ISOTIS INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND SOCIAL SUPPORT
TO TACKLE INEQUALITIES IN SOCIETY

D5.3 Internet survey among staff working in formal and informal (education) sectors in ten European countries

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This staff survey among over 1,000 professionals across ten European countries revealed interesting and relevant information on three core topics: i) cultural and linguistic beliefs, practices and organizational policies, ii) relations with parents and other stakeholders, and iii) staff's work environment. A wide range of professionals were involved, including teachers, specialists, managers and social and family workers, working in a variety of settings, such as early childhood education and care (ECEC), formal education, after-school care and the social work sector. The main findings will be discussed in the following sections.

CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC BELIEFS, PRACTICES, AND POLICY

The results showed two main concepts regarding professionals' diversity beliefs. The first one was labelled *multicultural beliefs* which involved being sensitive, appreciative, and respectful towards cultural differences, while at the same time focusing on the similarities and intercultural contact. The other aspect was labelled *multilingual beliefs* which valued the use of the heritage language at home and at (pre)school and support for the development of the heritage language in (pre)school. Although the results supported these two factors for the full sample, it appeared that in some countries the multicultural beliefs concept showed less internal consistency. The items that were measured in this scale reflected beliefs on a continuum ranging from assimilationist to more neutral (colour-blindness) or positive multiculturalist views. These items were included to reduce the potential risk of social desirability. However, this could also have resulted in a more heterogeneous construct, which in a few countries resulted in lower internal consistency of the scale.

Overall, professionals scored higher on multicultural beliefs compared to multilingual beliefs. Although there appeared different patterns of results across countries. Professionals from Italy scored comparatively higher on multicultural and multilingual beliefs, whereas professionals from Czech Republic scored comparatively lower. Professionals from England showed the highest support for multilingualism, especially compared to professionals from Germany and the Netherlands. However, the professionals from the participating countries reported differences in balancing their multicultural and multilingual beliefs. In some countries, such as Czech Republic, France, Italy, and Portugal, the expressed levels of multicultural and multilingual beliefs were about equal. However, in other countries the support for multiculturalism was stronger than for multilingualism, such as Germany, the Netherlands and Norway, whereas professionals from England, Greece, and Poland reported the opposite pattern. These findings illustrate the complexity of professionals' attitudes towards cultural and linguistic diversity and reveal that professionals may emphasize different aspects, which probably partly reflects country differences in migration flows, integration policies, and the political and societal discourse on migration and diversity. Next, professionals reported on their actual practices and the organizational policy towards diversity. Professionals from England appeared to take diversity into account the most in the implementation of daily activities and practices, both at the (classroom) practice level and at the wider (school) organizational level, whereas professionals from France reported the lowest implementation of diversity practices and policy.

A comparison between professionals working in the different types of provisions revealed that professionals working in ECEC held more positive beliefs towards multilingualism compared to professionals working in after school care, whereas no differences were found for views on multiculturalism. Professionals working in ECEC provisions also scored higher on diversity policy in the organisation. Moreover, managers held more positive views towards multilingualism.

There are moderate relations between reported beliefs, on the one hand, and practices or organizational policy, on the other hand. Professionals with more positive views on multiculturalism and multilingualism also reported to implement more diversity practices in their daily work. For managers there was a positive relation between their views on multilingualism and the extent to which there was a policy on diversity in the organisation they work in. Interestingly, these relations remained after controlling for the actual level of diversity in the work environment of professionals, suggesting there is a link between professionals' beliefs and practices.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The current study adopted a comprehensive view on the relations between parents and professionals, encompassing both the shared understanding between parents and professionals, and several aspects of the parent-professional communication. The parent-professional relationship was found to be the multidimensional, but the different dimensions could not be reliably distinguished in an equivalent manner in the different countries. There might be two possible reasons for this. The first one concerns the small sample size in some countries in combination with the fact that samples consisted of different types of professionals. The nature of the relationship with parents may be different depending on the age of the children (ECEC vs after school care) or type of provision (care vs formal education). Thus, the relationship between professionals and parents could not be defined as a multidimensional concept in a similar way for all countries, so rather a descriptive and more comprehensive approach was taken.

Overall, the results show that professionals rate the relationship with parents as neutral, but oriented to positive. Although, the sometimes small and/or heterogeneous samples do not allow for generalization of the findings, there appeared some different trends in the way professionals from different countries reported on their relationship with parents. Professionals from England scored, on average, more positive on the parent-professional relationship, whereas professionals from other countries scored lower. A more in-depth analysis of the differences between countries in the nature of the parent-professional relationship showed that professionals from England scored higher on all aspects. Professionals from the Netherlands and Norway, on the other hand, scored particularly higher on the reciprocal contact with parents, but reported lower levels of shared beliefs about children's behaviour and achievement. Professionals from other countries reported, on average, lower quality of relationships with parents. There also appeared differences between professionals working in different settings. ECEC professionals reported higher quality relations with parents compared to other professionals, which was particularly evident in higher reported levels of shared beliefs and understanding and communicating with parents not only in case of problems.

Several topics can be addressed in the contact between parents and professionals. The results showed that, overall, the child's behaviour and relations with peers were the most frequently discussed topics, followed by the child's development and (pre)school related issues. Although, the sometimes small and/or heterogeneous samples do not allow for generalization of the findings, there appeared some different trends in the way professionals from different countries and professionals working in different settings in the topics they addressed in communication with parents. Professionals from the Czech Republic and Germany reported discussing (pre)school related issues and home (learning) activities more frequently, whereas professionals from England and Greece put relatively more emphasis on parent support. In general, the child's home situation and parent support were the least frequently discussed topics, especially in France and Norway. Also, there are differences between professionals working in different provisions. ECEC professionals reported discussing more about the child's behaviour and development as well as the home situation. Professionals in ECEC or after school care also reported talking more about organizational issues.

The results showed associations between the parent-professional relationship and the frequency at which certain topics are discussed with parents, which holds especially for professionals working in ECEC settings. Professionals with a positive relation with parents more often discussed the child's behaviour and development, but also the child's home situation and parent support. Professionals working in the social work sector with positive relations with parents also reported talking about the child's home situation and support for parents more often. For after school professionals a positive relation was mostly associated with discussing the child's behaviour and development. For professionals working in formal education few associations were found with the frequency at which they discussed certain topics with parents.

Lastly, contact with parents was also examined at the organizational level. Following Epstein (2001), the following aspects were distinguished: *parenting*, *communicating*, *volunteering*, *decision making*, and *collaborating with the community*. The most prominent form of parent contact was reflected in the communication with parents. Communication with parents most often concerned face-to-face meetings and one-way communication in newsletters, which occurred on a regular to often basis. Collaboration with the community of parents and involving parents in decision making also occurred on a regular basis, whereas supporting parenting and involving parents in volunteering were the least frequent. Although, the sometimes small and/or heterogeneous samples do not allow for generalization of the findings, there appeared some different trends in the way professionals from different countries reported on parent communication. Professionals from England and the Netherlands scored higher on communicating with parents on most aspects. Professionals from Germany and the Netherlands showed the most support for parenting and engaging parents in volunteering activities. Likewise, professionals from the Netherlands and Poland emphasized parental decision making comparatively strongly. Lastly, professionals from Germany, Italy, and Poland showed higher levels of collaboration with the community by means of organizing events for parents and children.

There also appeared differences between professionals working in different settings, showing that professionals working in after school care settings reported lower levels of collaborating and communicating with parents compared to professionals working in formal education. Volunteering

activities were the most common in formal education compared to the other settings. Also, involvement of parents in decision making was the least common for the social work sector.

Another aspect that was studied, concerns the collaboration between different organisations. Following the theoretical framework of Frey, Lohmeier, Lee, and Tollefson (2006) several stages of collaboration were distinguished ranging from no communication and collaboration to a high level of commitment and communication and consensual decision making. For the current study we looked at a minimum level of collaboration at which information is exchanged between organisations, but decisions are made independently. Each organisation indicated the extent to which they collaborated with a range of organisations, such as health care services, educational services, and (local) law enforcement. Collaboration with health, child care, and education services were the most common across countries, occurring on average in 80% of the cases, followed by social and public services in around 60% of the cases. Collaboration with community-based and volunteering programs and law enforcement was the least frequent (ranging from 43%-47%). There appeared some differences between countries showing that collaboration with health organisations was the most common in France, Italy, the Netherlands, and Greece whereas a collaboration social services mostly occurred in the Czech Republic, England, Italy, Poland and Portugal. Collaboration with community services was most evident in England, Greece, whereas collaboration with volunteering organisations and law enforcement was more common in Italy, Poland, and Portugal.

Several goals were mentioned as reasons for collaboration with other services, including improving child and family outcomes, increasing equity and accessibility, early detection and support of family needs and stronger continuity of services and alignment of work, and shared vision and professional development of professionals. Although all goals were mentioned as important across countries, there also appeared some country differences. For instance, professionals from the Netherlands, and to a lesser extent also professionals from Norway, scored lower on the goal of reducing discrimination and segregation compared to professionals from other counties. Likewise, the goal of learning from other professionals appeared less important for professionals from Italy and the Netherlands. Lastly, professionals working in ECEC and after school care more often mentioned that improving child outcomes was an important goal compared to professionals working in formal education.

STAFF AND THEIR WORK ENVIRONMENT

Professionals working directly with children as well as service managers reported about several aspects of their work environment, including job satisfaction, organizational climate, self-efficacy, support needs and professional development (PD) activities. Overall, professionals reported to be satisfied with their work and to evaluate the organizational climate positively. This holds especially for professionals from Norway and the Netherlands, whereas professionals from Germany and Portugal rated these aspects lower. Moreover, ECEC professionals showed higher levels of job satisfaction and more satisfactory organizational climates compared to professionals working in other settings.

For self-efficacy, a general level of self-efficacy and self-efficacy related to dealing with cultural and linguistic diversity were distinguished. Overall, professionals from Norway and the Netherlands reported the highest level of self-efficacy, whereas professionals from Italy and Portugal the lowest levels. Professionals from Poland reported the lowest level of cultural and linguistic self-efficacy, which may reflect the lack of cultural and linguistic diversity in their work context. Professionals from Germany reported lower levels of general self-efficacy, but higher levels of cultural and linguistic self-efficacy, which may suggest that they are more aware on working with these target groups. Overall, it appeared that increased diversity in the work context was associated with higher levels of cultural and linguistic self-efficacy, at least for the Czech Republic, England, Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands, which may suggest that a certain level of diversity in the work context is required to develop competences to work with culturally diverse groups. The exception is Poland, where more linguistic diversity in the work context was related to lower perceived general self-efficacy. This may reflect that linguistic diversity is rather new and professionals have not yet developed enough experience and competences to work with this target group. A comparison between the different types of professionals showed that professionals working in the social sector reported the lowest level of general self-efficacy compared to other professionals. For cultural and linguistic self-efficacy professionals working in after school care scored the highest, followed by professionals working in formal education and ECEC. Managers also reported on their feelings of self-efficacy in supervising and supporting their staff, maintaining contact with parents, and in general management tasks and reported relatively high levels of competence. This was particularly the case for managers from Greece and England, whereas managers from France, Italy, the Czech Republic, and Portugal scored the lowest.

Professionals also reported on their support needs. The results showed that professionals experience a clear need for more time to support children. More time to communicate with parents or concrete guidelines to deal with cultural tensions were the least reported needs. Professionals from Germany and Greece indicated the strongest need for support, whereas professionals from the Netherlands reported the lowest need for support. Overall, managers reported higher levels of support needs in comparison to professionals working directly with children, except for German managers who showed the opposite pattern. In general, the pattern of support needs is comparable between professionals working across sectors, but professionals working in formal education indicated a higher need for support and social workers reported the lowest need for support.

Professionals engage in a variety of professional development (PD) activities. Discussing and evaluating individual children that need extra support and reflecting upon practice with colleagues were the most commonly mentioned PD activities that occurred, on average, almost every week. Using an online platform for exchange and reflection on practice was the least common activity reported by the informants. The overall pattern of provided PD activities was quite comparable across countries, but there were a few differences. Overall, professionals from Greece reported the highest engagement in PD activities, whereas professionals from Portugal reported the lowest engagement. In England, Norway, and the Netherlands professionals reported being involved in regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting their work as frequently as discussing individual children, whereas all other countries mostly focused on evaluating individual children.

Professionals from England also more frequently engaged in exchange and reflection with professionals outside of their own organisation.

Professionals also listed a top three of PD activities that they valued the most, which appeared to be in line with the actual participation in PD. The most valued activities included discussing individual children who need extra care, reflecting upon the educational and pedagogical practice, and reflection and exchange with colleagues. Professionals were asked to indicate which features of the top three PD activities made these activities effective. Concerning the content of the PD activities, professionals valued a focus on skills, followed by knowledge. Attention for beliefs and attitudes was valued the least. There was quite some consensus concerning the combination of theory and practice as important for all PD activities. Also, the use of reflection as PD strategy was highly valued by professionals.

Furthermore, 74% of the professionals reported that they attended in-service training, conferences or workshops in the past two years. For the training they considered most valuable, professionals also listed information on delivery mode and duration. In 31% of the cases it concerned a one-off workshop or training, whereas in 41% of the cases the training lasted for a longer period of time, ranging from a couple of days (reported by the majority) to several weeks or months. Online courses or webinars were rare (only 3% listed this as example of valuable training). When comparing the countries, two patterns became evident. Professionals from the Czech Republic, England, Greece, France, and Poland mostly attended one-off workshops or conferences, whereas professionals from Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and Germany listed in-service training more often. Online courses or training were only mentioned in Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, and Norway. Regardless of the type of PD, it mostly concerned a team-based training (63%).

Lastly, differences between professionals working in different settings were investigated. Overall, the pattern of results is quite comparable between settings, but after-school professionals generally reported lower engagement in PD activities. Another difference concerns the fact that ECEC professionals more often use observation as a means to learn from one another, and to provide and receive feedback compared to professionals working in formal education and after-school care. In terms of what professionals value, it appeared that professionals working in formal education less often mentioned that regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting is an effective PD activity. Discussing individual children who need more care and observing colleagues to learn from them, on the other hand, appeared to be highly valued in formal education. Using reflection in practice was more often mentioned by professionals working in ECEC and after-school care.

CONCLUSIONS

The results highlight that more positive beliefs towards multiculturalism and multilingualism go hand in hand with more culturally sensitive practices and better parent-professional relationships. Although, the sometimes small and/or heterogeneous samples do not allow for generalization of the findings, there appeared some trends in the what professionals from different countries reported. The findings from England and to a lesser extent also Italy and Norway, seem to point

to, overall, more culturally sensitive practices in this regard. Interestingly, professionals from the Netherlands and Norway also evaluated their working conditions and their own competences the most favourable. Although, professionals attached the least value to a focus on attitudes and beliefs in PD activities, the positive relations between reported beliefs and practices might suggest that an emphasis on beliefs could be an important addition in PD.

Further, the results show that ECEC professionals tend to have more positive views on multilingualism and to have corresponding policies in place more often at the organizational level. However, there appeared no differences in diversity practices between the professionals working in the various settings. Moreover, ECEC professionals reported better relations with parents and were able to discuss a broader variety of topics with them, including the child's behaviour and development as well as the child's home situation and support for parents. Interestingly, ECEC professionals also reported better work conditions and less need for support in comparison to professionals working in formal education. Although, the differences in engagement in PD activities between professionals were small, ECEC professionals indicated more emphasis on reflection and use of observation to learn from one another in comparison to professionals working in formal education.

AIMS OF THE STAFF SURVEY

In line with the Call *REV-INEQUAL-06-2016*, the research strategy of ISOTIS to address the challenge of reducing inequality and discrimination in European education is twofold. First, to analyse institutional, cultural and ideological mechanisms underlying inequality and discrimination, ISOTIS focuses specifically on the socio-economic and ethnic-cultural dimensions of inequality, which pertain to low-income native groups, major immigrant groups and the Roma (Description of Action [DoA], p.3). Focusing on these groups is especially relevant in view of current intercultural and interethnic tensions, increasing polarization and persistent segregation in many European countries that can be regarded as a major threat to inclusion and equity. In the DoA, ISOTIS stipulates, based on an extensive literature review, that "(…) in the context of increasing diversity, the social mobility of children of disadvantaged families not only depends on educational achievement, but also on social and cultural integration (…) integration and acculturation is an issue for native communities as much as it is for immigrant communities. There are tensions reflecting rivalry between groups, lack of inter-cultural contact and decreasing support for multicultural integration, undermining social cohesion." (DoA, p.4). Second, to identify inclusive approaches to professional development ISOTIS adopts a broader orientation on several types of diversity and inequality as may commonly occur in classrooms and neighbourhoods. ISOTIS does not explicitly address the issue of race or colour, as in many European countries these dimensions are not part of the local or national policy discourses. Yet, awareness of the role race and colour may play is especially apparent in the ISOTIS studies among Roma families, whereas discrimination based on ethnicity and/or low socioeconomic status is a key topic in all interviews

The selection of countries for the WP5 staff survey, in line with the other inventories and case studies in ISOTIS, is based on two considerations. First, countries were selected to represent relevant variation in national income level, structure of the education, welfare and support systems, and representation of the main target groups of ISOTIS. The selections included always countries from the wealthy Northwest, post-communist countries from the East, and less wealthy countries from the South of Europe. Second, within the limits of the budget and in order to distribute the workload for the country teams evenly, while taking the expertise and capacity of the teams into account, not all countries could be involved in all tasks.

The staff survey was intended to be connected to the parent study carried out in WP2 (see T2.3, conducting the structured personal parent interview in DoA, p.34). For that reason, the basic strategy was to collect data in the same sites that were part of the WP2 interview studies, with the goal to involve 25 to 50 professionals per site per country, resulting in a desired sample size of 425 to 850. The main criterion was that the chosen centres/organizations worked with the target groups as specified in the DoA of the ISOTIS project: low income native-born, cultural minority with Turkish or Maghrebian immigration background, and Roma families. Two other criteria (also in line with the DoA) consider the inclusion of professionals working in different settings, including formal education settings and informal settings (such as child care or social work), and the inclusion of different types of professionals, including practitioners working directly with children (such as caregivers and teachers) and specialists, managers, and social workers.

As indicated in the DoA, the goal of the staff survey was to gain up-to-date information on attitudes of staff, curriculum and pedagogy issues related to diversity and inclusiveness, and staff support needs, as well as organizational aspects. Each of these topics will be explored in the next chapters. Chapter 2 focusses on cultural and linguistic beliefs, practices, and policy. We will present the results concerning professionals' attitudes, beliefs, and practices regarding diversity and inclusiveness. In addition, we will discuss the diversity policies at the level of the wider organisation. Chapter 3 focusses on the relationship with parents and other stakeholders. We will present the results on professionals' view on their relationship with parents, as well as the content and frequency of their contact with parents. We will review the communication with parents from an organizational point of view as well. In addition, we will also shortly discuss professionals' collaboration with other organisations and the wider community. A more elaborated analysis of the results on interagency coordination and collaboration will be part of the integrative report of WP6 (see T6.4, integrative analysis of WP2, WP5, and WP6 data in DoA, p.46). Chapter 4 will focus on staff and their work environment. We will evaluate staff's job satisfaction, appreciation of the organizational climate, experienced self-efficacy and support needs, as well as their engagement in professional development activities. Each chapter will start with a brief theoretical framework to introduce the core subjects and justify their relevance and will end with a short summary to highlight the most important results. These short summaries will be integrated in Chapter 5 when we present the overall conclusions. Lastly, we will make several recommendations for practice and policy.

1.   ISOTIS STAFF SURVEY

This chapter will provide an overview of the goals, topics, methods, procedures, sample, and analysis strategies of the staff survey. First, we will shortly discuss the goals of the inventory (Section 1.1). Second, we will introduce the methods and procedures in which we address the sampling strategies in the different countries, present some descriptive statistics of the sample, and briefly describe the chosen strategies for data analysis (Section 1.2).

1.1.   INTRODUCTION

The conceptual framework introduced in Report 5.2 (Slot, Romijn, & Wysłowska, 2017) has guided the work in this task, see Figure 1.1. At the core, this model shows how professionals' everyday behaviour and practices is shaped by their knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, and expectations. Chapters 2 reports on professionals' beliefs and practices concerning cultural and linguistic diversity. Chapter 3, then, will elaborate on professionals' beliefs and practices in the relationship with parents. The outer circles represent the aspects of the organizational context, work environment and aspects of professional development activities, which will be addressed in Chapter 4. A more elaborate literature review on the different topics will be provided in the respective chapters.
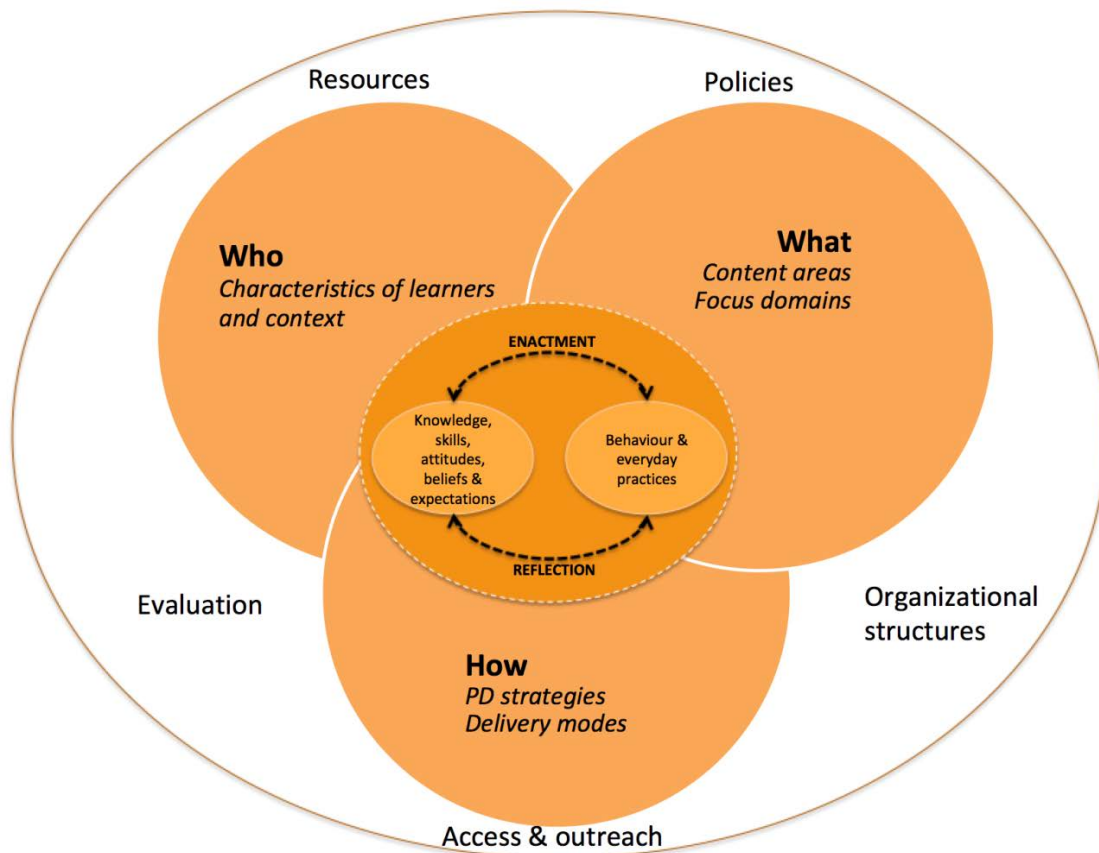

Figure 1.1. Conceptual model of professional development.

1.2.　METHODS AND PROCEDURES

As a first step in constructing the questionnaire, we collected existing survey items and scales from previous research while seeking maximal alignment with the WP2 parent questionnaire (Broekhuizen, Ereky-Stevens, Wolf, & Moser, 2018). Existing scales were adapted and combined, resulting in a draft questionnaire that captured all goals as listed in the DoA. After a small pilot of the questionnaire, questions and scales were once again adapted, which resulted in a final set of questions that could be answered in approximately 30-45 minutes. The English version of the questionnaire was used to prepare an online version of the questionnaire using the software program LimeSurvey, which is supported by Utrecht University. After creating the English prototype, the translations from the nine other languages were copied into the program. This resulted in ten language-specific, though structurally identical, versions of the online questionnaire. These national versions were checked and piloted in each country by the national partners and their networks.

Although the ten language-specific versions of the questionnaire were structurally identical, we adopted some country specific questions to maximize the alignment with the national country context. To do justice to national differences in education systems and professions, professionals were asked to classify their profession and organisation according to their own national education system. If professionals held more than one profession, or worked for multiple organisations, they were asked to base their answers on their most prominent profession within the organisation that was recruited to fill out the survey. To be able to compare the different types of organisations and professions, we recoded the country specific organisations and professions into overarching categories. In total, four different types of settings were constructed. *Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC)* (a) can be classified as professionals working with children in early childhood and consist of child care organisations, nurseries, preschools, and kindergarten[1]. *Formal education* (b) consists of professionals working in primary schools or secondary schools. *After-school care* (c) entails all professionals working in organisations that provide school children with care and activities before or after school hours. Lastly, the *social work sector* (d) entails all organisations that are involved in more community-oriented work, such as community centres, social broker organisations, health and youth care organisations, volunteering programs or philanthropic organisations, and non-governmental organisations (NGO's).

A similar approach was used to classify different kinds of professions. *Teachers* (a) are all professionals that work directly with (groups of) children in an educational or caregiving setting, such as day caregivers, pre- and primary school teachers, and teacher assistants. *Specialists* (b) are professionals with a specific specialized task within the educational or caregiving setting, such as language teachers, remedial teachers, psychologists, pedagogues, specialized coordinators, and coaches. *Managers* (c) are all professionals that are in charge of leading a team or organisation, such as head teachers, principals, team leaders, (assistant) managers, and team or school coordinators. Lastly, *social and family workers*, are all professionals working in the earlier defined social work sector that are not listed as teachers, specialists, or managers. This entails professions such as social or community worker, social or cultural broker, mediator or

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[1] Dutch professionals working in kindergarten were included in the formal schooling sector, as kindergarten is a part of primary school in the Dutch school system.

liaison worker, youth workers, and volunteers (only working in the social work sector; volunteers in ECEC, formal education, and after-school care are excluded in this category).

Besides the differences in settings and professions, we allowed for two more differentiations in the structure of the questionnaire. First, as the Roma population is a specific target group of ISOTIS, but only in the Czech Republic, Greece, and Portugal, professionals from these three countries were specifically asked for the level of diversity of their context in terms of the percentage of Romani families or children. Professionals from the other seven countries were not provided with this question. Second, professionals that could be classified as managers were provided with a different version of the questionnaire compared to all other types of professionals. These questions more often concerned their tasks as managers, the policy of the organisation, and their supportive attitude towards their staff, in contrast to the questions for all other professionals that were more focused on their practices, contacts with parents, and their own professional needs.

A last note on the method and procedures concerns the exclusion of participants within the different analyses. The recruitment of participants via an open source internet-based survey is less controlled and partially based on self-selection within all stakeholder groups (see next section for a more elaborated description of sampling and recruitment). In addition, we decided to program all questions as voluntary to answer (except some questions at the beginning of the questionnaire that were necessary for accurate routing, such as country and type of profession or organisation) to provide all professionals with the freedom to not answer any questions they do not know the answer to or they do not wish to answer. As a result, though, the dataset contains a proportion of missing data resulting in slightly different sample sizes for some questions. Therefore, sample sizes are reported for every question and analysis separately. In addition, we decided to only include participants in the final sample that at least answered one set of questions (scale) in addition to the necessary routing questions.

1.2.1. SAMPLING AND RECRUITMENT

Overall, all countries recruited professionals in the same sites as in WP2 with some exceptions. For Germany it appeared extremely difficult to recruit staff in the second site, thus the data collection was limited to one site only. For some other countries it appeared hard to reach the required sample size within the two chosen sites, hence additional sites were added (with similar target groups). In general, two different recruitment strategies were used: a targeted approach including focused and targeted recruitment of centres using personal contact and a broader approach involving contacting a director in charge of multiple centres/schools for participation, which reflects differences in the customs of a country. Following the first strategy, direct contact was established with a small number of centres/schools to recruit them for participation in the staff survey. This approach was used by the Czech Republic, England, France, Italy, the Netherlands, and Poland. This resulted in estimated response rates ranging from 52% (Italy and England), 74% (the Netherlands), 83% (the Czech Republic) to 100% (Poland) of the approached centres/schools. The second strategy concerned approaching an overarching organisation or school board to recruit centres/schools, which was applied in Germany, Greece, Portugal, and in one site in Poland. This procedure in general meant that a (school) director was approached with

the request to forward the information and survey link to the staff. Although personal contact was also established for at least part of the approached centres/schools in most cases, this approach resulted in overall higher numbers of non-response and/or a wider inclusion of sites. The estimated response was 43% for Greece, 22% for Norway, 28% for Portugal[2].

1.2.2. SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

With an overall sample size of *N* = 1058 professionals, most countries managed to achieve the desired sample size. Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 provide an overview of the number of participants per country split for the different settings and professions. The vast majority of professionals worked in ECEC or formal education. One exception is Germany, where the majority worked in after-school care. The other exception concerns France and Portugal where the majority comes from social work organizations. For the majority of countries, except France and Norway, the group of teachers/caregivers was the most strongly represented profession in the current sample. For France, the number of social workers was the highest, whereas for Norway this concerned managers. The Netherlands had a relatively high number of specialists in comparison to other countries.

Overall, the final sample represents relevant variation both within and across countries concerning the type of professionals and the settings these professionals work in (formal vs informal settings). However, given the differences in response rates, selection bias may occur, especially in countries with lower response rates.

Table 1.1
Number of Participants per Country per Setting

	N Total	*N* Sites	ECEC	Formal education	After-school care	Social work sector
01 CZ	56	2	5 (9%)	33 (59%)	0 (0%)	18 (32%)
02 EN	116	2	55 (47%)	44 (38%)	1 (1%)	16 (14%)
03 DE	68	1	9 (13%)	10 (15%)	49 (72%)	0 (0%)
04 EL	233	4	98 (42%)	116 (50%)	0 (0%)	8 (3%)
05 FR	41	3	11 (27%)	2 (5%)	2 (5%)	25 (61%)
06 IT	136	3	68 (50%)	65 (48%)	0 (0%)	2 (2%)
07 NL	99	2	45 (46%)	31 (31%)	6 (6%)	17 (17%)
08 NO	115	4	54 (47%)	45 (39%)	16 (14%)	0 (0%)
09 PL	101	3	58 (57%)	38 (38%)	5 (5%)	0 (0%)
10 PT	93	2	8 (9%)	33 (36%)	0 (0%)	39 (42%)
Total	1058	26	411 (39%)	417 (39%)	79 (7%)	125 (13%)

Note. For 26 professionals the type of setting was unknown.

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[2] The response could not be computed for Germany, because no id-numbers were used due to local ethical guidelines.

Table 1.2
Number of Participants per Country per Profession

	N Total	*N* Sites	Teachers	Specialists	Managers	Social and family worker
01 CZ	56	2	31 (57%)	2 (4%)	9 (16%)	12 (21%)
02 EN	116	2	86 (88%)	3 (3%)	14 (12%)	9 (8%)
03 DE	68	1	57 (84%)	1 (1%)	8 (12%)	1 (1%)
04 EL	233	4	150 (74%)	15 (7%)	34 (17%)	2 (2%)
05 FR	41	3	10 (29%)	4 (12%)	7 (21%)	13 (38%)
06 IT	136	3	125 (94%)	4 (3%)	3 (2%)	1 (1%)
07 NL	99	2	50 (53%)	23 (25%)	17 (18%)	4 (4%)
08 NO	115	4	45 (40%)	10 (9%)	53 (47%)	4 (4%)
09 PL	101	3	92 (91%)	3 (3%)	6 (6%)	0 (0%)
10 PT	93	2	50 (57%)	14 (15%)	10 (11%)	14 (16%)
Total	1058	26	696 (70%)	75 (8%)	161 (16%)	61 (6%)

Note. For 61 professionals the type of profession was unknown.

1.2.2.1. DIVERSITY OF CONTEXT

Staff reported about the diversity of the context they worked in, which showed that the majority of professionals indeed worked with highly diverse populations (see Table 1.3). The numbers reflect the percentages that were given most often by professionals across the sites (the mode scores). The Roma population was only targeted in the Czech Republic, Greece, and Portugal. The average level of diversity ranged from non-existent to 100%, but there appeared some country differences. The overall levels of diversity were higher in the Czech Republic, England, France, Italy, the Netherlands, and Norway where the average diversity level was around 50%, whereas for Germany, Greece, Poland, and Portugal this was around 25%. Table 1.3 further illustrates that some target groups were represented more in some countries than in others, but it also shows the confounding of different family background characteristics that may pose children at risk for optimal learning (e.g. low income and speaking another home language).

Table 1.3
Mode Scores of Representation of Different Target Groups as Reported by Professionals

	Cultural Diversity	Low-income Low-educated	Linguistic Diversity	Roma Population
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	75-100%	100%	0-50%	75-100%
02 England (EN)	50%	50%	50%	n.a.
03 Germany (DE)	25%	0-50%	25%	n.a.
04 Greece (EL)	25%	25-50%	0-25%	0-25%
05 France (FR)	75%	50-75%	50%	n.a.
06 Italy (IT)	75-100%	25-75%	25-75%	n.a.
07 The Netherlands (NL)	75-100%	25-75%	50-75%	n.a.
08 Norway (NO)	50%	50-75%	25-50%	n.a.
09 Poland (PL)	0%	25%	0%	n.a.
10 Portugal (PT)	25-50%	50-100%	0%	0-50%

1.2.2.2. PROFESSIONALS' BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

Table 1.4 provides an overview of several background characteristics such as sex, age, education level, and cultural, ethnic or language background. Regarding the sex of professionals, the vast majority of participants is female (70%), which is in line with the fact that more female professionals work in education and care settings. In France, the Netherlands, and Norway the percentage of participating male professionals is slightly higher compared to other countries. For Italy and Poland, the current sample almost exclusively consists of females. The overall mean age of professionals was $M = 42.97$, but given the large standard deviation ($SD = 11.10$), there is quite some variation. Professionals in Germany, Italy, and Norway were, on average, somewhat older compared to professionals from other countries, whereas professionals in England were noticeably younger.

For professionals' level of pre-service education, country specific education levels were recoded as International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels for comparability (UNESCO, 2011). The classification ranges from 0 (less than primary education) to 8 (doctoral or equivalent level). The majority of professionals (74%) is higher educated with an ISCED level of 6 (bachelor or equivalent level) or 7 (master or equivalent level). The average level of education seems a bit lower in the sample from Germany, Italy, and Portugal. Professionals from the Czech Republic and Poland reported the highest education levels with an average ISCED level above 6.

