CULTURAL INCLUSION IN EARLY CHILDHOOD AND PRIMARY EDUCATION

INTERCULTURAL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT TO SUPPORT THE INTEGRATION OF IMMIGRANT AND MINORITY FAMILIES

Bodine Romijn

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Culturele inclusie in de kinderopvang en het basisonderwijs

Interculturele professionele ontwikkeling om de integratie van families met een migratie- of etnische minderheidsachtergrond te ondersteunen
(met een samenvatting in het Nederlands)

Proefschrift

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Contents

CHAPTER 1.

General introduction

Super-diversity in Europe

The current demographic situation in Europe is characterized by continuing population growth. Eurostat data show that in 2019 approximately 446.8 million inhabitants were living in the European Union (EU), compared to 354.5 million in 1960. Immigration plays an important part in this and has been increasing over time as well. Since 1992, net immigration has even been the main determinant of population growth in the EU and nowadays roughly 8% of the population was born outside the EU. In 2018, 2.2 million people immigrated to the EU and these immigration numbers are expected to continue to increase over the next decades. Immigration forecasts and scenarios expect the number of international immigrants arriving in the EU in 2030 to be 21 to 44% higher than the average annual inflow between 2008 and 2017 (Acostamadiedo, Sohst, Tjaden, Groenewold, & De Valk, 2020). Simultaneously, the free movement between EU Member States has facilitated population changes within the EU as well. There is a westward movement visible, with several eastern EU countries having lost a large share of their population due to intra-EU mobility. In 2015, 54% of the EU inhabitants were living in western EU countries and this proportion is likely to increase to 60% in 2060. For eastern EU countries such as Romania this could mean a 30% loss in population size by 2060 (Lutz et al., 2019). This intra-EU immigration is also impacting populations of western EU countries. For instance, in the Netherlands the percentage of inhabitants with an immigration background (both inside and outside the EU) is expected to increase from 24% in 2020 to 36% in 2050 (De Beer, 2020).

Taken together, these numbers indicate that contemporary Europe is facing increased cultural and linguistic diversity. Within the scientific literature, cultural heterogeneity in Western societies has received increasing interest over the past decades and several researchers notice a shift in how social diversity is defined and perceived. Malik (2015) states that it is debatable whether contemporary Europe is really more socially plural than it was a century ago. However, back then it was far more common to frame social diversity in terms of class or social standing, whereas nowadays differences between citizens are increasingly defined in terms of ethnicity, culture and faith. As such, increased immigration has unquestionably led Europeans to perceive their societies as more diverse. Vertovec (2007, 2010) argues that diversity is a far too complex concept to be defined by differences in single characteristics, such as class or ethnicity. He introduced the notion of 'super-diversity', which intends to underline the dynamic interplay of multiple variables, including country of origin, ethnicity, religion, language, traditions, cultural values and practices, immigration channel and legal status. This notion is supported by research that demonstrates that large variation in integration patterns exists within ethnic or cultural groups and between highly similar groups in different countries, which suggests that an interplay of different contextual factors and countries' education and social support systems are related to

successful integration as, among other aspects, is manifest in upward social mobility and educational achievement (e.g., Crul, 2016; Crul et al., 2012; Leseman et al., 2020; Scheider et al., 2012).

Inequality, Integration & Inclusion

This super-diversity comes with its own challenges and raises questions on how western societies should deal with related topics, such as inequality, integration and inclusion. Eurostat data of 2019 indicate that people with an immigrant background continue to face discrimination and encounter barriers in accessing education, employment, healthcare and housing. Adults born outside the EU are less often employed (64% versus 74%) and low levels of educational attainment are more common (39% versus 20%). Moreover, the percentage of people who live in overcrowded households or who are at risk of poverty and social exclusion, is twice as high in the population born outside the EU. Simultaneously, above a quarter of immigrants is highly educated, yet their resources, ambition and motivation are often not recognized and almost 40% is overqualified for the job they do. For intra-EU immigrants, Eurostat data indicate that this group also has a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion compared to native born citizens and research shows they too experience group discrimination (e.g., McGinnity & Gijsberts, 2015). Finally, inequalities are also persistent for Europe's largest (indigenous) ethnic minority, the Roma population. Recently published statistics by the European Commission (EC) indicate that roughly 68% of Roma children leave school early, while the Europe 2020 target is 10% (Jourová, 2019). This might be related to the negative experiences Roma parents have with education systems such as social exclusion and discrimination in school (Petrogiannis, Aguiar, & Obrovská, 2020). Furthermore, only 43% of Roma people have a form of paid employment and 78% live in overcrowded households, often without tap water or indoor bathrooms.

The most striking aspect of inequality is the discrimination faced by children, as the negative effects of poverty and social exclusion can last for a life time (Save the Children, 2014). According to Eurostat data, 22.5% of children (under the age of 18) were at risk of poverty and social exclusion in 2019, ranging from 11.7% in Slovenia to 35.8% in Romania. In fact, children had a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion in 2019 than working-age adults (21.5%) and older people (18.6%). As inequality is both the main cause of poverty and social exclusion as well as one of the consequences, investing in children is necessary to break the cycle of disadvantage (European Commission, 2014; Leseman & Slot, 2014). This investment should start at an early age as the years from zero to six are formative years for basic cognitive, social and emotional skills, and research suggest that early interventions targeted at inequality and disadvantages have much higher returns than later interventions (Heckman, 2006).

Education is often seen as a key driver in the social mobility of disadvantaged children and as a means to tackle inequalities (OECD, 2015). Yet, the educational opportunities of children still strongly depend on family origin (Levels & Dronkers, 2008; Rözer & Van de Werfhorst, 2017) and several studies show that education is not always the 'great equalizer' it should be (e.g., Cebolla-Boado, Radl, & Salazar, 2017; Ballarino & Bernardi, 2016). Moreover, in this super-diverse Europe we see segregation tendencies throughout the entire education system, with (pre)schools becoming predominantly 'black' or 'white'. This social, cultural and ethnic segregation in the education system creates diversity in the quality of learning environments (Brunello & Checchi, 2007), indicating that children do not have equal opportunities in accessing high quality education.

Segregating tendencies in the education system are part of the larger social issue of integration and inclusion. At the core, integration is a two-way process of adaptation of both immigrants and natives in the host country and entails an element of social change (Moser, Broekhuizen, Leseman, & Melhuish, 2017). Inclusion on the other hand can be defined as a dynamic approach of responding positively to diversity and seeing cultural differences not as problems, but as opportunities for enrichment (UNESCO, 2005). The recently presented *Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion 2021-2027* acknowledges Europe's need for better integration and inclusion and states that "if we want to help our societies and economies thrive, we need to support everyone who is part of society, with integration being both a right and a duty for all" (European Commission, 2020a, p. 1). This action plan promotes an integrated approach to the inclusion of immigrants, creating synergies with other EU strategies such as the *EU Roma Strategic Framework for Equality, Inclusion and Participation for 2020-2030* (European Commission, 2020b)*.* Integration and inclusion play a crucial role in tackling inequalities, especially for children, as research on the impact of exclusion and discrimination in childhood demonstrates that the problem of future inequalities can only be solved through child policies on social inclusion (Cook et al., 2018; Pastori, Pagani, & Sarcinelli, 2019, 2020).

Social inclusion and integration for children largely takes place within the microsystem of the (pre)school and is closely related to the concept of well-being. Based on a review of Rosenthal and Levey (2010), Pastori et al. (2019) argue that inclusion is a four-step process that includes well-being. It starts with inclusion as *acknowledging differences* as a precondition and moves on to *valuing differences* and *accepting* them. In the final stage inclusion can be seen as well-being, with recognition, appreciation, valorization and acceptance of diversity. Pastori et al. (2019, 2020) investigated factors that promote or undermine inclusion and well-being for children in the school context by examining children's experiences in eight European countries. Factors that promote well-being, inclusion and feeling at home in school according to children are

welcoming attitudes (to both the children themselves and their parents) of teachers and peers, opportunities to use their mother tongue in the school environment, and free access to safe and attractive places for play (inside and outside). Barriers for inclusion are peer related struggles, such as social exclusion, being mocked (for a lack of majority language proficiency) and fighting. Also, children sometimes experience linguistic barriers as an obstacle to make friends, communicate and understand the school rules. More specifically, navigating between the sometimes conflicting linguistic and cultural identities of children within their home or school context was mentioned as a barrier. Finally, instability of staff and rigidity or incompetence of teachers was mentioned as undermining well-being and inclusion (Pastori et al., 2019, 2020).

A substantial body of research shows that the education system is not always successful in facilitating factors that promote inclusion and well-being or overcoming the barriers that children experience in this. For instance, a review of European school curricula shows that many school curricula do not explicitly acknowledge and support the heritage languages of immigrant or ethnic minority children (Aguiar & Pastori, 2019). There is a predominant focus on the majority language in most European countries (e.g., Blom, 2015; Van Gorp & Moons, 2014; Vetter, 2013; Young, 2014) and in some school contexts this has led to devaluation of the home language (Pulinx, Van Avermaet, & Agirdag, 2017). When it comes to struggles with peers, few curricula explicitly support intercultural contact and use learning strategies that can result in prejudice reduction and increased mutual acceptance, such as cooperative learning within heterogeneous groups (Aguiar & Pastori, 2019). With regard to cultural identity, several studies indicate that an equality and inclusion approach that strives to treat children equally is commonly adopted in schools (e.g., Hachfeld et al., 2011; Schachner, Noack, Van de Vijver, & Eckstein, 2016; Schofield, 2001). However, this approach comes close to a color-blind perspective in which equality is mistaken for sameness and thus implicitly promotes adjustment towards the mainstream culture and ignoring children's cultural identities (Schachner et al., 2016; Schofield, 2001).

Overall, inequality is still a problem in contemporary super-diverse Europe and is rather persistent for some groups. As such, tackling these inequalities is a pivotal task for society and creating inclusive environments for children is a crucial step in tackling inequalities. Though the increased political and scientific interest in the topic is promising, the current numbers suggest we need to do much better if we wish to raise a new generation in which every child is provided with the best opportunities to learn and develop, regardless of their cultural, linguistic or socio-economic background.

The Interculturally Competent Professional

Professionals working in the education system fulfil a key role in fostering child development, integration and inclusion. The quality of education and ultimately the outcomes for (disadvantaged) children and families is dependent on well-educated, experienced and competent staff (e.g., Peeters & Sharmahd, 2014; Urban, Vandenbroeck, Van Laere, Lazzari & Peeters, 2012). These professionals have an important connective role in helping children bridge the microsystems of the school and the family. This may be especially important for children with an immigrant or ethnic minority background as they often experience cultural and linguistic differences – if not a divide – between these microsystems. Moreover, in the eyes of the children, competent professionals are key to promoting inclusion and well-being (Pastori et al., 2019). Yet, many professionals feel ill-prepared in dealing with cultural and linguistic diversity in the classroom (Banerjee & Luckner, 2014; DeCastro-Ambrosetti & Cho, 2005; Michel & Kuiken, 2014), which raises the need to better support professionals in working with these children and their families. To adequately equip professionals in dealing with super-diversity in the education system, we need to further strengthen their intercultural competences.

Intercultural competences encompass professionals' intercultural knowledge, skills, belief systems and actions from a human rights perspective in which diversity is highly valued (Pastori, Mangiatordi, Ereky-Stevens, & Slot, 2018). This definition builds on frameworks of intercultural and global competences as proposed by UNESCO (2013, 2014), the OECD (2018) and the Council of Europe (2014). In line with Vertovec's (2007, 2010) notion, diversity here also encompasses a wide variety of characteristics such as race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation and religion. The knowledge, values, attitudes, skills and actions that are included in the concept of intercultural competences are interrelated and reciprocal in nature. *Knowledge* refers to knowledge of the self, of language and communication, and of the world in a broad sense (i.e., politics, law, human rights, cultures, religion). *Values and beliefs* comprise a wide variety of topics, such as diversity, inclusion, human rights and justice, and are considered to be knowledge-based but contain an affective element as well. Positive intercultural *attitudes* express openness to cultural otherness and other beliefs, world views and practices. Moreover, these attitudes express respect, civic-mindedness, responsibility, self-efficacy and tolerance of ambiguity. Important intercultural *skills* are listening and observing, co-operation and conflict-resolution skills, and communicative skills. In addition, the framework explicitly considers analytical and critical thinking and the ability to use this to reflect on your personal biases as a crucial skill. Finally, intercultural competences encompass the *actions* that are taken for collective well-being and sustainable development, both locally and globally (Pastori et al., 2018).

Systemic Approach to Professionalism

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Increasing the intercultural competences of professionals requires effective professional development (PD). PD is a general term for all actions and activities focused on education, training and development opportunities for professionals (Sheridan, Edwards, Marvin, & Knoche, 2009). Though it is targeted at professionals, the ultimate goal of PD is improving children's developmental or educational outcomes. A traditional and dominant form of PD is a 'one size fits all' one-off workshop or conference (Lumpe, 2007), which is a rather passive and individual form of PD that is not situated within the actual context in which professionals work. Over the past two decades, an increasing number of researchers is arguing that such an approach to PD is outdated (e.g., Birman, Desimone, Porter, & Garet, 2000; Lumpe, 2007; Yue, 2019), pleading for theoretical models that conceptualize effective PD "as fostering sustained and continuous learning, that is collaborative, intensive, adopts a classroom focus and is part of the broader centre culture" (Siraj, Kingston, & Neilsen-Hewett, 2019, p. 60).

Such a take on PD assumes a systemic approach to professionalism in general. It moves away from the traditional idea that professionalism is a matter of professionals treating complex cases individually (Noordegraaf, 2015). The education system has been characterized by this traditional approach to professionalism for decades, with teachers working in relative isolation from other teachers within a classroom (Main, 2010). Both the physical structures of most school buildings and the cultural-historical norms of schooling have created a 'culture of isolation' in education, in which the opportunities for teachers to engage in professional dialogues are limited (Rogers & Babinski, 2002). More recent approaches consider professionalism to be connective and stress the importance of strong interactions between professionals aimed at jointly tackling tasks and challenges (Noordegraaf, 2013, 2015). Such a perspective on professionalism is better in line with recent theoretical models on continuous and collaborative PD (Siraj et al., 2019). Moreover, professionalism is not only linked to organizational settings, but also to wider institutional, social and societal forces that affect professional work (settings) in a more fundamental way (Noordegraaf, 2013). For the education system, such forces are for instance the growing cultural and linguistic diversity within classrooms, but also the rapid digitalization within Western countries, and the global tendency of introducing market, profit and efficiency logics in the education system (Anderson & Cohen, 2015).

Professionals are thus embedded within their context, which is layered in nature. There is the direct context of the classroom and the children and their families professionals work with. This direct classroom context is embedded within an organization, which is part of a local community and network of professional services. Finally, these communities are situated within states or countries with (national) regulations

and social policies. Moreover, these layers influence each other reciprocally. National policies and global tendencies create boundaries in which organizations and professionals are supposed to work and can therefore impact curricula and education requirements of professionals. The other way around, bottom up changes in knowledge, skills, beliefs and practices, driven by the problems and solutions found for these problems in day-to-day practice, can create new organization cultures that might push these boundaries to change.

The Current Dissertation

The central research question of this dissertation is how professionals working in the education system can support the integration and inclusion of disadvantaged children, with the ultimate goal of reducing inequalities. To answer this question, we aim to obtain more insights in how professionals are currently being prepared for dealing with super-diversity in the classroom and what kind of PD would be desirable to further strengthen their intercultural competences. Moreover, as we assume that professionalism is contextual and connective, we wish to investigate how the classroom, the wider center or school organization, and the local and national context relate to intercultural competences and professionals' potential to support integration and inclusion. This dissertation includes data from different types of professionals (teachers, managers, school leaders, social workers) but mainly focusses on professionals working with children from birth till approximately 12- to 14-year-olds in early childhood education and care (ECEC) and primary education. We generally use the term 'professional' throughout the dissertation, except when the literature, data or results specifically refer to one type of professional.

In line with our aims, we start with a theoretical framework that focusses both on the broad contextual embeddedness of PD as well as the underlying intra-individual mechanisms that ultimately facilitate change, and we review how PD can be effective in increasing pre-service and in-service teachers' intercultural competences. Then, we move on to the direct classroom context, followed by the wider organizational context and finally the local community and national context. Our findings and overall conclusions are based on data and insights of a two large – national and international – research projects, which are briefly described below.

The ISOTIS-project

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The ISOTIS-project (Inclusive education and SOcial support to Tackle Inequalities in Society) was a collaborative research project funded by the European Union that included 17 partners in 11 countries and took place from January 2017 till December 2019[1]. In alignment with the Greek word ᾽ισότης (which means equality, evenness, fairness, parity), ISOTIS built on the strengths and potential of culturally and linguistically diverse families by giving them a voice in how to adapt early education systems and support services. The overall aim of the project was to contribute to effective policy and practice development at different levels in order to effectively combat early arising and persisting educational inequalities. To accomplish this, a wide variety of research methods was used: literature reviews, inventories of best practices, document analyses, secondary data analyses on international student assessment data, qualitative data collection via focus groups, observations and in-depth interviews, and quantitative data collection via structured interviews and online surveys. Moreover, children, parents and professionals participated in the development of a virtual learning environment, focusing on activities to support engagement with the multiple languages and cultural resources present in the lives of families from diverse backgrounds. ISOTIS focused on four disadvantaged groups in Europe (i.e., North-African, Turkish, Romani and low-income native-born) and the social and educational institutions that work with these families. Qualitative and quantitative data was collected from a large number of children, parents and professionals in ten countries: the Czech Republic, England, Germany, Greece, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland and Portugal. The current dissertation uses insights from the design and implementation process of the virtual learning environment, best practice inventories and literature reviews on professional development and intercultural competences. Moreover, we analyzed quantitative data collected from parents and professionals, focusing on the reciprocal relation between teachers' self-efficacy and intercultural classroom practices and the impact of the local classroom context, and on the relation between shared beliefs and practices of professionals in local contexts on the one hand and integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families on the other hand.

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1   The ISOTIS-project was coordinated by Utrecht University. Scientific coordinator: Paul Leseman (Utrecht University); Co-coordinators: Edward Melhuish (University of Oxford) and Thomas Moser (University of South-Eastern Norway).

The LKK-project

The LKK-project (Landelijke Kwaliteitsmonitor Kinderopvang) is the Dutch national childcare quality monitor, commissioned by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. The four year monitor started in April 2017 and will be extended for a new period of five years, resulting in annual data collection up to 2025. The monitor follows a rolling sample design. Using stratified sampling criteria based on region of the country, degree of urbanization and size of the organization, a sample of different forms of early care and education provisions is drawn every year. These annual samples result in a large, nationally representative sample over the consecutive years and include data of a) center-based full day care for 0- to 4-year-olds, b) half day education and care programs for 2½- to 4-year-olds, c) after-school care for 4- to 12-year-olds and d) nonfamilial home-based care for 0- to 12-year-olds. The overall aim of the project is to monitor the quality of the Dutch daycare system. Here, quality is seen as a multidimensional concept that encompasses different levels: child, teacher, classroom and organization. Therefore, the LKK-project uses several measures to study these different aspects of quality. Classroom observations are used to study emotional and educational process quality (i.e., quality of interactions with children), both at the classroom level as well as the individual child level. Online survey data of teachers and daycare center managers is used to measure structural quality aspects (e.g., teacher education level and teacher-child ratio), curriculum quality (i.e., inclusive classroom activities) and organization quality (i.e., professional development, organization structure and organization mission). Moreover, the project aims to provide further insight into the determinants of quality and wishes to contribute to the social and scientific debate on the role of daycare in major public tasks, such as reducing inequalities and preventing early education gaps. The current dissertation focuses on center-based care for 0- to 4-year-olds and uses quantitative data from the classroom observations and online surveys collected in 2017, 2018 and 2019 from Dutch ECEC provisions, investigating how organization logics can explain differences in ECEC quality and inclusion practices.

Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation is structured in the following ways. *Chapter 2* reports on a systematic literature review on how professional development efforts can improve intercultural competences of teachers. It proposes a theoretical model that views professional development as being embedded within a wider context with reflection and enactment as important facilitators of change. We analyzed to what extent professional development efforts for in-service and pre-service teachers working in primary and early childhood education are embedded within the wider context and

how this affects teachers' intercultural competences. Moreover, we analyzed patterns on how professional development was delivered and to what extent reflection and enactment affect teachers' intercultural competences. Finally, we reviewed the quality of the research methods of the literature to make claims about the validity of our conclusions and provide this field with directions for further research.

In the study reported in *Chapter 3*, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, intercultural classroom practices and the direct classroom context was examined. Teachers' self-efficacy was viewed as a two-dimensional concept in which we measured both general beliefs alongside diversity-related domain-specific beliefs. The estimated level of classroom diversity was used to investigate to what extent teachers who work in more diverse classrooms also report more positive feelings of diversity-related self-efficacy and a higher degree of intercultural classroom practices. A multigroup path analysis was used on cross-national survey data of ECEC and primary school teachers in England, Italy, the Netherlands and Poland, to investigate the direct and indirect effects of classroom diversity and self-efficacy on intercultural classroom practices.

Chapter 4 reports on a study that investigated quality and inclusion in the Dutch hybrid ECEC system from an organizational perspective. Organizations are prone to adapt to their local context, resulting in a plurality of organization structures and logics (i.e., socially constructed set of values and beliefs by which organizations operate). As a first step, cluster analysis was used to identify different types of ECEC organizations based on structural characteristics that reflect logics of four institutional orders: market (e.g., for-profit goals), corporation (e.g., team spirit), community (e.g., outreach and social mission) and profession (e.g., professional development). As a second step, multivariate analyses of variance were used to explore if there are differences between organization types with regard to quality and inclusion. Observational and survey data was used to compare ECEC organizations on process quality, curriculum quality, structural quality and classroom composition, and practices that promote cultural inclusion.

In *Chapter 5*, the results of a cross-national study on the relation between integration of minority families and shared practices and beliefs of professionals are presented. Quantitative data from two urban and semi-urban sites per country in nine European countries was used to investigate this relation. Participants were parents from large minority groups across Europe (i.e., North-African, Turkish and Romani) and the professionals that work with these parents in ECEC, primary education, after-school care and the social work sector. Intraclass correlations were calculated to study the extent to which professionals in the same sites and countries shared similar practices and beliefs towards multiculturalism and multilingualism. A similar approach investigated the shared variance among parents on indicators of integration such

as intercultural contact, cultural and linguistic maintenance, satisfaction in the country and the parent-professional relationship. As a second step, we used residual scores of both staff and parent data – controlled for the most important individual and group characteristics – to investigate how locally shared beliefs and practices of professionals are related to indicators of integration of immigrant and minority families at the site level.

Finally, in *Chapter 6* we bring together the results from the four studies and summarize the main findings and conclusions. We return to the main issues raised concerning the role of intercultural competent professionals on the issues of integration and inclusion and the need for professional development that is embedded within context. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed, along with the limitations of this thesis and suggestions for future research.

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CHAPTER 2.

Increasing teachers' intercultural competences in teacher preparation programs and through professional development: A review.

Abstract

This article reviews professional development efforts that aim to improve intercultural competences of in-service and pre-service teachers working in primary and early childhood education. A specific purpose was to evaluate the impact of the wider context and the use of reflection and enactment as facilitators of change. An analysis of 23 in-service and 22 pre-service papers shows that an embedded and contextual approach to professional development, in which reflection is guided and enactment is fostered, is most likely to effectively increase teachers' intercultural competences. However, such an approach is still uncommon in the field of teacher preparation and support.

Introduction

As Western societies are facing growing cultural, linguistic and socio-economic diversity, dealing with this diversity becomes the everyday reality of the (early childhood) education workforce. Though the need for interculturally competent teachers is increasingly recognized, many teachers still feel ill-prepared in working with culturally and linguistically diverse children (e.g., Banerjee & Luckner, 2014; Michel & Kuiken, 2014; Slot, Romijn, & Nata, 2019). This raises the need for professional development (PD) that better prepares pre-service teachers (student teachers) for the challenges of diverse classrooms and better supports in-service teachers in working with these children and their families. Recent reviews on this topic (e.g., Bottiani, Larson, Debnam, Bischoff, & Bradshaw, 2018; Civitillo, Juang, & Schachner, 2018; Parkhouse, Lu, & Massaro, 2019) show that PD efforts to raise teachers' intercultural competences can be effective, though several studies indicate participants did not grow as much as initially expected. Parkhouse et al. (2019) noticed that most authors explain a lack of effect as a result of teacher or program aspects (i.e., low motivation or too little attention for culturally specific knowledge within the program). Only one study offered a more comprehensive explanation for a lack of effectiveness, addressing the teachers' readiness for change, the complex relationship between beliefs and practices, and how the policy context of the school and state provided major challenges for the PD intervention to be successful (i.e., Lee, Luykx, Buxton, & Shaver, 2007). The current review elaborates on this and explicitly addresses how characteristics of the wider context in which PD takes place can support or hinder change. Furthermore, we address the underlying mechanisms of change in terms of reflection and enactment as key facilitators of changing teachers' competences and investigate how these mechanisms impact PD effectiveness. Moreover, as intercultural competences are important to master for both student teachers as well as teachers currently working in the field, we simultaneously examine the differences and similarities in PD strategies that are used to prepare student teachers and support (in-service) teachers.

Professional Development: A Comprehensive Model

Professional development is often used to describe a broad variety of facilitated learning opportunities, ranging from single-off workshops and consultations to comprehensive curricula and communities of practice (Buysse, Winton, & Rous, 2009). It encompasses all actions and activities focused on education, training and development opportunities for professionals with the ultimate goal of improving children's developmental or educational outcomes (Sheridan et al., 2009). Buysse et al. (2009) propose a conceptual framework that can be used when creating,

implementing or evaluating effective PD efforts. Their framework conceptualizes PD as three intersecting components (the *who*, the *what* and the *how*) within a wider context. Several researchers (e.g., Egert, Fukkink, & Eckhardt, 2018; Siraj et al., 2019) have used this model to address the effectiveness of PD, however, they acknowledge that the model lacks theory on the underlying mechanisms that facilitate change. This underlying mechanism, which Siraj et al. (2019) refer to as the translation of new levels of understanding into sustainable practice, is important to consider and therefore we adopt a recently proposed theoretical model of Slot, Romijn and Wysłowska (2017) (see Figure 2.1) in which both the underlying mechanisms of change and key components and context of PD are addressed by adding an intra-individual level to the model of Buysse et al. (2009). In the following sections we will briefly describe the different layers of this theoretical model.
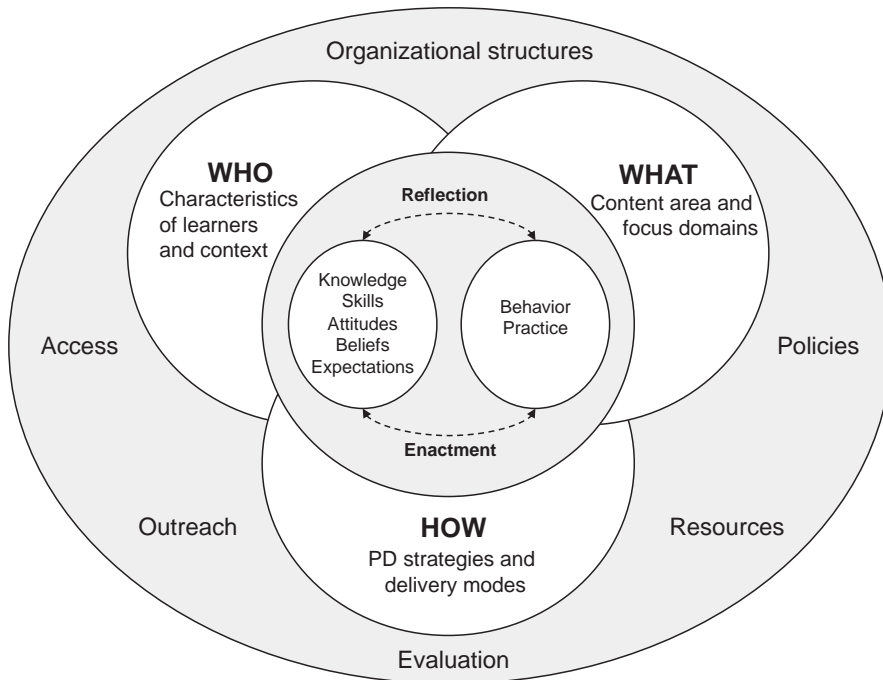

Figure 2.1. Conceptual framework of professional development.

Wider context. Figure 2.1 shows that PD always takes place within a wider context, which consists of local and national policies, organizational structures and resources, evaluation, access and outreach. The work of Slot and Nata (2019) highlights the importance of the context at the national and organizational level as prerequisites for successful PD. National, local and organizational policies should guarantee time and resources for professionals' continuous development and a shared mission and strong leadership are essential to ensure sustainable change. Other studies also demonstrate that the effectiveness of PD is dependent on local policy (e.g., Desimone, Porter, Birman, Garet, & Yoon, 2002; Lee et al., 2007), organizational leadership (e.g., Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007), the embeddedness within the wider community (e.g., Yoshikawa et al., 2015) and even the characteristics of countries' ECEC and schooling systems (e.g., Jensen & Iannone, 2018).

Key components. The *who* emphasizes the characteristics of the learners who vary widely with respect to their qualifications, experience, culture and the children and families they serve (Buysse et al., 2009). Given individual differences between teachers, they may benefit from different PD approaches and content (Siraj et al., 2019) and thus an assessment of these individual differences should be part of designing PD (Slot & Nata, 2019). For instance, Alkharusi, Kazem and Al-Musawai (2011) showed that teachers demonstrate higher levels of perceived skillfulness compared to student teachers, whereas student teachers demonstrate higher levels of relevant pedagogical knowledge. Also, teachers' own cultural and linguistic background (e.g., Flores & Smit, 2009; Lee & Oxelson, 2006) and the specific characteristics of the parents and children they work with (e.g., Symeou & Karagiorgi, 2018) impact the effectiveness of PD. These characteristics may be especially important when PD is targeting classroom diversity and intercultural competences.

The *what* refers to the content of the PD and defines the knowledge, skills and dispositions that are targeted (Buysse et al., 2009). Desimone (2009) states that PD effectively enhances knowledge and skills, especially if PD is focused on specific content (i.e., literacy), requires active learning, shows coherence with existing knowledge and beliefs, has a sufficient duration and requires a collective participation of teachers from the same school, grade or department. There is less consensus on the effectiveness of PD on changing teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Both teachers and student teachers have a set of developed assumptions, beliefs, attitudes and values, which is often referred to as a teacher's belief system (Spies, Lyons, Huerta, Garza, & Reding, 2017). While some researchers argue that these belief systems are rather inflexible and resistant to change (e.g., Richardson, 2003), others found that teachers' belief systems can be altered through PD (e.g., Vartuli & Rhols, 2009). Moreover, a review of Civitillo et al. (2018) found that some PD components are more effective than others when it comes to changing teachers' beliefs about cultural diversity.

Especially experiential training (i.e., field experience) and reflection and discussion about cultural diversity were found to be effective.

The *how* refers to PD strategies and delivery modes and can help identify the most promising PD approaches (Buysse et al., 2009). A wide array of (combinations of) PD approaches are reported on in the literature and several studies have provided various classification systems (e.g., Parkhouse et al., 2019; Schachter, 2015; Sheridan et al., 2009). For instance, a review of Schachter (2015) identified 35 different approaches in 73 studies. The inclusion of coaching, the use of workshops and the implementation of a curriculum appeared most frequent, while coursework, online resources/coaching or communities of practice were less common. Parkhouse et al. (2019) coded nine types of PD experiences (i.e., workshop, action research, immersion experience, community of practice, coaching, self-rating, video-feedback, critical friendships, online component) and found that more than half of the programs included multiple components. A growing body of empirical evidence suggests that effective PD requires the use of multiple methods of training and intensive on-going support that is embedded within practice and adapted to the local needs and goals (e.g., Buysse et al., 2009; Parkhouse et al., 2019; Siraj et al., 2019). The number of approaches used in the classification of Parkhouse et al. (2019) proved to be distinguishing enough to effectively identify different strategies, while still being able to identify overarching patterns and will therefore be adopted in the current review as well.

Underlying mechanisms. Theoretical models of change usually imply a multistep path from PD to child outcomes (Egert et al., 2018). The key components of PD affect the knowledge, skills, competencies and dispositions of teachers, which in turn influence classroom practices and ultimately child outcomes. Another line of research that criticizes this causal chain derives from the work of Guskey (1986) who states that the mechanism works the other way around. Changes in teachers' beliefs and attitudes are more likely to occur after teachers can experience hands-on how new practices improve student learning outcomes. The multistep model of Desimone (2009) addresses this conflicting perspective and implies that not only changes in knowledge, skills and beliefs can lead to new practices, these new practices can affect knowledge, skills and beliefs as well. Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) address this issue as well and drafted an interconnected model of PD which suggests that change occurs through a mediation process of reflection and enactment. *Reflection* here stems from the work of Dewey (1910) who refers to it as active, persistent and careful consideration. In the context of PD, it is a general term for intellectual and affective activities in which teachers explore their experiences in order to create new understandings and appreciations (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 2013). *Enactment* refers to a mechanism that goes beyond merely 'acting' and can be described as the translation of a belief, knowledge or experience into action (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002).

The conceptual framework presented in Figure 2.1 acknowledges the reciprocal relationship between knowledge, skills and dispositions on the one hand and practices and behavior on the other hand, and following Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), reflection and enactment are viewed as important facilitators of change.

2

Intercultural Competences

Over the past decades, the conceptualization of *intercultural competences* has led to a rich conceptual and theoretical landscape in which numerous authors have tried to define the concept (Spitzberg & Changon, 2009). Moreover, Spitzberg and Changon (2009) found that over 300 terms and constructs relate to the concept of intercultural competences or are used interchangeably. For instance, the concept of *intercultural sensitivity* is used by Bennett (2004) to explain how people experience and engage with cultural differences and how they gain the ability to create experiences that match that of people from another culture. Other concepts that focus more directly on the school context are *culturally responsive teaching,* which can be defined as "using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and effective for them" (Gay, 2000, p.29) and *culturally relevant pedagogy* as introduced by Ladson-Billings (1995). Another extensively used framework is Banks' (2004) concept of *multicultural education* which influences and changes students' beliefs, attitudes and actions through five dimensions: content integration, knowledge construction, equity pedagogy, prejudice reduction and empowering school culture. This framework is especially evident in K-12 research in the US and studies on pre-service teacher education (e.g., Sleeter, 2001). In this review we adopt a definition of intercultural competences proposed Pastori et al. (2018), building on frameworks of intercultural and global competences as proposed by UNESCO (2013, 2014), the OECD (2018) and the Council of Europe (2014). Despite minor differences, these frameworks have in common that they focus on knowledge, values, attitudes, skills and actions from a human rights perspective in which diversity is highly valued (Pastori et al., 2018). Although diversity encompasses a wide variety of characteristics such as race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation and religion, the current review focusses exclusively on intercultural competences in light of cultural and linguistic diversity.

The intercultural framework of Pastori et al. (2018) follows the definition of *global competences* of the OECD (2018) which refers to the ability to examine local, global and intercultural issues in order to understand and value the perspectives and world views of others, to engage in open and constructive dialogue with people from different cultures and to act for collective well-being and sustainable development. In addition, Pastori et al. (2018) include a focus on multilingualism as a resource

with potential benefits for individuals and society in line with the work of the Council of Europe (2014). Following Pastori et al. (2018), intercultural competences encompass knowledge, values, attitudes, skills and actions which are interrelated and reciprocal in nature. Here, knowledge refers to knowledge of the self, of language and communication, and of the world in a broad sense (i.e., politics, law, human rights, cultures, religion). Values and beliefs comprise a wide variety of topics, such as diversity, inclusion, human rights and justice, and are considered to be knowledge-based but contain an affective element as well as these imply a certain judgement or evaluation in contrast to knowledge which is neutral in nature (e.g., Flores & Smith, 2009; Nespor, 1987). Attitudes refer to a system of beliefs about ideas, objects and people or situations predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner (Rokeach, 1968). According to Pastori et al. (2018), positive intercultural attitudes express openness to cultural otherness and other beliefs, world views and practices. Moreover, these attitudes express respect, civic-mindedness, responsibility, self-efficacy and tolerance of ambiguity. Some of the most important skills in terms of intercultural competences are listening and observing, co-operation and conflict-resolution skills, and communicative skills. In addition, the framework explicitly considers analytical and critical thinking and the ability to use this to reflect on your personal biases as a crucial skill. Finally, intercultural competences encompass the actions that are taken for collective well-being and sustainable development, both locally and globally (Pastori et al., 2018).

