allowed to rest and recreation.

Another aspect that is considered to add value is that digital tools might help pupils who require special support. Karen exemplifies this by speaking about a boy who has difficulties with social relationships and connecting with other pupils, and who has severe difficulties taking part in playground games.

You know, we cannot get him involved in playing ordinarily, so now we have a more relaxed way where he can feel that he does not have to show us something all the time /…/
So, for this image of himself, he could do this digitally and that meant that other children also engaged in this and talked with him. It became a different kind of social interaction. He was very skilled at this, and it adds to his status in the group when he can talk about this.
(Reflection conversation)

In this case, the teachers have allowed the boy to stick to digital activities instead, to solve some of his social interaction problems. However, it seems that the teachers are conscious and concerned about this solution, as they explain why they have had to ignore the ordinary rules and they argue for the solution by pointing out the status the boy has now gained in the group.

As illustrated in the result section as a whole, some teachers at SAEC strive for engagement with digital activities and thus attempt to support, integrate, or see digital activities as adding value to the children, while other teachers put up resistance to the assignment aiming for digital competence. In the latter case, digital activities are avoided and SAEC should offer protection and alternatives to them.

Emerging Tensions: Consequences for the Digital Practices at the SAEC

This section allows us to understand how the teachers manage the stipulated assignment to include digital activities in SAEC, as well as how the teachers do not act independently from history and the inhabited norms of the SAECs (cf. Hallett & Ventresca, 2006). It became evident in the analyses, that pressure for change created tensions between different values related to digital activities at the SAEC. The teachers coped with the situation in different ways, with different actions. Even if not explicitly stated in the conversations, it became obvious that when teachers reflected on the subject of digital activities at SAEC, two main concerns emerged: to keep away from digital activities or to embrace digital activities. However, the identified main concerns do not arise in a vacuum but are linked to both traditions and the conditions at SAECs where policy plays one important part. Yet, the teachers' different concerns, their various actions and the emerging tensions are expected to affect both present and future prospects for digital activities at SAEC. According to the identified main concerns of SAEC teachers in this study, there are at least two different angles that can be distinguished to impinge the practice's possibilities, both conform to traditions and conditions at SAEC. For example, one explanation for teachers to engage in and provide digital activities for the pupils can be that he/she leans on the part of SAEC tradition that emphasises children's interests and their digital culture; another explanation can thus be the condition that one teacher has own digital competence, for example, based on own interest or continuing education.

In the same way, teachers who argue that digital activities should have little or no space in the SAEC can do so based on traditions in line with for example ideas of SAEC as a place for handicraft activities and outdoor time (cf. Halldén, 2009; Jansson, 2018) or based on other conditions as, for example, several participants highlight that there is a shortage of digital tools at SAEC. One of the teachers describes "at the SAEC there are only five tablets for more than 100 pupils". So, in this context, of importance is also to underline other circumstances that affect the work with digital activities at SAEC. In the interviews, the SAECs teachers highlighted a lack of competence to work with digital tools. Many of the teachers seemed to look upon themselves as lacking this competence related to their work as teachers, but they also reflected on the challenge of developing these skills. In the long run, it can be expected that matters like these will affect how SAEC teachers handle the pressure from policy to include digital activities or not.

Altogether, what the results show is how teachers' accounts of what is happening in SAECs practices are affected by inhabited values of the institution as well as the conditions for the practice including policy reforms asking for digitalization. It has been illustrated how the SAEC teachers' different actions associated with concerns around digital activities are established in various degrees somewhere between the antidotes "keep away" from digital activities and/or "embrace" them. Accordingly, the tensions do affect what kind of digital practices children can take part in at the SAECs. The consequences are that sometimes digital activities are possible, at other times (other SAECs) such activities become impossible. The effect of this is inequity, as some children are entitled to profit from digital environments, but others do not have this designated right highlighted in recent policy (e.g. Livingstone, 2016; UN, 2018; UN, 2021). Of course, this is not the case everywhere, which also is illustrated in this study.

Discussion

This study has focused on how SAEC teachers are increasingly expected to adopt recent educational policy reforms highlighting digital competence both as a requirement and a right for all children. What is illustrated is how learning environments including digital tools can be troublesome for teachers at the SAEC, an organization that is characterized by informal learning situations where children's perspectives are considered important at the same time anticipated is, according to government policies, that learning activities should include a variety of technology-based approaches for content delivery, goal-oriented learner support, and assessment.

Even though this study is limited, as it represents a few SAECs, it shows clearly how teachers are concerned how to deal with the expectations. Two main concerns are found emerging as a tension among the teachers regarding digital activities at SAEC. That is a tension related to the main concerns to keep away and/or embrace digital activities. The tension is constructed in an interplay among the identified actions to avoid, protect, support and integrate digital activities as well as their potential to add value. The analyses show how the main concerns are negotiated between the actors in SAEC (teachers and pupils), policy demands and values. Actions are directed to, for example, the teachers' individual beliefs such as what constitutes a 'good childhood', digital tools as potential risks for children, fear of the digital world, etcetera. Also, the inhabited values within the institution come into being in this negotiation, such as a desire to be "something else" for children or wanting to offer experiences that children do not get at home or in school. Similar, the conditions within the institution as (in)sufficient access to digital tools and digital competence among teachers matters in the bargaining. The intermingling relations, the tension within the SAEC institutions, affect teachers' possibilities to act and distribute digital activities. So, in these rather strained processes, SAEC teachers are recognized as actors who act in different ways towards new reforms and policymaking (Hallett & Ventresca, 2006). It is therefore suggested that the Swedish Digitalization Commission (2014) still might be right in their statement that many teachers are concerned about using digital tools: some teachers arrange digital activities and see potentials from these in their practice, but many are not really involved in or avoid digital activities, or even actively resist digital activities in their practice.

Irrespective of the reasons for the emerging tensions and regardless of arguments from teachers who are pro or anti-digital media, the tensions lead to an uneven distribution of learning activities with digital tools at SAECs. Consequently, the formal/informal education around digital activities that takes place at SAECs does not always offer opportunities for all pupils to be digitally empowered. This being the case, it is obvious that such disparities are creating genuinely unfair treatment of children's requirements and right to develop digital competence.

Pushes for educational improvement where more equity in this matter is important. Digital tools need probably to be more widely accessible and critically used at SAECs as they are a part of children's everyday life. Teaching at SAECs needs to give all pupils opportunities to discuss the potentials and risks of digital tools, to develop digital competence. Of course, it is difficult to achieve equity regarding the distribution of digital activities, but the occurring situation calls for educational awareness to ensure that the rights of also young children can be upheld in relation to their digital sphere in the worlds of today and tomorrow. Therefore, it is

essential to further address the relationship between digital media on the one hand and the question of policy reforms for institutional development of SAECs on the other. Further research is needed about intermingling relations and the teachers' main concerns according to digital activities. To achieve an equal and coherent approach to children's evident right to develop digital competencies a deeper understanding of this interplay, affecting the (im) possible practices of the SAEC to fulfil its assignment, is central.

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Promoting Commitment: The Influence of School Culture and Work-Related Emotional Variables on the Affective Commitment of Teachers at German All-Day Schools

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Abstract: A variety of reform and development efforts in the German educational system, especially the extension of the school day, going along with an increasing autonomy of individual schools and extending demands on teachers led to growing interest in business science concepts being applied in the field of school development research. A main emphasis lies in the commitment of teachers who are responsible for the implementation and the success of these reforms. The aim of this paper is to identify reasons that lead to a high level of commitment of the teaching staff with a focus on German all-day schools. The intended results will be obtained by a structural equation model based on the information provided by 649 primary all-day school teachers. In addition to the relationships with other actors in the school, which are summarised under the heading of school culture, variables relating to the personalities of the teachers can be identified as predictive.

Keywords: Teacher, Commitment, Leadership, School Culture, All-Day Schools

Introduction

Since the beginning of the 21st Century the expansion of German all-day schools has been promoted extensively, not least because of the disappointing results of international student assessments such as PIRLS, TIMSS and PISA (Baumert et al, 2001; Mullis, Martin, Gonzalez & Kennedy, 2003; OECD 2001, 2003). Traditionally, the school day in Germany ended between noon and 1 pm in primary and secondary schools. These schools are labelled as "half-day schools" in contrast to schools with an extended extracurricular program, which are called "all-day schools", which also cover the afternoon. (KMK – The Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany, 2002). According to public and educational policy discussions, the goals of implementing all-day school programs are very challenging, as the following list illustrates: improving subject-related competencies and key skills, promoting individual development by offering differentiated learning opportunities, qualified supervision to support families, providing a space for socialization to improve social integration and cultural orientation, extending the socio-cultural infrastructure and raising equity of education (Holtappels & Rollett, 2009). In 2002, only 16.3 percent of German schools were operating as all-day schools. By 2020, this percentage had risen to an impressive 71.5 percent (KMK, 2006, 2021). So, in every year of this period the percentage of all-day schools rose by 3.1 points on average. More than 19,000 of the schools in Germany today offer an all-day program to their students (own calculations based on the KMK 2021). This development was driven by a broad public

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discussion about how to improve the outcomes of the school system in Germany, a massive financial investment by the German government and the federal states of Germany, and a rising demand of families for day care for their children. The KMK distinguishes between three types of schools: 1) *Fully compulsory* all-day schools where all students have to take part in the all-day program for at least three days a week; 2) *partly compulsory* all-day schools in which students of certain grades or classes have to participate for at least three days a week; 3) *voluntarily* all-day schools where an all-day program is provided for at least for three days and students have the option to enrol. The most widely encountered type is the voluntarily model, especially for elementary schools. Due to a teacher shortage in general and the broader pedagogical functions for the extended extracurricular program, additional staff with pedagogical qualification conduct the all-day part of school life in most schools. Therefore, teachers' active involvement and participation in conducting the extracurricular programs vary a lot regarding the intensity and often results from personal interest and engagement.

Furthermore, the German school system has been coined by several procedural and developmental changes, which are complemented by an increasing degree of autonomy of the individual schools (cf. Rürup, 2007). These changes and the accompanying effects they have on teachers have not yet been subject to many studies (cf. van Ackeren, Klemm, & Kühn, 2015; Terhart, 2013).

Theoretical Framework

School reforms and its implementation are mostly driven by the teachers, which increases their workload and challenge their existing practices (Day & Smethem, 2009). Extending the school day leads to various changes concerning the whole organization of the individual school as well as teachers' professional responsibilities. Regarding German all-day school teachers face different changes in their work, such as being involved in the planning and organization of the all-day program or the extracurricular activities. The teachers have to cooperate not only with their teaching colleagues, but also with the additional pedagogical staff and partly actively engaging, for example, in the extended school program by conducting an extracurricular activity.

Looking at the development of the theoretical and empirical discourse, commitment, which has been adapted from work and organisational psychology (see Harazd et al. 2012; Felfe, & Six, 2006; Canrinus, Helms-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink, & Hofman, 2012; Webs, 2016; Abd Razak et al. 2010), gained attention and has become more relevant for the analyses when examining teachers. Commitment describes a personal and emotional bond between an individual and an organization (cf. van Dick, 2017), which is said to have a beneficial effect on the performance and motivation of teachers (cf. van Dick, 2004; Gautam, Van Dick, & Wagner, 2004). Thus, the construct becomes one of the decisive variables regarding participation in, acceptance of and internalisation of school development processes and their results. The relevance of commitment can be emphasized especially with regards to the school system, since there are no possibilities to set incentives for the school management and since teachers, due to their semi-professional position, only have rudimentary contact with the organization as a whole and rather act as individual workers (cf. Rolff, 2012; Blutner, 2004). Commitment

to their school becomes even more important for teachers when facing fundamental changes as the extended school day and therefore new challenges as well as modified work content and environment, due to their key role in realizing educational changes successfully (Van der Heijden, Geldens, Beijaard, & Popeijus, 2015). The aim of this contribution is to analyse how school leadership, school culture and personal variables influence the commitment of teachers and examine differences in causal relationships between teachers who actively participate in all-day schools and those who do not (Figure 1). For this purpose, data from the StEG-study (study on the development of all-day schools), which deals with the development of German all-day schools, will be used.

Teachers Affective Commitment as Decisive Factor

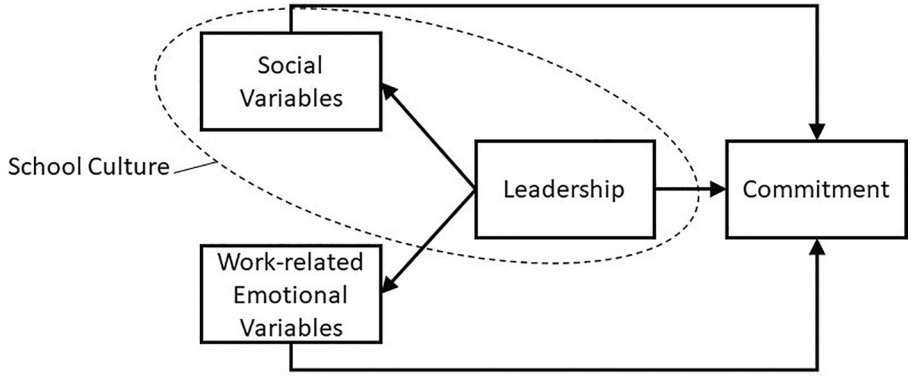
Teachers face numerous challenges in their daily work and are confronted with permanent potential stress situations, e. g., due to the large number of pupils in a single class and public pressure on their performance (cf. Day, & Gu, 2010). In addition, school development efforts have a significant impact on their daily work and force them to change their usual practice (cf. Park 2005; Jo, 2014). Especially for the German school system, the poor performance in international comparative studies is decisive for these development processes. Therefore, changes are oriented towards increasing the performance of the pupils and consequently the work output of the teachers. In the German school system, the large-scale implementation of all-day schooling is a prime example of these reform efforts. The teachers thus become a dependent variable in school development processes (Heinrich, & Altrichter, 2008, p. 206). A crucial factor for the success of these school development processes, however, is the acceptance of the teachers and the adoption of the innovations in their everyday work. This is particularly important because the successful implementation of reforms often requires additional work from teachers (cf. Mitchel, & Sackney, 2011). Due to the development of the individual school as an organizational unit, there are many variations in the implementation of the innovations. At the same time, individual school variables come into the focus of the accompanying research, which then often refers to variables that originate from business management research. One concept that stands out is the commitment, which describes the identification of individuals with a specific organization.

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), the concept of commitment can basically be broken down into three sub-aspects: Individuals with a high *affective commitment* take emotional aspects into account and build a personal bond with the organization. The *normative commitment*, on the other hand, is based on moral-ethical feelings and is justified by an alleged obligation to the organisation in return for an education, or similar. The concept of *continuation-related commitment* describes purely rational motives which lead to individuals remaining in the organization. These include a lack of alternatives on the one hand and costs that would be associated with leaving the organization on the other hand (van Dick, 2017, n.n.). In the context of this work, the conceptual focus lies within the *affective commitment.* The partial aspects of *normative* and *continuance-related commitment* are not considered, since German teachers do not tend to switch schools once they are hired, which is mainly due to their civil servant status. Furthermore, a normative justification does not apply due to the bureaucratic equality of the individual schools and a formula-contractual employment with the state (cf. Blutner, 2004, Rolff, 2012).

The (emotional) bond that teachers with a high affective commitment build with their school goes far beyond basic membership. They "may have strong psychological ties to their school, their students or their subject matter" (Somech, & Bogler, 2002, p. 556). In a further step the current research discourse differentiates between organizational and professional commitment. While teachers with a high level of professional commitment direct their commitment towards the practice of teaching and the content of the subject, organizational commitment is based on an emotional attachment to the school as a whole (cf. Mowday, Seers, & Porter, 1979; Weick, & McDaniel, 1989). In this context, it is crucial how the organisation manifests itself in the teachers' perceptions. The morning and all-day areas of the German school system are often subject to differentiated considerations and differ regarding the tasks and intensity of certain relationships of the teachers (cf. Rothland, & Biederbeck). This results in the possibility that teachers who are actively involved in the all-day sector and teachers who are not differ in their conception of the school as an organization. Thus, they would build their commitment to differently perceived images of the organisations. Not least for this reason, the focus of this paper is on organisational commitment. This form of affective commitment is associated with a variety of positive effects, for example, on the cooperation in and acceptance of reforms or on the work performance and motivation of teachers in general (see Geisjel, Sleegers, Leitwood, & Jantzi, 2003; Day, 2008; Park, 2005).