Lastly, the descriptive information on professionals' cultural, ethnic or language background is presented. The nationality percentage indicates how many professionals listed another nationality than the country they work in (either a single other nationality or a combination of nationalities) and/or were not born in the country they currently work in. The language percentage indicates how many professionals speak another language than the majority language at home (either one other language or a combination of languages). These percentages are the highest in England, France, and the Netherlands. The samples from Czech Republic, Italy, Poland, and Portugal hardly showed any diversity.

Table 1.4

Descriptive Statistics of Professionals' Personal Background per Country

	Sex		Age		ISCED		Background	
	Male	Female	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	%$_{nationality}$	%$_{language}$
01 CZ	5 (9%)	47 (84%)	40.20	11.48	6.38	1.29	1 (2%)	2 (4%)
02 EN	9 (8%)	81 (70%)	37.31	10.81	5.76	1.68	15 (13%)	10 (9%)
03 DE	6 (9%)	43 (63%)	47.15	9.75	5.46	1.15	5 (7%)	4 (6%)
04 EL	22 (9%)	156 (67%)	41.92	10.30	6.05	0.97	6 (3%)	1 (1%)
05 FR	12 (29%)	16 (39%)	41.96	10.23	5.89	1.29	9 (22%)	4 (10%)
06 IT	1 (1%)	109 (80%)	48.80	9.61	4.88	2.04	1 (1%)	0 (0%)
07 NL	12 (12%)	70 (71%)	42.12	12.36	6.02	1.10	14 (14%)	12 (12%)
08 NO	15 (13%)	67 (58%)	46.17	11.76	5.70	1.13	8 (7%)	7 (6%)
09 PL	1 (1%)	81 (80%)	40.53	9.68	6.21	1.47	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
10 PT	6 (7%)	67 (72%)	43.36	10.32	5.47	0.90	2 (2%)	0 (0%)
Total	89 (8%)	737 (70%)	42.97	11.10	5.77	1.42	61 (6%)	40 (4%)

Note. The percentages of sex do not add up to 100%, which reflects some missing data.

Besides these personal background characteristics, we were also interested in staff's professional background aspects, such as work experience, work hours and tasks. Table 1.5 provides an overview of these characteristics. Overall, the majority of professionals work full-time, which mostly reflects a work week of 5 days. A clear exception is the Netherlands, where the majority of professionals indicates to work part-time. Naturally, this is also reflected in the lower average of work hours per week and most frequently selected (mode) number of work days per week. Also in Greece, Italy, and Poland professionals reported working less than 30 hours a week, even though the majority of professionals works full-time. This could reflect country differences in what is considered a full-time position in these sectors. The average number of work hours are the highest in England and Norway. Lastly, the average work experience reflects the professional's total years of experience within the field of education, child care, and family services. Professionals from Germany, Italy, and Norway, reported more years of work experience, which seems in line with the results from Table 1.4 that show that the average age of professionals in these countries is somewhat higher as well.

Table 1.5

Descriptive Statistics of Professionals' Professional Background per Country

	Contract		Work week		Work hours		Experience	
	Full-time	Part-time	*Mode*	*Range*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
01 CZ	41 (73%)	12 (21%)	5 days	1 to 6	35.71	13.49	15.82	11.58
02 EN	80 (70%)	10 (9%)	5 days	3 to 7	38.56	8.40	12.53	9.53
03 DE	35 (52%)	13 (19%)	5 days	3 to 5	36.88	5.86	21.76	12.90
04 EL	160 (70%)	15 (6%)	5 days	1 to 7	27.14	9.84	16.35	9.82
05 FR	25 (61%)	3 (7%)	5 days	4 to 7	37.86	5.76	15.11	9.80
06 IT	103 (76%)	5 (4%)	5 days	3 to 7	28.19	7.92	22.50	12.53
07 NL	23 (23%)	59 (60%)	4 days	2 to 6	29.72	7.23	16.16	10.90
08 NO	74 (64%)	9 (8%)	5 days	3 to 7	39.54	5.43	20.09	11.25
09 PL	76 (75%)	6 (6%)	5 days	2 to 6	29.55	11.79	12.05	10.20
10 PT	71 (76%)	0 (0%)	5 days	5 to 7	35.56	6.24	17.04	11.81
Total	688 (65%)	132 (13%)	5 days	1 to 7	32.52	9.93	16.94	11.40

Note. The percentages of contract do not add up to 100%, which reflects some missing data.

Professionals were allowed to indicate more than one profession or organisation they work in (though professionals were asked to fill out the questionnaire based on their most prominent profession and the organisation that was recruited for the study). The vast majority of professionals (95%) indicated that they work in a single organisation. In total, 57 (5%) professionals selected two or three organisations. This mostly applied to professionals from Germany, where 27% of the professionals works for more than one organisation (compared to 1-10% for other countries). This most often concerned a combination of primary schools and after-school care settings. Furthermore, the majority of professionals (93%) indicated they practice a single profession. In total, 79 (7%) professionals indicated they have two to four different professions. No clear differences appeared between countries.

Lastly, since the work responsibilities of managers are likely to show greater variance between organisations (both within and between countries) in comparison to, for instance, the responsibilities of teachers, we asked managers to list their job responsibilities. Managers were asked to rate to what extent several tasks were applicable in their situation on a scale ranging from *absolutely not applicable* (1), *not applicable* (2), *somewhat applicable* (3), *applicable* (4), to *strongly applicable* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 1.6.

Table 1.6
Overview of All Manager Tasks Items

38A	Carrying out household matters, such as buying food or materials
38B	Implementation of the pedagogical policy of the organisation (e.g. planning of curriculum or activities)
38C	Organisation of professional development and additional training of staff (e.g. courses or coaching)
38D	Responsibility for Human Resources (e.g. hiring of staff)
38E	Planning and administration (e.g. placement of children and/or scheduling staff)
38F	Communication and contact with parents (e.g. newsletter, website or meetings)
38G	Contact with other, local organisations (e.g. library, welfare organisations)
38H	Counselling staff
38I	Mentoring/coaching staff

Figure 1.2 shows the tasks of managers per country. The full range for every item is used, which indicates, together with large standard deviations, that there is a lot of variation in tasks of managers. Nevertheless, with averages of around 4 for most tasks, managers indicated that these tasks were applicable in their situation. The variation between countries is the largest for item 38A (carrying out household matters) and item 39D (responsibility for human resources).
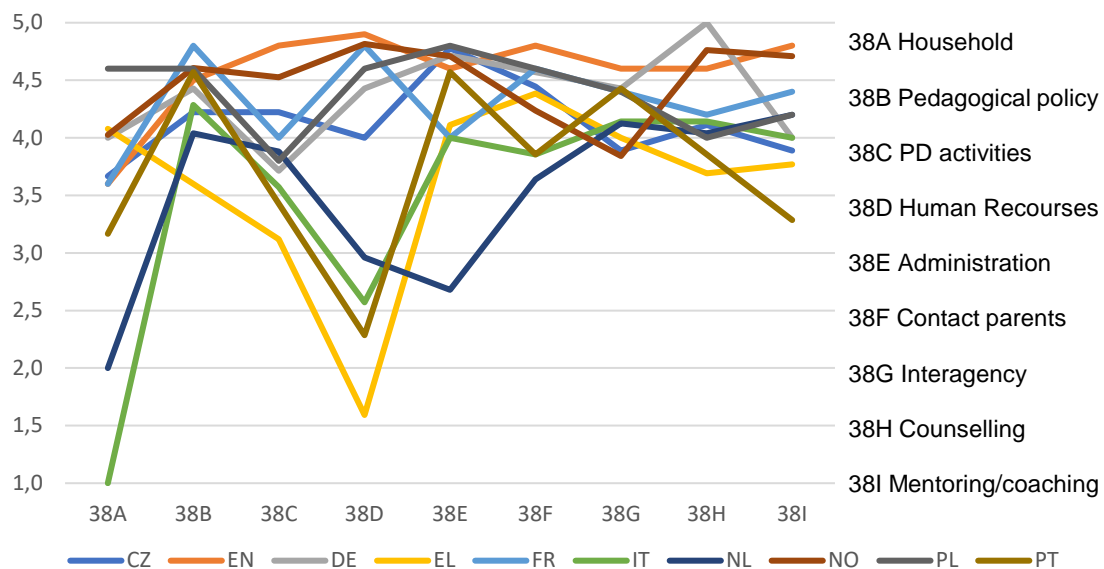

Figure 1.2. Manager tasks per country.

1.2.3. ANALYSIS PLAN

As will become clear within the next three chapters, the survey entailed several different constructs measured by a variety of items and scales. In addition, the sample sizes differ between questions due to both missing data as well as the fact that managers were routed to answer different kinds of questions compared to other types of professionals. Therefore, a variety of analyses was used to analyse the different constructs and the analytical strategies will be addressed in each chapter separately. Overall, the analysis consisted of several steps. First, descriptive statistics were checked for all items. Second, if items were designed to represent a specific construct (i.e. a scale of which an average of items would be considered a meaningful score for interpretation) the internal consistency of the scale was investigated. Depending on (among others) the sample size, we used the results from calculated Cronbach's alpha's, exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) in SPSS and Mplus to reach the most optimal grouping of items.

Third, we used two different strategies when comparing countries, settings, and professions. Due to the nature of the question and the sample size, we used a more descriptive approach for several questions. Differences between countries, settings, and professions for these questions are therefore mainly presented via figures. The other strategy consisted of checking measurement invariance between the different countries, settings, and professions, to see whether different groups could be reliably compared based on their mean scores. Depending on the construct, both the alignment method (Muthén & Asparouhov, 2014) as well as a multigroup CFA (Van de Schoot, Lugtig, & Hox, 2012) in Mplus were used to evaluate measurement invariance. For questions that were answered only by managers, thus reflecting smaller sample sizes, only the internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) were used to judge whether a comparison between groups was possible.

Lastly, if countries, settings, and professions could be compared based on their mean scores, univariate and multivariate tests of variance were used to investigate whether differences between groups were significant. These tests were performed on the exported factor scores from the multigroup CFA models. However, to enhance the interpretability of the differences, the effect coding method was used to rescale the items into the original scale (Little, Slegers, & Card, 2006; Brown, 2014) for some constructs. This method places certain model constraints so that for a given construct the set of indicator intercepts sum to an average of zero and the set of factor loadings to an average of one. In this way, "the variance of the latent variables reflects the average of the indicators' variances explained by the construct, and the mean of the latent variable is the optimally weighted average of the means for the indicators of that construct" (Brown, 2014, p. 234).

2.   CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC BELIEFS, PRACTICES, AND POLICY

As discussed in Report 5.2 (Slot et al., 2017b) previous research shows inconsistent evidence concerning the attitudes professionals have towards cultural and linguistic diversity. Particularly, the findings regarding cultural diversity are mixed. Some studies have shown that teachers are neutral or slightly positive towards cultural diversity in the classroom (e.g. Sanders & Downer, 2012; Youngs & Youngs, 2001), whereas other studies showed that teachers were rather negative (e.g. DeCastro-Ambrosetti & Cho, 2005). Other studies have looked more specifically at the beliefs held by teachers and distinguished between 'colour-blind' or egalitarian and multicultural beliefs (Hachfeld, Hahn, Schroeder, Anders, & Kunter, 2015). Although both types of beliefs included a basic acceptance of cultural diversity, the colour-blind beliefs concern treating everyone equally, whereas the multicultural beliefs more strongly emphasize the positive and added value of diversity. Some studies have shown that teachers with a majority background endorsed colour-blind beliefs (e.g. Van Tartwijk, Den Brok, Veldman, & Wubbels, 2009), whereas a German study showed a balance between the two types of beliefs (Hachfeld et al., 2015).

The evidence concerning linguistic diversity is more consistent and generally shows a preference for a strong assimilation approach (Blom, 2015; Sakka, 2010; Van Gorp & Moons, 2014; Vetter, 2013; Young, 2014) disregarding the importance of the first language for identity development and as a basis for second language learning (Cummins, Mirza, & Stille, 2012). For instance, some studies showed strong (school) regulations focusing on speaking only the majority language in countries, such as in Belgium and Austria (Van Gorp & Moons, 2014; Vetter, 2013). However, some studies have illustrated that teachers see the benefits of the first language in building self-esteem and in learning the second language. For instance, Spanish teachers appeared to be more accepting towards children using their first language during social and free time, such as on the playground (Dooly, 2005). However, these teachers also mentioned the risk of interference of the first language in second language learning and pointed to the risk of conflicts or isolation of children if they use their first language. Further, it appeared Spanish teachers' views were more positive for using the Catalan language compared to the use of Arabic.

Providing a culturally sensitive (pre)school environment and using non-discriminatory materials in the classroom provides a basis for promoting inclusiveness. This goes beyond the incidental projects on multiculturalism or International Day (Lee & Oxelson, 2006) and involves the use of the environment and materials as inherently part of a culturally sensitive curriculum. Few studies to date have investigated these types of aspects in (pre)school classrooms. For instance, Perlman, Kankesan, and Zhang (2010) showed that Toronto preschool classrooms provided moderate levels of diversity acceptance, which was evident in the implementation and display of diversity-promoting curriculum activities and classroom materials. However, the acceptance of diversity in preschool and kindergarten centres in Greece, England and the United States was, on average, low as illustrated by observations with commonly used measures such as the ECERS-R and ECERS-E (Denny, Hallam, & Homer, 2012; Gregoriadis, Tsigilis, Grammatikopoulos, & Kouli, 2016; Sylva et al., 2006). Another study showed that some teachers incorporated practices like sharing language and culture in the classroom, explicitly supporting and encouraging children's multilingualism both in the classroom and at home (Lee & Oxelson, 2006).

Several studies have shown the relations between beliefs and actual behaviour, supporting the importance of focusing on beliefs (La Paro et al., 2009; McMullen et al., 2005; Pianta et al., 2005; Stipek & Byler, 1997) and in mediating the relations between knowledge and attitudes on the one hand and practices on the other (Wilkins, 2008). Professionals' attitudes have also shown to be directly related to actual behaviour (Wilkins, 2008).

The literature review is mostly based on studies conducted in (pre)school, but for the current study we developed items on beliefs and practices that were general enough to apply to a wider range of professionals. Given some of the inconsistent research findings concerning views on multiculturalism, multilingualism, and assimilation, we included a variety of items aimed to capture this continuum on both the cultural and linguistic dimension. Further, we questioned all professionals on their beliefs and, in addition, we asked professionals working directly with children to report on their practices as well. For managers, we included questions on the organizational policy concerning diversity to complete the picture. This will allow for investigating the relations between beliefs on the one hand and practices or policies on the other hand.

2.1. METHOD

In this chapter we focus on professionals' beliefs, practices, and organizational policy related to aspects of cultural and linguistic diversity. The items in the questionnaire were developed to capture a range of beliefs on the spectrum from multiculturalism or multilingualism to a stronger orientation on assimilation. Since different types of professionals were included in the sample, a selection was made in the questions they were asked to answer. The more general 'beliefs' scales were filled out by all professionals, whereas the 'practices' scale was only filled out by professionals who indicated that they worked with a group of children (e.g. in preschool). The 'organizational policy' scale was only filled out by professionals who were identified as 'managers'. However, there were some differences in how countries applied this in their country, most likely also reflecting differences in duties and responsibilities. For instance, in the Netherlands most 'specialists' (e.g. pedagogues) filled out the manager version as they usually have a say in the organizational policy as well, whereas in Norway it made more sense to have them fill out the regular version as these professionals were not considered to have influence on the organizational policy.

2.1.1. ANALYSIS

The overall approach consisted of checking the internal consistency of each scale and using the results from factor analyses to reach the most optimal grouping of items. For scales that measure beliefs, attitudes, or practices that may be subject to differences in interpretation we investigated measurement invariance across countries and across populations (teachers, specialists, managers/directors and social workers). The different approaches of analysis and their rationale are addressed accordingly in the following subsections.

2.2. RESULTS

The results of this chapter are presented in the following sections. First, we will describe the overall core subjects of this chapter (*diversity beliefs, diversity practices*, *diversity policy*) and investigate whether differences between countries exist (see Section 2.2.1). Second, we will investigate the same subjects from a profession and organisation perspective (see Section 2.2.2), by comparing different kinds of professions (*teachers, specialists, managers*, and *social and family workers*) and the settings they work in (*ECEC, formal education, after-school-care*, and *social work sector*). Lastly, we will highlight some relations between the core subjects (see Section 2.2.3) and provide some information on the variance within sites and countries (see Section 2.2.4).

2.2.1. COUNTRY COMPARISON

In the following paragraphs, we will provide an overview of the general results of our core subjects, as well as a comparison between the ten participating countries. A mix of figures and tables is used to present the results in a structured, yet comprehensive, way.

2.2.1.1. DIVERSITY BELIEFS

A first subject in investigating diversity and inclusiveness considers professionals' beliefs regarding cultural diversity, inclusiveness, and multilingualism. In total, there were fourteen items aimed to measure professionals' beliefs. Professionals were asked to what extent they agree with the statements on a scale ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly disagree* (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Overview of All Beliefs Items

13A	It is important that professionals are sensitive to the differences between children from different backgrounds
13B	It is important for children to learn that people from other cultures can have different ideas about what is important to them
13C	It is important that children from different countries and cultures see in which ways they are all similar
13D	There is no need to be sensitive to differences based on children's backgrounds, as all children are equal
13E	It is important for children to learn to respect other cultures as early as possible
13F	It is important that children from other cultural backgrounds use as much as possible from the [British] culture and way of living.
13G	It is important that children from other cultural backgrounds have friends with a [British] background
14A	Child care and educational settings (e.g. schools, libraries, day care) should also include materials (e.g. books, videos) in the different home languages of the children
14B	It is important that children with home languages other than [English] develop a higher level of skills in the [English] language than their home language
14C	It would be good if children with home languages other than [English] used their home language often (both inside and outside of school)

14D	Children with home languages other than [English] should be allowed to speak their home language to each other at (pre)-school
14E	Children with home languages other than [English] will learn to speak [English] less quickly if they speak their home language in school
14F	Children with home languages other than [English] should be offered the opportunity to learn their home language in school
14G	The most important cause of academic failure of children with home languages other than [English] is their insufficient proficiency in [English]

The items presented in Table 2.1 aimed to evaluate two theoretical constructs: multicultural and multilingual beliefs. First, the most optimal set of items was chosen based on the internal consistency of both scales for the total sample of professionals across countries and for each country separately. The Multicultural beliefs construct included items 13A, 13B, 13C, 13E and 13G and showed an adequate Cronbach's alpha's (α = .66) across countries and for each country separately (ranging from α_{NO}.61 to $\alpha_{CZ=}$.85) except for England, the Netherlands and Portugal, which showed lower alphas (around .38). Thus, the results for these three countries need to be interpreted with caution. Multilingual beliefs consisted of the items: 14A, 14C, 14D and 14F and also showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha's across countries (α = .73) and within countries (ranging from α_{NL} = .67 to α_{CZ} = .80), except for France (α =. 35). Therefore, the results for France need to be interpreted with caution. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with both constructs revealed overall good model fit, χ^2 (26) = 63,13, p < .001, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .96, SRMR = .03, which explained approximately 51% of the variance. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 2.2.
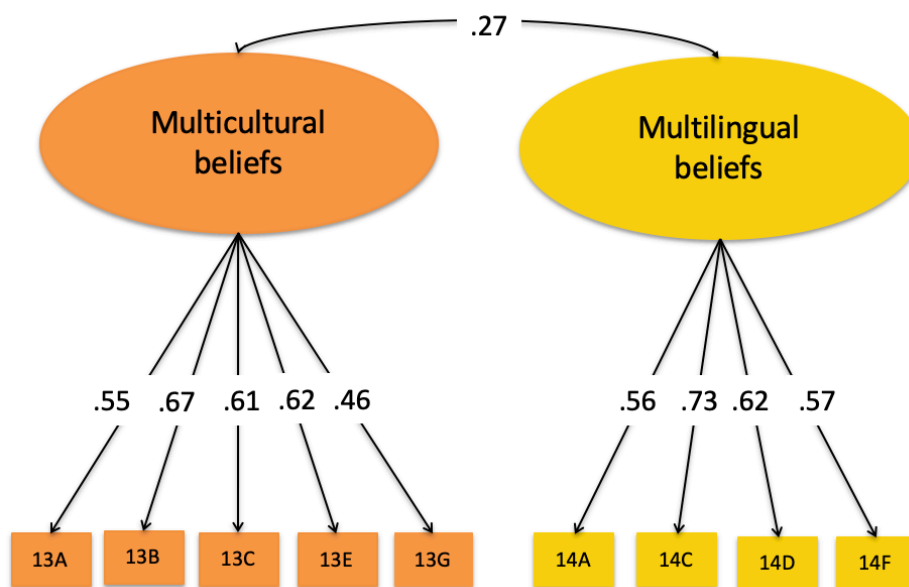

Figure 2.1. Conceptual model for professionals' beliefs.

Table 2.2

Descriptive Statistics of All Beliefs Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Λ
13A Sensitive for differences	1010	4.65	0.75	1.00	5.00	.55
13B Learning about different ideas	1015	4.73	0.60	1.00	5.00	.67
13C Seeing similarities	1011	4.67	0.70	1.00	5.00	.61
13E Respect other cultures	1017	4.84	0.52	1.00	5.00	.62
13G Having friends from dominant culture	1008	4.48	0.86	1.00	5.00	.46
14A Multilingual materials education settings	1002	3.99	1.18	1.00	5.00	.56
14C Use of L1 (inside and outside of school)	998	3.26	1.23	1.00	5.00	.73
14D Allow to speak L1 in school	1001	3.38	1.36	1.00	5.00	.62
14F Offer learning L1 in school	1000	3.23	1.36	1.00	5.00	.57

Figure 2.2 shows the standardized factor scores for the two beliefs scales. A multivariate test of variance showed there are significant differences concerning multicultural beliefs, $F(9,1010) = 5.83$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses reveal that professionals from Italy scored higher than professionals from Czech Republic, Germany, Greece and France. Professionals from Czech Republic scored comparatively the lowest on multicultural beliefs. Also, for multilingual beliefs differences were found, $F(9,1010) = 26,08$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses reveal that professionals in England showed higher scores compared to professionals from all other countries. Professionals from Czech Republic, Germany and the Netherlands scored comparatively lowest.
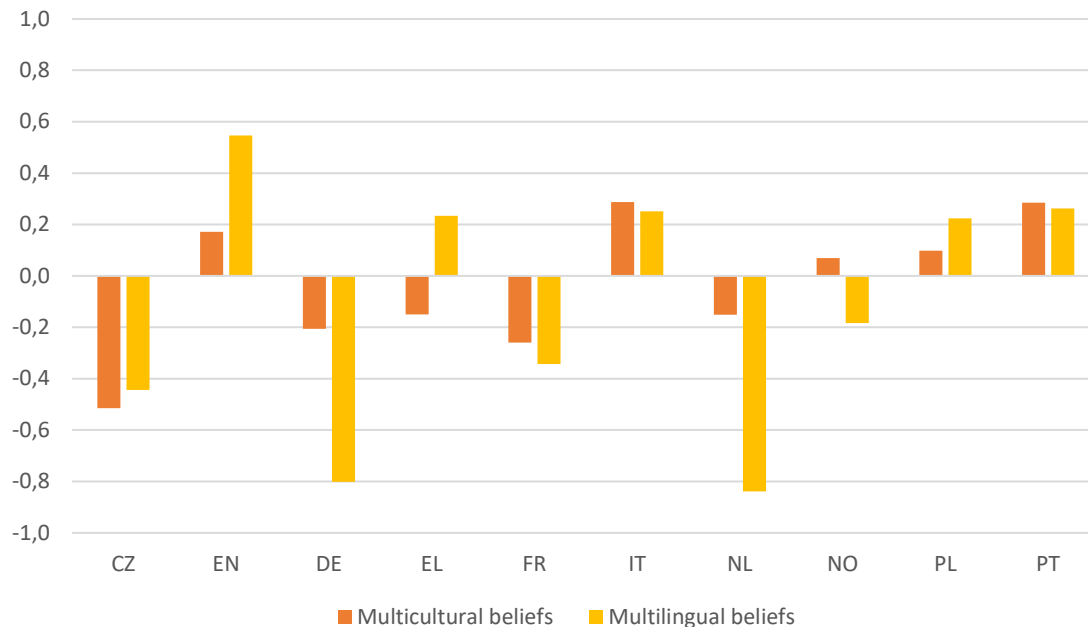

Figure 2.2. Standardized mean scores for professionals' beliefs per country.

The descriptive information on the two scales is presented in Table 2.3. The mean scores for multicultural beliefs are all between 4 and 5 (i.e. between *slightly agree* and *agree*) showing that professionals generally agree that this is important. Concerning multilingual beliefs, the mean

scores are generally between 3 and 4 (i.e. between *undecided* and *slightly agree*) and the variation both within and between countries is larger, suggesting less shared agreement about the importance of multilingualism support in the classroom.

Table 2.3
Descriptive Statistics of Beliefs per Country

		Multicultural beliefs				Multilingual beliefs			
	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	56	4.55	0.58	2.40	5.00	3.17	0.82	1.00	4.50
02 England (EN)	108	4.78	0.32	3.40	5.00	3.89	0.80	2.00	5.00
03 Germany (DE)	65	4.66	0.48	3.00	5.00	2.91	0.94	1.00	5.00
04 Greece (EL)	223	4.67	0.64	1.40	5.00	3.66	0.97	1.00	5.00
05 France (FR)	39	4.64	0.54	3.00	5.00	3.24	0.82	2.00	5.00
06 Italy (IT)	133	4.82	0.48	1.00	5.00	3.67	1.11	1.00	5.00
07 The Netherlands (NL)	95	4.67	0.42	3.40	5.00	2.88	1.06	1.00	4.75
08 Norway (NO)	112	4.75	0.37	3.20	5.00	3.36	1.11	1.00	5.00
09 Poland (PL)	98	4.76	0.39	3.40	5.00	3.65	0.84	2.00	5.00
10 Portugal (PT)	91	4.82	0.26	4.00	5.00	3.68	0.92	1.00	5.00

2.2.1.2. DIVERSITY PRACTICES

Secondly, we investigated professionals' diversity practices. All professionals who indicated they work directly with a group of children were provided with these questions. In total, there were twelve items aimed to measure professionals' diversity practices. Professionals were asked how often they applied certain practices on a scale ranging from *never* (1), *sometimes* (2), *regularly* (3), *often* (4), to *always* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4
Overview of All Diversity Practices Items

21A	I plan activities to celebrate diverse cultural holidays and practices
21B	I plan activities to increase children's knowledge about cultural experiences of different groups
21C	I integrate different cultural values into my work.
21D	I focus exclusively on activities that represent traditions in [British] society
21E	I ensure that our materials take into account diversity, such as different colours for drawing or painting hair, skin and eye colour
21F	I make an effort to communicate with parents with home languages other than [English] (e.g. use mediators and/or speak in their own language)
21G	I adapt my work to take into account the children's background
21H	I create a warm and inclusive environment for children from different backgrounds
21I	We take into account cultural and religious practices and desires towards nutrition if we provide food
21J	I examine whether our materials, such as books, pictures or dolls, reflect cultural diversity
21K	Our staff reflects the social and cultural diversity in society.
21L	We provide some information in different languages (e.g. information about the policy of the organisation)

To test whether the items presented in Table 2.4 form a reliable scale for measuring diversity practices, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS and Mplus in order to reach the most optimal grouping of items into subscales for the total sample of professionals across countries. Based on the calculated Cronbach's alpha per country and the results of the EFA, a one-factor model was chosen, excluding one item (21D "I focus exclusively on activities that represent traditions in [British] society") in the final scale. This scale showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha's for all countries (ranging from $\alpha_{FR} = .65$ to $\alpha_{CZ} = .88$) and an overall decent model fit using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), $\chi^2 (44) = 190.41$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .91, SRMR = .05, which explains approximately 42% of the variance. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5
Descriptive Statistics of All Diversity Practice Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Λ
21A Celebrate diverse holidays and practices	620	2.96	1.33	1.00	5.00	.65
21B Increase knowledge about different cultures	623	3.31	1.20	1.00	5.00	.70
21C Integrate different cultural values	611	3.56	1.13	1.00	5.00	.68
21E Diversity represented in materials	619	3.91	1.21	1.00	5.00	.56
21F Communicate with parents in their L1	619	3.41	1.41	1.00	5.00	.56
21G Adapt work to children's' backgrounds	616	3.35	1.23	1.00	5.00	.70
21H Create warm and inclusive environment	614	4.30	0.99	1.00	5.00	.51
21I Cultural/religious practices towards nutrition	608	4.02	1.32	1.00	5.00	.42
21J Examine materials for cultural diversity	617	3.28	1.27	1.00	5.00	.74
21K Staff reflects diversity in society	594	3.14	1.40	1.00	5.00	.41
21L Information in different languages	617	2.65	1.51	1.00	5.00	.58

The effect coding rescaling method was conducted to enhance the interpretability of the findings from the CFA, of which the means are displayed in Table 2.6 and Figure 2.3. The results show that professionals in England, on average, report to implement diversity practices *often*, whereas professionals in the Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, and Portugal implement these practices less frequently (i.e. between *regularly* and *often*). Professionals from Poland and France apply these practices even less frequently, between *sometimes* and *regularly*. Although there is substantial variation in all countries, it appears that the variation within countries is the smallest in England, Germany, the Netherlands, and Norway, suggesting more strongly shared practices across institutions within a country.

Table 2.6

Descriptive Statistics of Diversity Practices per Country

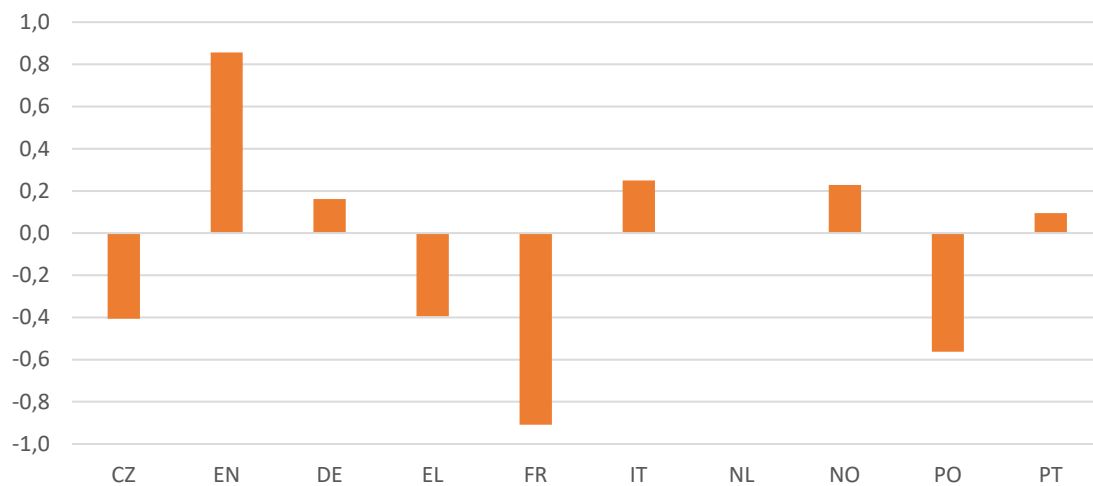|	N	M	SD	Min	Max
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	33	3.27	0.88	1.30	4.82
02 England (EN)	80	4.11	0.55	2.82	5.00
03 Germany (DE)	41	3.56	0.66	2.36	5.00
04 Greece (EL)	142	3.20	0.84	1.00	5.00
05 France (FR)	21	2.54	0.74	1.82	5.00
06 Italy (IT)	111	3.64	0.73	1.64	4.91
07 The Netherlands (NL)	52	3.44	0.61	1.82	4.55
08 Norway (NO)	48	3.63	0.53	2.64	4.91
09 Poland (PL)	54	3.11	0.87	1.00	5.00
10 Portugal (PT)	47	3.59	0.79	1.55	4.82

Figure 2.3. Standardized mean scores for diversity practices per country.

The results of the univariate test of variance using the exported factor loadings show that there are significant differences between countries in diversity practices, $F(9) = 18.17$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that professionals in England scored highest in comparison to professionals from all other countries. Professionals from Portugal and Italy also scored significantly higher than their counterparts from France, Greece, and Poland. Lastly, professionals in France scored lower than all other professionals (except Poland).

2.2.1.3. DIVERSITY POLICY

Lastly, the diversity policy of organisations was evaluated. In total, there were six items aimed to measure diversity policy. All professionals who filled out the manager version of the questionnaire were asked to report on the importance of diversity at the organizational policy level on a scale ranging from *not important at all* (1), *not important* (2), *neutral* (3), *important* (4), to *highly important* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7

Overview of All Diversity Policy Items

12A	The staff should reflect the social and ethnic diversity in society
12B	Cultural and religious practices and desires toward nutrition if we provide food should be taken into account
12C	Intercultural activities in our organisation (such as celebrating different cultural holidays) should be provided
12D	Whenever possible children and parents should be addressed in their home language.
12E	Information (e.g. information about the policy of the organisation) should be available in the main languages of the parents
12F	The materials provided should take into account diversity, such as different colours for drawing or painting hair, skin and eye colour

To test whether the items presented in Table 2.7 form a reliable scale for measuring diversity policy, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS and Mplus in order to reach the most optimal grouping of items into subscales for the total sample of professionals across countries. A one-factor model was chosen based on the calculated Cronbach's alpha per country and the results of the EFA. This scale showed an acceptable Cronbach's alpha (α = .74) and an overall decent model fit using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), χ^2 (9) = 18.55, p = .03, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .91, SRMR = .05, which explains approximately 40% of the variance. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8

Descriptive Statistics of All Diversity Policy Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Λ
12A Staff reflects diversity in society	178	3.60	0.92	1.00	5.00	.41
12B Cultural/religious practices toward nutrition	181	4.12	0.84	1.00	5.00	.49
12C Intercultural activities (e.g. holidays)	180	3.85	0.91	1.00	5.00	.51
12D Communicating with parents/children in L1	182	3.52	1.02	1.00	5.00	.50
12E Information in multiple languages	179	3.42	1.11	1.00	5.00	.72
12F Diversity represented in materials	181	4.06	0.80	1.00	5.00	.50

Since the sample size within countries is too small to evaluate measurement invariance, we investigated the internal consistency coefficients for each country separately, which appeared to be sufficient in all countries (see Table 2.9). Overall, the mean scores show that England and Norway score the highest in the importance that is attached to addressing diversity in the policy, whereas the Czech Republic, France, and Portugal score the lowest.