Current Study

In this article, we describe the results of a systematic review on the effectiveness of PD efforts aimed at enhancing teachers' intercultural competences. We focus on teachers working with children from birth until high school age (i.e., day care, preschool and primary education) as well as student teachers enrolled in teacher education programs to prepare for this workforce. Following our conceptual framework of PD (Figure 2.1) this review addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the key components of PD aimed at enhancing teachers' intercultural competences and do we see differences in patterns for pre-service teacher preparation and in-service professional development?

2. What does the literature report on the impact of the wider context on the effectiveness of PD?

3. What does the literature report on the use of reflection and enactment as facilitators of change?

Method

Literature Search

The literature for this review was found by a search carried out in three databases: ERIC, PsycINFO, and Web of Science. We checked to what extent several relevant journals (e.g., *Intercultural Education, Professional Development in Education, Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*) were listed in these databases and concluded a combination of these three databases would be sufficient. We searched for empirical articles published in (peer-reviewed) journals and dissertations that were published in the English language in the last 15 years (since 2005). No restrictions for the type of research (e.g., quantitative, qualitative, mixed-method, experiment, narratives) were formulated. A query combining key words on four topics was used for the initial search (for full query, see Table 2.1 in Appendix): a) professional development (e.g., training, coaching, community of learners), b) intercultural competences (e.g., cultural awareness, linguistic inclusion, intercultural proficiency), c) profession (e.g., educators, pre-service teachers, student teachers), and d) educational setting (e.g., early childhood education and care, primary school, kindergarten). In addition, some key words were used to exclude literature focusing on other forms of diversity (e.g., disabilities, disorders, sexual-orientation), non-educational settings (e.g., medical, sport, health) and specific subject matter (e.g., math, creativity, music, art). Our initial search yielded 1586 hits of which 1291 remained after language restrictions and deduplication. In addition, we cross-referenced the first 150 results of a Google Scholar search to ensure the quality of our the initial search. The vast majority of the Google Scholar hits was included in the initial search. The remaining hits were processed in a similar way as the hits from the initial search.

Selection of Articles

The selection of articles was exclusively performed by the first author and proceeded in three steps, using several inclusion and exclusion criteria. First, the titles and abstracts were used to exclude literature that was neither related to the intercultural competences of early childhood or primary education teachers nor to general PD. This resulted in the exclusion of 770 papers. Second, the available full-text was scanned to exclude 396 papers that did not report on any form of PD (both in-service and pre-service) or intercultural competences (e.g., knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, behavior or practice). Of the remaining 116 papers, we excluded articles that merely described PD needs (e.g., Banerjee & Luckner, 2014) or theoretically presupposed

the relationship between teachers' intercultural competences and PD but did not investigate this relationship empirically (e.g., Allen, Hancock, Lewis, & Starker-Glass, 2017). Furthermore, we excluded papers that measured intercultural competences and retrospectively asked teachers to provide information on their PD history (e.g., Aragona-Young & Sawyer, 2018) or articles that focused on intercultural competences within a specific subject context (e.g., Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018). In addition, papers describing classroom interventions or curriculum development were excluded if they exclusively focused on children's intercultural competences rather than teachers' competences (e.g., Cullen et al., 2009). Lastly, eight potentially relevant papers (of which seven dissertations) were excluded as the full-text was not freely accessible and could not be obtained by directly contacting the author. This left us with a total of 41 papers of which three dissertations and 38 peer-reviewed journal articles. A snowball search on this literature and the additional Google Scholar search resulted in the inclusion of another four papers (respectively three snowball inclusions and one Google Scholar inclusion). In total, we analyzed the content of 45 papers addressing teachers' intercultural competences in pre-service preparation programs (22 papers) and in-service PD interventions (23 papers).

Data Extraction and Analysis

All 45 papers were first coded in terms of the main characteristics of the study such as their sample, the design of the study, targeted diversity, type of PD and main outcomes (see Table 2.2). To answer the research questions, coding followed the conceptual PD framework as presented in Figure 2.1. With regard to the characteristics of the learners and context, we coded basic information such as the number of participants, country of origin, educational setting (early childhood vs primary education), type of teacher (teachers vs student teachers), any available information on the teachers' background (e.g., nationality, years of experience) and if the intervention had a more universal approach towards diversity or whether it was targeting specific groups of children/families or teachers. For the second key component concerning the content and focus, we used an open coding approach to gain insight in how these studies defined intercultural competences. In addition, we coded if the focus of the intervention was on cultural or linguistic diversity (or a combination) and whether it addressed knowledge, skills or belief systems (or a combination). Concerning the PD strategies and delivery modes, we followed the classification of Parkhouse et al. (2019) to determine the use of nine PD experiences: workshop, action research, immersion experience, community of practice, coaching, self-rating, video-feedback, critical friendships, online component. In addition, we coded to what extent the PD was embedded within an organization, individual or team-based, and who was responsible for the implementation.

Regarding the second research question, we coded to what extent studies reported on the wider context in which the PD took place and how this might have affected the outcomes of the study. As we hypothesized that this type of information is less often reported, we adopted a more open coding strategy. For the third research question regarding the intra-individual level, we listed the effects of the studies and coded if change was measured at the level of the teacher (i.e., knowledge, skills or belief systems), the classroom (i.e., classroom practices, pedagogy) or the child (i.e., child development). In addition, we used an open coding approach to gain insight in the role of enactment and reflection as facilitators of change. Lastly, we coded some additional information on the design of the study to gain insight in the quality of the research in this field. A subsample (10%) of the selected articles was double coded by the third author, resulting in an overall interrater reliability of 92%, ranging from 85% (key component how) to 100% (underlying mechanisms) for the different components of the study.

Results

In line with findings of Parkhouse et al. (2019), the papers we included show as many differences as similarities and we came across a wide variety of professional development efforts aimed to improve teachers' intercultural competences. First, we present our results on the key components of PD and evaluate the differences and similarities between pre-service teacher preparation and in-service PD. Second, we describe to what extent the wider context impacts the effectiveness of PD in these papers. Third, we address the underlying mechanisms, reflection and enactment, and its role in enhancing intercultural competences. Finally, we briefly summarize the literature in terms of the main study characteristics (e.g., design, samples, measurements) to provide more insight in the methods used to study the effectiveness of PD and to suggest directions for future research.

RQ 1: Differences and Similarities Between Pre-service and In-service PD

Characteristics of learners and context. An overview of several main characteristics of the 23 in-service and 22 pre-service interventions is provided in Table 2.2 (see Appendix). In-service PD primarily took place in primary education settings (65%) compared to early childhood settings (22%) such as Pre-K or day care centers. In three papers, teachers from both primary education and early childhood were included (i.e., Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018; Brown, Weber, & Yoon,

2016; West-Olatunji, Behar-Horenstein, Rant, & Cohen-Phillips, 2008). Interventions targeting student teachers were also more often focused at students planning to work in primary education (59%) compared to early childhood settings (23%). Three papers included both types of student teachers (i.e., Groulx & Silva, 2010; Iwai, 2019; Manburg, Moore, Griffin, & Seperson, 2017; Polat, Mahalingappa, Hughes, & Karayigit, 2019). In half of the in-service PD papers (48%) participating teachers were primarily white, monolingual, middle class females (which reflects the dominant teacher population in the US and many Western European countries), whereas other papers (39%) included teachers with other backgrounds (e.g., multilingual teachers, Hispanic or African-American teachers or mixed-ethnicity teachers). In contrast, in the pre-service literature participating student teachers were primarily white, monolingual, middle class females in most of the papers (82%). Four papers (three in-service and one pre-service) did not report on the background of the teacher. Furthermore, half of the in-service PD interventions (48%) had a universal approach towards diversity, whereas the other interventions targeted specific groups, such as bilingual children or English language learners (e.g., Fokaidou & Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou, 2014), African-American children (e.g., Jones & Browne, 2015), refugees (e.g., Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019) or Roma families (i.e., Symeou & Karagiorgi, 2018). The percentage of papers that had a universal approach was slightly higher for the pre-service literature (64%). Nonetheless, both in-service and pre-service interventions with a universal or a targeted approach often took place in settings with a high share of culturally and linguistically diverse children.

Content and focus. All included papers targeted teachers' intercultural competences, however, there is a wide variety of definitions of what such competences entail. Moreover, there are large differences in the extent in which authors explicated the term within their theoretical framework. For instance, Álvarez Valdivia and González Montoto (2018) argued that this line of research falls within the broader category of inclusive education and that intercultural competences refer to "the ability to change cultural perspective and adapt behavior to deal with cultural differences" (p. 511) and start with intercultural sensitivity. Other authors are much less explicit and explained intercultural competences as preparedness for teaching in highly diverse settings and having multicultural perspectives (i.e., Moule & Higgins, 2007). Within the in-service literature, most papers defined intercultural competences in terms of culturally responsive teaching or pedagogy (Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995) or as intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 2004). Within the pre-service literature these definitions were used as well, though definitions along the line of multicultural education (Banks, 2004) and social justice education (e.g., Lin & Bates, 2015) were also common. In addition, for both in-service and pre-service literature the majority of the interventions was focused at cultural diversity (46%) or both cultural and linguistic diversity (42%). A primary focus on linguistic diversity was less common with only four in-service papers

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(i.e., Daniel & Pray, 2017; Fokaidou & Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou, 2014; Van der Wildt, Van Avermaet, & Van Houtte, 2017; Spies et al., 2017) and one pre-service paper (i.e., Polat et al., 2019) specifically targeting this type of diversity. Finally, we coded if interventions were targeting teachers' knowledge, skills, or belief systems, which showed different patterns for in-service and pre-service literature. The vast majority of in-service papers (70%) took a rather holistic approach targeting knowledge, skills and belief systems, whereas this was the case for only 36% of the pre-service papers. Pre-service papers reported relatively often a combination of knowledge and skills (23%) or skills and belief systems (23%).

PD strategies and delivery modes. In line with the results of Parkhouse et al. (2019) and Schachter (2015), a wide range of (combinations of) PD strategies (23 individual patterns) were used, though some combinations were more common than others. For both in-service and pre-service interventions a combination of two (38%) or three (36%) strategies was most common. A workshop or training element was the most frequently reported strategy. In four papers (i.e., Ebersole, Kanahele-Mossman, & Kawakami, 2016; Iwai, 2019; Lazar & Offenberg, 2011; Moore, 2016) this strategy was used exclusively, but more often it was combined with one or more other strategies. For the in-service literature a combination with some form of self-rating was rather frequently reported (56%). Self-rating methods ranged from quantitative inventories (i.e., Intercultural Development Inventory [IDI] in Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018; DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009) to more qualitative reflections on one's belief systems via narratives (i.e., Jones & Browne, 2015). A combination of a workshop and this latter form of self-rating was also reported in several pre-service papers (23%), though a combination with an immersion experience was more common (68%). Immersion experience, which can refer to field experience (e.g., Bennett, 2012), home visit (e.g., Vesely, Brown, & Mehta, 2017) or international practicum (e.g., Cinelli & Jones, 2017), was the second most reported used strategy in pre-service papers (77%). The third most used strategy was coaching or mentoring, which appeared in almost one third of both the in-service and pre-service papers. Other strategies, such as communities of practice (18%), critical friendships (13%), action research (2%) and video feedback (4%), were less common. Finally, an online component was used in 18% of the interventions and included activities such as online pen pal programs between teachers and culturally diverse children (i.e., Polat et al., 2019), computer simulated classroom dilemma's (i.e., Manburg et al., 2017), online teaching content (i.e., Van der Wildt et al., 2017) and online communication in critical friendship groups (i.e., Behizadeh, Thomas, & Behm Cross, 2019).

Concerning the delivery, for the vast majority (89%) of in-service and pre-service papers PD was fully implemented by someone outside the classroom. Moreover, this external trainer who provided the PD was usually the author of the paper. For the other five papers the responsibility for implementation was shared between an

external trainer and an experienced teacher within the school (i.e., Cinelli & Jones, 2017; He, Lundgren, & Pynes, 2017; Moule & Higgins, 2007; Pence & Macgillivray, 2008) or the participating teachers themselves (i.e., West-Olantunji et al., 2008). Furthermore, in-service PD was fully or partially embedded within the organization in over half of the papers (61%). Here, embedded means that PD was adapted to or specifically designed for teachers' needs and practices (e.g., Bradshaw et al., 2018; Van der Wildt et al., 2017), and/or PD meetings and activities took place within their own school or classroom (e.g., Affolter, 2017; McGrady, 2017). In-service PD that was not embedded usually consisted of external workshops or training programs (e.g., Biasutti, Concina, & Frate, 2019; Jones & Browne, 2015; Psalti, 2007). Such interventions were more common in the pre-service literature where the majority of the interventions was not or only partially embedded within actual practice (82%). In line with these results, there appeared a different pattern regarding team-based or individual PD. Team-based PD is more common in in-service literature (39% vs 5% in pre-service interventions), whereas individual PD is more common in pre-service settings (41% vs 13% in in-service interventions). A third category that was coded, group-based PD, conveyed approximately half of the cases in both in-service (48%) and pre-service (54%) literature. Group-based was coded if the PD was organized for a group of teachers but had a focus on individual learning rather than collective learning (e.g., Brown et al., 2016; Haddix, 2008; Kidd, Sánchez, & Thorp, 2008; Lazar & Offenberg, 2016). Finally, the duration and intensity of the interventions varied greatly, ranging from two 1.5-hour sessions (i.e., Moore, 2016) to multiple years training programs (i.e., Kidd et al., 2008).

Cross examination of key components. When examining how the key components in interventions are related, some additional patterns emerged. For instance, interventions that reported communities of practice that were embedded within the organization tend to target knowledge, skills and belief systems simultaneously (e.g., Affolter, 2017; Spies et al., 2017; Van der Wildt et al., 2017). Regarding the 18 papers that included some form of self-rating a focus on teachers' belief systems was apparent in 89% of the cases. This focus on belief systems was, in general, more common in ECEC interventions (100%) compared to interventions in primary education settings (71%). Furthermore, coaching as a PD strategy was either used in rather lengthy trajectories of at least six months (e.g., Bradshaw et al., 2018; Daniel & Pray, 2017; Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019) or in short but intensive full-time immersion experiences (i.e., He et al., 2017; Pence & Macgillivray, 2008). Finally, no differences were visible for interventions that targeted specific groups versus interventions with a more universal approach towards diversity. However, interventions that specifically focused on linguistic diversity were mostly in-service interventions that used communities of practice embedded in the organization (i.e., Fokaidou & Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou, 2014; Spies et al., 2017; Van der Wildt et al., 2017).

RQ2: The Impact of the Wider Context

As hypothesized, not all papers addressed the role of the wider context in which PD took place, which could indicate that the role of the wider context is either not recognized within the intervention, or not considered important enough to report on. The majority of pre-service papers and over a third of the in-service papers barely addressed this topic. Nonetheless, the articles that did report on the wider context showed that the context has an import impact on the effectiveness. Several studies indicated how the intervention was adapted to align with the local context and attributed part of its effectiveness to this alignment. For instance, five papers explicitly mentioned that resources were made available for PD either at the school level (e.g., Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018) or school district level (i.e., DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009; Hardin et al., 2010) that supported the implementation. In addition, eight papers addressed how a needs assessment was conducted before the start of the intervention or during the first meeting. For instance, Symeou and Karagiorgi (2018) interviewed both teachers and Roma parents to understand their PD needs and adapted the intervention to these needs. Other studies used quantitative measures to establish teachers' needs, such as their intercultural sensitivity (i.e., Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018; DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009), self-efficacy (i.e., McGrady, 2017) or attitudes and practices (i.e., Van der Wildt et al., 2017). Moreover, we found that several studies addressed the context from a negative perspective, indicating that a mismatch between the intervention and the wider context could explain a lack of effectiveness. For instance, six studies referred to a lack of resources, either in terms of time available to follow PD and implement new practices (e.g., Biasutti et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2016) or in terms of insufficient culturally responsive materials (i.e., Daniel & Pray, 2017; Spies et al., 2017). In two studies, a lack of differentiation regarding participants' needs was mentioned as a downside of the intervention (i.e., Biasutti et al., 2019; Spies et al., 2017).

Another finding concerns the inclusion of key persons in the organization and the extent to which PD is aligned with local or national policies. Only four papers indicated that school leaders or counsellors were included in the intervention. In three studies this was related to diversity and inclusion policies at the school district level and in one study to policy at the national level. Affolter (2017) evaluated a PD intervention that was organized as a result of a district-wide policy to enhance teachers' culturally responsive teaching and equip them with an equity-focused mindset. The school director, counsellor and a special equity team within the school were therefore included in the intervention. The intervention of McGrady (2017) took place in light of a decision made by the school district to lift cultural proficiency given the recent influx of culturally and linguistically diverse learners. The school counselor, who is responsible for the implementation of PD in general, was included in the intervention.

In the study by Fokaidou and Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou (2014) the school director was involved and national policies on the use of parallel language instruction for Greek second language learners guided the design of the intervention. In contrast, in the study by Van der Wildt et al. (2017) key persons were included not as a result of policy choices, but as a means to change school policies. School leaders were supported in composing effective school policies regarding multilingualism in order to ensure that newly trained teacher skills and practices could be effectively incorporated in everyday school life.

Including key persons and adapting policy seems especially necessary for interventions focusing on linguistic diversity. Whereas Van der Wildt et al. (2017) and Fokaidou and Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou (2014) show how this can positively impact PD effectiveness, some other studies expressed the negative consequences of not including key persons. Teachers in the intervention of Daniel and Pray (2017) expressed great personal growth in knowledge, skills and belief systems regarding English language learners. However, their schools operated by an English-only language policy and therefore the newly acquired culturally responsive approach contradicted the curriculum in some ways. Teachers indicated that explicitly ignoring the curriculum and school policy felt like cheating. In addition, teachers were held accountable for their students' achievement, which reflected the curriculum, and were therefore forced to return to their old teacher-centered practices in which there was no room for students to use their home language in the school context. A similar result was found in the study by Leeman & Van Koeven (2019) with teachers working in schools with high percentages of refugee children. School policies focused on acquiring the Dutch language as fast as possible, which contrasted the newly acquired knowledge and skills within the PD intervention. Teachers expressed a lack of teacher agency, which limited them in changing their practices. Moreover, they expressed that they were unable to convince other teachers and establish any change beyond their own classroom, which further limited the impact of the intervention. Lastly, this lack of empowerment to implement new knowledge and skills in the classroom was also mentioned in the study by Brown et al. (2016).

RQ3: The Role of Reflection and Enactment

The importance of reflection seems well established as 96% of the papers reported its use. However, there are large differences to what extent authors elaborate on this matter. Moreover, we found variation in the methods of reflection that were used and for what purposes. The most common methods of reflection were reflective journals or written assignments (especially in pre-service literature), focus group discussions, critical friendship groups and self-rating via standardized instruments (e.g., IDI). In

most studies, reflection was used to help teachers evaluate their knowledge, skills, belief systems and practices at an individual level. This focus on the individual was especially apparent in the pre-service literature with only one study using reflection to also enhance group learning (i.e., Manburg et al., 2017). In the in-service literature there were more examples of team-based reflection (e.g., Affolter, 2017; Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019; Moore, 2016), though the majority of the in-service interventions focused on the individual as well. For instance, the interventions of Álvarez Valdivia and González Montoto (2018) and DeJaeghere and Cao (2009) both used the IDI – an instrument that provides insight in someone's explicit and implicit attitudes towards diversity – to collectively reflect on the scores of the group as a whole. However, in these five interventions reflection was also used at an individual level.

Another difference concerns the extent to which teachers' reflection was actively guided by the trainer or merely expected to take place. Active guidance of reflection was more common in in-service literature, for instance in interventions that used coaching as a strategy (e.g., Hardin et al., 2010) or interventions that used self-rating methods (e.g., McGrady, 2017). In the pre-service literature there were more static forms of guidance in the form of reflective questions or assignment guidelines that were meant to foster reflection in teachers (e.g., Hasslen & Bacharach, 2007; Iwai, 2019). However, some pre-service studies included reflection not only as a means to facilitate change, but as a goal on its own. For instance, Behizadeh et al. (2019), Lenski, Crawford, Crumpler and Stallworth (2005) and Vesely et al. (2017) explicated that critical reflection is a skill that needs to be mastered before teachers are able to critically examine their belief systems. Learning how to reflect was therefore an explicit part of their interventions. The importance of reflection as a skill has been negatively addressed in several other papers as well (i.e., Kyles & Olafson, 2008; Lin & Bates, 2015; Monroe & Ruan, 2018; Zembylas, 2008). These studies reported that to some extent the interventions had less impact than anticipated as teachers seemed to have a hard time reflecting critically on their own identity and belief systems. Active facilitation of this reflection process by the trainer thus seems important to effectively change teachers' belief systems.

A final observation concerned the focus of the reflection. In some interventions, teachers reflected on their own practices in order to reevaluate their skills and behavior (e.g., Bradshaw et al., 2018; Daniel & Pray, 2017; Spies et al., 2017). These studies demonstrated how such PD efforts can improve the use of home language in the classroom (i.e., Daniel & Pray, 2017; Spies et al., 2017) or lead to higher teacher responsiveness and less disciplinary referrals of black children (i.e., Bradshaw et al., 2018). Yet, in many interventions reflection was used to target teachers' belief systems rather than actual practice or behavior (e.g., Jones & Brown, 2015; Lazar & Offenberg, 2011; Psalti, 2007; Turnšek, 2013). These studies used reflection to

help teachers investigate who they are and to make them aware of how their own cultural background influences their practices. Though such methods seem effective in creating awareness on the importance of intercultural competences, many of these studies did not include measurements on the classroom or child level. Therefore, we lack sufficient information to conclude whether such a form of reflection is also effective for changing teacher behavior. Moreover, the effect of PD on actual intercultural practice is not merely dependent on teachers' reflection on their belief system, but on their ability to enact on these beliefs as well.

Whereas reflection played an important role in almost all interventions, this was not the case for enactment. In 42% of the papers, enactment was not addressed at all and in 24% of the papers, authors explained how a lack of enactment could have impacted the effectiveness of the PD in a negative way. For instance, in the study by Symeou and Karagiorgi, (2018) teachers stated at the end of the intervention that, although they learned new knowledge and changed their beliefs regarding Roma families, they still felt unable to transfer these dispositions into actual practice. Similar results were displayed by Bennett (2012) who found that pre-service teachers had a hard time translating their new understanding of culturally responsive pedagogies into actual practice. In addition, the study by Daniel and Pray (2017) explicated how there was a lack of enactment in an earlier version of the intervention and therefore they added additional one-on-one coaching sessions. These coaching sessions explicitly focused on the enactment of the PD content and resulted in increased sociocultural awareness and more incorporation of children's first language in the school context. However, for some teachers this process of enactment was complicated due to organizational policies that were not compatible with the PD content. This negative impact of the wider context on enactment in terms of lacking resources (e.g., Affolter, 2017; Spies et al., 2017) or organization's policy (e.g., Brown et al., 2016; Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019) was addressed in other studies as well.

When looking at the papers that do address how enactment impacted the PD effectiveness, there appears a clear relationship with the design of the studies and researched dependent variables. The majority of studies (69%) did not investigate outcomes at the classroom or child level and the role of enactment was primarily discussed in studies that did include this level. For instance, in the intervention of Hardin et al. (2010) teachers were supported in their enactment by the trainer who helped them translate the newly addressed knowledge, skills and belief systems into classroom action plans. During coaching sessions these plans were evaluated and if necessary adjusted, which resulted in a significant improvement of an inclusive physical environment and culturally responsive materials, resources and practices. Also, in the study by Fokaidou and Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou (2014) enactment and reflection on its effectiveness was a facilitated part of the PD intervention. Their results

show that the teachers acquired new strategies for engaging multilingual children during reading activities and that they indeed made more use of these strategies during book reading. As a result, children showed more engagement in the activities and a higher level of understanding of its content.

2

Research Quality: Measurements of Effectiveness

Most included papers evaluated PD efforts in the US, especially the body of pre-service literature was almost exclusively dominated by US research (95%). Furthermore, the 45 papers showed great variation when it comes to design and sample size, ranging from single case studies including two teachers in two school settings (i.e., Brown et al., 2016) to large scale PD interventions including more than 500 teachers in over 60 schools (i.e., Van der Wildt et al., 2017). Approximately 40% of the interventions could be considered small scale (15 teachers or less), whereas 29% was a large-scale intervention (50 teachers or more). Furthermore, qualitative measures of effectiveness, such as interviews and written assignments, were dominant with 51% of the studies using exclusively qualitative measures and 33% adopting a mixed-method approach. Moreover, all papers reported change based on self-reported teacher data (e.g., survey data on attitudes and practices, interviews or written reflective assignments), sometimes in combination with other sources of data. These other sources often included some form of expert judgement, which was often the reflection of the PD provider (i.e., researcher) on teachers' learning process and growth. Only a few papers included independent data sources such as observed classroom interaction (i.e., Bradshaw et al., 2018; Lazar & Offenberg, 2011), classroom materials (i.e., Brown et al., 2016) or demographic student records (i.e., Bradshaw et al., 2018). Furthermore, the vast majority of studies (69%) investigated only teachers' change in knowledge, skills or belief systems or their satisfaction with the intervention. This was especially the case for the pre-service literature (86%). Classroom practices and teacher behavior were included in 27% of the studies and only 9% included outcomes at the child level. However, in many of these studies these conclusions were also based on self-reported data (e.g., self-reported practices, teachers' reflections on children's engagement and growth). Also, a repeated measures design was adopted in only 36% of the studies, with post-testing directly at the end of the intervention. None of the studies included delayed measurements, leaving questions regarding the long-term effectiveness of these programs. Finally, only 16% of the studies included an experimental design with the use of a control group. Overall, these observations taken together with the fact that over half of the included papers stem from the past five years show that the literature on this topic is still in a nascent stage.

Discussion

Our results indicate that there is a wide variety of PD efforts aiming to improve teachers' intercultural competences. Though all papers more or less indicate positive intervention effects, some efforts seem more effective than others. Based on our findings, we consider three elements most important when designing effective PD to enhance teachers' intercultural competences. Concerning the role of the wider context and the key components, as explicated in our theoretical PD model (see Figure 2.1), our results stress the importance of an embedded and contextual approach. Regarding the underlying mechanisms of change, this review shows how guided critical reflection and sustainable enactment are a crucial part of PD when it comes to improving teachers' intercultural competences.

Embedded and Contextual Approach

Our findings illustrate that PD interventions that are well embedded within the organization and wider context of the teacher are more likely to be effective. Teachers' practices are not merely influenced by their personal knowledge, skills, dispositions and goals, but are impacted by colleagues, professional networks, school policies and national discourses as well. Therefore, a universal one size fits all approach is less likely to make effective changes and when designing PD, a needs assessment on the teacher and context should be performed to take these external influences into account (e.g., McGrady, 2017). Moreover, well embedded PD does not consider the teacher as an individual agent within a school, but rather as part of a larger school community. A team-based strategy and the inclusion of key persons in the organization, such as directors or counselors, seem necessary to create an environment in which there is a place for new strategies and practices to be implemented (e.g., Fokaidou & Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou, 2014). Yet, such interventions are still scarce. Finally, being well embedded and contextual refers to aligning the intervention with the needs of the local context (i.e., characteristics of teachers and the families and children they serve) and the wider context, especially in terms of resources and local and national policies. Resources such as time to follow and implement PD or inclusive and diverse classroom materials can function as important preconditions for effective change. In addition, school (district) and national policies can play an important role in communicating the importance of culturally responsive practices (e.g., DeJaeghere & Cao, 2010; Hardin et al., 2010). However, policies can also become a barrier for change when the predominant policy contradicts PD goals, which seems especially the case for linguistic diversity. More recent PD initiatives (e.g., Daniel & Pray, 2017; Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019) that adopted a positive approach toward multilingualism showed that the current monolingual school discourse negatively affected the impact of the

intervention. Interventions that therefore address such policies simultaneously and include key persons that have the agency to change such policies are more likely to show long lasting effects (e.g., Van der Wildt et al., 2017).

Guided Critical Reflection

Another point that is highlighted by our results is the importance of targeting teachers' belief systems when it comes to improving intercultural competences. The extent to which teachers are aware of social injustice in education, recognize their own cultural biases, and consider culturally responsive teaching important affects their overall readiness for change. As such, the input of new knowledge and active reflection on one's belief system seems a crucial element in facilitating change. However, not all forms of reflection seem effective and in order to reach a deeper understanding of the concept of diversity critical self-reflection and the openness to reevaluate your own core values and beliefs are necessary. Several interventions noticed a lack of this deeper level of understanding (e.g., Lin & Bates, 2015), which suggests that not all teachers possess such reflective skills automatically. PD that uses external and active guidance of this reflection process can change belief systems and help decrease discomfort with diversity or possible prejudice (i.e., Affolter, 2017). Guiding the reflective process seems more established in teacher preparation programs than in in-service PD interventions, though the guidance is sometimes rather passive (i.e., Hasslen & Bacharach, 2007; Iwai, 2019). Thus, effective PD should take in consideration that critical reflection is a skill on its own and supporting teachers and student teachers in this is necessary (i.e., Behizadeh et al., 2019; Lenski et al., 2005; Vesely et al., 2017).

Sustainable Enactment

Though a focus on teachers' belief systems is important, several studies show that the relationship between beliefs and practices is rather complex (e.g., Civitillo et al., 2018). There is a gap between teachers' implicit and explicit acceptance of diversity and teachers tend to overestimate their openness to others (i.e., Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018; DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009). Moreover, how teachers assume they act and how they actually interact with children is not always aligned and thus changing teachers' belief systems does not automatically lead to changes in practices and behavior. Rather, this requires opportunities for teachers to enact on those changed beliefs. Our results show that this enactment and the transfer to classroom practices still lags behind, both in the interventions themselves as well as in the research into their effectiveness. The majority of studies only investigate the

effects of PD on teachers' knowledge, skills and belief systems, but not the effects on actual practice or behavior. Nor do they measure if effects last over time. In addition, fostering enactment during or after the intervention is only mentioned in a few studies (e.g., Spies et al., 2017). At the same time, a lack of enactment due to organizational policies (e.g., Daniel & Pray, 2017), lack of teacher agency (e.g., Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019) or simply because it could not be established within the PD intervention (e.g., Psalti, 2007) is often used to explain why interventions were less effective than anticipated. Translating newly acquired knowledge, skills and dispositions into new behavior and practices proved to be hard for both student teachers (e.g., Bennett, 2012) and more experienced teachers (e.g., McGrady, 2017). As the ultimate goal of PD is to support child wellbeing and development (Sheridan et al., 2009), an increased focus on supporting teachers in their enactment is necessary if we wish to establish long term effects and sustainable change.

Limitations

Though the current review gives an indication of important elements in professional development targeting intercultural competences, the overall research base seems far from sufficient to achieve clarity on what forms and features of PD effectively impact teacher outcomes and classroom practices. A great variation in study designs and research foci complicates evaluating effectiveness. The research interest in this topic has increased over the past few decades, but more rigorous studies are necessary to fully understand how professional development can foster the intercultural competences of teachers. Especially studies that focus on classroom practices and child outcomes or investigate delayed effects over time are necessary to support our conclusions. Furthermore, a more general limitation of the current review concerns the search and inclusion of selected articles. A systematic of the literature was conducted, nonetheless, it is possible that studies that could have been included remained unidentified. Selection of the articles has been performed by the first author exclusively and only a subsample (10%) of the selected articles was double coded by the third author.

Conclusion

Overall, our results suggest that an embedded and contextual approach to professional development in which reflection is guided and enactment is fostered, is most likely to effectively increase teachers' intercultural competences. This requires a perspective on professional development as a team-based continuous process in which multiple methods of training and intensive on-going support is embedded within practice and

adapted to the needs of the local context. Yet, one size fits all workshops and isolated courses in teacher preparation programs are still frequently implemented. Though the increased interest in improving teachers' intercultural competences is promising, if we really wish to provide equal learning opportunities for all children, regardless of their background, an even bigger investment in our current and next generation of teachers is necessary to achieve this.

2

CHAPTER 3.

Teachers' self-efficacy and intercultural classroom practices in diverse classroom contexts: A cross-national comparison.

Abstract

This cross-national study provides new insights in teacher efficacy in today's culturally diverse classrooms using survey data of 269 early childhood and primary school teachers in England, Italy, the Netherlands and Poland. Teacher efficacy can be viewed as a two dimensional concept in which both general beliefs are measured alongside (diversity-related) domain-specific beliefs. These beliefs are related to the cultural classroom context and the use of intercultural classroom practices. Our results indicate that policies and professional development targeted at the reciprocal relation between diversity-related efficacy and practices are important when preparing teachers for working in diverse classroom contexts.

Introduction

In light of ongoing globalization, classroom practices that address the topic of diversity and inclusion are becoming more important. Such intercultural classroom practices are necessary for creating a classroom culture where all students, regardless of their cultural and linguistic background are provided with the best opportunity to learn (Richards, Brown & Forde, 2007). However, many teachers feel ill-prepared in dealing with cultural and linguistic diversity and find it challenging to work with diverse populations (Slot, Halba, & Romijn, 2017). This raises the need for supporting teachers and improving their intercultural competences. A key component in improving teachers' intercultural competences is their sense of self-efficacy. The concept of teacher efficacy plays an important role in explaining differences in overall teacher effectiveness with high levels of efficacy having positive effects on several student and teacher outcomes. However, little attention has been devoted to teacher efficacy in ethnically diverse classrooms (Geerlings, Thijs, & Verkuyten, 2018). The current cross-national study provides new insights in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in today's culturally diverse classrooms and it's crucial role in improving intercultural classroom practices.

Teachers' Self-efficacy: A Multifaceted Concept

The concept of teacher efficacy is rooted in Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory, where self-efficacy refers to an individual's judgement of capability to perform a particular action. Research on teacher efficacy dates back to education studies of the RAND organization in the mid-1970s, who found strong links to teacher success and student performance, and the concept has gained increasing research interest ever since (Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011; Kleinsasser, 2014). Within the field of education, teacher efficacy is commonly defined as a "teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplishing a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998, p. 233). It is a motivational construct based on one's perception of competence rather than actual level of competence (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). The relation between teacher efficacy and practice is therefore reciprocal by nature and self-efficacy beliefs can work as self-fulfilling prophecies. If teachers perceive their teaching performance to be successful, self-efficacy beliefs are raised, which contributes to their expectations of future success. Likewise, self-efficacy beliefs are lowered if teachers perceive their performance as a failure, contributing to the expectation that future performances will also fail (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Teacher efficacy is therefore believed to be one of the key beliefs influencing teachers' professional behaviors (Durksen, Klassen, & Daniels, 2017) and supporting positive efficacy beliefs may enhance overall teacher effectiveness (Von Suchodoletz, Jamil, Larsen, & Hamre, 2018).

Since the RAND studies, many measurements of the concept have been developed. In their review on teachers' self-efficacy, Klassen et al. (2011) recommend the use of measures derived from the work of Tschannen-Moran and colleagues (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) for future research as these measures show considerably more congruence with self-efficacy theory compared to many other of the reviewed measures. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) propose a three-dimensional concept (efficacy regarding *student engagement*, *instructional strategies*, and *classroom management*) that assesses a broad range of teacher capabilities, without being so specific that it becomes useless for comparisons of teachers across contexts, levels, and subjects. Although this general model of teacher efficacy is mostly agreed on today (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016), several researchers, including Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007), emphasize that teacher efficacy is context-specific. Depending on this context, teachers may feel more or less efficacious in teaching certain students, subjects or in different settings. Several studies therefore have used domain-specific measurements to address efficacy in teaching areas such as literacy and STEM. Klassen et al. (2011) acknowledge the added value of such domain-specific measurements but stress that too specific measurements of self-efficacy may provide theoretically less useful information and thus they argue for a two-pronged approach including a "multifaceted general teacher efficacy relevant to most teaching situations, along with domain-specific measures" (p. 33).