While there is a large consensus of research on the relevance of teacher commitment, recent studies have focused on the identification of important conditions for the emergence and persistence of teacher commitment. Variables that have a potential influence on teachers' commitment can be separated into two groups. First, there are variables that concern the personality of individual teachers. These include, above all, psychological variables that affect the daily work routine: for example, stress, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction (see Bogler, & Nir, 2015). On the other hand, the working environment, and thus especially the culture of the school, plays a decisive role (see Belias, & Koustelios, 2014; Huang, & Waxman, 2009). While previous studies have focused on individual aspects, the analyses in this paper will apply a broader approach, including personality-specific variables as well as aspects of school culture and hence the relationship between different members of the individual school.

Figure 1. Visualization of theoretical causal relationships.



Special interest is given to school leadership. Particularly because of the increased autonomy of the individual school, school leadership is given an important role. Numerous studies

attribute to it a decisive function for the climate within the teaching staff and also underline the important role of school leadership for emotionally affective variables of the individual teachers and direct effects on teacher commitment (see Dou, Devos, & Valcke, 2017; Hulpia, Devos, & Rosseel, 2009). In the following sections, the related variables are presented in a theoretical context and their relevance is explained. Then, the analytical concern is contextualised in the current state of research.

Work-Related Emotional Variables: Self-Efficacy, Stress, Job Satisfaction and Enthusiasm

The everyday working life of teachers is characterized by many different competence requirements (cf. Rothland, & Terhardt, 2007), which can potentially lead to individual perceived stress (cf. van Dick, & Stegmann, 2007; Klassen, & Chiu, 2010).

As van Dick and Stegmann (2007) point out, a distinction can be made between objective and subjective stress: Objective stress is first and foremost everything that affects the teacher in the form of working tasks and working conditions. "Through the process of reflection objective stress can be transformed into the subjective stress" (cf. van Dick, & Stegmann, 2007, p. 35, translated). The process of reflection depends on individual competences and sensibilities of each teacher. The ability to successfully deal with stressful life circumstances is referred to as resilience, which is defined as a dynamic process of adaptation and development (cf. Wustmann, 2004). Resilient individuals can personally develop by handling stressful situations successfully (cf. Welter-Enderlin, 2006) and are often characterized by high expectations of self-efficacy. According to Abele (2011), self-efficacy expectations are assumptions about whether and to what extent one's own abilities and motivation are sufficient to cope with upcoming tasks (Abele, 2001, p. 678). "Positive expectations and a positive self-concept can moderate the process of stress processing through evaluative, emotional, physiological and behavioural reactions" (cf. Schwarzer, & Jerusalem, 2002, p.29, translated). This leads to the assumption that teachers with high self-efficacy are significantly less likely to be affected by stress symptoms than colleagues who have low self-efficacy.

Both previously described constructs are theoretically and empirically strongly related to job satisfaction, which "is the emotional state resulting from perceiving one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfilment of one's job values" (Dou, Devos, & Valcke, 2017, p.963). According to Felfe and Six (2006) "the central facets include the work activity itself, working conditions, leadership, salary, etc." (cf. Felfe, & Six, 2006, p.40, translated).

As a further personality-specific variable, the enthusiasm of teachers will be considered in this paper. According to Kunter, Frenzel, Nagy, Baumert and Pekrun (2011), enthusiasm is an affective construct that can be assigned to the domain of positive emotions and intrinsic motivation. Enthusiasm describes affective, person-related characteristics that reflect the excitement, fun and pleasure of the individual teacher and manifests itself in certain behaviors (cf. Kunter, Frenzel, Nagy, Baumert, & Pekrun 2011). This enthusiastic behavior behalf of teachers can, for example, be oriented towards the activity of teaching or the content of a specific subject (cf. Kranich, 2019). In the context of this paper, the enthusiasm towards the all-day sector and the accompanying new activities – concerning the new organizational type of the school – that intervene in the teachers' everyday work is discussed.

School Culture

As previously demonstrated in numerous papers, no universal definition of school culture can be found in the current research discourse. This can, among other things, be attributed to the large number of terms and constructs included (see Helsper, 2008; Fuchs, 2009; Holtappels, 1995). Therefore, Luhmann (1995) describes the term culture as a "bad term" that lacks the conciseness required for scientific terms (cf. Luhmann, 1995). It is important to generate such conciseness in light of the concern of this paper.

Holtappels (1995) understands school culture as "the content orientation, quality and organization of the pedagogical resources of each school" (cf. Holtappels, 1995, p.11, translated). In the 2003 German Education Report, school culture is referred to as "the sub-institutional structure of a school, which is next to official objectives and manifests itself in the regularity of thought, feelings and actions in social processes" (cf. Bildungsbericht, 2003, p.135, translated). Helsper (2000) describes school culture as "symbolic, sense-structured orders of individual schools, which are shaped by the school actors and their confrontation with external structural specifications" (Helsper, 2000, p.35, translated). As the greatest commonality of the various interpretations, Fuchs (2009) with reference to Helsper (2008), focuses on communication and activities. One example specifically refers to the actions of the individuals who are "involved in school significantly and the interaction with others, as well as the normative, culturally-theoretically framed determination of these actions and inter-actions through shared values, (unwritten) rules etc." (Fuchs, 2009, p.371, translated). The results of this paper will be interpreted accordingly. As Rolff (2012) points out, the key players in schools include "teachers (other pedagogical staff, especially in all-day schools), school administrators (in combination with authorities) and pupils (in combination with their parents)" (Rolff, 2012, p.1009, translated). Little attention has been paid to the latter group in the context of the organizational view of the school, as they are often not considered members of the organization. Thus, popular statements regarding school culture – as Bennewitz, Breidenstein and Meier (2015) point out – only refer to professional school actors and focus on pedagogical action (cf. Bennewitz et al., 2015). In the context of the present study, students should also be considered regarding interaction mechanisms in schools. Starting with the school leadership, the relationship of the teachers to the other actors in the school is theoretically substantiated.

School Leadership

Observing school leadership in an empirical context is a more recent field of research. Its origins can be traced back to work and organizational research (see Burns, 1978, Bass, 1985, Felfe, 2006). Due to the increasing autonomy of individual schools, school administrators are taking on the role of managers in the sense of labour science more and more. Thus, they gain importance in empirical educational research. According to Leithwood, Harris and Hopkins (2008) "leadership acts as a catalyst without which other good things are quite unlikely to happen" (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008, p.2).

In recent years, the model of transformational leadership has emerged from many theoretical frameworks on leadership behavior of school leaders. This is mainly due to the focus on the methods teachers improve their work and enhance student performance. (cf. Stewart, 2006). This concept is based on the work of Burns (1978). "The transforming leader looks for

potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs and engages the full person of the follower" (Burns, 1978, p.4). Firstly, Bass and Avolio took up this basic definition of successful leaders (Bass, & Avolio, 1988; Bass, 1998). Later numerous authors adapted it to the field of empirical school development research. Accordingly, charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized care are attributed to successful school leadership. Transformational school administrators succeed when they act as identification figures for the teachers by conveying visions and establishing common goals in participation with the teachers. However, they do not remain in established patterns of thought they rather are open to innovation and encourage their staff to show effort in this respect. These school leaders know how to bring together the entire teaching staff in a motivating manner as well as how to respond to the needs of their individual employees to emphasize and be appreciative of their performance (cf. Wunderer, 2006; Neuberger, 2002; Schmerbauch, 2017; Leithwood et al., 2008; Stewart, 2006). According to Brauckmann and Eder (2019), the school leader acts as a role model by representing the common values and creating a high degree of transparency. Thus, stimulating the employee's commitment to the organization (cf. Brauckmann, & Eder, 2019). Based on theoretical findings, it is possible to assume, with respect to later analyses, that leadership action has a wide range of effects on a variety of quality dimensions of the school.

Social Variables: Collegial Cohesion, Teacher-Pupil Relationship and School Climate

As has been shown, the school culture is based, among other things, on the interactions of the members and the values lived in the organization. These relationships contribute significantly to the school environment and thus influence the teachers' affective organizational commitment. Therefore, specific constructs of perceived quality dimensions of these relationships should be considered as well.

The first thing to look at in this regard is the relationship between the teachers. A strong collegial cohesion, which in the field of economics is often referred to as a positive working atmosphere (cf. Dziarnowski, & Schütze, 2007), functions not only as an indicator of agreement on company issues but also presents itself in the shown mutual respect, the willingness to trust others, come to agreements, reflection on one's own role and a fundamental willingness to discuss and compromise on crucial issues (cf. Huber, & Ahlgrimm, 2008). Looking back on the remarks on stress of individual teachers, conflicts, and disagreements as well as an associated poor climate within the teaching staff can also be a cause of the emergence of symptoms of stress. There is a well-founded assumption that "a collective (such as a teaching staff) will also be more successful in overcoming challenges if it is supra-individually conceived of the group's ability to act" (Schwarzer, & Jerusalem, 1999, p.85, translated).

In addition to contact to other colleagues, teachers interact with pupils during their everyday work, who are also members of the school (cf. Rolff, 2012). Since a large part of the teachers' professional activity consists of teaching, the contact with pupils is much more extensive. During school hours, teachers are exposed to permanent evaluation processes by the pupils, which can have an impact on the teacher's well-being (Tacke, 2004). Since pupils generate a large part of the organization, the teacher's relationship to them should be integrated into the analyses as a relevant construct to determine commitment. We assume that

this aspect becomes even more relevant for teachers who are actively involved in all-day activities, since their relationship with pupils goes beyond normal teaching contact.

The involvement of all other relevant groups is summarized under the term school climate. As Jäger (2012) notes under reception of Halbheer und Kunz (2011), there is no clear definition of the term school climate. Rather, "the demarcations of the different terms seem diffuse" (Jäger, 2012, p.66, translated). According to Bessoth and Weidel (2003), the school climate can be regarded as part of the school's culture, which is used as a framing construct in the course of this work. Thus, school climate can be described as "culture in practice" (cf. Bessoth, & Weidel, 2003). In the context of this paper, the construct of the school climate is compressed of a basic subjective evaluation of the interaction and behavior of the following members of the organization: teachers, pupils, and parents. Thus, the relationship structure among teachers and the relationship between teachers and their students, which was investigated during collegial cohesion and teacher-pupil relationship, is supplemented by the parents' involvement.

In summary, it must always be considered, that these constructs capture a subjective perception of cultural aspects which does not necessarily correspond to real conditions (cf. Fend, 1998). Since the commitment refers to individual assessments as well, there are no further concerns.

State of Research

Harazd, Gieske and Gerick (2012) have already dealt with the adaptation of the concept of commitment from the private sector to the field of school development research. During their analyzes Harazd, Gieske and Gerick (2012) examine the question which factors influence the affective commitment of teachers and find effects for several thematically relevant constructs. In addition to the spatial configuration, significant influences can be calculated especially for aspects of the leadership action of the school administration (transformational leadership/ participation). Furthermore, the theoretically derived relevance of the working climate could be statistically confirmed. Although the above-mentioned findings were collected within the framework of a cross-sectional analyzes, the authors were able to present plausible causal effects. Regarding the research objective of this paper, the results obtained can be verified in a longitudinal modelling.

Jo (2014) also looks at the influence of relationships with colleagues, school leaders and pupils on teachers' commitment. He uses positive emotions of teachers (e. g., enthusiasm or pride) as mediators. The study reveals direct positive effects of relationships with colleagues and school leadership on teachers' commitment. Indirect effects via the positive emotions are found for the relationship with the students and the school leadership. Yang, Badri, Al Rashedi and Almazroui (2019) also report direct effects of relationships with colleagues and school leadership. Meredith et al. (2022) confirm the significant influence of collaboration with colleagues on teachers' commitment.

Felfe and Six (2006) focus their research on the private sector and deal with the constructs of job satisfaction and commitment. Since they only have cross-sectional data, no conclusive statement can be made about the relationship between the two constructs, so a correlate is

assumed. The longitudinal research design of the present study opens the possibility to take a closer look at the underlying causality. Felfe, Schmook and Six (2006) cite work climate and the concept of transformational leadership as additional factors relevant to expressing job satisfaction and commitment. They refer to several meta studies (see Felfe, Schmook, & Six, 2006). In the school context, the significant influence of job satisfaction on affective commitment can be supported by the findings of Tanriverdi (2008).

The influence of self-efficacy and job satisfaction on teachers' commitment is the topic of Canrinus' et al. (2012) study. The researchers can reveal a direct significant effect of self-efficacy on affective commitment and model mediation through job satisfaction, which was illustrated by two subscales. Thus, the theoretically assumed influence of the teachers' work-related emotional variables on affective commitment can be substantiated.

Collie, Shapka and Perry (2011) look at the influence of cultural aspects on teacher commitment using a data basis comprised of 664 teachers employed from kindergarten to grade 12. Like the data base used in this paper, which will be presented in more detail later, a large proportion of the participants (80 %) are female. The authors find a dominant effect for student relations that is significantly higher than the influence of cooperation between teachers. As has been mentioned in the theoretical paragraphs the students as members of organizations will also be considered in this study. The findings of Collie, Shapka and Perry (2011) support this aim.

As has been pointed out, there is already some research on commitment that relates the construct to relevant factors. In many cases, however, these are only based on cross-sectional data or only a selection of independent variables was used. The aim of this work is to link teachers' commitment to all theoretically and empirically relevant factors to look at several paths of influence. Furthermore, longitudinal data are available for this purpose.

Hypotheses

Based on the previous explanations, the main goal of the work is to explain the development of teachers' affective commitment and thus their emotional attachment to the school organization with particular focus on their active involvement in the extended school day. Are personal factors, school cultural conditions and the actions of the school management decisive for the manifestation of affective commitment?

1. The affective commitment of teachers to their school is influenced by the work-related emotions. (H 1)
2. The strength of commitment is determined by school culture factors, which relate to
   2.1 the teaching staff and the interaction with students and their parents. (H 2.1)
   2.2 the leadership of the school administration. (H 2.2)
3. The leadership of the school management has an indirect effect on the affective commitment of the teachers, mainly due to other aspects of the school culture. (H 3)

As already mentioned in the theoretical part, the tasks, activities, processes, and interactions of teachers in the all-day sector differ clearly from those in the forenoon sector (cf. Rothland, & Biederbeck, 2020). Theoretical considerations suggest that the image of the school as an

organization also differs between these two groups. Since commitment is built on individual perceptions of an organization, we explore this hypothesis by analyzing both groups separately.

4. Regarding the interplay of individual mechanisms of action, differences in the effects can be identified between teachers who are actively involved in all-day activities and those who are not. (H 4)

Methodology

To verify the hypotheses presented, a structural equation model will be applied. This model is based on the information provided by teachers who were surveyed in the second project phase of the study on the development of all-day schools (StEG).

Sample

The basis for the following analysis consists of data from the longitudinal study 'StEG-P' (Study on the development of all-day schools – Quality of extracurricular activities and individual effects in all-day primary schools[1]), which was collected at four different measuring points throughout the years of 2012 and 2015 (Lossen, Tillmann, Holtappels, Rollett, & Hannemann, 2016; Rollett, Lossen, Holtappels, & Tillmann, 2020). All schools included in this study were German all-day primary schools. The aim of StEG-P was to evaluate the effects of participation in three forms of extracurricular activities (reading, natural science and social learning) in well-established all-day schools. The schools were picked from a representative German school monitoring survey for all-day schools in 2012 (StEG-consortium, 2013). A full survey of all teachers was conducted at the second and the fourth measurement point. The Commitment of teachers was taken from the fourth measurement point to ensure the causality of the effects. Overall, data from 842 teachers was collected. Of these, 288 say they are actively involved in the all-day sector and 361 teachers report that they are not. Since the resulting groups are part of the planned analyses, the new sample size for the calculations is 649. The average age of the teachers in this sample is 43 years. About 90 % of the subjects are female.