Table 2.9
Descriptive Statistics of Diversity Policy per Country

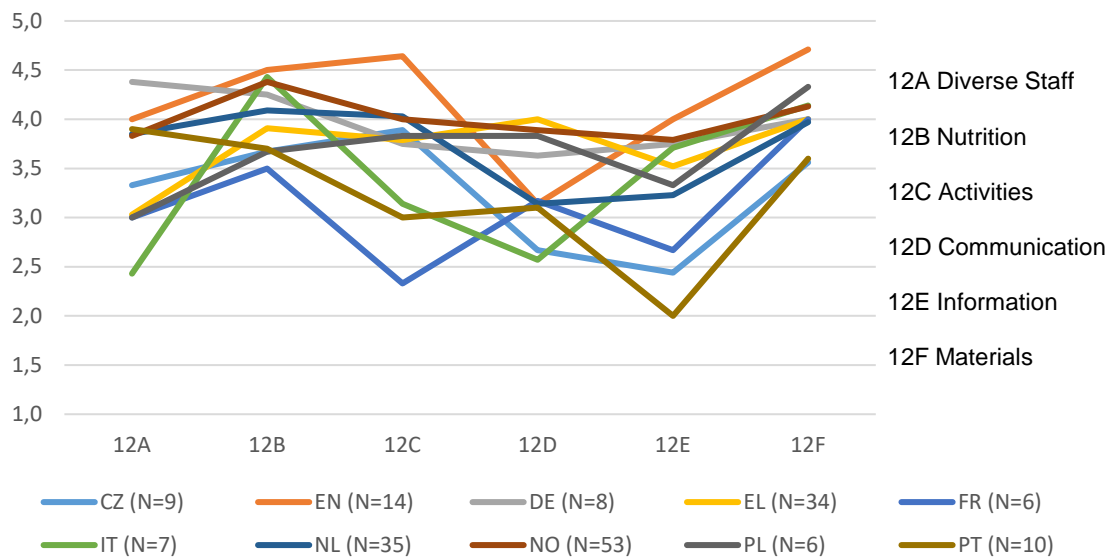|	N	M	SD	Min	Max	α
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	9	3.11	0.88	1.30	4.82	.87
02 England (EN)	14	4.17	0.49	3.00	4.67	.76
03 Germany (DE)	8	3.96	0.61	2.83	4.83	.76
04 Greece (EL)	34	3.73	0.47	3.00	4.83	.49
05 France (FR)	6	3.11	0.70	2.17	3.83	.62
06 Italy (IT)	7	3.40	0.94	2.17	4.50	.90
07 The Netherlands (NL)	35	3.72	0.51	2.83	4.67	.73
08 Norway (NO)	53	4.00	0.40	3.17	4.83	.51
09 Poland (PL)	6	3.67	0.55	2.67	4.17	.59
10 Portugal (PT)	10	3.22	0.58	2.17	4.17	.50

Figure 2.4. Mean scores per country for diversity policy per item.

Although, the Cronbach's alpha indicates that averages per country can be interpreted, the items were investigated separately to get a more detailed picture of the country differences (see Figure 2.4). The provision of intercultural activities and the extent to which materials are available in the main language of parents revealed the strongest differences between countries. Overall, managers from England scored the highest on most items, except on the items including the use of other languages than English (12D). Managers from France scored quite low overall, but scored slightly higher when it comes to the use of other language than French (12D). Interestingly, managers in Italy do not seem to support the importance of having a diverse staff (12A), despite the overall higher scores on other items of the scale. The item that focuses on taking into account the cultural and religious practices and desires toward nutrition (12B) appears to receive the most consensus across countries.

2.2.2. TYPE OF PROFESSIONAL AND SETTINGS THEY WORK IN

Besides a comparison between participating countries, we are also interested whether any differences exist between different types of professionals and the settings they work in. We will therefore compare our three core concepts of this chapter on setting (*ECEC, formal education, after-school care,* and *social work sector*) and profession (*teachers, specialists, managers*, and *social and family workers*) in this section. Due to the sampling procedure and the nature of the questionnaire, some constructs have already been split between managers and professionals (e.g. diversity practice and diversity policy) and are therefore only briefly mentioned in the following paragraphs.

2.2.2.1. DIVERSITY BELIEFS

Using the alignment method, the comparability of intercepts and factor loadings across settings and professions was investigated. The results of this analysis indicated that all factor loadings and intercepts were completely invariant across professions. For settings, all factor loading were completely invariant as well as 8 out of 9 intercepts. This confirms that these groups (settings and professions) can be compared on their mean scores. To enhance the interpretability of the findings, the effect coding rescaling method was conducted, of which the means are displayed in Table 2.10 and Table 2.11. As a final step, a multivariate test of variance on the exported factor loadings from the CFA multigroup model was carried out in order to investigate differences between settings and professions.

Table 2.10
Descriptive Statistics of Diversity Beliefs per Setting

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
Multicultural beliefs					
01 ECEC	393	4.78	0.52	1.00	5.00
02 Formal education	406	4.69	0.44	1.60	5.00
03 After-school care	77	4.68	0.42	3.00	5.00
04 Social work sector	119	4.69	0.37	3.20	5.00
Multilingual beliefs					
01 ECEC	390	3.70	0.95	1.00	5.00
02 Formal education	399	3.39	0.94	1.00	5.00
03 After-school care	75	2.77	0.88	1.00	4.75
04 Social work sector	118	3.37	0.93	1.00	5.00

The results show that there are significant differences between settings in multilingual beliefs, $F(3,991) = 47.20$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that professionals in ECEC scored significantly higher than professionals in all other settings, whereas professionals working in after-school care scored significantly lower compared to the other settings. No significant differences were found for multicultural beliefs.

Table 2.11

Descriptive Statistics of Diversity Beliefs per Profession

	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
Multicultural beliefs					
01 Teachers	671	4.66	0.52	1.00	5.00
02 Specialist	77	4.68	0.33	3.40	5.00
03 Managers	153	4.72	0.83	3.00	5.00
04 Social and family workers	60	4.74	0.36	3.20	5.00
Multilingual beliefs					
01 Teachers	663	3.44	0.95	1.00	5.00
02 Specialist	77	3.41	0.83	1.00	5.00
03 Managers	149	3.69	0.98	1.00	5.00
04 Social and family workers	59	3.42	0.91	1.50	5.00

A comparison between the four types of professionals revealed no differences for multicultural beliefs. However, there appeared significant differences regarding multilingual beliefs, $F(3,957) = 5.68$, $p = .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses showed that managers held the most positive multilingual beliefs in comparison to all other types of professionals.

Professionals were asked to estimate the level of diversity in their organisation (see sample description, Section 1.2.2.1). The average level of diversity ranged from non-existent to 100%, but there appeared some country differences. For the Czech Republic, England, France, Italy, the Netherlands, and Norway the average diversity level was around 50%, whereas for Germany, Greece, Poland, and Portugal this was around 25%. At the same time there was quite some variation in most countries. As the extent to which there is a necessity for addressing diversity might depend on the local context and the proportion of children from ethnic minority, low SES or other language background, we tested the differences between professionals' beliefs while controlling for the level of diversity in their work context. The described differences between settings and professions proved to be invariant to the actual level of diversity within the organisation.

2.2.2.2. DIVERSITY PRACTICES AND POLICY

A similar approach was used to assess differences in diversity practices and policies. As diversity practices and policies were measured separately for different types of professionals, only differences between settings were investigated (see Table 2.12). A multivariate test of variance revealed no significant differences in diversity practices. However, the results showed significant differences in diversity policy, $F(3,176) = 3.67$, $p = .01$, in which ECEC managers scored higher in comparison to the managers in the social work sector according to a LSD Post Hoc analysis.

Table 2.12

Descriptive Statistics of Diversity Beliefs per Setting

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
Diversity Practices					
01 ECEC	244	3.52	0.84	1.00	5.00
02 Formal education	287	3.45	0.81	1.00	5.00
03 After-school care	50	3.34	0.71	2.09	5.00
04 Social work sector	40	3.21	0.94	1.55	5.00
Diversity Policy					
01 ECEC	86	3.88	0.53	2.17	4.83
02 Formal education	63	3.71	0.65	1.67	4.83
03 After-school care	12	3.78	0.48	2.83	4.67
04 Social work sector	19	3.41	0.63	2.17	4.67

2.2.3. RELATIONS BETWEEN BELIEFS, PRACTICES, AND POLICY

Relations between professionals' beliefs and their practices were investigated only for professionals working directly with children (i.e. managers did not fill out the question on practices, but only the organizational policy question), whereas the relations between beliefs and the diversity policy in the organisation were evaluated for managers only. Table 2.13 presents the correlations between these core constructs and shows that there is a moderate positive relation between multicultural and multilingual. Both multicultural and multilingual beliefs showed small associations with self-reported diversity practices for professionals working with children directly. For the managers, similar relations between their multilingual beliefs and the organisation's diversity policy are evident, but no relations were found with their multicultural beliefs. Again, an investigation of the correlational pattern while controlling for differences in contextual diversity the professionals worked in, revealed highly similar results.

Table 2.13

Pearson Correlations Between Professionals' Beliefs, Practices, and Policy

	Multilingual beliefs	Diversity practices	Diversity policy
Multicultural beliefs	.34* (*N*=1020)	.17** (*N*=629)	.08 (*N*=172)
Multilingual beliefs		.23** (*N*=629)	.24* (*N*=168)

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

2.2.4. SHARED VARIANCE WITHIN SITES AND COUNTRIES

To evaluate the extent to which professionals' beliefs, practices, and organizational policy reflect common ideas or practices within sites and within countries, the intra-class-coefficients (ICC's) were calculated based on a three-level model (individual, site, country), see Table 2.14. The results show that the shared variance at the site level is generally low for the beliefs scales, but appears to be higher for the reported practices and policy scales. This may indicate that despite slight differences in beliefs, there may be a slightly stronger alignment at the actual practice level.

Table 2.14

Intra-class-coefficients at the Site and Country Level for Diversity Beliefs, Practice, and Policy

	ICC site level	ICC country level
Multicultural beliefs	.01	.05
Multilingual beliefs	.05	.08
Diversity practice	.07	.19
Diversity policy	.14	.12

2.3.   SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the results on professionals', beliefs, practices and organizational policy related to aspects of cultural and linguistic diversity. Factor analyses on the beliefs' items revealed two constructs that were comparable between countries. These constructs could be labelled as *multicultural beliefs* (which involved being sensitive, appreciative, and respectful towards cultural differences, while at the same time focusing on similarities and intercultural contact) and *multilingual beliefs* (which valued the use of the heritage language at home and at (pre)school and support for the development of the heritage language in (pre)school). Although, these two constructs could be distinguished across countries, the results showed less internal consistency for the latent construct 'multicultural beliefs' in some counties, suggesting a less homogeneous scale.

Overall, professionals scored higher on multicultural beliefs compared to multilingual beliefs. Although there appeared different patterns of results across countries. Professionals from Italy scored comparatively higher on multicultural and multilingual beliefs, whereas professionals from Czech Republic scored comparatively lower. Professionals from England showed the highest support for multilingualism, especially compared to professionals from Germany and the Netherlands.

Furthermore, differences in beliefs were investigated for professionals working in different settings (*ECEC, formal education, after-school care,* and *the social work sector*) and of different professions (*teachers, specialists, managers*, and *social and family workers*). Professionals working in ECEC reported the most positive beliefs on multilingualism, whereas professionals working in after-school care reported the most negative beliefs. Further, managers reported the most positive multilingual beliefs compared to other types of professionals. No significant differences were found between settings or professions for multicultural beliefs.

A second topic in this chapter concerned professionals' diversity practices. Factor analyses showed that the diversity practices items represented a single construct that was comparable between countries. This construct was labelled as *multicultural practices* and reflects the extent to which professionals take (cultural and linguistic) differences of children into account in their practices. For instance, by celebrating diverse holidays, creating inclusive environments, and using materials that represent diversity. A country comparison revealed that professionals in England rated their diversity practices the highest, whereas professionals in France scored the lowest. A comparison between professionals working different settings revealed no differences.

A third aspect, concerned the diversity policy at the wider organizational level in which managers were asked to indicate the importance of several diversity practices. Factor analyses showed that these items represent a single construct that was comparable between countries and was labelled as *diversity policy*. A country comparison showed that managers in England and Norway reported that they valued a diversity policy in their organisation the most important, whereas managers from the Czech Republic, France, and Portugal scored lower, indicating a more neutral stance towards diversity. Although diversity policy represents a single construct, the items were also investigated separately to get a better understanding of possible differences between countries. Aspects, such as engaging in intercultural activities (e.g. celebrating holidays) or providing information in multiple languages showed the most variation between countries. there appeared more alignment between countries on taking cultural/religious practices regarding nutrition into account. Also, managers working in ECEC reported higher levels of diversity policy compared to managers working in the social work sector.

Lastly, the relations between diversity beliefs, practices, and policies were investigated. Multilingual beliefs were positively associated with both multicultural practices and diversity policy. Multicultural beliefs were positively associated with only multicultural practices. Finally, when considering the shared variance of these constructs within sites and within countries, it appeared that, overall, the shared variance of beliefs is rather small. For practices and policies, there appeared to be more consensus on the country and site level compared to professionals' beliefs, suggesting a stronger common understanding both at the daily practice [in the group/classroom] level and the wider organizational practice level.

3. RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Following the previously conducted literature review in Task 5.1 (Slot, Halba, & Romijn, 2017) there are many differences in the conceptualisation of parental involvement (Intxausti, Etxeberria, & Joaristi, 2013). A very broad and general way to define parental involvement is the investment of parents' resources in their children's schooling (Sheldon, 2003). For instance, Van Loo (2004) explicates there is a difference between parental involvement – i.e. parents feeling involved with a childcare institution because their child is attending the institution – and parent participation – i.e. parent actively taking part in activities of the institution. Epstein (2001) divides parental involvement even further and proposes six types of involvement: *parenting*, *communicating*, *volunteering*, *learning at home*, *decision making*, and *collaborating with the community*. In addition, Driessen, Smit, and Sleegers (2005) state that two perspectives of cooperation between schools and parent can be discerned – parent-initiated parental involvement and school-initiated parental involvement. The latter perspective seems to dominate the current research. Most researchers not only argue that parent-professional partnerships (PPP) are important, they also – implicitly or explicitly – state that these partnerships should be school-initiated as the existence and quality of these partnerships are the responsibility of the school and teachers (Driessen et al., 2005; Epstein, 2001; Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones, & Reed, 2002; Intxausti et al., 2013; Kim, 2009; Kroeger & Lash, 2011; Lewis, Kim, & Bey, 2011).

To guide professionals in engaging in these partnerships, several studies have been conducted on the barriers that might stand in the way of effective PPP. The first concerns parent-professional communication (e.g. Intxausti et al., 2013). Communication skills of professionals and the organizational policy in this regard are important. Lewis et al. (2011) stress the importance of 'outreaching' and argue that schools should use multiple ways to communicate with parents, such as informal classroom talk, newsletters, and home visits. Moreover, it is important that schools create inclusive, positive and open social climates, and communicate positively with parents (Hasley, 2005; Lewis et al., 2011; Kim, 2009). Lastly, communication between teachers and minority parents can also be affected by differences in childrearing styles and views regarding upbringing (Kim, 2009; Van Keulen & Van Beurden, 2002).

A second barrier concerns professionals' beliefs regarding parental involvement. Several studies indicate that effective PPP is more likely to occur when teachers view parental involvement as important. For instance, a study of Hujala, Turja, Gaspar, Veisson, and Waniganayake (2009) shows that the way PPP is constructed and valued differed between countries. Portuguese and Norwegian teachers see children's education as a shared responsibility between school and the home and showed the strongest endorsement for parental support in children's learning. Finnish teachers on the other hand, view parent involvement in the child's education as less important. In addition to more general teacher beliefs regarding parental involvement, literature also indicates that teachers have less-than-positive perceptions toward the efficacy and capacity of minority parents (e.g. Kim, 2009). Respecting parents' knowledge and skills in helping children's education is important for PPP (Lewis et al., 2011), however, family roles and resources are often devalued and negated when parents' language and cultural practices differ from the school's (Kroeger & Lash, 2011). As a result, schools are less likely to initiate the involvement of minority parents and often choose wealthier white parents to participate in school activities (DeMoss & Vaughn, 2000). These teacher perceptions and practices contribute to the uncomfortable and unwelcome feelings

minority parents experience regarding school involvement (Christie, 2005; Kim, 2009) and can therefore be considered an important barrier.

The literature review has guided our work and we developed several scales to evaluate the various aspects of the relationship between professionals and parents, a shared understanding and similar beliefs on child behaviour and development. Further, we included questions related to different topics that professionals may address in their communication with parents. Lastly, we questioned managers on more general aspects of the organizational policy concerning parent communication and involvement following Epstein's (2001) model.

3.1. METHOD

This chapter focuses on professionals' relation with parents and other stakeholders. For the relation with parents three different scales were used. Two scales were answered by professionals who are in direct contact with parents as part of their job. They answered questions about the relationship with parents and the topics on which they have contact with parents. Professionals (such as managers) who are not directly in close contact with parents answered general questions about the organizational policy regarding contacts with parents. In some countries this resulted in small sample sizes with consequences for the analytical approach in this chapter. The sample size was particularly small for France (N = 24), the Czech Republic (N = 40) and Germany (N = 47). Moreover, the sample showed heterogeneity in the types of professionals that participated. These differences and the interpretation of the results are addressed accordingly in the following subsections with results.

3.1.1. ANALYSIS

Given the small sample size and the nature of the questions (i.e. not forming an overall scale in all cases) this chapter used a descriptive approach to better understand the relations between professionals and parents in different countries and within different settings. Only the professionals' relation with parents was aimed to function as a scale, so for this question the overall approach consisted of checking the internal consistency across countries and within countries at the same time and used an exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to reach the most optimal grouping of items. The different approaches of analysis and their rationale are addressed accordingly in the following subsections.

3.2. RESULTS

The results of this chapter are presented in the following section. First, the overall core subjects of this chapter (*professionals' relationship with parents, content of contact with parents*, *parent communication policy*, *interagency collaboration*) are described and country differences are investigated (see Section 3.2.1). Second, the same subjects are described from a profession and organisation perspective (see Section 3.2.2) by comparing different kinds of professions (*teachers, specialists, managers*, and *social and family workers*) and the setting they work in (*ECEC*, *formal education*, *after-school-care*, and *social work sector*). Lastly, the relations between the core subjects are presented (see Section 3.3.3) and some information on the variance within sites and countries is provided (see Section 3.3.4).

3.2.1. COUNTRY COMPARISON

The following paragraphs provide an overview of the results of the core subjects, as well as a comparison between the ten participating countries. A mix of figures and tables is used to present the results in a structured, yet comprehensive, way.

3.2.1.1. PROFESSIONALS' RELATIONSHIP WITH PARENTS

First the professionals' view of their relationship with the parents (of the children) they are working with is investigated. In total, there were twelve items aimed to measure professionals' relationship with parents. Professionals were asked to what extent they agree with the statements on a scale ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly disagree* (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Overview of All Relationship with Parents Items

16A	I feel that parents understand me
16B	*I have trouble communicating with some parents*
16C	I have similar beliefs to the parents about the children's behaviour
16D	I have similar beliefs to the parents about what the children can achieve.
16E	*Parents communicate with me only when there is a problem*
16F	*I tell parents that as a professional I know what is best for a child*
16G	I welcome parents' initiative in contacting me
16H	*I mostly talk to parents when there is a problem*
16I	*Parents should not participate in decision-making regarding my work with children*
16J	As a professional I am responsible for making contact with parents
16K	I make an effort to have informal talks with all parents
16L	*The main responsibility for a child 's development and learning lies with the professional*

Note. Items in italics are negatively worded and reversely coded.

This scale was developed to capture various aspects of the relationship with parents using positively and negatively worded items (i.e. 16B, 16E, 16F, 16H, 16I and 16L) to reduce social desirability. Overall, there is quite some variation in most items as evidenced by the relatively high standard deviations and the use of the full range of the scale (see Table 3.2). To test whether the items presented in Table 3.1 form a reliable scale for measuring the relationship with parents, the

internal consistency of the overall scale was assessed across countries and within each country. Although, the overall Cronbach's alpha appeared sufficient across countries ($\alpha = .56$), the within-country results showed a lower consistency in some countries (e.g. for Portugal, $\alpha_{PT} = .21$) and a negative average covariance among items for France. Thus, problematic items were removed in a stepwise manner in order to evaluate the improvement of the consistency within countries. This resulted in a selection of 7 items (see Table 3.2) with an overall internal consistency of $\alpha = .49$ (ranging from $\alpha_{PL} = .41$ to $\alpha_{DE} = .65$, except for France, $\alpha_{FR} = .30$). As the construct seems to capture multiple underlying concepts, exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were used to investigate the factor structure. Although, there appeared to be three factors for the majority of countries, these results were not fully consistent. The problems with internal consistency and factor structure most likely result from the small sample sizes and heterogeneous samples of professionals both across and within countries (i.e. teachers and social workers). Therefore, a more descriptive approach was taken. Mean scores based on the overall scale were used to investigate whether there are differences between countries and types of professionals. In addition, the mean item scores are reported to facilitate the interpretation of differences.

Table 3.2

Descriptive Statistics of All Relationship with Parents Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
16A Parents understand me	724	4.00	0.88	1.00	5.00
16B Trouble communicating with parents	727	2.95	1.42	1.00	5.00
16C Similar beliefs about children's behaviour	716	3.34	1.04	1.00	5.00
16D Similar beliefs about children's achievements	721	3.34	1.11	1.00	5.00
16E Parents communicate only if there is a problem	721	2.67	1.47	1.00	5.00
16F Professional knows what is best for a child	718	2.33	1.35	1.00	5.00
16G Welcome parent's initiative for contact	722	4.62	0.70	1.00	5.00
16H I communicate only if there is a problem	724	2.51	1.44	1.00	5.00
16I Parents should not participate in decision making	722	2.29	1.32	1.00	5.00
16J Professional responsible for parent contact	723	4.31	1.01	1.00	5.00
16K I make an effort to have informal talks	723	3.89	1.24	1.00	5.00
16L Professional mainly responsible for development	722	2.19	1.23	1.00	5.00

Note. Items in italics are reversely coded. Bold items were used in the final scale.

To test for country differences, a univariate test of variance was conducted, which revealed significant differences between countries, $F(9) = 5.47$, $p < .001$. Two items were reversely coded (16B and 16H), which means that the interpretation of these items should be reversed. Based on the mean scores, England, the Netherlands, and Norway scored the highest on the parent-professional relationship (see Table 3.3 and Figure 3.1).

ISOTIS

Table 3.3

Descriptive Statistics of Relationship with Parents per Country

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	42	3.70	0.59	2.29	4.86
02 England (EN)	89	4.04	0.45	3.00	5.00
03 Germany (DE)	50	3.65	0.61	2.00	4.86
04 Greece (EL)	155	3.67	0.55	2.00	5.00
05 France (FR)	26	3.53	0.51	2.57	4.86
06 Italy (IT)	112	3.65	0.55	2.50	5.00
07 The Netherlands (NL)	56	3.89	0.49	2.86	5.00
08 Norway (NO)	51	3.87	0.59	2.57	5.00
09 Poland (PL)	81	3.69	0.50	2.57	4.86
10 Portugal (PT)	67	3.63	0.61	2.29	5.00
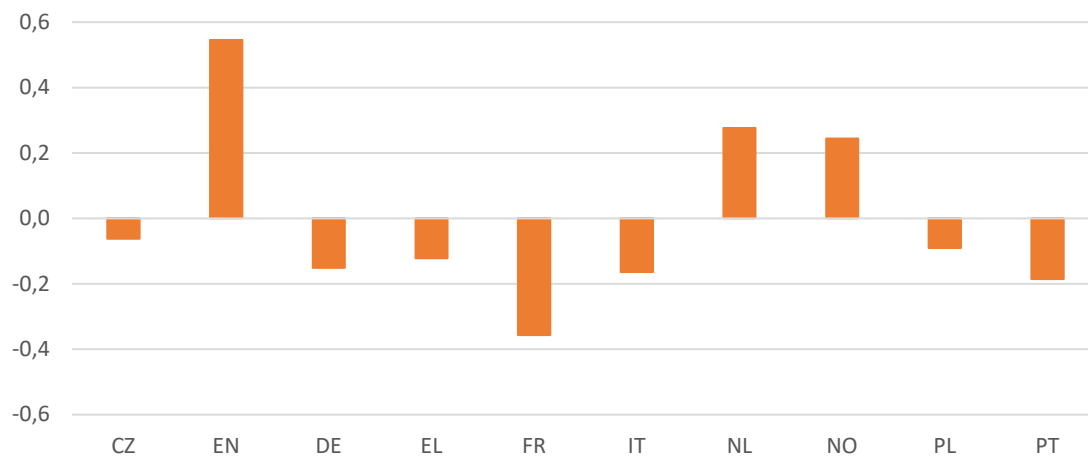
Figure 3.1. Standardized mean scores for relationship with parents per country.

Given that the mean scores represent slightly different constructs, a graph at the item level is provided to better understand where these differences come from (see Figure 3.2). The graph shows that for England this is due to overall high scores on the majority of items, whereas for the Netherlands and Norway this appeared to be mainly due to welcoming parent's initiative (16G) and taking responsibility for contacting parents (16J). The level of shared beliefs (16C and 16D) was somewhat lower and professionals also indicated that they had some more trouble communicating (16B) with some parents (more than professionals from England). Professionals from the other countries scored lower on the relationship with parents, but differences in emphasis were apparent. For instance, professionals from the Czech Republic indicated that they mostly talked to parents when there are problems (16H), but showed comparatively higher levels of understanding (16A) and shared beliefs. Professionals from Germany reported more trouble in communicating with parents, despite relatively higher levels of shared beliefs and understanding. Professionals from Greece and France showed higher levels of openness to contact with parents and felt a strong responsibility for this contact, but the levels of shared understanding were comparatively low. Professionals from Italy indicated lower levels of shared beliefs and more trouble in communicating with parents, but at the same time appeared to emphasise that professionals are responsible for contact with parents. In contrast, professionals from Poland

showed less responsibility for contact with parents, but scored high on welcoming parent's initiatives. Lastly, professionals from Portugal showed lower levels of shared beliefs and more often indicated that they mostly talked with parents in case of problems. They also valued parent's initiative more than viewing themselves as responsible for contact with parents.
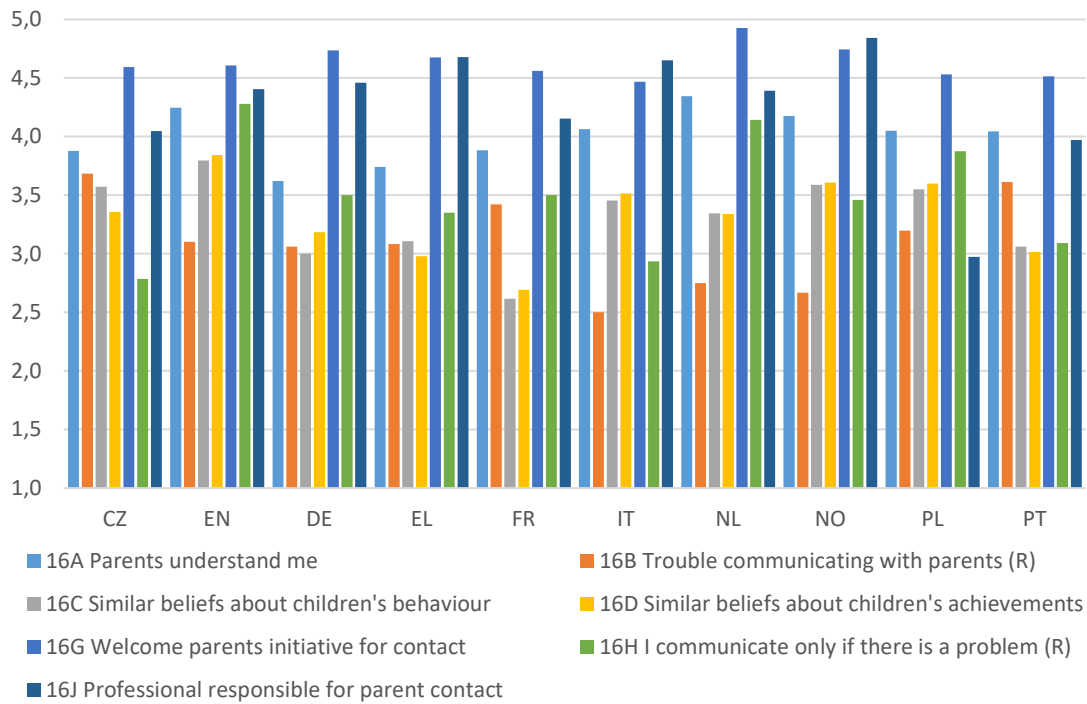

Figure 3.2. Mean scores for the items on relationship with parents per country.

Thus, despite that professionals across countries showed quite similar scores on relations with parents, a more differentiated pattern of results appears when viewing the different aspects separately. The next section will explore more deeply the content of contact with parents.

3.2.1.2. CONTENT OF CONTACT WITH PARENTS

A second subject concerns the content of contact with parents. In total, there were six items aimed to measure the content of contact. Professionals were asked how often they discuss different topics with parents on a scale ranging from *almost never* (1), *less than once a month* (2), *once a month* (3), *2 to 3 times a month* (4), *every week* (5), *2 to 4 times a week* (6), to *every day* (7). An overview of the items is presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
Overview of All Content of Contact with Parents Items

17A	(Pre-)school related issues, such as home activities of homework
17B	Child's behaviour or relations with other children
17C	Child's development in general
17D	Child's situation at home
17E	Organizational aspects, such as events, trips, opening hours
17F	Support for parents (e.g. parenting support, specialised help)

The descriptive information is presented in Table 3.5. The findings show that the child's behaviour and relations with peers (17B) are the most frequently discussed topics with parents, followed by children's development (17C) and (pre-)school related issues (17A). However, there is large variation as indicated by the large standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used.

Table 3.5
Descriptive Statistics of All Content of Contact with Parents Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
17A (Pre-)school related issues	695	3.54	1.85	1.00	7.00
17B Child's behaviour or relations with peers	712	4.29	1.74	1.00	7.00
17C Child's development	711	3.81	1.76	1.00	7.00
17D Child's home situation	706	3.38	1.77	1.00	7.00
17E Organizational aspects	709	3.28	1.61	1.00	7.00
17F Support for parents	695	2.97	1.74	1.00	7.00

A multivariate test of variance was used to test country differences, see Table 3.6. The results show that there are different patterns across countries in the emphasis that is put in contact with parents. Some countries have a stronger orientation towards (pre-)school related issues and home activities (17A), such as the Czech Republic and Germany, whereas other countries, such as England and Greece, put relatively more emphasis on parent support (17F) compared to others. Although all countries mentioned talking about children's behaviour (17B) and development (17C), this appeared to be most strongly in England and Poland. Talking about the child's home situation (17D) was most common in England, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, and Portugal.

Table 3.6
Mean Scores per Country of Frequency of Communication with Parents on Various Topics

	N	$M_{school\ issues}$	$M_{behaviour}$	$M_{development}$	M_{home}	$M_{organisation}$	$M_{support}$
01 CZ	41	3.61	3.46	2.78	2.71	2.93	3.12
02 EN	87	3.40	4.43	4.72	3.91	2.74	3.35
03 DE	48	4.31	4.18	3.51	2.92	3.71	3.10
04 EL	143	3.65	4.12	3.57	3.52	3.12	3.44
05 FR	24	2.63	3.52	3.08	2.36	3.67	1.96
06 IT	104	3.45	4.51	3.83	3.50	3.73	2.80
07 NL	54	3.13	4.49	4.04	3.78	3.53	3.02
08 NO	51	2.98	3.75	3.06	2.45	3.24	2.34
09 PL	78	4.06	5.49	4.68	3.58	3.50	2.53
10 PT	65	3.51	3.76	3.53	3.42	2.95	2.85

Figure 3.3 shows a country comparison on the frequency of communication on the six different topics. The findings indicate that communication with parents, regardless of the topic, occurs more frequently in England, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, and Portugal. The topic of conversation is mostly children's behaviour or relations with other children (17B), especially in Poland, followed by children's development (17C) or (pre-)school related issues (17A). The child's

situation at home (17D) is a less frequent topic of conversation with parents, especially for professionals from France, the Czech Republic, and Norway. Support for parent (17F) is the least frequently discussed topic, especially in France, Norway, and Poland.
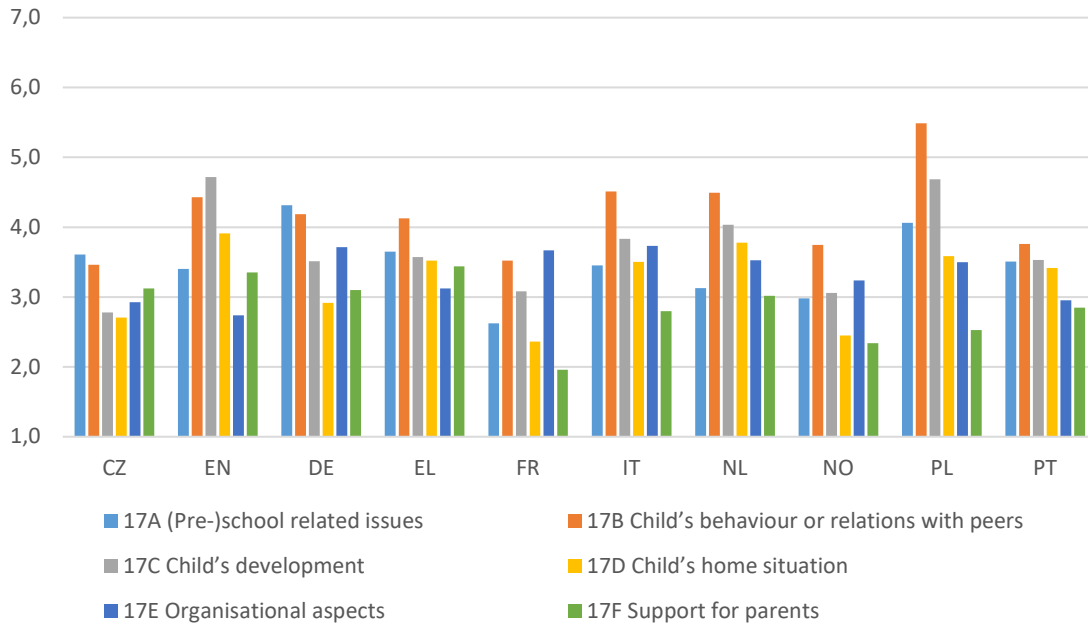

Figure 3.3. Mean scores for content of contact with parents per country.

