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The Effect of Utilization of Extended Education Offerings and of Their Quality on Reading Achievement at Open-Attendance All-Day Schools

Benjamin von Allmen, Marianne Schüpbach, Lukas Frei, Wim Nieuwenboom

Abstract: This paper investigates the effect of primary school students’ utilization of extended education offerings and of the quality of extended education on reading achievement in the German-speaking part of Switzerland. All-day schools are being set up. Among other reasons, as a means to level the increasing scholastic demands in the primary schools. In this context, it is expected that students’ utilization of extended education will have a positive impact on their reading achievement. The authors analyzed data on 1,002 students from the longitudinal ‘EduCare-TaSe: All-Day School and School Success?’ study. Extended education offerings did not have a general effect on reading achievement. There was also no compensatory effect regarding the language spoken at home or socioeconomic status. However, the quality of extended education offerings had a positive effect on reading achievement in students with long-term utilization of extended education offerings.

Key words: all-day school, reading achievement, compensatory effects

For a variety of reasons, education is viewed as one of Switzerland’s most important investments, as discussed, for example, in a strategy paper by the Swiss Academies of Arts and Sciences (Zimmerli, Malaguerra, & Künzli, 2009). Accordingly, the expectations placed on students are high. In the last decades, several education measures have been put in place so that current and future scholastic requirements can be met. The introduction of all-day schools at the primary level can be seen as one such measure (Schüpbach, 2010).

The results of the PISA studies in recent years revealed undesired effects of family background in the Swiss education system: at the end of compulsory schooling, students with a migration background and also students with low socioeconomic status had lower achievement in reading than students with no migration background and with high socioeconomic status (Konsortium PISA.ch, 2013). Similar effects of family background have been found as early as at the primary level. In the German-speaking part of Switzerland, Moser and Bayer (2010) found that in the early primary grades, students with German as a second language and students with low socioeconomic status had lower reading achievement than other students. An expectation is that all-day schools can have compensatory effects regarding these undesired effects of family background: utilization of extended education offerings by students with German as a second language or with low socioeconomic status is supposed to make up for a lack of family resources promoting learning (Schwe-
zerischer Verband für schulische Tagesbetreuung, 2016). In addition, it is assumed that the
educationally and temporally extended framework also has a direct impact on the student’s
achievement (Aeberli & Binder, 2005).

In the following, “all-day schools” [Tageschulen] in Switzerland—similar to Ganztags-
schulen in Germany—refers to schools that in addition to traditional hours of classroom in-
struction provide all-day extended education and care offerings (including lunch) several
days per week (Schweizerische Konferenz der kantonalen Erziehungsdirektoren [EDK],
2015). In the United States, extended education is mostly clearly separated in structure
and/or content from school instruction in school time or out-of-school time. In contrast, in
Switzerland all-day schools with institutional ties of extended education are being estab-
lished and further developed. There are compulsory-attendance and open-attendance all-day
schools. At compulsory-attendance all-day schools, the extended education offerings are
mandatory, except for what are called “early drop-off hours”; at open-attendance all-day
schools, the children may attend optional modular extended education offerings voluntarily.
In the German-speaking part of Switzerland, the majority of extended education offerings
are open-attendance (Schüpbach, Frei, & Nieuwenboom, 2018). According to a recent
analysis by Schüpbach, Rohrbach-Nussbaum, and Grütter (2018), open-attendance extend-
ed education offerings typically comprise “guided activities” and “free play activities.”
Guided activities led by extended education staff in a specified time window are usually
homework help, library visits, reading aloud, planning and rehearsing music or drama
shows, or sports games and competitions. In addition, staff and students have lunch togeth-
er. Free play means a time period when students choose freely among various activities;
typical activities are reading, playing board games, listening to music CDs, building with
blocks and Legos, or playing movement games (Schüpbach et al., 2018).

This paper aims to investigate the effects of primary students’ utilization of extended
education offerings and of the quality of extended education offerings on their reading
achievement and to examine whether utilization of extended education offerings has com-
pensatory effects.