Instruments

To be able to classify the teachers' commitment in a multi-layered context of effects, several constructs are used in the analysis. On the one hand, the personal work-related emotions of the teachers can be considered. On the other hand, the perceived quality of the school culture is included. The constructs used can be taken from the following table. All items were measured by a four-point Likert scale.

1 This research was funded by the German Federal Ministry on Education and Research. The authors are responsible for the content of this article.

Table 1. Overview scales

Scale (items)	Example item	M (SD)	Cronb. α	Source
Commitment (6)	*I believe that my values and those of my school are very similar.*	2.327 (.595)	.907	PERLE
Job satisfaction (6)	*I am satisfied with my job as a teacher.*	2.409 (.456)	.750	TIMMS/ IGLU (2011)
Collegial cohesion (7)	*There is a good community spirit in our school.*	2.229 (.508)	.869	StEG I
School climate (7)	*Parental involvement in school activities.*	1.834 (.443)	.841	TIMMS/ IGLU (2011)
Self-efficacy (6)	*I can also get in good contact with problematic students if I make an effort.*	2.072 (.381)	.689	StEG I
Stress (6)	*Besides my professional activities, I still have enough time for family and hobbies.*	1.403 (.611)	.868	StEG I
Enthusiasm for all-day schools (4)	*I find the work in all-day schools exciting and try to convey this to the students.*	1.946 (.676)	.851	COACTIV
Teacher/Student relationship (5)	*Most teachers are interested in what the students have to say.*	2.597 (.370)	.792	StEG I
G-factor leadership competence of the school management				
Management competence (5)	*The school management of our school sets a good example for the teachers in their commitment.*	2.450 (.485)	.819	StEG I
Moderation and participation competence (9)	*The school management of our school has a lot of empathy for the problems of the staff.*	1.946 (.676)	.899	StEG I

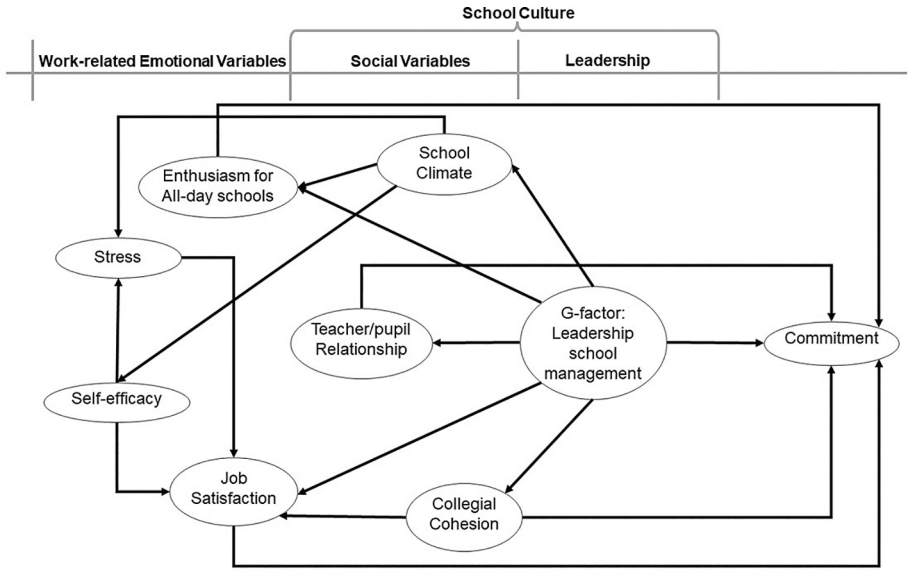
StEG-P (N=842): 1=not applicable at all; 2=rather not applicable; 3=rather applicable; 4=fully applicable.

Conceptional Framework

Regarding the theoretical foundation and the reception of the empirical findings, numerous patterns of impact are assumed. These are visualized in the following diagram. By modelling several regressions within the structural equation model, it is possible to report indirect effects. Due to the high correlation and content-based similarities the leadership competence of the school management was modelled as a g-factor. Concerning the theoretical foundation, the commitment can be described as a very invariable construct. Hence, no initial position was included in the model.

The fundamental goal of the analyses, explaining teachers' commitment, is to place this construct in a far-reaching causal context. In addition, there is a great deal of research interest

Figure 2. Visualization of the analytical framework.



in distinguishing teachers who are actively involved in all-day school activities and their counterparts. For this purpose, a grouped structural equation model was computed, which outputs group-specific regression coefficients for the variables used. For the realization, the statistics program R, and the implemented package Lavaan from Rosseel (2012) were used. Regarding the grouping of the structural equation model, the measurement invariance was checked using chi² difference tests and the criterion Δ *CFI* < .01 (cf. Cheung, & Rensvold, 2002). Based on the results, strict measurement invariance can be assumed, so that factor loadings, intercepts and residuals were set equal between the groups.

Since certain groups of teachers can be classified according to their school affiliation, a complex sample was declared in the calculations, so robust standard errors were estimated. All relevant constructs were modelled latently. School leadership competence was originally mapped in the StEG scale manual in the form of two individual factors – moderation and participation competence and management competence. Due to their high correlation, a g-factor – leadership competence of school management – was used during this model. All reported effects are standardized values. Missing values were estimated using FIML (Full Information Maximum Likelihood), resulting in a total group-specific number of subjects of 361 (no all-day involvement) and 288 (all-day involvement). In view of the large number of constructs used, satisfactory fit values were achieved with *RMSEA* = .038, *CFI* = .913 and *TLI* = .905 (cf. Kline, 2016; Bentler, & Bonnet, 1980; Hair et al., 2010).

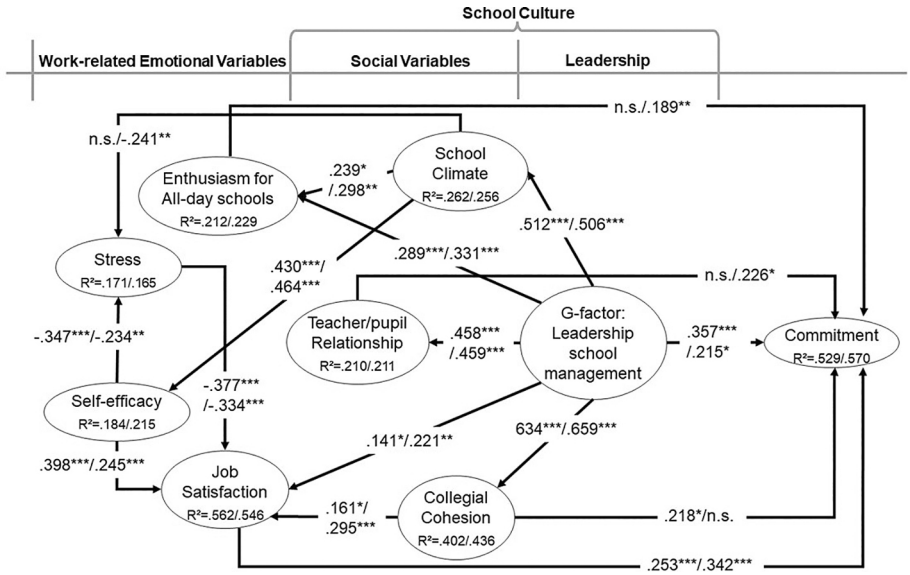
Results

With a first look at the results, a high level of variance explanation for commitment can be reported overall (R^2 = .529/.570). For the joint presentation of the individual effects of the two

groups, equivalent to the graphical representations, the following format is used: (ß group 1 / ß group 2).

A significant influence for the work-related emotional variables (H1) on teachers' commitment is found only for enthusiasm for all-day schooling (β = n.s./.189, p < .01) and job satisfaction (ß = .253, p < .001/.342, p < .001). However, job satisfaction is influenced by the other work-related emotional variables of self-efficacy (β = .398, p < .001/.245, p < .001) and strain (β = -.377, p < .001/-.334, p < .001).

Figure 3. Visualisation of the analysis results



StEG-P (N=649): Group 1 (N=361) = no all-day involvement; Group 2 (N=288) = all-day involvement; (Group 1/ Group 2); * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001 RMSEA=.038; CFI=.913; TLI=.903.

When school culture variables (H2.1) are examined, significant effects can be reported for collegial cohesion (β = .218, p < .05/n.s.) and for relationships with students (β = n.s./.226, p < .05) depending on the group. In contrast, no statistically significant effect can be found for school climate. Because school climate has a significant effect on enthusiasm (β = .239, p < .05/.298, p < .05) and self-efficacy (β = .430, p < .001/.464, p < .001), and collegial cohesion has a positive effect on job satisfaction (β = .161, p < .05/.295, p < .001), indirect effects can be assumed for both constructs. Looking at school leadership (H2.2) behavior (β = .357, p < .001/ .251, p < .05), significant effects on teachers' affective commitment can again be identified for both groups.

For school leadership behavior, multiple influences on other variables of the model are also identified (H3). In this way, school leaders can influence collegial cohesion (β = .634, p < .001/.659, p < .001), job satisfaction (β = .141, p < .05/.221, p < .01, teachers' relationship with their students (β = .458, p < .001/.459, p < .001), teachers' enthusiasm for all-day

schooling (β = .289, p < .001/.331, p < .001), and school climate (β = .512, p < .001/.506, p < .001) positively.

Table 2. Overview direct and indirect effects

Causal relationship	*Effect direct*		*Effect total*	
	Group 1	**Group 2**	**Group 1**	**Group 2**
Leadership competence Commitment	.357***	.215***	.531***	.458***
Collegial cohesion Commitment	.218*	n.s.	.259*	n.s.
Job satisfaction Commitment	.253***	.342***	.253***	.342***
Student/Teacher Relationship Commitment	n.s.	.226*	n.s.	.226*
School climate Commitment	-	-	-	.123**
Enth. for all-day schooling Commitment		.189**	-	.189**
Stress Commitment			.095**	,080**
Self-efficacy Commitment	-	-	.114**	.111**
R²			*.529***	*570****

StEG-P (N=649): Group 1 (N=361) = no all-day involvement; Group 2 (N=288) = all-day involvement; * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001.

Due to the various causal relationships, indirect effects could be calculated for some constructs in the structural equation model. These and all direct effects on commitment are listed in the table below.

Discussion and Conclusions

During the analyses, it is possible to explain a large part of the variation in the commitment of teachers. In the first hypothesis (H1), a positive influence of work-related emotional variables on teachers' affective commitment was assumed. These variables include the constructs of self-efficacy, stress, job satisfaction, and enthusiasm for the all-day program. Statistically relevant direct influences on affective commitment can only be obtained for job satisfaction for both groups, with and without active involvement in the extended school program, whereby the enthusiasm for the all-day schooling only influences commitment for the second group. Self-efficacy and stress could be identified as predictive variables for job satisfaction, which means they have an indirect effect on affective commitment. The first hypothesis (H1) can thus be confirmed. Work-related emotional variables make an important contribution to teachers' affective commitment. These results correspond with the findings of Felfe, Schmook, and Six (2006), Tanriverdi (2008) and Canrinus et al. (2012), which were reported in the review of the research. The analyses in this paper succeed in further describing the impact processes underneath the work-related emotional variables. The joint influence of self-efficacy and stress on job satisfaction has already been assumed with reference to the concept of resilience in the theoretical part. As described, the perception of stress and one's own self-efficacy is a very subjective process, which is why it can be concluded that job satisfaction is

largely based on individual personal characteristics and the ability to cope with everyday work as a teacher. This process can be continued through the indirect and direct effects on the commitment of the teachers. The ability to deal with demanding work situations becomes particularly relevant when looking at the implementation of the all-day. The multitude of new tasks, work processes, new employees and goals fundamentally change the everyday work of teachers and lead to unfamiliar demanding situations, which can result in new and greater stress. It is therefore crucial to support teachers during this challenging period of reform by increasing their confidence in their abilities and minimizing their workload as much as possible. Important components in this goal are school cultural factors, which are focused in the second hypothesis (H2).

Important variables of the school culture are the relationships with colleagues, students, and parents. These are addressed in the first sub-hypothesis (H2.1). No direct effect on affective commitment can be found for school climate. Rather, this construct functions as a factor for the work-related emotional variables self-efficacy and enthusiasm for the all-day area. For at least one of the examined groups, the relationship to colleagues and to students has a statistically relevant influence on the teachers' affective commitment. Similar results have been also reported by Jo (2014), Yang, Badri, Al Rashedi, and Almazroui (2019), and Meredith et al. (2022). Good relationships with other actors in the school provide support and security during processes of change. In addition, according to the concept of affective organizational commitment, the members of an organization are also counted as part of the overall perception of this organization, to which the individually specific commitment is established. This could also be a reason why no significant influence on teachers' commitment was found for the school climate. This construct focuses particularly on parents, who have only a very rudimentary impact on teachers' daily work and are therefore not considered to be members of the organization. Following these findings, this hypothesis (H2.1) can only be partially confirmed.

Having already addressed the relationship with much of the school's staff, the second sub-hypothesis (H2.2) is devoted to the teachers' relationship with school leadership. Not only because of the reform processes in the German school system described above, which have led to increasing autonomy for individual schools, school management is given a special role in the everyday school life of teachers. Rolff (2013), for example, refers to school management as the "engine" of school development, and Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins (2008) also emphasize the special role of school management in innovation processes, such as the implementation of all-day schooling in Germany. This high relevance can also be confirmed during the analyses of this paper, whereby in the sense of hypothesis 2.2, the direct influence of school leadership on the affective commitment of the teachers is the first point of focus. For all teachers during the analyses, a statistically significant influence of school leadership behavior on their affective commitment was identified. Hence, hypothesis 2.2 can be confirmed. The results validate the reported findings of Harazd, Gieske, and Gerick (2012), Jo (2014), Felfe, Schmook, and Six (2006), and Yang, Badri, Al Rashedi, and Almazroui (2019). In their executive function, school leaders are representative of the goals and values of the individual school as an organization. With their actions, they act as role models for the teaching staff and generate visions for school development processes according to the concept of transformational leadership. In this way, they strongly influence the teachers' perception of the school, so that school leaders have a decisive influence on the teachers' affective commitment. This is particularly important in times of radical change, such as the introduction of

all-day schooling in Germany, as school leaders can channel reform processes, specify possible changes, and prevent uncertainty among teachers through clear communication.

In addition to this direct effect, the third hypothesis (H3) used previous evidence to examine an extensive effect of school leadership behavior on a variety of variables and therefore can be confirmed. During analysis, school leadership behavior emerges as a nodal point. In addition to direct influences on collegial cohesion, relationships with students, and school climate, school leadership also exerts a decisive influence on teachers' job satisfaction and enthusiasm for all-day schooling. While much of this evidence is consistent with previous findings on school leadership (see e. g., Harazd, Gieske, & Gerick, 2012) and the associated theory and therefore highlight its important role, the influence on teachers' enthusiasm for all-day schooling is particularly noteworthy considering extended education research. This effect explicitly shows that the school leadership can successfully build visions for positive reforms and to promote the enthusiasm of the teachers in this regard. Since teachers have to make a decisive contribution to the implementation of all-day schooling in the German school system, their enthusiasm for the accompanying goals and processes is of particular importance. Hence, school leaders advance to become key figures in the implementation of reform efforts, and their performance makes a decisive contribution to teachers' affective commitment via a variety of positive influences, which is illustrated by the extensive overall effect (see Table 2) and was already assumed by the theoretical explanations.