3.2.1.3. PARENT COMMUNICATION POLICY

A third subject concerns the policy of communication with parents at the organizational level. In total there were seventeen items aimed to measure parent communication policy. Managers were asked how often they undertake certain activities in the contact with parents on a scale ranging from *never* (1), *sometimes* (2), *regularly* (3), *often* (4), to *always* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7

Overview of All Parent Communication Policy Items

19A	We use the time when parents bring or pick up their child(ren) to talk with them
19B	We organize a short individual meeting with parents to discuss how their child is doing
19C	We organize meetings for all parents to share our organizational policy and vision with them
19D	We organize meetings for all parents to get to know parents better
19E	We send (digital) newsletters to share news and announce events
19F	We organize group discussion or theme-based meetings for parents, for instance, concerning childrearing issues or the development of children
19G	We use an interactive internet platform or website to exchange experiences with parents
19H	We conduct home visits with families who enrol their child or want to enrol their child in our organisation
19I	We arrange an introductory meeting with new parents to get to know them and their home situation better

19J	We use parents as volunteers (such as mothers in the neighbourhood) or assistants as mediators when contacting parents
19K	We make notes of information about individual children's experiences (e.g. in a notebook, email or app)
19L	Parents receive advice concerning childrearing or home learning activities
19M	We organize special events for children and parents (e.g. barbecues, sport competitions or art exhibitions with children's work)
19N	We use a group-app or other medium (e.g. WhatsApp, Facebook, etc.) to share with parents what the children do during the day
19O	We engage parents in different activities, e.g. as helpers during outings, sports events or a theatre visit
19P	We take into account the views of a (formal) parent council or the equivalent in organising our activities and policy
19Q	We assess parents' satisfaction through a survey

The descriptive information of the different items is presented in Table 3.8. The large standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used for most items show that there is quite some variation between organisations in their ways of communicating with parents. Using the time to talk to parent when they bring or pick up their children (19A) shows the least variance and has overall the highest mean, indicating that this is something that happens quite often in organisations. Using an interactive platform or website (19G) or a group-app (19N) in the communication with parents, visiting the homes of new enrolling families (19H), and using volunteering parents as mediators in the contact with other parents (19J) are activities that only occur sometimes. For the remaining items managers indicate that on average this occurs regularly to often.

Table 3.8
Descriptive Statistics of All Content of Contact with Parents Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
19A Talk with parents during bring or pick up moment	134	4.27	0.94	1.00	5.00
19B Short individual meetings to discuss child	132	3.83	1.09	2.00	5.00
19C Meetings for parents regarding policy and vision	132	3.44	1.21	1.00	5.00
19D Meeting for parents to get to know each other	133	3.32	1.22	1.00	5.00
19E (Digital) newsletter to share news	132	3.76	1.45	1.00	5.00
19F Group discussions, e.g. childrearing/development	131	2.89	1.24	1.00	5.00
19G Use interactive internet platform or website	131	2.35	1.55	1.00	5.00
19H Home visits with new enrolling families	131	2.14	1.46	1.00	5.00
19I Introductory meeting with new parents	132	3.95	1.30	1.00	5.00
19J Use volunteering parents as mediators	130	2.05	1.20	1.00	5.00
19K Make notes about children's experiences	133	3.40	1.31	1.00	5.00
19L Give advice on childrearing or home activities	133	3.50	1.25	1.00	5.00
19M Special events for parents and children	129	3.40	1.18	1.00	5.00
19N Use group-app to share experiences children	132	2.34	1.53	1.00	5.00
19O Engage parents in activities (participating)	135	2.70	1.35	1.00	5.00
19P Views of parents via (formal) parent council	132	3.53	1.22	1.00	5.00
19Q Assess parents' satisfaction through survey	130	3.02	1.30	1.00	5.00

This scale was developed to capture various aspects of the communication with parents and establishing measurement invariance was unsuitable given the small sample size per country. Therefore, in order to provide more insights regarding the extent to which organisations use these activities to communicate with parents, a descriptive approach for the country comparison was used. In order to present the differences between countries in a structured matter, we divided the items in five topics, which are in line with the classification of parent involvement of Epstein (2001) as presented at the beginning of this chapter (*parenting*, *communicating*, *volunteering*¸ *decision making*, and *collaborating with the community)*.

Figure 3.4 shows the country means for the two items concerning *parenting*. Giving advice on childrearing or home activities (19L) is most often done by organisations in Poland, the Netherlands, and Greece. For the majority of countries, this activity occurs more frequently than organising group discussions concerning topics such as childrearing or development (19F). Only for France we see that the opposite is true and for England, Germany, and Italy, the differences between the two aspects are small. Overall, we see that parenting activities are least often performed in the Czech Republic and Norway, followed by France and Portugal.

■ 19F Group discussions, e.g. childrearing/development   ■ 19L Give advice on childrearing or home activities
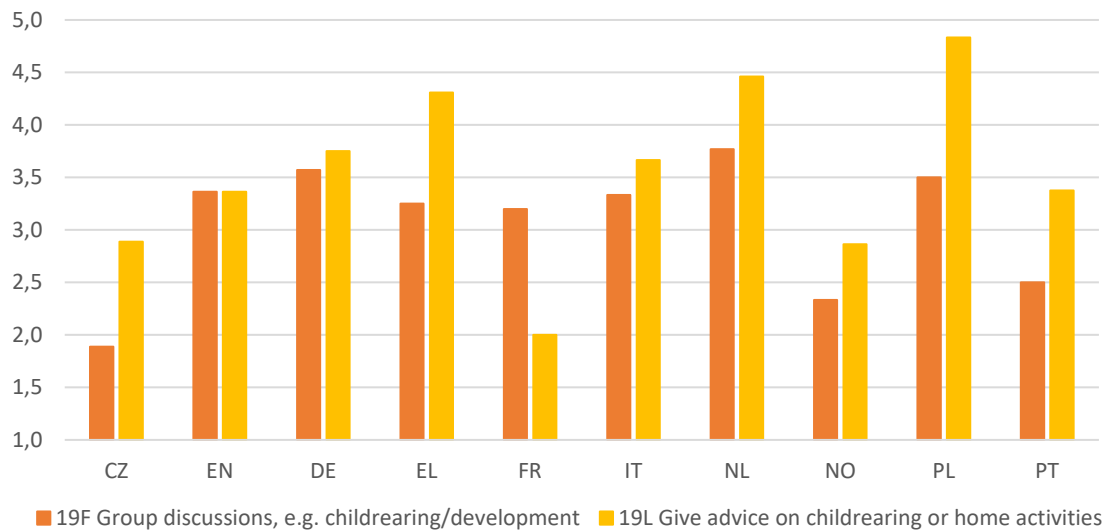
Figure 3.4. Mean scores for parenting items per country.

Figure 3.5a and Figure 3.5b show the country means for the eight items concerning *communicating*, with the first figure providing information on face-to-face communication and the second figure showing more distant or online forms of communication. Variation is especially large for item 19E (sending a newsletter to parents) where we see that this occurs often in England, Greece, France, the Netherlands, Norway, and Poland, whereas in the Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, and Portugal this never occurs or only sometimes. Also, home visits as means of communicating with parents (19H) occurs more often in England, Greece, and the Netherlands compared to the other countries. Taken all forms of communication together, managers from the Netherlands and England score somewhat higher on these items in contrast to countries as the Czech Republic and Portugal.
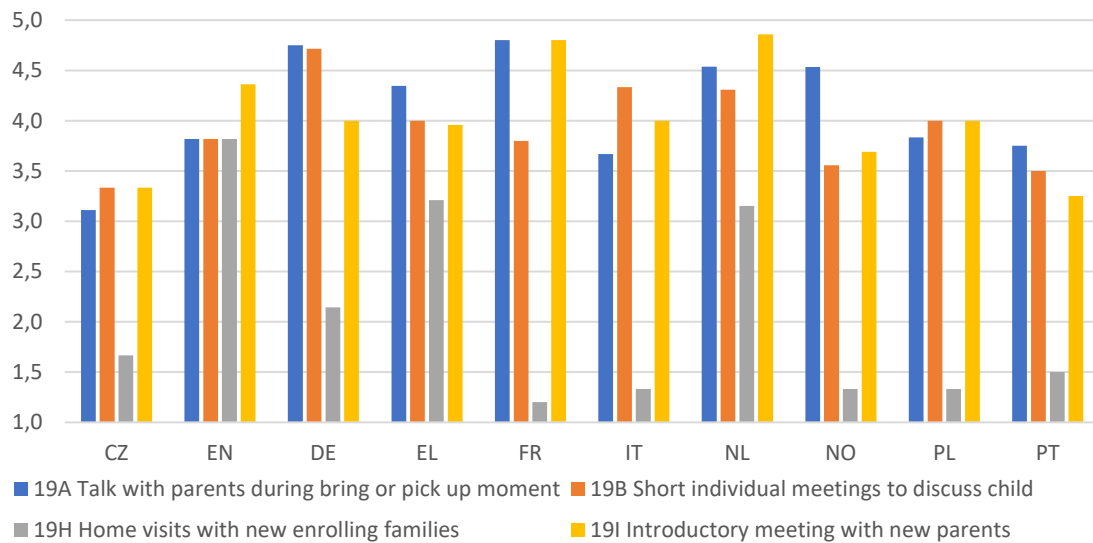
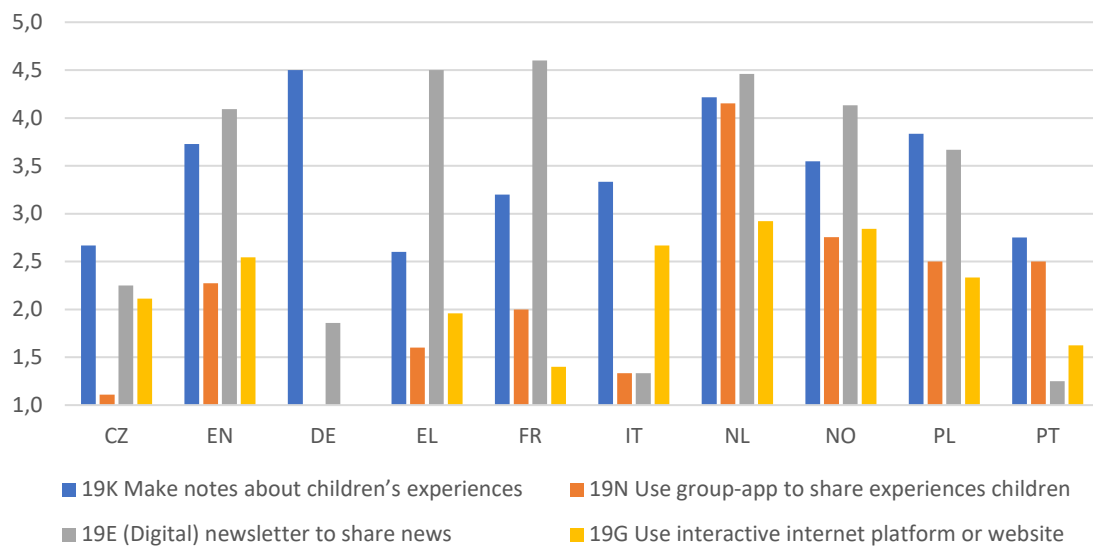*Figure 3.5a.* Mean scores for communicating items per country (face-to-face communication).

Figure 3.5b. Mean scores for communicating items per country (distant/online communication).

Figure 3.6 shows the country means for the two items concerning *volunteering*. Asking parents to participate in activities (19O) for most countries occurs more often than using parents as volunteers (19J). Only for Portugal we see a reversed pattern and for Italy both activities occur equally often. Managers from England, Germany, the Netherlands, and Poland scored the highest scores on parental participation in activities. Furthermore, occurrence of both types of activities is rather low in Norway (with averages ranging from *never* to *sometimes*) and the Czech Republic.
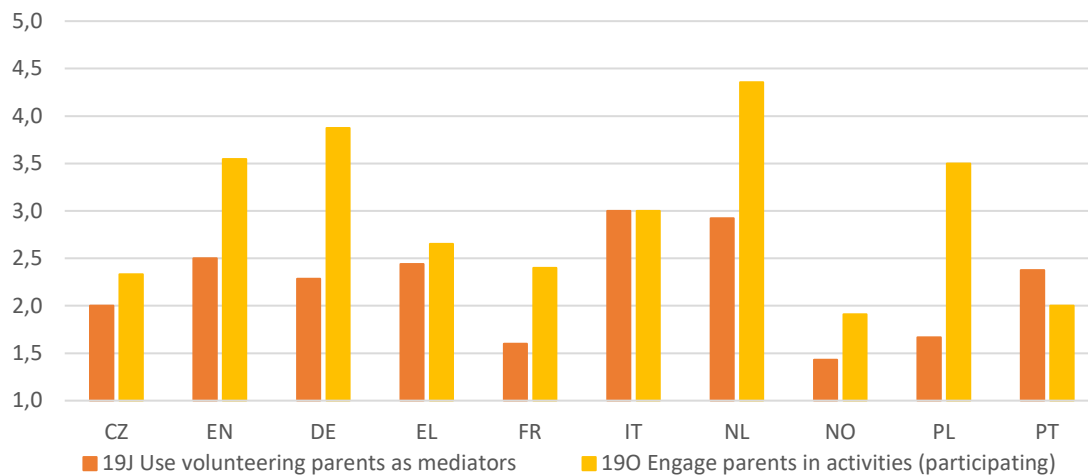
Figure 3.6. Mean scores for volunteering items per country.

Figure 3.7 shows the country means for the three items concerning *decision making*. The results illustrate that the use of a formal parent council (19P) is clearly less present in France. The use of a parent survey to assess satisfaction (19Q) occurs less frequently in Greece, Italy, and Portugal. Overall, managers from the Netherlands, Norway, and Poland score relatively high on all three items. Organising meetings to discuss policy and vision of the organisation with parents (19C) is most frequently reported in Poland with organisations indicating that this occurs *often* to *always*.
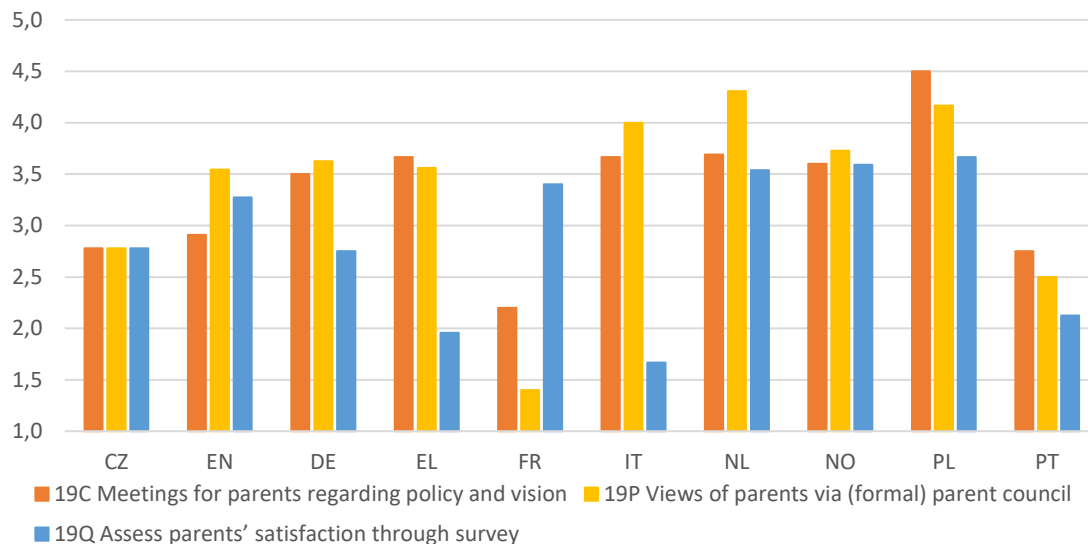
Figure 3.7. Mean scores for decision making items per country.

Lastly, Figure 3.8 shows the country means for the two items concerning *collaborating with the community*. Managers from Poland, Germany, and Italy score rather high on both items. Organising special events for parents and children (19M) occurs more often than organising meetings for parents to get to know one another (19D) according to managers from Germany and France. The opposite seems the case for Italy, whereas in the other countries the difference between the two items is rather small.
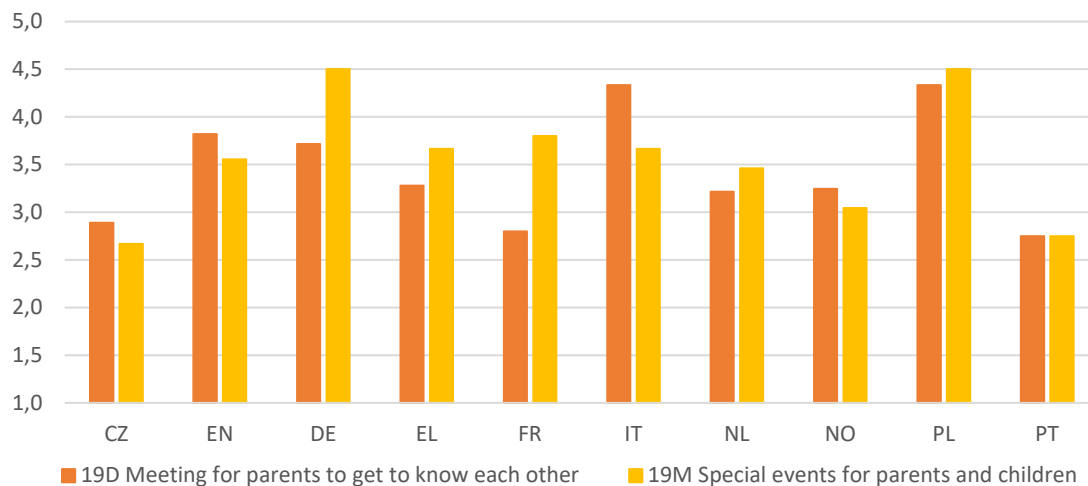
Figure 3.8. Mean scores for collaborating with the community items per country.

The figures concerning different aspects of the parent communication policy above thus show that there are interesting differences between countries depending on the type of activity. Taken all these activities together, managers in the Netherlands, Poland, England, and Germany reported the occurrence of these activities most frequently. Managers in the Czech Republic, Portugal, and France on the other hand scored somewhat lower on most items.

3.2.1.4. INTERAGENCY COLLABORATION

The data collected among staff also included a number of questions on interagency collaboration to complement the data collected in WP6. These results will be analysed and presented as part of the integrative work in WP6 (D6.4). However, for the purpose of this report a few descriptive results will be presented. The information on interagency or collaboration with other organisations was provided only by professionals considered to have managerial tasks and who filled out the manager version of the questionnaire. Thus, the sample size per country is relatively small.

3.2.1.4.1.   COLLABORATION WITH OTHER ORGANISATIONS

The first question concerned the level of exchange with several different types of organisations (see Table 3.9). Managers were asked to rate their level of collaboration with these different types of organisations on a scale ranging from *not at all* (1), *little communication; loosely defined roles; all decisions made independently* (2), *exchange of information; somewhat defined roles; all decisions made independently* (3), *frequent communication; sharing of information and resources; defined roles; same shared decision making* (4), *frequent and prioritized communication; sharing of ideas and resources; all members have a vote in decision making* (5), to *high level of commitment; frequent communication with mutual trust; consensus reached on all decisions* (6). These categories are consistent with the major stage theories of interagency collaboration (e.g. Frey, et al., 2006). Scores represent the amount of collaboration between organization (i.e. higher scores represent higher levels of collaboration).

Table 3.9

Overview of All Interagency Collaboration Items and Scale

69A	Health services, such as infant and toddler health care and doctors
69B	(Other) child care services, such as day care or preschool
69C	(Other) education services, such as primary schools
69D	(Other) social services, such as after-school activities organized by welfare organisations
69E	Public services, such as the library
69F	Local, community-based organisations/programs, such as homes for the elderly
69G	Volunteering programs or philanthropic organisations
69H	(Local) law enforcement services, such as the police

To investigate to what extent organisations collaborate with other organisations the criterion was set at a minimum score of '3' indicating at least some exchange of information. The results show that interagency collaboration is most common with health services, child care services, and education (see Table 3.10). Collaboration with volunteering organisations and community-based programmes appeared the least frequently.

Table 3.10

Percentages of Managers that Exchange with Other Organisations

	%		%
69A Health services	80.6	69E Public services	59.7
69B Child care services	80.2	69F Community-based programs	43.8
69C Education services	83.2	69G Volunteering programs	43.4
69D Social services	62.6	69H Law enforcement	47.3

Note. Percentages reflect a score of 3 or higher on the collaboration scale.

Further analyses were conducted to investigate whether there are differences between countries (see Table 3.11). The results indeed show some different patterns. Collaboration with health services was most common in England, France, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands and Norway. There were hardly any country differences concerning the collaboration with child care services. For collaboration with education it appeared that this was the most common in Czech Republic, England, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway and Portugal. Collaborating with social services appeared more frequent in Czech Republic, England, Italy, Poland and Portugal, whereas collaboration with public services was strongest in Czech Republic, Germany and Poland. Collaborations with community services were overall less common, but reported the most frequently in England and Greece. England, Italy, Poland and Portugal mentioned more collaboration with volunteer organisations. Lastly, collaboration with law enforcement was most common in Italy, Poland and Portugal. These patterns seem to reflect differences in systems.

Table 3.11

Percentages of Managers that Exchange with Other Organisations per Country

	N	69A %Health	69B %Childcare	69C %Education	69D %Social	69E %Public	69F %Community	69G %Volunteer	69H %Law
01 CZ	9	44.4	77.8	100.0	100.0	77.8	44.4	44.4	66.7
02 EN	11	81.8	72.7	100.0	90.9	54.5	63.6	72.7	54.5
03 DE	8	75.0	87.5	87.5	62.5	100.0	28.6	42.9	42.9
04 EL	24	87.3	75.0	66.7	37.5	62.5	60.9	50.0	45.8
05 FR	5	100.0	80.0	60.0	40.0	50.0	40.0	40.0	60.0
06 IT	7	100.0	85.7	85.7	100.0	71.4	33.3	85.7	85.7
07 NL	25	96.0	76.0	96.0	76.0	68.0	44.0	36.0	36.0
08 NO	32	81.3	87.5	81.3	40.6	34.4	31.3	19.4	25.8
09 PL	5	60.0	80.0	60.0	80.0	80.0	40.0	60.0	80.0
10 PT	5	50.0	80.0	100.0	100.0	60.0	40.0	60.0	100.0

Note. Percentages reflect a score of 3 or higher on the collaboration scale.

3.2.1.4.2. GOALS OF COLLABORATION

The second question concerned the goals of the collaboration with the various organisations presented in the previous paragraph. Managers were presented with a list of twelve possible goals for collaboration and were asked to what extent these goals were applicable in their situation on a scale ranging from *not at all* (1), *very little* (2), *somewhat* (3), *quite a lot* (4), to *to a very large degree* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12

Overview of All Collaboration Goals Items

70A	To improve children's outcomes
70B	To increase equity and access to services
70C	To reduce discrimination or segregation
70D	To support multiple needs of families
70E	To detect pending or emerging problems at an early stage
70F	To support the relationship between service/professionals and parents
70G	To enhance continuity of children's experiences
70H	To learn from other professionals
70I	To align our work with children and families with other professionals' work
70J	To discuss the individual development or progress of children
70K	To have joint professional development, such as courses
70L	To develop a shared vision of service provision towards common outcomes

The descriptive statistics of the different goals for the entire sample are presented in Table 3.11. Overall, the results showed that the most common answer (mode) was *quite a lot* for every goal, which might reflect social desirability, at least to some extent. However, there was variation as well, which is reflected in the standard deviations that are between three quarter to one scale point.

Table 3.13

Descriptive Statistics of all Collaboration Goals Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Mode
70A Improve children's outcomes	126	4.23	0.80	1.00	5.00	4.00
70B Increase equity and access to services	127	3.90	0.97	1.00	5.00	4.00
70C Reduce discrimination or segregation	126	3.68	1.16	1.00	5.00	4.00
70D Support multiple needs of families	128	4.08	0.88	1.00	5.00	4.00
70E Detect problems at an early stage	128	4.29	0.79	1.00	5.00	4.00
70F Support relationship with parents	129	4.18	0.80	2.00	5.00	4.00
70G Enhance continuity of experiences	129	4.22	0.74	1.00	5.00	4.00
70H Learn from other professionals	128	4.00	0.91	1.00	5.00	4.00
70I Align our work with children and families	125	4.06	0.86	1.00	5.00	4.00
70J Discuss individual development of child	128	4.16	0.88	1.00	5.00	4.00
70K Joint professional development	126	3.63	1.07	1.00	5.00	4.00
70L Develop shared vision of services	125	3.87	1.02	1.00	5.00	4.00

First, country differences were tested for all goals in a multivariate test of variance revealing significant differences on two goals. Professionals from the Netherlands scored lower on the goal of reducing discrimination and segregation (70C) in comparison to professionals from the Czech Republic, England, Germany, Greece, Italy, Norway, Poland, and Portugal, $F(9,116) = 4.04$, $p = .001$. Also, professionals from Norway scored lower than England and Greece on this goal. The other goal concerned learning from other professionals (70H), which appeared to be less applicable for professionals from Italy and the Netherlands compared to professionals from England, Germany, Greece, Norway and Poland, $F(9,118) = 3.04$, $p = .003$.

3.2.2. TYPE OF PROFESSIONAL AND SETTINGS THEY WORK IN

Besides a country comparison, we were also interested whether any differences exist between different types of professionals and the settings they work in. The four core concepts of this chapter were compared for setting (*ECEC, formal education, after-school care,* and *social work sector*) and profession (*teachers, specialists, managers*, and *social and family workers*) in this section. Due to the sampling procedure and the nature of the questionnaire, all constructs have already been split between managers and professionals and a comparison between the different types of professions is therefore only briefly mentioned in the following paragraphs. Lastly, as the results of the interagency scales will be more thoroughly analysed and presented as part of the integrative work in WP6 (D6.4), only a comparison between differences in goals of interagency in different settings is briefly discussed.

3.2.2.1. PROFESSIONALS' RELATIONSHIP WITH PARENTS

Table 3.14 shows the descriptive statistics for professionals' relationship with parents for the different settings and professions. The results from the univariate tests of variance show that there are significant differences between settings, $F(3) = 8.72$, $p < .001$ and professions, $F(2) = 3.55$, $p = .03$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that professionals' relationship with parents is significantly higher in ECEC settings compared to all other settings. Regarding the professions,

the results revealed significant differences only between teachers and specialists, such that teachers scored higher on the relationship with parents.

Table 3.14

Descriptive Statistics of Relationship with Parents per Setting and Profession

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	α
01 ECEC	273	3.86	0.54	2.00	5.00	.43
02 Formal education	304	3.66	0.55	2.14	5.00	.49
03 After-school care	57	3.71	0.60	2.00	4.86	.63
04 Social work sector	83	3.64	0.51	2.57	4.86	.45
01 Teachers	593	3.76	0.56	2.00	5.00	.50
02 Specialists	49	3.54	0.50	2.00	4.71	.40
04 Social and family workers	47	3.74	0.56	2.71	4.86	.56

To further interpret the differences between professionals and the setting they work in, Figure 3.9 and Figure 3.10 provide the item scores for the different settings and professions.
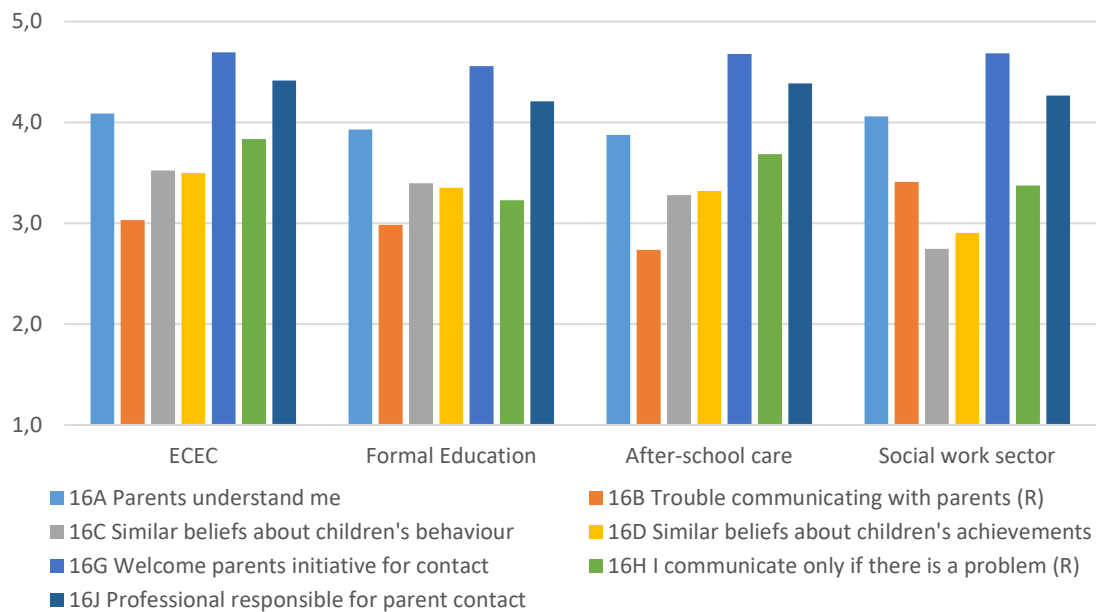
Figure 3.9. Mean scores for the items on relationship with parents per setting.

The overall pattern across items appears quite comparable for professionals who work in the different types of provisions. Professionals all show the highest scores on welcoming parents (16G), followed by acknowledging their responsibility in contacting parents (16J). Professionals working in ECEC and in the social work sector show the strongest feelings of understanding by the parents (16A), but professionals in the social work sector also report the lowest scores on shared beliefs with parents (16C and 16D). Furthermore, professionals in the social work sector report the lowest levels of trouble communicating with parents (16B), whereas professionals working in after-school care report the highest levels. Professionals working in formal education reported only talking to parents when there is a problem (16H) the most frequently. Thus, in ECEC settings professionals' relationship with parents is higher compared to all other settings, mostly

because of the higher level of shared beliefs, the fact that the contact is not limited to problematic situations only and that they do not experience trouble communicating with parents. The overall pattern across items also appears quite comparable when we distinguish between different professionals. Specialist appear to have contacts with parents more often when a problem occurs (indicated by the lower score on 16H), which might reflect their role as specialist.
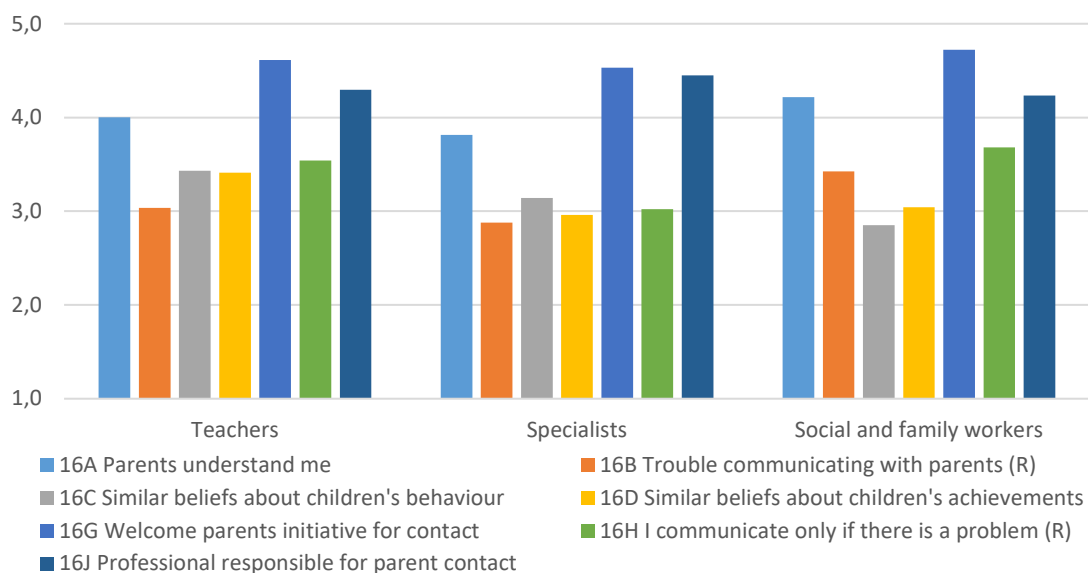
Figure 3.10. Mean scores for items on the relationship with parents per profession.

3.2.2.2. CONTENT OF CONTACT WITH PARENTS

The means and standard deviations of the six different topics of contact with parents are presented per setting in Table 3.15. The results of a multivariate test of variance shows that there are significant differences per setting, $F(18,1833) =14.14$, $p < .001$. For instance, ECEC professionals more often discussed the child's behaviour and development and the situation at the child's home in comparison to the other professionals. Organizational issues were discussed the most frequently by professionals both in ECEC and after-school care in comparison to professionals working in formal education or the social work sector. Support for parents was discussed the most by professionals working in after-school care, followed by ECEC professionals and the social work sector.

Table 3.15
Descriptive Statistics of the Content of Contact with Parents per Setting

	ECEC		Education		After-school		Social Work	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
17A (Pre-)school issues	3.58	2.09	3.59	1.66	3.86	1.19	3.07	1.63
17B Child behaviour	5.22	1.68	3.74	1.47	4.20	1.43	3.37	1.67
17C Child development	4.64	1.79	3.23	1.43	3.41	1.39	3.46	1.88
17D Home situation	4.08	1.95	2.90	1.39	2.57	1.29	3.37	1.84
17E Organizational	3.66	1.84	2.95	1.30	3.55	1.25	3.04	1.70
17F Support parents	3.29	1.98	2.66	1.37	3.43	1.98	2.99	1.74

Lastly, differences between different types of professionals were investigated, of which the means and standard are presented in Table 3.16. A multivariate test of variance indicated there are some differences, $F(12,1246) = 4.80$, $p < .001$. Teachers talked more often about issues concerning the (pre-)school, the children's behaviour and development and organizational issues. No differences were found between specialists and social and family workers.