A key point in the current study is whether self-efficacy regarding teaching diverse student populations can be considered domain-specific in the same way as teaching diverse subjects (e.g., STEM). One line of research stresses that there is nothing particularly special about teachers' competences to work with different student populations as these competences appear to be part of any good teaching (e.g., Malinen et al., 2013; Mitchell, 2008). On the other hand, it could be argued that teaching diverse student populations consists of more than just good teaching and requires specific pedagogical content knowledge (e.g., Fitchett, Starker, & Salyers, 2012; Richards et al., 2007; Young, 2010). This knowledge goes beyond mere awareness of and respect for the fact that ethnic groups have different values and includes a detailed understanding of the cultural characteristics and contributions of different ethnic groups (Gay, 2002). Likewise, a specific set of skills is needed, such as promoting equity and mutual respect among students and validating students' cultural identity in classroom practices and instruction materials (Richards et al., 2007; Slot, Romijn, & Wysłowska, 2017). In addition, similar to teachers feeling more or less efficacious in teaching different subjects, recent studies indicate that teachers also perceive differences in their competences when working with different populations and feel less efficacious working with ethnic and linguistic minority students versus majority students (e.g., Geerlings et al., 2018; Malo-Juvera, Correll, & Cantrell, 2018). We therefore argue that teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students can be

considered domain-specific and that this domain-specificity should be explored when assessing teacher efficacy in the context of diverse classrooms.

Despite the increasing diversity in classrooms and the well-established importance of teacher efficacy for effective education, many self-efficacy instruments do not specifically assess efficacy to teach in culturally and linguistically diverse educational settings (Siwatu & Starker, 2010). Some exceptions are the *Multicultural Efficacy Scale* (Guyton & Wesche, 2005), the measurement of *immigration-related self-efficacy* as proposed by Tater, Ben-Uri and Horenczyk (2011), or the *Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) Scale* (Siwatu, 2007). These first two measurements focus exclusively on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding working with culturally diverse student populations. Listed competences in these scales include the ability to identify problems that may arise as a result of diversity or the ability to help students examine their prejudices towards other students. In contrast, the CRTSE scale of Siwatu (2007) also includes more general teacher competencies such as the ability to recognize students' prior knowledge in order to promote deeper learning. However, within this scale both general and more diversity-related competences are taken together into one self-efficacy construct. Thus, with regard to the topic of diversity and inclusion, to the best of our knowledge there are no studies so far that respond to the call of Klassen et al. (2011) for a two-pronged approach on self-efficacy. In the current study we therefore address both general and diversity-related domain-specific self-efficacy as two related, yet separate constructs within the measurement of the concept of self-efficacy.

Teacher Efficacy in Diverse Classroom Contexts

A sense of satisfaction with one's past teaching successes, commonly referred to as *mastery experience,* is believed to be the strongest contributor to self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). The context in which teachers operate is therefore of great importance as it provides them with the actual experiences to build up their efficacy. As different contexts confront teachers with different challenges, there is a need for greater understanding how context variables are linked to higher levels of teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Although numerous studies have investigated the effects of teacher characteristics (e.g., Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Pas, Bradshaw, & Hershfeldt, 2012; Von Suchodoletz et al., 2018) and structural classroom characteristics (e.g., Çalik, Sezgin, Kavgaci, & Kilinç, 2012; Guo, Justice, Sawyer, & Tompkins, 2011) on teachers' efficacy beliefs, studies on the role of the wider classroom context and student population are rare and results are inconsistent. Adams and Forsyth (2006) found that socio-economic status of students in American primary and secondary schools was positively related to teacher efficacy at a school level and Betoret (2009) showed that lower perceived

student diversity in Spanish primary and secondary schools was linked to higher self-efficacy levels. In contrast, Rubie-Davies, Flint and McDonald (2012) found that primary school teachers in New Zealand feel more efficacious in schools with higher percentages of low SES students. They hypothesized that this might reflect good and highly experienced teachers' explicit choice to teach in low socio-economic areas, though they did not have the data to support this statement. In relation to this, a cross-national study by Fackler and Malmberg (2016) also shows small positive effects of the percentage of students with a different home language or from low-educated families on teacher efficacy, but these specific findings were not further interpreted in their discussion. Furthermore, the study by Geerlings et al. (2018) shows that Dutch teachers in primary school classrooms with a higher representation of minority students feel more efficacious in teaching minority students compared to teachers in classrooms with a smaller share of minority students. As the ethnic in-group identification of the teacher did not significantly moderate this effect, they state that teachers in more diverse classes might feel more efficacious in teaching minority students, because they have more experience in working with those children. Yet, another recent study by Von Suchodoletz and colleagues (2018) found no relation between students' socio-economic background and teacher efficacy of American preschool teachers. Thus, more research is necessary to understand if and why teachers feel more or less efficacious in relation to minority group students of various racial and ethnical groups (Geerlings et al., 2018).

A few recent cross-national studies addressed the possible effect of the macro-context on self-efficacy (e.g., Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Malinen et al., 2013; Vieluf, Kunter, & Van de Vijver, 2013). This wider context is important to include in efficacy research as the concept in itself may be culturally contingent upon the wider national cultural context and prevailing multicultural policies, the psychological and practical relevance of the concept might vary across countries, and differences in average teacher efficacy may display differences in self-presentational norms (Vieluf et al., 2013). Indeed, Fackler and Malmberg (2016) found that a significant proportion of the variance of teacher efficacy was located at the country level. Country differences were smaller than differences between teachers, but larger than differences between schools. Malinen et al. (2013) compared teacher efficacy of Chinese, Finnish and South African teachers and found several unique country characteristics. The Finnish model, for instance, showed that teacher training related to inclusive education had a significant effect on self-efficacy, while this relationship was absent for the other two countries. Overall, these studies indicate that not only the micro-context in which teachers operate affects teacher efficacy, but the macro-context is important to consider as well. Nonetheless, only a limited number of studies so far included this macro-context and more cross-national research is still needed to further test theories on teacher efficacy in diverse contexts (Klassen et al., 2011).

Teacher Efficacy and Intercultural Classroom Practices

A substantial body of research demonstrates positive effects of high levels of teacher efficacy, yet studies predominantly address the effects on other within-teacher factors, such as burn-out and job satisfaction (e.g., Schwarzer & Hallum; 2008; Wang, Hall & Rahimi, 2015) and student outcomes, such as motivation, engagement and learning (e.g., Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006). In addition, these conclusions are primarily based on results of primary and secondary school teachers and studies on the self-efficacy of professionals working in ECEC are limited (Von Suchodoletz et al., 2018). The relationship between teacher efficacy and actual classroom practices is studied to a much lesser extent. Given the reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy and practice and the notion that the effect of teacher efficacy on student outcomes may be mediated by classroom practices and quality (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Tucker et al., 2005; Zee & Koomen, 2016), the relationship between teacher efficacy and actual classroom practices is important to consider. Studies that do investigate this relationship generally indicate positive relations between classroom practices and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Guo, Piasta, Justice and Kaderavek (2010) found strong positive associations between American preschool teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and classroom quality in terms of the instructional and emotional support that teachers provide. Pakarinen et al. (2010) found similar results for emotional support in Finnish kindergartens. Furthermore, Almog and Shechtman (2007) found that Israeli primary school teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy cope better with different problem behaviors such as hostility, hyperactivity and impulsiveness, low achievement and social rejection. Nonetheless, Zee and Koomen (2016) conclude in their review on teacher efficacy and its effect on classroom practices that this research field is still rather fragmentated and more knowledge and integration of studies is necessary to yield any valid conclusions.

The lack of knowledge on the effects of teacher efficacy on classroom practices is even more apparent when it comes to intercultural classroom practices. One study that investigated the relationship between teacher efficacy and such practices to some extent is a small scale mixed-method study by Siwatu (2011) using his CRTSE scale and in-depth interview data. American pre-service teachers who were classified as having high self-efficacy beliefs according to the CRTSE scale, also indicated they had more opportunities to practice these competences in actual classroom settings compared to the teachers with low self-efficacy beliefs. In addition, some studies show a positive relation between teacher efficacy and attitudes towards cultural diversity and inclusive practices (Gao & Mager, 2011; Gutentag, Horencyk, & Tatar, 2018; Siwatu & Starker, 2010). However, the actual effects on intercultural practices were presupposed rather than tested. Thus, more research on this relationship is needed to gain new insights in how self-efficacy beliefs of teachers can play a role in improving intercultural classroom practices.

Current Study

As can be concluded from the literature, the concept of teacher efficacy in the context of culturally and linguistically diverse classroom contexts is an understudied topic. This holds for including a diversity-related construct in the measurement of teacher efficacy itself, as well as for the relation between efficacy and intercultural practices in classrooms. Moreover, studies on how teacher efficacy is affected by classroom diversity or the wider macro context (e.g., multicultural policies) are scarce and results are inconclusive. Given the increasing need for intercultural classroom practices and the challenges many professionals still encounter when working in diverse classrooms, more knowledge is needed on the crucial role of teacher efficacy. The current study intends to add to existing research by analyzing cross-national data of four countries – England, Italy, the Netherlands and Poland – to investigate the role of teacher efficacy in diverse classroom contexts. The included countries were selected since they differ considerably in terms of population, (migration) history, culture, size and adopted policy approaches to inclusive (classroom) practices. For instance, Eurostat data of 2018 shows that the percentage of people born in another country than the country of residence varies considerably across the participating countries, ranging from 1.8% in Poland to 14.4% in England. Parent's country of birth has been related to socio-economic status and proven to affect the likelihood of child poverty in several European countries (Cadima, Nata, Evangelou, & Anders, 2017). Despite the lower share of cultural and linguistic diversity in Poland compared to the other three countries, in terms of socio-economic status Poland is characterized by relatively high child poverty rates (22.8%) and in contrast to other European countries the poverty rates of children in Poland with foreign-born parents are lower than those of children born in the country (Cadima et al., 2017).

Another important macro-contextual difference between the countries concerns the national education system and at what age children enter primary school. Thus, whether teachers working with similar age ranges are considered primary school teachers or teachers working in ECEC differs across the countries. Despite differences between the two systems, we assume that the role of self-efficacy beliefs for teachers successful professional behaviors is similar for teachers working with younger and older children. Moreover, over the past decades ECEC has gained legitimacy as a formal institution due to its increasing role in preparing children for formal education. This marks a shift towards an increasing educational function of early childhood provisions (e.g., Douglass & Gittell, 2012) and therefore we included both teachers working in ECEC provisions as well as in primary schools.

The central model of our study provides an answer to the research question: Is there a relationship between the experienced cultural context of the classroom and the use of intercultural classroom practices and to what extent is this relationship mediated by teacher efficacy? The following sub-questions and hypotheses guided our research.

1. Can teacher efficacy be viewed as a two-dimensional concept in which both general efficacy beliefs are measured alongside (diversity-related) domain-specific beliefs? We argue that teaching diverse student populations can be considered domain-specific in the same way as teaching diverse subjects and we hypothesized that both dimensions of efficacy are related to each other, but also yield unique information on teachers' efficacy beliefs.

2. Is there a relationship between practices and cultural classroom context and to what extent is this relationship mediated by both dimensions of teacher efficacy? We hypothesized a positive direct relation between classroom diversity and intercultural classroom practices as there is more need for such practices in classrooms with higher proportions of children from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. However, as teachers are the one's confronted with this need and the challenges of working in diverse classrooms, we expected this relation to be mediated by diversity-related teacher efficacy. As self-efficacy is strongly affected by mastery experiences, we hypothesized that teachers working in more diverse classrooms would have higher levels of diversity-specific teacher efficacy, since they are more likely to have more experience working with diverse populations. Moreover, given the reciprocal but context-specific relationship between efficacy and behavior, we expected positive relations between diversity-related teacher efficacy beliefs and intercultural classroom practices as well. Within this mediation model, no hypotheses were formulated for the general self-efficacy construct given the lack of prior research on this topic.

3. What differences can be found in the predictive models of the four countries? Since the included countries show several macro-contextual differences, it is reasonable to expect some country differences, though no concrete hypotheses were formulated.

Method

Research Design

The current study uses quantitative survey data collected in 2018 as part of a large research project (ISOTIS) with the overall aim to contribute to effective policy and practice development at different system levels in order to effectively combat early arising and persisting educational inequalities. The survey aimed to identify needs and obstacles (para) professionals face in their work with culturally and linguistically diverse children and families in ten European countries and to examine the characteristics of organizational culture and structure that can support professionals in their work. Within the countries, we collected data from professionals in the same sites in which a parent survey was conducted. The sites per country were selected according to the following criteria: a considerable percentage of the targeted groups for the parent survey (*Turkish, North-African, Romani, socioeconomically disadvantaged low-income native-born group*) and a representation of different local policy contexts. The online staff survey collected data from *N*=1058 professionals working with children and families in various settings, such as ECEC, primary schools, after-school care and organizations in the social work sector. The collected data provides up-to-date information on a wide range of topics including professionals' attitudes and practices related to diversity, professionals' support needs and self-efficacy, as well as organizational characteristics and professional development opportunities (for an overview, see Slot, Romijn, Cadima, Nata, & Wysłowska, 2018).

Sample

As a wide range of professionals was included in the staff survey for a variety of purposes, the current paper focusses on a subsample of countries with similar sample statistics and data collection procedures. We included the data from *N* = 269 teachers working in ECEC and primary school in four countries: England, Italy, The Netherlands and Poland. A targeted approach was used in which a small number of centers/schools were directly contacted in two sites within each country. A total number of 19 locations from London and Manchester was included in the English sample. On average, 4 teachers per location participated. The Dutch sample consisted of 15 locations from Rotterdam and Utrecht with on average 3 participating teachers per center. The Italian sample consisted of 15 locations from Milan and Turin with on average 5 participating teachers per center. The number of participating locations in Poland was a bit smaller with only 9 locations from Warsaw and Łódź, though

the response rates per location were a bit a higher with on average 6 teachers per location. This targeted approach resulted in response rates of 52% (England and Italy), 74% (The Netherlands) and 100% (Poland).

The vast majority of the teachers was female (94.2%). Moreover, 4.5% indicated another nationality than the nationality of the country of residence (either a single other nationality or a combination of nationalities) and 7.6% indicated the use of another language at home (either a single other language or in combination with the majority language). Participants who were born in a different country or who indicated a dual nationality with both parents born in a different country were categorized as having a non-native background (5.2%). Approximately half (54.6%) of the teachers worked in ECEC centers, whereas the other half (45.4%) worked in primary school. To justify the combined sample of ECEC and primary school teachers, preliminary analyses were conducted to investigate meaningful differences between the two types of professionals. These analyses showed measurement invariance could be established for self-efficacy and intercultural classroom practices. Moreover, no meaningful differences were found for teachers' background characteristics (age, sex and ethnic background), except for teachers' education level. Teachers' education level, expressed in International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels to allow for comparison between countries (UNESCO, 2011), was on average $M = 5.27$ ($SD = 1.82$) with ISCED 3 (upper secondary education, 25.5%), ISCED 6 (bachelor or equivalent, 20.9%) and ISCED 7 (master or equivalent, 37.7%) being reported most frequently. The larger standard deviation is mostly due to differences in national education requirements of teachers working in ECEC centers or in primary schools, with the minimal education level of ECEC teachers being lower in the four countries. This is reflected in the data with ISCED levels of ECEC teachers being significant lower compared to ISCED levels of primary school teachers for all countries except for the Dutch sample. Therefore, we decided to include ISCED levels in the final model as a control variable.

Descriptive statistics of the sample are displayed in Table 3.1. It shows that teachers from the English sample are on average somewhat younger compared to the other country samples and have less years of experience, but they do work the most hours per week. Teachers in the Italian sample are somewhat older and have more years of experience compared to the other country samples. Their average education level, however, is lower compared to the three other country samples, as well as the number of hours in their work week. In addition, all participants in Italy and Poland have a native background, whereas 16.3% of the teachers in the Dutch sample and 9.0% of the teachers in the English sample indicate a non-native background. No noticeable differences were visible between the country samples for sex and educational setting (percentage of ECEC and primary school teachers).

Table 3.1
Descriptive Statistics of Total Sample and Sample per Country

	N	Age	Experience	ISCED	Work hours	Background
England	78	35.35 (11.01)	7.58 (8.11)	5.64 (1.71)	37.63 (8.28)	9.0%
Italy	94	49.13 (8.71)	21.37 (13.30)	4.43 (1.93)	26.35 (6.19)	0.0%
The Netherlands	43	43.95 (11.89)	15.85 (10.53)	5.74 (1.27)	29.58 (6.37)	16.3%
Poland	54	43.10 (10.57)	11.19 (12.05)	5.69 (1.74)	29.11 (12.49)	0.0%
Total	269	43.05 (11.66)	14.21 (12.49)	5.27 (1.82)	30.74 (9.56)	5.2%

Measures and Procedures

Adapted scales of existing questionnaires were used to draft a first version of the questionnaire, which was piloted in several countries. The final English version of the questionnaire was used to prepare the online version that could be answered in approximately 30-45 minutes. Translations from the nine other languages were copied into the program resulting in ten language-specific, though structurally identical, versions of the online questionnaire. The questionnaire was ethically approved by the Faculty Ethics Review Board of Utrecht University and all participants consented to the use of their anonymized data for publication purposes. For the current study three scales were used: teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, diversity of the classroom context and intercultural classroom practices.

Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Using a 5-point Likert scale teachers were asked to what extent they feel they can perform several competencies, ranging from *not at all* (1), *very little* (2), *somewhat* (3), *quite well* (4), to *to a very large degree* (5). A total of seven items was used to measure self-efficacy. Five general competencies – derived from the self-efficacy scale of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) – were listed, such as making contact with challenging children or adapting activities to individual needs. In addition, we formulated two competencies specifically related to working with children from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Thus, a two-factor model of self-efficacy was tested with teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs as a first factor and teachers' diversity-related self-efficacy beliefs as a second factor.

Diversity of the classroom context. Teachers reported on the levels of cultural diversity of the context they worked in, estimating the percentage of children within their school or center with a certain background on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *almost none* (1), *around 25%* (2), *around 50%* (3), *around 75%* (4), to *almost all* (5). Teachers estimated the percentage of children from low income/low educated families and/or with a cultural or linguistic background that differs from the dominant country culture and language. The estimated levels of diversity were highly interrelated

with overall Pearson correlation ranging from .65 to .87. An average of the three levels of diversity was used in the final model to measure diversity of context (Cronbach's α = .89).

Intercultural classroom practices. Teachers also reported on their intercultural classroom practices on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* (1), *sometimes* (2), *regularly* (3), *often* (4), to *always* (5). A total of 12 items – derived from the multicultural teaching competency scale of Spanierman et al. (2011) – was used to measure a wide range of diversity practices focusing on activities, integrating different cultural values, diversity of materials and provision of information in different languages. A total of 7 items with an exclusive focus on intercultural practices within the classroom (such as celebrating diverse cultural holidays, examining materials to reflect cultural diversity, and creating a warm and inclusive classroom environment) was used to construct the final scale on practices. A one-factor model on these 7 items was investigated to test for internal consistency.

Missing Data and Analyses

Data analysis proceeded in several steps. First, missing values on the self-efficacy and practices scale were imputed. Approximately 11% of the participants had missing values on the self-efficacy scale, whereas roughly 17% of the participants had missing data on the practices scale. Both scales were simultaneously imputed using SPSS 24.0 multiple imputation method with 5 sets of iterations. Age, sex, educational setting, ISCED level, multicultural and multilingual beliefs, job satisfaction, organizational climate and professional development opportunities were included as predictors. Second, we used confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) in Mplus to analyze the scales and test the model fit of the two-factor model of self-efficacy. Third, measurement invariance was investigated for both scales to see whether the countries could be compared on their mean scores. We used the alignment method (Muthén & Asparouhov, 2014) to test to which extent factor loadings and intercepts were completely invariant between groups. Fourth, multivariate and univariate tests of variance on exported latent factor means were used to test for significant differences between countries. Lastly, we tested for an indirect effect of classroom diversity on intercultural classroom practices via teachers' self-efficacy using path analysis in Mplus (Geiser, 2013).

Results

Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs

A CFA was used to test the hypothesized two-factor structure of the self-efficacy construct. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 3.2. The CFA showed a sufficient fit χ^2 (13) = 40.39, p < 0.001, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .96, SRMR = .04, with a correlation of .65 between the two latent means. The alignment method showed that all factor loadings and intercepts were completely invariant across countries, confirming we can compare countries on their mean scores. Descriptive statistics and exported latent means per country are shown in Table 3.3. A MANOVA shows there are significant differences between countries for both general self-efficacy (F(3,265) = 6.66, p < .001, partial η^2 = .07) and diversity-related self-efficacy (F(3,265) = 11.78, p < .001, partial η^2 = .12). LSD Post Hoc analyses show that general self-efficacy is significantly lower in the Italian sample compared to all other country samples, whereas for diversity-related self-efficacy all country differences are significant, with teachers from the Dutch sample scoring the highest, followed by England and Italy. Teachers in the Polish sample score the lowest on this self-efficacy construct and also show larger variation given the relatively large standard deviation.

Table 3.2
Descriptive Statistics and Standardized Factor Loadings of All Self-efficacy Items

	N	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	Λ
General self-efficacy						
Make contact with challenging children	269	3.84	0.75	1.00	5.00	.66
Intervene in disturbing behavior	269	3.96	0.72	1.00	5.00	.68
Promote children's understanding	269	3.86	0.74	1.00	5.00	.84
Adapt to children's individual needs	269	3.83	0.79	1.00	5.00	.72
Guide families in supporting child learning	269	3.66	0.80	1.00	5.00	.60
Diversity-related self-efficacy						
Work with culturally diverse children	269	3.83	0.89	1.00	5.00	.88
Work with linguistically diverse children	269	3.66	0.83	1.00	5.00	.75

Table 3.3

Descriptive Statistics and Latent Mean Scores of Self-efficacy per Country

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	M F-scores	SD F-scores
General self-efficacy							
England	78	3.91	0.65	1.00	5.00	0.07	0.50
Italy	94	3.62	0.52	2.80	5.00	-0.16	0.41
The Netherlands	43	4.03	0.50	2.80	5.00	0.17	0.40
Poland	54	3.92	0.56	1.80	5.00	0.03	0.46
Diversity-related self-efficacy							
England	78	3.90	0.64	2.50	5.00	0.13	0.66
Italy	94	3.68	0.64	2.50	5.00	-0.08	0.59
The Netherlands	43	4.20	0.66	2.50	5.00	0.40	0.60
Poland	54	3.28	1.01	1.00	5.00	-0.38	0.91

Diversity of Classroom Context

Table 3.4 provides an overview of the diversity of the classroom context per country. The average level of diversity in the English sample lies between 50% and 75%, with over half of the teachers indicating diversity levels of 50% . Diversity levels in Italy are rather similar based on mean scores, however, the variance is somewhat larger. The Netherlands shows the highest level of diversity with the vast majority of teachers indicating 75% to almost all of the children in their classroom have a diverse cultural or linguistic background or come from low income or low educated families. The opposite is true for Poland, where the majority of teachers indicate almost no cultural or linguistic diversity and with the majority indicating 25% of the children come from low income or low educated families.

Table 3.4

Levels of Diversity of the Classroom Context per Country

	Cultural		Linguistic		Low-income		Combined diversity	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
England	3.55	1.00	3.37	0.98	2.97	0.77	3.30	0.77
Italy	3.44	1.37	3.32	1.30	3.05	1.18	3.27	1.15
The Netherlands	4.07	1.37	3.63	1.42	3.26	1.36	3.65	1.30
Poland	1.17	0.38	1.17	0.38	2.22	0.63	1.52	0.35

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Intercultural Classroom Practices

A CFA was used to investigate the model for intercultural classroom practices. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 3.5. The CFA showed a good fit χ^2 (13) = 38.59, p < 0.001, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .96, SRMR = .04. The alignment method showed that all factor loadings and intercepts were completely invariant across countries, confirming we can compare countries on their mean scores. Descriptive statistics and exported latent means per country are shown in Table 3.6. An ANOVA shows there are significant differences between countries (F(3,265) = 15.02, p < .001, partial η^2 = .15). LSD Post Hoc analyses show that intercultural classroom practices are significantly more reported in the English sample compared to all other countries. In addition, such practices are significantly less often reported in the Polish sample compared to the Italian sample.

Table 3.5
Descriptive Statistics and Standardized Factor Loadings of All Practices Items

	N	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	Λ
Celebrating diverse cultural holidays	269	3.39	1.22	1.00	5.00	.64
Activities to increase cultural knowledge	269	3.36	1.18	1.00	5.00	.75
Integrating different cultural values	269	3.78	1.01	1.00	5.00	.68
Diverse materials for drawing skin, hair, eye color	269	4.09	1.01	1.00	5.00	.50
Adapt work to background children	269	3.45	1.18	1.00	5.00	.73
Create warm and inclusive environment	269	4.29	0.93	1.00	5.00	.49
Ensure materials reflect cultural diversity	269	3.52	1.14	1.00	5.00	.75

Table 3.6
Descriptive Statistics and Latent Mean Scores of Practices per Country

	N	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	*M F*-scores	*SD F*-scores
England	78	4.11	0.62	2.57	5.00	0.39	0.56
Italy	94	3.65	0.82	1.57	5.00	-0.05	0.75
The Netherlands	43	3.55	0.70	1.43	4.86	-0.17	0.62
Poland	54	3.31	0.74	1.57	5.00	-0.35	0.66

Relations Between Self-efficacy, Diversity of Classroom Context and Practices

Table 3.7 shows that self-efficacy, diversity of the classroom context and intercultural classroom practices correlate positively with each other. The results show that though both constructs of self-efficacy correlate positively with classroom diversity and intercultural classroom practices, the relationship is the strongest for the diversity-related self-efficacy. Furthermore, as the data showed no relationships between self-efficacy and practices on the one hand and age, sex and teachers' background on the other hand, these variables were not included in the final model due to the small country sample sizes. However, as we did find significant positive correlations between education levels of teachers and self-efficacy and practices, teacher ISCED level was included in the model as a control variable.

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Table 3.7

Pearson Correlations between Self-efficacy, Diversity of Classroom Context and Practices

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Diversity of context	.16*	.39**	.27**	-.05	-.10	-.11	.15*
2. General self-efficacy		.73**	.22**	.20**	-.05	-.05	-.00
3. Diversity-related self-efficacy			.39**	.17*	-.00	-.09	.07
4. Diversity practices				.19**	-.05	.07	.00
5. ISCED					-.22**	-.02	.13
6. Age						-.06	-.06
7. Sex							-.17**
8. Background							

Note.$*p <$ .05 (2-tailed). ** $p <$ .001 (2-tailed).

To explore the relationship between the diversity of the classroom context, self-efficacy and intercultural classroom practices, we tested for direct and indirect effects using path analysis in Mplus. Figure 3.1 shows the standardized results of the model that we used to test the direct effect of classroom diversity and both constructs of self-efficacy on practices as dependent variable, as well as an indirect effect of classroom diversity via self-efficacy, while controlling for teachers' education level. The model showed a good fit χ^2 (1) = 1.27, *p* = .26, RMSEA = .03, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02. The results indicate direct effects of all predictors, except for the effect of general self-efficacy on intercultural classroom practices. In addition, it demonstrates a significant effect of education level on both self-efficacy constructs as well as on practices, with higher ISCED levels predicting higher levels of self-efficacy and more reported use of intercultural classroom practices.
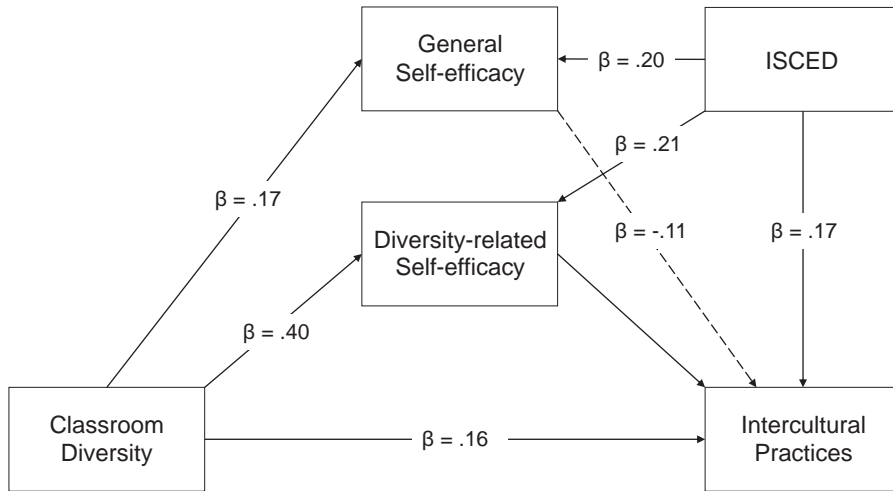
Figure 3.1. Model of direct and indirect effects of diversity of the context and self-efficacy on practices controlled for ISCED level. Significant effects ($p < .001$) are indicated by bold lines.

Table 3.8 shows the indirect and total effects of the model. The results indicate both a direct effect of diversity of the classroom context on intercultural classroom practices as well as an indirect effect via diversity-related self-efficacy. An indirect effect on practices via general self-efficacy was not found to be significant.

Table 3.8
Standardized Estimates and Standard Errors of Direct and Indirect Effects on Practices

	β	SE	*p*
Indirect effect via general self-efficacy	-0.02	0.02	.231
Indirect effect via diversity-related self-efficacy	0.15	0.04	**< .001**
Total effect	0.29	0.06	**< .001**
Total indirect effect	0.13	0.03	**< .001**

A multigroup model taking the four countries into the equation shows a poor fit when all paths are fully constrained between the four countries, $\chi^2 (31) = 64.65$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .13, CFI = .91, SRMR = .12. The modification indices showed that the path between classroom diversity and practices should be freely estimated for the Italian sample as well as the path between classroom diversity and general self-efficacy for the Polish sample to allow for a good model fit, $\chi^2 (29) = 30.53$, $p = .39$, RMSEA = .03,

CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .10. The multigroup model showed significant effects similar to the overall model, with two exceptions concerning the two freely estimated paths. The freely estimated path in the Italian sample results in no significant effects of diversity of context on diversity practices in the English, Dutch and Polish sample, in contrast to the Italian sample where a significant positive effect was found (**β** = 0.33, *SE* = 0.08, *p* **<** .001). Furthermore, the freely estimated path in the Polish sample shows there is a significant positive effect of classroom diversity on general self-efficacy in the English, Italian and Dutch sample, in contrast to the Polish sample where a significant negative effect was found (**β** = -0.40, *SE* = 0.09, *p* **<** .001). Table 3.9 provides an overview of the direct and indirect effects per country. The indirect effect of classroom diversity on practices via diversity-related self-efficacy is significant in all four country samples, though the estimate is somewhat smaller in the Polish sample.

Table 3.9
Standardized Estimates and Errors of Direct and Indirect Effects on Practices per Countr

	EN	IT	NL	PL
	β (*SE*)	β (*SE*)	β (*SE*)	β (*SE*)
Indirect effect via general self-efficacy	-0.02 (0.07)	-0.03 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.03)	0.04 (0.03)
	p = .251	*p* = .245	*p* = .248	*p* = .237
Indirect effect via diversity-related self-efficacy	0.11 (0.03)	0.12 (0.08)	0.16 (0.05)	0.04 (0.01)
	p = .001	*p* **<** .001	*p* = .001	*p* **<** .001
Total effect	-0.02 (0.07)	0.42 (0.08)	-0.03 (0.11)	0.04 (0.05)
	p = .806	*p* **<** .001	*p* = .805	*p* = .407
Total indirect effect	0.08 (0.02)	0.09 (0.03)	0.13 (0.04)	0.08 (0.04)
	p **<** .001	*p* **<** .001	*p* **<** .001	*p* = .042

Discussion

Given today's increasingly diverse school populations, the use of intercultural classroom practices becomes more important in order to provide all students with the best opportunities to learn. As many teachers feel ill-prepared in dealing with cultural and linguistic diversity (Slot et al., 2017), there is a need to support teachers and improve their intercultural competences. The goal of the present study was to provide new insights on the crucial role of teacher efficacy in this. A cross-national design with data from ECEC and primary school teachers from four countries – England, Italy, the Netherland and Poland – was used to answer our research question: Is there a relationship between the experienced cultural context of the classroom and the use of intercultural classroom practices and to what extent is this relationship mediated by teacher efficacy?

A first goal of this study was to examine to what extent teacher efficacy can be viewed as a two-dimensional concept in which both general efficacy beliefs relevant to most teaching situations are measured alongside (diversity-related) domain-specific beliefs. Knowledge on this domain-specific teacher efficacy is valuable, as we often teach to our strengths and reduced feelings of self-efficacy in some areas may result in teachers avoiding specific content or teaching methods (Wheatley, 2002). Our results indicate that both dimensions of efficacy are interrelated, but also yield unique information on teachers' efficacy beliefs, and thus support our statement that teaching diverse student populations can be considered domain-specific. While some teachers reported similar beliefs for general self-efficacy and diversity-related self-efficacy, others reported differences in their self-efficacy beliefs. These differences may be explained by the relation between efficacy and other within-teacher factors. For instance, a positive relation between teacher efficacy and job stress and satisfaction has been well-established (e.g., Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Wang et al., 2015), which might explain why teachers in the Dutch sample reported relatively high self-efficacy. Some studies show that Dutch teachers are in general rather satisfied with their overall organizational climate and show low levels of job stress (e.g., Slot, Romijn, et al., 2018; Slot, Jepma, Muller, Romijn, & Leseman, 2018), which could be reflected in their higher reported self-efficacy. A second within-teacher factor that might explain these differences is teachers' educational background. In line with previous studies (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011) we found that teacher efficacy was positively related to teachers' educational background. Given that the average education level of teachers in the Italian sample is considerably lower, this might explain why these teachers also reported lower general self-efficacy compared to the teachers from the other three counties.

Differences in teacher efficacy can also be explained by the experienced level of diversity of the classroom context. As mastery experiences are a strong contributor to self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007)

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we hypothesized that teachers working in more diverse classroom contexts would show higher levels of diversity-related efficacy as they are more often confronted with the specific needs and challenges of a diverse classroom and thus likely had more opportunities to build up their efficacy beliefs in working with these diverse student populations. Our results confirmed this hypothesis and are in line with the study by Geerlings et al. (2018), who found that teachers feel more efficacious towards minority students when they work in classrooms with a higher share of minority students and interpreted this result as teachers being more experienced in working with diverse populations. This could explain why the teachers in the Polish sample reported significantly lower diversity-related teacher efficacy. Given the lower diversity in the current sample of Polish classrooms compared to the classrooms of the other countries (0-25% and 50-75% respectively), Polish teachers might have less experience in working with culturally and linguistically diverse students and may, thus, feel less efficacious in teaching them.

Furthermore, our results show there is a positive relation between general self-efficacy and classroom diversity as well, though the relationship with diversity-related self-efficacy is stronger. Rubie-Davies et al. (2012) found similar results and hypothesized that this positive relationship could reflect good and highly experienced teachers' explicit choice to teach in low socio-economic areas. An alternative explanation of this result could be that the relationship between general self-efficacy and diversity-specific efficacy is reciprocal. If teachers experience success in addressing specific (diversity-related) challenges in the classroom, these experiences might also strengthen their overall feeling of competence as a teacher. Thus, teachers in more diverse classrooms might feel more efficacious in working with diverse students populations, which strengthens their overall teaching efficacy. However, our multigroup model indicated that this relationship is not identical in all four countries. For the Polish model we found a negative relation between cultural diversity in the classroom and teachers' general self-efficacy, in contrast to a positive relation for the other three countries. While some studies found a positive relation between classroom diversity and general self-efficacy (e.g., Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Rubie-Davies et al., 2012), the negative relation in the Polish sample is in line with others (e.g., Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Betoret, 2009). These contrasting results may indicate that there are other factors that moderate this relation, which were not included in the present study. The divergent result in the Polish sample could for instance result from less optimal conditions in Polish (pre) schools (e.g., working conditions, group size, professional development resources) that put more stress on these teachers when working with very heterogenous groups. However, these country differences could also be related to population differences, as the cultural composition of the Polish population is different compared to the other countries (i.e., Cadima et al., 2017). As such, it would be interesting to see what the relation between general and diversity-specific teacher efficacy and classroom diversity

looks like in typical immigration countries, such as the USA, Canada or Australia. Overall, future research on this relationship is necessary to confirm these possible explanations for country differences.