Review of the Literature: Extended Education and the
Development of Reading Achievement

An often-used model for theorizing about the effect of extended education offerings on
reading achievement is Stecher, Radisch, Fischer, and Klieme’s (2007) model of the educa-
tional quality of an extended education offering. Based on school characteristics, individual
and family background, and other characteristics of the external context, process character-
istics and utilization of an extended education offering are considered as determining fac-
tors for educational and scholastic effects. From the model it can be derived that, first, an
extended education offering can have a general effect on reading achievement, meaning
that all students can benefit scholastically by participating. Second, the model shows that
the effect of utilization of extended education can be dependent, among other things, on
family background. Consequently, with regard to family background effects, there may be a
possible compensatory effect of extended education on reading achievement. And third, the
Leisure-Time Activities Including Children with Special Needs: A Research Overview

Birgitta Lundbäck, Linda Fälth

Abstract: In Sweden and the other Scandinavian countries children are offered a curricular based combination of care and teaching before and after compulsory school hours. These leisure time centers, so-called *fritidshem*, are offered to children aged between 6 and 12 whose parents’ study or work, as well as to children that require special development support. The aim of this systematic literature review was to investigate how similar activities are described in international research. The focus was on children aged 6-12 who have been assessed to need special support. The initial step in this literature survey was the reading of 108 abstracts from academic articles. The second step included 21 articles that were read in their entirety. Fourteen of them met the sampling criteria and were included in the result section. The Nordic model combines care and curricular activities before and after compulsory school hours. In other countries activities taking place after school hours are separated into activities meeting children’s need of care and activities supplementing school. Another result that became clear in this research is the need of further studies to map pre- and after-school activities where children are simultaneously offered development support and care, with special focus on children in need of extra support.

Key words: after school activities, leisure time activities, leisure time center, special needs

Introduction

Children’s leisure-time activities, or what children do before or after school, form the focus of this research overview. The Nordic model is unique in that it combines traditional day-care and education (Rauch, 2007). In Sweden, children’s leisure activities are often organized by the municipalities in close connection with the school day. These activities are organized by leisure centers – so called “*fritidshem*”. They are part of and have to abide by the Public-School Act (Swedish Education Act, 2010: 800), which specifies that children whose parents work or study have the right of access to participation in leisure activities as well as how leisure-time activities should provide for children in need of special support. The charge for participation is based on the total household income and on the number of children involved. This cost is subsidized by the state. The leisure centers also abide by the
national curriculum (The National Agency for Education, 2016), where some sections apply to all elementary school curricula, while a separate section describes the purpose, mission and goals of leisure centers. Against the background of the Nordic model, this study offers a systematic literature survey whose aim is to study how pre- or after-school activities are described in international research. The primary focus of this survey is on children between 6 and 12 who have been assessed to need special support.

Swedish primary school is compulsory from the year the child turns 6. This means that when they enroll in primary school, many children also enroll in voluntary leisure-center activities before and after school. According to the Swedish National Agency for Education survey from 2018, there are slightly more than 4,250 leisure centers in Sweden. Most of them are operated by municipalities, while some are state or privately run. Participation increases annually, amounting in 2017 to 484,400 registered attendants, which corresponds to about 85% of all children aged 6–9. About 900 children are enrolled in other pedagogical care, partly provided by people who receive children in their homes (daycare) and other independent activities. All children, regardless of whether they need support (such as having been identified as having special needs or children whose first language is not Swedish), have the right to attend both school and leisure center, according to the School Act (Swedish Education Act, 2010: 800). These leisure centers play a vital role in helping students perform up to the expected standard, which according to Yong and Ping (2008) is important as “children who fail often run the risk of giving up in school and worse, their own learning. This is particularly detrimental when it happens to students who are still in their elementary levels.” (Yong & Ping, 2008, p. 521).