Table 3.16
Descriptive Statistics of the Content of Contact with Parents per Profession

	Teachers		Specialists		Social/family workers	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
17A (Pre-)school issues	3.66	1.87	2.94	1.53	2.91	1.66
17B Child behaviour	4.47	1.71	3.59	1.71	3.48	1.50
17C Child development	3.91	1.73	3.29	1.63	3.72	1.94
17D Home situation	3.42	1.75	3.04	1.62	3.63	1.95
17E Organizational	3.37	1.60	3.00	1.61	2.87	1.60
17F Support parents	2.94	1.71	3.04	1.65	3.43	1.94

3.2.2.3. PARENT COMMUNICATION POLICY

In line with the results on parent communication policy in the country comparison, a descriptive approach was taken to investigate differences between settings following the classification of Epstein (2001). As this scale was only answered by managers, no comparison between different types of professions could be made. Activities involving *parenting* were less present in after-school care compared to the other three settings. Similar results were found for *communicating* where the after-school care setting seems to score somewhat lower compared to the other settings. V*olunteering* in general is also less present in after-school care as well as in ECEC compared to formal education and the social work sector. The items on *decision making* seem to be less present in the social work sector compared to the other three settings where this occurred from regular to often. Finally, items concerning the *collaboration with the community* scored lower in the social work sector.

3.2.2.4. INTERAGENCY COLLABORATION

Lastly, differences between settings in the goals of collaboration with other stakeholders were investigated. The results of a multivariate test of variance shows that improving child outcomes (70A) was more strongly endorsed by professionals working in ECEC or after-school care compared to professionals working in formal education, $F(3,120) = 3.13$, $p = .03$. No significant differences were found for the other goals. A more thorough analysis of these results will be presented as part of the integrative work in WP6 (D6.4).

3.2.3. RELATIONS BETWEEN BELIEFS, PRACTICES, AND POLICY

In this section the associations between the professional-parent relation and the topics they discuss with parents are evaluated. Given the differences found between professionals working in different settings, these relations were explored separately for all four subgroups. The

correlations are presented in Table 3.17. It should be noted that the sample size for after school professionals and social workers was smaller, thus for these groups a more liberal p-value of .10 was used to test for significant relations. The results show some differential relations among the different groups of professionals.

Table 3.17
Pearson Correlations Between Relationship with Parents and Content of Contact per Setting

	17A	17B	17C	17D	17E	17F
	preschool	*behaviour*	*development*	*home*	*organisation*	*support*
16A Parents understand me						
ECEC (*N* = 251)	.02	.10	**.13***	**.15***	.00	.03
Formal education (*N* = 275)	.00	-.02	-.00	.04	.04	.05
After-school care (*N* = 55)	-.14	.11	.06	.11	**.28***	-.20
Social work sector (*N* = 73)	-.05	.14	**.20+**	**.32****	.08	**.20+**
16B Trouble communicating (R)						
ECEC (*N* = 251)	.08	.12	**.14***	**.12***	.04	.04
Formal education (*N* = 275)	.05	.01	.04	.05	-.05	-.04
After-school care (*N* = 55)	.01	-.02	**.26+**	**.37****	**.39****	.20
Social work sector (*N* = 73)	.05	.11	**.23+**	.14	.05	.07
16C Similar beliefs behaviour						
ECEC (*N* = 251)	.02	.03	.12	.04	-.03	.06
Formal education (*N* = 275)	.00	-.03	-.11	-.07	-**.13***	-.06
After-school care (*N* = 55)	.01	.14	.09	.11	.18	.02
Social work sector (*N* = 73)	.11	-.02	.05	.11	-.14	**.20+**
16D Similar beliefs achievements						
ECEC (*N* = 251)	.06	**.18****	**.28****	.11	.05	.11
Formal education (*N* = 275)	.08	.09	.06	.00	.01	.05
After-school care (*N* = 55)	**.27+**	.13	.13	.13	.16	.11
Social work sector (*N* = 73)	-.01	-.09	.12	.13	-.16	.09
16G Welcome initiative parents						
ECEC (*N* = 251)	**.15***	**.25****	**.21****	**.20****	.09	**.15***
Formal education (*N* = 275)	.07	.02	-.03	-.01	.02	.10
After-school care (*N* = 55)	-.11	.20	.17	.09	.00	.17
Social work sector (*N* = 73)	.11	.19	.20	**.35****	.01	.13
16H Communicate problems (R)						
ECEC (*N* = 251)	-.02	-.01	.08	-.02	.01	.00
Formal education (*N* = 275)	.08	.10	**.12***	**.18***	-.08	.03
After-school care (*N* = 55)	.01	-.02	**.26+**	-.03	.22	.06
Social work sector (*N* = 73)	.11	.18	**.27****	.18	.15	.16
16J Professional responsible						
ECEC (*N* = 251)	-.12	-.09	-.09	.03	.06	**.22****
Formal education (*N* = 275)	.01	**-.17****	-.03	-.07	-.08	-.06
After-school care (*N* = 55)	.06	**.25+**	.21	.14	.10	-.06
Social work sector (*N* = 73)	.17	.15	.12	**.22+**	.07	.05

+ *p* < .10; * *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001

Overall, the association between aspects of the professional-parent relation and the frequency of discussing different topics appear the strongest for ECEC professionals. Particularly, a welcoming attitude (16G) appears to be positively related to the frequency with which they talk with parents about all kinds of topics. In addition, when ECEC professionals feel responsible for contact with parents (16J) they more often discuss support for parents. Likewise, having similar beliefs on what children can achieve (16D) is related to the frequency with which the child's development (17C) and behaviour (17B) is discussed. Small relations also occurred for professionals who reported that they feel understood by parents (16A) and have little trouble with communicating with parents (16B) with the extent to which they discussed the child's home situation (17D).

In general, professionals working in formal education showed few associations between the relationship with parents and the degree they discussed certain topics with parents. Only two negative correlations appeared to be significant. When professionals report similar beliefs about children's behaviour (16C) they appear to talk with parents slightly less frequently about organizational aspects, such as opening hours or field trips (17E). Likewise, when professionals report a stronger responsibility for the contact with parents they report talking about the child's behaviour less frequently.

In a similar vein, there appear few correlations for after school professionals' relationship with parents and how often they discussed certain aspects with parents. The strongest associations were found when professionals reported few problems in the contact with parents in which case they more often talked with parents about the child's development and home situation as well as organizational aspects of the centre. In addition, when professionals report that they do not contact parents only when there is a problem (16H), they more often talk about the child's development and the situation at home. Lastly, when professionals feel responsible for the contact with parents, they more often discuss the child's behaviour.

For social workers the associations between their relationship with parents and the degree to which they discuss certain topics with parents appear stronger compared to the other professionals. This holds particularly for a feeling of being understood by parents, which is positively related to the extent to which they discuss children's behaviour and development as well as support for parents (17F). Also, professionals who welcome parent's initiatives report talking about the child's home situation more often. Lastly, talking about children's development more often occurred when professionals experienced few problems in the relationship with parents and do not only contact parents in case of problems.

3.2.4. SHARED VARIANCE WITHIN SITES AND COUNTRIES

To evaluate the extent to which professionals' relationship with parents reflect common ideas or practices at within sites and within countries, we calculated the intra-class-coefficients (ICC's) based on a three-level model (individual, site, country), see Table 3.18. The results show that there is hardly any shared variance at the site or country level for professional's relationship with parents. Concerning the organizational policy for contact with parents, there appeared to be quite some shared variance at the country level.

Table 3.18

Intra-class-coefficients at the Site and Country Level for Relationship with Parents

	ICC site level	ICC country level
Professionals' relationship with parents	.04	.04
Policy concerning contact with parents	.01	.18

3.3. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the results on professional's relationships with different stakeholders, of which parents were considered the most important stakeholder. Factor analyses on professional's relationship with parents showed that it is a multidimensional construct in which a shared understanding and similar beliefs as parents as well as reciprocal contact are important indicators. However, this construct could not reliably be compared between the different countries, as there appeared country differences in the items underlying the construct. Therefore, a selection was made of the items that worked the best across countries to represent the construct, which was labelled as *relationship with parents* to compare countries. Overall, the results show that professionals rate the relationship with parents as neutral, but oriented to positive. Professionals from England reported better relationships with parents, followed by professionals from the Netherlands and Norway. When considering differences between settings (*ECEC, formal education, after-school care,* and *the social work sector*) and professions (*teachers, specialists, managers*, and *social and family workers*) the results showed that professionals working in ECEC reported better relationships with parents, especially reporting a higher level of shared beliefs and that their contact is less often limited to problematic situations that occur. Also, teachers evaluated their relationship with parents as better compared to specialists, who more often indicated their contact with parents was limited to problematic situations only.

A second aspect in the contact with parents was the frequency of communication and the content of this communication. Overall, professionals mostly communicated with parents about their child's behaviour and/or their relationship with other children, followed by (pre-)school related issues, such as activities at home or homework. Independent of the content, professionals from England, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, and Portugal reported the most frequent contact with parents regarding the different topics (on average a couple times per month). A topic that is noticeably less often discussed is the child's home situation. This seems especially the case in France, the Czech Republic, and Norway. Also, parent support was less frequently topic of the conversation, especially in France, Norway, and Poland. Moreover, professionals working in ECEC, overall, reported more frequent communication with parents compared to professionals working in the other settings, specifically concerning the child's behaviour, development, and the home situation. Parental support, on the other hand, is most frequently discussed by professionals in the social work sector, followed by professionals working in ECEC.

There appeared some associations between the professionals' relationships with parents and the topics of conversation for professionals working in different settings, especially for professionals working in ECEC and the social work sector. The results showed positive associations between the relationship with parents and the frequency with which they discussed the child's behaviour

and development. For ECEC professionals, this particularly concerned the welcoming of parents' initiative for communication, whereas for social work professionals this concerned the feeling that they were understood by parents. For professionals working in formal education and after-school care only a few associations were found.

Also, managers were asked to report on their organizational policy in the contact with parents. A descriptive approach was taken following Epstein's (2001) classification of parent involvement. *Parenting* activities, such as giving advice on childrearing, were least often reported by managers from the Czech Republic and Norway, followed by France and Portugal. These activities were also less often reported in after-school care compared to the other three settings. Regarding *communicating*, organisations from all countries reported the most engagement in face-to-face communication, such as introductory meetings with new parents, compared to more distant or online forms of communication, such as the use of a group-app. Taken all forms of communication together, managers from the Netherlands and England reported somewhat higher levels of communication with parents compared to managers from the Czech Republic and Portugal. Also, professionals working in after-school care reported lower on parent communication compared to professionals working in the other settings. *Volunteering* activities, such as using parents as mediators or volunteers during activities, were reported less frequently, especially by professionals from Norway and the Czech Republic. Moreover, volunteering was also less frequently reported by professionals working in after-school care and ECEC compared to professionals working in formal education and the social work sector. A more formal aspect of parent involvement concerns *decision making* activities, such as the use of a parent council, which was reported relatively often by professionals from the Netherlands, Norway, and Poland. This form of parent involvement was reported less frequently by professionals working in the social work sector compared to professionals working in the other three settings. Lastly, *collaborating with the community* activities, such as organising meetings for parents to get to know each other, was reported relatively frequently by professionals from Poland, Germany, and Italy. Also, professionals who work in the social work sector reported less frequent collaboration with the community compared to professionals who work in the other settings. Taken all aspects of parent communication policy together, managers from the Netherlands, Poland, England, and Germany reported the highest frequency of parent communication, whereas managers from the Czech Republic, Portugal, and France scored somewhat lower on most items.

Also, the relationships with other stakeholders in terms of interagency collaboration were investigated both in terms of the types of services organisations collaborate with, as well as the goals for this collaboration. Organisations mostly collaborate (in terms of at least some level of information exchange, following the theoretical framework of Frey et al., 2006) with health, child care, and educational services, whereas collaboration with community-based and volunteering programs, and law-enforcement were less common. A country comparison shows that collaboration with health organisations was most commonly reported by managers from France, Italy, the Netherlands, and Greece whereas collaboration with social services was mostly reported by professionals from Czech Republic, England, Italy, Poland, and Portugal. Collaboration with community services was most evident in England and Greece, whereas collaboration with volunteering organisations and law enforcement was more common in Italy, Poland, and Portugal. The most commonly mentioned goals for collaboration were *improving child outcomes, detecting*

problems at an early stage, and *enhancing the continuity of experiences of children.* There appeared some difference between countries. Managers from the Netherlands, and to a lesser extent also managers from Norway, scored lower on the goal of reducing discrimination and segregation compared to managers from other countries. Likewise, the goal of learning from other professionals appeared less important for managers from Italy and the Netherlands. Lastly, professionals working in ECEC and after-school care more often mentioned that improving child outcomes was an important goal compared to professionals working in formal education.

The professionals' relationship with parents showed little shared variance at the site and country level. Likewise, there was little shared variance at the site level for the organizational policy in parent contact. However, there appeared a stronger common understanding at the country level for the organizational policy in contact with parents, which may suggest differences in countries' traditions in how they communicate and interact with parents.

4.   STAFF AND THEIR WORK ENVIRONMENT

As professionals are considered as agents within a wider context of the school, institution or organisation, characteristics of the team and organisation affect how professionals deal with diversity and multilingualism as well. In this chapter the focus is on the wider organizational context in which professionals work. Guided by the results of the literature review on the role of professionals in promoting diversity and inclusiveness (see Slot et al., 2017a) and inventory on professional development related to inclusiveness (See Slot et al., 2017b) four core concepts that can be considered part of staff's work environment will be addressed.

Aspects of the professionals' work environment have shown to be related to their practices. These aspects include general job satisfaction and general organizational characteristics at the organisation level, such as the organizational climate or team collaboration/cohesion (Bloom & Bella, 2005; Bloom & Sheerer, 1992; Dennis & O'Connor, 2013; Sylva, Melhuish, Sammons, Siraj-Blatchford, & Taggert, 2004). Organizational climate is a rather new concept in this field and encompasses the overall atmosphere of an organization, consisting of the collective perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, and values of the individuals working in the setting and their relationship with one another (Bloom, 2010). Personal characteristics, such as teacher efficacy and enthusiasm, have shown to be related to more positive beliefs towards diversity (Hachfeld et al., 2015). Teachers showing higher self-efficacy and more enthusiasm in their work viewed cultural diversity as enriching and emphasized the need to acknowledge and respect differences. However, many professionals feel ill-prepared to deal with diversity (DeCastro-Ambrosetti & Cho, 2005; Michel & Kuiken, 2014; Van Gorp & Moons, 2014). Studies have illustrated that professionals showed fear of not being accepted by the parents or even for racial or cultural conflicts (DeCastro-Ambrosetti & Cho, 2005; Dooly, 2005). Thus, it is important to investigate not only professionals' self-efficacy, but also what support needs they experience in view of providing on-going support and professional development.

A growing body of research stresses the need of continuous in-service training to influence teachers' attitudes and practices (e.g. Sheridan, Edwards, Marvin, & Knoche, 2009; Early et al., 2007; Jensen & Iannone, 2015). In-service training consists of a wide variety of professional development opportunities that can range from a single workshop to long-term coaching and mentoring practices (Buysse, Winton, & Rous, 2009). Several reviews and meta-analyses on the matter indicate important elements of effective professional development, such as permanence, specialized training, successful implementation, and joint participation (e.g. Egert, 2015; Henrichs, Slot, & Leseman, 2016; Zaslow, Tout, Halle, Whittaker, & Lavelle, 2010). Especially joint participation, in terms of professional learning communities (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace, & Thomas, 2006; Vescio, Ross, & Adams, 2008), has received increased interest as a means to establish more permanent changes in teacher's attitudes and practices (Egert, 2015; Stoll et al., 2006; Vescio et al., 2008; Zaslow et al., 2010). However, sufficient evidence of its effectiveness is still lacking (Jensen & Iannone, 2015). It has been suggested that joint participation in PD, as a team, strengthens the outcomes as it supports the establishment or sustainability of a professional culture in the organisation that facilitates the implementation of the newly acquired knowledge, skills, beliefs or attitudes in daily practice, but empirical evidence to support this notion is lacking (e.g. Egert, 2015; Zaslow et al., 2010). In contrast to more general research on professional development, little attention is devoted to the role of professional

development elements that influence teachers' culturally sensitive attitudes and practices, but some promising results have been reported (i.e. DeCastro-Amrosetti & Cho, 2005).

Altogether, the literature highlights the importance of several aspects in the professionals' work environment both at the individual level and the organizational level. The current study adopted a comprehensive approach capturing several individual aspects (i.e. job satisfaction, self-efficacy, individual support needs and opportunities for PD) as well as organizational aspects (i.e. organizational climate, manager support, and opportunities for PD).

4.1.   METHOD

As mentioned above, four core concepts: *job satisfaction and organizational climate*, *self-efficacy*, *support needs*, and *professional development*. The items in the questionnaire were developed to capture a wide range of topics concerning these concepts. Since different types of professionals were included in the sample, a selection was made in the questions they were asked to answer. Job satisfaction, organizational climate and professional development questions were provided to all professionals. Regarding self-efficacy and support needs, professionals identified as managers were asked different questions. As a result, there is great variation in the reported sample size (ranging from $N = 3$ to $N = 900$). These differences and the interpretation of the results are addressed accordingly in the following subsections with results.

4.1.1.   ANALYSIS

The use of different scales with varying sample sizes results in a variety of approaches to analyse the data. The overall approach for items that measure a single or multidimensional construct (e.g. job satisfaction, organizational climate, self-efficacy) consisted of checking the internal consistency of each scale and using a factor analysis to reach the most optimal grouping of items. In order to compare means of countries, types of professionals, and types of settings, measurement invariance across the different groups was investigated. For professionals' support needs and engagement in professional development activities, a more descriptive analysis at the item level was chosen in order to clearly report the results. The different approaches of analysis and their rationale are addressed accordingly in the following subsections with results.

4.2. RESULTS

The results of this chapter are presented in the following section. First, the overall core subjects of this chapter (*job satisfaction and organizational climate*, *self-efficacy*, *support needs*, *professional development*) are described and differences between countries are investigated (see Section 4.2.1). Second, the same subjects will be addressed from a profession and organisation perspective (see Section 4.2.2), by comparing different kind of professions (*teachers, specialists, managers,* and *social and family workers*) and the setting they work in (*ECEC, formal education*, *after-school-care*, and *social work sector*). Lastly, information on the variance within sites and countries will be provided (see Section 4.2.3).

4.2.1. COUNTRY COMPARISON

In the following paragraphs, an overview of the general results of our core subjects, as well as a comparison between the ten participating countries will be presented. A mix of figures and tables is used to present the results in a structured, yet comprehensive, way.

4.2.1.1. JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

A first subject in investigating staff and their work environment concerns their overall job satisfaction and the climate of the organisation they work in. In total there were seven items aimed to measure professional's overall job satisfaction. Professionals were asked to what extent they agree with the statements on a scale ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly disagree* (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5). An overview of the items is presented in Table 4.1. Using the same scale, we also asked professionals to rate their organizational climate with seven items (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.1

Overview of All Job Satisfaction Items

31A	On the whole, my job gives me a lot of satisfaction
31B	In my job I get the opportunity to do the things I do well
31D	My job takes up a lot of energy
31E	I find the atmosphere at my work very pleasant
31G	I ask for feedback to learn and develop professionally
31H	I try out new things in my work
31J	I feel appreciated as a professional

Table 4.2

Overview of All Organizational climate Items

32A	Moral is high. Staff in my organisation are friendly and trust one another
32C	Staff are encouraged to learn new skills and competencies
32E	Staff participate in making decisions about things that directly affect them
32F	Staff feel free to express their opinions
32G	Staff are encouraged to be creative and innovative in their job
32H	The centre implements changes as needed
32L	As a team, we are not able to cope well with difficult challenges

To test whether the items presented in Table 4.1 form a reliable scale for measuring job satisfaction, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS and Mplus in order to reach the most optimal grouping of items into subscales for the total sample of professionals across countries. Based on the calculated Cronbach's alpha per country and the results of the EFA, a one-factor model was chosen, excluding one item (my job takes up a lot of energy) in the final scale. This scale showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha's for all countries (ranging from α_{EL} = .74 to α_{EN} = .85) and an overall good model fit using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), χ^2 (9) = 47.99, p < .001, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .97, SRMR = .03, which explains approximately 50% of the variance. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3
Descriptive Statistics of All Job Satisfaction Items

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Λ
31A My job gives me satisfaction	901	4.51	0.72	1.00	5.00	.78
31B I get the opportunity to do things I do well	892	4.34	0.84	1.00	5.00	.67
31E The atmosphere at work is pleasant	899	4.18	0.94	1.00	5.00	.63
31G I ask for feedback to learn	899	4.38	0.83	1.00	5.00	.49
31H I try out new things at work	901	4.54	0.69	1.00	5.00	.62
31J I feel appreciated as professional	900	4.11	1.03	1.00	5.00	.62

With averages between M = 4.11 and M = 4.54 professionals generally indicate they agree with the statements and are satisfied with their jobs. Nevertheless, there is large variation as indicated by the standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used.

To be able to compare countries, a multigroup CFA was used, which showed an acceptable fit. The exported the factor scores were used for testing significant differences using an ANOVA. To enhance the interpretability of the findings, the effect coding rescaling method was used of which the means are displayed in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.1.

Table 4.4
Descriptive Statistics of Job Satisfaction per Country

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	53	4.42	0.48	2.83	5.00
02 England (EN)	98	4.37	0.54	3.00	5.00
03 Germany (DE)	55	3.93	0.88	1.50	5.00
04 Greece (EL)	196	4.42	0.59	2.80	5.00
05 France (FR)	31	4.29	0.51	2.83	5.00
06 Italy (IT)	121	4.37	0.59	2.17	5.00
07 The Netherlands (NL)	86	4.69	0.45	2.33	5.00
08 Norway (NO)	94	4.54	0.50	3.00	5.00
09 Poland (PL)	89	4.34	0.64	2.33	5.00
10 Portugal (PT)	80	4.15	0.72	2.83	5.00
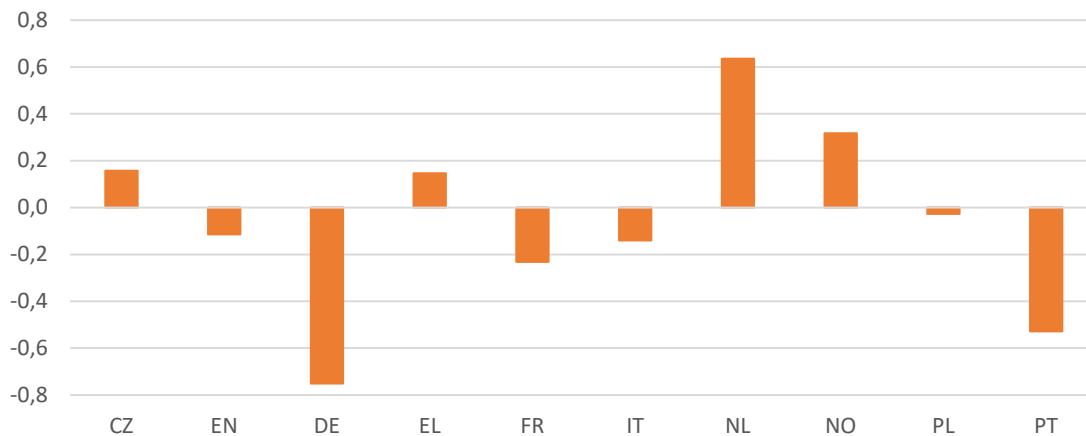
Figure 4.1. Standardized mean scores for job satisfaction per country.

The results of the univariate test of variance show that there are significant differences between countries in job satisfaction, $F(9) = 13.58$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that professionals in the Netherlands reported a significantly higher job satisfaction compared to all other countries. Professionals from Norway also scored significantly higher than the remaining countries (except for the Czech Republic and Greece). Furthermore, job satisfaction was reported the lowest by German professionals compared to all other countries (except Portugal). Professionals from France and Portugal also showed significantly lower scores than the countries scoring above the average (Czech Republic, England, Greece, the Netherlands, and Norway).

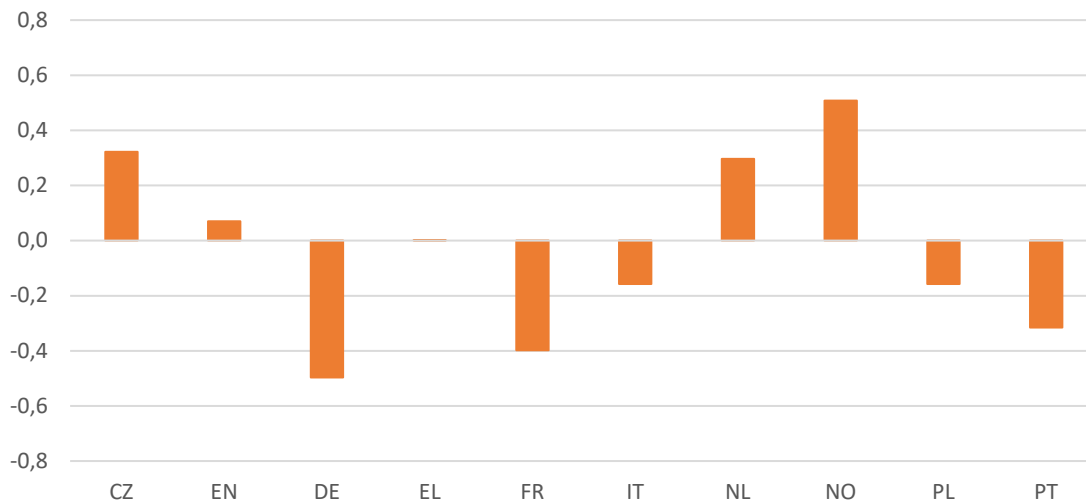### 4.2.1.1.2. ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

To test whether the items presented in Table 4.2 form a reliable scale for measuring organizational climate, first an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS and Mplus in order to reach the most optimal grouping of items into subscales for the total sample of professionals across countries. Based on the calculated Cronbach's alpha per country and the results of the EFA, a one-factor model was chosen, excluding one item (31 D, as a team, we are not able to cope well with difficult challenges) in the final scale. This scale showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha's for all countries (ranging from $\alpha_{CZ} = .84$ to $\alpha_{DE} = .93$) and an overall decent model fit using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), $\chi^2 (9) = 111.58$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .11, CFI = .96, SRMR = .03, which explains approximately 65% of the variance. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5
Descriptive Statistics of all Organizational climate Items

	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*Λ*
32A Moral is high	900	3.99	1.04	1.00	5.00	.66
32C Staff are encouraged to learn new skills	899	4.19	1.00	1.00	5.00	.82
32E Staff participate in decision making	898	3.94	1.10	1.00	5.00	.72
32F Staff feel free to express their opinions	898	4.10	1.06	1.00	5.00	.73
32G Staff are encouraged to be innovative	898	4.13	1.05	1.00	5.00	.84
32H Centre implements changes as needed	897	3.91	1.11	1.00	5.00	.76

With averages between $M = 3.99$ and $M = 4.19$ professionals generally indicate they agree with the statements and work in pleasant organizational climates, though there is large variation as indicated by the standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used.

Using the alignment method, the comparability of intercepts and factor loadings across countries was investigated. The results of this analysis indicated that all factor loadings were completely invariant across countries. For the intercepts, 4 out of 6 intercepts were completely invariant, with item 32E being problematic in three countries (Germany, Greece, and Italy) and item 32F being problematic in one country (Greece). However, the majority of items were invariant across the different countries and all factor loadings and intercepts were significant in all countries, thus mean country scores can be compared. To enhance the interpretability of the findings, the effect coding rescaling method was used of which the means are displayed in Table 4.6 and Figure 4.2. Overall, with means ranging from $M = 3.69$ to $M = 4.45$, professionals are relatively satisfied with their organizational climate. However, there is large variation as indicated by the standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used.

Table 4.6
Descriptive Statistics of Organizational climate per Country

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	53	4.31	0.60	2.50	5.00
02 England (EN)	98	4.12	0.69	2.33	5.00
03 Germany (DE)	55	3.69	1.06	1.17	5.00
04 Greece (EL)	194	4.07	0.96	1.17	5.00
05 France (FR)	31	3.76	1.01	1.33	5.00
06 Italy (IT)	121	3.95	0.90	1.00	5.00
07 The Netherlands (NL)	87	4.29	0.82	1.17	5.00
08 Norway (NO)	94	4.45	0.58	1.50	5.00
09 Poland (PL)	89	3.95	0.86	1.00	5.00
10 Portugal (PT)	79	3.83	0.85	1.50	5.00

As a final step, a univariate test of variance on the exported factor loadings from the CFA multigroup model was performed in order to check for significant differences between countries. The results show that there are significant differences between countries, $F(9) = 8.28$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that professionals from Norway scored significant higher on organizational climate compared to other countries (except Czech Republic and the Netherlands). Professionals from Czech Republic and the Netherlands scored significantly higher than the remaining countries as well (except England). Furthermore, professionals from Germany scored significantly lower on organizational climate compared to the other countries (except France and Portugal). Professionals from France and Portugal showed significantly lower scores than the countries scoring above the average (the Czech Republic, England, Greece, the Netherlands, and Norway).

Figure 4.2. Standardized mean scores for organizational climate per country.

A comparison of job satisfaction and organizational climate reveals a similar pattern for both scales. Overall, organisations in Norway and the Netherlands are the most favourable in terms of climate and employee satisfaction, followed by the Czech Republic. On the other end of the scale, German professionals rate their working conditions clearly less favourable than other countries, followed by professionals from Portugal and France. In addition, the differences between countries are more extreme for job satisfaction than for organizational climate. The conclusion that organizational climate and job satisfaction thus go hand in hand, is not only supported by the similar pattern in both scales, but also by the high correlations between the two constructs, with an overall significant Pearson correlation of .61 (except for France, see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7
Pearson Correlations of Job Satisfaction and Organizational climate per Country

	N	Correlation		N	Correlation
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	53	**.67***	06 Italy (IT)	121	**.60***
02 England (EN)	98	**.69***	07 The Netherlands (NL)	86	**.65***
03 Germany (DE)	55	**.67***	08 Norway (NO)	94	**.62***
04 Greece (EL)	194	**.58***	09 Poland (PL)	89	**.59***
05 France (FR)	31	.32	10 Portugal (PT)	80	**.55***

* $p < .001$.

4.2.1.2. SELF-EFFICACY

The second core concept concerns professional's self-efficacy. In total there were seven items aimed to measure self-efficacy. Professionals were asked to what extent 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). An overview of the items is presented in Table 4.8. Using the same scale, we also investigated the self-efficacy of managers through fourteen items (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.8

Overview of All Self-efficacy Items for Professionals

34A	Make contact even with the most challenging children
34B	Intervene when disturbing behaviour occurs in your group
34C	Promote the understanding of children who need extra help
34D	Adapt activities and guidance to a child's individual level/needs
34E	Guide families in supporting children's learning and development
34F	Work with children from diverse cultural backgrounds
34G	Work with children from diverse linguistic backgrounds

Table 4.9

Overview of All Self-efficacy Items for Managers

37A	Support staff in their daily work
37B	Support staff in challenging situations
37C	Combine the many tasks you have in a good way
37D	Create a cohesive team spirit
37E	Support staff's professional development
37F	Establish and maintain good contact with all parents
37G	Promote an inclusive work environment
37H	Deal with complaints from parents
37I	Deal with staffing problems due to turn over or sick leave
37J	Deal with changes in legislation and regulations
37K	Ensure that you realize your vision and objectives
37L	Solve conflicts between staff if they occur
37M	Moderate budget cuts
37N	Raise the quality and impact of your work

4.2.1.2.1. SELF-EFFICACY OF PROFESSIONALS

To test whether the items presented in Table 4.8 form a reliable scale for measuring self-efficacy of professionals, first an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS and Mplus in order to reach the most optimal grouping of items into subscales for the total sample of professionals across countries. Based on the calculated Cronbach's alpha per country and the results of the EFA, a two-factor model was chosen (see Figure 4.3). Item 34A to 34E can be viewed as a more general sense of self-efficacy, while item 34F and 34G are related to professional's sense of self-efficacy in relation to linguistic/cultural diversity. This model generally showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha's for all countries for the first factor (ranging from α_{NL} = .68 to α_{PT} = .93), though the internal consistency was a bit lower for the Czech Republic (α_{CZ} = .46) and for the second factor (ranging from α_{EL} = .68 to α_{FR} = .94), though again the internal consistency was a bit lower for the Czech Republic (α_{CZ} = .40). In addition, results from a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed a good fit χ^2 (13) = 36.80, p < .001, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .99, SRMR = .02, which explains approximately 67% of the variance. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 4.10.
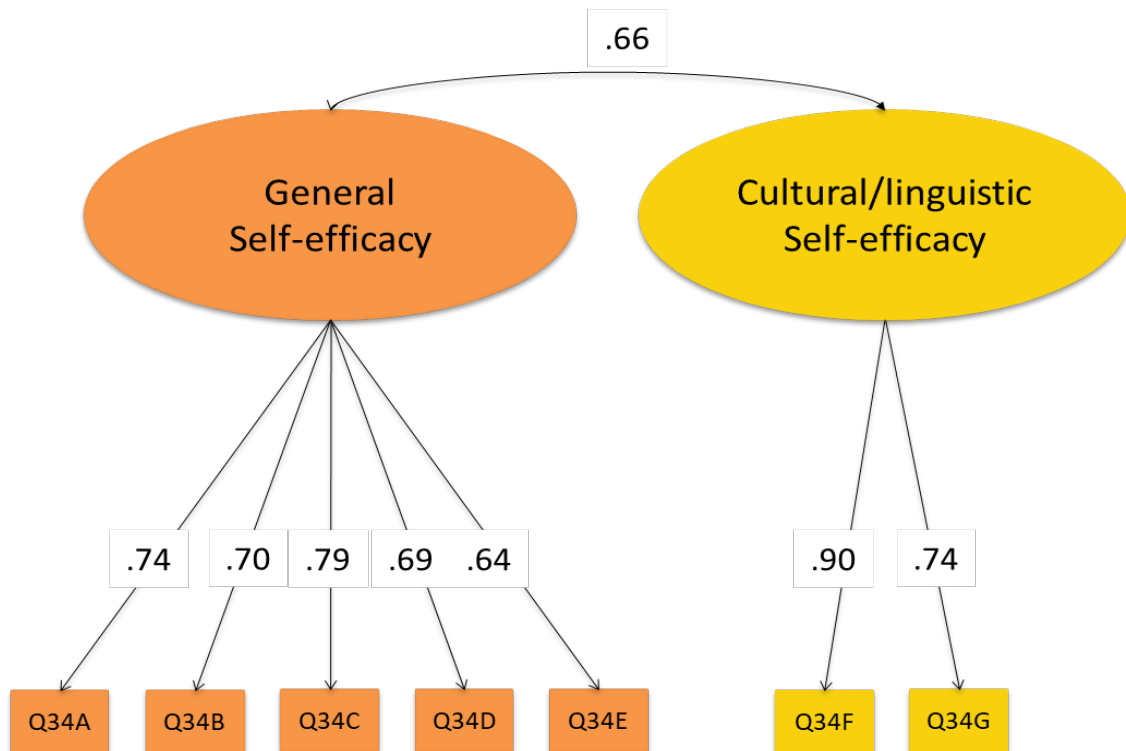
Figure 4.3. Conceptual model for self-efficacy of professionals.