The second purpose of this study was to investigate the reciprocal relation between teacher efficacy and intercultural classroom practices and how this is affected by the cultural diversity of the classroom context. Moreover, we were specifically interested whether teacher efficacy plays a mediating role in the relationship between the classroom diversity and intercultural classroom practices. Our results indicate that differences in practices can be explained by both the diversity of the classroom context as well as teacher efficacy. We found a positive relation between classroom diversity and practices, which confirmed our hypothesis that teachers report more intercultural practices in classrooms where there is a higher need for such practices. This direct relationship might explain why teachers from the Polish sample reported a significantly lower use of intercultural classroom practices. As the share of students from cultural and linguistic minority backgrounds is relatively small in Polish classrooms, if not absent, the need for these practices might be less apparent.

Though the classroom context is of great importance for classroom processes (e.g., Zee & Koomen, 2016), it is the teacher who is directly confronted with the challenges and needs of a culturally diverse classroom. Our hypothesis that teacher efficacy can play an important role in the improvement of intercultural classroom practices is supported by our results. Both constructs of teacher efficacy proved to relate positively to teacher-reported classroom practices, though again the relation between diversity-related self-efficacy and practices is stronger than the relation with general self-efficacy. Thus, teachers who feel more efficacious working with children with diverse cultural and linguistic background state that they are more often engaged in intercultural classroom practices. Moreover, we found a significant indirect effect of diversity-specific self-efficacy. These results confirm our hypotheses and are in line with previous studies (e.g., Siwatu, 2011), though research on this specific topic is still very limited.

Besides the effect of the direct classroom context and teachers' efficacy beliefs on intercultural classroom practices, a few recent cross-national studies indicate that the macro-context also plays an important role in explaining differences (e.g., Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Malinen et al., 2013; Vieluf et al., 2013). Policies at the organization, state or country level might also account for part of the variance in practices. For instance, teachers in the English sample reported the most intercultural classroom practices, which could be a result of the mandatory curriculum (Early years foundation stage statutory framework [EYFS]) with standards that all schools and child care providers must meet for the learning, development and care of children from birth to 5 years of age (Department for Education, 2017). Inclusive classroom practices are specifically addressed within this framework. Indeed, it states that all

providers must take reasonable steps to provide children from linguistically diverse backgrounds with opportunities to use their home language in play and learning. Such diversity-related policies could also explain why the teachers in the Dutch sample reported relatively low use of intercultural classroom practices despite their rather high self-efficacy beliefs. A national mandatory policy that supports the use of children's home language is lacking. Instead, some of the (pre)schools included in the Dutch sample have explicit organization policies that stress the importance of Dutch language proficiency and therefore the exclusion of children's home language use in the classroom. Future research should explicitly include country level variables to create a deeper understanding of the wider cultural context in which teacher efficacy and intercultural classroom practices develop.

Limitations

There are several limitations that should be taken into account when interpreting our findings. An important limitation concerns sampling. The current cross-national study was based on a convenience sample in very targeted areas. As a result, findings from our study cannot be generalized across teachers and countries. This seems especially true for the cross-country results on teachers' self-efficacy. Though measurement invariance showed a comparison between countries was valid, some researchers have argued that such country differences may be more indicative of differences in self-presentation and cultural modesty norms than actual levels of self-efficacy (Vieluf et al., 2013). The results on the differences in teacher efficacy beliefs between the four countries should therefore be interpreted with caution. Moreover, given the smaller sample sizes per country we pooled data from ECEC and primary school teachers to obtain big enough country samples. Though we argued that a combined sample was justified for the purposes of the current paper, the particular characteristics of ECEC may prevent from generalizing results to primary school settings and vice versa. Further research should therefore strive to validate our results with more homogenous samples of teachers.

A second point concerns the measurement of our key variables. Our current conclusions are solely based on data from self-reported measures, which may be sensitive to response tendencies and social desirability. Such measurements seem inevitable for the concept of teacher efficacy, which entails one's perception of competence rather than actual level of competence. For intercultural classroom practices, the current study elaborates on the relationship between self-efficacy and perceived practices, but lacks independent information on the inclusive practices and quality of these classrooms. Other measurements for these practices, such as classroom observations, should be included in future studies to investigate if

teachers with higher levels of diversity-related self-efficacy have better intercultural competences and use indeed more intercultural classroom practices. Likewise, the use of demographic data could provide a more detailed picture of the diversity of the classroom context. In the current study, the self-reported low levels of diversity indicate rather homogenous classrooms in the Polish sample. Though these teachers indicate they experience the group as homogenous, this measurement might not do just to the actual (socioeconomic) diversity in the Polish context.

Conclusion

Despite the above-mentioned limitations that call for caution in the interpretation of the current results, this study has some relevant implications. Overall, our results add to the existing body of research on the reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and practice and illustrate that when it comes to intercultural classroom practices feeling competent as a teacher in general is not sufficient. Some teachers showed reduced feelings of efficacy in working with diverse student populations compared to their general self-efficacy. As we teach to our strengths, these reduced feelings of diversity-related efficacy may result in these teachers avoiding intercultural classroom practices. We argue that (pre)school is an important setting in preparing children for their participation in today's culturally diverse society and that the use of these practices is thus important in all classrooms, regardless of students' background. Nonetheless, our results show that context matters. Teachers working in more diverse classrooms, feel more efficacious working with diverse student populations and report they are more often engaged in intercultural classroom practices, which in turn provides them with new opportunities to build up their self-efficacy. However, the cultural composition of the classroom context only explains a part of the variance in teachers' efficacy beliefs and intercultural classroom practices. Therefore, we argue that it is necessary to help teachers build their self-efficacy beliefs by providing them with opportunities to engage in intercultural classroom practices. This asks for (new) approaches to in-service professional development, such as coaching on the job with culturally diverse groups, teachers reflecting on their own intercultural practices, biases and beliefs, or organizing regular meetings with parents of diverse backgrounds.

In conclusion, our results indicate that if we wish to improve intercultural classroom practices and better prepare teachers for working in diverse classroom contexts, a continuous yet targeted approach is likely to yield the best results. Policies and in-service professional development specifically targeted at the reciprocal relation between diversity-related domain-specific self-efficacy on the one hand and practices on the other hand might be of more importance than interventions and activities that aim to improve teachers' overall feelings of competence.

3

CHAPTER 4.

Organization hybridity in the Dutch early childhood education and care system: Organization logic in relation to quality and inclusion.

Abstract

This article investigates to what extent differences in quality and inclusion in a hybrid ECEC system can be explained by different organization logics. Based on nationally representative data from N = 192 Dutch ECEC centers, we used a configurational approach to structural and cultural organization characteristics to cluster organizations in three different types: engaged professional organizations, commercial service-oriented corporations and traditional bureaucratic organizations. Results indicated that engaged professional organizations outperform the other organization types when it comes to quality and inclusion practices. These organizations invest in continuous and collaborative professional development, are connected to local communities and express a clear social mission with respect to cultural diversity and equal opportunities. These results add to the ongoing scientific and societal debate on the role of day care in major public tasks, such as reducing inequalities and preventing early education gaps.

Introduction

Cultural and linguistic diversity is increasing in many countries and inequalities in educational achievement by family socioeconomic status and immigration background are still persistent. As educational achievement gaps emerge early in life, early childhood education and care (ECEC) has gained legitimacy as a formal institution with the potential to narrow these gaps (Douglass & Gittell, 2012; Melhuish et al., 2015). Several studies indicate that both targeted and universal ECEC interventions can indeed help decrease inequality, if they are of high quality (Passaretta, Rözer, Skopek, Van Huizen, & Van de Werfhorst, 2019; Van Belle, 2016). Simultaneously, policy reforms have introduced privatization and marketization to the sector in several countries, creating hybrid ECEC systems in which major public tasks, including reducing inequalities and the prevention of early education gaps, are allocated to both private for-profit and not-for-profit organizations (Van der Werf, Slot, Kenis, & Leseman, 2020, 2021). As organizations are prone to adapt to their local context, this has resulted in a range of different, often hybrid ECEC organizations in terms of organization structure, culture and (social) mission. This raises the question whether some provisions have found more effective organization forms than others when it comes to creating inclusive, high quality environments. In the current paper we adopt a configurational approach to organization characteristics to identify different types and investigate how organization logics are related to ECEC quality and inclusion.

System and Organization Hybridity

Since the 1980s, privatization and marketization have been introduced in educational services in many countries (Ball, 2009; Whitty & Power, 2000). This has led to hybrid systems in which the traditional boundaries between private and public sectors are getting blurred (Newman, 2001). However, the current literature often addresses hybridity from a macro level perspective, while increased hybridity might also have important local implications for organizations and work teams (Denis, Ferlie, & Van Gestel, 2015). Organizations tend to adapt to their local context, creating a variety of hybrid organization forms in terms of structure, strategies and power relations, especially in public sectors that are (partially) privatized, such as ECEC (Mintzberg, Ahlstrand, & Lampel, 2005; Van der Werf et al., 2020). Moreover, in organizations where professional services are provided, 'real' factors (i.e., external and societal factors, such as growing cultural and linguistic diversity) continuously create new realities which also call for new principles on hybridity in terms of professionalism (Noordegraaf, 2011, 2015). Noordegraaf (2011, 2015) stresses the importance of a dynamic and relational approach that connects professionals and organizations as both professional work and their work settings have to be structured, financed and

facilitated, not in the least by the professionals themselves. Hybrid professionalism arises when professional and managerial principles come together, creating new principles on (1) how work is *coordinated*, (2) how *authority* is established, and (3) what *values* are at stake (Noordegraaf, 2015). These principles are also apparent in the Institutional Logics Approach (ILA) (e.g., Skelcher & Smith, 2015; Thornton, Ocasio, & Lounsbury, 2012). Organization hybridity according to ILA can be traced back to different institutional orders in society (i.e., family, community, religion, state, market, profession and corporation), each with its own source of legitimacy, authority and identity. This institutional rationality or logic is defined as the "socially constructed, historical patterns of cultural symbols and material practices, including assumptions, values, and beliefs, by which individuals and organizations provide meaning to their daily activity, organize time and space, and reproduce their lives and experiences." (Thornton et al., 2012, p. 2). Organization hybridity arises from a plurality of logics and, as a result, new forms of organization culture, actor agency and professional identity are created in order to better fit the complex institutional environments organizations navigate in (Skelcher & Smith, 2015).

Organization Logic

According to ILA, hybrid systems thus occur when institutional orders intertwine. If we focus on the ECEC sector, we can see the influence of several institutional orders. For instance, marketization and privatization have increased the influence of a market and corporation logic in the sector. The institutional order of the market has a faceless identity and is controlled by shareholders. Self-interest and increased profit are the norm and basic strategy, and the economic system is based on a supply and demand principle (Thornton et al., 2012). Translated to the ECEC sector, this logic relates to for-profit goals of provisions and the appearance of private equity in child care. Moreover, economic welfare and women's rights activism has increased labor market participation and therefore the demand for provisions that supply flexible child care adapted to parents' needs.

The corporation logic has its basis in hierarchy, with bureaucratic roles of employees and authority that comes from top management. Legitimacy comes from the organization's position in the market and the informal mechanism of control is related to the organization's culture (Thornton et al., 2012). A corporation logic seems to imply a dichotomy between management and organizations on the one hand and professionals and occupations on the other hand. According to Noordegraaf (2011, 2015), however, professional services like ECEC may benefit from a relational approach that connects professionals and managers, which he refers to as organized professionalism. This perspective privileges processes and stresses the importance

of strong interactions between professionals. Professionalism is connective and meaningful coordination occurs when connections are made between professionals and managers aimed at jointly tackling tasks and challenges (Noordegraaf, 2015). As such, a hierarchical corporation logic is less apparent in ECEC organizations with a strong team-oriented culture in which interpersonal relationships between professionals (and their managers) are highly valued, but more apparent in organizations where such connections are not part of the organization's culture.

A third institutional order that can be found in the ECEC sector is the community. The community logic centralizes reciprocity and mutual trust, in which members of the community derive their identity from their reputation within the group. Values and ideology that show commitment to the community are necessary, as well as personal investment in the group and cooperative practices (Thornton et al., 2012). Thus, this idea of embeddedness within the community refers to both creating a meaningful role for yourself within the group as well as connecting with other members of that same community. In many countries, important public goals have been assigned to ECEC, giving the sector a meaningful role in society when it comes to social inclusion, school readiness and reducing education gaps, and decreasing overall inequalities (e.g., Leseman, 2009; Melhuish et al., 2015). To address the needs of all children, but especially those from disadvantaged backgrounds, ECEC needs to be part a professional network that reaches out to families and extends to community resources related to health, welfare, non-formal education, NGO's, etc. Isolated professionals do not benefit from the added social capital afforded by dense social networks and from the multilevel supports needed to effectively tackle social and educational inequalities (Aguiar & Pastori, 2019). Thus, ECEC organizations in which the community logic is present have a strong ideology that shows commitment to the community (i.e., social mission), reach out to the families in their community and collaborate and coordinate work with other organizations.

As ECEC has gained legitimacy as a formal educational institution (Douglass & Gittell, 2012), influence of the institutional order of the profession is also apparent in the sector. Organizations that derive their legitimacy and identity from a professional logic highly value personal experience, professional reputation and good quality of their craft (Thornton et al., 2012). Translated to the ECEC sector this means that organizations strive for highly qualified staff and invest in improving their professional skills with the overall goal of improving young children's developmental and educational outcomes. A broad variety of facilitated professional learning opportunities, ranging from single-off workshops and consultations to comprehensive curricula and communities of practice, is referred to as professional development (PD) (e.g., Buysse et al., 2009; Romijn, Slot, & Leseman, 2021, see *Chapter 2*; Sheridan et al., 2009). Contrasting a single-educator focus, more recent emerging models conceptualize effective PD "as

fostering sustained and continuous learning, that is collaborative, intensive, adopts a classroom focus and is part of the broader centre culture" (Siraj et al., 2019, p. 60). Though this collaborative effort, also referred to as *communities of practice* (e.g., Sheridan et al., 2009), is essential to organization learning and quality improvement (Siraj et al., 2019), it is ultimately the teacher who interacts with children in order to support their development. Specifically in relation to the public role of ECEC to create social inclusion and reduce inequalities, several studies show that continuous professional development (CPD) at the teacher level can change teachers' belief systems (e.g., He et al., 2017; Vartuli & Rhols, 2009), improve their intercultural competences (e.g., Moore, 2016) and cultural sensitivity (e.g., DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009) and even impact their inclusive classroom practices (e.g., Spies et al., 2017). Therefore, we assume that PD is a key element in ECEC, both at the organization level as well as the individual teacher level.

The influence of one institutional order does not necessarily or completely replace another, yet their different assumptions, values and beliefs can be competing (Thornton et al., 2012). Organizational hybridity in terms of logics can provide an opportunity for organizations to adapt effectively to their local context, creating new professional identities. However, not all organizations may be effective in resolving or managing the inherent tensions between logics, leading to a blocked type of hybridity and organizational dysfunction (Skelcher & Smith, 2015). This leads us to the central question if we can identify organization types, in terms of logic hybridity, that are more successful than others when it comes to providing high quality and inclusive ECEC.

Quality and Inclusion

High quality ECEC is beneficial for all children in terms of cognitive and social development, but of even more importance for children from disadvantaged backgrounds (e.g., Janta, Van Belle, & Stewart, 2016; Melhuish et al.,, 2015; Van Belle, 2016). When it comes to defining quality in ECEC, a common distinction is that between structural and process quality (Howes et al., 2008; Pianta et al., 2005). Structural quality refers to regulable characteristics of ECEC at the organization or teacher level such as group size, teacher-child ratio, and the educational background of teachers (e.g., Burchinal, Vandergrift, Pianta, & Mashburn, 2010; Howes et al., 2008; Slot, Leseman, Verhagen, & Mulder, 2015). The general consensus is that these structural characteristics are a prerequisite for good process quality (Pianta et al., 2005). Process quality refers to the day-to-day experiences children have in terms of the physical, social, emotional, and educational aspects of their daily interaction with their teachers, peers, and materials, and is thought to directly determine children's developmental outcomes (Hamre et al., 2013; Howes et al., 2008; Pianta et al., 2005).

Another form of quality addressed in the literature concerns the activities children are provided with on a daily basis, also known as curriculum quality. The implemented curriculum can be considered part of the process quality as it refers to actual child experiences with materials that enhance knowledge and promote skill development (Slot, Leseman et al., 2015).

Inclusion can be defined as "a dynamic approach of responding positively to pupil diversity and seeing individual differences not as problems, but as opportunities for enriching learning" (UNESCO, 2005, p. 12). This diversity includes learning and behavioral issues, differences in socio-economic, religious, linguistic or cultural background, and gender and sexual orientation issues. Given today's cultural and linguistic diversity in society, teachers' intercultural competences are increasingly important to create such an inclusive environment. Intercultural competence refers to the ability to examine local, global and intercultural issues in order to understand and value the perspectives and world views of others, to engage in open and constructive dialogue with people from different cultures and to act for collective well-being and sustainable development (OECD, 2018; Pastori et al., 2018). Hence, inclusive ECEC provisions are those that stand for the overall promotion of tolerance and social cohesion.

Current Study: A Configurational Approach

The current study focused on the relation of organization logic with quality and inclusion in the Dutch ECEC system. In 2019, roughly 338.000 0- to 4-year-olds were enrolled in 9000 full day or half day ECEC provisions (Van Ark, 2019). As a result of large policy reformations in 2005 and 2018, the Netherlands has become one of the countries with a hybrid system in which major public tasks are allocated to both private for-profit and not-for-profit organizations (Van der Werf et al., 2020). Recent nationally representative research in the Netherlands shows there is great variation between ECEC centers when it comes to quality and (inclusive) practices (Slot, Jepma et al., 2019). Studies that try to explain differences in process quality frequently address the 'iron triangle' of structural characteristics (i.e., group size, teacher-child ratio, teachers' education level), with the overall idea that smaller groups, low teacher-child ratios, and highly educated teachers positively impact process quality (Slot, 2018). Yet, evidence on this is not conclusive, especially in the Dutch context where such structural characteristics are highly regulated by national policies (Slot, Leseman, et al., 2015). Moreover, a recent OECD review of Slot (2018) shows that the majority of studies have focused on the impact of single variables on process quality. However, reality is more complex as teachers are actors within organizations and children's experiences are embedded within a system of classroom, staff, center and even country characteristics (i.e., Slot, Lerkkanen, & Leseman, 2015). Therefore,

these different levels and possible interactions between them need to be taken into account to gain a better understanding of how structural characteristics impact process quality (Slot, 2018). A configurational approach, in which organizations are described in terms of a relatively stable configuration of its characteristics with a particular organization structure and set of strategies that are adapted to the local context (Mintzberg et al., 2005), may therefore be a better way to explain differences in quality.

Two recent studies of Van der Werf et al. (2020, 2021) into organization hybridity in the privatized and harmonized Dutch ECEC system show that this configurational approach can distinguish between different hybrid organization types. Using Dutch ECEC data collected in 2012 (Van der Werf et al., 2020) and 2017-2018 (Van der Werf et al., 2021), the authors demonstrate that, within the boundaries of national regulation and policy, organizations adapt differently to their local context. Organizations that could be classified as *engaged professional organizations* were most connected to their local community, indicated greater investment in professional development and structurally outperformed other organization types in terms of observed process quality, inclusive practices and teacher's job appraisal. In terms of ILA, it thus seems that organizations that derive forms of legitimacy and identity from the community and profession logic, provide better care in the Dutch ECEC sector. However, these organization types were composed from a management perspective and thus ignore the dynamic relation between professionals and organizations. Professional work and quality is not a product of a certain organization form (e.g., Noordegraaf, 2011, 2015), rather organization culture and identity derive from an interplay of organization policies and individual professional values.

The current study will use recent nationally representative data to investigate differences in (inclusive) practices and quality. We build on the work of Van der Werf et al. (2020, 2021) and investigate if we can identify different (hybrid) organization types based on a variety of structural and cultural characteristics at the organization and teacher level. We included characteristics that can provide insight in how organizations combine the four main organization logics we identified in the ECEC sector (i.e., market, corporation, community, profession). In line with the results of Van der Werf et al. (2020, 2021) we hypothesize that organizations that are well connected to their local community (community logic) and highly value and structurally invest in professional development (profession logic) outperform other organization types. We address the following research question: Can the structural characteristics of ECEC provisions and their teachers be clustered in differentiating organization types in terms of organization logic and if so, can these types explain differences in overall ECEC quality and (inclusive) practices?

Method

Research Design and Participants

The current study used data collected in 2017, 2018 and 2019 within the Dutch national daycare quality monitor, commissioned by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (Slot, Jepma et al., 2019). The four-year monitor started in 2017 and applies a rolling sampling method. Following a stratified sampling model based on region of the country, degree of urbanization and size of the organization, a sample of different forms of early care and education provisions is drawn every year. These annual samples result in a large, nationally representative sample over the consecutive years and include data of a) center-based full day care for 0- to 4-year-olds, b) half day education and care programs for 2½- to 4-year-olds, c) after-school care for 4- to 12-year-olds and d) nonfamilial home-based care for 0- to 12-year-olds. The present study focused on half and full day education and care provisions for 0- to 4-year-olds (a and b). In total, 93 full day provisions (33.1% positive response) and 99 half day provisions (51.6% positive response) were sampled. This sample is considered representative as reasons for non-response did not reveal systematic biases (Slot, Jepma et al., 2019). In each center, one group was randomly selected to participate in the study. For each group, classroom observations were performed by trained research assistants and teachers and managers were invited to fill out a questionnaire. Regarding the full day provisions, groups were sampled that provided care to infants, toddlers, or both. In the current study we excluded groups that solely provided care to 0- to 2-year-olds (N = 23). The questionnaire for managers was filled out in 153 organizations (90.5%). A total of 250 teachers from 156 centers (92.3%) filled out the teacher questionnaire. The average age of the responding teachers was M = 42.32 (SD = 12.09) and the vast majority was female (97.6%) with a Dutch ethnic background (86.3%). A final sample size of N = 145 centers (62 full day and 83 half day provisions) was used that had data available on all levels (85.8%). Occasionally missing data will be addressed below.

Measures and Procedures

Organization types. Organization types were based on 15 dichotomized variables constructed with both manager and teacher data. Variables were selected to provide insight in organization hybridity in terms of the presence of different organization logics: 1) market logic, 2) corporation logic, 3) community logic, and 4) profession logic.

The *market logic* included four variables of the manager questionnaire to identify to what extent organizations view ECEC as a commercial business, mainly for supporting labor market participation of parents. <u>Profit goal</u> indicated whether business profits, if any, remained within the organization to fund additional professional development or quality improvement in general (recoded as 0) or were distributed as dividend to shareholders and/or private equity investors (recoded as 1). <u>Legal entity</u> refers to the formal organization structure, representing the four main types of legal entities in Dutch ECEC. Types were recoded into the values 0 (non-profit foundation) and 1 (for-profit single-owner firms or for-profit companies with shareholders and/or private equity). <u>Flexibility of use</u> was based on three items, asking to what extent parents were allowed to bring or pick up their child at flexible times and whether they were free to switch days (1 'not flexible', 2 'somewhat flexible', 3 'flexible'). An average of these three items (Cronbach's alpha = .773) of 1.00 was recoded based on median split as 0 (not flexible) and an average of 1.01 to 3.00 was recoded as 1 (flexible). <u>Service profile</u> was based on several statements concerning the mission profile of the organization. On a scale ranging from 1 (not characteristic at all) to 5 (very characteristic) managers indicated how their organization can be distinguished from others. The service profile is composed of three items (Cronbach's alpha = .853) and indicates to what extent organizations are characterized by their flexibility in hours and days to maximally adapt to the practical needs of parents. Using median split, the variable was recoded as 0 (low service profile) and 1 (high service profile).

Three variables were included to measure the *corporation logic*, using both manager and teacher data. <u>Team spirit</u> consisted of four items asking whether the participants considered their team as well organized, connected, and able to cope with difficulties. The scale was answered by both managers and teachers and showed an overall strong positive correlation (Pearson r = .50, p <.001). Using standardized scores a combined scale with eight items (Cronbach's alpha = .850) was computed to measure the overall organizational team spirit. <u>Staff inclusion</u> was based on four items (Cronbach's alpha = .782) of the manager questionnaire on a scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 5 (very important). It measured to what extent staff is included in policy and decision making and if feelings of inclusion are considered important. Finally, <u>inclusive organization climate</u> was based on five items (Cronbach's alpha = .731) of the teacher questionnaire on a scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 6 (completely agree) asking to what extent they feel included and respected by their colleagues and supervisors and whether they are treated equally regardless of their background. As the corporation logic is characterized by strong hierarchy and a dichotomy between managers and professionals, variables were reversely recoded to ensure that low scores represent the absence of a corporation logic, whereas high scores indicate a presence of this logic. Thus, using median split, variables were recoded into 0 (high team spirit, high staff inclusion and high inclusive organization climate) and 1 (low team spirit, low staff inclusion and low inclusive organization climate).

The four variables that represent the *community logic* were all based on data from the manager questionnaire. The <u>inclusive education profile</u> was based on several statements concerning the mission profile of the organization. On a scale ranging from 1 (not characteristic at all) to 5 (very characteristic) managers indicated how their organization can be distinguished from others. The inclusive education profile was based on nine items (Cronbach's alpha = .851) and concerned a strong focus on learning opportunities and positive attention to cultural diversity. Using median split, both profiles were recoded as 0 (low inclusive education profile) and 1 (high inclusive education profile). The organizations' <u>diversity policy</u> was based on what policies organizations have to deal with diversity. It consists of four items regarding the importance of providing equal opportunities for all children, allowing children to use their heritage language, providing information to parents in multiple languages and taking religious or cultural preferences regarding food and dressing into account (Cronbach's alpha = .404). The importance of equal opportunities was scored on a scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 5 (very important). Due to a skewed distribution of scores, 'very important' was recoded as 1 and 'not important at all' to 'important' was recoded as 0. The other three items concerning language and food were recoded as 0 (no) and 1 (yes, as much as possible). Using a median split, organizations that scored positively on two or more of these items were considered as positive towards diversity (value 1). For organizations who scored positively on only one or none of these four items, diversity policy was recoded as 0. <u>Outreach to parents</u> consisted of seven dichotomous items (Cronbach's alpha = .586) on parental participation, the organization of group events to discuss parenting and policy, and outreach of the organization in terms of home visits, providing guidelines and materials for the home learning environment and the use of mediators to connect with parents. Scores ranged from 0 to 1 and organizations with a higher score reported to reach out more to parents. The variable was dichotomized as 0 (low outreach) and 1 (high outreach) using median split. Finally, <u>network collaboration</u> reflected the proportion of local partner organizations (e.g., schools, health organizations, local businesses) collaborated with. In total, 11 types of organizations were characterized as local connections and used to calculate the proportion of collaboration partners. Scores ranged from 0 to 1 and organizations with a higher score were regarded as more connected to their neighborhood. Based on the median, values were recoded as 0 (low network collaboration) and 1 (high network collaboration).

Four constructs of professional development were measured in both the manager and teacher questionnaire to provide insights on the organization's *profession logic*. <u>Continuous professional development</u> was based on 10 items (Cronbach's alpha = .818) of the teacher questionnaire on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). It measured how often teachers were engaged in activities such as external workshops, video feedback on their own practice, coaching by colleagues or experts

and the participation in communities of practice with other organizations. Support for professional development was based on 12 items (Cronbach's alpha = .722) of the manager questionnaire and included similar activities as the CPD scale. Managers indicated on a three-point scale if such activities were hardly ever provided (1), only provided to some of the staff (2) or systematically provided to most staff (3). Team-based professional development was based on nine items (Cronbach's alpha = .737) of the teacher questionnaire on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (every day), asking how often teachers engaged in PD activities together with their team. Activities included discussing the developmental needs of individual children, discussing professional literature and evaluating practice and policies. Community of practice was based on eight items (Cronbach's alpha = .713) of the manager questionnaire on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (every day), and included similar activities as the team-based PD scale. Organizations that scored higher on this scale indicated a stronger learning community within their organization. All four variables were recoded into 0 (low PD) and 1 (high PD) based on a median split.

Quality. Organization types were compared on several quality measures, using both self-reported teacher data as well as independent observational data.

Process quality. Independent classroom observations were performed using the Classroom Assessment Scoring System Toddler (CLASS Toddler; La Paro, Hamre, & Pianta, 2011), an internationally recognized reliable and valid instrument for measuring process quality (e.g., Slot, Boom, Verhagen, & Leseman, 2017). All observers were trained by a licensed trainer and obtained a reliability score of at least 80% agreement within a one scale-point deviation on an online reliability test. Observers rated classroom processes and teacher-child interactions during four cycles of 15 to 20 minutes in one morning. For each cycle, process quality was scored on a seven-point scale for eight dimensions, clustered within two larger domains: emotional support and educational support. A score of 1 or 2 equals a low range, a score of 3, 4, or 5 indicates quality in the midrange, and a score of 6 or 7 equals high classroom quality. Regarding emotional support, classroom processes and teacher-child interactions were evaluated on five dimensions. Positive climate reflects the warmth, respect, and enjoyment shown by the teacher and children. Negative climate reflects the overall negativity expressed within the classroom, such as anger, irritability, or use of harsh voice in interaction. Teacher sensitivity focusses on teachers' awareness of and responsiveness towards children's needs and to what extent the child is comfortable within the classroom. Regard for child perspectives is the extent to which the teacher follows children's interests and perspectives during activities and within their interaction, as well as the extent to which the teacher supports independence. Behavior guidance assesses teachers' skills to guide and support (positive) behavior as well as the overall level of problem behavior in the classroom. The domain of the

educational support was evaluated on three dimensions. Facilitation of learning and development reflects teachers' skills to facilitate activities and interactions that expand children's cognition. Quality of feedback reflects the extent to which the teacher provides meaningful feedback through scaffolding, encouragement and affirmation, and the provision of information. Lastly, language modeling assesses to which degree the teacher supports, models and expands children's use of language

Curriculum quality. The teacher questionnaire provided information on the curriculum of activities, with teachers indicating how often they perform several classroom practices on a scale ranging from 1 (almost never) to 7 (several times a day). We included a wide variety of (educational) activities to get insight in differences in classroom practices: motor development activities, (pretend) play activities, creative activities, language activities, mathematical activities, sciences activities, special educational needs teaching activities, and intercultural activities. Motor development activities was based on six items (Cronbach's alpha = .679) and included practices on both gross motor skills (i.e., climbing, running) and fine motor skills (i.e., cutting with scissors). (Pretend) play activities was based on four items (Cronbach's alpha = .741) and included practices such as building with blocks and playing with dolls. Creative activities was based on seven items (Cronbach's alpha = .758) and included art and music activities. Language activities was based on seven items (Cronbach's alpha = .737) and included practices such as shared reading and labelling games. Mathematical activities was based on five items (Cronbach's alpha = .683) and consisted of counting games and activities in which quantities were compared. Science activities was based on five items (Cronbach's alpha = .719) and included practices on biology, physics and construction. Special educational needs activities was composed of two items (Cronbach's alpha = .711) on the use of special education programs and extra (language) support for disadvantaged children. Finally, intercultural activities was based on three items (Cronbach's alpha = .440) asking teachers to what extent children from different backgrounds interact with each other and how often children learn about different cultural norms and customs.

Structural quality and classroom composition. To provide a more detailed description of the organization types, important structural characteristics and group composition was compared as well using data from the teacher questionnaire. Included structural characteristics were group size during the week, teacher-child ratio's (interns and support staff not included), teachers' education level, teachers' ethnic background, and type of provision (full-day program versus half day program). Teachers' educational level was defined as the highest level of completed formal pre-service education and measured on a scale representing the levels of the Dutch secondary and tertiary education system, ranging from 1 (lower preparatory vocational education) to 8 (university education). Ethnic background was based on

reported country of birth of the teacher and/or their parents. Group composition was based on the numbers of family and child backgrounds divided by the group size, as reported by the teachers. We included background statistics on family socio-economic status, ethnic background, language support needs, disabilities (e.g., Down Syndrome, physical handicaps, intellectual impairments), behavioral problems and refugee status.

Inclusion. Using self-reported teacher data, inclusion was measured in terms of classroom practices and contact with parents. Inclusive classroom practices was based on the sum of three dichotomized items on whether teachers allow children to use their home language in the classroom, address parents in their home language as much as possible and if teachers take cultural customs into account, for instance concerning nutrition. The scale ranges from 0 (no inclusive classroom practices) to 3 (high regard for inclusive classroom practices). Variables regarding the contact teachers have with parents was based on 14 dichotomized items, divided in three categories: communication, community building and active outreach. The average of these items indicated the level of parent-teacher contact ranging from 0 to 1, with higher scores indicating a higher count of parent contact. Communication included seven items (Cronbach's alpha = .547) on teacher communication practices that inform parents in general (i.e., distributing newsletters) or specifically on their child's development (i.e., progress reports and one-on-one communication). Community building included four items (Cronbach's alpha = .349) that address promotion of parent participation and community building with teachers and other parents (i.e., meetings to discuss policy and childrearing or social events). Finally, active outreach concerns three items (Cronbach's alpha = .124) that indicated if organizations put effort in reaching out to (hard to reach) parents by conducting home visits, using other parents as mediators, and providing activities for the home learning environment. Despite the low internal consistency, we considered the scores as meaningful count of the implemented ways of community building.

Analysis

Analysis proceeded in a number of steps. First, all organization characteristics were checked for normality and outliers. Since one to three teachers per classroom filled out the questionnaire, teacher data were aggregated per group as we did not meet the minimum within-group cluster size to adopt a multilevel structure (Hox, 2010). Subsequently, variables used to compose the organization types were dichotomized based on median split as Latent Class Analysis (LCA) requires variables that are measured on different scales to be standardized or dichotomized. We chose for dichotomization as several variables were either already dichotomous or measured

on polytomous ordinal or nominal scales. Second, LCA was performed in Mplus and different solutions were compared on model fit indices (i.e., AIC, BIC, entropy, bootstrap likelihood ratio test), class proportion and interpretability of indicators. A three-cluster solution was found most satisfactory, to be detailed further in the Results section, and class membership was determined for all N = 145 organizations and merged with the self-reported teacher and classroom observation data. Third, multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA's) with pairwise comparisons were performed with class membership as independent variable and organization characteristics, self-reported teacher practices, and classroom observations as dependent variables.