During the discussion of hypotheses one to three, differences were already mentioned between teachers who actively participate in all-day activities and those who do not. These differences are the concern of the fourth hypothesis (H4). So far, there are no robust results on possible differences between these two groups, which is why no previous findings can be drawn upon. Theoretical contributions, however, discuss teaching in the all-day sector as "a new profession" (cf. Wunder, 2008) since numerous new activities and relationship structures significantly change the everyday work of teachers. For example, first qualitative studies indicate an intensification of the teachers' relationship to their students (cf. Rehm, 2018). Other studies emphasize the increasing pedagogical activities in the German all-day sector. Combining these findings with the descriptions of affective organizational commitment it can be suggested that there are different factors for the two groups which are relevant for the development of an emotional bond with their school. With our analyses, we can confirm this assumption and find crucial differences between the two groups of teachers, especially regarding their relationships with other school members. For the teachers actively involved in the extended education program (group 2), the relationship to the students has a significant effect on the commitment, which is not the case for the other group of teachers. In contrast, for the group of teachers not actively involved in the extended education program (group 1), the relationship with teaching colleagues is a significant factor for commitment, which again does not apply to the second group. The emotional bond that is generated when building affective commitment to a particular organization always relates to the specific characteristics of that individual organization. These specific characteristics include, on the one hand, cultural conditions within the organization and thus the relationships among its members and their behavior toward one another. On the other hand, structures, typical processes, and the goals of the organization play a decisive role. Regarding all-day schools in Germany, it can be stated that for teachers the extended education sector differs from the conventional forenoon sector by different tasks and work activities, more intensive and informal relationships with their students and different goals. Although this is a very rough differentiation, it leads to the

assumption that teachers who are involved in the all-day program and those who are not differ in their conception of the school in which they work. In the case of teachers who are only active in the forenoon area, the conception of the school to which they build up a commitment is limited to this conventional forenoon area of the school. The teachers who are also active in the all-day area, on the other hand, expand their idea of the school to include the processes and activities of the all-day area. This leads to the assumption that they build up their affective commitment to a different perception of the school as an organization.

Finally, the significant influence of enthusiasm for the all-day program can only be reported for the second group of teachers. This finding may seem obvious at first. However, it must be noted that teachers' participation in the German all-day program is not always voluntary. Therefore, it is a pleasing finding that for the group of teachers in question, a promotion of commitment can be achieved via enthusiasm for the all-day program. Furthermore, it is an important finding that school management can positively influence teachers' commitment to the school via this emotional aspect, despite or precisely because of the introduction of all-day schooling in the German school system.

Limiting the discussion of the findings is the lack of all-day specific research on teachers in the German school system to refer to. The extensive research deficits are also highlighted in the context of the "GTS-Bilanz" Project, which is a follow-up project to the "StEG" study. Many results must therefore be interpreted based on theoretical findings. Furthermore, there is no way of monitoring the voluntary nature of the teachers' participation in all-day programs. Due to missing data for the grouping variable on participation in all-day schooling, the sample was reduced from a possible 842 to 649 teachers. Furthermore, the sample was not representative for the whole German school system and includes only elementary schools. Hence, the generalization of the results has to be made carefully. Finally, the unequal gender ratio can be seen as a limitation. It should be mentioned at this point that there are significantly more female than male teachers at German elementary schools. Thus, this gender ratio can be considered representative for the basic population. Previous research on gender differences regarding commitment is very heterogeneous (e. g., Peterson, Kara, Fanimokun, & Smith, 2019) so that no reasonable assumptions about possible gender influences can be derived for this study.

Even in German all-day schools, the influences on overall commitment are comparable to those found in earlier studies. However, the results indicate that structural changes in the school organization, such as the extension of the school day, lead to a specific commitment to this changed school organization. To this end, active involvement as well as enthusiasm for these changes seem to play an important role. Both can probably be influenced by the leadership of the school management, which not only influences the enthusiasm and the commitment, but also has possibilities to involve the teachers more in the changed structures. This would require more flexibility for school leaders in the extent to which they also deploy teachers in the all-day sector. In other words, more staff autonomy within school autonomy. In addition, an awareness should be created that innovations concerning the work at schools also lead to an adjustment of the individual image of one's own school and thus a new or extended bond (commitment) to one's own school arises. The new commitment, however, is based on personal experience with the changed structures and conditions, which suggests that as many teachers as possible should be actively involved. Overall, the results found emphasize the crucial role of teachers and school management in the implementation and manifestation of school reforms.

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Examining the Dynamic Interplay of Motivation and Friendships within a Collegiate Extracurricular Activity in the U.S.: The Case of Marching Band

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Abstract: Research links extracurricular activity (ECA) participation to developmental outcomes, yet little is known about social processes that occur within ECAs. We examine associations between motivation (intrinsic, extrinsic) and friendship processes (selection, influence) within a collegiate marching band in the US (n=193). Using social network analysis, we found evidence of selection, but not influence, on motivation. Selection findings differed by motivation type, such that extrinsic motivation was associated with increased friend nominations, whereas intrinsic motivation was associated with decreased nominations. Unexpected findings are explained by the context of this highly specialized ECA. Implications for supporting motivation in extended education settings are discussed.

Keywords: social network analysis, extracurricular activities, college students, friendships, motivation

Introduction

Friends are key socialization agents across the life span (Rubin et al., 2015), such that friends tend to be similar to one another on a wide range of attributes (Veenstra et al., 2013). Friend similarity is explained by two distinct processes: selection and influence. Selection is the process of choosing friends who share similar attributes, whereas influence is the process of becoming increasingly similar to friends on a given attribute (Brechwald & Prinstein, 2011). The peer relations literature is ripe with studies using social network analysis to distinguish selection and influence on a variety of attributes (Veenstra et al., 2013). However, the social network scholarship has predominantly focused on observable attributes (e. g., problem behaviors, Osgood et al., 2015). There is initial evidence of friend similarity on non-observable attributes, including motivation, that warrants attention (e. g., Wild & Enzle, 2002).

Friends are important for motivation, such that youth make decisions about how to spend their free time based on their friends (Arnett, 2000). Indeed, friends are a primary factor in choices about participating in extracurricular activities (ECAs) (Schaefer et al., 2011). In this study, we examine the associations between friendship processes and motivation to participate in a highly specialized ECA, namely marching band. Marching band requires technical skills and a substantial time commitment and, thus, youth must be motivated to participate (Cumberledge, 2017). We use social network analysis to test whether youth choose friends with similar motivation (selection) and whether youth socialize one another to become more similar over time (influence). We distinguish internally derived (intrinsic) and externally derived (extrinsic) motivation to participate in marching band because of their salience in ECAs (Wigfield et al., 2015). Based on initial social network research on motivation (e. g.,

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Wild & Enzle, 2002), we expect both friendship processes (i. e., selection and influence) to be present in the marching band. However, given the highly specialized nature of marching band, we expect friendship processes to be stronger for intrinsic than extrinsic motivation.

Collegiate Extracurricular Activities: The Case of Marching Band

In the Western world, traditional college students (ages 18–22) often postpone the responsibilities of adulthood, such as employment and marriage, and extend the self-exploration activities that are typical of adolescence (Arnett, 2000). During college, ECAs can provide important self-exploration experiences, which vary depending on the type of ECA (Vandell et al., 2015). ECAs are often categorized in social science research into one of five broad types (Larson et al., 2006): faith-based and service, academic and leadership, performance and fine arts, community organizations and vocational clubs, and sports. Marching band is a hybrid type of ECA that has characteristics common to performance and fine arts activities (e. g., music performance), as well as athletics (e. g., physical coordination, breath control, mental focus). Participation patterns in marching band follow the general ECA participation pattern of early sampling and later specialization, such that the highest attrition occurs during the transition from high school to college. One study found that nearly 75 % of high school band members did not participate in college (Mantie & Dorfman, 2014). Thus, motivation is a critical factor in retaining participation in marching band in college.

Participating in collegiate marching band involves both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors include interest and personal satisfaction. That is, students who participate in marching band in college are typically those who are interested in music, enjoy the band, and, as well, are willing to sacrifice the cost of participation in terms of their time and alternative opportunities (Mantie & Dorfman, 2014). There are also many personal benefits to participating in marching band, such as the opportunity to develop social skills, discipline, teamwork, and leadership (e. g., Garrison, 1986; Hash, 2021). The extrinsic factors involved in collegiate marching band are similar to those which characterize American sports. For example, the marching band performs at major athletics events (e. g., American football games), which offers prestige for the university (Allsup & Benedict, 2008) and entertainment for spectators (Cumberledge, 2017). Moreover, similar to sports, marching band emphasizes American cultural values of competitiveness and achievement (e. g., Allsup & Benedict, 2008), which are common extrinsic factors involved in ECA participation. Thus, decisions to continue participating in marching band in college are likely complex and involve both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

Collegiate ECAs may also be specialized contexts for friendships, which likely matters for motivation. On the one hand, as an arts activity, marching band fosters creativity and self-expression, a common foundation from which friendships are formed and reinforced (e. g., Vandell et al., 2015). However, on the other hand, marching band is highly competitive, has a limited number of positions (e. g., section leaders, members), and is segmented by section (e. g., woodwinds, brass, etc.), each of which may inhibit friendship formation or maintenance (e. g., Patrick et al., 1999). Understanding the interrelation of motivation and friendships may inform retention in marching band as well as other highly specialized ECAs.

Sources of Friend Similarity: Disentangling Selection and Influence

There are two distinct processes through which youth and their friends may come to share similar qualities, namely selection and influence. Consider the fictious example of Kate, who is similar to two of her friends in the marching band, each explained by different processes. Kate meets Barry in the marching band and the two share stories about their favorite marching band performances. Kate and Barry become friends. Kate and Barry are similarly motivated because of a process of selection, such that they chose to be friends because of their shared interest in musical performance (i. e., selection on intrinsic motivation). Kate also meets Ana, who admits that she is tired of being in marching band. However, Ana's parents come to every performance, and she likes making them proud. Despite Ana's initial lack of internally derived interest in band, Ana and Kate become friends. Ana begins to admire Kate's passion for musical performance, which promotes her own interest in marching band. Thus, Ana and Kate are similarly motivated to participate in band because Kate socialized Ana (i. e., influence on intrinsic motivation). As this anecdote suggests, selection and influence are conceptually distinct processes that yield the same outcome (friend similarity).

Just as the concepts of selection and influence are distinct, there are also different theories that explain them. Friend selection may be explained by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), which suggests that individuals derive personal meaning from membership in social groups. ECAs are social groups that have been linked to distinct social identities (e. g., Eccles & Barber, 1999). Thus, many youth select friends from within their ECA either to reinforce shared interests or to avoid encounters with different others. Friend influence can be explained by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which suggests that individuals become similar by mimicking each other's behaviors. The concept of "contagion" is often tied to social learning, such that friends become similar to each other, for example, through social modeling or learning (Veenstra et al., 2013). There is potential for the presence of both selection and influence processes within marching band.

Selection and Influence on Motivation to Participate in Marching Band.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are distinct and are promoted differently in practice. Self-determination theory (SDT) defines intrinsic motivation as any act that is done for (internal) enjoyment and extrinsic motivation as any act that is done for (external) recognition (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Intrinsic motivation is important for participating in ECAs because their voluntary nature means that youth can drop out of the activity whenever they lose interest (Wigfield et al., 2000). According to SDT, intrinsic motivation is promoted by fulfilling the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Two of the basic needs are defining features of marching band, such that participation is voluntary (and therefore autonomous) and skill-based (which requires competence). Friendship processes may be particularly relevant for the basic need of relatedness. That is, friendships promote a sense of belonging in ECAs which helps participants relate with the activity and with one another (e. g., Patrick et al., 1999). Friendships may be more important for intrinsic than extrinsic motivation to the extent that participation satisfies the basic need of relatedness.

Although there are few social network studies on motivation, two exceptions suggest the potential for links between friendships and motivation. First, in a study of Belgian secondary

school students, there was evidence of an association between both friendship processes (i. e., selection and influence) and both types of motivation (i. e., intrinsic and extrinsic) (Duriez et al., 2013): adolescents nominated friends with similar goal pursuits (selection on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) and also became more similar to their friends (influence on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation). Second, in a study of intermediate school students in the U.S., there was evidence of an association between both friendship processes (i. e., selection and influence) and intrinsic, but not extrinsic, motivation (Shin & Ryan, 2014). That is, adolescents nominated friends with similar mastery goals (selection on intrinsic motivation) and, as well, became more similar to their friends in terms of their mastery goals (influence on intrinsic motivation). Friendships were not associated with performance goals, suggesting that there was no evidence of selection or influence on extrinsic motivation (Shin & Ryan, 2014). These empirical findings provide initial evidence that friendships may be more strongly linked with intrinsic than extrinsic motivation.

The Present Study

We examine the association between friendship processes and motivation to participate in a collegiate marching band. We use stochastic actor-oriented modeling (SAOM) to disentangle two friendship processes, namely selection versus influence, and to address the limitations of traditional individual-level inferential statistics (Veenstra et al., 2013). SAOM also accounts for confounding processes, such as selection on socio-demographic characteristics (e. g., gender, race/ethnicity) and network structural effects known to explain the evolution of the network (Snijders et al, 2010). SAOM yields two sets of parameters which provide estimates of selection and influence, each statistically controlling for the other. We test whether motivation is associated with changes in friendships (friend selection) and whether friends' motivation is associated with changes in individual's motivation (friend influence). Based on theory and empirical research, we expect that both friendship processes (i. e., selection and influence) will be present, but stronger for intrinsic than extrinsic motivation.

Method

All members of a collegiate marching band from a large public university in the Southwestern U.S. were invited to participate. The full band had 306 members, of which 72 % (n=202) consented and 193 students participated. The sample (53 % female) ranged in age from 18 to 30 years (M = 19.44 years, SD = 1.51) and had completed one to six band seasons (M =2.17, SD = 1.19). The sample was majority White, but had diverse representation (63.7 % White/European American, 19.7 % Hispanic/Latinx, 5.2 % Black/African American, 5.2 % Asian American, 3.6 % Native American, 2.1 % other).

The sample represents one of the top collegiate marching bands in the U.S., which has been recognized with several awards and honors. The size of this marching band is typical for a Division I university and follows the organizational structure and schedule typical of collegiate marching bands in the U.S. Band members participated in 8–12 hours of rehearsal and

6–10 hours of performance per week, which provided time for extensive interactions among band members.

Procedures

The data were collected in September and November 2013, which corresponds to roughly weeks 6 (Time 1, just after convening for band camp) and 16 (Time 2, the end of marching season) in the band season. At each time point, participants completed electronic surveys that included motivation measures and then one week later social network data were collected in person. All procedures were approved by the university's Office of Research Integrity and Assurance.

Measures

In the online survey at Time 1, participants reported their age, gender, race or ethnicity, and prior experience in collegiate marching band (number of band seasons). The marching band's management provided information on band section membership and leadership.

Friendships

Friendship data were collected using standard social network protocols. Participants were provided with an alphabetized list containing names and ID codes of all band members who agreed to participate in the study. Participants were asked to use the list to nominate individuals "considered your closest friends with whom you spend a lot of time doing different activities and whom you can count on when you need help." Participants were allowed to nominate an unlimited number of friends (max reported = 19). The friendship nominations a participant received (incoming ties) and the friendship nominations they made (outgoing ties) are two separate measures of the network.

Motivation

Participants completed the Sports Motivation Scale (SMS; Pelletier et al., 1995), adapted for marching band (response options: 1 = *does not correspond at all*, 7 = *corresponds exactly*; see Online Supplementary Materials for the full measure). Scores across items were averaged to create two subscales: intrinsic motivation (12 items; $\alpha = .858$ at Time 1, $\alpha = .863$ at Time 2; e. g., "For the intense emotions I feel doing an activity I like." "For the pleasure of discovering new performance strategies.") and extrinsic motivation (12 items[1]; $\alpha = .812$ at Time 1, $\alpha = .814$ at Time 2; e. g., "To show others how good I am at performing." "Because, in my opinion, it is one of the best ways to meet people.").

1 Two items in the extrinsic motivation scale ("Because, in my opinion, it is one of the best ways to meet people" and "Because it is one of the best ways to maintain good relationships with my friends") directly reference making social connections as a motivation for participating in marching band. A sensitivity analysis was performed and removing these two items from the scale produced identical results, suggesting that these two items did not have an undue influence on results. As such, the items were retained in the scale.