Table 4.10

Descriptive Statistics of All Self-efficacy Items for Professionals

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Λ
34A Make contact with challenging children	735	3.96	0.80	1.00	5.00	.74
34B Intervene in disturbing behaviour	732	4.06	0.79	1.00	5.00	.70
34C Promote children's understanding	734	3.96	0.79	1.00	5.00	.79
34D Adapt to children's individual needs	733	3.85	0.83	1.00	5.00	.69
34E Guide families in supporting child learning	736	3.66	0.94	1.00	5.00	.64
34F Work with culturally diverse children	728	3.83	0.94	1.00	5.00	.90
34G Work with linguistically diverse children	732	3.62	0.99	1.00	5.00	.74

With averages between *M* = 3.62 and *M* = 4.06 professionals generally indicate they feel somewhat to quite well capable of dealing with these situations, though there is large variation as indicated by the standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used.

To be able to compare countries, a multigroup CFA was used, which showed an acceptable fit (CFI = .92). The exported the factor scores which we tested for significant differences using a multivariate test of variance. To enhance the interpretability of the findings, the effect coding rescaling method was conducted of which the means are displayed in Table 4.11 and Figure 4.4. The results from the multivariate test of variance show significant differences between countries in general feelings of self-efficacy, $F(9,728) = 10.19$, $p < .001$, as well as cultural/linguistic diversity self-efficacy, $F(9,728) = 16.03$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that for general feelings of self-efficacy, professionals from Germany, Italy, and Portugal scored significantly lower than professionals from other countries. Professionals from Norway on the other hand, scored

significantly higher than professionals from most other countries. For cultural/linguistic self-efficacy, professionals from Poland and Portugal scored significantly lower than professionals from all other countries. Professionals from Norway and the Netherlands scored significantly higher than professionals from all other countries (except for Germany). Altogether, Norwegian professionals score the highest on both aspects of self-efficacy and professionals from Italy and Portugal score the lowest. Furthermore, there is a discrepancy for German professionals between the two factors. German professionals indicate that they feel more capable in dealing with linguistic and cultural diversity compared to a more general sense of self-efficacy. This large discrepancy is also apparent for Poland, where professionals are noticeably scoring lower on cultural/linguistic self-efficacy.

Table 4.11
Descriptive Statistics of Self-efficacy of Professionals per Country

		General Self-efficacy				Cultural/linguistic self-efficacy			
	N	M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	44	3.96	0.34	3.00	4.60	3.88	0.48	2.00	4.50
02 England (EN)	84	3.96	0.73	1.00	5.00	3.88	0.82	1.00	5.00
03 Germany (DE)	46	3.71	0.69	2.20	5.00	4.16	0.94	2.00	5.00
04 Greece (EL)	165	4.05	0.60	2.20	5.00	3.65	0.83	1.00	5.00
05 France (FR)	25	3.92	0.88	1.60	5.00	3.81	1.19	1.00	5.00
06 Italy (IT)	113	3.64	0.54	2.60	5.00	3.66	0.65	1.00	5.00
07 The Netherlands (NL)	58	4.04	0.49	2.80	5.00	4.15	0.68	3.00	5.00
08 Norway (NO)	53	4.20	0.55	2.80	3.00	4.20	0.68	3.00	5.00
09 Poland (PL)	81	4.02	0.50	1.80	5.00	3.19	1.13	1.00	5.00
10 Portugal (PT)	69	3.66	0.87	1.00	5.00	3.36	0.91	1.00	5.00
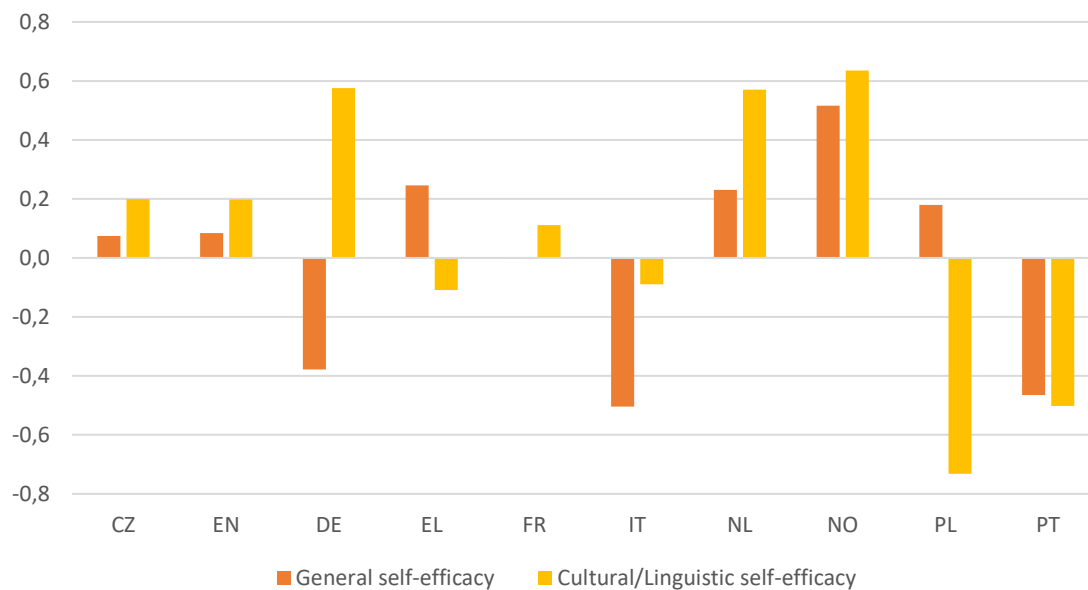
Figure 4.4. Standardized mean scores for self-efficacy of professionals per country.

As the lower scores of professionals from Poland and Portugal for cultural/linguistic self-efficacy might be explained by the overall lower levels of diversity in these countries in the current sample in terms of children/families with diverse cultural, linguistic, and socio-economic backgrounds (around 25%, see sample description, Section 1.2.2.1), these differences were also tested while controlling for the level of diversity of the local context. Though some differences become less apparent when controlling for the level of diversity, the overall picture of described differences between countries (with professionals from Poland and Portugal scoring lower on cultural/linguistic self-efficacy compared to most other countries) was invariant to the reported level of diversity of children/families within the organisation.

Table 4.12

Pearson Correlations of Self-efficacy of Managers with Diversity in Organisation per Country

		Cultural Diversity	Low-income Low-educated	Linguistic Diversity	Roma Population
01 CZ	General	.22	-.01	**.31***	.12
	Cultural/Linguistic	**.48****	.22	**.45****	**.39****
02 EN	General	**.58****	-.01	**.53****	
	Cultural/Linguistic	**.62****	-.01	**.54****	
03 DE	General	-.05	-.25	-.08	
	Cultural/Linguistic	**.41****	.21	**.35***	
04 EL	General	-.09	.04	.04	.07
	Cultural/Linguistic	-.03	.09	.15	.08
05 FR	General	.13	.32	.08	
	Cultural/Linguistic	.10	.28	.09	
06 IT	General	.18	.15	.12	
	Cultural/Linguistic	**.25****	**.22***	**.19***	
07 NL	General	**.42****	**.36****	**.30***	
	Cultural/Linguistic	**.48****	**.41****	**.35****	
08 NO	General	-.00	.15	.03	
	Cultural/Linguistic	.06	.15	.09	
09 PL	General	-.21	-.09	**-.33****	
	Cultural/Linguistic	.07	.05	-.03	
10 PT	General	-.14	.14	.05	-.21
	Cultural/Linguistic	-.04	.17	.13	-.15

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

To gain more insight into the relation between professionals' self-efficacy and the level of diversity in their local context, Pearson correlations were examined between the two self-efficacy constructs and several estimates for diversity in the local context (e.g. percentage of children with a different cultural or linguistic background, from low-income or low-educated parents, and in some countries the percentage of children from Roma families, see sample description, Section 1.2.2.1) for each country (see Table 4.12). Significant correlations were found for the Czech Republic, England, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, and Poland. The strongest correlations were found between the level of diversity and professionals cultural/linguistic self-efficacy. For the

Czech Republic, England, Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands we found that the level of cultural and linguistic diversity was positively correlated with professionals' cultural/linguistic self-efficacy. For the Czech Republic there was a correlation with the percentage of Roma children and for Italy and the Netherlands this positive correlation was also apparent for the percentage of children from low-income or low-educated families. Though the relation between the level of diversity and professionals' self-efficacy regarding this specific topic seems intuitive, there were also some correlations between professionals' general sense of self-efficacy and the level of diversity in the local context for the Czech Republic, England, the Netherlands. In the Netherlands significant positive correlations between all types of diversity and general self-efficacy were found. In England this correlation was apparent for cultural and linguistic diversity and in the Czech Republic only a positive correlation between the level of linguistic diversity and professionals' general sense of self-efficacy was found. In Poland on the other hand, a significant negative correlation appeared, indicating that professionals working in more linguistically diverse contexts showed lower levels of general self-efficacy.

4.2.1.2.2. SELF-EFFICACY OF MANAGERS

To test whether the items presented in Table 4.9 form a reliable scale for measuring self-efficacy of managers, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS and Mplus in order to reach the most optimal grouping of items into subscales for the total sample of professionals across countries. Based on the calculated Cronbach's alpha per country and the results of the EFA, a one-factor model was chosen, excluding one item (37M, moderate budget cuts) in the final scale. This model showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha's for all countries (ranging from α_{CZ} = .71 and α_{PT} = .97), though the internal consistency was a bit lower for France (α_{FR} = .59) and Italy α_{IT} = .63). In addition, results from a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed an acceptable fit χ^2 (63) = 93.10, p = .01, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .94, SRMR = .05, which explains approximately 41% of the variance. The descriptive statistics and standardized factor loadings of the scale are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13
Descriptive Statistics of All Self-efficacy Items for Managers

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Λ
37A Support staff in daily work	124	4.28	0.68	2.00	5.00	.63
37B Support staff in challenging situations	123	4.43	0.62	3.00	5.00	.61
37C Combine many tasks of manager	123	4.03	0.75	2.00	5.00	.64
37D Create a cohesive team spirit	122	4.22	0.77	1.00	5.00	.64
37E Support staff's professional development	121	4.26	0.72	1.00	5.00	.61
37F Establish good relations with parents	123	4.12	0.84	2.00	5.00	.53
37G Promote inclusive work environment	121	4.27	0.71	2.00	5.00	.67
37H Deal with complaints from parents	123	4.35	0.59	3.00	5.00	.61
37I Deal with staffing problems (sick or turn over)	122	4.01	0.82	1.00	5.00	.59
37J Deal with legislation and regulations	123	4.07	0.72	2.00	5.00	.54
37K Realize vision and objectives	122	4.06	0.63	2.00	5.00	.65
37L Solve conflicts between staff	124	4.13	0.72	1.00	5.00	.50
37N Raise quality and impact of work	124	4.06	0.66	2.00	5.00	.74

With the majority of items scoring above 4, managers indicate they feel quite well capable of dealing with these situations. Since the sample size within countries is too small to evaluate measurement invariance, the internal consistency coefficient was investigated for each country separately (see Table 4.14 and Figure 4.5). The overall consistency coefficients are acceptable for all countries, though a bit lower for France and Italy. Considering both the mean scores and the range, managers in France, Italy, Portugal, and the Czech Republic showed somewhat lower self-efficacy. Managers in England, Germany, Greece reported the highest self-efficacy. Nevertheless, with all countries scoring on average between $M = 3.67$ and $M = 4.40$, managers in all countries overall showed moderate to high self-efficacy.

Table 4.14
Descriptive Statistics of Self-efficacy of Managers per Country

	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*α*
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	9	4.03	0.26	3.62	4.46	.71
02 England (EN)	11	4.30	0.32	3.77	4.77	.77
03 Germany (DE)	8	4.21	0.28	3.77	4.69	.73
04 Greece (EL)	27	4.40	0.41	3.33	5.00	.78
05 France (FR)	5	3.82	0.26	3.54	4.15	.59
06 Italy (IT)	3	3.67	0.36	3.38	4.08	.63
07 The Netherlands (NL)	10	4.13	0.47	3.69	5.00	.86
08 Norway (NO)	38	4.16	0.47	3.08	5.00	.90
09 Poland (PL)	5	4.14	0.29	3.69	4.38	.85
10 Portugal (PT)	8	3.97	0.81	2.62	5.00	.97
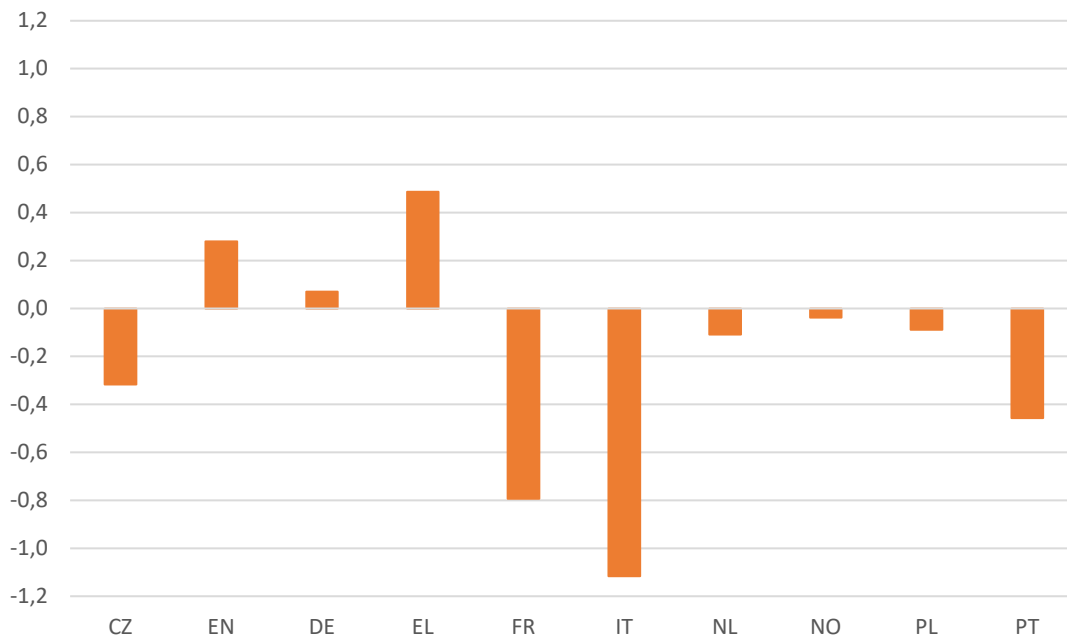
Figure 4.5. Standardized mean scores for self-efficacy of managers per country.

4.2.1.3. SUPPORT NEEDS

To gain more insights into which areas professionals feel they need extra support, professionals were asked to what extent they needed support on seven different topics on a scale ranging from *not at all* (1), *very little* (2), *somewhat* (3), *quite a lot* (4), to *to a very large degree* (5). Table 4.15 provides and overview of the items. Both support needs in light of (cultural and linguistic) diversity, as well as more general support items were included. Using the same scale, managers were asked to what extent they think their staff needs extra support in these areas. In addition, managers were asked to what extent they consider themselves as supportive leaders. The six items used to assess this supportive attitude were presented on a scale ranging from *disagree* (1), *slightly disagree* (2), *undecided* (3), *slightly agree* (4), to *agree* (5) and are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.15
Overview of All Support Needs Items

33A	Extra hands, for example an assistant
33B	More knowledge of cultural diversity or multilingualism
33C	More time for individualized support for children who need this
33D	More time to prepare and adapt my work better for a diverse group of children
33E	More time for contact with parents
33F	Smaller number of children in the group
33G	More concrete guidelines to deal with cultural tensions

Table 4.16
Overview of All Supportive Attitude Items

35A	I take the views of individual staff members seriously
35B	I show appreciation when a staff member takes the initiative to improve practice or to engage in some form of professional development
35C	I make sure all staff feel they belong, regardless of their background
35D	I try to be aware of problems staff experience during the implementation of reforms
35E	I acknowledge my staff's extraordinary skills and competences
35F	I give staff the opportunity to specialize

4.2.1.3.1.   SUPPORT NEEDS OF PROFESSIONALS

The descriptive information of professionals' support needs is presented in Table 4.17. The findings show that professionals most prominently indicate they need more time to support individual children who need this extra support (33C). A mean score of $M = 3.95$ indicates that professionals on average state that they need this kind of support *quite a lot*. More time for communication with parents (33E) and concrete guidelines to deal with cultural tensions (33G) is listed as least necessary, though a mean score of $M = 3.25$ still indicates professionals on average need some support in these areas. However, there is large variation as indicated by the standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used.

Table 4.17
Descriptive Statistics of Support Needs of Professionals

	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
33A Extra hands (assistant)	732	3.46	1.35	1.00	5.00
33B More knowledge (cultural/linguistic) diversity	728	3.37	1.13	1.00	5.00
33C More time for individual support children	723	3.95	1.09	1.00	5.00
33D More time to adapt work to diverse groups	723	3.56	1.18	1.00	5.00
33E More time for communication with parents	725	3.25	1.20	1.00	5.00
33F Smaller number of children in groups	731	3.52	1.41	1.00	5.00
33G Guidelines for dealing with cultural tensions	723	3.25	1.23	1.00	5.00

A country comparison of the support needs on the seven different areas is shown in Figure 4.6. In line with the descriptive statistics extra time for individual support of children (33C) is viewed as most necessary and more time for communication with parents (33E) and concrete guidelines for dealing with cultural tensions (33G) as less necessary across all countries. Moreover, Figure 4.6b shows in general similar patterns for the different countries, though some differences can be found. For instance, the need for more knowledge on diversity and multilingualism (33B) is in all countries valued less necessary compared to extra hands (33A), except in Greece and Italy. Also, the need for smaller groups of children (33F) is more evident in Greece and Germany, whereas professionals from the Netherlands showed very little need for smaller groups. Lastly, professionals from Greece and Germany scored overall relatively high in all areas, whereas professionals in the Netherlands clearly indicated less overall need for support.
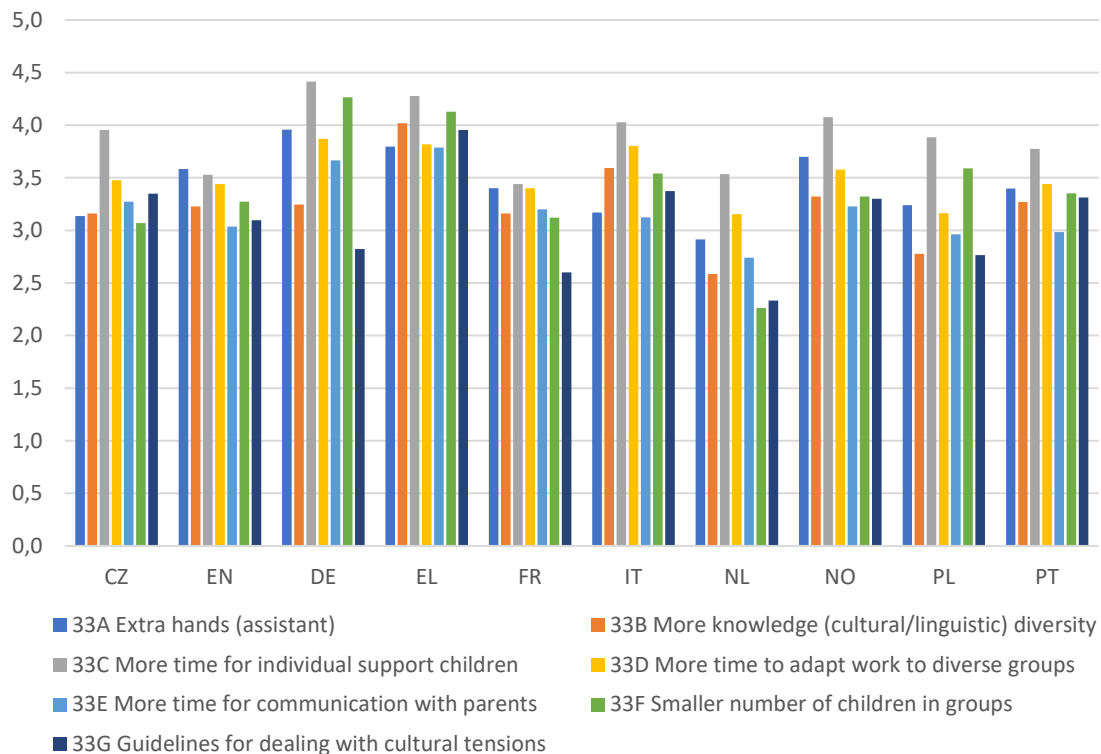
Figure 4.6. Mean scores for support need areas for professionals per country.

4.2.1.3.2. SUPPORT NEEDS FROM THE MANAGER PERSPECTIVE

The descriptive information of the manager's perspective regarding the extent their staff needs support is presented in Table 4.18. However, there is large variation as indicated by the standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used. The findings show that managers most prominently feel their staff needs for more time to support individual children who need this extra support (33C). A mean score of $M = 4.11$ indicates that managers, on average, state that their staff needs this kind of support *quite a lot* to *a very large degree*. Concrete guidelines to deal with cultural tensions (33G) is listed as least necessary, though a mean score of $M = 3.51$ still indicates managers feel their staff needs *somewhat* to *quit a lot* support in this area.

Table 4.18
Descriptive Statistics of Support Needs from the Manager Perspective

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
33A Extra hands (assistant)	131	4.11	0.96	1.00	5.00
33B More knowledge (cultural/linguistic) diversity	131	3.63	0.93	1.00	5.00
33C More time for individual support children	131	4.19	0.84	1.00	5.00
33D More time to adapt work to diverse groups	129	3.86	1.00	1.00	5.00
33E More time for communication with parents	129	3.64	1.05	1.00	5.00
33F Smaller number of children in groups	131	3.71	1.25	1.00	5.00
33G Guidelines for dealing with cultural tensions	127	3.52	1.00	1.00	5.00

A country comparison of the support needs on the seven different areas is shown in Figure 4.7. In line with the descriptive statistics professionals in all countries viewed extra time for individual support of children (33C) as most necessary and concrete guidelines for dealing with cultural tensions (33G) as least necessary. Moreover, in general similar patterns for the different countries are visible, though some differences can be found. For instance, managers in Italy seemed to value extra hands (33A) and more time for professionals to adapt their work in diverse groups (33D) as relatively important in comparison to the other areas. Lastly, in line with the results from the professionals, overall managers from Greece scored relatively high in all areas, were as Dutch managers indicated less overall support needs. Managers from Germany on the other hand, scored lower compared to the other countries, which is in contrast with the results of the German professionals.
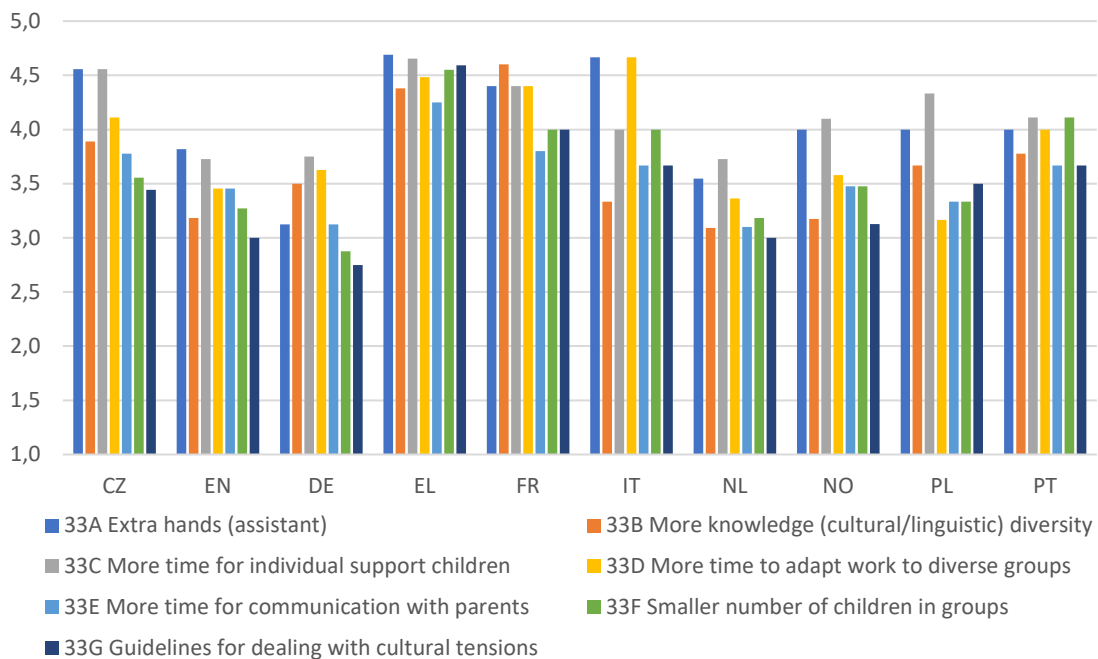
Figure 4.7. Mean scores for support need areas from the manager perspective per country.

Comparing the overall results of the support needs as reported by professionals and by managers, a similar pattern across the different areas emerges. However, as Figure 4.8 shows, on average, managers tend to estimate the support needs of their staff higher than professionals themselves do. This pattern emerged in most countries, except in England and Norway (where managers and professionals rate the support needs rather equal) and Germany (where professionals indicate that their needs are higher than estimated by the managers).
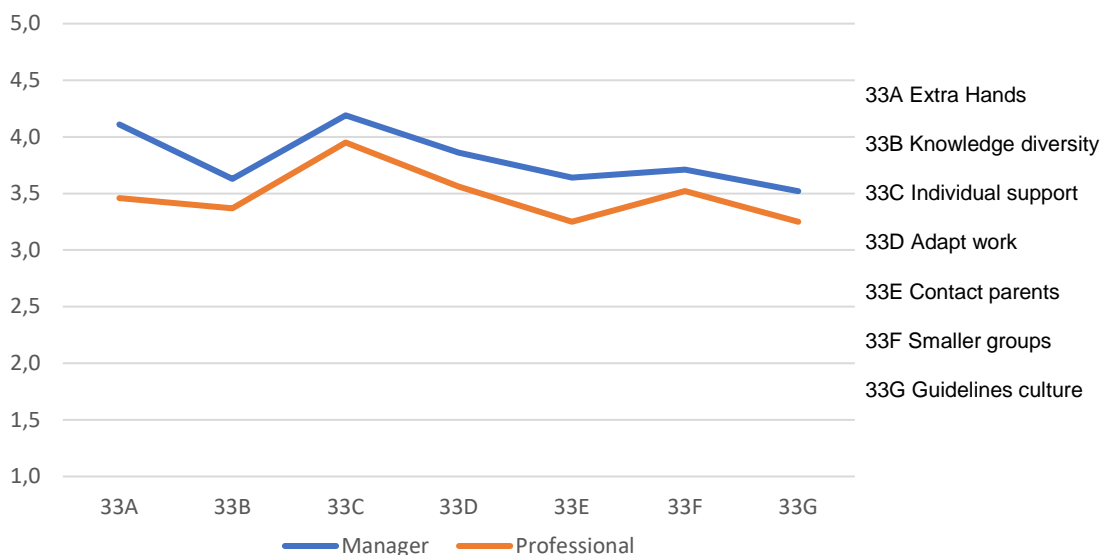
Figure 4.8. Mean scores for support needs comparison between professionals and managers.

4.2.1.3.3. SUPPORTIVE ATTITUDE OF MANAGERS

Table 4.19 shows the descriptive statistics of manager's self-reported supportive attitudes. Overall, with means ranging from $M = 4.48$ to $M = 4.89$ and rather small standard deviations, managers consider themselves as being highly supportive towards their staff. Figure 4.9, which shows the distribution of scores, further illustrates this. Furthermore, relatively the most variance in answers can be found in item 35C (making staff feel like they belong despite their background) and item 35F (giving staff the opportunity to specialize).

Table 4.19
Descriptive Statistics of Supportive Attitude of Managers

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	Λ
35A Take views of staff seriously	131	4.82	0.44	3.00	5.00	.67
35B Show appreciation for initiative	130	4.89	0.31	4.00	5.00	.52
35C Make staff feel they belong	130	4.69	0.57	2.00	5.00	.67
35D Be aware of problems during reform	131	4.74	0.46	3.00	5.00	.58
35E Acknowledge skills and competences	130	4.78	0.47	3.00	5.00	.57
35F Give opportunity to specialize	130	4.48	0.78	1.00	5.00	.49

To investigate whether a mean score of these items would be meaningful to interpret, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS and Mplus in order to reach the most optimal grouping of items into subscales for the total sample of managers across countries. Based on the calculated Cronbach's alpha and the results of the EFA, a one-factor model was chosen. This scale showed an acceptable Cronbach's alpha ($α = .73$) and an overall good model fit using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), $χ^2 (9) = 13.75$, $p = .13$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .97, SRMR = .04, which explains approximately 45% of the variance. Standardized factor loadings for all items are shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.20
Descriptive Statistics of Supportive Attitude of Managers per Country

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	α
01 Czech Republic (CZ)	9	4.78	0.31	4.17	5.00	.83
02 England (EN)	11	4.83	0.26	4.17	5.00	.61
03 Germany (DE)	8	4.90	0.15	4.67	5.00	.36
04 Greece (EL)	29	4.85	0.23	4.17	5.00	.60
05 France (FR)	5	4.47	0.48	3.83	4.83	.77
06 Italy (IT)	3	4.78	0.25	4.50	5.00	.34
07 The Netherlands (NL)	11	4.88	0.17	4.50	5.00	.26
08 Norway (NO)	40	4.61	0.37	3.67	5.00	.67
09 Poland (PL)	6	4.74	0.27	4.33	5.00	.76
10 Portugal (PT)	9	4.59	0.59	3.33	5.00	.90

Since the sample size within countries is too small to evaluate measurement invariance, the internal consistency coefficient was evaluated for each country separately (see Table 4.20). The overall consistency coefficients are reasonable, except for Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands which is caused by a lack of variance on one or more of the items. Both the mean scores and the

range, show a bit more variation in the supportive attitudes of managers in France, Norway and Portugal. Nevertheless, with all countries scoring, on average, between $M = 4.47$ and $M = 4.90$, managers in all countries report a highly supportive attitude.

4.2.1.4. ONGOING SUPPORT FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In order to gain more insight into the ongoing support for professional development within organisations, we investigated how often professionals and managers are engaged in professional development (PD) activities, how they value these activities and if/why they consider these practices as effective. First, professionals and managers were asked how often they engage in eleven different PD activities on a scale ranging from *almost never* (1), *less than once a month* (2), *once a month* (3), *2 to 3 times a month* (4), *every week* (5), *2 to 4 times a week* (6), to *every day* (7). Table 4.21 provides and overview of the eleven PD activities.

Second, respondents were asked to list the three activities they consider most valuable and effective for improving their practice and asked them to indicate for their first choice what the effective elements of this activity were (see Table 4.22). Professionals were asked to indicate to what extent they think these elements should be included in the PD activity on a scale ranging from *none at all* (1), *very little* (2), *somewhat* (3), *moderate* (4), to *to a very large degree* (5).

Lastly, questions were asked on what kind of in-service training, conferences or workshops professionals attended in the past two years, focusing on the delivery modes of these activities in terms of duration, online or face-to-face delivery, and if the activity was an individual training or team activity. Both the effective elements and delivery modes directly reflect the three different core components (*who, what, how*) of the proposed conceptual framework of professional development in the T5.2 ISOTIS inventory report (see Slot et al., 2017b).

Table 4.21
Overview of All Professional Development Activities

39A	Regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting practice
39B	Discussing and evaluating with your colleagues individual children who need extra care
39C	Observing colleagues at work to learn from them
39D	Observing colleagues to give them feedback
39E	Being observed in your work in the classroom in order to receive feedback and coaching
39F	Reading and discussing professional literature together with your colleagues
39G	Reflecting together with your colleagues upon the pedagogical and educational objectives of your work
39H	Exchanging experiences and reflecting upon practices with direct colleagues
39I	Exchanging experiences and reflecting upon practices with a professional (external) coach or supervisor
39J	Exchanging experiences and reflecting upon practices with other professionals, e.g. in a learning network/learning community
39K	Exchanging experiences and reflecting upon practices via an online learning community/platform

Table 4.22

Overview of All Effective Elements of Professional Development Activities

43A	Focus on knowledge
43B	Focus on skills
43C	Focus on beliefs, attitudes or expectations
43D	Focus on a combination of theory and practice
43E	Focus on my own daily experiences
43F	Focus on the provision of support when dealing with challenges of my work
43G	Focus on the provision of practical examples
43H	Focus on discussions with a group of other professionals
43I	Focus on my individual needs
43J	Focus on reflection of my practices

4.2.1.4.1.   PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

The descriptive information on the different PD activities is presented in Table 4.23. The findings primarily show the large variation in engagement in activities as indicated by the large standard deviations and the fact that the full range of the scale is used for all eleven activities.

Table 4.23

Descriptive Statistics of Professional Development Activities

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
39A Regular cycles of planning/evaluating/adapting	826	3.68	1.79	1.00	7.00
39B Discussing and evaluating individual children	845	4.37	1.74	1.00	7.00
39C Observing colleagues to learn from them	832	3.36	2.19	1.00	7.00
39D Observing colleagues to give them feedback	825	3.03	2.05	1.00	7.00
39E Being observed to receive feedback or coaching	819	2.37	1.77	1.00	7.00
39F Reading and discussing professional literature	830	2.49	1.58	1.00	7.00
39G Reflecting together upon pedagogical practice	832	3.66	1.75	1.00	7.00
39H Exchanging and reflecting with direct colleagues	834	4.42	1.79	1.00	7.00
39I Exchanging and reflecting with external coach	829	2.42	1.49	1.00	7.00
39J Exchanging and reflecting with learning network	825	2.59	1.54	1.00	7.00
39K Exchanging and reflecting via online platform	820	1.99	1.51	1.00	7.00

The average scores for the activities indicate some clear differences. Professionals report exchanging and reflecting on practice with direct colleagues (39H), on average, almost every week. Exchanging and reflecting on that same practice with professionals (coach or learning network) outside the organisation (39I and 39J) on the other hand is something that occurs less frequently (approximately every other month). Exchanging and reflecting via an online platform occurs (39K) even less frequently (less than once a month on average), and is the least occurring PD activity in general. Reading and discussing professional literature (39F) also occurs less frequently. Considering the three PD activities that use observation, the results show that professionals observe other colleagues more often to support their own professional development (39C, $M = 3.36$) instead of the professional development of the observed colleague (39D, $M = 3.03$). Being observed to receive feedback or coaching (39E, $M = 2.37$) happens even less

frequently. Furthermore, with an average of M = 3.68 and M = 3.66, professionals indicate that they engage in regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting practice (39A) and reflection on pedagogical and educational practice (39G) every other week. Finally, discussing and evaluating individual children that need additional support (39B) occurs relatively often, almost every week on average.