Results

Organization Types

Descriptive statistics. Table 4.1 displays the descriptive statistics of the 15 organization characteristics that were used to define organization types. Concerning the *market logic*, the majority of organizations indicated a not-for-profit motive and approximately half of the organizations had for-profit legal entities. Also, the majority of organizations did not allow flexibility of use. Service profile shows a large range, indicating the sample consists of both organizations that do and do not characterize themselves as in service to parents' needs. Concerning the *corporation logic*, on average both managers and teachers positively valued their work climate in terms of team spirit, staff inclusion and inclusive organization climate. This indicates lower corporate logics in general as this logic is characterized by strong hierarchy and a dichotomy between managers and professionals. Regarding the *community logic*, on average organizations characterize themselves as having an inclusive-education profile to some extent, however, positive policies towards diversity were rare. Moreover, we found large differences in outreach to parents and collaboration with the network, with some organizations indicating no such activities at all versus other organizations that highly invested in outreach.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics of Organization Characteristics (N = 145)

| Market logic	Observed Range	M	SD	Missing
A Profit goal (1 = for-profit)	0.00-1.00	0.21	-	12
B Legal entity (1 = commercial company)	0.00-1.00	0.45	-	9
C Flexibility of use	1.00-3.00	1.39	0.68	10
D Service profile	1.00-5.00	2.96	1.28	10
Corporation logic	Observed Range	M	SD	Missing
A Team spirit	-1.40-1.35	0.03	0.56	1
B Staff inclusion	3.00-5.00	4.31	0.45	10
C Inclusive organization climate	3.80-6.00	5.35	0.44	6
Community logic	Observed Range	M	SD	Missing
A Inclusive education profile	1.11-4.89	3.81	0.58	10
B Diversity policy	0.00-4.00	1.30	0.95	9
C Outreach to parents	0.00-1.00	0.47	0.24	10
D Network collaboration	0.00-0.82	0.39	0.19	10
Profession logic	Observed Range	M	SD	Missing
A Continuous professional development	1.00-4.20	2.13	0.55	6
B Support for professional development	1.00-2.75	2.01	0.35	10
C Team based professional development	1.00-4.78	2.66	0.72	10
D Community of practice	1.00-5.38	3.01	0.89	10
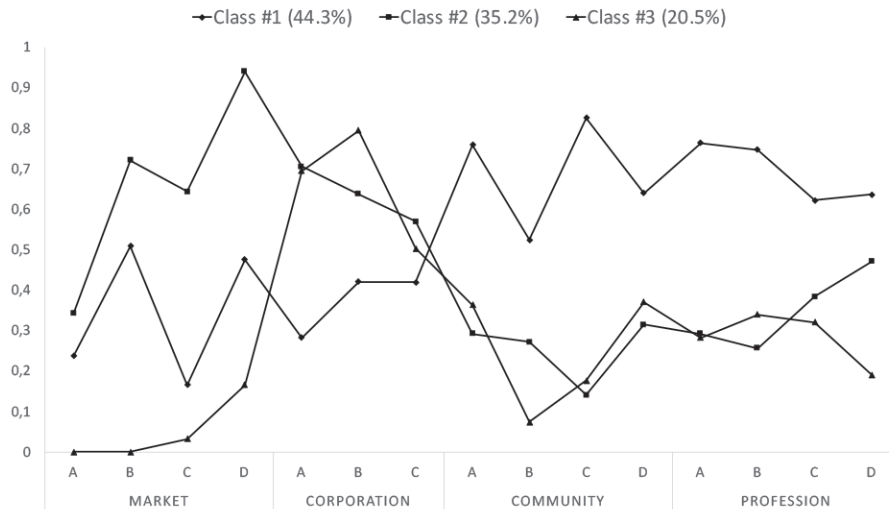
Figure 4.1. Estimated probabilities of belonging to each class in the three classes model.

Finally, for the *profession logic* teachers indicated that on average they rarely engaged in continuous PD activities and once a month or less participate in team based PD. Managers indicated on average that their organizations sometimes supported PD for part of the staff and that community of practice activities generally occurred once per month. The relatively large ranges for PD indicate that there are organizations that hardly provided any PD as well as teachers that engaged in PD activities on a weekly basis.

Latent class analysis. To identify organization types, LCA was applied to the binary recoded organization characteristics listed in Table 4.1. One to five classes models were estimated and model fit indices, class proportions and interpretability of the classes were used to decide on the best solution. As Table 4.2 shows, the four classes solution was considered significantly better than the three classes model indicated by the bootstrap likelihood ratio test. However, the Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin test ($p = .46$) and Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted LRT test ($p = .47$) indicated no significant difference between the three and four classes models. In terms of class proportions, in the four classes model one of the classes had a rather small class count with only 8.86% of the cases. As both the three and four classes model showed similar and acceptable entropy values, and the three classes model had more equal class proportions and a better interpretability of the classes, we decided on a three classes solution (see Figure 4.1).

Table 4.2
LCA Model Fit Indices

	Class #1	Class #2	Class #3	Class #4	Class #5
AIC	2781.74	2691.09	2662.07	2651.36	2649.60
Sample-size adjusted BIC	2778.93	2685.27	2653.25	2639.54	2634.78
BLRT	NA	1375.87**	1314.55**	1284.03*	1262.68
Entropy	NA	0.72	0.78	0.80	0.84

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .001$.

An overview of estimated probability for each binary recoded organization characteristic is provided in Figure 4.1. Class 1 (C1) had the largest class count with 66 organizations (45.5%), followed by 50 organizations in Class 2 (C2) (34.5%) and 29 organizations in Class 3 (C3) (20.0%). For the *market logic* we found that probability scores were the highest for C2 organizations, especially in terms of flexibility of use and the service profile. This logic is clearly absent in C3 organizations with none of them indicating a for-profit goal or commercial legal entity. With regard to the *corporation logic*, C1 organizations scored lower compared to C2 and C3 organizations with regard to team spirit and staff inclusion. For inclusive organization climate, differences between the classes are rather small. For the *community logic* we

found that C1 organizations scored higher on all variables compared to C2 and C3 organizations, with the difference in outreach to parents being the largest. Moreover, diversity policy was slightly more apparent in C2 organizations than C3 organizations. Finally, for the *profession logic* we also see that C1 organizations scored the highest in comparison to C2 and C3 organizations for all forms of professional development. However, for community of practice there also seemed to be a difference between C2 organizations and C3 organizations. A further interpretation and summary of the three types will be discussed in the Discussion section.

Quality

Process quality. A MANOVA performed on the CLASS Toddler dimensions was border line significant, Wilk's Lambda, $F(20, 266) = 1.51$, p = .08, partial $\eta^2 = .10$, yet univariate testing and LSD post-hoc comparisons indicated significant differences on some of the quality indicators (see Table 4.3). On average, classrooms scored higher on emotional support (high midrange) compared to educational support (low midrange). There were no differences between the classes for overall emotional support, though C3 organizations scored higher on negative climate (reversely coded) compared to C1 organizations, whereas C1 organizations scored higher on regard for child perspectives compared to C3 organizations. For educational support we found that C1 organizations scored significantly higher than C2 organizations on all three dimensions and the overall domain.

Table 4.3

Means and Standard Deviations of CLASS Toddler Process Quality within each Class

	C1 *M (SD)*	C2 *M (SD)*	C3 *M (SD)*
Emotional Support	5.73 (0.48)[a]	5.62 (0.49)[a]	5.70 (0.35)[a]
Positive climate	5.97 (0.65)[a]	5.93 (0.67)[a]	5.99 (0.52)[a]
Negative climate (r)	6.85 (0.27)[a]	6.93 (0.15)[ab]	6.98 (0.08)[b]
Teacher sensitivity	5.76 (0.75)[a]	5.68 (0.75)[a]	5.88 (0.58)[a]
Regard for child perspectives	4.72 (0.77)[a]	4.48 (0.86)[ab]	4.33 (0.79)[b]
Behavior guidance	5.48 (0.77)[a]	5.39 (0.78)[a]	5.61 (0.65)[a]
Educational Support	3.49 (0.71)[a]	3.16 (0.72)[b]	3.39 (0.58)[ab]
Facilitation of learning and development	4.00 (0.70)[a]	3.65 (0.91)[b]	3.96 (0.69)[ab]
Quality of feedback	3.06 (0.85)[a]	2.73 (0.82)[b]	2.80 (0.67)[ab]
Language modelling	3.41 (0.85)[a]	3.08 (0.72)[b]	3.44 (0.84)[ab]

Note. Means with different letters are statistically significant (LCD, *p* < .05.)

Curriculum quality. Table 4.4 shows that (pretend) play activities were most frequently performed in all classrooms and occurred almost daily. Motor development and language activities were also frequently performed with an average indicating these activities occurred several times per week. Furthermore, creative and special education needs activities occurred on average almost once a week, whereas mathematical, science and intercultural activities occurred approximately twice per month. A MANOVA showed that the classes differ significantly on curriculum quality, Wilk's Lambda, $F(16, 244) = 1.91$, p = .02, partial $\eta^2 = .11$. Univariate testing and LCD post-hoc comparisons showed that C1 organizations scored significantly higher than C3 organizations on all types of activities except language and special education needs activities. In addition, C2 organizations also scored higher than C3 organizations for (pretend) play and creative activities and lower on special education needs compared to C1 organizations.

Table 4.4

Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Self-reported Curriculum Quality

	C1 *M (SD)*	C2 *M (SD)*	C3 *M (SD)*
Motor development activities	5.27 (0.87)[a]	5.24 (0.82)[ab]	4.55 (1.19)[b]
(Pretend) play activities	5.89 (0.82)[a]	5.96 (0.63)[a]	5.38 (1.04)[b]
Creative activities	3.90 (0.85)[a]	3.79 (0.73)[a]	3.52 (0.68)[b]
Language activities	5.21 (0.97)[a]	5.19 (0.81)[a]	4.78 (1.03)[a]
Mathematical activities	3.33 (0.92)[a]	3.01 (0.82)[ab]	2.77 (0.85)[b]
Science activities	3.03 (0.87)[a]	2.68 (0.83)[ab]	2.51 (0.99)[b]
Special education needs activities	4.09 (1.91)[a]	3.29 (2.04)[b]	4.04 (2.03)[ab]
Intercultural activities	2.77 (1.13)[a]	2.76 (1.30)[ab]	2.24 (0.86)[b]

Note. Means with different letters are statistically significant (LCD, *p* < .05.)

Structural characteristics and group composition. To provide a more detailed description of the classes, the most important structural characteristics of the organizations are listed in Table 4.5. The average group size during the week is *M* = 12.10 (*SD* = 3.38) children, with a teacher-child ratio of *M* = 6.27 (*SD* = 1.32) children per teacher (interns and support staff not included). The mean and distribution of teachers' education level indicates a vocational training level for approximately 75% of the teachers and a college or university degree for 25%. Regarding the ethnic background of teachers, less than 10% of reported a non-Dutch background. Moreover, approximately 60% of the organizations were full day provisions. A MANOVA showed significant differences between classes on some of these structural indicators, Wilk's Lambda, *F*(10, 274) = 3.29, p < .001, partial $\eta^2 = .11$. Univariate testing and LSD post-hoc comparisons

showed that the average group size was somewhat bigger in C3 organizations compared to C1 and C2 organizations. Moreover, all three classes differed significantly on teacher-child ratio, with C3 organizations showing the least favorable ratio, followed by C1 organizations and then C2 organizations. For type of provision, a significant difference was found between all classes as well. C3 organizations were mostly half day provisions, C1 organizations were a more mixed group of half and full day programs, and the majority of C2 organizations were full day provisions. Finally, no differences were found for teacher education level and background.

Table 4.5
Means and Standard Deviations of Structural Characteristics within each Class

	C1 *M (SD)*	C2 *M (SD)*	C3 *M (SD)*
Group size	12.03 (3.19)[a]	11.05 (2.66)[a]	14.03 (4.11)[b]
Teacher-child ratio	6.34 (1.23)[a]	5.74 (1.15)[b]	6.98 (1.44)[c]
Teacher education level	5.43 (0.72)[a]	5.37 (0.76)[a]	5.33 (0.63)[a]
Non-Dutch teacher background	0.09 (0.24)[a]	0.06 (0.16)[a]	0.07 (0.18)[a]
Type of provision	0.38[a]	0.65[b]	0.14[c]
Family and child background			
% Low SES	26.36 (29.19)[a]	22.27 (24.72)[a]	18.47 (26.66)[a]
% Non-Dutch	26.95 (27.14)[a]	21.53 (23.17)[ab]	10.23 (15.37)[b]
% Language support needs	33.99 (32.29)[a]	20.84 (23.09)[b]	19.03 (24.37)[b]
% Disabilities	2.24 (5.72)[ab]	3.69 (5.88)[a]	0.67 (2.19)[b]
% Behavioral problems	7.14 (11.37)[a]	5.35 (7.77)[a]	5.93 (10.43)[a]
% Refugee status	4.66 (11.58)[a]	0.94 (3.00)[b]	1.54 (3.40)[ab]

Note. Means with different letters are statistically significant (LCD, $p < .05$.)

We also investigated background characteristics of the families and children these provisions serve (see Table 4.5). A MANOVA showed that the family and child background differed significantly between the three classes, Wilk's Lambda, $F(12, 210)$ = 2.03, p = .02, partial η^2 = .10. Univariate testing and LSD post-hoc comparisons indicated that classes did not differ significantly in percentage of low SES families or children with behavioral problems. Children from a non-Dutch background were more often enrolled in C1 organizations compared to C3 organizations and there were more children in C1 organizations who needed additional language support compared to C2 and C3 organizations. Also the percentage of children with a refugee status was the highest in C1 organizations and differed significantly from C2 organizations. Finally, the percentage of children with a disability was somewhat higher in C2 organizations compared to C3 organizations.

Inclusion

Due to missing values, differences in teachers' self-reported inclusive practices and contact with parents were separately tested for significance (Table 4.6). Regarding inclusive practices, an ANOVA, $F(2, 136) = 6.23$, p = .003, partial η^2 = .08, and LSD post-hoc comparisons showed C1 organizations scored significantly higher than C2 and C3 organizations. A MANOVA on the contact with parents showed significant differences on all forms of parent contact, Wilk's Lambda, $F(6, 250) = 2.68$, p < .001, partial η^2 = .15. Univariate testing and LSD post-hoc comparisons showed that in terms of communication, C3 organizations scored significantly lower compared to C1 and C2 organizations. For community building activities and active outreach, C1 organizations scored the highest, though for active outreach the difference with C3 organizations was not significant.

Table 4.6
Means and Standard Deviations of Self-reported Inclusive Teacher Practices

	C1 *M (SD)*	C2 *M (SD)*	C3 *M (SD)*
Inclusive practices	1.07 (0.81)[a]	0.63 (0.59)[b]	0.62 (0.79)[b]
Contact with parents – communication	0.75 (0.16)[a]	0.73 (0.15)[a]	0.61 (0.19)[b]
Contact with parents – community building	0.60 (0.24)[a]	0.39 (0.22)[b]	0.36 (0.24)[b]
Contact with parents – active outreach	0.40 (0.17)[a]	0.31 (0.14)[b]	0.33 (0.19)[ab]

Note. Means with different letters are statistically significant (LCD, *p* < .05.)

Discussion

Privatization and marketization have created a hybrid ECEC system in the Netherlands in which organizations adapt differently to their local context in terms of organization structure and power relations (Mintzberg et al., 2005; Van der Werf et al., 2020, 2021), professionalism (Noordegraaf, 2011, 2015) and logics (Skelcher & Smith, 2015). As a result of this plurality of structures and logics, new forms of actor agency are created and organization hybridity becomes the rule rather than the exception. In the current paper we investigated to what extent institutional logics of the market, corporation, community and profession (i.e., Thornton et al., 2012) are apparent in the ECEC sector and how organizations combine these logics to better fit the complex environment in which they navigate. Using recent nationally representative Dutch ECEC data (Slot, Jepma et al., 2019), we identified three different organization types based on the particular configuration of indicators of the four institutional logics and investigated how these types related to the quality and inclusiveness of the care and education practice.

Latent class analysis indicated that three types of organizations could be distinguished in the data based on multiple indicators of the four institutional logics. For the market logic we found differences between all three classes. The market logic was very apparent in the second class, while almost absent in the third. The first class showed a more mixed pattern. For the other three logics we found the strongest differences between the first class on the one hand and the second and third on the other hand. The first class scored somewhat lower on the corporation logic (indicating less strong hierarchy and a more team-based organization climate), but higher on the community and profession logic compared to the other two. When investigating the hybridity of logics per type, the results are in line with the organization types that Van der Werf et al. (2020, 2021) found. The first class (44.3%) can be characterized as *engaged professional organizations*. These organizations are considered engaged in the sense that they show a strong connection with their community. They actively reach out to parents, engage in partnerships with local organizations (i.e., schools, community services), and have a clear social mission. These organizations have an inclusive education profile and more policies that promote diversity and inclusion, such as including children's home language within the classroom. They can also be considered professional organizations as they try to create communities of practice and support teachers in their continuous and team-based professional development. Also, professionals and managers are more interconnected as they show lower scores on the corporation logic. Interestingly, the stronger focus on interconnectedness that is demonstrated by a low corporation logic and high community and profession logic does not by definition exclude a market logic. Though these organizations are not characterized by strong profit goals or client-centered flexibility, they can be for-profit legal entities and endorse a relatively strong service-oriented profile. As such, these organizations demonstrate signs of what Noordegraaf (2015) refers to as *organized professionalism*. In organized professionalism coordination occurs when connections are made within professional domains aimed at jointly tackling tasks and authority is shared by professionals actively taking responsibility in relation to stakeholders (i.e., parents and families). Simultaneously, organization values are not singular and professionals know how to serve multiple values at the same time as quality and efficiency both belong to professional work (Noordegraaf, 2015).

The second class (35.2%) can be described as *commercial service-oriented corporations* and is strongly characterized by the market logic and corporation logic. These organizations usually have for-profit legal entities and are relatively flexible when it comes to pick-up times and switching days. Together with an absent inclusive education profile and a weaker connection to their community, these organizations demonstrate a stronger view of ECEC as a commercial instrument for labor market participation in which parents are considered clients. The opposite seems true for the third class (20.0%). Though the third and second class showed equal patterns for the corporation, community and profession logic, this commercial service-oriented market logic is

almost completely absent in the third class. These *traditional bureaucratic organizations* are non-profit provisions with fixed hours and days. They have a lower team spirit and staff is less often included in decision making. Also, they are less connected to their local communities and invest less in professional development at both the organization and teacher level.

In line with the results of Van der Werf et al. (2020, 2021), we hypothesized that organizations that are more connected to their community and structurally invest in professional development (i.e., the engaged professional organizations) outperform other types of organizations when it comes to providing inclusive and high quality care. Our findings largely support this hypothesis as we found several differences between the engaged professional organizations on the one hand and the commercial service-oriented corporations and traditional bureaucratic organizations on the other hand. For process quality, the differences in educational support were the biggest, with engaged professional organizations showing better support than commercial service-oriented corporations in terms of the facilitation of learning and development, quality of feedback, and language modelling. For curriculum quality, engaged professional organizations outperformed the traditional bureaucratic organizations on a wide variety of activities (i.e., motor, play, creative, mathematical, science and intercultural activities). Differences with the commercial service-oriented corporations were not significant, except for special education needs activities, which occurred more in the engaged professional organizations. Teachers in engaged professional organizations also reported more inclusive practices compared to the other types and scored overall higher on contact with parents. Commercial service-oriented corporations also scored relatively high on communication with parents, but considerably lower on community building contact and active outreach. This further demonstrates the service-orientation of this organization type in which good communication is key, yet also shows that these organizations are generally less connected to the parents in their community as compared to the engaged professional organizations.

To see whether these differences in quality and practices can be related to the iron-triangle of structural characteristics (i.e., group size, teacher-child ratio, teachers' educational level), we examined whether the classes differed by structural quality. Our results show that differences in group size and teacher-child ratio were rather small, with the most favorable ratio's showing in the commercial service-oriented corporations and the least favorable in the traditional bureaucratic organizations. No differences were found for teachers' educational and ethnic background. This underlines that studying the impact of single structural variables to explain differences in process quality and practice may be losing its value, especially in countries such as the Netherlands were the 'iron triangle' characteristics are highly regulated by national policies (Slot, Leseman et al., 2015). Moreover, we found that the engaged

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professional organizations served more children from a disadvantaged background compared to the other two types. Taken together with the differences in quality and practice, this indicates that the best quality ECEC is, to some extent, indeed provided to those most in need.

Limitations

Some limitations of the current study need to be taken into account when interpreting the results. For instance, differentiation in organization types showed to be less strong for the corporation logic compared to the other three logics. This may be explained by the relatively high mean scores of these variables and could indicate that our current set of variables used to operationalize this logic is suboptimal. Future studies should explore if other measures are better in differentiating between organizations. Furthermore, inclusive practices and curriculum quality was measured using self-reported teacher questionnaire data and the organizations types were partially composed from other scales of this same questionnaire. Though the organization types are largely (12 out of 15 characteristics) based on independent data of the manager questionnaire, we need to be aware of possible confounding effects due to shared method bias. Finally, measures on inclusion were somewhat roughly operationalized and based on self-reports due to data availability. Independent observations used in this study – the CLASS Toddler which measures process quality - did not include specific aspects on intercultural and multilingual practices in the classroom. As a result, our data can indicate which organizations engage in high quality interactions, but it provides little information on how interculturally competent teachers in these classrooms are. To overcome these issues, independent observational data and stronger operationalized diversity and inclusion constructs should be considered in future research.

Conclusion

The present findings illustrate that organizations adapt differently to their context and that different forms of organization hybridity in terms of blending institutional logics arise in the partially privatized Dutch ECEC sector. With the engaged professional organization outperforming the other organization types in several ways, our results suggest that a clear professional and community logic are necessary to create inclusive provisions of high quality. This professional and community logic is illustrated in the investment in continuous and collaborative professional development and the connectedness to the community in terms of collaboration with parents and local organizations. Moreover, it is expressed in the clear social mission of these

organizations to strive for inclusive education. These organizations pay positive attention to cultural diversity, deem equal learning opportunities for disadvantaged children important and more often support the use of home languages. However, we found that this strong social mission does not by definition exclude market logics, indicating these organizations found an effective way of using hybridity to adapt to the privatized ECEC market system in the Netherlands. Overall, we believe that the current paper provides new insights when it comes to explaining differences in inclusion and quality in ECEC. Future research needs to indicate whether similar insights can also be relevant for organizations that provide education and care to older children, such as (primary) schools and after-school care provisions.

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CHAPTER 5.

The relationship between local diversity policies and the integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families: The importance of professionals' intercultural competences.

Abstract

This study provides new insights in the relationship between diversity and inclusion policies in the local education and support system and the integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families in Europe. Quantitative data of N = 2475 parents with a North-African or Turkish immigrant background or a Roma background and N = 892 professionals in 18 urban, suburban and semi-suburban localities in 9 European countries was used to examine if professionals' multicultural and multilingual beliefs and practices are related to indicators of families' integration and acculturation strategies. Results showed that professionals within the same sites and countries shared similar practices and beliefs towards multiculturalism and multilingualism. At the local site level, shared multicultural practices and beliefs correlated positively with parents' desire for intercultural contact, their encouragement of children to establish intercultural relationships with peers, the satisfaction with the country of residence and a positive perception the parent-teacher relationship. These results stress the importance of strong intercultural competences of professionals in the local education and support system for integration and inclusion.

Introduction

Contemporary Europe is facing increased societal cultural diversity as a result of continuous immigration and is therefore increasingly characterized by cultural 'super-diversity' (Vertovec, 2007, 2010). The term 'multicultural' has been used to define both this culturally diverse society as well as the policy approach to deal with such a diverse society (Malik, 2015). However, multiculturalism as a fact and as a policy has suffered considerable political damage over the past years and is nowadays not embraced as broadly as it once might have been (Meer & Modood, 2012). Several leading politicians throughout Europe (e.g., in the UK, Germany, the Netherlands) even publicly proclaimed that the multicultural society has failed, stressing the need for better integration of minority families, which has been recognized in several recent action plans of the European Union (i.e., European Commission, 2020a, 2020b). Integration is a multidimensional concept with economic, political and social aspects, and successful integration is often expressed in terms of economic benefits at the household or country level (Danzer, 2011), academic success of children (Teltemann & Schunck, 2016), and psychological well-being (Vedder, Sam, & Liebkind, 2007). The leading assumption throughout Europe is that integration must be managed through statewide policies. Yet, especially the social aspect of integration is in many respects also a local process that is primarily shaped by the individual bonds that people form within their local environment (Malik, 2015; Scholten, 2013). In the current paper we investigate the role of the local education and support systems in the social integration of minority families. Using data from nine European countries we investigate how professionals' shared practices and beliefs towards diversity and inclusion relate to the integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families.

The Local Support System: Beliefs, Practices and Policies

Early childhood education and care (ECEC) centers, primary schools and social services are important local social contexts that connect parents with other parents, children with children, parents and children with teachers and other professionals, and families to the wider society (Leseman et al., 2020). This local support system may be especially valuable for immigrant and ethnic-minority families, as studies suggest that childhood services play an important role in improving equity and addressing the needs of disadvantaged families (Barnes & Melhuish, 2017; Lastikka & Lipponen, 2016). For children with an immigrant or ethnic-minority background, especially education is important for their integration and upward social mobility (OECD, 2015). A central role is for the professionals working in education and related support services, as the quality of education and ultimately the outcomes for (disadvantaged) children and families is critically dependent on well-educated, experienced and

competent staff (e.g., Peeters & Sharmahd, 2014; Romijn et al., 2021, see *Chapter 2*; Urban et al., 2012). These professionals have a connective role, as immigrant children often experience cultural and linguistic differences, if not a big divide, between the microsystems of the school and the family. As such, creating trusting partnerships with parents is an imperative task for professionals to help children to bridge between these different contexts (Norheim & Moser, 2020). This calls for professionals with strong intercultural competences and the ability to build cross-cultural bridges (Goh, Wahl, McDonald, Brissett, & Yoon, 2007; Romijn et al., 2021, see *Chapter 2*).

Intercultural competences encompass professionals' intercultural knowledge, skills, belief systems and actions from a human rights perspective in which diversity is highly valued (Pastori et al., 2018). Professionals' belief systems, referring to a set of developed assumptions, beliefs, attitudes and values (Spies et al., 2017), may be of special importance for the integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families. According to Pastori et al. (2018), positive intercultural attitudes express respect, civic-mindedness, responsibility, self-efficacy, tolerance of ambiguity and general openness to cultural otherness and other beliefs, world views and practices. Yet, many studies show that professionals regularly express negative attitudes towards children and families with another cultural or linguistic background (DeCastro-Amrosetti & Cho, 2005; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Mellom, Straubhaar, Balderas, Ariail, & Portes, 2018; Pettit, 2011; Pulinx et al., 2017) and teachers' expectations of children's competences vary based on their ethnicity (Agirdag, Van Avermaet, & Van Houtte, 2013; Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). Moreover, professionals' negative attitudes towards diversity have been linked to less parent collaboration (Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed, 2002; Kim, 2009) and to achievement gaps between minority and majority students (Van den Bergh, Denessen, Hornstra, Voeten, & Holland, 2010). The relationship between professionals' beliefs and family outcomes is likely mediated through intercultural actions and practices. A review of Pettit (2011) concludes that belief systems influence teachers' practices with English Language Learners (ELL). Teachers with high expectations of and feelings of responsibility for ELLs, are more effectively in their teaching. In addition, teachers with positive multicultural beliefs show more willingness to adapt their teaching to the specific needs of minority students (Hachfeld, Hahn, Schroeder, Anders, & Kunter, 2015), teachers with positive diversity-related self-efficacy beliefs report a higher degree of implementation of intercultural practices in the classroom (Romijn, Slot, Leseman, & Pagani, 2020, see *Chapter 3*) and teachers with less negative implicit prejudices show more culturally responsive teaching (Kumar, Karabenick, & Burgoon, 2015). Overall, the evidence suggests that the intercultural competences of professionals may be a key link in the integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families.

Teachers' intercultural beliefs and practices do not stand on their own but are enacted within a wider context where shared policies regarding diversity and inclusion are in place. These policies have an explicit and implicit dimension: explicit meaning public policy and implicit meaning hidden or subdued control mechanisms (Brochmann, 2020). Explicit policies regarding social diversity and inclusion are for instance rules that are expressed in ECEC or school policy documents regarding cultural and religious differences in nutrition and dressing. Implicit policies concerns the overall organization culture in which organizations can be more or less sensitive towards cultural differences (Romijn, Slot, & Leseman, 2021, under review, see *Chapter 4*). Moreover, the explicit policies can influence the implicit organization culture. For instance, on the topic of multilingualism an explicit focus in school curricula to enhance the proficiency in the national language often results in school cultures in which proficiency in heritage languages is no longer recognized or even devalued (e.g., Pulinx et al., 2017).

Integration of Minority Families in Europe

At the core, integration is a two-way process of adaptation of both immigrants and natives in the host country and it entails social change (Moser et al., 2017). A dominant theoretical perspective on how this social change takes place stems from Berry's (2005) acculturation model. This model distinguishes four different strategies of acculturation, based on two orthogonal dimensions: the desire to interact with members of the host society and participate in that society and the desire to preserve aspects of one's cultural heritage. The strategy of *integration* is characterized by a strong desire for contact and involvement with members of the host society as well as a strong desire for cultural maintenance. A strong desire for contact and involvement, but a weak desire for cultural maintenance characterizes the strategy of *assimilation* into the majority society. *Separation* strategies occur when immigrants or ethnic-minorities demonstrate a weak desire for contact with and involvement in the society in combination with strong desire for cultural maintenance. Finally, *marginalization* takes place if there is a weak desire for intercultural contact and a weak desire for cultural maintenance. The acculturation strategy of integration is perceived to be the most favorable for child and family outcomes such as well-being and academic success, though research also shows there are contextual and personality factors that can moderate this general association (Brown & Zagefka, 2011; Phalet & Baysu, 2020).

The acculturation process of immigrant and ethnic-minority families is an interactive process involving both the immigrant or minority groups and the majority society and its institutions (Brown & Zagefka, 2011; Passiatore et al., 2019). Brown and Zagefka (2011) argue that a similar model of acculturation with two orthogonal dimensions can

also be applied to the majority group and institutional policies in the society: majority group's attitudes towards contact with immigrants and ethnic-minorities and to a diversity of cultural identities. This so called Interactive Acculturation Model (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997; Brown & Zagefka, 2011), a modification of Berry's (2005) original model, proposes that intergroup relations between majority and minority are best predicted by the relative fit of the acculturation strategies of both. Thus, acculturation strategies of minority families are not primarily shaped by their desire to ascertain being different or similar to the majority, but are dependent on a complex interplay of factors, such as perceived discrimination (Borrell, Palència, Bartoll, Ikram, & Malmusi, 2015; Neto, 2002), mastery of the majority language (Neto, 2002), majority prejudice (Brown & Zagefka, 2011) and national integration policies (Phillimore, 2011). For immigrant and ethnic-minority families with young children, local care, education and support services are often the first and most prominent contexts where they meet professionals as representatives of the majority society. This suggests a crucial role for professionals working in the local education and support systems, as practices in (pre) schools and social services target the acculturation process of both the minority and majority group. A strong intercultural approach can foster positive interethnic contact, which does not only modify individuals' attitudes and behaviors, but also the group norms (Passiatore et al, 2019). Such an approach can help to reduce prejudice of the majority group and to support immigrant and ethnic-minority children's acceptance of their own cultural background as well as the cultural norms, values and customs of the society they are living in (Passiatore et al., 2019).

Integration: A Local or National Issue

Integration policies are often described in terms of national models that relate to broad issues such as national identity, values and norms (Scholten, 2013). Joppke (2007) distinguishes three types of national models or policy approaches that have been used throughout Europe: assimilationism, segregationism, and multiculturalism. These models reflect the official acculturation preferences of the majority society based on political consensus. A model of assimilationism opts for cultural homogenization in which efforts are taken to help minorities adopt the dominant national language and culture. The French national integration policy, for instance, is often qualified as assimilationist (i.e., Joppke, 2007; Malik, 2015; Scholten, 2013) and the education system strongly represents this policy by stressing the adoption of the French culture and language as much as possible (Abdelgadir & Fouka, 2020). A segregationist model views immigrants as temporary inhabitants with the prospect of returning and, for that reason, excludes them from full citizenship. Such an approach used to be characteristic for Germany. After an influx of labor related immigrants from countries around the Mediterranean in the second half of the 20th century, these

guest workers were at first instance separated and treated unequally. When over time it became clear that the majority of these immigrants would take permanent residence, German policies dealt with this by encouraging immigrants to preserve their own culture, language and life style, however without actively supporting participation in the majority society, thereby creating parallel and (demographically) segregated communities (Malik, 2015). Segregationism and socio-economic exclusion has also been characteristic of policies regarding the Roma community throughout Europe (Petrogiannis et al., 2020).

Models of multiculturalism support emancipation of immigrants and ethnic-minorities by building state-supported infrastructures in public institutions for maintenance of the minority group's culture and language, while supporting social participation and educational achievement. In the Netherlands, for example, labor immigration from the Mediterranean also occurred in the late 20th century but in contrast to Germany a multicultural approach was adopted (Joppke, 2007). A multicultural approach also arose early on in the United Kingdom (Malik, 2015). The multiculturalism model has been favored among researchers and policy makers and the Dutch civic integration policy has been a model for Europe (Michalowski, 2004). However, since the early 2000's a shift occurred in the Dutch national model towards a more assimilationist approach to integration (Bonjour & Scholten, 2014; Scholten, 2013).

Recent studies show that national policies, especially multiculturalist models, have a positive impact on educational, socio-economic and socio-emotional outcomes for immigrants. For instance, a multilevel analysis by Igarashi (2019) with 20 European countries demonstrates that the adoption of multicultural policies at the country level diminishes the gap in national identification between natives and immigrants. In addition, a multilevel analysis by Ham, Yang and Cha (2017) involving 25 countries found similar results and showed that multicultural integration policies have positive effects on adolescents' sense of belonging and social inclusion in school. These recent studies confirm the findings of an older cross-national study among immigrant adolescents and young adults by Berry et al. (2006), revealing better educational and social-emotional outcomes in countries with a multicultural model compared to assimilationist and segregationist models.

Integration is in many respects also a local process with local issues such as finding a job, meeting people and going to school (Malik, 2015; Scholten, 2013). Education and support systems for children and families have a strong local basis, as each local context (municipality) has its own history, demographic characteristics, and political and social influences that shape different local welfare systems and policies (Andreotti & Mingione, 2016). Several studies indicate that how integration is defined and supported by local governments may be much more variable than suggested by national models of integration (Scholten, 2013). For instance, Joppke (2007)

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revealed that civic integration policies in the Netherlands, France and Germany show significant variation at the local level, which sometimes runs counter to what national models would predict. Scholten (2013) came to a similar conclusion when comparing the integration policies of two large cities in the Netherlands. Also, a recent study by Celeste, Baysu, Phalet, Meeussen and Kende (2019) demonstrates that much variation in diversity policies can be found at a local level. Belgium middle schools showed large differences with respect to diversity approaches and school policies. Multiculturalism school policies predicted smaller belonging and achievement gaps over time compared to assimilationist school policies.

Current Study

The goal of the present paper is to investigate how local policies towards diversity and inclusion are related to the acculturation and integration strategies of minority families and how both the local context and national discourses play a role in this. The current study uses survey and interview data collected in 2018 as part of a large research project (ISOTIS) with the overall aim to contribute to effective policy and practice development in order to effectively combat early arising and persisting educational inequalities. Ten European countries were involved: the Czech Republic (CZ), England (EN), Germany (DE), Greece (EL), France (FR), Italy (IT), the Netherlands (NL), Norway (NO), Poland (PL) and Portugal (PT). The project focused on North-African (Algerian, Moroccan, Tunisian) and Turkish immigrant families, Romani families, and low-income native-born families and on professionals in early childhood education and care, primary education and social work, who worked with these communities. Within the countries, two urban, suburban or semi-urban sites were selected for data collection according to the following criteria: presence of the target groups and representation of different local policy contexts. Table 5.1 gives an overview of the selected sites per country. In the current study, we exclusively focus on parents with an immigration or ethnic-cultural minority background. Therefore, data from the low-income native group were excluded. As data collection in Poland exclusively focused on this group, the current study used data of 18 sites in 9 countries. Data from the Turkish immigrant group was collected in England, Germany, The Netherlands and Norway. Data from the North-African group was collected in France, Italy and The Netherlands. Roma parents were interviewed in Czech Republic, Greece and Portugal.

Table 5.1
Site Selection for Parent and Staff Data Collection

Country	Sites
CZ	Brno / Ústí nad Labem
UK	London / Urban areas in North West England (Manchester, Liverpool, Wirral)
DE	Berlin / Wider area (Frankfurt, Bremen, Hamburg, München, Mannheim)
EL	West Athens sector (Aghia Varvara and Illion municipality) /West and East Attica region (Fyli and Acharnes municipality)
FR	Paris and Evry / North-East sub-urban area of Paris (Saint Denis, Melun, Champigny-sur-Marne)
IT	Milan / Turin
NL	Utrecht / Rotterdam
NO	Oslo and Trondheim / Wider semi-urban area (Drammen, Skien, Lillehammer)
PL	Warsaw / Łódź
PO	Metropolitan Area of Lisbon / Metropolitan Area of Porto

Note. Due to experienced difficulties to reach planned numbers of parent interviews in some countries, a few additional sites were included. For the purpose of the current study, some smaller semi-urban or sub-urban sites in the same larger region were combined, resulting in a wider area for one site in Germany and Norway.