Analysis Plan

Stochastic actor-oriented modeling (SAOM) was used (Snijders et al., 2010) to estimate peer selection and influence effects using RSiena 4.0 (version 1.2–12; Ripley et al., 2021) in R version 3.4.2 (R-Project; http://www.r-project.org). This modeling approach makes several assumptions, all of which were met in this network. The SAOM consists of two functions that are estimated simultaneously: the *network function*, which tests the likelihood of friendship ties between marching band members (selection), and the *behavior function* which tests effects related to changes in motivation over time (influence). SAOM uses the network and motivation scores which were observed at Time 1 to estimate the effects hypothesized to be responsible for the changes in the network and motivation at Time 2. Model estimation uses a method of moments procedure to estimate parameters based on probabilities of model-implied networks to reproduce the observed data (for details, see Snijders et al., 2010). Model parameters are tested for significance based on a *t*-ratio.

Network Function: Testing for Friend Selection on Motivation

The network function included effects for selection, among others. The model uses a network function to predict whether existing ties are likely to persist from Time 1 to Time 2. The function includes three types of effects that predict the likelihood of a friendship tie as a function of an individual attribute: 1. the primary effect of interest to test for selection was the *similarity* effect, which assessed the tendency to nominate friends who had similar scores on motivation; 2. *alter effects* assessed the tendency to receive friend nominations; and 3. *ego effects* assessed the tendency to nominate friends. Ego, alter, and similarity effects were included for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, for a total of six effects.

Next, we included several other *similarity effects* to control for confounding network selection processes, such as the tendency to nominate friends who are similar on other attributes (i. e., gender, race, band section, marching band tenure). Several parameters were also included to control for endogenous network structural processes: *outdegree* (total number of friendships in the network) and *network rate* (network change opportunities), which are necessary to include in any SAOM model; *reciprocity* (tendencies to nominate friends who also nominated them as a friend), which is a dyadic effect; *transitive triplets* and *transitive ties* (tendency to be friends with friends of friends), *transitive reciprocated triplets* (tendency to reciprocate nominations with friends of friends), *3-cycles* (tendency for hierarchical structures in friendships), and *number of actors at distance 2* (tendency to be connected indirectly through a friend), which are triadic effects; and two degree-related effects, namely *indegree popularity* (tendency for individuals receiving several nominations to receive increased nominations), as well as *outdegree popularity* and *outdegree activity* (tendency for individuals nominating several friends to nominate more friends).

Behavior Function: Testing for Friend Influence on Motivation

The behavior function included effects for friend influence and estimated whether an individual's motivation at Time 2 was predicted by their friends' motivation at Time 1. The primary parameter of interest was the *average alter effect*, which assessed the tendency for individuals whose friends had a higher average value to also have higher values on the

attribute (Ripley et al., 2021). An average alter effect was included for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Results

Table 1 provides descriptive information for the network and motivation variables. The network had characteristics similar to those reported in other research on human social networks (Veenstra et al., 2013). That is, density was consistent with rates reported on similar friendship networks (i. e., .03) and there was reasonable stability in friendships in the network, as indicated by the Jaccard index (i. e., .32).

The SAOM model fit the data well, as suggested by suitable convergence ratios for the overall model (i. e., 0.21) and for all parameters (i. e., all < .08). Goodness-of-fit for key network and motivation parameters was suitable for all estimates, with one exception (i. e., indegree). We explain our findings by first presenting the set of parameters which provides estimates of friend selection (termed the network function), and then the set of parameters which provides estimates of peer influence (termed the behavior function).

Friend Selection on Motivation to Participate in Marching Band

Contrary to expectations, the nonsignificant parameters for similarity on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (the primary parameter estimates of interest) suggest that individual tendencies to select friends with similar levels of motivation was statistically non-significant (see Table 2). Two additional types of effects were included in the model, namely ego and alter effects. The ego effects, which estimate tendencies to nominate friends, were statistically non-significant, meaning that motivation had no effect on an individual's patterns of friend nominations. Both alter effects, which estimate tendencies to be nominated as friends, were statistically significant, but in opposite directions: extrinsic motivation was associated with receiving more friendship nominations, whereas intrinsic motivation was associated with receiving fewer friendship nominations.

Controlling for Confounding Network Selection Processes

Because multiple network selection processes give rise to friendship networks (Snijders et al., 2010), we included several parameters in our model that allowed us to account for these confounding network selection processes. Homophily (or similarity) effects on other characteristics were included to control for confounding network selection processes. Each of these effects were statistically significant, with one exception (see Table 2). That is, friends were more likely to be selected among those who were in the same band sections, had similar tenure, and were of the same race. The only homophily effect that was statistically non-significant was gender.

Among the effects included to control for endogenous network processes (see Table 2), several coefficients were statistically significant and all were in the expected directions. First, the significant outdegree parameter suggests that those who nominated more friends were not

inclined to also receive a lot of friend nominations. Next, several effects explained the likelihood that a friendship existed, such that there was a high likelihood of friends to nominate each other (reciprocity), to have an intermediary friend (transitive ties), to become friends with friends of friends (transitive triplets), and to share several friends (actors at distance 2). Finally, there was evidence that popular individuals had a tendency to receive friendship nominations (indegree popularity).

Friend Influence on Motivation to Participate in Marching Band

The parameter estimates of friend influence based on motivation are shown in Table 2. The average alter effects, which test for friend influence on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (the primary parameter estimates of interest), were each statistically non-significant. Therefore, there was not evidence of friend influence on intrinsic or extrinsic motivation, meaning that student's motivation to participate in the marching band did not change over time as a function of their friends' motivation.

Discussion

The present study is the first, to our knowledge, to examine links between motivation and friendship processes within a highly specialized ECA (i. e., marching band). Based on theory and empirical research, we hypothesized that both friendship processes (i. e., selection and influence) would be present in the marching band, but would be stronger for intrinsic than extrinsic motivation. Our findings partially supported our expectations. Contrary to expectations, there was no evidence of friend influence on either type of motivation. There was evidence, however, of friend selection on both types of motivation. Interestingly, the directions of the selection effects were contrary to expectations. Taken together, these findings have implications for our understanding of psychosocial processes in extended education settings. These results also generate practical insights about friendships as intervention points to promote retention in extended education programs, such as ECAs (Vandell et al., 2015).

Motivation Matters for Desirability as Friends

In this section, we consider the two findings pertaining to friend selection, beginning with extrinsic motivation and then turning to intrinsic motivation. First, there was a significant association between friend selection and extrinsic motivation, such that increases in extrinsic motivation were associated with receiving *more* friend nominations. In the U.S., collegiate marching bands are highly competitive and have high performance expectations. Highly competitive activities often implore participants to tout their performance-related achievements and focus narrowly on winning or being recognized as the best (Ettekal et al., 2016). Extrinsically motivated individuals thrive on opportunities for recognition. A plausible explanation for our finding is that extrinsically motivated youth who seek attention may be perceived as the best members of the band and, thus, desirable as a friend. Another ex-

planation is that some individuals may participate in ECAs to make and retain friends (e. g., Persson et al., 2007). Thus, friendships may be rewards or recognition in and of themselves. An interesting question for future research is to disentangle the role of friendships for extrinsic motivation within extended education settings that vary in their competitive versus cooperative nature to better characterize these dynamics.

Next, there was a significant association between friend selection and intrinsic motivation, such that increases in intrinsic motivation were associated with receiving *fewer* friend nominations. We theorized, based on SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), that friendships might fulfill an individual's need for relatedness and, thus, may be essential for intrinsic motivation. However, our findings indicated that intrinsic motivation did not promote friendship selection over time. One possible explanation for our finding is that friendships within the marching band did not fulfill the need for relatedness. Intrinsically motivated individuals may fulfill their need for relatedness through other means, such as through the teamwork required to perform (with friends and non-friends alike). Another explanation might be that other psychological needs are more salient for intrinsic motivation than relatedness. SDT suggests that three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness each promote intrinsic motivation. However, SDT does not suggest which factors are more important than others and in which contexts. Collegiate marching bands in the U.S. involve specialized skills and, thus, competence may be a driving factor for intrinsic motivation (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005). Future research should explore how the link between motivation and friendships varies across extended education settings.

Taken together, the developmental patterns of friendships and motivation might suggest that friendships are intrinsically motivating in earlier developmental periods, such as during secondary school, and extrinsically motivating during later periods, such as during higher education. Research on motivation suggests that intrinsic motivation declines, whereas extrinsic motivation increases across the life span (Wigfield et al., 2015), offering another possibility for why extrinsically motivated individuals were more desirable as friends for college students. Future studies should consider variations across developmental periods in the links between the motivation types and friendships to further understand the nature of these processes.

The social network effects generated a portrait of the friendship network in a collegiate marching band. Our results indicated that band members tended to select friends within their band section and those with a similar tenure in the marching band, which may be unsurprising. According to focus theory (Feld, 1981), social connections and close relational ties are likely among individuals who participate in joint activities through sheer opportunity to spend time together in the same context. In marching band, the opportunities to practice and perform together may be constrained to the section, limiting opportunities to interact across section. Thus, the typical sorting mechanisms of a social network (e. g., based on gender; Veenstra et al., 2013) are interrupted. More research is needed to understand whether and how friendship sorting mechanisms generalize across contexts and developmental periods.

Friend Influence: Unexpected Null Findings

We did not find evidence of peer influence on motivation, which conflicts with the plethora of research that finds influence on a variety of behaviors (e. g., Sijtsema & Lindenberg, 2018).

However, an important distinction of previous literature is the nearly exclusive focus on *observable* behaviors. Motivation is a dynamic characteristic that describes a person's tendency to act based on interest/value (intrinsic motivation) versus rewards/recognition (extrinsic motivation). The indicators of motivation are likely to be less observable compared to behavioral attributes (i. e., smoking, substance use). Influence on observable behaviors is often theorized to occur based on tenets of social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), in which social learning occurs through a process of observing and replicating others. More research is needed on less observable attributes, such as motivation, to understand what individuals perceive as indicators of motivation.

Nevertheless, there is at least one study that found peer influence on motivation-related attributes in adolescence. Shin and Ryan (2014) found peer influence on adolescents' mastery (intrinsically derived), but not performance (extrinsically derived) academic orientations. More research is needed to discern whether our results are a developmental finding, such that peer influence on motivation is less salient during college than during high school. Developmentally, there is adequate reason to suggest that influence processes may vary across periods. College students have increased executive function relative to adolescents, which has been linked to enhanced social-emotional competence (Riggs et al., 2006). Thus, college students likely make more accurate associations between observed behaviors and psychological attributes than their younger peers. It is unclear whether peer influence on psychological attributes indeed diminishes with age or whether individual's perceptions of others' psychological attributes qualitatively differ across the life span.

There is some evidence that friendship processes vary across developmental periods. Although friendships remain salient for college students, developing romantic relationships takes priority (Arnett, 2000). Thus, college students may fulfill their psychological need for relatedness in romantic, rather than friendship, relationships. Moreover, the transition to college is marked by a developmental need for intimacy, which is likely fulfilled by few close relationships rather than several superficial relationships. In short, our results are consistent with the notion that college students likely fulfill their relatedness needs across many different types of relationships and within smaller networks than adolescents.

Implications for Extended Education Settings

Given the specificity of the marching band context and relatively small empirical base from which to interpret our current findings, we hesitate to offer definitive implications for practice. Further research is needed, especially for null findings, to determine whether our findings represent potential developmental differences or a contextual nuance. Nonetheless, there are a few lessons for practice in extended education which our findings might inform.

There is myriad evidence that fostering intrinsic motivation should be priority for practice in extended education. Intrinsic motivation is related to increased engagement, retention, and better long-term outcomes than extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The members of the collegiate marching band in this study had higher intrinsic than extrinsic motivation, though both declined across the season. Thus, one implication for practice is that intentional efforts may be needed later in the season to bolster and sustain intrinsic motivation. The end of a season also presents more opportunity to satisfy extrinsic motivation tendencies, given that end-of-season banquets tend to celebrate recognition and performance more than intrinsically

derived aspects of the activity (e. g., self-improvement). Researchers should work closely with practitioners to better understand the waxing and waning of motivation across the season to help inform time increments within and across seasons for developmental studies (e. g., Ettekal et al., 2017).

We found unexpected links between friendships and motivation, such that extrinsically motivated band members were more desired as friends than their intrinsically motivated peers. This finding was contrary to our expectations because, theoretically, relatedness, a need which can be met through friendships, fosters intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This finding is concerning in light of the research on peer motivational climates. For example, whether the peer climate is ego- (i. e., extrinsically) or task- (i. e., intrinsically) oriented matters for the goal orientations of members within the team. An ego-oriented team environment makes ego-oriented athletes (Ettekal et al., 2016), which could happen in the context of this collegiate marching band. If extrinsically motivated members have increased social status, there is great potential for them to drive the peer climate, and, thus, to increase members' extrinsic motivation and hinder intrinsic motivation across the entire marching band. Interventions might focus more on social norms or motivational climates, rather than on the individuals within the group. Team-level interventions to develop caring peer climates have become a focus of intervention in sport (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010) and, as we have described in this study, collegiate marching bands have many similarities with sport.

Finally, whether these findings generalize to international settings outside of the U.S. is an empirical question. Nevertheless, lessons gleaned from the present study could be applied in the global extended education community, bearing in mind the similarities and differences in context. For example, although marching band may be a highly a specialized ECA with particular characteristics in the U.S., other ECAs may have similar characteristics in international settings. As noted earlier, marching band is a hybrid ECA involving performance and fine arts, as well as sport. ECAs which combine art and sport, such as dance, may yield similar settings in which the friendship processes found in the present study might apply. Of course, the similarity between marching band and other related international ECAs depends necessarily on the context of reception. Marching band is also unique because of the prestige it brings to colleges and universities, which does not extend to band members. International ECAs that involve spectators, performance, and entertainment, and which yield different social standards for performers versus spectators, such as sport, may resemble the present context. In sum, findings from the present study should apply to global extended education to the extent that contextual differences and similarities are considered.

Limitations and Future Directions

A strength of this study was the use of an advanced SNA approach to estimate friend selection and influence processes while controlling for endogenous network processes. As an example, the findings from the present study contradicted findings from a study using the same data set, which used individual-level statistical modeling and found that intrinsic motivation was positively associated with a number of social connections (Weren et al., 2016). Here, we used SNA and found that, when the changing nature of the friendship network across the two time points was taken into account, intrinsic motivation was associated with receiving *fewer* social ties over time. Thus, consideration of social network dynamics and the changes that occur

within networks over time is essential to determine whether and how friendships and motivation are interrelated.

The longitudinal panel data used in the present study assessed friendships and motivation at two points in time across ten weeks. Developmental research has been critiqued for measuring networks over very long periods (i. e., yearly or every 6 months) and possibly missing important changes in relationships (Neal, 2020). This shorter time period allowed us to examine changes in friendships on a shorter time-scale, which was tailored to the relevant time points for this social group: one month after the band began rehearsing and two weeks before the end of the season.

Despite the noted strengths, this study has several limitations that represent opportunities for future research. Two limitations have to do with the measure of friendships. First, our friendship indicators provided no information about the quality of relationships. Extrinsically motivated individuals may have several friends, but may not necessarily feel a sense of relatedness in the activity because the relationships are distant. Conversely, an individual with one close friend may feel a sense of relatedness in the activity because the relationship is very close. Future research should account for various aspects of friendships (e. g., quality versus quantity) because they may help elucidate *how* friendships matter for relatedness in extended education settings. Second, we did not measure friendships outside of marching band. Although this limits the conclusions we can make about motivation and friendships in a broad sense, our conclusions provide insight into these processes within a specific context.

Another set of limitations concerns the nature and context of the network data. As in any longitudinal research, incomplete network data is a limitation because, although minimal, there was some attrition. We used the standard SAOM missing data imputation procedure to minimize bias in parameter estimates (Snijders et al., 2010). Nevertheless, our results should be interpreted with some caution, as we did not have information on non-participants. It is also important to acknowledge that these data were collected in 2013, which represents a specific moment in history. Although, there is no reason to believe there are substantial historical changes that would affect interpretation of these findings at the present time, replication studies will be useful to test for potential cohort effects.