A country comparison of the engagement in professional development activities is shown in Figure 4.9. The similarity of the lines presented in Figure 4.9 shows that in general the ten countries are rather similar in the time they devote to the different PD activities in relation to other activities. Nevertheless, there are some differences in overall frequency of engagement in PD activities. For instance, professionals from Portugal scored below average on 10 out of 11 activities, whereas professionals from Greece scored above average on 9 out of 11 activities. The differences between the highest and lowest occurring PD activity in some countries is more than two points. For instance, in England, the Netherlands, and Norway professionals are rather equally involved in regular cycles of planning (39A) as well as discussing and evaluating individual children (39B), compared to all other countries where professionals are more often involved in discussing individual children than regular cycles of planning. Professionals from England scored relatively high on exchanging and reflecting with professionals outside the organisation (39I to 39K) compared to professionals from the other countries. Furthermore, engagement in exchanging and reflecting via an online platform (39K) is, despite the overall low averages in all countries, lacking in the German sample.

39A Cycles of evaluating
39B Disussing children
39C Observe to learn
39D Observe to feedback
39E Being observed
39F Discussing literature
39G Reflecting on practice
39H Exchange colleagues
39I Exchange coach
39J Exchange network
39K Exchange online
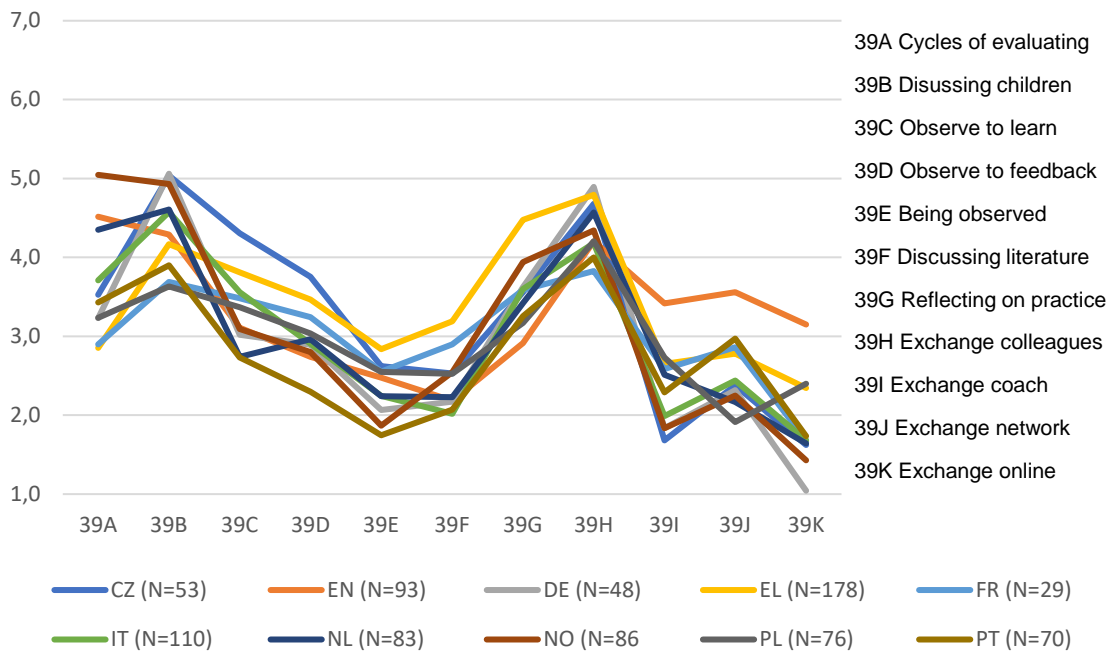
Figure 4.9. Mean scores per country for engagement in professional development per activity.

Besides an inventory of how often different activities occur, professionals were also asked to select three activities (top three ranking) they considered to be very effective. Figure 4.10 shows to what extent professionals value the different types of PD activities.
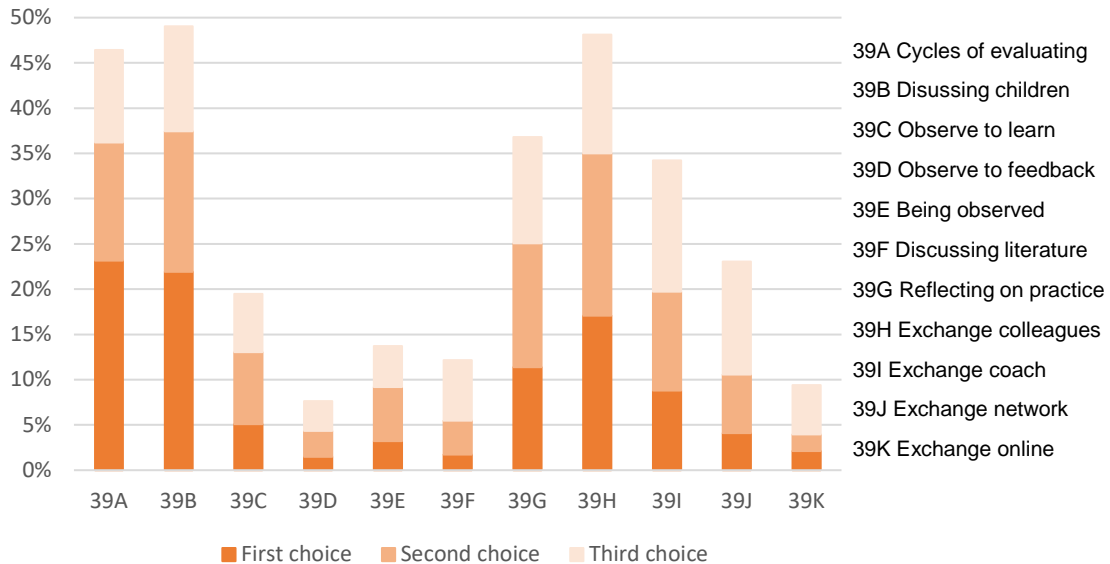
Figure 4.10. Most effective PD activities as indicated by professionals.

Regular cycles of planning (39A), discussing individual children (39B), and exchanging and reflecting with direct colleagues (39H) are clearly the most valued types of PD activities. In total, 62% of the professionals selected one of these activities as first choice, 47% as second choice and 35% as third choice. These results seem in line with the actual reported frequency of activities that showed that these three activities occurred most frequently in comparison to other PD activities. Activities as observing colleagues to give them feedback (39D), being observed by a coach (39E), reading literature (39F), and exchanging via an online platform (39K) are considered less effective in comparison to the other type of PD activities, which also seems in line with the results that revealed the rather infrequent occurrence of these type of activities. An interesting result that deviates from the actual occurrence of PD activities concern the exchange and reflection with an external coach or supervisor (39I). The percentage of professionals indicating this as an effective PD is rather high in comparison to some of the other activities (39D, 39E, 39F, 39K), especially when taking into account that the actual frequency of these activities is fairly equal (approximately every other month or less).

A country comparison shows a similar pattern (see Figure 4.11), though there are some differences. For instance, only 10% of the professionals in France listed discussing and evaluating individual children (39B) in their top 3, in comparison to countries such as the Czech Republic and Poland where more than half of the professionals listed this activity. Such differences are also apparent for regular cycles of planning (39A) which approximately half of the professionals in England, the Czech Republic, and Norway listed as activity compared to merely 16% of the professionals in Poland. Lastly, activity 39E (being observed by an external coach) was most often listed by Dutch professionals with close to 30% this.

39A Cycles of evaluating
39B Disussing children
39C Observe to learn
39D Observe to feedback
39E Being observed
39F Discussing literature
39G Reflecting on practice
39H Exchange colleagues
39I Exchange coach
39J Exchange network
39K Exchange online
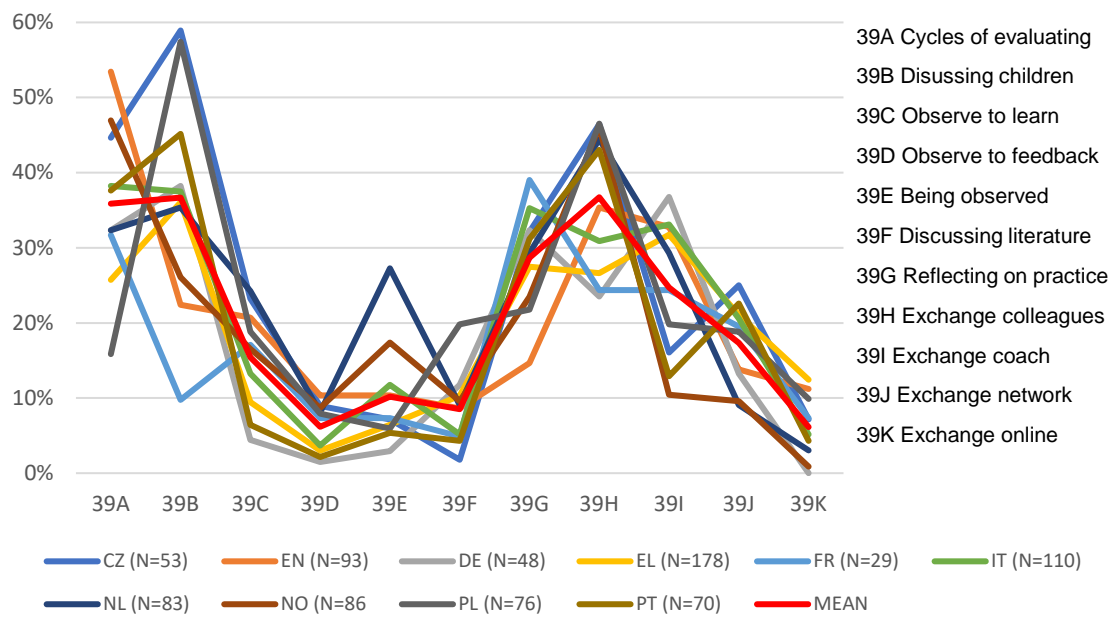
Figure 4.11. Percentage of professionals per country indicating a PD activity as effective per activity.

4.2.1.4.2.   EFFECTIVE ELEMENTS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Professionals were asked to indicate to what extent several elements should be included in the PD activity of their first choice in order for it to be effective. The descriptive information on the different elements is presented in Table 4.24. Overall, with averages between $M = 3.59$ and $M = 4.39$ professionals indicate that all elements at least be somewhat included in a PD activity for it to be effective.

Table 4.24
Descriptive Statistics of Effective Elements of Professional Development Activities

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
43A Knowledge	791	3.85	0.90	1.00	5.00
43B Skills	783	4.19	0.77	1.00	5.00
43C Beliefs, attitudes or expectations	788	3.59	1.11	1.00	5.00
43D Combination of theory and practice	788	4.21	0.90	1.00	5.00
43E Own daily experiences	789	4.17	0.83	1.00	5.00
43F Support when dealing with challenges of my work	787	4.27	0.80	1.00	5.00
43G Practical examples	785	4.39	0.75	1.00	5.00
43H Discussions with a group of other professionals	783	4.09	0.92	1.00	5.00
43I Individual needs	776	3.86	0.97	1.00	5.00
43J Reflection of my practices	784	4.25	0.82	1.00	5.00

Figure 4.12 shows the scores for the several elements, split per PD activity. An interesting finding is that the mean scores for the different PD activities (as indicated by the lines in Figure 4.12) follow a rather similar pattern. This suggests that, in the eyes of professionals, the elements that make a PD activity effective are actually quite indifferent to the type of activity. Considering the

focus domains (i.e. *knowledge* (43A), *skills* (43B), and *attitudes, expectations and beliefs* (43C)), overall skills are most valued by professionals, followed by knowledge. Attitudes, expectations and beliefs are considered the least important element in effective PD activities. Not surprisingly, this pattern only seems to deviate for reading and discussing literature (39F), which is the only type of activity where knowledge is valued over skills. However, when discussing literature as PD activity, a combination of theory and practice (43D) is indicated as an important element as well. Another interesting result concerns the effective elements in exchanging via an online platform (39K). Professionals that selected this activity as most valuable seem to score rather high on getting support for challenges (43F), sharing examples from practice (43G), discussing with other professionals (43H), and a focus on individual needs (43I). Especially, the sharing of examples from practice plays a significant role in this kind of activity. Lastly, the need for reflection (43J) especially shows very little differentiation between the several PD activities and was considered moderate to highly important in all types of activities.

The sample size was too small to effectively compare countries, thus the focus is at the three PD activities that were chosen most often (39A, 39B, and 39H, see also Figure 4.10) and the overall averages per country. The main finding from these descriptive analyses is that the differences between countries and PD activities are rather limited, again indicating that there is a shared understanding on the effective elements of PD. The only apparent difference between countries seems to be that professionals from Italy value the focus on attitudes, expectations and beliefs less often, both in absolute comparison to other countries as well as relatively compared to their scores for knowledge and skills.
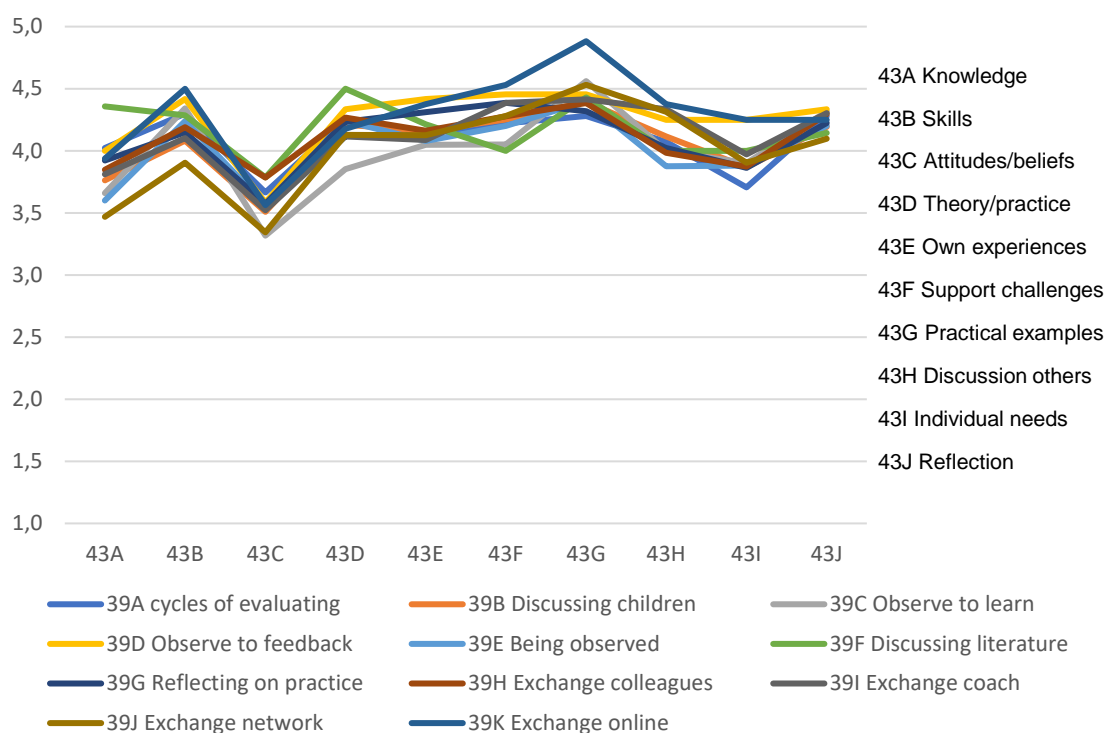
Figure 4.12. Effective elements of different PD activities as indicated by professionals.

4.2.1.4.3.   IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Of the *N* = 831 professionals that answered the in-service training questions, 74% indicated they have followed any job-related further training or attended any conferences or workshops in the past two years. Professionals were asked to consider the most valuable in-service training they had followed and describe them in terms of delivery modes. In 31% of the cases, the in-service training was some sort of one-off workshop or conference people attended. In 41% of the cases it was part of an in-service training that lasted for a longer period of time. There is large variation in the duration of the trainings, though. In more than half of these cases (61%), the training lasted less than a week (4 days on average). In 35% of the cases the training lasted several weeks/months (4 weeks on average) and in 4% of the cases people indicated it was a trajectory of more than one year. Only in 3% of the cases, professionals indicated that their most valuable in-service training of the past two years was an online course or webinar. In 17% of the cases a combination was selected, with a combination of both a one-off workshop or conference as part of a longer lasting in-service training being most prominent. In 9% of the cases, professionals indicated their training did not fit any of the categories listed.

The country comparison reveals roughly two patterns (see Figure 4.13). In the Czech Republic, England, Greece, France, and Poland, a one-off workshop or conference is more frequently selected, indicating that these kinds of activities are more often followed by these professionals, or that those activities are more valued. In Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and Germany (though the difference in Germany is small) there is a reversed pattern. Finally, online courses were only selected in Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, and Norway.
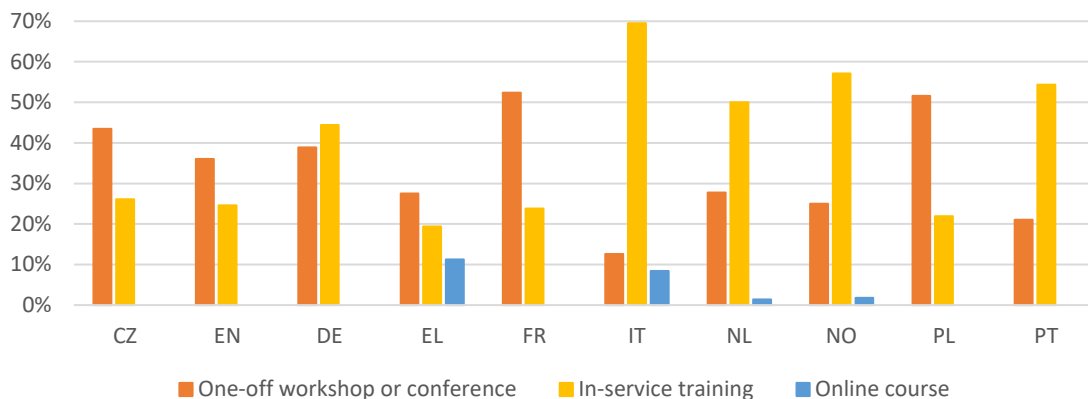
Figure 4.13. Type of training per country.

In the vast majority of the cases the training was specifically focused at the team (63%), followed by a combination of individual and team (22%) and only in 15% of the cases it was a purely individual trajectory. This indicates that either professionals are mostly engaged in team-based PD activities or they most value these kinds of activities. This pattern seemed indifferent to the type of delivery mode (one-off conference, in-service trajectory, or online course), though a combination of team and individual was a bit more frequent in in-service training that lasted a longer period of time. This was the most common pattern across countries, except for Germany (where individual training was with 50% mostly selected) and Norway (where a combination of individual and team was with 51% mostly selected).

4.2.2. TYPE OF PROFESSIONAL AND SETTINGS THEY WORK IN

The four core concepts of this chapter will be compared for type of setting (*ECEC, formal education, after-school care,* and *social work sector*) and profession (*teachers, specialists, managers,* and *social and family workers*) in this section. Due to the sampling procedure and the nature of the questionnaire, some constructs have already been split between managers and professionals (e.g. self-efficacy and support needs) and will therefore only be mentioned briefly in the following paragraphs.

4.2.2.1. JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The comparability of intercepts and factor loadings across settings and professions was evaluated using the alignment method. The results of this analysis indicated that all factor loadings and intercepts were completely invariant across settings and professions, which justifies the group comparison. To enhance the interpretability of the findings, the effect coding rescaling method was applied of which the means are displayed in Table 4.25. As a final step, an univariate analysis of variance was carried out on the exported factor loadings from the CFA multigroup model in order to check for significant differences between settings and professions. The results show that there are significant differences between settings, $F(3) = 27.65$, $p < .001$ and professions, $F(3) = 8.86$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that job satisfaction is significantly higher in ECEC settings compared to all other settings. Furthermore, job satisfaction is also higher in formal education compared to after-school care. Also, managers reported higher job satisfaction compared to all other types of professionals.

Table 4.25

Descriptive Statistics of Job Satisfaction per Setting and Profession

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	α
01 ECEC	351	4.51	0.51	2.33	5.00	.75
02 Formal education	367	4.26	0.57	1.50	5.00	.76
03 After-school care	64	4.10	0.82	1.67	5.00	.86
04 Social work sector	102	4.24	0.67	2.83	5.00	.80
01 Teachers	598	4.31	0.59	1.50	5.00	.79
02 Specialists	70	4.35	0.64	2.33	5.00	.84
03 Managers	133	4.54	0.42	2.83	5.00	.71
04 Social and family workers	55	4.28	0.64	2.83	5.00	.83

A similar method was used to compare settings and professions on organizational climate. The alignment method showed that all factor loadings and intercepts were completely invariant across settings and professions, confirming we can compare these groups on their mean scores. The rescaled means using the effect coding method are presented in Table 4.26. The results of the univariate analsysis of variance on the exported CFA multigroup model factor loadings show that there are significant differences between settings, $F(3) = 23.30$, $p < .001$ and professions, $F(3) = 20.10$, $p < .001$. LSD Post Hoc analyses show that organizational climate is significantly higher in ECEC settings compared to all other settings. Also, managers scored higher on organizational climate compared to all other types of professionals.

Table 4.26

Descriptive Statistics of Organizational climate per Setting and Profession

	N	M	SD	Min	Max	α
01 ECEC	350	4.29	0.71	1.00	5.00	.87
02 Formal education	365	3.86	0.86	1.00	5.00	.88
03 After-school care	65	3.86	1.05	1.17	5.00	.93
04 Social work sector	102	3.97	0.67	1.33	5.00	.88
01 Teachers	598	3.97	0.88	1.00	5.00	.89
02 Specialists	70	3.99	0.81	1.50	5.00	.88
03 Managers	132	4.51	0.44	3.00	5.00	.75
04 Social and family workers	55	3.98	0.87	1.33	5.00	.89

There is a similar pattern emerge for both scales. Overall, ECEC organisations are the most favourable in terms of climate and employee satisfaction. Managers tend to rate their organizational climate higher and are more satisfied with their jobs compared to other professions. The conclusion that organizational climate and job satisfaction thus go hand in hand, is not only supported by the similar pattern in both scales, but also by the high correlations between the two constructs, with an overall significant Pearson correlation of .61 (see Table 4.27). These findings are in line with the results of the country comparison on the two constructs.

Table 4.27

Pearson Correlations of Job Satisfaction and Organizational climate per Setting and Profession

	N	Correlation		N	Correlation
01 ECEC	350	.58*	01 Teachers	598	.61*
02 Formal education	367	.54*	02 Specialist	70	.67*
03 After-school care	64	.72*	03 Managers	133	.56*
04 Social work sector	102	.64*	04 Social/family workers	55	.46*

* $p < .001$.

4.2.2.2. SELF-EFFICACY

The comparability of intercepts and factor loadings across settings and professions was evaluated using the alignment method. As self-efficacy was measured separately for professionals and managers, we only differentiate between three types of professions (*teachers, specialists*, and *social and family workers*) and between settings. The results of this analysis showed that all intercepts were completely invariant across settings and professions. Regarding the factor loadings, for the first factor (general self-efficacy) all factor loadings were completely invariant across settings and professions. For the second factor (cultural/linguistic self-efficacy) the factor loading for one item for the ECEC group proved problematic. However, as the majority of items was invariant across the different settings/professions and the fact that all factor loadings and intercepts are significant in all settings/professions, we can compare settings and professions on their mean scores. To enhance the interpretability of the findings, the effect coding rescaling method was used of which the means are displayed in Table 4.28. As a final step, a multivariate test of variance on the exported factor loadings from the CFA multigroup model was performed in order to check for significant differences between settings and professions. The results show

that there are significant differences between settings for general self-efficacy ($F(3,719) = 3.20$, $p = .023$) and cultural/linguistic self-efficacy ($F(3,719) = 5.03$, $p = .002$). LSD Post Hoc analyses show that general self-efficacy is significantly lower in the social work sector compared to ECEC and formal education. An explanation for this difference could lie in the nature of tasks of professionals in the social work sector. The targeted skills in the general self-efficacy scale (see Table 4.8, Section 4.2.1.2) may be less applicable in the daily work of professionals in the social work sector, as their job might be more focus to working with families instead of merely children. A general sense of self-efficacy is also higher in ECEC compared to after-school care. Regarding the cultural/linguistic self-efficacy professionals in after-school care scored significantly higher than professionals from all other settings. Professionals in formal education also tend to score higher than ECEC professionals. Finally, no differences were found between teachers, specialists and social and family workers for both general self-efficacy as well as cultural/linguistic self-efficacy.

Table 4.28
Descriptive Statistics of Self-efficacy of Professionals per Setting and Profession

	General Self-efficacy						Cultural/linguistic Self-efficacy				
	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*α*
01 ECEC	275	3.96	0.60	1.00	5.00	.83	3.63	0.93	1.00	5.00	.81
02 Education	307	3.92	0.58	1.80	5.00	.79	3.78	0.75	1.00	5.00	.76
03 After-school	53	3.81	0.67	2.20	5.00	.73	4.00	0.85	1.50	5.00	.89
04 Social work	88	3.73	0.86	1.00	5.00	.91	3.67	0.98	1.00	5.00	.76
01 Teachers	589	3.91	0.61	1.00	5.00	.81	3.71	0.87	1.00	5.00	.82
02 Specialists	50	4.00	0.69	1.00	5.00	.88	3.74	0.79	1.00	5.00	.68
04 Social work	55	3.80	0.88	1.00	5.00	.91	3.71	1.01	1.00	5.00	.74

As described in Section 4.2.1.2, a different scale was used to measure self-efficacy of managers, which rules out a direct comparison between managers and other types of professionals. Therefore, we only investigated differences between settings. Since the sample size within settings is too small to evaluate measurement invariance for managers self-efficacy, the internal consistency coefficient was used for each setting separately (see Table 4.29), which justifies a group comparison. No significant differences were found between the different settings.

Table 4.29
Descriptive Statistics of Self-efficacy of Managers per Setting

	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*α*
01 ECEC	58	4.17	0.44	3.31	5.00	.84
02 Education	45	4.23	0.43	3.08	5.00	.89
03 After-school	10	4.30	0.36	3.69	4.77	.83
04 Social work	9	3.94	0.73	2.62	4.91	.95

4.2.2.3. SUPPORT NEEDS

When comparing professional's support needs in the different settings, the differences in needs of professionals in ECEC, formal education, and after-school care are rather small (see Figure 4.14). The need for extra support tends to be a bit higher in formal education compared to ECEC. The social work sector seems to have a more deviating pattern of support needs, which might be due to differences in the nature of their work. For instance, the lack of need for smaller groups of children (33F) could indicate that professionals in these sectors already work with rather small groups or individual families or children. Overall, Figure 4.14 shows that professionals in the social work sector have less need for support in these areas compared to other types of professionals, which could indicate that these professionals overall need less support or that their need for additional support lies in areas that were not captured with this questionnaire. There seem to be no apparent differences between teachers and specialists, but social and family workers' needs deviate from that of the teachers and specialists (see Figure 4.15).
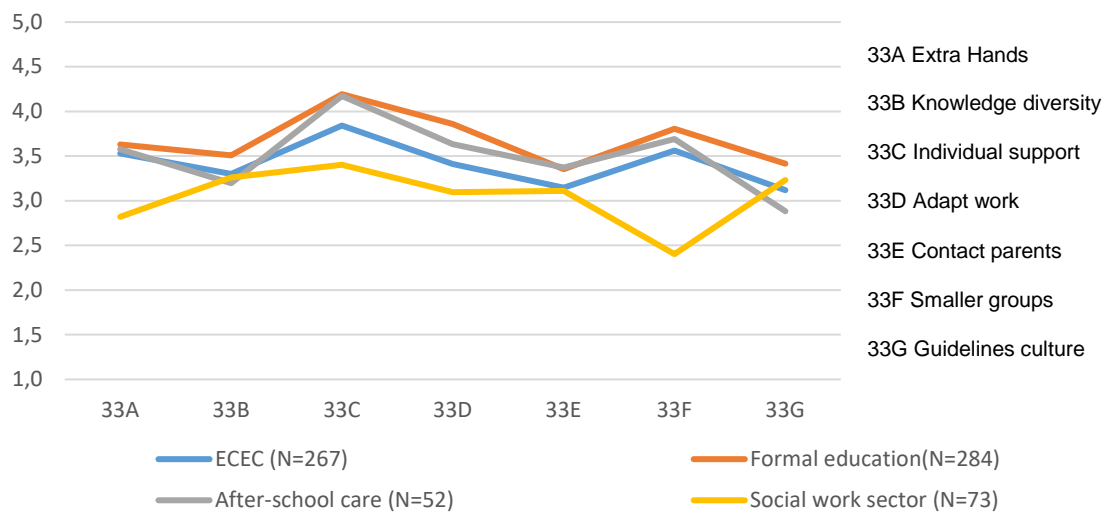
Figure 4.14. Support needs of professionals per setting.
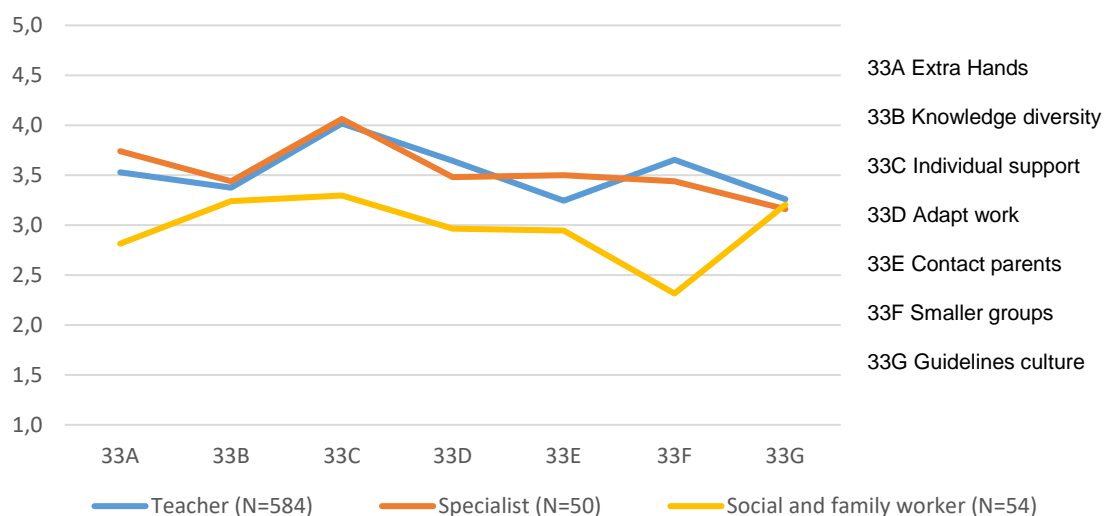
Figure 4.15. Support needs of professionals per profession.

Manager's view on professionals' support needs reveal a similar pattern for ECEC and formal education, but the need for support tends to be a somewhat higher in formal education. For after-school care on the other hand, the support needs as indicated by managers deviates from that of the professionals, showing that the managers in general believe that their staff needs less support than indicated by the professionals themselves. This contrasts the more general picture of managers overestimating the support needs of professionals (see Section 4.2.1.3.2). A difference between the managers and staff is also visible for the social work sector, where the support needs indicated by managers deviates from the other three settings than the support needs indicated by the professionals as depicted in Figure 4.16. Nevertheless, for both the social work sector as well as the after-school care it should be noted that these results are based on rather small sample sizes, thus the findings should be interpreted with caution.
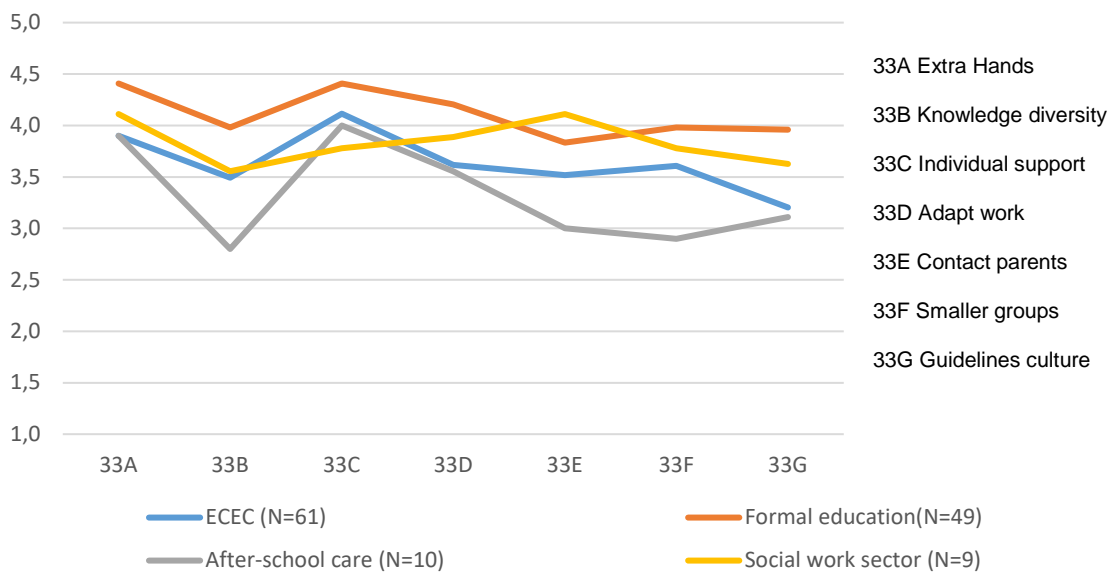
Figure 4.16. Support needs of professionals from the manager perspective per setting.

Lastly, the supportive attitudes of managers in different settings were compared. Due to the small sample size measurement invariance was not evaluated, but the internal consistency coefficient was investigated for each setting separately (see Table 4.30). The Cronbach's alpha is reasonable for all settings, except for the after-school care, which is caused by a lack of variance on one or more of the items. Overall, the supportive attitudes of managers in the different settings is rather high and shows limited variance as indicated by the small standard deviations and high minimum scores. No significant differences were found between the different settings.