The leisure centers are further expected to supplement the education the children receive in preschool and elementary school. Their purpose is to support the development and learning of the children from a holistic view of education (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2014). The Swedish Education Act (2010: 800) describes how special education support is to be provided by the municipalities. This is often referred to as a compensatory assignment in education. The report further states that teachers and leisure center staff should work together to support and create a sense of security for each individual child. The mission of the leisure center is further to “endeavor to offset the differences in the students’ prerequisites for acquiring the education” (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2014, p. 20). It is the responsibility of the principal to consider the children’s age and different needs when planning the size, composition and staff density of leisure groups (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2014).

Two reviews of research on how to promote the achievement of learning goals for children in need of special support addressed various support measures affecting learners’ goal fulfillment (Almqvist, Malmqvist, & Nilholm, 2015; Göransson & Nilholm, 2015). Almqvist et al. (2015) drew attention to collaborative learning as one successful method but noted that further research was needed in order to find other possible ways of working to achieve this goal. Göransson and Nilholm (2015) focused on children in need of additional and special education support in their learning as well as in their social situation in preschool and school (excluding the leisure center). Their findings indicated that this group of children did not differ with regard to social affiliation or of being at risk of becoming marginalized, isolated or excluded by their friends. However, some shortcomings in the research were high-
Results of an Exploratory Analysis of PISA 2015 Survey of Student Participation in Outside-School-Time Programs

Larry E. Suter

Abstract: The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) by the OECD measures student study time during formal school periods and during periods of out-of-school-time (OST). The purpose of these items is to account for differences in country to country achievement levels. However, analyses of the impact of additional study time on student achievement have produced conflicting results across countries. While more time given to a school subject within formal school is positively related to achievement in that topic, more time spent on OST is negatively related to average achievement between and within countries. The paper proposes a reconceptualization of OST and achievement by integrating theoretical frameworks of study time, student abilities, and student feelings of efficacy. The results of a descriptive and conceptual analysis of a set of new survey items in the 2015 PISA for 22 countries shows that students benefit from additional study time by having increased feelings of efficacy in a school subject (such as science) but not in measurable levels of achievement. While country to country levels OST participation rates are different, the patterns of relationships between OST participation, student achievement, and attitudes are similar.

Key words: PISA, comparative education, achievement, study time, attitudes

Introduction

The relationship between amount of study time and student learning has been a significant topic of a debate among education researchers for over 50 years (Gromada & Shewbridge, 2016; Karweit, 1984; Husén, 1972; Carroll, 1963, 1989; Farbman, 2012; Berliner, 1990). Most individuals and researchers assume that more study time would be associated with higher school performance (OECD, 2011b; Berliner, 1990). Public opinion also appears to support longer periods of study. For example, Long (2014) reports that 96% of adults in a Gallop poll thought that increased instructional time was an effective strategy for reducing the gap between high and low achievers (Long, 2014, p. 351). Thus, many educational policy bodies have urged schools and parents to increase student learning time in the United States and other countries (Benavot, 2004; Commission on Excellence, 1983; National Education Commission on Time and Learning, 1994). Nevertheless, such policies have been questioned by educational researchers (Husén, 1972; Karweit, 1984). In recent years, some countries have changed educational policies to reduce the burden of “cramming” for tests.
Thus, the question of whether, and how, additional study time affects student performance is still an open question worthy of study and empirical analysis.

Evidence from the OECD’s Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), an international comparative survey of 15-year-old students, shows that countries with longer periods of regular school time have higher achievement (OECD, 2011c, and 2017c); whereas, longer time spent in “additional study” is negatively associated with achievement or not associated at all (OECD, 2011b; 2016b, p. 209; Suter, 2016). No studies by OECD or others have provided a clear answer to the paradoxical finding about the relationship between additional study time and achievement (OECD, 2011b; 2011c; 2017c; Mori & Baker, 2010; Byun, Chung, & Baker, 2018; Bray, 2014). Often, the evidence reported in published studies directly contradicts results in other studies (Kuger, 2016; Bray, 2014; Farbman, 2012).