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The present study aims to provide answers to two research questions. First, we ask to what extent professionals in the local education and social support system (i.e., ECEC, primary schools, after-school care and organizations in the social work sector) demonstrate shared beliefs and intercultural practices. Our hypothesis is that diversity and inclusion policies at the site level create a common ground for professionals that is expressed in similar intercultural practices and belief systems. This common ground is partly determined by the national model of integration and thus shared across sites within countries, but in line with previous studies (i.e., Celeste et al., 2019; Scholten, 2013) we also expect relevant site differences within countries indicating that local policies of integration may deviate from the national policies of integration. Second, we ask to what extent the local policies of integration, as expressed in the beliefs and practices of professionals at the site level, relate to the acculturation strategies of immigrant and ethnic-minority families in the study sites. Based on previous research, we hypothesize that in sites with a stronger multiculturalist model of integration (i.e., higher degree of implementation of intercultural practices and more positive attitudes towards multiculturalism and multilingualism) parents will demonstrate acculturation strategies aimed at integration as defined by Berry (2005).

Method

Research Design and Procedures

The present study uses two large quantitative datasets collected during the project: a) staff data collected via an online survey and b) parent data collected by structured personal interviews. The design of the study was ethically approved by ethic review boards of all partner institutes and all participants consented to the use of their anonymized data for research and publication purposes. For the staff survey, a variety of professionals (i.e., teachers, managers, social workers, specialists) working with children and families in various settings (i.e., ECEC, primary schools, after-school care and organizations in the social work sector) were invited to participate. In general, two different recruitment strategies were used: a targeted approach, including focused and targeted recruitment of centers using personal contacts, and a broader approach involving contacting a director in charge of multiple centers or schools for participation. Response rates ranged between 52% and 100% for the targeted approach and between 22% and 43% for the broader approach. For the construction of the questionnaire, adapted scales of existing questionnaires, to be detailed below, were used to draft a first version which was piloted in all countries. Translations of the final questionnaire into country languages were copied into the survey program resulting in ten language-specific versions. An anonymized link to the survey was distributed per email, either directly to the participants or via school directors or organization leaders. For an extensive description of the sampling design, response rates per country and data collection methods of the staff survey, see Slot, Romijn et al. (2018).

For the parent interview study, target group parents (mostly mothers) who had a child in the age range of 3- to 6-years-old (before starting formal education) or 9- to 12-years-old (before the transition to secondary education) were invited to participate. Parent data was collected via structured personal interviews. Questions were programmed in both the ten national languages and two minority languages (i.e.., Turkish, Standard Arabic). For Roma parents, the national languages proved sufficient. Research assistants with similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds as the parents were recruited and trained to conduct the interviews. Researchers and research assistants reached out in person to local organizations such as ECEC centers, schools, community centers and NGOs to recruit participants. Objectives of the study were explained to the parents and after consent was received, the structural interview was scheduled. During the interviews, research assistants supported parents in filling out the questionnaire, providing additional explanations if necessary. Moreover, some sort of incentive (i.e., €5 vouchers, books, or small gifts for the children) was provided to enhance the response and quality of the data collection. For an extensive description of the sampling design, response rates per site and data collection methods, see Broekhuizen, Ereky-Stevens, Wolf and Moser (2018).

Participants and Sample

Staff. The current study included data of N = 892 professionals across 9 countries. Table 5.2 provides an overview of the number of online staff survey responses across work settings, sites and countries. Participants with a leading position in the organizations (e.g., managers, school principals, pedagogical coaches) filled out the leader version of the questionnaire (21.4%), whereas teachers and social workers filled out the version for professionals (78.6%). The majority of professionals were female (87.4%). Furthermore, 5.2% indicated the use of another language at home (either a single other language or in combination with the majority language) and 9.4% of the participants had a non-native background (based on dual nationality and/ or parents' country of birth). The average age was M = 43.56 (SD = 11.09) years old with M = 17.69 (SD = 11.27) years of experience in the field of education, child care or family services. Education level was expressed in International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels to allow for a comparison between the countries (UNESCO, 2011). The average education level was M = 5.71 (SD = 1.37) with ISCED 3 (upper secondary education, 12.2%), ISCED 6 (bachelor or equivalent, 46.7%) and ISCED 7 (master or equivalent, 26.7%) being reported most frequently.

Table 5.2

Sample of Staff Data per Country, Site, Work Setting and Questionnaire Type

Country	ECEC Site 1	ECEC Site 2	Primary School Site 1	Primary School Site 2	After-school Site 1	After-school Site 2	Social Work Site 1	Social Work Site 2	Total
CZ	5/0		13/1	11/8			12/0	6/0	47/9 (56)
EN	26/5	18/2	17/0	21/4		1/0	6/2	6/1	95/14 (109)
DE	2/4	1/6	9/0	18/0	48/2	17/10			104/25 (129)
EL	40/9	20/2	47/14	12/8					120/33 (153)
FR	3/4	4/0	1/0	1/0	1/0	1/0	6/1	17/0	36/5 (41)
IT	20/0	38/4	10/0	28/2			2/0		98/7 (105)
NL	18/6	9/12	17/6	6/2	7/0		7/0	2/9	66/35 (101)
NO	12/17	8/17	12/10	21/1	4/7	3/1			60/53 (113)
PT	7/0	3/0	17/2	12/1			9/5	22/1	76/9 (85)
Total	234/88 (322)		273/59 (332)		82/20 (102)		95/19 (114)		702/190 (892)

Note. Numbers indicate participants who filled out the professional/leader version of the questionnaire. For some participants the work setting could not be determined, therefore the overall total number of participants per country in the final column is larger than an add up of the number of participants per work setting.

Parents. The current study included data of *N* = 2475 parents across 9 countries. Table 5.3 provides an overview of the number of conducted interviews with parents across sites, countries and target groups. Parent data was mostly collected from mothers (95.7%), ranging from 17 to 63 years in age (*M* = 36.09, *SD* = 7.22). The majority of parents was married (79.0%) and less than a third indicated they had a paid job (30.5%). Approximately half of the parents (52.9%) were low educated (ISCED 0-2), 31.3% had a medium level education (ISCED 3-5) and 15.9% were high educated (ISCED >5). Moreover, 31.0% of the families are materially deprived according to the European Union's indicator of material deprivation (Guio et al., 2016). Concerning their self-perceived level of language proficiency, 40.8% of the parents indicated they had no trouble reading, listening or communicating in the majority language. For the other parents the reported language difficulties ranged from 'rarely' to 'I do not read/understand/speak the majority language'. Finally, on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *not important at all* to *highly important*, these parents considered their religion on average as *important* in their daily lives (*M* = 3.97, *SD* = 1.32).

Table 5.3
Sample of Parent Data per Country, Site, Target Group and Age Range of Children

	Turkish		Maghreb		Roma		
Country	Site 1	Site 2	Site 1	Site 2	Site 1	Site 2	Total
CZ					59/57	58/72	117/129 (246)
EN	66/83	51/93					117/176 (293)
DE	106/165	28/38					134/203 (337)
EL					41/55	51/55	92/110 (202)
FR			28/55	108/72			136/127 (263)
IT			69/90	73/75			142/165 (307)
NL	48/61	58/65	61/68	83/81			250/275 (525)
NO	19/19	13/9					32/28 (60)
PT					68/72	55/47	123/119 (242)
Total	389/533 (922)		422/441 (863)		332/358 (690)		1143/1332 (2475)

Note. Numbers indicate parents with a child in the age range *3- to 6-year-olds/9- to 12-year-olds.*

Measures Staff Data

To examine policies and practices towards diversity and inclusion in the education and local support system, we asked professionals to report on their practices and beliefs. We focused on two types of practices: practices that help to create a socio-emotionally inclusive group climate and multicultural practices that demonstrate the organization's

diversity and inclusion policy. Regarding the belief systems, the beliefs about and attitudes towards multiculturalism and multilingualism were measured separately.

Inclusive group climate. Professionals who worked directly with children reported on their intercultural practices on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* (1), *sometimes* (2), *regularly* (3), *often* (4), to *always* (5). The mean score of 4 items (Cronbach's alpha = .759), derived from the *Multicultural Teaching Competency Scale* (Spanierman et al., 2011), was used as a measure of the inclusiveness of the group climate. Items asked to what extent professionals integrated different cultural values in their work, created a warm and inclusive climate, adapted activities to children's background and incorporated activities in the daily program that could increase children's cultural knowledge.

Multicultural practices. Both professionals working directly with children and the service leaders reported on the multicultural practices in their organization. Questions were partially derived from the *Multicultural Teaching Competency Scale* (Spanierman et al., 2011) and included the extent to which cultural and religious practices towards nutrition are taken into account, diverse cultural holidays are celebrated, parents and children are addressed in their home language when possible, and materials and staff reflect the cultural diversity in society. Leaders were asked to rate the importance of these practices within their organization on 5-point Likert-scales ranging from *not important at all* (1), *not important* (2), *neutral* (3), *important* (4), to *highly important* (5). Professionals were asked to indicate the degree of implementation of multicultural practices in their organization on 5-point Likert-scales ranging from *never* (1), *sometimes* (2), *regularly* (3), *often* (4), to *always* (5). The integrated mean scores of both the leaders (6 items, Cronbach's alpha = .693) and professionals (7 items, Cronbach's alpha = .762) were used as a measure of the implementation of multicultural practices.

Multicultural beliefs. To measure multicultural beliefs, we used an adaptation of the *Teacher Cultural Beliefs Scale* (Hachfeld et al., 2011). Both leaders and professionals were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with a number of statements on 5-point Likert-scales ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly disagree* (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5). Items concerned the importance of being sensitive to different backgrounds of children, helping children to learn that people from other cultures can have different ideas about what is important to them, helping children to see similarities between people and helping them to learn to respect other cultures. The mean of 4 items (Cronbach's alpha = .714) was used as a measure of positive multicultural beliefs.

Multilingual beliefs. Professionals' beliefs regarding the value of multilingualism were assessed using a situational judgement question based on Nilsen, Slot, Cigler and Chen (2020). Respondents were presented with a short vignette describing a classroom play situation with two young multilingual children using both their home language and the majority language, along with several possible reactions of

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a teacher. Reactions included teacher responses that express positive multilingual beliefs such as playing along and showing interest in the children's home language and responses that express monolingual beliefs such as asking the children to stop communicating in their home language. Both leaders and professionals were asked how likely it would be that they would react in a similar way on scales ranging from *I would definitely not do this* (1), *I would probably not do this* (2), *I would probably do this* (3), to *I would definitely do this* (4). A mean of 3 items (Cronbach's alpha = .759) was used as a measure of professionals' multilingualism supportive beliefs.

Control variables. In total, four measures were included in the final analyses to control for possibly confounding setting and individual-level characteristics. We controlled for work setting (ECEC, primary school, social work sector) using three dummy variables with ECEC as the reference category, type of questionnaire (leader version vs. professional version), education level using ISCED scales (UNESCO, 2011) and work experience measured in years.

Measures Parent Data

To measure acculturation and integration strategies of families, five indicators were derived from the parent interview data. In line with Berry's (2005) acculturation model, we asked parents to indicate their preference for cultural and linguistic maintenance and their desire to connect with the majority group and their support of intercultural contact of their children. In addition, we measured parents' general satisfaction with living in the host country and the perceived relationship with the teachers of their children.

Supporting children's intercultural contact. Parents indicated to what extent they encouraged intercultural contact of their children by expressing agreement with statements on 4-point Likert scales ranging from *never* (1), *rarely* (2), *sometimes* (3), to *often* (4). These scales were specifically designed for the project. Statements concerned encouraging children to make friends with a majority background, telling children that people with a majority background can be trusted and telling children that other cultural traditions and religions are of equal value. The mean score of 3 items (Cronbach's alpha = .666) was used as a measure of parents' support of children's intercultural contact.

Acculturation. A total of six items were used to assess parents' acculturation orientation. Items presented parents with statements on cultural maintenance, cultural adoption and intercultural contact, derived from Zagefka, González and Brown (2011) and Zagefka et al. (2014). Parents indicated to what extent they agreed with these statements using 5-point Likert scales, ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly*

disagree (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5). In this paper we specifically focus on intercultural contact and cultural and linguistic maintenance.

Importance of intercultural contact. Two statements expressed the importance for members of minority groups to have friends with a majority background and to sped spare time with people from a majority background. The mean score of parents' agreement with the 2 statements (Cronbach's alpha = .717) was used as a measure of the importance parents attach to intercultural contact.

Cultural and linguistic maintenance. Two statements expressed the importance that members of (language) minority groups speak their home language often and maintain as much as possible the customs, beliefs and values of the group's way of living and culture of origin. The mean score of parents agreement with the 2 statements (Cronbach's alpha = .567) was used as a measure of parents' cultural and linguistic maintenance attitude.

Satisfaction with living in the country. Parents' satisfaction with living in the host country was based on Verkuyten (2008). Parents were asked to indicate their agreement with statements on 5-point Likert scales ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly disagree* (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5). Statements referred to feeling at home in the country of residence, feeling happy and accepted by the majority, and general satisfaction in the country The mean score of 4 items (Cronbach's alpha = .821) was used as a measure of parents' general satisfaction with living in the country of residence.

Parent-teacher relationship. A total of 11 items, derived from the *Parent-Teacher Relationship Scale* (Petrogiannis & Penderi, 2014), were used to ask parent about the experienced quality of the relationship with the teachers of their children. Parents were asked to indicate agreement with statements expressing trust in the teachers, feelings of being fairly treated, accessibility and ease of communication and shared beliefs on child upbringing. Agreement was indicated on 5-point Likert scales ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly disagree* (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5). The mean score of all 11 items (Cronbach's alpha = .875) indicated parents' perception of the quality of the relationship with the child's teacher.

Control variables. In total, six measures were included in the final analyses to control for possibly confounding setting and individual-level characteristics. We controlled for target group (Turkish, North-African and Roma) using two dummy variables with the Turkish group as the reference category, age of the child (3- to 6-years-old vs. 9- to 12-years-old), education level using ISCED scales (UNESCO, 2011), material deprivation according to the European Union's indicator (Guio et al., 2016), reported language difficulties and the importance of religion. Regarding language difficulties, parents were asked to indicate how much trouble they experience in reading, listening or communicating in the majority language on a scale ranging from *never* (1), *rarely* (2), *sometimes* (3)*, often* (4),

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always (5), to *I cannot read/understand/speak [majority language]* (6). The mean score of 3 items (Cronbach's alpha = .924) was used as a measure of language difficulties. Finally, importance of religion was based on one item asking parents how important religion is in their daily life, measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *not important at all* (1), *not important* (2), *neutral* (3), *important* (4), to *highly important* (5).

Missing Data and Analysis

Data analysis proceeded in four steps. First, mean scores for both staff and parents were used for a descriptive overview of the differences between sites and countries. Second, intra-class correlations (ICC) were calculated for all staff and parent variables to gain insight in the level of shared variance within sites and within countries. Third, we ran linear regressions on all staff and parent variables to control for important institutional setting and individual-level characteristics (detailed below). Standardized residuals controlled for these characteristics, were saved for the final analysis. For the staff data, imputation of mean scores for missing data was selected in the linear regression analysis to compensate for missing data on the control variables. Professionals' work setting, educational level and work experience in years was missing in respectively 2.5%, 22.6% and 23.1% of the cases. For the parent data imputation was not necessary, as there were hardly any missing data. As a fourth and final step, the aggregated saved residuals were used to relate staff and parent data at the site level. As the data were not truly nested (parents were nested in sites and countries and professionals were nested in sites and countries, but parents were not uniquely and identifiably nested under professionals), a multilevel analysis was not possible.

Results

Descriptive Statistics Staff Data

Table 5.4 (included in the Appendix) provides an overview of the descriptive statistics of the staff data per site and country. Figure 5.1 shows country and site differences in professionals' practices using standardized mean scores. Professionals indicated that practices meant to create an culturally inclusive group climate occur on average 'regularly to often' (*M* = 3.66, *SD* = 0.86). Descriptive statistics reveal several (large) differences between countries and between sites within countries. In both French sites, professionals indicated that culturally inclusive practices occur 'sometimes to regularly', whereas in the English sites professionals indicated these practices

occur 'often to always'. In some countries sites had rather equal scores (i.e., England, Germany, France, Norway), whereas in other countries substantial differences were manifest between the sites. Multicultural practices that expressed the implementation of inclusive, multicultural organization policies occurred on average 'regularly to often' (*M* = 3.52, *SD* = 0.81). Again, there appeared several differences between sites and countries. The implementation of multicultural practices was highest in the English sites, followed by Norway. Implementation of multicultural practices was the lowest in France, the Czech Republic and Greece. For Portugal we found a relatively large difference between the two sites.
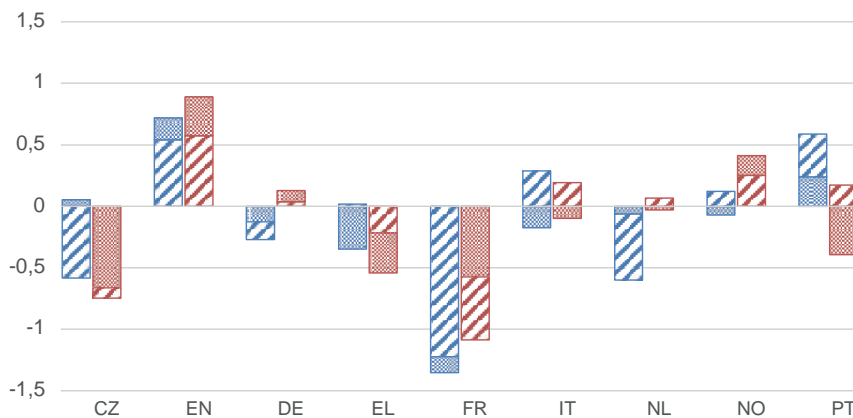
Figure 5.1. Standardized mean scores of professionals' inclusive group climate and multicultural practices per site per country.

Figure 5.2 shows country and site differences in professionals' beliefs using standardized mean scores. Professionals expressed rather strong agreement with statements implying a positive appreciation of multiculturalism on average (*M* = 4.71, *SD* = 0.49), especially in England, Greece, Italy and Portugal. Professionals in the Czech Republic, Germany and France reported slightly less positive multicultural beliefs. Professionals' agreement with statements expressing supportive beliefs regarding multilingualism showed a wider range of scores with on overall average of *M* = 2.66, *SD* = 0.80). Again, there were significant and rather substantial differences between countries. Professionals in England showed the strongest agreement with beliefs supporting multilingualism, followed by Greece and Portugal. Professionals in Germany, France and the Netherlands scored lowest in this regard.
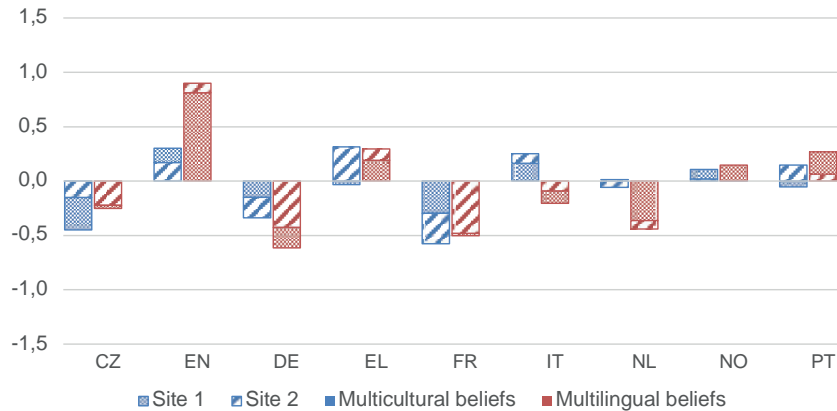
Figure 5.2. Standardized mean scores of professionals' multicultural and multilingual beliefs per site per country.

Table 5.5 shows the intercorrelations of the staff measures (Table 5.5). There is a strong positive correlation between reported practices that indicate an inclusive group climate and multicultural practices that expressed the implementation of multicultural organization policies. The correlations between practices and professionals' multicultural and multilingual beliefs are significant as well, with stronger correlations for the professionals' multilingual beliefs.

Table 5.5
Correlations between Staff Data Variables

	Multicultural practices	Multicultural beliefs	Multilingual beliefs
Inclusive group climate	.717**	.193**	.301**
Multicultural practices		.159**	.288**
Multicultural beliefs			.183**

** *p* < .01

Descriptive Statistics Parent Data

Table 5.6 (included in the Appendix) provides an overview of the descriptive statistics of the parent data per site and country. Figure 5.3 shows country and site differences in parents' acculturation strategies using standardized mean scores. The results

show that parents support intercultural contact of their children with peers of the majority group on average 'rarely to sometimes' (*M* = 2.35, *SD* = 0.99). Descriptive statistics indicate several differences between countries and between sites within countries, even when concerning the same target groups. In both Italian sites, North-African immigrant parents reported support for intercultural contact of their children 'sometimes', whereas North-African parents in France reported to support intercultural contact 'never to rarely'. Furthermore, we found differences within the English, Norwegian and Portuguese sample as well, sites in these countries scoring rather average and the other sites scoring at the upper end of the range. In addition, parents 'slightly agree' on average that intercultural contact in general is important (*M* = 4.08, *SD* = 1.09). Regarding intercultural contact, Roma parents in the Portuguese sites scored on average the highest, followed by Roma parents in sites in Greece and the Czech Republic. North-African and Turkish immigrant parents in the Dutch, French, and German sites parents scored on average the lowest. The results furthermore show that parents on average 'slightly agreed' that is it important to maintain their culture of origin and home language (*M* = 4.08, *SD* = 1.09). Turkish parents in the English sample mostly agreed that maintenance is important, whereas Roma parents in the Czech Republic sites were on average undecided about the topic. A remarkable difference between sites within the country was found for Portugal.
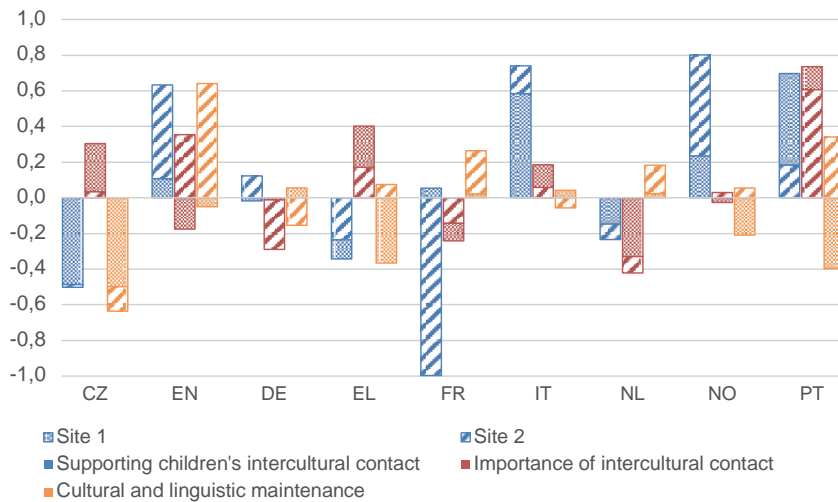
Figure 5.3. Standardized mean scores of parents' acculturation strategies per site per country.

Figure 5.4 shows country and site differences in parents' satisfaction with living in the country and the relationship with the teachers of their children, using standardized mean scores. Parents were on average 'slightly satisfied' with living in their country (*M* = 4.24, *SD* = 0.93). The highest mean scores were found in both Portuguese sites. Parents appeared to be the least satisfied in Italy and Germany. Finally, for the relationship with the teachers of their children (*M* = 4.31, *SD* = 0.75), we also found the highest mean scores in the Portuguese sites, followed by Norway and England. The lowest means were found in France and Germany.

Figure 5.4. Standardized mean scores of parents' satisfaction in the country and parent-teacher relationship per site per country.

Table 5.7 presents the intercorrelations of the different parent measures based on the whole sample. Overall, the correlations are weak but statistically significant. The parent-teacher relationship as experienced by the parents relates positively to the support and importance of intercultural contact and general satisfaction within the country. Country satisfaction is also positively related to both measures of intercultural contact, though the relation with the importance of intercultural contact appears to be stronger compared to the support for intercultural contact of children. Finally, cultural and linguistic maintenance shows weak negative relations with country satisfaction and parents' support for intercultural contact of children.

Table 5.7
Correlations between Parent Data Variables

	2	3	4	5
1. Supporting children's intercultural contact	.247**	-.088**	.067**	.089**
2. Importance of intercultural contact		-.038	.150**	.127**
3. Cultural and linguistic maintenance			-.061**	-.019
4. Satisfaction with living in the country				.268**
5. Parent-teacher relationship				

** $p < .01$

Intra Class Correlations

Intraclass correlations (ICCs) were calculated to determine to what extent professionals respectively parents in the same sites and countries share their beliefs, attitudes and practices (Table 5.8). The results show larger commonalities among professionals in the same sites or countries than among parents in the same sites or countries. For professionals' inclusive group climate and multicultural practices approximately 20% of the variance was allocated at the site level, which is quite substantial for social science data (Hox, 2010). The ICCs also indicated substantial shared variance regarding multilingual beliefs, but less shared variance regarding multicultural beliefs.

Table 5.8
Intra Class Correlations of Staff and Parent Data Variables of a Two-level and Three-level model

	ICC Two-level Model	ICC Three-level Model	
Staff data	Site	Site	Country
Inclusive group climate	.191	.032	.176
Multicultural practices	.202	.020	.190
Multicultural beliefs	.031	.004	.032
Multilingual beliefs	.159	.001	.161

Parent data	Site	Site	Country
Supporting children's intercultural contact	.223	.104	.119
Importance of intercultural contact	.095	.026	.069
Cultural and linguistic maintenance	.085	.070	.016
Satisfaction with living in the country	.084	.020	.065
Parent-teacher relationship	.087	.030	.059

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The parent data indicated overall less commonality at the site level, though the ICCs showed that still approximately 9-22% of the variance was allocated at the site level (Table 5.8). The largest amount of shared variance among parents (22%) was found for parents' support of intercultural contact of their children. In a three-level model the site level was distinguished from the country level, showing that most of the site-level variance in the staff data variance is actually variance at the country level. Providing an inclusive group climate and implementing multicultural practices within the wider organization, however, showed relevant remaining site-level variance. Regarding the parent data, the overall pattern suggests somewhat larger site-level variance which is also more in balance with the country-level variance. Especially regarding the support parents give to children's intercultural contact and the desire to maintain the culture and language of the country of origin, site-level variance is substantial.

Linear Regressions with Control Variables

Before relating the staff and parent data at the site-level, standardized residual scores were computed, using regression analysis in SPSS 25, to control for several possibly confounding setting and individual-level characteristics. For the staff data, we controlled for work setting by adding three dummy variables to the regression analysis presenting primary school, after-school care and social work, respectively, with ECEC as reference category. Another dummy variable was added to control for type of professionals (i.e., leaders vs. other professionals). Finally, we also controlled for professionals' educational background (ISCED) and work experience. The results are presented in Table 5.9 and show that only a small portion of the variance is explained by these characteristics. Work setting was found to be the strongest predictor, with ECEC professionals (the reference category) scoring generally higher on all measures than the other professionals (as is indicated by the negative signs of the regression coefficients. Also, education level and work experience were positive predictors for some measures.

Table 5.9

Standardized Beta Coefficients and Explained Variance (R Square) of Linear Regressions on Staff Data

Staff Data	Inclusive group climate	Multicultural practices	Multicultural beliefs	Multilingual beliefs
Explained variance	1.3%	5.7%	2.0%	6.9%
D Primary school	-.017	-.163**	-.057	-.145**
D After-school care	-.087*	-.068	-.091*	-.236**
D Social Work	-.032	-.127**	-.029	-.082*
D Manager	-.016	.157**	.023	.047
ISCED	-.004	-.016	.007	.121**
Work experience	.075*	.004	.106**	.045

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

For the parents, we controlled for six possibly confounding characteristics. Differences between target groups were controlled by adding two dummy variables to the regression analysis representing the North-African and Roma groups, respectively, with the Turkish group as reference category. Another dummy variable was added to control for differences between parents with younger (3- to 6-year-old) versus older (9- to 12-year-old) children. We furthermore controlled for parents' educational background (ISCED), their material deprivation, experienced difficulties in using the national language and the importance of religion in daily life. Similar to the staff data, the results indicated that these predictors were statistically significant but only explained a small portion of the variance of the parent measures (Table 5.10). Target group was the most important predictor and indicated that the Roma group differed clearly from the North-African and Turkish group. Parents educational background and the extent to which religion is valued also appeared to be significant predictors for most variables, whereas an older age of the child especially predicted parents' support to children's intercultural contact.

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Table 5.10
Standardized Beta Coefficients and Explained Variance (R Square) of Linear Regressions on Parent Data

Parent Data	Supporting children's intercultural contact	Importance of intercultural contact	Cultural and linguistic maintenance	Satisfaction with living in the country	Parent-teacher relationship
Explained variance	5.5%	6.2%	6.1%	5.2%	4.9%
D North-African	-.028	.028	-.080**	.022	-.118**
D Roma	-.014	.270**	-.242**	.212**	.149**
D Age 9-12	.176**	.031	-.006	-.005	-.093**
ISCED	.126**	.050*	-.055*	-.052*	.003
Material deprivation	-.016	-.004	.028	-.142**	-.059*
Language difficulty	.091**	.022	.023	-.109**	-.028
Religion	.057**	-.043*	.149**	-.051*	.062**

$* p < .05; ** p < .01$

Relationship Staff and Parent Data at Site Level

The correlations presented in Table 5.11 show the relationships between professionals' practices and beliefs on the one hand and the indicators of parents' integration on the other hand, based on residualized scores aggregated to the site level. The results presented in the previous sections revealed relevant variance at the site level which partly to largely overlapped with variance at the country level. As country differences were, thus, also partly captured by site differences, we only examined the relation between staff and parent data at the site level, with a small sample size of $N = 18$. We found several significant positive correlations between the aggregated measures of multicultural and inclusive group practices and beliefs reported by professionals and service leaders on the one hand and the aggregated indicators of acculturation and integration reported by the parents on the other hand. Particularly strong are the relationships between the staff reported data on multicultural and inclusive group practices at the local level and parents' perception of the quality of the relationship with teachers and their support for children's intercultural contact. Weaker relations were found between the staff measures and parents' desire for cultural and linguistic maintenance.

Table 5.11

Correlations between Staff Data and Parent Data at the Site Level

Parent data	Staff data			
	Inclusive group climate	Multicultural practices	Multicultural beliefs	Multilingual beliefs
Supporting children's intercultural contact	.611**	.533*	.521*	.408+
Importance of intercultural contact	.445+	.399+	.295	.505*
Cultural and linguistic maintenance	.164	.200	.223	.351
Satisfaction with living in the country	.422+	.485*	.404+	.441+
Parent-teacher relationship	.634**	.601**	.626**	.463+

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Discussion

Given the increasing cultural and linguistic diversity in Europe, integration has become a key topic in political and public debates. In the current paper we investigated the relationship between shared multicultural practices and beliefs in the local education and support system (i.e., ECEC, schools, social services) and the integration and acculturation strategies of North-African and Turkish immigrant families and Roma families in Europe, using staff and parent data from 18 urban, suburban and semi-urban localities in 9 European countries. We first studied to what extent multicultural practices and beliefs of professionals in different local settings are shared at the local and national level. Our hypothesis was that social integration policies at the local and national level create a common ground for professionals that is expressed in similar multicultural practices and beliefs. Moreover, we hypothesized that there are not only relevant differences between countries, but also between sites within countries indicating that local integration policies may deviate from national models of integration. Second, we studied to what extent these shared policies and practices relate to the integration and acculturation strategies of immigrant and ethnic-minority families. We expected that in sites with a stronger multicultural model of integration, reflected in a higher degree of implementation of inclusive intercultural practices in education and support settings and in more positive attitudes towards multiculturalism and multilingualism among professionals, parents would demonstrate acculturation strategies aimed at *integration* as defined by Berry (2005), characterized by cultural and linguistic maintenance on the one hand and the desire to interact with members of the majority, to participate in society and to feel belonging in the country of residence on the other hand.

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Our results showed that professionals, on average, implemented inclusive multicultural practices 'regularly to often' across all sites and countries. With regard to beliefs, professionals expressed in general quite positive beliefs about the cultural otherness of immigrant and ethnic-minority families, but the support for multilingualism was overall much less outspoken. However, there appeared to be remarkable differences in the practices and beliefs of professionals between countries. For instance, professionals in the English and Portuguese samples scored consistently the highest on the different measures of multicultural practices and beliefs, whereas the professionals in the French – and to a lesser extent in the German – samples scored at the lower end of the range, the difference being especially sizeable regarding inclusive classroom climate and multicultural practices (up to two standard deviations). These differences may be partially or largely explained by national policies and the national integration model. In England, for example, inclusive classroom practices are explicitly addressed in the national mandatory education curriculum that states that all providers must take reasonable steps to provide children from linguistically diverse backgrounds with opportunities to use their home language in play and learning (Department for Education, 2017). In France, on the other hand, in line with the predominant national assimilationist model of integration, there is much more emphasis on the mastery of the French language and on adoption of the common core values of the French Republic to achieve national unity and social cohesion (Yağmur & Van de Vijver, 2012). This national assimilationist model is reflected in the policies and practices of ECEC centers, schools and other social services (Abdelgadir & Fouka, 2019). In addition to the country differences, our results indicated site differences as well in the English, Dutch, Italian, Greek and Portuguese samples.

Intraclass correlations among professionals indicated a substantial shared variance at the local level according to rule of thumb in the social sciences (cf. Hox, 2010). Whereas the site-level variance largely overlapped with country-level variance, relevant site-level remained especially regarding inclusive group climate and multicultural practices. These results indicate that professionals in the same sites and countries act and think alike to a relevant extent, which suggests that there are (local and national) policies in place that result in partly similar practices and beliefs. Interestingly, we found a difference between multicultural beliefs and multilingual beliefs, which suggests that attitudes towards linguistic diversity are more locally shared between professionals than attitudes towards cultural diversity. Although most of the shared variance was located at the country level, the remaining site-level variance suggests that local policies reflected in the actual practices but less so in the beliefs of professionals, are more variable than is suggested by national models of integration (e.g., Joppke, 2007; Scholten, 2013).

Results on the integration of minority families also showed differences between countries which were partly but not entirely due to the specific minority groups sampled or to characteristics of the parents and families, such as parents' education level or religiosity and the age of the child. For instance, Romani parents in the Portuguese and Greek samples but not in the Czech Republic sample considered intercultural contact the most important, whereas the North-African and Turkish parents sampled in France, Germany and the Netherlands scored much lower on this aspect of integration. North-African parents sampled in Italy scored rather average on the importance of intercultural contact for themselves, but expressed the highest support for intercultural contact of their children. The North-African parents in the French sample scored rather low on both aspects, suggesting that intercultural contact in general was considered less important by these parents. Related to this, the North-African parents in France indicated less positive and trusting relationships with the professionals working in the local education and support system.

Regarding the desire for cultural and linguistic maintenance, the interviewed parents in general agreed that cultural maintenance is important, though again several country differences were visible which could not be explained solely by differences between the target groups. For instance, North-African and Turkish parents in the English, French and Dutch samples indicated a much stronger desire for cultural maintenance compared to the North-African and Turkish parents in the German and Italian samples. Likewise the Romani parents sampled in particular sites in Portugal and Greece expressed a relatively strong desire for cultural maintenance compared to the Romani parents sampled in the Czech Republic, who were more undecided on this topic. Finally, minority parents were generally quite satisfied with living in the country of residence, though the difference between the lowest (Italy) and highest (Portugal) scoring country was rather large.

As indicated, the country differences might partially resemble differences between minority groups. Indeed, regression analyses indicated significant and relatively sizeable effects of target group on the indicators of families' integration and acculturation. However, there were differences between countries within the same target groups as well. Overall, the country results showed there are different acculturation strategies used by parents across target groups that may be related to local and national policies. For instance, with regard to the English sample, our results reflected an integration strategy of parents as defined by Berry (2005), characterized by both a desire for cultural maintenance and a desire for intercultural contact. This strategy is in line with the British national model of multiculturalism that welcomes cultural and linguistic diversity and, for that reason, may not create a conflict with parents' desire for cultural maintenance (Joppke, 2007; Malik, 2015). For the French sample, the overall results are more indicative of a separationist acculturation strategy of parents (i.e., strong maintenance and weak desire for intercultural contact), which suggests a misfit with the official aims of the French national model of assimilation (Joppke, 2007).