Table 4.30
Descriptive Statistics of Supportive Attitudes of Managers per Setting

	N	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*α*
01 ECEC	61	4.68	0.40	3.40	5.00	.71
02 Formal education	49	4.79	0.32	3.40	5.00	.78
03 After-school care	10	4.84	0.16	4.60	5.00	.43
04 Social work sector	9	4.67	0.37	4.00	5.00	.76

4.2.2.4. ONGOING SUPPORT FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

There are differences between settings in the engagement in PD depending on the type of activity (see Figure 4.17). A similar comparison was made for the different types of professions (see Figure 4.18).
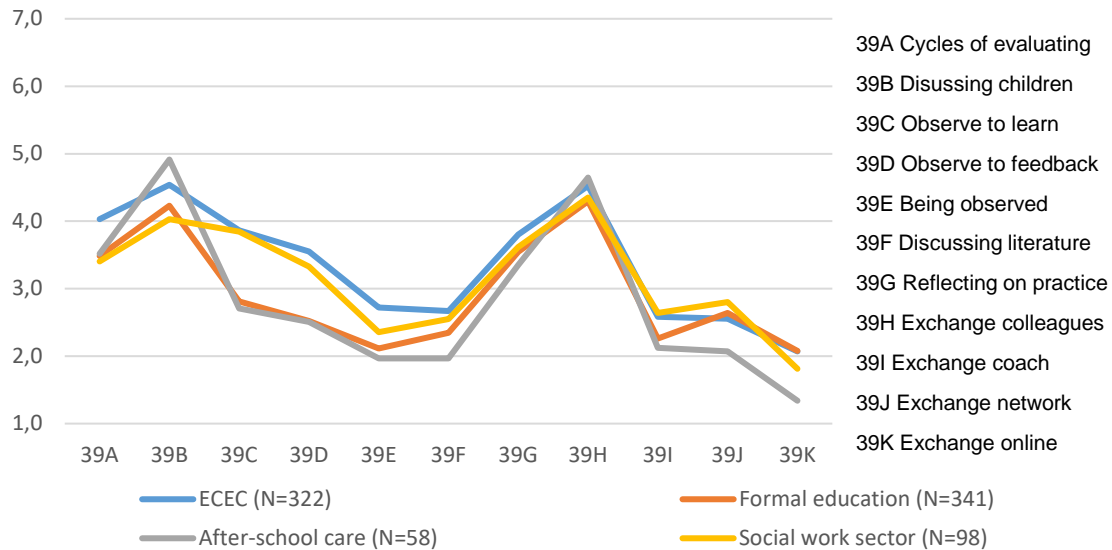
Figure 4.17. Mean scores per setting for engagement in professional development per activity.

Figure 4.18. Mean scores per profession for engagement in professional development per activity.

Regarding activities such as regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting (39A), discussing literature (39F), reflecting on educational practices (39G), exchanging and reflecting with direct colleagues (39H) or external coaches or supervisors (39I), the differences between settings are relatively small. PD activities that involve observing a colleague (39C and 39D) occurs more often in ECEC and the social work sector compared to formal education and after-school care. Exchanging and reflecting in a learning network (39J) or via an online platform (39K) occurs less

frequently in after-school care compared to the other settings. Overall, professionals in after-school care settings indicate that they are less frequently engaged in professional development activities compared to professionals working in the other settings, except when the activity involves discussing individual children that need extra support (39B) or exchanging with direct colleagues (39H), which occur most frequently in after-school care. Overall, the differences between types of professions are rather limited. The graph shows that managers indicate that they are most frequently engaged in various types of PD activities.
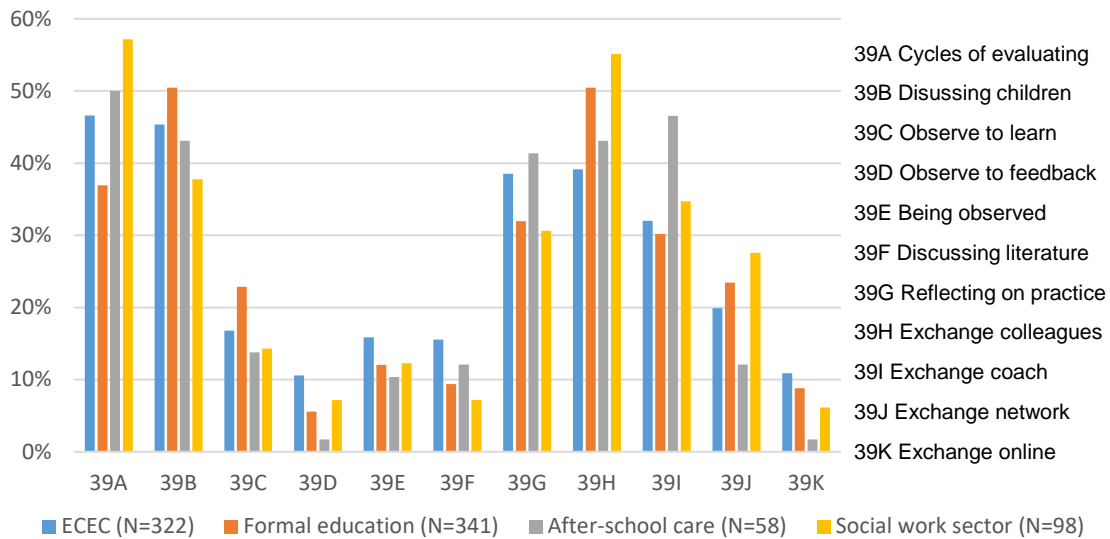
Figure 4.19. Percentage of professionals per setting indicating a PD activity as effective per activity.

Besides engagement, also the extent to which professionals in different settings value these different kinds of PD activities was considered. Figure 4.19 shows the percentage of professionals that listed a PD activity within their top three of most valuable types of PD activities. The graph shows some interesting differences. For instance, regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting (39A) is less often indicated as most valuable PD activity by professionals in formal education. Discussing individual children that need extra support (39B) and observing colleagues to learn from them (39C) on the other hand is most often valued in formal education. Moreover, observing colleagues to give them feedback (39D) and exchanging via an online platform (39K) are less favoured in general, but barely selected by after-school care professionals. After-school care professionals also show to favour exchange and reflection with a learning network (39J) less frequently, but most often value the exchange and reflection with an external coach or supervisor (39I compared to the other settings. Reflecting on educational practice is a bit more often selected by professionals in ECEC and after-school care compared to professionals working in formal education and the social work sector, whereas this is the other way around for the exchange and reflection with direct colleagues. Lastly, the differences regarding being observed (39E) and discussing literature (39F) are rather small.
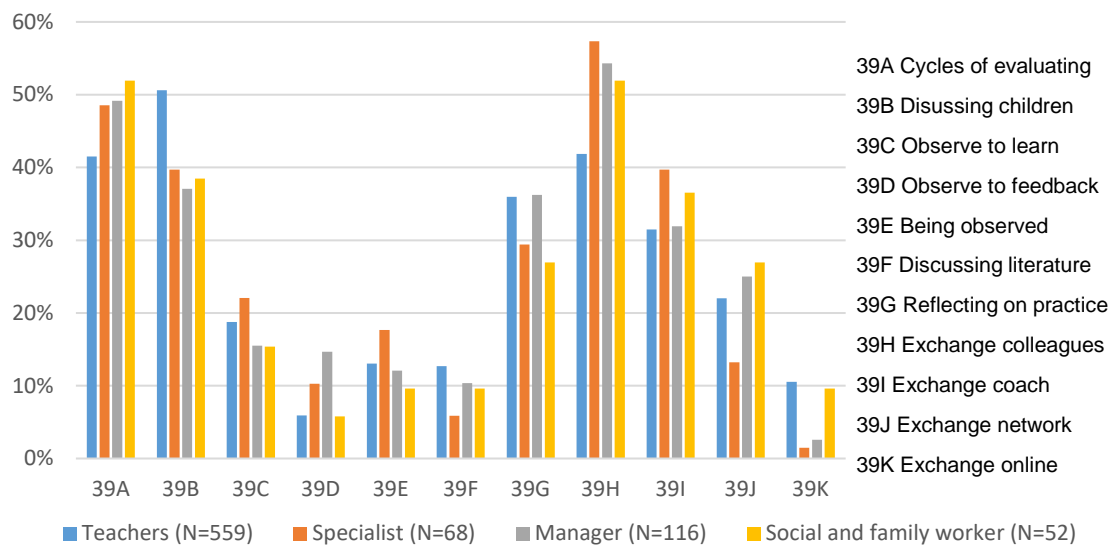
Figure 4.20. Percentage of professionals per profession indicating a PD activity as effective per activity.

A similar comparison was made for the different types of professions (see Figure 4.20). Discussing individual children who need extra support (39B) is most often chosen by teachers/caregivers as a valuable PD activity. In addition, teachers/caregivers less often selected regular cycles of planning, evaluation and adapting (39A) and exchanging and reflection with direct colleagues (39H) compared to the other three types of professions. Nevertheless, over 40% of the teachers/caregivers selected this type of PD activity in their top three. Furthermore, exchange and reflection within a learning network (39J) is less frequently chosen by specialists. Lastly, the exchange via an online platform (39K) are less favourable in general and barely selected by specialist and managers.

The sample size was too small to compare the effective elements of PD (knowledge, skills, attitudes, etc., see Section 4.2.1.4 for a full list) per activity per setting/profession. As the extent to which the different elements are considered essential for professional development was relatively invariant to the actual type of activity (see Figure 4.12, Section 4.2.1.4.2), settings and professions were compared without differentiating between PD activities. No apparent differences were found between settings and professions, except for the extent to which the element of attitudes, beliefs, and expectations (43C) was valued. This was scored higher by after-school care professionals and managers.

Lastly, settings and professions were compared on the in-service training that was followed in the last two years (see Figure 4.21). Similar to the country results, two patterns can be distinguished. Professionals in ECEC and formal education indicated more often that their most valued PD activity of the past two years was part of an in-service training, compared to a one-off workshop or conference. This was also the case for all types of professions, except social and family workers. Social and family workers (and professionals working in the social work sector in general) selected a one-off workshop or conference more often over an in-service training. This suggests that these professionals either have been less often engaged in in-service training, or that they value one-off workshops or conferences more as PD activity. For the after-school care

sector the difference between the two types was relatively small. An online course as most valued PD activity was only selected by professionals working in ECEC and formal education. Managers have not selected this type of activity as most valued PD activity of the past two years.
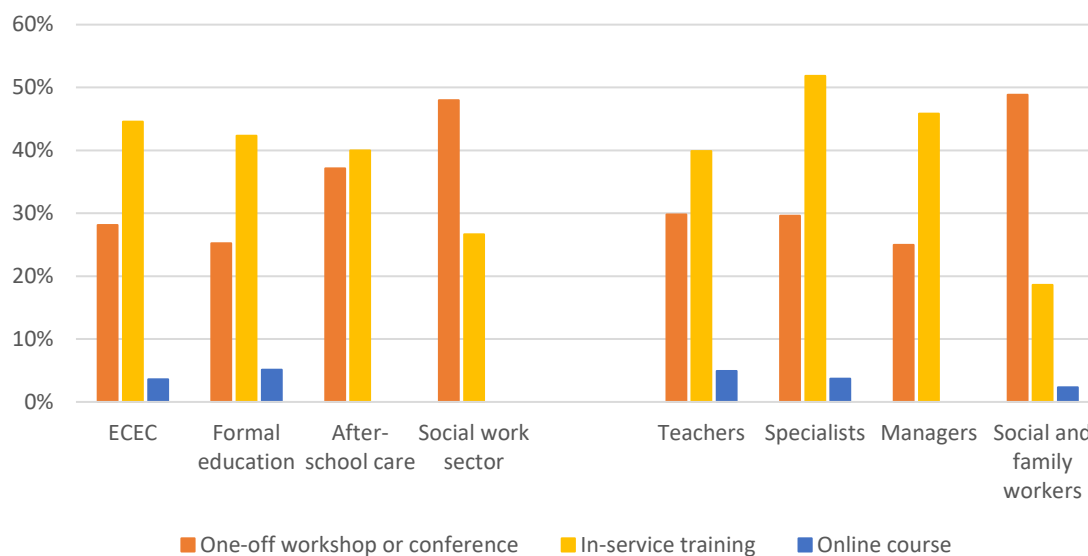
Figure 4.21. Type of training split per setting and profession.

The general pattern showed that team-based PD activities were most often selected, followed by a combination of team and individual. This pattern was different only for the after-school care setting, where the number of individual PD activities was rather equal to the number of team-based activities.

4.2.3. SHARED VARIANCE WITHIN SITES AND COUNTRIES

To evaluate the extent to which professionals' job satisfaction, organizational climate, self-efficacy and supportive attitudes reflect common ideas or practices at within sites and within countries, the intra-class-coefficients (ICC's) were calculated based on a three-level model (individual, site, country), see Table 4.31. The results show that there is a small level of shared variance at the site level for professionals' job satisfaction and organizational climate and manager's self-efficacy, and to a lesser extent for professionals' cultural/linguistic self-efficacy. The latter, professionals' cultural/linguistic self-efficacy showed a larger shared variance at the country level, though.

Table 4.31

Intra-class-coefficients at the Site and Country Level for Staff and Their Work Environment

	ICC site level	ICC country level
Job satisfaction	.09	.05
Organizational climate	.08	.05
General self-efficacy professionals	.02	.07
Cultural/linguistic self-efficacy professionals	.06	.13
Self-efficacy managers	.11	.06
Supportive attitude managers	.02	.04

ISOTIS

4.3.   SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the results on staff and their work environment. Factor analyses showed that the items on professionals' job satisfaction represent a single construct that was comparable between countries. This construct was labelled as *job satisfaction* and reflects to what extent professionals are satisfied with their jobs and, for instance, feel appreciated as a professional. In addition, factor analyses also showed that the items on general organizational characteristics represent a single construct that was comparable between countries. This construct was labelled as *organizational climate* and reflects the overall atmosphere of an organization, such as the team collaboration/cohesion. Overall, job satisfaction and organizational climate were highly related to each other with strong correlations between the two concepts. A country comparison showed that professionals in the Netherlands and Norway rated their job satisfaction and organizational climate the highest, followed by professionals from the Czech Republic. Professionals from Germany and Portugal scored lower on both scales, followed by professionals from France. Nevertheless, on average, professionals in all countries appeared satisfied with their jobs and organizational climate. In addition, professionals working in ECEC reported the highest levels of job satisfaction and organizational climate compared to professionals in all other settings. Also, managers reported higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational climate compared to all other types of professions.

Professionals were also asked to indicate the extent to which they feel capable of performing several tasks. As the tasks of managers are different in nature compared to other professionals, this was investigated separately for managers and other professionals. Factor analyses showed that the items on professionals' competencies represent two constructs that were comparable between countries. These constructs were labelled as *general self-efficacy* (which represents a professionals' general sense of capability to deal with situations, such as making contact with challenging children) and *cultural/linguistic self-efficacy* (which represents a professionals' sense of capability to work with children from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds). Taken both types of self-efficacy into account, professionals from the Netherlands and Norway reported the highest levels of self-efficacy, whereas professionals from Italy and Portugal reported somewhat lower levels of self-efficacy. Professionals from Poland showed the lowest cultural/linguistic self-efficacy. In addition, professionals from Germany showed a rather large difference between the two constructs with German professionals reporting above average cultural/linguistic self-efficacy, but below average on general self-efficacy. Professionals in the social work sector scored the lowest on general self-efficacy, which could reflect a difference in the skills that are necessary in this profession. Professionals from after-school care reported the highest levels of cultural/linguistic self-efficacy, followed by professionals working in formal education and ECEC.

The need to address diversity might depend on the local context and the proportion of children from ethnic minority, low SES or other language background. Therefore, the differences between professionals' sense of self-efficacy were investigated, while controlling for the level of diversity in their work context, which showed the same results. However, to gain more insight into the relation between professionals' self-efficacy and the level of diversity within the local context this relationship was further explored. For some countries significant relations were found between the level of diversity in the organisation and professionals' self-efficacy. Professionals from the Czech Republic reported higher levels of cultural/linguistic self-efficacy when the level of diversity

(cultural, linguistic, low-income/low-educated, and Roma) in their work environment was higher. Professionals from England reported higher levels of general as well as cultural/linguistic self-efficacy when they worked in more culturally and linguistically diverse contexts and for professionals from Germany this was only evident for cultural/linguistic self-efficacy. Professionals from Italy reported higher cultural/linguistic self-efficacy, when they worked in highly diverse contexts with children from ethnic minority, low SES or other language backgrounds. The same holds for professionals from the Netherlands, but for both general and cultural/linguistic self-efficacy. Lastly, professionals from Poland reported lower levels of general self-efficacy in more linguistically diverse contexts.

Regarding the manager scale, factor analyses showed that the items on managers' self-perceived competencies represent a single construct that was comparable between countries. This construct was labelled as *self-efficacy* and reflects a managers' general sense of capability to deal with situations, such as supporting staff and creating a cohesive team spirit. A country comparison revealed that the managers from Greece and England reported higher levels of self-efficacy, whereas managers from France, Italy, the Czech Republic and Portugal reported the lowest levels. No differences were found between the different settings.

A third topic concerned the extent to which professionals need support in their daily work. Professionals were asked to what extent they have different support needs, whereas managers were asked to what extent they think *their staff* needs extra support. Overall, professionals reported that they need more time for individual children that need extra support the most, whereas more time to communicate with parents or concrete guidelines to deal with cultural tensions were deemed the least important. Professionals from Greece and Germany reported the highest need for support, whereas professionals from the Netherlands mentioned the lowest need for support. Support needs, according to managers, yielded a similar pattern across the different support items. However, in general, managers estimated higher needs for support in comparison with the staff, except for England and Norway (where managers and professionals rate the support needs equally high) and Germany (where professionals indicated higher needs than estimated by the managers). Professionals working in the social work sector reported a lower need for support, which could indicate that these professionals need less support or that their need for support lies in other areas that were not captured with this questionnaire. Professionals and managers working in formal education reported an overall higher need for support compared to professionals and managers working in ECEC.

In addition, managers were also asked to what extent they provide support to their staff. Factor analyses showed that the items on support represent a single construct that was comparable between countries. This construct was labelled as *supportive attitude* and reflects the degree to which a manager supports staff, for instance by taking their views seriously and giving them opportunities to specialize. The results show that managers consider themselves as highly supportive, given the high averages and small standard deviations. There appeared no differences between countries and settings, which could reflect the overall small variance in the sample.

The final topic concerned professionals' engagement in professional development (PD) activities.

Discussing and evaluating individual children that need extra support and *exchanging and reflecting upon practice with direct colleagues* were the two most frequently mentioned activities that professionals engage in (almost every week on average). *Exchanging and reflecting upon practice via an online platform* was the least reported PD activity. The country comparison revealed that the ten countries were rather similar in the time they devote to different PD activities. Taken all eleven different activities together, professionals from Portugal reported slightly less frequent engagement in most activities, in contrast to professionals from Greece who reported more time for PD activities than average. The differences between professionals working in different settings and with professions are small, but PD activities involving the observation of colleagues occurred more often in ECEC and the social work sector. In addition, managers reported more engagement in PD activities in comparison to other types of professionals.

In addition, professionals were asked which activities they valued the most. The results show that *regular cycles of planning, evaluating, and adapting*, *discussing individual children that need extra care*, *reflecting upon educational or pedagogical practice,* and *exchange and reflecting upon practice with direct colleagues* are the four most valued types of PD activities. *Observing a colleague to give them feedback* and *exchanging and reflection via an online platform* are the least valued. These results are in line with the actual frequency of engagement in these types of activities. The only discrepancy concerns the activity of *exchanging and reflecting with an external coach or supervisor.* This activity is relatively often indicated as one of the most valuable PD activities, but, the actual occurrence of this activity is rather low.

Professionals reported a more general sense of what elements are valuable in good PD activities, regardless of the type of PD activity. Concerning the focus domains presented in the PD model from T5.2 (see Figure 1.1, Section 1.1), professionals value *skills* the most, followed by *knowledge*. A focus on *attitudes, beliefs and expectations* is the least valued (in contrast to the other focus domains, as well as, in general). A *combination of theory and practice*, and the presence of *practical examples* are two elements that were highly valued in PD. No apparent differences were found regarding the effective elements of PD, between the countries, settings, and professions, except for the element of *attitudes, beliefs, and expectations*. This element was less valued by professionals from Italy (both in absolute comparison to other countries as well as relatively compared to their scores for knowledge and skills) and more valued by professionals working in after-school care and managers.

The final topic concerns professionals' engagement in in-service training over the past two years. About three quarters of the professionals reported that they participated in a PD activity in the past two years. there are roughly two different patterns when comparing countries on the type of activity that professionals indicated as most valuable in this period. Professionals from the Czech Republic, England, Greece, France, and Poland more often listed a one-off workshop or conference as the most valued PD activity, whereas professionals from Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, and Portugal more often listed an in-service training as most valuable PD activity of the past two years. A similar pattern can be seen when comparing settings and professions. Social workers and other professionals working in the social work sector most often selecting one-off workshops or conferences, whereas the professionals working in other settings more often listed an in-service training. Online courses or webinars were the least selected in

general. This type of activity was only chosen by professionals (so not managers) from Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, and Norway, working in ECEC or formal education. In addition, the majority of the PD activities that were selected as most valuable (in the past two years) were team-based activities, followed by a combination of team-based and individual PD. This indicates that either professionals are more often engaged in PD activities that are to some extent team-based, or that this kind of activities are more valued over individual PD activities. Only for Germany (where individual training was mostly selected) and Norway (where a combination of individual and team was mostly selected) this pattern was different. The general preference of team-based activities, followed by a combination of both team-based and individual PD was also visible for professionals working in different settings. Except for professionals working in the after-school care settings, where the number of individual PD activities was rather equal to the number of team-based activities.

Lastly, the results showed that there is a small level of shared variance at the site level for professionals' job satisfaction and organizational climate and manager's self-efficacy. This may reflect that professionals share similar working conditions at the site level, at least for a small part. To a lesser extent this also applied to professionals' cultural/linguistic self-efficacy, although there was a larger shared variance at the country level. This may reflect common country practices dealing with diversity that professionals feel comfortable with.

5. CONCLUSION

This report revealed the results of a staff survey among over 1,000 professionals across ten European countries on three core topics: i) beliefs, attitudes, practices and organizational policies regarding cultural and linguistic diversity, ii) perceived relations with parents and other stakeholders, iii) staff's appreciation of their work environment. A wide range of professionals were involved, including foremost teachers, specialists, managers and social workers, working in a variety of settings, such as early childhood education and care (ECEC), formal education, after-school care and social services. These professionals worked in highly diverse contexts, although the nature of diversity differed between countries and also showed confounding with characteristics, such as cultural and language background as well as parental socioeconomic status. On average, diversity was largest in Czech Republic, England, France, Italy, the Netherlands and Norway. The main findings will be discussed in the following sections.

5.1. PROFESSIONALS' BELIEFS TOWARDS DIVERSITY

The evidence base on professionals' attitudes towards cultural and linguistic diversity appears to be inconsistent. Especially, the findings concerning the attitudes towards cultural diversity are mixed. Some studies have revealed that teachers are neutral or slightly positive towards cultural diversity in the classroom (e.g. Sanders & Downer, 2012; Youngs & Youngs, 2001), whereas other studies showed that teachers were rather negative (e.g. DeCastro-Ambrosetti & Cho, 2005). Some studies distinguished between 'colour-blind' or egalitarian and multicultural beliefs (Hachfeld et al. 2015). Although both types of beliefs included a basic acceptance of cultural diversity, the colour-blind beliefs concern treating everyone equally, while to some extent ignoring diversity, whereas the multicultural beliefs more strongly emphasize the positive value of diversity. Some studies have shown that teachers with a majority background endorsed colour-blind beliefs. Building on prior research, professionals' beliefs towards cultural and diversity and multilingualism were measured using a variety of items aimed to capture the continuum ranging from assimilationist to more neutral (colour-blindness) or positive views. By including items covering a wide spectrum of beliefs the risk of social desirability is reduced. The potential disadvantage is that the measurement of the construct is less specific and shows less internally consistency, which indeed appeared to be the case for some countries. Although the overall model for the full sample represented the two theory-based constructs well, the internal consistency of the multicultural beliefs scale was somewhat weaker in a few countries. This illustrates the difficulty of measuring this concept in a way that captures the complexity well without the risk of social desirability.

5.2. COMPARISON BETWEEN COUNTRIES

Overall, professionals reported more positive attitudes towards recognizing, respecting and celebrating cultural diversity and overall lower support for stimulating multilingualism in formal or informal care and education, which is mostly in line with previous studies (Blom, 2015; DeCastro-Ambrosetti & Cho, 2005; Sakka, 2010; Sanders & Downer, 2012; Youngs & Youngs, 2001; Van Gorp & Moons, 2014; Vetter, 2013; Young, 2014). However, there appeared different patterns of results across countries. Professionals from Italy scored comparatively higher on multicultural

and multilingual beliefs, whereas professionals from Czech Republic scored comparatively lower. Further, professionals from England showed the highest support for multilingualism, especially compared to professionals from Germany and the Netherlands. Interestingly, there were also differences in the relative balance of multicultural and multilingual beliefs in different countries. In some countries, such as Czech Republic, France, Italy, and Portugal, the expressed degree of positive attitudes towards cultural diversity and multilingual supportwere about equal. However, in other countries the support for multiculturalism was stronger than for multilingualism, such as Germany, the Netherlands and Norway, whereas professionals from England, Greece, and Poland showed the reported the opposite pattern.

Furthermore, professionals generally reported to implement culturally sensitive practices aimed to address diversity and promote inclusiveness on a regular basis (based on their own reports and supported by reports obtained from the managers of the wider organisation), which seems to reveal more positive attitudes and practices than found in previous observational studies in Greece, England, and the U.S. (Denny et al., 2012; Gregoriadis et al., 2016; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Sylva et al., 2006). This held especially for aspects, such as creating a warm and inclusive environment, adopting cultural or religious practices towards nutrition, and striving for representation of diversity in play and learning materials. Other aspects were less common, such as providing information in different languages or celebrating diverse cultural holidays and practices. Implementation of diversity practices was reported to be the most extensive by professionals from England and the most limited by professionals from France and Poland. Furthermore, the current findings showed small, positive associations between professionals' multicultural and multilingual beliefs with their diversity practices.

Overall, professionals reported neutral, but trending towards positive, relations with parents. Relations with parents encompassed aspects of positive communication between professionals and parents, and the degree to which professionals reported a shared understanding with parents regarding child behaviour and achievement. Professionals from England, the Netherlands and Norway reported the most positive relations with parents. Another aspect of the parent-professional relation concerns the extent to which professionals communicate with parents on a variety of topics. In general, of all presented topics, professionals reported to discuss the child's behaviour most frequently, on average every week, followed by the child's development, and (pre)school related issues, on average between a couple of times per month and every week. The child's home situation and parents' need for support were discussed the least, on average between once and three times a month. There appeared some differences between countries, showing that professionals from England and Poland discussed the child's behaviour and development the most. Professionals from the Czech Republic and Germany discussed (pre)school related issues and home activities the most, whereas professionals from England and Greece talked more with parents about their support needs. In general, the child's home situation and support for parent were the least frequently discussed topics, especially in France and Norway. This may suggest differences in traditions in parent-professional relationships. Further support for this hypothesis comes from the manager reports on the organizational policy on contact with parents. Managers from England and the Netherlands scored the highest on parent communication. Managers from Germany and the Netherlands also reported supporting parents in parenting and involving them as volunteers the most frequently. Managers from Germany, Italy

and Poland scored comparatively higher on organizing events for parents as a way of parent involvement.

Overall, professionals reported to be satisfied with their job, appreciated the work climate of their organisation and evaluated themselves as somewhat or quite well capable of dealing with several challenging situations in their work with children (including general and cultural-linguistic self-efficacy). Professionals from the Netherlands and Norway scored the highest on job satisfaction, organizational climate and self-efficacy, whereas professionals from Germany, France and Portugal scored the lowest on job satisfaction and organizational climate. Professionals were also asked about their needs for support in various domains. The results showed that in general the need for extra time to support individual children was mentioned the most, whereas time for communication with parents or concrete guidelines to deal with cultural tensions were the needs least frequently mentioned by the professionals. Professionals from Germany and Greece indicated the strongest need for support, whereas professionals from the Netherlands reported the lowest need for support.

Altogether, professionals reported on a wide range of professional development (PD) activities and the findings showed comparable patterns of these activities across countries. In general, it appeared as most common inter-collegial professional practice to discuss and evaluate individual children that need extra support. Also, reflection on practice together with colleagues was very common. Both activities occurred, on average, almost every week. There were some country differences indicating that professionals from Greece showed the highest level of engagement in PD activities and professionals from Portugal the lowest. Professionals from England, the Netherlands and Norway, reported comparatively higher levels of involvement in regular cycles of planning, evaluating, and adapting their work, besides discussing individual children (which was the most common activity in other countries). When asked about effective elements of PD, professionals mentioned a focus on skills as the most effective, followed by a focus on knowledge. A focus on attitudes or beliefs were considered the least effective.

Taken together, the results appear to highlight that more positive beliefs towards multiculturalism and multilingualism go hand in hand with more culturally sensitive practices and better parent-professional relationships. The findings from England and to a lesser extent also Greece, the Netherlands and Norway, seem to point to, overall, more positive practices in this regard. Interestingly, professionals from the Netherlands and Norway also evaluated their working conditions and own competences as most favourable. Although, professionals attached the least value to a focus on attitudes and beliefs in PD activities, the positive relations between reported beliefs and practices seems to suggest that emphasis on beliefs could be an important addition in PD programs.

5.3. COMPARISON BETWEEN PROFESSIONALS AND SETTINGS

A wide range of professionals working in different settings and sectors was included in the staff survey, including professionals working in ECEC, formal education, after school care, and the social sector. Also, professionals working directly with children, specialists and managers were distinguished. This section will address some of the differences that were found between these professionals.

Overall, ECEC professionals showed more positive beliefs towards multilingualism compared to professionals working in after school care, whereas no differences were found for multicultural beliefs. Managers also reported higher support for multilingualism in comparison to teachers or caregivers working in ECEC, formal education or after school care. Although, there were no differences between the professionals from the different settings in the self-reported diversity practices, ECEC provisions scored higher on diversity policy implementation at the organizational level. ECEC professionals also reported a better relationship with parents in comparison to all other types of professionals. This better relationship was particularly evident in having higher degrees of shared beliefs, the fact that contact was not limited to problematic situations only and that they reported to experience less trouble in communicating with parents. In addition, the topics that ECEC professionals said to discuss with parents were broader compared to other professionals and included the child's behaviour and development as well as the child's home situation. There appeared associations between the quality of parent-professional relations and the extent to which a wide range of topics were addressed, especially for ECEC professionals. A more positive relation with parents was related to a higher degree of discussing children's behaviour and development, the child's home situation and support for parents for ECEC professionals. For professionals working in formal education such relations were not found. For professionals working in after-school care a positive relation with parents was associated with more discussion about the child's behaviour and development, whereas for professionals working in the social sector the child's home situation and parents' support needs were more prevalent topics.

In general, professionals working in ECEC reported higher levels of job satisfaction and were more satisfied with the organizational climate of their work environment. Professionals working in the social sector reported the lowest level of general self-efficacy compared to other professionals. For cultural and linguistic self-efficacy professionals working in after school care scored the highest, followed by professionals working in formal education and ECEC. Managers also reported on their feelings of self-efficacy in supervising and supporting their staff, maintaining contact with parents, and in general management tasks and showed relatively high levels of competence. In general, the pattern of support needs is similar between professionals working across different settings, but professionals working in formal education indicated a stronger need for support and social workers reported the least need for support.

Lastly, differences in PD activities were investigated. Overall, the pattern of results is quite comparable between settings, but after-school professionals generally reported lower engagement in PD activities. Another difference concerns the fact that ECEC professionals said to more often use observation as a means to learn from one another, and to provide and receive feedback from colleagues compared to professionals working in formal education and after-

school care. In terms of what professionals value and regard as effective in PD, it appeared that professionals working in formal education less often mentioned regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting. Discussing individual children who need more care and observing colleagues to learn from them, on the other hand, appeared to be highly valued in formal education. Using systematic reflection on practice was more often mentioned by professionals working in ECEC and after-school care.

To summarize, the results show that ECEC professionals tend to have more positive views on multilingualism and more often have corresponding policies in place at the organizational level compared to professionals in other sectors. However, no differences in diversity practices were found between the different groups of professionals. Moreover, ECEC professionals reported better relations with parents, allowing them to discuss a broader variety of topics with parents. Interestingly, ECEC professionals also reported better work conditions and less need for support in comparison to professionals working in formal education. Although, the differences in engagement in PD activities between professionals were small, ECEC professionals indicated more emphasis on reflection and use of observation to learn from one another in comparison to professionals working in formal education.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

The results of the current study give some suggestions for policy and practice in view of improving practice:

1. Establishing a shared understanding on multiculturalism and multilingualism is an important first step towards more culturally sensitive practices and better relations with parents. This shared vision can be formulated at different levels, such as a national or local policy level, but also at the organisational level of the (pre)school or service. A clear vision and mission concerning diversity at the organisational level can support professionals in the implementation of culturally sensitive practices. Professional development activities in the organisation could support the development, (re)evaluation and adaptation of such a vision. Reflecting on educational or pedagogical practices, exchanging experiences with colleagues, and discussing the children's needs can support the cyclic planning, evaluation and adaptation of the work. Addressing professionals' beliefs and attitudes in this reflection and discussion of practice can contribute to establishing a shared understanding on culturally sensitive practices and good relationships with parents.

2. A good work environment includes a supportive organizational climate and engagement in professional development (PD) activities. Aspects of a supportive organizational climate include, for instance, that professionals feel appreciated and are encouraged to further develop their competences, and that they can participate in decision making in the organisation. It also reflects a strong team spirit with supportive relations between staff and a sense of empowerment. PD activities can further support this. Of particular importance are continuous forms of PD, such as reflection and observation, as a means to learn from each other. Also, regular cycles of planning, evaluating and adapting the work appears important. In addition, one-off workshops or conferences, especially when this is a joint team effort, can provide further support for professional development of staff.

3. It seems important to use a contextual approach, that considers the views and practices of all professionals working in the organisation, in improving practices. Professionals work in a diverse and dynamic context in which the needs of the children and families can change from one year to the next, which might require a (re)evaluation and adaption of practices. Professional development activities should be tailored to the specific needs that professionals experience in their daily context.

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LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

CHAPTER 4. STAFF AND THEIR WORK ENVIRONMENT