The thesis of this paper is that spending time in additional study is less likely to influence achievement in a school subject than it is to increase a student’s level of confidence (efficacy). The reasoning of this proposition is based on educational theory of study time and learning and social-psychological theories of motivation (Carroll, 1963, 1989; Eccles et al., 1983). These theories provide a basis to hypothesize that study time outside of class (as OST or extra homework) does not lead necessarily to higher achievement levels but that ability levels interact with student self-beliefs to motivate attendance in OST which then functions to increase student feelings of efficacy in school subjects. The decision to take additional study in OST is determined by an interaction between a student’s ability, their perception of their school performance, and their self-beliefs. Therefore, students of low achievement levels are more motivated to attend OST programs for a school subject if they are concerned with acquiring achievement levels equivalent to other students. Necessarily, the decision to engage in additional study is conditioned by the availability of opportunities for OST within the country.

Evidence for this hypothesis is presented from analysis of relationships of student achievement levels and perceived need for efficacy in a cross-national study of 22 countries. By comparing these relationships across countries, the level of generality for these relationships across differing educational and social conditions will be established.

Definition of Outside-School-Time

Many different terms have been used to refer to similar, but not necessarily identical, practices of student activities outside of formal school time (see review by Bray and Kobakhidze, 2014). Some of the terms include: after-school time, outside-school-time (Noam & Shaw, 2013), additional instruction (OECD, 2017b), extended learning (Fischer & Klieme, 2013), shadow education (Stevenson & Baker, 1992; Bray, 1999), private supplementary tutoring requiring payment (Bray, 1999), cram school, group learning, extracurricular activities (National Research Council, 2002), summer learning (Alexander, Entwisle, Olson, 2007). Other terms unique to a single country exist also. The term “outside-school-time” or “OST” will be used throughout the paper to refer to student self-reports of study time in any topic. Because this paper is an analysis of existing survey data, the scope of OST is confined by the set of items contained in the expanded PISA 2015 items on “additional study”.
All-Day Schools and Social Work: A Swiss Case Study

Emanuela Chiapparini, Andrea Scholian, Patricia Schuler, Christa Kappler

Abstract: All-day schools are becoming more widespread in Switzerland. They enable pupils to participate in lunchtime and extracurricular activities organized and supervised mostly by social workers. Qualitative data were collected for a project on newly implemented area-wide all-day schools in Zurich, Switzerland’s largest city. The research was funded by the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF). Findings indicate that the resulting structural, pedagogical, spatial, and staff changes significantly impact the social work setting. The importance and potential of social work needs to be better communicated to the all-day school community.

Key words: all-day schools, leisure time, extracurricular activities, social work, evidence-informed research

Introduction: Social Work at All-Day Schools

Over the past 10 years, the federal states of Switzerland have been restructuring their education systems in order to offer country-wide all-day schooling. Such programs are becoming more widespread in Switzerland, especially in the cities of Basel, Geneva, Bern, and Zurich (Chiapparini, Schuler, & Kappler, 2016). This development is expanding the social work setting compared to mainstream schooling: All-day schools enable pupils to participate in before-school, lunchtime, and after-school extracurricular activities and programs¹ (Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education [EDK], 2015). This new system tasks social workers Social workers working at all-day schools in Switzerland are mostly involved in the care setting before and after lessons and at lunchtime. They have different educational backgrounds, e.g., a bachelor’s degree, a completed childcare apprenticeship, or no specialized education (Chiapparini, Selami, Schuler, & Kappler, 2018).² with providing pupils with support and access to social and cultural resources beyond the classroom.

¹ All-day schools in Zurich offer “extracurricular activities” and “after school programs” (Vandell, Larson, Mahoney, & Watts, 2015).
² Social workers working at all-day schools in Switzerland are mostly involved in the care setting before and after lessons and at lunchtime. They have different educational backgrounds, e.g., a bachelor’s degree, a completed childcare apprenticeship, or no specialized education (Chiapparini et al., 2018b).
Consequently, extended school days and additional responsibilities are enhancing the role of social workers at all-day schools (Thole & Höblich, 2014).