Conclusion

Findings from this study underscore that extrinsic motivation could be beneficial for establishing new friendships in extended education, including ECAs. Especially in competitive ECAs, individuals who tout their accomplishments (e. g., extrinsically motivated individuals) may be desired social partners. Adult leaders of ECAs know well that helping participants develop a sense of belonging and relatedness is essential to retain participants and to encourage a high level of engagement (Vandell et al., 2015). However, practitioners need more research that informs *how* to promote relatedness. If friendships are more closely linked with extrinsic than intrinsic motivation, then friendships may be a necessary, but not sufficient, way to promote relatedness. Adult leaders should include other practices known to promote intrinsic motivation. If socialization (i. e., friend influence) on motivation is unlikely to occur (as suggested by our findings), then leaders would be foolish to wait around on friendships to "do their magic" in the activity. Understanding how friendships and motivation are interre-

lated is important to advance research in extended education and to inform positive practices within these settings.

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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and the Friendship Network

	Time 1	**Time 2**
Intrinsic motivation		
Continuous *M* [1] (*SD*)	4.99 (1.17)	4.55 (1.22)
Missing	6.2%	20.2%
Extrinsic motivation		
Continuous *M* [1] (*SD*)	4.24 (1.14)	3.99 (1.09)
Missing	6.2%	20.2%
Friendship network		
Density	0.032	0.030
Outdegree *M* (*SD*) range	6.24 (4.91) 0 – 19	5.79 (4.72) 0 – 21
Indegree *M* (*SD*) range	6.24 (5.15) 0 – 33	5.79 (4.60) 0 – 27
Number of ties	1204	1117
Jaccard index	0.321	

[1]Note: Continuous *M* is the mean of the continuous intrinsic and extrinsic motivation variables, rather than the mean of the rounded variables used in the SAOM.

Table 2. Stochastic-Actor Oriented Model (SAOM) Results for Associations between Motivation and Friendship Network

	Estimate	St. Error
Network Submodel		
Friend selection on intrinsic motivation		
Activity (Ego)	-0.08	(0.05)
Popularity (Alter)	-0.10*	(0.05)
Similarity	0.22	(0.36)
Friend selection on extrinsic motivation		
Activity (Ego)	-0.02	(0.05)
Popularity (Alter)	0.13*	(0.06)
Similarity	-0.05	(0.40)
Controls for Confounding Friend Network Processes		
Friend selection on individual attributes		
Same gender	-0.06	(0.07)
Same race	0.17*	(0.07)
Same band section	0.62*	(0.08)
Same number of seasons participated in band	0.19*	(0.07)
Network structural effects		
Rate parameter	11.73*	(0.76)
Outdegree	-2.79*	(0.22)
Reciprocity	1.95*	(0.17)
Transitive triplets	0.17*	(0.04)
Transitive reciprocated triplets	-0.20*	(0.07)
3-Cycles	0.01	(0.08)
Transitive ties	0.47*	(0.12)
Number of actors at distance 2	-0.10*	(0.04)
Indegree-popularity (sqrt.)	0.28*	(0.07)
Outdegree-popularity (sqrt.)	-0.28	(0.18)
Outdegree-activity (sqrt.)	0.009	(0.04)
Behavior Submodel		
Peer influence effects on motivation		
Average alter effect on intrinsic motivation	0.13	(0.32)
Average alter effect on extrinsic motivation	-0.02	(0.36)

* $p < .05$

Online Supplemental Materials

Marching Band Motivation Scale adapted to marching band context

Pelletier, L. G., Fortier, M. S., Vallerand, R. J., Tuson, K. M., Brière, N. M., & Blais, M. R. (1995). Toward a new measure of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation in sports: The Sport Motivation Scale (SMS). *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology,* 17, 35–53.

Instructions: Why do you participate in your marching band? Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to one of the reasons for which you are presently practicing your sport.
Response scale: 1=Does not correspond at all, 4=corresponds moderately, 7=corresponds exactly

1. For the pleasure I feel in living exciting experiences.
2. For the pleasure it gives me to know more about marching band.
3. I used to have good reasons for doing marching band, but now I am asking myself if I should continue doing it.
4. For the pleasure of discovering new performance techniques.
5. I don't know anymore; I have the impression of being incapable of succeeding in marching band.
6. Because it allows me to be well regarded by people that I know.
7. Because, in my opinion, it is one of the best ways to meet people.
8. Because I feel a lot of personal satisfaction while mastering certain difficult performance techniques.
9. Because it is absolutely necessary to do marching band for ones well-being.
10. For the prestige of being a performer.
11. Because it is one of the best ways I have chosen to develop other aspects of myself.
12. For the pleasure I feel while improving some of my weak points.
13. For the excitement I feel when I am really involved in the activity.
14. Because I must do marching band to feel good myself.
15. For the satisfaction I experience while I am perfecting my abilities.
16. Because people around me think marching band is important to ones well-being.
17. Because it is a good way to learn lots of things which could be useful to me in other areas of my life.
18. For the intense emotions I feel doing an activity that I like.
19. It is not clear to me anymore; I don't really think my place is marching band.
20. For the pleasure that I feel while executing certain difficult movements.
21. Because I would feel bad if I was not taking time to do it.
22. To show others how good I am good at performing.
23. For the pleasure that I feel while learning performance techniques that I have never tried before.
24. Because it is one of the best ways to maintain good relationships with my friends.
25. Because I like the feeling of being totally immersed in the activity.
26. Because I must perform regularly.
27. For the pleasure of discovering new performance strategies.
28. I often ask myself; I can't seem to achieve the goals that I set for myself.

Intrinsic motivation subscale items are 1, 2, 4, 8,12, 13, 15, 18, 20, 23, 25, 27
Extrinsic motivation subscale items are 6, 7, 9, 10,11, 14, 16, 17, 24, 21, 22, 26
Amotivation subscale items are 3, 5, 19, 28 (not used in analyses)

Pattern of Out-of-Class Activities of Korean University Students: Latent Profile Analysis

Sang Hoon Bae, Soo Jeong Hwang, Bo Kyoung Byun

Abstract: This study examined how HIP participation patterns differ among students in different Korean universities. Moreover, this study explored whether there is an association between the likelihood of a student belonging to a specific group and their individual characteristics along with their university's supportive campus environment. This study analyzed the data from the 2019 wave of the Korean-NSSE (National Survey of Student Engagement), and the samples included 12,784 college seniors from 112 institutions. Furthermore, it employed latent profile analysis and multinomial logistic regression. As a result, this research identifies five distinctive HIP participation patterns. Family income and student-faculty interaction levels determine which group a student belongs to. For example, economically disadvantaged students tend to belong to a group with lower participation in study abroad programs. Finally, the supportive campus environment was strongly associated with being a member of actively participating groups compared to being in a less engaged group.

Keywords: high impact practices, pattern, Korean University, latent profile analysis

Introduction

A great educational philosopher, John Dewey (1938), emphasized that students' diverse experiences are a source of growth and development. He stated that it is the educators' responsibility to guide students on the path of growth by designing and offering educationally purposeful programs and activities that could enhance the change and growth of children and youth as well as by continuously interacting with them throughout the experiences. These experiences can be largely divided into two categories: regular class-based learning and out-of-class activities, which are termed "extended education."

Unlike high school, college students have a wide range of educational opportunities and participate in various activities while in college, and these experiences may either be on or off campus. Based on the purpose and focus of activities, researchers classify these experiences as either academic or social experiences. Previous studies have found an intimate relationship between participation in these experiences and institutional commitment, academic persistence, learning outcomes, and socio-emotional development of the students (Tinto, 1993; Pascallera, 1985; Weidman, 1989). Kuh (2008), supported by American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U), investigated and classified various cases to identify programs and activities that positively influenced the change and growth of the students. Additionally, he created the term "high impact practices (HIPs)" that involved various programs, including freshman seminars, liberal arts programs, learning communities, intensive writing, collaborative learning projects, undergraduate research, global learning experiences, service learning, internships, and capstone projects (Kuh, 2008).

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Meanwhile, educational experiences can also be categorized into two types based on their goals and whether participation is mandatory. The first type is the regular class-based learning, which is required to complete and graduate from a degree program. In this case, students must follow the so-called "curriculum" or "coursework," which is designed and taught by universities and professors. The other type involves educational programs and activities that students voluntarily attend to satisfy their interests, for their career development, and personal growth. This second type differs from the first in that it is based on a student's choice, and not on graduation or credit grant conditions.

These out-of-class activities, which are not part of regular classes to develop domain knowledge and skills, are gaining increased popularity among Korean higher education institutions (Kim, 2018). It is believed that they contribute to promoting educational accountability as they actively respond to the increasingly diverse needs of students. In addition, some extended education programs are widely offered to develop students' core competencies (Baek & Jeong, 2012; Lunenburg, 2010). Recently, out-of-class activities, such as internships and global programs, have often been transformed into regular courses. Finally, increasingly intensified competitions for student recruitment, which is due to a dramatic decrease in the school-age population, has forced universities to provide these attractive programs as a survival strategy.

However, some universities are known for not being active in offering extra-curricular programs, but rather emphasizing more on regular classes that, albeit not substantiated, are considered effective in enhancing employment opportunities (Son, 2021).

Due to declining tuition income associated with a sharp decline in the school-age population, it also seems true that universities impose fiscal austerities to overcome financial hardships. Therefore, it becomes difficult to provide a variety of programs that students want (Unipress, 2021).

Furthermore, the high cost of some programs may limit the participation of low-income students. In addition, it can be challenging for self-sponsored students who have to work in order to pay for tuition and living expenses to attend the programs they want to participate in (Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2007).

Finally, due to limited time, even students without financial challenges may have to face a situation where they have to cautiously choose programs and activities to participate in.

Taken together, there may be significant disparities in student participation in HIPs. Additionally, the difference may appear in students' choice of activities in which they will invest their time and effort. Finally, these differences can lead to a gap in student outcomes. From the perspective of educational opportunities and equality, therefore, careful analysis of who participates in which programs and appropriate policy efforts to resolve problems, if any, are required. To this end, it is necessary to explore the patterns of students' participation in extracurricular activities and empirically analyze factors that inhibit or promote students' participation.

This study's purpose is twofold. First, the study investigated whether differences exist in the participation pattern in HIPs among different student groups. In this regard, special attention is given to six HIPs: learning community, service learning, study abroad, research with the faculty, culminating experiences, internships, and field experiences. Second, this study examined whether there was a relationship between the HIP participation pattern and the student's personal background information, such as gender, family income, major, and the level of interaction with the faculty. In addition, the study investigated whether the pattern is

associated with the institutional characteristics of the university they attend. This study, among others, focused on the "supportive campus environment," which is measured by assessing the institution's efforts toward student success. A predictor of "supportive campus environment" shows the degree of the universities' concern for the growth and development of the students and their educational investment for student success.

This study's results would offer insights and implications for those who want to promote provision of HIP and enhance its effectiveness. In addition, they would provide policymakers with information for enhancing educational equality in the higher education setting.

Literature Review

High Impact Practices and Student Outcomes

This study focuses on six HIPs that influence student outcomes in the Korean context. The definitions of each practice and their relationships to various student outcomes are presented below.

Participation in learning communities is one of the most popular activities that provide groups of students with a collaborative learning experience. As part of coursework or out-of-class programs, this activity is commonly conducted as a group or team project. Particularly, these experiences are significant to the student's growth and development when they are structured in a way that promotes active and frequent interactions while spending a significant amount of time working together on educational programs and activities. Previous research has discovered that participation in learning communities results in a variety of aspects of participants' cognitive and socio-emotional development, such as an increase in critical and higher-order thinking skills (Inkelas et al., 2006), academic performance (Zhao & Kuh, 2004), openness to diversity and intercultural effectiveness (Cabrera et al., 2002), and academic and social integration (Stassen, 2003). These findings were also broadly consistent in the context of Korean higher education (Byoun, 2019; Kang & Kim, 2012).

Service learning is, in some sense, similar to community volunteer work; however, it differs in that service learning is structured as a credit-earning course and overseen by a professor from the participating student's institution. Furthermore, it is crucial to note that service learning as a HIP helps provide students with the opportunities to apply in a real world —particularly in a problem-solving setting—subject knowledge that they have acquired in classes. It has encouraged students to systematically reflect on their community service (Kuh, 2008). Studies have revealed that participation in community-based service learning helps promote personal and interpersonal development (Engberg & Fox, 2011), civic engagement (Simons & Cleary, 2006), academic motivation, and self-efficacy of participants (Kim & Ryu, 2008).

Studying abroad has long been regarded as an important opportunity for Korean students to broaden their college experience in a global context. This study only considers study abroad experiences that are at least six months in length, such as student exchange programs and dual degree programs. Several studies indicate that study abroad programs help students better understand global issues and apply disciplinary knowledge in a global context (Stebleton et al., 2013). Studies conducted in Korea also show that studying abroad develops in students an

improved openness toward diversity (Lee & Byun, 2015) and acquisition of foreign language fluency (Jon et al., 2017). In addition, Woolf (2008) posits that the positive outcomes of study abroad experiences are further reinforced when they are done in tandem with experiential or community-based learning.

Research with faculty as a HIP includes undertaking an individual student research project under faculty supervision and participating in a research project that is conducted by the faculty member. In the past, such experiences were usually limited to students majoring in science and engineering. However, in recent years, higher education institutions have increasingly provided undergraduate research opportunities to students across diverse fields (Kuh, 2008). Studies examining the effects of these experiences reveal a positive relation between undergraduate research and enhanced critical thinking skills (Kilgo et al., 2015). Moreover, it has been revealed that such experiences, while increasing student interaction with faculty and clarifying individual research interests, contribute to college persistence and the pursuit of graduate studies (Jones et al., 2010). Finally, these experiences particularly benefit at-risk students (Kuh, 2008).

Culminating experience activity requires students who are almost graduating to engage in educational programs, such as graduation exhibits, portfolio of college achievements, and capstone design, which enable them to integrate and apply in a problem-solving setting the subject knowledge they have learned in college. According to Byoun (2019), these activities are largely positively associated with integrating knowledge, developing effective reasoning, and improving problem solving skills in the Korean context. Conversely, results from the U.S. context are somewhat mixed. Kilgo et al. (2015), for example, established that participation in capstone design courses and experiences was, in fact, a negative predictor of critical thinking. In this sense, future research on how participating in the program impacts student development must consider differences in how each capstone experience is designed and implemented.

Finally, internship or field experience includes diverse forms of experiential learning, including internships in general as well as participation in industrial collaboration programs and practical training. These activities provide students with opportunities to expand and apply their classroom knowledge to a real-world setting; hence, they promote participants' cognitive and career-related development (O'Neill, 2010). Fewer studies have been conducted on the effects of internships in the Korean context, with small-scale qualitative studies supporting findings from studies conducted in the broader international context (Kim, 2016).

Predictors of HIP participation

While the literature has well suggested the educational outcomes of HIPs for the general student populace, it also notes that these activities are particularly beneficial for at-risk students. Therefore, it is problematic that these students seem to participate least in HIPs (Finley & McNair, 2013), for example, low-income students participate much less frequently in HIPs. Partly, this may be because such students have to balance both their studies and work; therefore, other than those required by coursework, they spend less time and effort on HIPs (Kilgo et al., 2015). First-generation college students and low achievers also participate less in these educationally purposeful activities because such students are unable to receive appropriate mentoring from their parents regarding programs they need to take advantage of during

college. Moreover, such students tend to distance themselves from extracurricular activities offered in their institutions due to a lack of college involvement (Bae et al., 2018; Walpole, 2003).

Participation in a variety of different extracurricular activities has also been found to differ across gender as well as college majors. For example, in terms of participation in study abroad experiences, the literature suggests a strikingly persistent gender gap (Redden, 2008), with the proportion of female to male U.S. students participating in study abroad programs being approximately 2:1 for the past 15 years (Institute of International Education, 2014). One explanation for this phenomenon is that women tend to major in the humanities and social sciences, which often encourage and facilitate study abroad experiences. Consequently, women, compared to their male peers, are more likely to participate in study abroad experiences (Hurst, 2019). Nevertheless, gender gaps in extracurricular participation are not restricted to participation in study abroad programs. For example, when Chachra et al. (2009) investigated gender differences in extracurricular activity participation among engineering students, they discovered that, female students, compared to their male counterparts, participated more in both engineering-and non-engineering related extracurricular activities.