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Compared to the staff data, the parent data on integration and acculturation showed overall less but still substantial shared variance among parents at the site and country level, indicating local and national common ground. Moreover, for some indicators (i.e., support for intercultural contact of the child and cultural and linguistic maintenance) a substantial part of this variance was specifically allocated to the site level. Descriptive statistics revealed differences between sites for all countries and rather strong differences between the selected sites in England, Greece, France and Portugal pertaining to the same target groups within these countries. This site-level variance within target groups could be due to specific, not measured characteristics of the local target communities, but could also point to effects of the local integration policies deviating from the national model (e.g., Malik, 2015; Scholten, 2013). We explored this issue further as part of the second research question.

Regarding our second research question, we found, at the site-level, positive relations between professionals' multicultural practices and beliefs on the one hand and parent outcomes on the other hand, after controlling for institutional setting, type of professional, education level and work experience of the professionals and target group, age of the child and individual characteristics of the parents. In sites with a stronger inclusive and multicultural approach in practice, parents were more likely to value intercultural contact and to support the intercultural contact of their children, and they indicated better relationships with the professionals in the local education and support system. Parents also reported higher satisfaction with the country of residence in these sites. Only the relationship at the site-level between professionals' practices and beliefs and the extent to which parents value the maintenance of their cultural and linguistic heritage was not significant. However, the size of the correlation between professionals' multilingual beliefs and maintenance was moderate, suggesting that professionals' openness to and support of children's home languages might play a role in parents' wish to maintain their cultural and linguistic heritage. If there is more acceptance of the use of minority languages in the local education and support system, parents might feel less need or experience less press for linguistic assimilation of their children to be successful in society. Overall, this evidence suggests that shared multicultural integration policies at the local level, in particularly when put into practice, relate positively to immigrant and ethnic-minority families' acculturation process. This concerns especially the dimension of intercultural contact and the experienced parent-professional relationship.

Professionals' multicultural beliefs showed limited shared variance at the site and country level and this indicator, aggregated to the site level, was least associated with the indicators of parents' integration and acculturation strategies. Professionals' beliefs regarding multilingualism, in contrast, showed a relatively large shared variance among professionals, roughly equally divided over the site and country level, and were at the site level more clearly positively associated with the indicators of

parents' integration and acculturation strategies. This may suggest that professionals' multicultural beliefs are essentially personal beliefs, possibly reflecting personal ethical considerations or social desirability response tendencies, whereas multilingual beliefs are more strongly coordinated with the local and national integration models. In general, professionals were less supportive of multilingualism than multiculturalism which might reflect the explicit current policies in Europe that stress the importance of mastery of the national languages (e.g., Pulinx et al., 2017; Yağmur & Van de Vijver, 2012). Yet our results indicate that a common, more positive attitude towards other home languages in the local education and service systems might contribute to establishing positive intercultural interaction and successful integration. Overall, our results are in line with previous studies that suggest that integration is not merely dependent on national models but is a local process as well (e.g., Malik, 2015; Scholten, 2013).

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Limitations

The present findings should be interpreted with utmost care and cannot be regarded as indicating causal relationships. An integrated multilevel analysis was not possible given the available data and many factors could not be controlled. Moreover, the relationships found at the site level between indicators of the local integration policy and indicators of families' integration pertain only to part of the total variances in the staff and parent data. Another important limitation concerns the design of the study. Different groups of minority parents were targeted in different countries to allow for both within and between groups, and within and between countries comparisons. Also, with regard to the staff data, the distribution of professionals among sectors (i.e., ECEC, primary school, after-school care, social services) slightly differed between sites and countries. In general, our results cannot be simply generalized to the country level given our targeted and selective sampling procedures. Also difficulties in data collection resulted in variation in the site and country samples. A second limitation, particularly relevant for the relation between the staff and parent data, is that our research design had no direct nesting of parents and professionals within the same classrooms or organizations. Future research using a full nested design, with parents nested within classrooms and/or professionals, classrooms and professionals nested within ECEC centers, schools and other organizations, organizations nested within sites, and sites nested within countries, is needed in future research to enable more substantive claims about the extent to which practices and beliefs are shared among professionals at a local or national level and how this relates to the integration of minority families.

Conclusion

In conclusion, our study finds suggestive evidence that professionals' intercultural competences and the multicultural and inclusiveness policies of the local education and support services matter. The shared beliefs, practices and policies in the local education and support system may play an important role in the integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families. However, our results also demonstrate there is still much room left for growth in this area as not all professionals demonstrate positive intercultural practices and beliefs, and thus professionals could benefit from continuous professional development that further strengthens their intercultural competences. Some researchers stress that the renewal of European civil society at the local level is even more urgent than creating new state policies on integration, as history shows that these policies sometimes have helped create the very divisions they were meant to manage (Malik, 2015). Yet, research shows that when it comes to intercultural competences, national policies and discourses do influence the effectiveness of professional development aimed at enhancing these competences (Romijn, Slot & Leseman, 2020, see *Chapter 2*). Therefore, we recommend a dual approach in which strong local professional communities are created within a national context that explicitly strives for equity and values diversity.

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CHAPTER 6.

General discussion

Europe's demographic situation has drastically changed over the last decades and immigration forecasts predict that cultural and linguistic diversity will keep increasing over the next decades (Acostamadiedo et al., 2019; Lutz et al., 2020). This super-diversity raises questions on how societies can support integration and inclusion of all and help to decrease persisting (educational) inequalities for minority families. Europe's education systems are at the center of this super-diversity and play a crucial role in the social inclusion, integration and well-being of children. Yet, there are numerous signs that professionals working in early childhood and primary education are ill-prepared for the challenges of diverse classrooms. This dissertation responds to the question how professionals working in early childhood, primary education and related social services can support the integration and inclusion of children of diverse backgrounds, and how professional development (PD), organization culture and local and national policies can help professionals to fulfill this supporting and connecting role. As we assume that professionals are embedded within their context, the studies reported in the preceding chapters examined this topic from different contextual perspectives. Below, we first summarize the main findings of the four studies. Subsequently, these findings are integrated and we discuss the theoretical issues emerging. Finally, we discuss the implications for policy and practice and identify directions for future research.

Summary of the Main Findings

The literature review presented in *Chapter 2* reports on how PD efforts can effectively improve intercultural competences of pre-service and in-service teachers working in primary or early childhood education. We proposed a theoretical model that views PD as being embedded within a wider context, with reflection and enactment as important facilitators of change. Our results showed that there is a wide variety of PD efforts aiming to improve teachers' intercultural competences but some efforts seem more effective than others. Based on our findings, we consider three elements most important when designing effective PD to enhance teachers' intercultural competences. First, PD that is well-embedded within the organization and wider context of the teacher is indeed more likely to be effective. A second element that was found important is targeting belief systems and guiding teachers' reflection to establish change. Our final finding was that enactment of new knowledge, skills and dispositions is necessary to effectively change behavior and practices, and needs to be supported in PD.

Chapter 3 reports on a study that investigated the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, intercultural classroom practices and the direct classroom context using cross-national data from ECEC and primary school teachers in England, Italy, the

Netherlands and Poland. Our results showed that teacher efficacy can be viewed as a two-dimensional concept in which both general self-efficacy beliefs relevant to most teaching situations are measured alongside diversity-related domain-specific beliefs. These two dimensions are interrelated but also yield unique information on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, we found that differences in self-efficacy beliefs can be explained by classroom diversity. We found a positive relation between classroom diversity and both constructs of self-efficacy, though the relationship with diversity-related self-efficacy was stronger. Moreover, our results showed that differences in practices can be explained by both the diversity of the classroom context as well as teachers' self-efficacy. We found a positive direct relationship between classroom diversity and practices as well as an indirect relationship via diversity-related self-efficacy. Thus, teachers working in more diverse classrooms feel more efficacious working with diverse student populations and report they are more often engaged in intercultural classroom practices, which in turn provides them with new opportunities to build up their self-efficacy beliefs.

Chapter 4 presents the results of a study on differences in quality and inclusion in the Dutch hybrid ECEC system. Using latent class analysis we identified different types of ECEC organizations based on organizational characteristics that reflect logics of four institutional orders: market (e.g., for-profit goals), corporation (e.g., team spirit), community (e.g., outreach and social mission) and profession (e.g., professional development). We distinguished three different organization types: engaged professional organizations, commercial service-oriented corporations and traditional bureaucratic organizations. *Engaged professional organizations* invest in professional development of staff, have a strong social mission and reach out to parents and other local institutions. Moreover, professionals and managers in these organizations are interconnected as a team. The organizations that can be described as *commercial service-oriented corporations* are strongly characterized by the market and corporation logics and demonstrate a stronger view of ECEC as a commercial instrument for supporting labor market participation in which parents are considered clients. Finally, the *traditional bureaucratic organizations* are relatively similar to the commercial service-oriented organizations in terms of the corporation, community and profession logic, however, the market logic is absent in these organizations. Our results showed that the engaged professional organizations outperform the other types of organizations on several quality and inclusion measures. Moreover, we found that the engaged professional organizations serve more children from a disadvantaged background compared to the other two types.

Chapter 5 reports on the results of a cross-national study on the relation between integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families and shared practices and beliefs of professionals. Quantitative data from two sites per country in nine European

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countries was used to investigate this relation. Participants were parents from large minority groups across Europe (i.e., North-African, Turkish and Romani) and the professionals that work with these parents in ECEC, primary education, after-school care and the social work sector. Our results showed that professionals regularly to often use inclusive practices. Moreover, intraclass correlations indicated a substantial part of shared variance at the site and country level, which means that to a large extent professionals in the same sites and same countries act and think alike. With regard to beliefs, we found that professionals are in general quite positive to the cultural otherness of families, whereas the general support for multilingualism is much weaker. Yet, the shared variance for multilingual beliefs is substantial, whereas this is absent for multicultural beliefs, which suggests that attitudes towards linguistic diversity are more locally shared between professionals than attitudes towards cultural diversity. With regard to parents' integration, intraclass correlations showed that shared variance at the local and national level is moderate, though less strong compared to professionals' practices and beliefs. Correlations between the staff and parent data – controlled for the most important individual, setting and group characteristics – showed several positive relations between the practices and beliefs of professionals on the one hand and indicators of parents' integration on the other hand. In sites where professionals have a stronger multicultural approach, parents are more likely to value intercultural contact, support the intercultural contact of their children, indicate better relationships with their children's teachers, and have a higher satisfaction with the country of residence. Only the relationship between professionals' practices and beliefs and the extent to which parents value the maintenance of their cultural and linguistic heritage was not significant. Overall, we found evidence that implicit and explicit policies at the local level create common ground for professionals, and that shared multicultural practices and beliefs relate positively to immigrant and ethnic-minority families' acculturation process, especially on the orthogonal dimension of intergroup contact.

Integration of the Findings

The findings presented in this dissertation raise several topics for discussion. This section addresses the five main issues.

Embedded Professional Development

Our review of the literature, presented in *Chapter 2*, showed that many studies do not address the wider context in which PD takes place. This could either indicate that the role of the wider context is usually not recognized within PD interventions, or it is not considered important enough to report on. Nonetheless, the studies that did report on the wider context leave us with the conclusion that PD interventions that are well embedded within the organization and wider context are more likely to be effective. Well embedded within the organization means the use of a team-based strategy in which diversity within the team is valued and where professionals have a positive and shared vision regarding diversity and inclusion. Moreover, key persons in the organization should be included to create an environment in which newly acquired practices and skills can be implemented and to assure sufficient resources (e.g., time, materials) for PD, which function as preconditions for effective change. The importance of embedded PD in the organization is also demonstrated in *Chapter 4*, which shows that there are differences in the extent to which ECEC organizations derive their legitimacy and identity from the profession logic (Thornton et al., 2012) and thus invest in collaborative and continuous PD. The profession logic was most apparent in the engaged professional organizations, which also showed the most favorable outcomes in terms of quality and inclusive practices. These organizations also showed less strong corporation logics, which means that there is an inclusive team spirit in which diversity within the team is valued. These results suggest that embedding PD in the organization culture is necessary to create an environment in which child development and well-being can be optimally supported.

Well embedded within the wider context means assessing the needs of professionals and their context and adapting PD accordingly. This means that effective PD should be aligned with the characteristics of the professionals and the families and children they serve. *Chapter 3*, for instance, demonstrates that diversity in the classroom relates to differences in feelings of (diversity-related) self-efficacy and intercultural classroom practices. As such, PD that effectively strengthens intercultural competences may be different for these various teachers. Furthermore, these teachers are part of different local communities. *Chapter 4* showed that a stronger connection to the local community, in terms of network collaboration with other organizations as well as an active outreach to (disadvantaged) families, is related to better quality and more inclusive practices.

In addition, the studies presented in *Chapter 2* showed that policies at the local or national level are important to consider when designing PD, as they can be used to communicate the importance of strong intercultural competences. However, they can also become a barrier for change when the predominant policies contradict PD goals. PD should therefore be aligned with local and national policies, or should address such policies simultaneously by including key persons that have the agency to change these policies. In general, the findings in this dissertation suggest that the currently dominant one size fits all PD efforts are insufficient to create sustainable change in professionals' intercultural competences.

Belief Systems and Reflection

Previous research has shown that many professionals have negative intercultural attitudes towards families with another cultural and/or linguistic background (e.g., DeCastro-Amrosetti & Cho, 2005; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Mellom et al., 2018; Pettit, 2011; Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). Moreover, a color-blind perspective in which equality is mistaken for sameness and therefore ignores children's cultural identities is commonly adopted in the education system (e.g., Hachfeld et al., 2011; Schachner et al., 2016; Schofield, 2001). Our cross-national results presented in *Chapter 5* showed that on average professionals are quite positive to the cultural otherness of families, whereas the general support for multilingualism is much weaker. However, the range of scores for both multicultural and multilingual beliefs indicates there are big differences between professionals, sites and countries. Moreover, professionals working in ECEC generally show more positive beliefs compared to the professionals working in primary education, after-school care and social services. Negative intercultural belief systems are problematic as studies indicate that belief systems influence professionals' practices (e.g., Hachfeld et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2015; Pettit, 2011) and ultimately family and child outcomes. The other way around, positive intercultural belief systems can positively influence classroom practices and behavior. For instance, *Chapter 3* showed that teachers with more positive diversity-related self-efficacy feelings also reported a higher use of intercultural practices in the classroom. *Chapter 5* also demonstrated that professionals' beliefs and practices are positively related, with the relationship between multilingual beliefs and practices being somewhat stronger compared to multicultural beliefs. Moreover, our study showed that positive intercultural belief systems indeed relate to family outcomes and integration.

Our review presented in *Chapter 2* too demonstrates the importance of professionals' belief system when it comes to intercultural competences. The extent to which teachers are aware of social injustice in education, recognize their own cultural

biases and consider culturally responsive teaching important affects their overall readiness for change. Therefore, PD needs to address professionals' belief system and reflection as an important strategy to facilitate change at an intra-individual level. *Chapter 2* showed that the importance of reflection in PD is well established in the literature but not all forms of reflection seem effective. The intercultural competences framework of Pastori et al. (2018) explicitly considers analytical and critical thinking and the ability to use this to reflect on your personal biases as a crucial skill, and in order to reach a deeper understanding of the concept of diversity this critical self-reflection is necessary to change professionals' belief system. Yet, our findings show that we should not assume all professionals possess such reflective skills. Therefore, PD interventions should not just expect reflection takes place, but should support professionals in this by actively guiding their reflection process.

Creating Opportunities for Enactment

Professionals' belief system is important for intercultural practices, however, the relationship between beliefs and practices is rather complex (e.g., Civitillo et al., 2018; Petitt, 2011). For instance, some studies included in our literature review in *Chapter 2* found that there is a gap between teachers' implicit and explicit acceptance of diversity (i.e., Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018; DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009) and how teachers assume they act is not always aligned with how they actually interact with children. As such, we argue that professionals' intercultural practices are not merely dependent on their belief system, but on their ability to enact on these beliefs as well. *Chapter 2* showed that the role of enactment in PD is less established in the literature compared to reflection. In a quarter of the reviewed papers the authors argued that a lack of enactment may explain why the PD intervention was less effective than anticipated. The studies that did include an enactment element showed that this contributed to the effectiveness of the intervention and resulted in more inclusive physical environments and culturally responsive materials, resources and practices (Hardin et al., 2010) and higher engagement of children during reading activities (Fokaidou & Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou, 2014). Overall, our review showed that translating newly acquired knowledge, skills and dispositions into new behavior and classroom practices is difficult for both student teachers and more experienced teachers. Moreover, teachers' opportunities for enactment are sometimes diminished if PD is not well embedded within the organization or wider context. Several studies showed that teachers were unable to enact upon the PD content because of a lack of resources (e.g., Affolter, 2017; Spies et al., 2017) or conflicting organization policies (e.g., Brown et al., 2016; Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019). Similar to reflection, PD interventions should not assume enactment happens automatically, but need to support professionals in their enactment.

The importance of enactment is also demonstrated in *Chapter 3* regarding teachers' self-efficacy feelings. The relationship between teacher efficacy and practice is reciprocal in nature, meaning that efficacy beliefs impact teachers' behavior and practices, which in turn create new opportunities for teachers to evaluate their teaching successes and adapt their efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Our results showed that this continuous process of enactment and reflection is impacted by the cultural diversity of the classroom context. Different classrooms contexts confront teachers with different challenges and experiences to build up their efficacy beliefs. Moreover, some teachers showed reduced feelings of efficacy in working with diverse student populations compared to their general self-efficacy, which may be problematic as reduced feelings of diversity-related efficacy could result in teachers avoiding intercultural classroom practices. Yet, given today's culturally diverse society, these practices are important in all classrooms and thus opportunities for the enactment of intercultural competences need to be created for all teachers, regardless of the cultural composition of their classroom. Overall, our results indicate that PD specifically targeted at the enactment process of diversity-related domain-specific self-efficacy might be of more importance than interventions and activities that aim to improve teachers' general feelings of competence.

Organization Logics and New Approaches to Professionalism

The idea that PD should be continuous, collaborative and part of the organization culture has been increasingly recognized over the past two decades (e.g., Birman et al., 2000; Lumpe, 2007; Siraj et al., 2019), yet our review presented in *Chapter 2* showed that such an approach is not yet dominant. The majority of interventions have an individual focus rather than a team-based focus and many of them are situated outside the organization or actual practice. Moreover, PD strategies such as communities of practice or critical friendships are not frequently implemented. Results from the survey data in *Chapter 4* underline this and showed that professionals in the Dutch ECEC system are on average less than once per month involved in some form of team-based PD or community of practice activity. Yet, the variation is large with some organizations indicating they hardly provide any PD as well as other organizations indicating they engage in PD activities on a weekly basis. Moreover, in some organizations (i.e., engaged professional organizations) PD is more clearly part of the overall organization climate than in others.

 These findings are indicative of a traditional approach to professionalism, in which professionalism is considered a matter of professionals treating complex cases in isolation (Noordegraaf, 2015). This approach is still dominant within the education system. We argue instead that professionalism is connective (Noordegraaf, 2013,

2015) and that organizations are more than just the sum of the individual beliefs and competences of their employees. *Chapter 4* demonstrated that organizations adapt differently to societal forces such as the introduction of privatization and marketization in the public sector. As a result new hybrid forms of organization culture, actor agency and professional identity are created, which we referred to as *organization logics* (Skelcher & Smith, 2015; Thornton et al., 2012). More importantly, we found that engaged professional organizations outperform other organization types in terms of quality and inclusive practices. As the benefits of ECEC for child development and well-being are dependent on quality (Slot, 2014), these organizations are likely to have a more positive impact on child outcomes. Engaged professional organizations are characterized by their investment in PD and a strong commitment to their communities. They have clear social missions to address the needs of all learners and especially those from disadvantaged backgrounds. Moreover, they actively reach out to parents and collaborate in local networks with other organizations, such as primary schools, libraries and child services. The study presented in *Chapter 5* demonstrated that professionals working in the same sites and countries to some extent share beliefs and practices and that a strong multicultural approach in local networks correlates with minority parents being more satisfied in their country, reporting better relationships with their children's teachers and valuing intercultural contact (of their children) more often. Overall, these results stress the importance of organizations with inclusive values and practices, clear social missions and strong commitments and connections to their communities.

Locally Situated Intercultural Competences to Support Integration

The current dissertation provides several suggestions on how professional development can be improved to further strengthen the intercultural competences of professionals working in early childhood and primary education but also demonstrates why strong intercultural competences are necessary. The results presented in *Chapter 5* provided tentative evidence that in sites where professionals have a stronger multicultural approach, minority parents value intercultural contact more and indicate better relationships with professionals. *Chapter 4* also showed that the engaged professional organizations – with an inclusive social mission and strong outreach to (disadvantaged) parents – provide better quality and use inclusive practices more often. Moreover, these organizations serve more children from disadvantaged backgrounds, which indicates that the best quality ECEC is, to some extent, indeed provided to those most in need. Overall, this evidence suggests that interculturally competent professionals can make a difference in the lives of disadvantaged children.

Furthermore, our findings showed that professionalism is connective and situated within a direct, local and national context. At an individual level, reflection and enactment are necessary to facilitate change (see *Chapter 2*) and *Chapter 3* demonstrated that with regard to self-efficacy, this continuous process of enactment and reflection is impacted by the social and cultural diversity of the direct classroom context. More specifically, it showed that teachers can benefit from getting in contact with children from diverse backgrounds. *Chapter 4* and *Chapter 5* payed attention to the local and national context. *Chapter 5* showed that the extent to which professionals share intercultural beliefs and practices at a country level is quite substantial and there appeared big differences between countries, which may be indicative of differences in national policies regarding diversity and inclusion. For instance, professionals in the English sample demonstrated strong intercultural competences in comparison to other countries, which may be related to the fact that the necessity of inclusive classroom practices is explicitly addressed in their national mandatory education curriculum. This idea that national policies play a role in communicating the importance of intercultural competences, can also be concluded from the results of our literature review presented in *Chapter 2.* Yet, *Chapter 5* also shows there are differences between sites within a country and that local policies not always align with nationals models. This becomes apparent in *Chapter 4* as well, where we found that ECEC organizations created different logics despite the fact that they operate in the same national context. Moreover, it showed that we should invest at a local level in creating organizations that are committed to their communities and have inclusive organization logics. Yet, we also found that momentarily the majority of Dutch ECEC organizations does not have a strong social mission or an inclusive profile with policies in place that promote diversity and inclusion.

Implications for Policy and Practice

The findings of the studies reported in this dissertation have several implications for policy and practice. First, early childhood and primary education should invest in PD that strengthens the intercultural competences of professionals. However, getting professionals to participate in 'one size fits all' one-off workshops on this topic is not sufficient to establish sustainable change. Organizations should invest in continuous and team-based PD in which professionals reflect both individually on their personal biases and as a team on the shared vision and organization mission regarding diversity and inclusion. More specifically, organizations should collaboratively create inclusive organization logics in which diversity is valued and inclusion is fostered. To effectively promote the integration and well-being of disadvantaged children, this means actively reaching out to parents and collaborating with other organizations in local networks.

Second, we need to create sufficient opportunities for professionals to enact on their belief systems. This enactment is important for all professionals, regardless of the backgrounds of the children they work with. However, opportunities for enactment are partially explained by the diversity of the classroom context and therefore we should enable all professionals to build experience in working with diverse student populations. Possible ways of ensuring this are coaching on the job with culturally diverse groups, organizing regular meetings with parents of diverse backgrounds, immersion experiences and exchanges between professionals working in different classrooms, or making internships in highly diverse neighborhoods mandatory in teacher preparation programs. Finally, policies at the local and national level should stress the importance of intercultural competences of professionals working in the local support system and create an environment that explicitly and actively strives for equity and values diversity.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are a number of limitations of the current dissertation that should be noted. First, the intercultural and inclusive practices that were studied in the preceding chapters are based on self-reported measures, which may be sensitive to response tendencies and social desirability. Besides, previous studies have shown that there is a gap between professionals' implicit and explicit acceptance of diversity and professionals tend to overestimate their level of inclusion and openness to others. In other words, how teachers assume they act and how they actually interact with children is not always aligned. Though we made use of independent classroom observation data in the study reported in *Chapter 4*, these observations did not include specific aspects on intercultural and multilingual practices in the classroom. Therefore, measures of inclusive practices that do not rely on self-report should be included in future studies to corroborate our conclusions. Second, the aim of this dissertation was to study how professionals in early childhood and primary education can support the integration and inclusion of children from diverse backgrounds. The parent data used in the study reported in *Chapter 5* gave us insight in immigrant and ethnic-minority families' acculturation processes but actual measures on child development and well-being are lacking in this dissertation. We have worked under the assumption that inclusive practices and high quality are beneficial for the development and well-being of (disadvantaged) children. There is a substantial body of research that supports this assumption, however, the current dissertation did not directly investigate the effects on children.

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Besides these limitations and the suggestions for improvement that follow from them, some additional directions for future research can be derived from our findings. First, our review showed that strengthening intercultural competences through PD is a topic on the rise. Research interest has been increasing over the last decade, but the current body of research is still in a nascent stage. Especially studies that focus on classroom practices and child outcomes or investigate prolonged effects over time are necessary to fully understand how PD can strengthen the intercultural competences of professionals. Moreover, the embeddedness of PD in the organization and wider context seems an understudied topic, or at least an underreported topic. It is crucial that studies start to report on this so others can make informed choices on what (parts of) interventions would be most likely effective to strengthen intercultural competences of professionals in their specific context, rather than keep investing in 'one size fits all' PD interventions. Finally, our studies demonstrated the added value of a configurational approach in which quality and practices are evaluated through organization logics. As the introduction of market, profit and efficiency principles in the education system seems a global tendency, it would be interesting to see if similar conclusions can be reached in other European countries or in primary education.

General Conclusion

The findings in this dissertation have revealed that strong intercultural competences of professionals working in early childhood and primary education are necessary to support the integration, inclusion and well-being of disadvantaged children, and that continuous, collaborative PD can help strengthen these competences. Moreover, our results highlight that it is not merely about strengthening the intercultural competences of individual professionals. Instead, we should assure that strong intercultural competences are anchored within the organization logics of organizations in the local support system. Unfortunately, the preceding chapters leave us with the conclusion that there is much room for improvement left in this area. Although there seems to be increased interest lately in improving professionals' intercultural competences, if we really wish to provide (equal) learning opportunities and social inclusion for all children, regardless of their background, an even bigger investment in our current and next generation of professionals is necessary to achieve this.

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R

SAMENVATTING (SUMMARY IN DUTCH)

Introductie

Het aantal inwoners van de Europese Unie (EU) groeit al een aantal decennia gestaag door. Immigratie is hier een belangrijke factor in en blijft naar verwachting ook de komende jaren bijdragen aan populatiegroei. Dit betreft zowel immigratie van buiten de EU als intra-EU immigratie, waarbij met name inwoners uit Oost-Europese landen richting het Westen trekken. Voor een land als Nederland betekent dit dat het percentage inwoners met een immigratieachtergrond naar verwachting zal stijgen van 24% in 2020 tot 36% in 2050. De groeiende culturele en linguïstische diversiteit in de Europese samenleving gaat gepaard met vragen over hoe om te gaan met ongelijkheid, integratie en inclusie. Inwoners met een immigratieachtergrond of behorende tot een etnische minderheid, zoals de Roma, ervaren doorgaans meer discriminatie en hebben een hogere kans op armoede en sociale uitsluiting in vergelijking met de autochtone bevolking. Met name kinderen zijn kwetsbaar voor armoede en sociale uitsluiting en vroege investering in kinderen is nodig om ongelijkheid tegen te gaan en welbevinden te bevorderen. Onderwijs wordt vaak genoemd als belangrijkste middel om ongelijkheid tegen te gaan, maar onderzoek laat zien dat het onderwijssysteem niet altijd de grote gelijkmaker is die het zou moeten zijn.

De professionals die werken in de kinderopvang, voorschoolse educatie en het basisonderwijs zijn van groot belang voor de sociale integratie en het welbevinden van kinderen met een achterstandspositie. Echter, velen van hen voelen zich onvoldoende voorbereid op de uitdagingen die een super-diverse groep met zich meebrengt. Daarom is het belangrijk om de interculturele competenties van deze professionals verder te versterken. Interculturele competenties omvatten kennis, vaardigheden, overtuigingen en acties vanuit een mensenrechten perspectief waarin diversiteit sterk wordt gewaardeerd. Om deze competenties te versterken is professionalisering nodig. Professionalisering is een verzamelterm voor alle acties en activiteiten die zich focussen op onderwijs, training en ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden voor professionals, met het uiteindelijke doel om de ontwikkeling van kinderen beter te kunnen ondersteunen. Een dominante vorm van professionalisering is de 'one size fits all' workshop, waarbij professionals grotendeels individueel hun vaardigheden of kennis verbeteren. Echter, er zijn aanwijzingen dat zo'n aanpak onvoldoende effectief is. In plaats daarvan zou professionalisering een continu proces moeten zijn dat onderdeel is van de organisatiecultuur en zich richt op teams en samenwerking in plaats van op individuen. Dit vraagt een systemische kijk op professionalisme, wat veronderstelt dat professionals met elkaar verbonden zijn in organisaties en onderdeel uitmaken van een lokale en nationale gemeenschap.

Deze dissertatie

In deze dissertatie besteden we aandacht aan de manier waarop professionals werkend in de kinderopvang, voorschoolse educatie en het basisonderwijs bij kunnen dragen aan de sociale integratie en inclusie van kinderen met een achterstandspositie. We willen meer inzicht krijgen in de manier waarop professionals nu worden toegerust op het werken in super-diverse groepen en wat voor een verdere professionalisering nodig is om hun interculturele competenties te versterken. Hierbij besteden we expliciet aandacht aan de verschillende contexten waar professionals deel van uitmaken; de directe context van de groep, het organisatieniveau en de lokale en nationale gemeenschap. Onze resultaten en conclusies zijn gebaseerd op de data en inzichten van twee grote onderzoeksprojecten: ISOTIS en LKK. Het ISOTIS-project (Inclusive education and SOcial support to Tackle Inequalities in Society) is een internationaal onderzoeksproject van 17 onderzoekpartners in 11 Europese landen, gefinancierd door de Europese Unie. Het overkoepelende doel van het project was om bij te dragen aan de ontwikkeling van beleid en praktijk om (educatieve) ongelijkheid tegen te gaan door voort te bouwen op de kracht en potentie van cultureel en linguïstisch diverse families. ISOTIS focuste op vier grote Europese achterstandsgroepen (Noord-Afrikaanse afkomst, Turkse afkomst, Roma gemeenschap en de laagopgeleide autochtone bevolking) en de professionals die met hen werken. In deze dissertatie wordt gebruik gemaakt van de cross-nationale, kwantitatieve data die in grote getale verzameld is bij ouders en professionals. Het LKK-project (Landelijke Kwaliteitsmonitor Kinderopvang) is een jaarlijkse monitor om de kwaliteit van de Nederlandse kinderopvang in kaart te brengen in opdracht van het Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid. De monitor verzamelt van 2017 tot 2025 jaarlijks data bij verschillende vormen van kinderopvang: kinderdagopvang, peuteropvang, buitenschoolse opvang en gastouderopvang. Deze dissertatie maakt gebruikt van kwantitatieve observatie en vragenlijstdata verzameld in de kinderdagopvang en peuteropvang in 2017, 2018 en 2019.

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Interculturele competenties vergroten door professionalisering

Hoofdstuk 2 beschrijft de resultaten van de systematische reviewstudie die werd uitgevoerd om meer inzicht te krijgen in hoe professionalisering de interculturele competenties van leerkrachten en pedagogisch medewerkers kan vergroten. In totaal zijn 45 studies geanalyseerd; 23 studies gericht op het bevorderen van interculturele competenties van studenten die in opleiding zijn tot leerkracht of pedagogisch medewerker en 22 studies gericht op leerkrachten en pedagogisch medewerkers die al werkzaam zijn in de kinderopvang, voorschoolse educatie en het basisonderwijs. In de analyse is specifiek gekeken naar de mate waarin de professionalisering is

ingebed in de (organisatie)context van de professional en de manier waarop reflectie en 'enactment' worden ingezet om verandering tot stand te brengen. Enactment refereert naar het kunnen vertalen van kennis, overtuigingen en ervaring naar handelen op de groep. Onze resultaten laten zien dat er een aantal kernmerken zijn die bijdragen aan de mate waarin professionalisering effectief is. Allereerst, goede professionalisering richt zich niet op individuen maar op teams, waarbij het belangrijk is dat diversiteit binnen het team wordt gewaardeerd en er een positieve en gezamenlijke visie heerst ten aanzien van diversiteit en inclusie. Ook is het van belang dat sleutelfiguren binnen de organisatie, zoals managers, (school)directeuren of (pedagogisch) coaches, deelnemen aan de professionalisering. Deze sleutelfiguren hebben namelijk een belangrijke positie in het garanderen dat nieuwe vaardigheden die met professionalisering zijn verkregen ook daadwerkelijk geïmplementeerd kunnen worden in de praktijk. Verder is het belangrijk dat professionalisering aansluit bij de karakteristieken en behoeften van de professionals en de families met wie zij werken. Dit betekent dat traditionele vormen van professionalisering met een 'one size fits all' benadering onvoldoende zijn om interculturele competenties van professionals te versterken. Een tweede bevinding onderstreept het belang van reflectie. Overtuigingen en attitudes van professionals spelen een belangrijke rol in interculturele competenties en om gedrag te kunnen veranderen, is het belangrijk dat professionals kritisch reflecteren op hun eigen overtuigingen en handelen. Kritisch reflecteren is een vaardigheid op zichzelf en niet alle leerkrachten en pedagogisch medewerkers zijn hier even sterk in. Daarom is het belangrijk dat het reflectieproces van professionals actief wordt begeleid binnen professionalisering. Een derde en laatste conclusie is dat professionals ondersteund moeten worden in hun enactment. Dit blijkt voor zowel studenten in opleiding als leerkrachten en pedagogisch medewerkers met meer ervaring lastig en moet daarom ondersteund worden binnen professionalisering.

Self-efficacy in diverse groepen

In *Hoofdstuk 3* hebben we gekeken naar de relatie tussen interculturele praktijken en 'self-efficacy' van pedagogisch medewerkers en leerkrachten in vier Europese landen: Engeland, Italië, Nederland en Polen. Self-efficacy beschrijft de mate waarin een professional van zichzelf inschat een taak succesvol uit te kunnen voeren. Het gaat over iemands perceptie ten aanzien van zijn competenties in plaats van over het daadwerkelijke competentieniveau en wordt gezien als een belangrijke factor die gedrag beïnvloedt. Onze resultaten laten zien dat self-efficacy ten aanzien van omgaan met kinderen met diverse culturele en linguïstische achtergronden en een meer algemeen gevoel van self-efficacy twee aparte constructen zijn. Verschillen tussen professionals in self-efficacy kunnen deels verklaard worden door de mate

van culturele diversiteit in de groep. In groepen met een hogere mate van culturele diversiteit hebben professionals positievere self-efficacy gevoelens, met name als het gaat om self-efficacy ten aanzien van het omgaan met diversiteit. Deze professionals worden vaker geconfronteerd met de specifieke behoeften en uitdagingen van een diverse groepssamenstelling en hebben daardoor waarschijnlijk meer mogelijkheden gehad om hun gevoel van self-efficacy te versterken. Tevens vonden we dat in meer diverse groepen professionals aangeven vaker gebruik te maken van interculturele praktijken in de groep, zoals het integreren van verschillende culturele waarden in activiteiten en het creëren van een warm en inclusief groepsklimaat. Deze positieve relatie blijkt ook indirect gemedieerd te worden door diversiteit gerelateerde self-efficacy. In andere woorden, professionals in meer diverse groepen werken, voelen zich meer competent in het werken met kinderen van diverse achtergronden en gebruiken vaker interculturele praktijken, wat op zijn beurt weer nieuwe gelegenheden creëert voor deze professionals om hun self-efficacy gevoelens verder te versterken.