In 2016, the city of Zurich became the first Swiss municipality to introduce area-wide all-day programs at all regular schools. These programs differ from those implemented in other cities in Canton Zurich or in other Swiss cantons. Pupils are expected to remain at school for a number of lunchtimes per week (e.g., three lunchtimes at elementary school). Although parents are allowed to opt out of the lunch program, this seldom happens (Feller & Dietrich, 2018).

Emerging all-day schooling and social work at such schools were studied in an SNSF research project on pedagogical responsibilities ("Aushandlungsprozesse der pädagogischen Zuständigkeiten an Tagesschulen im Spannungsfeld öffentlicher Erziehung; AusTEr") (Chiapparini et al., 2016). The data from this qualitative, large-scale research are particularly well suited to addressing the main question raised here: How does implementing all-day schooling impact social work at such schools (see next section)?

First, we review the relevant evidence-informed research. Second, we discuss the data collection method used in the SNSF project and our approach to analyzing that data here. Third, we look at the changes resulting from implementing all-day school programs and consider their impacts on social work settings from various perspectives (pupils, parents, teachers, and social workers). Finally, we discuss the implications of our findings and offer recommendations for future research.

**Literature Review: Impact on School Performance and Personal Development at All-Day Schools**

To date, little research has been conducted on implementing all-day schooling in Switzerland (Weinbach, Coelen, Dollinger, Munsch, & Rohrmann, 2017) or how its impact social work at such schools (Chiapparini et al., 2018b).

Most studies on social work at all-day schools have tried to determine the effectiveness of all-day schooling and to help pupils perform better academically and socially. Schüpbach, Mous, Wustmann, and Bolz (2007) investigated the extent to which participation in all-day schooling influences pupils’ performance (in mathematics and German) and their social behavior. The authors investigated social work at different types of all-day schools. They found that while most social workers offered free-play programs, and ensured that homework was completed without well-targeted assistance, they seldom offered extracurricular programs.

Research results have been contradictory. Whereas an initial survey of Grades 1, 2, and 3 observed minor effects on mathematics (Schüpbach, 2014), a follow-up survey indicated no significant impact (von Allmen, Schüpbach, Frei, & Nieuwenboom, 2018). A study on the development of all-day schools (StEG) in Germany found no evidence that participation in all-day programs improves pupils’ academic performance (Fischer et al., 2011; Fischer, Kuhn, & Tillack, 2016). However, regular participation in high-quality extracurricular activities at all-day schools (both primary and secondary) resulted in better social behavior (Fischer et al., 2016). Similar findings were confirmed by Linberg, Struck, and Bäumer.
The After-School Program Collaboration Quality Index (CQI): Results of a Validation Study

Michelle Jutzi, Rebecca H. Woodland

Abstract: There has been a surge in the demand for the establishment of high-quality after-school programs (ASP) predicated on professional collaboration between in-school and after-school educators (OECD, 2014). In this validation study, we outline the psychometric properties of the Collaboration Quality Index (CQI) comprised of four predominant scales, using data collected from 44 Swiss ASPs and 266 ASP staff members. Internal and external validity findings, as well as bivariate correlations, indicated that the CQI is able to measure specific aspects of professional collaboration that are not accounted for with traditional and stand-alone measurement scales. ASP policy-makers and practitioners are encouraged to utilize the CQI to assess ASPs and use the results to make evidenced-based decisions for improvement.

Keywords: after-school programs, collaboration quality, validity

Introduction

The practice of professional collaboration in educational settings has been the focus of numerous empirical studies, and positive correlations between quality of teacher collaboration, instructional quality, and student learning have been reported (Darling-Hammond, La Pointe, Meyerson, Orr & Cohen, 2007; Lomos, Hofman & Bosker, 2011; Woodland, 2016). However, little has been done to empirically consider educator collaboration in the context of After School Programs (ASP). In this paper, we outline the emergence of ASPs and the fundamental role professional collaboration has within them from a cross-cultural perspective: We elaborate this in the cultural contexts of USA and Switzerland. We then ask the question, whether collaboration is a multidimensional construct which might be better understood by using an index with distinct scales, which independently measure different aspects of collaboration.