Student-faculty interaction is another predictor of participation in HIPs. Focus group studies conducted on students from U.S. higher education institutions report that when asked what most influenced their decision to seek out and participate in high-impact activities, students consistently mentioned advice and guidance regarding these activities and reasons for their importance (Finley & McNair, 2013). Students expressed the importance of maintaining relationships with professors who were concerned about their learning and engagement, while stressing that they often proved to be the ones with the most information on what could contribute to the student's college experience (Finley & McNair, 2013). This literature, taken together, suggests that the participation pattern in educationally beneficial HIPs may differ among students from different backgrounds and may be stratified based on student and institutional-level characteristics.

Methods

Data

This study analyzed the data from the 2019 wave of the Korean-National Survey of Student Engagement (K-NSSE). K-NSSE is a national-scale, multi-institutional survey that measures student engagement in educationally purposeful activities; it was developed based on the U.S. National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) and has been validated to fit the Korean higher education context. K-NSSE includes items that measure student participation in HIPs and demographic information of students. For Korean higher education institutions that wish to participate, it is conducted every year from September to October and administered to full-time enrolled students. Because each institution decides whether to participate in the survey, K-NSSE does not comprise a nationally representative sample. However, in terms of size and region, the institutional composition of the K-NSSE data is close to that of all Korean universities.

The sample includes 12,784 college seniors emanating from 112 institutions. Table 1 shows the sample characteristics. In terms of gender, approximately 40 % of the sample were

male. Regarding monthly incomes, approximately 11 % of students in the sample came from families who earned over 8,000,000 Korean Won (approximately USD 66,000). Lastly, in terms of the field of study, the highest proportion of students in the sample were majoring in social sciences (26.8 %), followed by natural sciences (23.9 %), engineering (23.1 %), humanities (10.4 %), arts and athletics (8.8 %), and education (7 %).

Table 1. Sample Description

	n	%
Gender		
Male	5,218	40.8
Female	7,566	59.2
Family income (10,000 KRW)		
Below 100	482	3.8
100 – 199	1,035	8.1
200 – 299	2,078	16.3
300 – 399	2,494	19.5
400 – 499	2,059	16.1
500 – 599	1,711	13.4
600 – 699	903	7.1
700 – 799	549	4.3
Over 800	1,473	11.5
Field of study		
Humanities	1,332	10.4
Social sciences	3,428	26.8
Education	890	7.0
Engineering	2,953	23.1
Natural sciences	3,051	23.9
Arts & Athletics	1,130	8.8
Total	12,784	100.0

Variables and Measurement

Observed Variables

During the semester prior to taking the K-NSSE survey, observed variables were self-reported measures of participation in the following six HIPs: learning community, service learning/community-based learning, study abroad, research with faculty, culminating experiences, and internships/field experiences. On a 4-point Likert scale that ranges from 0 to 60 (rarely = 0, somewhat = 20, considerably = 40, very frequently = 60), the level of participation in each activity was measured.

Predictors

The predictors in this study include student-and institution-level variables highlighted by previous studies to be related to students' participation in HIPs. Student-level variables in-

clude gender, the field of study, monthly family income, and the level of student-faculty interaction. An institution-level predictor is the degree to which the institution provides programs that support students' learning and campus life. This institutional-level variable was named "supportive campus environment." The inclusion of this variable as an institution-level predictor is supported by the fact that students' participation in HIPs is closely related to educational investment and universities' related efforts for student success. On a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 to 60 (rarely = 0, somewhat = 20, considerably = 40, very frequently = 60), we measured the variable of supportive campus environment by asking the students to rate how well the university provided each of the ten different programs.

Table 2. Predictor Variables

Variable	Items	Cronbach's α
Student-level		
Gender	Male = 1, Female = 0	
Major field*		
Social sciences	Social sciences = 1, No = 0	
Education	Education = 1, No = 0	
Engineering	Engineering = 1, No = 0	
Natural sciences	Natural sciences = 1, No = 0	
Arts & athletics	Arts & athletics = 1, No = 0	
Family income (KRW)**	Below 1 M KRW = 1 ~ More than 8 M KRW = 9	
Student-faculty interaction	Discussed career plans with professors Worked with professors on other activities other than coursework Discussed course topics, ideas, or concepts with professors outside of class Discussed academic performance with professors (Never = 0, Sometimes = 20, Often = 40, Very often = 60)	.833

Institution-level	To what degree has your institution encouraged you to participate in the following activities:	
Supportive campus environment	Attending learning support services, Encouraging contacts among students from different backgrounds, Providing opportunities for social involvement, Helping you manage your non-academic responsibilities, Attending campus activities and events, Attending events that address important social, economic, or political issues, Supporting student club activities, Providing support for your overall well-being, Providing financial support for academic activities, Using career services (career advising /counseling, career information, employment services) (Rarely = 0, Somewhat = 20, Considerably = 40, Very frequently = 60)	.923

* Humanities is the reference group.
** Monthly Family income.

Analytic Strategies

Latent Profile Analysis

This study employed latent profile analysis (LPA) to investigate whether there are differences in the pattern of HIP participation among student groups (research question 1). LPA is a statistical approach that extracts unobserved groups from observed individual data; in terms of participation in each program, it assumes that latent groups have different probability distributions. Moreover, it is assumed that each group is mutually exclusive (Terry et al., 2006). Unlike cluster and discriminant analysis, LPA has a lower risk of classification errors, as it uses probabilities estimated by the maximum likelihood method.

The normal distribution assumption should be met within each latent class to conduct LPA (Oberski, 2016). However, HIP participation data has too many zeros, meaning it is highly skewed. Therefore, this study used the robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimator to deal with the non-normality problem. Because MLR provides standard errors and a x^2 test statistic that is robust to the non-normality situation, it is less affected by outliers than the maximum likelihood (Wang & Wang, 2019).

For assessment of the goodness-of-fit of the model, the study examined model fit statistics and indices (Wang & Wang, 2019). This process was repeated starting with two groups and then increasing to five groups. To gauge the best-fitting model, the following statistics and indices were checked: the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), sample-size adjusted BIC (saBIC), Vuong-Lo-Mendell- Rubin likelihood-ratio test (LMR), the bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLRT), and the level of entropy. The AIC, BIC, and saBIC indices suggest that the lowest values are the best models (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007). The LMR and BLRT compare k and $k - 1$ class models based on the likelihood difference. If the p value is less than .05, it indicates that k class model is better than

$k - 1$ class model (Lo, Mendell, & Rubin, 2001). BLRT follows the same rationale as LMR. According to simulation studies (Nylund et al., 2007), however, it is found to be more accurate than LMR. The entropy is an index indicating the quality of class membership classification. It has a value between 0 and 1. A value closer to 1 indicates that the class is more accurate in its classification (Nylund et al., 2007; Wang & Wang, 2019). Beyond these indices, the study considered the size of the classes. Suppose any given class size is too small, then the classification is not the best model because of low statistical power (Type 2 error). Tein et al. (2013) suggest that any class should include at least 1 % of the sample or 25 cases. Lastly, the interpretability and theoretical framework of the model were considered. Mplus 8.0 was used for the above analysis.

Multinomial Logistic Regression

This study conducted multinomial logistic regression to determine how the likelihood of being classified in each identified latent class is associated with the individual backgrounds of the students and the institutional characteristics of the university they attend (research question 2). It helps investigate the impact of an independent variable on the odds ratio of the observed event of interest—in this study, student membership of a particular group. All variables had no missing observations. The study used robust standard errors to correct for possible design effects. Specifically, this study used the sandwich estimator of variance, which is robust to possible types of model misspecification as long as observations are independent (White, 1980). SPSS 23.0 was used for the above analysis.

Limitations

The sample consists of college seniors at four-year universities in Korea and is drawn from a non-representative sample of institutions across the country. Therefore, special caution is necessary to interpret and generalize these findings to a broader population. Additionally, the data used in this study measures participation in HIPs through self-reported measures during the prior semester. It may thus be argued that this study does not present precise estimates of student HIP participation. Finally, this study used LPA. While this method has advantages over traditional clustering methods, it has drawbacks in identifying rare groups. Therefore, it can be noted that this study may overlook some rare HIP participation patterns.

Results

Patterns of HIP participation: Latent profile analysis results

LPA results are presented in Table 3, which shows model fit statistics and indices, including AIC, BIC, saBIC, LMR, BLRT, and entropy. As shown in the Table 2, AIC, BIC, and saBIC indices decreased as the number of classes increased. Model 6 presented the lowest value. The LMR test indicated that Model 5 was better than Model 4, but Model 6 did not improve upon Model 5. The BLRT value was less than 0.05 in all models, meaning the BLRT did not indicate a better fit. However, Model 5 had the highest level of entropy. At least 1 % of the

sample had a classification ratio of Model 5. Based on all these criteria, the study finally selected Model 5.

Table 3. Data Fit for All Models

Models	AIC	BIC	saBIC	LMR	BLRT	Entropy
2	661574.0	661715.7	661655.3	0.000	0.000	0.871
3	657357.1	657550.9	657468.3	0.000	0.000	0.809
4	652521.0	652767.1	652662.2	0.000	0.000	0.860
5	646026.7	646324.9	646197.8	0.000	0.000	0.941
6	642919.6	643270.0	643120.7	0.433	0.000	0.935

Note. LMR = Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin likelihood-ratio test; BLRT = bootstrap likelihood ratio test.

Figure 1 presents the item profile plot for Model 5. It shows five distinctive student groups in terms of HIP participation. The first class consisted of students who participated most in "study abroad experiences" above all other HIPs and was named the "outgoers." This group of students took up 6% of the study sample.

The second class included students with moderate-level participation across all forms of HIPs. This group was named the "ordinaries." It comprised 17% of the study sample.

The third class refers to those students who participated the least in all the HIPs. These students were named the "less-engaged." Interestingly, this group was the majority, accounting for 36.5% of the study sample. The findings show that Korean students still pay little attention to activities outside traditional, regular classes.

The fourth class comprised students who showed the highest participation across all HIPs. The study named this group of students the "maximizers." This group took up about 18% of the sample. They can be called intelligent students who tend to choose the best prize by making the most of the programs and activities offered by the university.

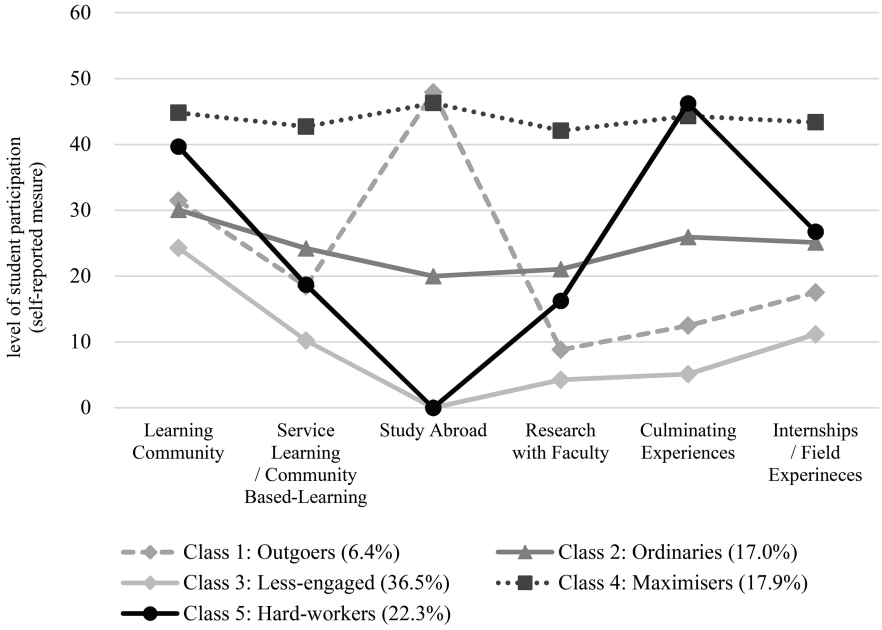
Finally, the fifth class generally showed higher participation levels in all HIPs except "study abroad." Particularly, this group had the lowest participation in terms of study abroad experiences. This group was named the "hard-workers" because they tended to actively attend various programs, except study abroad, which involves considerable costs. These students accounted for 22% of the study sample. This group stands in stark contrast to the group of "outgoers" in terms of participation in domestic and international HIPs.

Multinomial Logistic Regression

Table 4 presents the coefficients and odds ratios from multinomial logistic regression. They predict the likelihood of students falling into Classes 1 (outgoers), 2 (ordinaries), 4 (maximizers), or 5 (hard-workers) as opposed to Class 3 (less-engaged), which is the majority group and thus is used as the reference group.

After controlling for other factors, Class 1 students (outgoers) were more likely than their Class 3 counterparts to come from more affluent families and were more likely to have experienced a higher level of student-faculty interaction. In terms of gender, there tend to be

Figure 1. Item Profile Plot of Model 5



more females than males. Furthermore, net of other factors, humanities majors were more likely than other majors to belong to this group compared to Class 3 students. Finally, after controlling for other factors, being a Class 1 student was not related to the supportive campus environment of the university attended by the students.

Net of other characteristics and relative to the Class 3 reference group, the gender and family income predictors were not related to being in Class 2 (ordinaries). Conversely, the level of student-faculty interaction was related to being in Class 2 rather than Class 3. Being in Class 2, compared to Class 3, was not related to the supportive campus environments experienced by students after controlling for other factors.

Male students were more likely than their female peers to be Class 4 (maximizers) relative to Class 3, after controlling for other factors. Students from wealthier families and students with more frequent student-faculty interaction exhibited a higher likelihood of being classified in group 4 instead of group 3. Students who majored in engineering, natural sciences, and arts and athletics, compared to those who majored in humanities, were more likely to belong to Class 4 rather than Class 3. Regarding the institution-level predictor, being in Class 4 rather than Class 3 was strongly related to the variable of supportive campus environment.

After controlling for other factors, female students, compared to their male peers and students who had experienced higher levels of student-faculty interaction, were more likely to be in Class 5 (hard-workers) relative to the reference group (class 3). All other majors were more likely than the humanities to be in Class 5 (outgoers) than in Class 3.

Finally, the supportive campus environments, which is the degree to which universities provide student success programs to help students in terms of learning mentoring, career

guidance, scholarships, and supporting out-of-class activities, was strongly associated with being in Classes 4 (maximizers) and 5 (hard-workers) rather than in Class 3.

Table 4. Multinomial Logistic Regression Predicting Latent Class Membership (ref: Class 3)

	Class 1 (*n*=817)		Class 2 (*n*=2,170)		Class 4 (*n*=4,663)		Class 5 (*n*=2,849)	
	B (*SE*)	Exp (*B*)	B (*SE*)	Exp (*B*)	B (*SE*)	Exp (*B*)	B (*SE*)	Exp (*B*)
Student-Level Factors								
Male (ref: Female)	-.28 (.02)	.76**	.11 (.06)	1.11	.21 (.06)	1.24**	-.23 (.06)	.79***
Major field (ref: Humanities)								
Social sciences	-1.19 (.10)	.30***	-.20 (.10)	.82*	-.05 (.11)	.95	.45 (.12)	1.57***
Education	-1.71 (.19)	.18***	-.20 (.13)	.82	.08 (.14)	1.08	.73 (.15)	2.08***
Engineering	1.23 (.14)	.29***	.63 (.10)	1.88***	.94 (.12)	2.56***	2.21 (.12)	9.08***
Natural sciences	-1.81 (.13)	.16***	.18 (.10)	1.20	.39 (.11)	1.48***	1.30 (.12)	3.66***
Arts & Athletics	-1.19 (.18)	.30***	.74 (.12)	2.10***	.73 (.14)	2.08***	1.91 (.14)	6.76***
Family income (KRW)	.10 (.02)	1.11***	.02 (.01)	1.02	.04 (.01)	1.04**	.01 (.01)	1.01
Student-faculty interaction	.02 (.00)	1.02***	.04 (.00)	1.04***	.09 (.00)	1.10***	.05 (.00)	1.05***
Institutional-Level Factors								
Supportive college atmosphere (within-institution average)	.01 (.01)	1.01	-.01 (.01)	.99	.04 (.01)	1.04***	.03 (.01)	1.03***

Discussion and Implications

This study examined how students' participation patterns differ for the six HIPs, which have been found to possess educationally positive effects in Korean universities. LPA was used in the study; this is a statistical approach that extracts unobserved groups from observed individual data.