Organisatievormen en de relatie met kwaliteit en inclusieve praktijken

Hoofdstuk 4 beschrijft de resultaten van een studie naar verschillen in kwaliteit en inclusieve praktijken in de Nederlandse kinderdag- en peuteropvang. In de laatste twee decennia heeft privatisering en marktwerking steeds meer zijn intrede gedaan in het publieke domein, zo ook in de Nederlandse kinderopvang. Organisaties passen zich op verschillende manieren aan op veranderingen in hun omgeving en als gevolg ontstaan hybride organisatievormen met eigen identiteit, cultuur en professionele waarden. Een latente klassen analyse is gebruikt om, op basis van verscheidene organisatiekenmerken, verschillende organisatietypen te onderscheiden. Drie typen kwamen uit de data naar voren: geëngageerde professionele organisaties, commerciële service-georiënteerde ondernemingen en traditionele bureaucratische organisaties. Geëngageerde professionele organisaties onderscheiden zich van de andere twee typen op het gebied van professionalisering, waarden-gedreven missie en hun toewijding aan en verbinding met de lokale gemeenschap. Deze organisaties investeren in systematische professionalisering met een team focus. Zij hebben een sterke sociale missie om de ontwikkeling van alle kinderen te ondersteunen en met name die van kinderen met een achterstandspositie. Ook hebben ze actief beleid om ouders (uit achterstandsposities) te bereiken en te betrekken binnen de opvang. Tot slot werken deze organisaties vaker samen in lokale netwerken met andere (sociale) organisaties zoals basisscholen, bibliotheken en jeugdcentra. Verder laten de resultaten zien dat deze organisaties meer kinderen met een achterstandspositie opvangen en doorgaans het best presenteren wanneer we kijken naar verschillende aspecten van kwaliteit en inclusieve praktijken.

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Gedeelde overtuigingen en praktijken in het lokale support systeem en sociale integratie

In *Hoofdstuk 5* worden de resultaten gepresenteerd van een cross-nationale studie naar de relatie tussen de integratie van ouders en de overtuigingen en praktijken van professionals werkend in kinderopvang en voorschoolse educatie, basisonderwijs, naschoolse opvang en de sociaal maatschappelijke werksector. Kwantitatieve data van twee stedelijke gebieden per land uit negen Europese landen is gebruikt om deze relatie te onderzoeken. De resultaten laten zien dat de mate waarin professionals binnen een land overeenkomen in hun overtuigingen en interculturele praktijken groot is. Tevens zijn er duidelijke verschillen tussen landen zichtbaar. Zo rapporteren professionals in Engeland een aanzienlijk sterkere multiculturele aanpak dan professionals in Frankrijk. Deze verschillen worden mogelijk verklaard door nationaal beleid, dat in Engeland gekarakteriseerd kan worden als multiculturalistisch, terwijl het Franse beleid juist assimilationistisch te noemen is. Er blijken echter ook verschillen tussen stedelijke gebieden binnen landen, wat suggereert dat ook de lokale beleidscontext van invloed is. Wanneer we de relaties tussen de overtuigingen en praktijken van professionals en de integratiestrategieën van ouders bekijken op lokaal niveau, vinden we enkele positieve verbanden. In stedelijke gebieden met een sterkere multiculturele aanpak, geven ouders aan intercultureel contact meer te waarderen en ondersteunen, een positievere relatie te hebben met de leerkrachten en pedagogisch medewerkers van hun kinderen, en meer tevreden te zijn met het land waarin ze wonen. De relatie met de mate waarin ouders het belangrijk vinden om hun eigen taal en cultuur te behouden bleek niet significant. Concluderend laten deze bevindingen zien dat positieve interculturele competenties van professionals bij kunnen dragen aan het acculturatie proces van ouders met een andere etnische achtergrond, met name op de dimensie van intercultureel contact.

Conclusies

De resultaten in deze dissertatie laten zien dat om de interculturele competenties van professionals te versterken het belangrijk is dat professionalisering is ingebed in de (organisatie)context van de professional. Daarnaast spelen interculturele overtuigingen en attitudes van professionals een grote rol en is het belangrijk dat professionals reflecteren op hun eigen vooroordelen ten aanzien van minderheden. Kritisch reflecteren is een belangrijke competentie en onze bevindingen benadrukken dat niet alle professionals hier even vaardig in zijn. Daarom is het belangrijk dat reflectie wordt ondersteund binnen professionalisering. Ditzelfde geldt voor het creëren van mogelijkheden tot enactment. Het belang van enactment komt in meerdere deelstudies naar voren, maar het kunnen vertalen van kennis, overtuigingen en

ervaring naar handelen op de groep blijkt lastig voor professionals en moet daarom ook ondersteund worden binnen professionalisering. Verder laten onze resultaten de meerwaarde zien van het evalueren van de identiteit, cultuur en professionele waarden van organisaties via een configurationele aanpak. Hieruit komt naar voren dat het belangrijk is om te zorgen dat organisaties investeren in professionalisering en zich middels een duidelijke sociale missie te committeren aan en samen te werken met de lokale gemeenschap. Tot slot laat onze cross-nationale data zien dat er grote verschillen bestaan tussen landen in interculturele competenties, wat mogelijk verklaard wordt door de nationale beleidscontext. Echter, er blijken ook verschillen tussen professionals en tussen steden binnen landen, wat het belang van de lokale beleidscontext en waarden-gedreven organisaties verder onderstreept.

Concluderend kan gesteld worden dat we niet alleen de interculturele competenties van individuele professionals moeten versterken, maar ook moeten werken aan intercultureel competente organisaties in het lokale support systeem. Hoewel het veelbelovend is dat de politieke, wetenschappelijke en maatschappelijke interesse in dit onderwerp in de laatste jaren is toegenomen, wordt ook duidelijk dat een veel grotere investering in onze huidige en nieuwe generatie professionals nodig is om te garanderen dat alle kinderen gelijke kansen krijgen en mee kunnen doen in de maatschappij, ongeacht hun achtergrond.

S

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D

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<div align="center">

"En zie mij nu staan,

zoveel bereikt,

m'n eigen wereld gemaakt,

gevochten, net als jij"

Alles hier is ook van jou – Miss Montreal

</div>

De laatste en belangrijkste dankjewel kan ik maar aan één iemand geven. Lieve Anne, door jou weet ik dat er altijd goed voor me gezorgd wordt, juist op de momenten dat ik dat zelf een beetje vergeet te doen. Zonder jou geen dagelijkse geluksstofjes of momenten van rust in mijn hoofd, en juist dat laatste heb ik zo hard nodig. Dankjewel voor wie je bent en voor alle avonturen die je samen met me beleeft. Ik kijk uit naar alles waar ik je ook de komende jaren nog dankbaar voor mag zijn.

D

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Bodine Romijn was born on 15 November 1993 in Zoetermeer, the Netherlands. After obtaining her high school degree (Gymnasium) in 2010 from Gymnasium Camphusianum in Gorinchem, she began her Bachelor Pedagogical Sciences at Utrecht University. After obtaining her Bachelor's Degree in 2014, she started the two-year research master program 'Educational Sciences: Learning in Interaction' and the one-year academic master program 'Youth, Education and Society' at Utrecht University, which she both graduated Cum laude in 2016. As a student, she was active as a board member of the Study Association of Pedagogical Sciences PAP and took place in various boards and committees as a student representative to guarantee the quality of the faculty's education programs. In the summer of 2016, she was invited to participate in the Hendrik Muller Summer Seminar (Theme: Social Inequality and Education), hosted by the Royal Dutch Academy of Sciences (KNAW). In September 2016, she began her doctoral research at the department of Education and Pedagogy at the Faculty of Social and Behavioral Sciences at Utrecht University. She was part of the Horizon2020 ISOTIS (Inclusive education and SOcial support to Tackle Inequalities in Society) consortium and later on participated in the LLK-project (Landelijke Kwaliteitsmonitor Kinderopvang) in collaboration with Sardes, funded by the Dutch Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. While working on her dissertation she also supervised master students writing their thesis and became a licensed trainer in the CLASS Toddler, providing several CLASS trainings for students and research assistants. In December 2020, she started her work as a postdoctoral researcher in the LKK-project at Utrecht University.

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International peer-reviewed publications

Romijn, B. R., Slot, P. L., & Leseman, P. P. M. (2021). Increasing teachers' intercultural competences in teacher preparation programs and through professional development: A review. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 98*, 1-15. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2020.103236

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Romijn, B. R., Slot, P. L., Francot, R. J. R. M., & Leseman, P. P. M. (2021). The relationship between local diversity policies and the integration of immigrant and ethnic-minority families: The importance of professionals' intercultural competences.

Romijn, B. R., Slot, P. L., & Leseman, P. P. M. (2021). Organization hybridity in the Dutch early childhood education and care system: Organization logic in relation to quality and inclusion.

P

APPENDICES

Table 2.1
Sample Query: Key Words and Filters

Key words per topic	
Intercultural competences	(intercultural competence* OR multicultural competence* OR cultural competence* OR intercultural sensitivity OR multicultural sensitivity OR cultural sensitivity OR intercultural awareness OR multicultural awareness OR cultural awareness OR intercultural responsiveness OR multicultural responsiveness OR cultural responsiveness OR intercultural proficiency OR multicultural proficiency OR cultural proficiency OR culturally responsive teaching OR culturally responsive pedagog* OR democratic education OR citizenship education OR cultural diversity OR urban education OR social inclusion OR cultural inclusion OR global competence* OR anti-bias education OR anti-discrimination education OR monoculturalism OR intercultural teaching OR multicultural teaching OR intercultural education OR multicultural education OR tolerance practice* OR linguistic diversity OR multilingualism OR bilingualism OR multilingual teaching OR multilingual education OR linguistic inclusion)
	AND
Professional development	(professional development OR professional development intervention* OR professional development program* OR teacher training* OR teacher education OR teacher course* OR coaching OR coaching OR mentoring OR reflecting OR reflection OR life-long-learning OR communities of practice OR communities of learners OR community of practice OR community of learners OR pre-service training* OR pre-service education OR in-service training* OR in-service education OR curriculum OR internship* OR exchange program*)
	AND
Profession	(teacher* OR teacher to be OR student teacher* OR pre-service teacher* OR teacher to be OR educator*)
	AND
Educational setting	(early childhood education and care OR early childhood OR preschool OR primary school OR primary education OR kindergarten OR elementary school OR day care OR daycare OR ECEC OR nursery OR early childhood education OR early childhood care OR K-12 OR pre K)
	AND
Search Filters	· Setting limitations to include only literature of the past 15 years (i.e., 2005-2019). · Setting limitations to exclude books, speeches, presentations and datasets. · Setting limitations to only include literature published in the English language.

Key words per topic

	NOT
Other types of diversity	(disab* OR autism OR ADHD OR deaf OR asperger OR syndrome OR patient OR disorder OR gifted OR giftedness OR gender OR sexuality)
	NOT
Setting	(medical OR health OR sport OR physical OR university OR college[a])
	NOT
Specific subject matter	(environmental OR math* OR biology OR art OR music* OR food OR computer sciences OR engineering OR history OR STEM OR science education OR geography OR political OR creativity)

[a] *Note.* As some literature included a sample of both primary school and secondary school teachers, key words such as secondary school or high school were not used to exclude any literature.

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Table 2.2
Main Characteristics of Studies Included in the Review

Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
Affolter, 2017	In-service, PE[1], US, N = 23 professionals[2]	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	TB[3]; Workshop, community of practice, self-rating	Teacher and classroom level[4]; PD increased self-awareness, humility, and knowledge on useful culturally responsive strategies, and decreased discomfort feelings regarding diversity. There is a gap between perceived teacher beliefs and actual behavior.
Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018	In-service, PE/ECEC, Spain, N = 8 teachers	Mixed-method	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	TB; Workshop, self-rating	Teacher level; There is a gap between explicit and implicit acceptance of diversity. Teachers tend to overestimate their level of cultural sensitivity. PD raised awareness on the topic.
Behizadeh et al., 2019	Pre-service, PE, US, N = 11 student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, community of practice, critical friendship, online component	Teacher and classroom level; PD helped teachers reframe cultural problem situations from a different perspective. Regarding behavior this reframing sometimes resulted in teachers choosing not to act on a situation but to change their attitudes on whether the situation was indeed problematic or not.
Bennett, 2012	Pre-service, PE, US, N = 8 student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, immersion experience, coaching	Teacher level; Especially field experience increases teachers' understanding of culturally responsive practices, however, supporting students in connecting course content and practice is necessary for effective enactment.
Biasutti et al., 2019	In-service, PE, Italy, N = 53 teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, critical friendship	Teacher level; PD increased awareness of the importance of an intercultural approach. Also knowledge and skills increased.

Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
Bodur, 2012	Pre-service, PE, US, $N = 88$ student teachers	Mixed-method, cross-sectional design	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience, self-rating	Teacher level; Students who already completed the PD intervention report better attitudes, deeper understanding of the concept of diversity and are more aware of their own role as a teacher.
Bradshaw et al., 2018	In-service, PE, US, $N = 158$ teachers	Quantitative, RCT design	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	IB; Workshop, coaching	Teacher, classroom and child level; All teachers improved on skills and self-efficacy, yet no significant difference was found between the teachers who received additional coaching and those who did not. All teachers showed better classroom management and responsiveness, though stronger effects were found for the teachers who received additional coaching. At the child level, coached teachers report less disciplinary referrals of African-American children after the intervention.
Brown et al., 2016	In-service, PE/ECEC, US, $N = 2$ teachers	Qualitative	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, video feedback, self-rating	Teacher and classroom level; PD increased knowledge and awareness. Less progress in skills as a result of lack of enactment. Teachers felt not empowered enough to implement new knowledge and skills.
Carter Andrews, 2009	Pre-service, PE, US, $N = 21$ student teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, mainly cultural diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience	Teacher level; PD increased awareness of unique experiences of children and actively building relationships compared to assuming similarities merely because you have a similar (cultural) background. PD shifted teachers perspective from helping children to empowering children.
Cinelli & Jones, 2017	Pre-service, PE, Australia, $N = 27$ student teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience	Teacher level; PD increased awareness on the importance of culturally responsiveness in education. Skills, specifically communication skills with linguistically diverse children, improved as well.

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Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
Daniel & Pray, 2017	In-service EP[5], PE, US, N = 2 teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, mainly linguistic diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience, coaching, video feedback, self-rating	Teacher and classroom level; PD changed belief systems and increased sociocultural awareness. Reflection on own practice via video feedback increased skills as well and resulted in more inclusive classroom practices such as celebrating diverse holidays and incorporating children's home language in the classroom.
Dejaeghere & Cao, 2009	In-service, PE, US, N =86 teachers	Quantitative, repeated measures design	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	TB; Workshop, self-rating	Teacher level; Gap between explicit and implicit acceptance of diversity. Teachers tend to overestimate their level of cultural sensitivity. PD raised awareness on this and both implicit and explicit sensitivity improved over time.
Ebsersole et al., 2016	In-service EP, PE, US, N = 9 teachers	Qualitative	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop	Classroom level; PD resulted in an increase of culturally responsive practices reported in teacher action plans. However, teachers were not always able to distinguish between being a culturally responsive teacher and doing culturally diverse activities. Teachers seem to lack critical reflection and tend stick to a rather superficial interpretation of diversity and inclusiveness.
Fokaidou & Hadjitheodoulou-Loizidou, 2014	In-service, ECEC, Cyprus, N = unknown number of professionals in one school	Qualitative	Targeted, mainly linguistic diversity	TB; Workshop, community of practice	Teacher, classroom and child level; PD increased repertoire of strategies of teachers to involve linguistically diverse children during book reading activities. As a results, children were more involved during reading activities and showed greater understanding of the content of the story.
Groulx & Silva, 2010	Pre-service, PE/ECEC, US, N = 28 student teachers	Quantitative, repeated measures design	Targeted, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, immersion experience	Teacher level; Teacher beliefs became more positive towards the use of materials that represent diversity and the inclusion of diverse perspectives. An increase in efficacy feelings was found as well.

Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
Haddix, 2008	Pre-service, PE, US, N = 2 student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, self-rating, online component	Teacher level; Teachers viewed themselves as culture-less and language-less (diversity is something of the others). PD increased awareness regarding cultural and linguistic diversity, yet teachers showed less awareness of their own cultural background than anticipated.
Hardin et al., 2010	In-service, ECEC, US, N = 48 teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, coaching, self-rating	Teacher and classroom level; PD led to improvement of the physical environment and more diverse classroom materials, resources and practices. Attitudes did not improve, which could be related to the short duration of the intervention.
Hasslen & Bacharach, 2007	Pre-service, ECEC, US, N = 15 student teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, immersion experience, coaching	Teacher level; Student teachers felt more prepared to interact with diverse children and families.
He et al., 2017	In-service, PE, US, N = 12 teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience, coaching, self-rating, online component	Teacher level; Immersion experience can be effective in changing teachers' attitudes if reflection and enactment are guided during the PD.
Iwai, 2019	Pre-service, PE/ECEC, US, N = 25 student teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop	Teacher level; Teachers became more knowledgeable on culturally responsive teaching and multicultural literature. Teachers also felt more prepared using multicultural literature.
Jones & Browne, 2015	In-service, ECEC, US, N = 4 teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, self-rating	Teacher level; Teachers started from a color-blind perspective with no knowledge on the importance of culturally responsive teaching. PD increased knowledge and awareness.
Kidd et al., 2008	Pre-service, ECEC, US, N = 19 student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, critical friendship, immersion experience, coaching	Teacher level; PD changed teachers' attitudes. Home visits to families did not only impact knowledge about these families but results in learning from families as well.

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Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
Kyles & Olafson, 2008	Pre-service, PE, US, $N = 15$ student teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Targeted, mainly cultural diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience, self-rating	Teacher level; No change in efficacy feelings over time. Student teachers were able to formulate their beliefs, but not everyone critically reflected on them and was able to deconstruct beliefs in order to reach a deeper understanding of the concept of multicultural education.
Lazar & Offenberg, 2011	In-service EP, PE, US, $N = 54$ teachers	Qualitative, design with control group	Targeted, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop	Classroom level; Teachers that followed the summer course more often addressed explicit racism in their lesson plans. No differences were found for how teachers indicated they would address this.
Leeman & Van Koeven, 2019	In-service EP, PE, Netherlands, $N = 6$ teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, critical friendship, immersion experience, coaching, self-rating	Teacher level; Increase in awareness regarding multilingualism. Feeling multilingual discomfort (PD was not thought in L1 of teachers) supported in this awareness. No changes in practices due to lack of teacher agency within schools.
Lenski et al., 2005	Pre-service, PE, US, $N = 28$ student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, critical friendship, immersion experience	Teacher level; Increased awareness on own cultural background and beliefs. Teachers indicate that new knowledge on different cultural traditions would be included in the classroom.
Lin & Bates, 2015	Pre-service, ECEC, US, $N = 28$ student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Immersion experience	Teacher level; PD showed impact on social attitudes and understanding of socio-economically disadvantages. Several student teachers expressed a stronger desire to work with disadvantages families.
Manburg et al., 2017	Pre-service, PE/ECEC, US, $N = 193$ student teachers	Mixed-method	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	TB; Community of practice, online component	Teacher level; PD resulted in growth in judgement skills and self-efficacy. Students also developed professional identity and empathy, leadership skills and communication skills. Finally, an increased awareness of ethics and critical thinking was reported.

Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
McGrady, 2017	In-service, PE, US, $N = 11$ professionals	Mixed-method	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	TB; Workshop, self-rating	Teacher level; Teachers were satisfied with PD, however, the short duration of the intervention left less time for deeper reflection on the topic of diversity.
McMillon, 2009	Pre-service, PE, US, $N = 40$ student teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, mainly cultural diversity	IB; Immersion experience	Teacher and child level; Student teachers were more motivated to teach in an urban school context and strengthened their overall culturally responsive mindset. Children that wrote the teachers were more motivated to attend college themselves.
Monroe & Ruan, 2018	Pre-service, ECEC, US, $N = 22$ student teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	IB; Workshop, self-rating	Teacher level; PD improved interaction engagement and increased awareness of other's perspectives. Majority of results demonstrated lower levels of cultural sensitivity (focused at superficial diversity characteristics) of teachers even after the intervention.
Moore, 2016	In-service, PE, US, $N = 38$ teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design with control group	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	TB; Workshop	Teacher level; Experimental group improved on multicultural attitudes and competences.
Moule & Higgins, 2007	Pre-service, PE, US, $N = 13$ student teachers	Mixed-method	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience, coaching	Teacher and child level; Children showed higher percentages of on task behavior and increased understanding of content. Student teachers improved on culturally responsive practices as well, though growth was most visible for White students that were matched to Black mentor teachers.
Pence & Macgillivray, 2008	Pre-service, PE, US, $N = 15$ student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience, coaching	Teacher level; PD increased overall confidence, resulted in better appreciation of and respect for different cultures. Moreover, student teachers became more aware of the importance of reflection.

Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
Polat et al., 2019	Pre-service, PE/ECEC, US, *N* = 74 student teachers	Quantitative, repeated measures design with control group	Targeted, mainly linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, immersion experience, coaching, online component	Teacher level; Both PD condition groups improved, but student teachers included in the Epal group scored higher on several beliefs: inclusion, responsibility for academic and language achievement. Moreover, these student teachers increased on culturally responsive teaching.
Psalti, 2007	In-service, PE, Greece, *N* = 70 teachers	Mixed-method	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, self-rating	Teacher level; Teachers indicated they learned new knowledge and skills (specifically regarding communication with diverse students), though their overall growth was less than they hoped.
Spies et al., 2017	In-service, ECEC, US, *N* = 98 teachers	Mixed-method, repeated measures design	Targeted, mainly linguistic diversity	TB; Workshop, community of practice, critical friendship	Teacher and classroom level; Teachers changed beliefs regarding children's home language and the role of the family. More linguistic practices during instruction and learning were reported as well.
Symeou & Karagiorgi, 2018	In-service, PE, Cyprus, *N* = 17 professionals	Qualitative	Targeted, cultural and linguistic diversity	TB; Workshop, community of practice	Teacher level; Teachers reported an increase in awareness and knowledge, but indicated they still lack sufficient knowledge, skills and confidence to adequately teach diverse children.
Szente, 2008	Pre-service, PE, US, *N* = 105 student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	IB; Workshop, immersion experience	Teacher level; Student teachers reported most growth on the pedagogical understanding of culturally responsive teaching.
Turnšek, 2013	In-service ED, ECEC, Slovenia, *N* = 52 teachers	Quantitative, repeated measures design with control group	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, self-rating	Teacher level; PD improved teachers' skills to recognize explicit and implicit knowledge (both over time and in comparison with the control group). Similar results were found for multicultural attitudes.

Study	Participants	Study design	Diversity	Professional development	Outcomes
Van der Wildt et al., 2017	In-service, PE, Belgium, N = 528 professionals	Quantitative, repeated measures design with control group	Targeted, mainly linguistic diversity	TB; Community of practice, coaching, online component	Classroom level; PD resulted in the tolerance and use of multilingualism practices for the schools included in the experimental group.
Vesely et al., 2017	Pre-service, ECEC, US, N = 82 student teachers	Qualitative	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, immersion experience, self-rating	Teacher level; After PD student teachers were more focused on commonalities between them and diverse families instead of their differences. They also became more aware of their own cultural biases, though understanding of the concept diversity still focused on rather superficial characteristics.
West-Olatunji et al., 2008	In-service, PE/ECEC, US, N = 3 teachers	Qualitative	Targeted, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Community of practice, action research, coaching, online component	Teacher and classroom level; All teachers reported new knowledge and increased feelings of empowerment. Culturally awareness became more apparent in their research questions and lesson plans.
Wiggins et al., 2007	Pre-service, PE, US, N = 62 student teachers	Quantitative, repeated measures design with control group	Universal, mainly cultural diversity	GB; Workshop, immersion experience	Teacher level; Both groups showed an increase in attitude scores, though the PD group showed stronger effects.
Zembylas, 2008	In-service EP, PE, Cyprus, N = 22 teachers	Qualitative	Universal, cultural and linguistic diversity	GB; Workshop, self-rating, online component	Teacher level; Online environment for reflection on own emotion and attitudes towards diversity proved to be effective.

Note. [1]PE refers to primary education institutions, whereas ECEC refers to early childhood education and care centers. [2]The intervention included other types of professionals (e.g., school director or counselor) besides teachers. [3] IB = Individually-based PD; TB = Team-based PD; GB = Group-based PD. [4]Teacher level refers to teachers' knowledge, skills, belief systems and satisfaction; Classroom level refers to teacher behavior and classroom practices; Child level refers to child outcomes and development. [5]Educational programs such as specialized master degree programs or post-graduate education aimed at in-service teachers.

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Table 5.4

Descriptive Statistics of Staff Data per Site and Country

Site	Inclusive group climate				Multicultural practices				Multicultural beliefs				Multilingual beliefs			
	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range
CZ1	22	3.70	0.92	2.00-5.00	23	2.98	0.89	1.71-4.86	31	4.49	0.61	3.00-5.00	31	2.46	0.77	1.00-4.00
CZ2	11	3.16	1.08	1.50-4.75	19	2.91	0.88	1.17-4.29	25	4.64	0.59	2.50-5.00	25	2.48	0.52	1.33-3.67
CZ$_{total}$	33	3.52	1.00	1.50-5.00	42	2.95	0.87	1.17-4.86	56	4.56	0.60	2.50-5.00	56	2.47	0.66	1.00-4.00
EN1	41	4.27	0.72	2.00-5.00	48	**4.24**	0.64	2.71-5.00	56	4.86	0.29	4.00-5.00	53	3.31	0.53	1.33-4.00
EN2	39	4.12	0.50	3.00-5.00	46	**3.98**	0.48	3.00-5.00	52	4.79	0.31	3.50-5.00	52	3.38	0.44	2.67-4.00
EN$_{total}$	80	4.20	0.62	2.00-5.00	94	4.11	0.58	2.71-5.00	108	4.83	0.30	3.50-5.00	105	3.34	0.49	1.33-4.00
DE1	43	3.55	0.71	2.00-5.00	49	3.62	0.67	2.29-5.00	65	4.64	0.47	3.25-5.00	59	2.17	0.79	1.00-4.00
DE2	34	3.43	0.65	2.00-4.50	53	3.55	0.66	1.86-4.83	64	4.55	0.61	1.25-5.00	61	2.32	0.79	1.00-4.00
DE$_{total}$	77	3.50	0.69	2.00-5.00	102	3.59	0.66	1.86-5.00	129	4.59	0.54	1.25-5.00	120	2.24	0.79	1.00-4.00
EL1	68	3.36	0.99	1.00-5.00	91	3.08	1.01	1.00-5.00	109	**4.69**	0.59	1.25-5.00	106	2.81	0.76	1.00-4.00
EL2	26	3.67	0.80	2.00-5.00	36	3.34	0.72	2.00-5.00	42	**4.86**	0.29	3.50-5.00	38	2.89	0.79	1.00-4.00
EL$_{total}$	94	3.45	0.95	1.00-5.00	127	3.15	0.94	1.00-5.00	151	4.74	0.53	1.25-5.00	144	2.83	0.77	1.00-4.00
FR1	4	2.50	0.89	1.75-3.50	10	3.05	0.70	2.14-3.83	15	4.57	0.52	3.50-5.00	13	2.26	0.77	1.00-3.33
FR2	18	2.61	0.81	1.50-5.00	18	2.64	0.76	1.57-5.00	25	4.43	0.62	3.00-5.00	22	2.27	0.81	1.33-3.33
FR$_{total}$	22	2.59	0.80	1.50-5.00	28	2.79	0.75	1.57-5.00	40	4.48	0.58	3.00-5.00	35	2.67	0.79	1.00-3.33
IT1	27	**3.51**	0.80	2.50-5.00	27	3.44	0.75	2.14-4.57	32	4.79	0.34	4.00-5.00	31	2.49	0.88	1.00-4.00
IT2	57	**3.90**	0.91	1.50-5.00	64	3.68	0.79	1.71-4.86	73	4.83	0.51	1.00-5.00	71	2.58	0.79	1.00-4.00
IT$_{total}$	84	3.78	0.89	1.50-5.00	91	3.61	0.78	1.71-4.86	105	4.82	0.46	1.00-5.00	102	2.56	0.82	1.00-4.00
NL1	41	**3.61**	0.72	2.00-5.00	53	3.50	0.61	1.71-4.67	60	4.72	0.38	3.50-5.00	59	2.37	0.70	1.00-3.67
NL2	12	**3.15**	0.82	1.50-4.50	35	3.57	0.61	2.14-4.57	38	4.68	0.33	3.75-5.00	36	2.31	0.91	1.00-4.00
NL$_{total}$	53	3.50	0.76	1.50-5.00	88	3.53	0.61	1.71-4.67	98	4.70	0.36	3.50-5.00	95	2.34	0.78	1.00-4.00
NO1	18	3.60	0.64	2.25-4.75	52	3.85	0.60	2.43-5.00	61	4.76	0.30	3.50-5.00	55	2.78	0.81	1.00-4.00
NO2	29	3.76	0.47	3.00-5.00	48	3.72	0.52	2.57-4.71	50	4.72	0.41	3.25-5.00	47	2.66	0.74	1.00-4.00
NO$_{total}$	47	3.70	0.54	2.25-5.00	100	3.79	0.57	2.43-5.00	111	4.74	0.35	3.50-5.00	102	2.72	0.78	1.00-4.00
PT1	25	3.86	0.73	2.00-4.75	32	**3.20**	0.90	1.57-4.86	45	4.68	0.74	1.00-5.00	42	2.87	0.58	1.00-4.00
PT2	17	4.16	0.74	2.50-5.00	19	**3.66**	0.63	2.43-4.50	39	4.78	0.33	4.00-5.00	39	2.71	0.61	1.00-3.67
PT$_{total}$	42	3.98	0.74	2.00-5.00	51	3.37	0.84	1.57-4.86	84	4.73	0.59	1.00-5.00	81	2.79	0.60	1.00-4.00

Note. Bold means indicate significant site differences based on analysis of variance at $p < .10$.

Table 5.6

Descriptive Statistics of Parent Data per Site and Country

Site	Supporting children's intercultural contact				Importance of intercultural contact				Cultural and linguistic maintenance				Satisfaction with living in the country				Parent-teacher relationship			
	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range
CZ1	116	1.87	0.81	1.00-4.00	116	4.41	0.90	1.50-5.00	116	3.34	1.18	1.00-5.00	116	4.19	1.03	1.00-5.00	92	**4.44**	0.78	1.73-5.00
CZ2	130	1.85	0.84	1.00-4.00	130	4.12	1.16	1.00-5.00	130	3.18	1.27	1.00-5.00	130	4.34	0.82	1.00-5.00	95	**4.23**	0.79	1.00-5.00
CZ_total	246	1.86	0.82	1.00-4.00	246	4.26	1.05	1.00-5.00	246	3.25	1.23	1.00-5.00	246	4.27	0.93	1.00-5.00	187	4.34	0.79	1.00-5.00
EN1	149	**2.46**	0.87	1.00-4.00	149	**3.89**	1.18	1.00-5.00	149	**3.86**	1.25	1.00-5.00	149	4.34	0.87	1.00-5.00	144	**4.35**	0.77	1.18-5.00
EN2	144	**2.98**	0.91	1.00-4.00	144	**4.47**	0.83	1.00-5.00	144	**4.66**	0.67	2.00-5.00	144	4.46	0.81	1.50-5.00	142	**4.61**	0.54	2.00-5.00
EN_total	293	2.72	0.92	1.00-4.00	293	4.17	1.06	1.00-5.00	293	4.25	1.09	1.00-5.00	293	4.40	0.84	1.00-5.00	286	4.48	0.68	1.18-5.00
DE1	269	2.34	0.95	1.00-4.00	270	**3.76**	1.17	1.00-5.00	270	3.98	1.20	1.00-5.00	269	3.91	1.05	1.00-5.00	257	4.17	0.77	1.00-5.00
DE2	66	2.47	0.87	1.00-4.00	66	**4.07**	1.09	1.00-5.00	66	3.73	1.27	1.00-5.00	66	4.03	1.04	1.00-5.00	63	4.17	0.84	1.00-5.00
DE_total	335	2.36	0.93	1.00-4.00	336	3.82	1.16	1.00-5.00	336	3.93	1.22	1.00-5.00	335	3.94	1.05	1.00-5.00	321	4.17	0.79	1.00-5.00
EL1	94	2.01	0.93	1.00-4.00	96	**4.52**	0.76	1.00-5.00	96	**3.49**	1.17	1.00-5.00	96	4.24	1.05	1.00-5.00	77	**4.29**	0.82	1.73-5.00
EL2	105	2.12	1.02	1.00-4.00	106	**4.27**	0.82	1.50-5.00	106	**4.00**	0.99	2.00-5.00	105	4.23	0.73	1.00-5.00	81	**4.49**	0.61	2.09-5.00
EL_total	199	2.07	0.97	1.00-4.00	202	4.39	0.79	1.00-5.00	202	3.76	1.11	1.00-5.00	201	4.24	0.89	1.00-5.00	158	4.39	0.73	1.73-5.00
FR1	82	**2.41**	0.89	1.00-4.00	82	3.82	1.15	1.00-5.00	82	**3.94**	1.13	1.00-5.00	83	4.24	1.00	1.00-5.00	81	**4.17**	0.90	1.00-5.00
FR2	179	**1.36**	0.61	1.00-4.00	179	3.92	0.96	1.00-5.00	180	**4.22**	0.80	1.00-5.00	178	4.20	0.61	1.00-5.00	161	**3.78**	0.59	2.18-5.00
FR_total	261	1.69	0.85	1.00-4.00	261	3.89	1.02	1.00-5.00	262	4.13	0.93	1.00-5.00	261	4.22	0.76	1.00-5.00	243	3.91	1.05	1.00-5.00
IT1	158	2.93	1.04	1.00-4.00	159	4.28	0.93	1.00-5.00	159	3.96	1.12	1.00-5.00	158	**3.57**	1.22	1.00-5.00	140	4.32	0.74	1.91-5.00
IT2	147	3.09	0.87	1.00-4.00	148	4.15	1.01	1.00-5.00	148	3.85	1.03	1.00-5.00	148	**4.09**	0.94	1.25-5.00	134	4.24	0.78	1.27-5.00
IT_total	305	3.01	0.96	1.00-4.00	307	4.22	0.97	1.00-5.00	307	3.91	1.08	1.00-5.00	306	3.82	1.12	1.00-5.00	274	4.28	0.76	1.27-5.00
NL1	238	2.21	0.83	1.00-4.00	238	3.72	1.20	1.00-5.00	238	**3.94**	1.06	1.00-5.00	238	**4.40**	0.74	1.75-5.00	233	**4.22**	0.87	1.00-5.00
NL2	287	2.12	0.87	1.00-4.00	287	3.62	1.23	1.00-5.00	287	**4.13**	1.04	1.00-5.00	287	**4.21**	0.98	1.00-5.00	285	**4.34**	0.72	1.36-5.00
NL_total	525	2.16	0.85	1.00-4.00	525	3.67	1.22	1.00-5.00	525	4.04	1.05	1.00-5.00	525	4.30	0.89	1.00-5.00	518	4.28	0.79	1.00-5.00
NO1	38	**2.59**	0.91	1.00-4.00	38	4.05	0.96	2.00-5.00	38	3.67	1.09	1.00-5.00	38	4.36	0.78	2.50-5.00	38	4.47	0.54	2.09-5.00
NO2	22	**3.15**	0.69	2.00-4.00	22	4.11	1.01	1.00-5.00	22	3.98	1.24	1.00-5.00	22	4.34	0.65	2.75-5.00	22	4.67	0.48	2.91-5.00
NO_total	60	2.79	0.87	1.00-4.00	60	4.08	0.97	1.00-5.00	60	3.78	1.14	1.00-5.00	60	4.35	0.73	2.50-5.00	61	4.53	0.52	2.09-5.00
PT1	140	**3.05**	0.85	1.00-4.00	140	4.89	0.48	1.00-5.00	140	**3.45**	1.46	1.00-5.00	140	4.81	0.43	2.75-5.00	131	**4.80**	0.36	2.82-5.00
PT2	102	**2.54**	0.95	1.00-4.00	102	4.75	0.80	1.00-5.00	102	**4.31**	1.07	1.00-5.00	102	4.81	0.63	1.00-5.00	91	**4.67**	0.45	2.64-5.00
PT_total	242	2.83	0.93	1.00-4.00	242	4.83	0.64	1.00-5.00	242	3.81	1.37	1.00-5.00	242	4.81	0.52	1.00-5.00	222	4.75	0.41	2.64-5.00

Note. Bold means indicate significant site differences based on analysis of variance at $p < .10$.

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