According to the Organisation for Office of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), after-school programming has become a critical element of school reform efforts worldwide (OECD, 2014). Over the past ten years, there has been an extensive development of ASPs in Switzerland, especially in Cantons with extended urban regions, such as the Canton of Bern (Schüpbach, 2014). In general, ASPs take place before and after regular school hours and offer additional learning opportunities, homework assistance and activities
related to music, art, sports or free play. The activities are often integrated in the school and offered on the school grounds. Nevertheless, the ASP is—according to the government of the Canton of Bern (Ministry of Education Bern [MoE Bern], 2009)—organized as an independent institution inside the school system. Since 2010, every community in the Canton of Berne in Switzerland has to provide ASPs if 10 or more parents request it (ibid.). Due to this external political pressure of the public demand for after-school care, the number of hours of after-school care has increased by 67% between the years 2010 and 2016 in the Canton of Bern (Kull, 2016). Moreover, recent policy-level discussions in the German-speaking countries have called for an increase in the minimum number of ASP hours in which children should participate (Hascher, Idel, Reh, Thole & Tillmann, 2015). ASPs are increasingly becoming an important location for more informal education and care of school-age students during after-school hours in Switzerland (Jutzi, Schüpbach, Frei, Nieuwenboom & von Allmen, 2016; Schüpbach, 2014).

Overall participation in ASPs in the United States has increased by almost 60% over the past decade. Today, 10.2 million children (~18% of all school-age children) participate in an ASP, two million of whom started attending in the last five years (Afterschool Alliance, 2016). The majority of ASPs in the United States are funded in part through the federal 21st Century Community Learning Center program (21st CCLC) (U. S. Department of Education, 2015). Federal investment in afterschool programs has remained relatively stable over the past years—growing a little under two percent, from $1.13 billion in 2009 to $1.15 billion in 2014. Although the establishment of ASPs is widely desired, insufficient federal funds exist to support their creation; $4 billion in local grant requests have been denied via the 21st CCLC program over the past decade (O’Donnell & Ford, 2013). In communities across the United States, 11.3 million children are without supervision between the hours of 3 and 6 p.m.; 1 in 5 children still do not have someone to care for them after school. While participation in afterschool programs has increased, the unmet demand for ASPs continues to rise. In 2014, approximately 19.4 million children (41%) not currently in an ASP would be enrolled in a program if one were available to them, according to their parents. In comparison, in 2009, parents of 18.5 million children (38%) said they would enroll their child in an ASP if one were available, up from parents of 15.3 million children (30%) in 2004.

Professional Collaboration in ASPs

In Switzerland and the United States, ASPs are delivered by personnel, usually an After School Director (ASD) and some number of ASP staff members, who serve the same children, toward the same ends, and in the same building as their school-based colleagues – principals and teachers (Jutzi, Schüpbach, & Thomann, 2013). Public schools and ASPs in the US and Switzerland share the same audience and pursue similar goals of supporting and providing favorable conditions for student learning and development (Jutzi et al. 2016). ASPs are designed as supporting institutions for schools, with built-in structures around homework help, handling students with behavioral difficulties, and heterogeneous classes (MoE Bern, 2009; Sheldon, Aberton, Hopkins, Baldwin, & Grossmann, 2010; Vandell, 2014). ASPs are becoming an integrated part of public education in the US and Switzerland; both countries have faced an exponential growth in the number of ASPs in recent years.
Abstract: Science education as a part of STEM education is becoming important not only for the future success of the individual but also for the economic development of the nation. This study explores the global pattern of extended education and its impact on learning outcomes in the area of science. First, the study found substantial national differences in access to afterschool science programs. Children and youth in developing countries generally lack opportunities to learn science after school, which was found to predict PISA 2015 science achievement in this study. The study suggests that inequality in extended education among countries requires urgent attention, as does inequality within countries. Second, the study found a negative relationship between additional study time for science and PISA science performance at the national level. Regarding this finding, it is speculated that the content of learning during additional study time differs from that of higher-order learning experiences measured by the PISA science test. The result may also be explained by the argument that the purpose of additional afterschool study is usually remedial lessons and/or test preparation. This cross-national research will provide insights to policy makers who intend to find global patterns in extended education, develop policy direction at the global level, and offer advice to national governments.