In addition, this study explored whether the likelihood of a student belonging to a particular group is associated with their demographic characteristics, family background, academic and social life in campus, and the supportive campus environment. Data were analyzed

from the 2019 wave of the Korean-NSSE, and the samples included 12,784 college seniors from 112 institutions. The essential findings of this study are as follows.

First, in terms of the pattern of HIP participation, study results reveal that there are five distinctive groups in Korean four-year universities. The presence of this distinctive pattern in students' HIP participation is consistent with the findings of the US-based studies on student typologies based on participation in educationally purposeful activities, which have been conducted using data from national surveys, such as the NSSE (Hu & McCormick, 2012) and the College Student Experiences Questionnaire (CSEQ) (Kuh et al., 2000). Most studies identified two contrast groups across all typologies. First, students in this group showed highest engagement in all types of educationally important activities—in this study "maximizer." Second, this involved students who showed lowest participation in all activities—in this study "less-engaged."

Second, students from wealthier backgrounds were more likely to be in Classes 1 (outgoers) and 4 (maximizers) than in Class 3 (less engaged). This finding is consistent with that of Walpole (2003), which explains that students from affluent families tend to possess resources, such as pocket money to cover living expenses or parental guidance on which activities are necessary for college success, that make it easier for them to devote themselves to educationally purposeful activities while in college. For example, study abroad programs are advantageous for wealthier students because they entail considerable expenses. In contrast, low-income students are more likely to be disadvantaged because they often have to finance their way through college. Thus, this condition makes it significantly difficult for them to spare time for non-mandatory educationally important activities (Kilgo et al., 2015). This explanation can also be applied to the finding that the probability of being in Class 1 (outgoers) is strongly related to the student's family income. As can be imagined, study abroad programs, with the cost usually placed on the students, seem to be an HIP that is enjoyed chiefly by economically privileged students. Previous studies also show similar trends for both low-income and first-generation students as well as those of color (NSSE, 2019; Obst et al., 2007).

Third, student-faculty interaction was an important predictor of becoming a member in all the groups compared to the reference group (Class 3). The study found that frequent interaction with the faculty increased students' chances of participating in HIPs. This result indicates that student-faculty interaction is critical not only within but also outside the classroom. Similar findings have been found in Umbach and Wawrzynski's (2005) study. According to their study, students tend to be actively engaged in learning and other educationally important activities at campuses where the faculty members make efforts to involve students in events, while extensively interacting with them and valuing enriching campus experiences. Their finding is consistent with the result of this study as having a supportive campus environment is a significant factor in predicting being in Classes 4 (maximizers) and 5 (hard workers) as opposed to Class 3 (less engaged).

Finally, the supportive campus environment was strongly associated with being in actively participating groups—maximizers and hard-workers—as opposed to the reference group—less engaged students. This finding shows that the more a university offers a variety of programs for student success and the more the professors provide guidance related to participation in these activities, the more likely the students are to actively participate in the HIP. This finding may be interpreted along with the findings about the relationship between individual characteristics and the students' HIP participation pattern. Even though students are

economically disadvantaged, their participation in HIPs could be improved when universities and professors actively support and guide them.

These results have both practical and academic implications. From the practical perspective, the findings of this study provide a more nuanced understanding and insight into who may benefit from their college experiences and who may be disadvantaged in out-of-class activities, which are HIPs in this study. Interestingly, there is a significant proportion of "less engaged" students identified in both the U.S. and Korean contexts. For example, Kuh et al. (2000), who investigated an activities-based typology of college students based on CSEQ data, found that the "disengaged" or "less engaged" group had the most significant number of the students among all identified groups in their study—approximately 18 % and 14.3 % of the entire study and senior student samples, respectively. Likewise, in this study, the less engaged group accounted for the highest proportion among all groups—36.5 % of the senior student sample. The presence of many less engaged students who are not benefiting from their college education to the fullest highlights that there is much room for improvement in increasing college impact to further student development. This study revealed that HIP participation was highly related to the students' levels of wealth. This finding emphasizes the need for institutions to focus on providing HIPs and also ensuring that all students have the means to participate in these activities.

The educational paradigm is rapidly changing from a one-size-fits-all prescription that ignores the background and conditions of each student to one where learning and experiences are personalized in consideration of a student's needs and characteristics. This study suggests that higher education institutions should identify students who have difficulties participating in HIPs for various reasons, including economic difficulties and information limitations, at an early stage and provide customized support to enable them to participate in more diverse HIPs.

From the academic point of view, this study is significant because it attempted to find the difference in engagement patterns of students in out-of-class activities by analyzing empirical data in the Korean higher education context. Providing a customized learning experience is based on the fact that students may have different engagement patterns. While many studies have identified student typologies based on their engagement in educationally purposeful activities in other countries like the U.S. (Hu & McCormick, 2012; Kuh et al., 2000), similar studies are yet to be conducted in Korea. Therefore, this study calls attention to the need to better understand typological compositions in the Korean student population. Using varied student groups and data, future studies may be conducted in diverse contexts.

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Collaborative Research Project GeLeGanz

Educational Success and Social Participation of Socially and Educationally Disadvantaged Students with Migration Background in Extended Education

Haiqin Ning, Jule Schmidt, Nanine Lilla, Marianne Schüpbach

The project is funded within the "Framework Programme for Empirical Educational Research" of the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research under the funding code 01JB2112 A-C. Project duration: 01. 10. 2021–30. 09. 2024. As a collaborative project, there are three partners working together:

- Team Freie Universität Berlin: Prof. Dr. Marianne Schüpbach (Coordinator of the collaborative research project), Dr. Nanine Lilla, Haiqin Ning, Jule Schmidt, Dr. Jan Willem Nieuwenboom, Hanna Lehmkuhl, Magdalena Reichenbach | Primary Education, Berlin
- Team Universität Hamburg: Prof. Dr. Ingrid Gogolin, Luise Krejcik, Tobias Potthoff | General, Intercultural and International Comparative Education, Hamburg
- Team German Children and Youth Foundation: Anna-Margarete Davis, Dr. Alexander Wedel | School Success & All-Day School as well as Research & Development, Berlin

Starting Position

Transforming half-day schools into all-day schools (i. e. a form of extended education) is often seen as a way to deal with the challenges addressed to the German education system. Recent research shows that first- and second-generation migrant children in Germany continue to be at a disadvantage throughout their educational pathway, and often in two senses: through their social background (e. g. low-income, low SES, rural areas) and their migration background (e. g. cultural and linguistic minority) (e. g. Autorengruppe Bildungsberichterstattung, 2020; Köller et al., 2019).

All-day schools are expected to achieve measurable improvements in the educational success and social participation of students with a migration background (KMK, 2015), who are often – if not always – also living in socially precarious circumstances. It is evident that the extra-curricular offerings of all-day schools are used by students at the primary level in Germany (Steiner, 2009; Willems et al., 2014). However, these expectations for all-day schools have not been adequately fulfilled in Germany, e. g. no direct effects on subject-related learning have been proven (StEG Consortium, 2016). Regarding the question of how all-day school settings can contribute to reducing disadvantages in respect of linguistic, cultural, and social heterogeneity, there is not much research-based knowledge available in the German context (Reinders et al., 2011; Bremm, 2018).

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In other countries, however, there are comparable high-quality offerings of extended education that have been shown to be effective. Findings from studies in the US indicate that participation in high-quality afterschool programs over a longer period of time, which are comparable to all-day schools, leads to higher scores in achievement tests than non-participation (Durlak et al. 2010; Vandell et al., 2015). In their meta-analysis (based on 68 studies), Durlak et al. (2010) emphasize that programs that are *sequential, active, focused*, and *explicit* (SAFE) are effective both in terms of subject-related and non-academic competencies. The meta-analysis by Lauer et al. (2006) also shows that the disadvantaged students in particular benefit from participation in specific intervention programs. In South Korea, participation in afterschool programs has been shown to have a positive effect on subject-related performance – especially for socially and educationally disadvantaged students (Bae et al., 2010).

Against this background, there is assumed potential in the German all-day school settings. The question arises whether the existing offerings can be optimized by incorporating empirical findings from international contexts on such learning settings as well as conditions for their successful implementation.

Therefore, the objective of the project is to harness empirical findings and knowledge from other national contexts to better exploit the potential of all-day schools in Germany as well. Socially and educationally disadvantaged students with migration background are the target group of this project with a special focus on primary schools.

Theoretical framework

Based on research questions, several theoretical frameworks are referred to in this research project. In international contexts, there are many different forms of extended education, which can differ considerably in their design. The **characterization tool and aspects of characterization** according to Schüpbach (2018, p. 137) serve as a basis for characterizing the current offerings in Germany and in other countries. The basic points are

(a) What is the (age) range of the participants?
(b) What is the focus?
(c) What form does it take?
(d) When does it take place?
(e) Who is the provider?
(f) Where is it located?
(g) Who participates?
(h) What is the professional background of the staff?
(i) Who pays the costs?

Based on this tool, different forms of extended education in the (inter)national fields can be described in its current basic features.

The concept of **educational quality** is based on the work of Tietze et al. (2005). In their German version of the School-Age Care Environment Rating Scale (SACERS) by Harms et al. (2013) – in German "Hort- und Ganztagsangeboteskala" (HUGS) – Tietze et al. (2005) describe three levels of educational quality: The *educational process quality* is placed in the

center, which includes aspects of the offering concept, such as the spatial and material equipment, moreover all interactions that promote education and development of the students. The educational processes are framed by the *structural quality* and *orientation quality:* While the structural quality includes the conditions of the learning environment, which are mainly politically regulated (e. g. group size and composition, qualification of the pedagogical staff), the level of orientation quality refers to aspects of the educational attitude of the pedagogical staff (Tietze et al., 2005).

At the same time, the empirical, interdisciplinary, and action-oriented project follows the rationale of **co-construction of innovation** (Maasen, 2020) for the transfer of scientific findings to school practice. The German Children and Youth Foundation is a collaborative partner. Cooperation with the service agencies "Ganztägig lernen" (All-Day learning) as well as the participating federal states, in particular their education administrations, will already start at an early stage of the project. This enables a continuous review of preconditions for the implementation of the created concepts and products in school practice.

Methods

The project is designed as a qualitative study, which is divided into four phases and utilizes different methods to collect and analyze empirical data.

In the first phase, all-day primary schools in Germany are characterized with a special focus on the target group (Schüpbach, 2018). On this basis, (inter)national experts are going to be interviewed and evaluate the current implementation in Germany with regard to learning settings and necessary conditions of high-quality learning settings of the extra-curricular offerings in all-day primary schools.

In the second phase, (inter)national experts receive a summary of the assessments from all experts concerning the offerings currently implemented in the German context for a second evaluation. Then, the evaluations of the (inter)national experts are analyzed in a sequential procedure with the help of qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2014).

In the third phase, the insights gained are to be discussed in focus groups consisting of German practitioners (e. g. education administrators, educational institutions and extra-curricular cooperation partners, school principals, teachers, and other educational staff) with a view to transferring them into innovative concepts, measures, and products in the German context (Morgan, 1997). The focus group discussions are also to be analyzed using qualitative content analysis.

In the fourth phase, these concepts will be developed and their suitability for the local context will be tested together with German practitioners and transfer partners at selected all-day primary schools in four federal states of Germany. A final survey with schools and their cooperation partners aims at generating assessments of whether the concepts and measures developed are practicable and purposeful.

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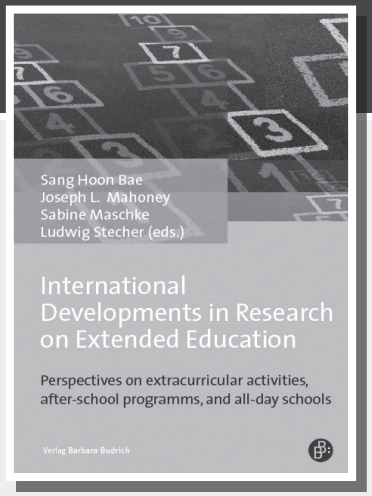

Sang Hoon Bae, Joseph Mahoney, Sabine Maschke, Ludwig Stecher (eds.)

International Developments in Research on Extended Education

Perspectives on extracurricular activities, after-school programmes, and all-day schools

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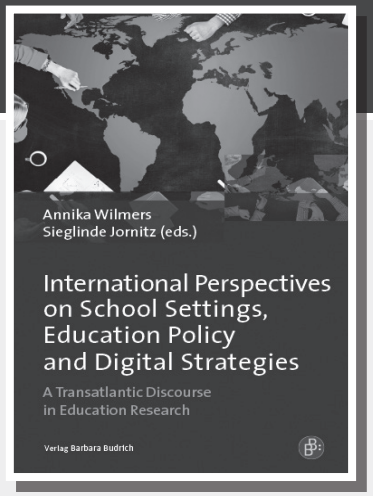
The volume provides an overview of extended education in multiple nations around the world. It encompasses 18 articles which cover extended education in 12 different countries around the globe and aims at three main aspects: Firstly, it explores major characteristics of extended education as an emerging research field, defines what this research field is (and is not), and points to areas/nations/regions where we know very little about extended education. Secondly, the volume provides a potential framework for future cross-national research (collaborative and comparative research) on extended education we are lacking so far. And thirdly, the volume sheds light on the national and international features of extended education and suggests future developments in this field of education.



Annika Wilmers, Sieglinde Jornitz (eds.)

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Since 2015, the Office for International Cooperation in Education at DIPF | Leibniz Institute for Research and Information in Education has organized international sessions on education research at the Annual Meetings of the American Educational Research Association, thus providing a floor for transatlantic exchange on current research topics. The volume gives an overview of the transatlantic activities in education research with regard to these sessions.

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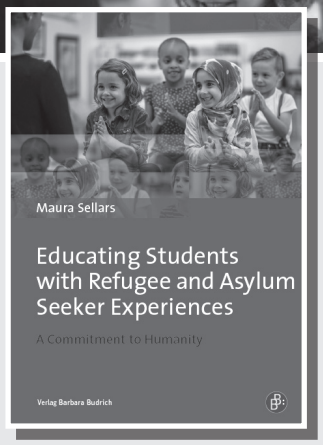

Maura Sellars

Educating Students with Refugee and Asylum Seeker Experiences

A Commitment to Humanity

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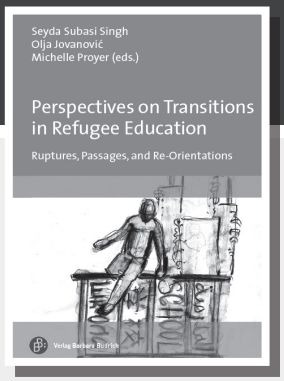
This book discusses the educational systems into which students with refugee backgrounds are placed when relocated into many of their new homelands. It discusses the current climate of neo liberalism which pervades schooling in many western countries and the subsequent impact on curriculum focus and teaching strategies. It proposes ways in which these students, who are currently the most vulnerable students in school, can be educated with policies and perspectives which respect the diversity and uniqueness that characterises the world today as the result of the global unrest and subsequent diaspora.



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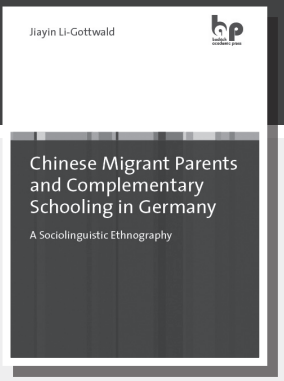

Jiayin Li-Gottwald

Chinese Migrant Parents and Complementary Schooling in Germany

A Sociolinguistic Ethnography

How do parents cooperate with each other, what value do they attach to their interaction and how is the degree of cooperation related to social status? The study takes a close look at the social relationships among various groups of Chinese parents at a Chinese Mandarin language school in a metropolitan city in Germany. Taking an ethnographic approach, it captures a vivid picture of the parental social interactions in and outside the Chinese school setting. The study reveals the significance of social interactions, discussing it in relation to the parents' socioeconomic backgrounds and individual migrant trajectories.

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