Keywords: extended education, PISA 2015, afterschool science program, additional study time

Introduction

It is increasingly important that children have opportunities to learn after school. Many researchers have revealed that participation in extended education, also called “afterschool,” “all-day school,” “extracurricular activities,” and “out-of-school time-learning activities,” contributes to improving cognitive and socio-emotional development of children and youth (Afterschool Alliance, 2009; Durlak & Weissberg, 2007; Lauer et al., 2006). Attending quality afterschool programs was also found to have positive effects on student health and well-being (Little, Wimer, & Weiss, 2008). It is widely agreed that extended education provides considerable social benefits in that it keeps children safe while their parents still work, helps students engaged in significant learning experiences that may not be offered by the regular classes, and contributes to cultivating future talents who will play important roles.
roles in certain fields such as arts and STEM. Finally, extended education has contributed to reforming public schools, particularly the less-open, less-flexible, and teacher-driven aspects of the regular curriculum. It functions as a place where innovative and creative teaching strategies are implemented based on learners’ interests (Bae & Jeon, 2013; Noam & Triggs, 2018). In many countries like South Korea, Japan, and the United Kingdom, extended education has been used to build bridges between public schools and the local communities (Dyson & Jones, 2014; Kanefuji, 2017). On the one hand, the educational capacities of schools are extended to solve the problems of local towns. On the other hand, extended education becomes a platform where educational resources of the local communities are employed for better education.

In this context, extended education is gaining popularity among the public and policy makers in many countries. It is spotlighted as an effective attempt to fix the problems that public schooling has faced, respond to diverse social needs such as childcare and education for immigrants, and develop a skillful workforce in certain areas. Accordingly, substantial financial and physical resources are provided to improve the quality of extended education and enhance opportunities to learn after school, especially for underserved and underrepresented children and youth.

However, most efforts have been made to promote the quality and equality of extended education in the context of a certain country. Public attention has also been given to domestic education issues. During the past decade, extended education research has kept increasing, but the focus of the research was primarily on the issues within the country. Only a few comparative qualitative studies have been done to explore differences and similarities between two selected countries (e.g., Bae & Kanefuji, 2018; Klerfelt & Stecher, 2018; Schuepbach & Huang, 2018). The exception is those studies that investigate private supplementary tutoring, also known as shadow education, across countries (e.g., Bray, 2013; Bray, Kwo & Jokic, 2015).

Fueling this study is the lack of empirical comparative research on extended education at the international level – in other words, cross-national comparative research. A primary focus of this exploratory research is to examine the global pattern of extended education provision and participation at the national level. In addition, the study examines whether national differences, if any, are related to learning outcomes of the students aggregated at the national level. The aim of this cross-national research is to provide researchers and policy makers with information about how the national context influences extended education. In addition, this study aims to suggest what the policy implications of achieving quality and equality of extended education at the global level are.

In the context of extended education, this research concerns “science education,” which is the core subject of STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math) and is considered a powerful predictor of national competitiveness. A great deal of research (National Research Council, 2010) has pointed out that STEM education plays a significant role in the educational and career success of the individual as well as the competitiveness of the nation. Studies (Brophy et al. 2008; National Science Board, 2008; White, 2014) suggest that participation in well-designed STEM education helps students develop problem-solving skills, critical and creative thinking, and collaboration skills that are all necessary for the knowledge-based economy and jobs of the present and future. Furthermore, higher
Navigating Partnership Model for Expanded Learning Opportunities: A Case of the State of Oklahoma

Chang Sung Jang

Background

Schools nowadays have been confronted with unprecedented pressure from nationwide accountability systems which in order to get rid of learning barriers and/or improve the achievement of all students (Bathgate & Silva, 2010). Consequently, school leaders are seeking a variety of ways to increase the learning opportunities of students both inside and outside of schools. Corresponding to this trend, extending school time, which increases the number of days in each school year or adds hours to the school day, has been introduced as a popular strategy. In the United States, this approach emerged with the Time for Innovation Matters in Education Act (2009), which focuses on offering expanded learning time (Weiss et al., 2009). As educational reform initiatives, the rationale of this strategy is that increased time in- and out-of-schools probably leads to students’ increased learning and achievement. Evidence from research shows that increased learning opportunities serve as a pipeline not only in bridging race- and class-based achievement gap but also successful childcare, particularly for disadvantaged groups (e.g., Blau & Currie, 2004; Cooper et al., 1996; Entwisle, Alexander, & Olsen, 2007).

In a facet of supporting increased time for learning at the outside of schools, school leaders and community providers are adopting partnerships with a perception that fully integrating schools and afterschool community-based organizations serve as a vehicle for expanded learning opportunities (ELO). As a core component of school-community partnerships, ELO has become a primary principle in (a) widening the spectrum of learning environments at the outside of the classroom, (b) spurring a more dynamic network that elevates student engagement, and (c) preventing a dropout crisis that plagues poor communities disproportionately (Bathgate & Silva, 2010). Moreover, ELO strategy grants greater benefits in collaborating program planning, resource alignment, instruction, data use, and professional development in between schools and community (Gannett, 2012). Broader influences in school attendance, behavioral and socio-emotional aspects, and academic achievement are reported as the positive outcomes of applying ELO by school-community partnerships. Thus, it can be accomplished by not simply extending the school day or school year but by promoting students’ participation in constructive activities (America’s Promise Alliance, 2015; National Education Association, 2008).

Given the significance of school-community partnerships in redesigning school structure and culture, connected engagement approach, which refers to the direct association between a school and (one or more) local companies, community providers, and nonprofit or-
School Age Care Services in Australia

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School Age Care services in Australia are regarded as the fastest growing children care sector. The changes in family circumstances such as longer working hours, families with both parents in full-time employment, single-parent families, changing community and inter-familial care-giving dynamics mean that SAC services are increasingly becoming a vital conduit between home-life and school-life (Cartmel & Hayes, 2016; The Centre for Adolescent Health, Murdoch Children’s Research Institute, 2018). In June 2017, 363,700 Australian children were reported as attending SAC (ABS, 2018). Children who attend are aged between five to twelve years. The services operate before school and after school and during vacation periods. Daily hours of attendance can total 5 hours a day (nearly the same hours as school). Even though services have been operating for more than forty years there has been limited research about the way programs are developed.

All Australian governments developed The National Quality Agenda (NQA) for Early Childhood Education and Care with the express goal of creating a national quality strategy for the early years, to ensure the wellbeing of children throughout their lives, and to deliver the vision of the Early Childhood Development Strategy (ECDS) endorsed by the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) in July 2009, that “by 2020 all children have the best start in life to create a better future for themselves, and for the nation”. The NQA established the National Quality Framework (NQF), which has implemented a regulatory approach underpinned by the importance of learning and development opportunities for all Australian children. School Age Child Care services are included in this National Quality Agenda even though they provide services for children for older age groups of children. The NQF consists of the National Law and National Regulations, National Quality Standard, assessment and quality rating process and approved learning frameworks My Time Our Place Framework for School Age Care in Australia (DEEWR, 2011).

The introduction of the National Quality Framework and the National Quality Standard Rating Scale and in particular My Time Our Place, Framework for School Age Care Services in Australia (DEEWR, 2011) states that “school age care educators are responsive to all children’s strengths, abilities and interests. They value and build on children’s strengths, skills and knowledge to ensure their wellbeing and motivation and engagement in experiences... Responding to children’s ideas and play forms an important basis for program decision-making” (p. 14). The Framework acknowledges that children need a place to engage