EXAMINING ELEMENTARY STUDENTS' DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE THROUGH SELF-REGULATORY PROMPTS

by

Heba Elsherbeeny
A Dissertation
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of
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Fairfax, VA

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## Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my late parents, Zeinab Radwan and Mohamed El-Sherbeeny.

**Acknowledgements**

I thank God for providing all that was necessary for me to complete this life-changing journey. I thank my late parents, Zeinab and Mohamed, for always believing in me. I thank my brothers, Khaled and Ahmed, for their continuous encouragement and support. I thank my sons, Omar and Ali, for cheering me on and putting up with how busy this program has kept me. I thank my friends, notebly Nazly, who always kept me on task and, along with my niece Israa, were understanding and patient.

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## List of Abbreviations

Academic self-regulated learning ..... A-SRL-S
American Montessori Society ..... AMS
Assessment of Intercultural Competence ..... AIC
Behavioral Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence ..... BASIC
Children's Perceived use of Self-Regulated Learning Inventory ..... CP-SRLI
Confirmatory factor analyses ..... CFA
Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory ..... CCAI
Cultural intelligence ..... CQ
Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity ..... DMIS
English as a Second Language ..... ESL
Exploratory factor analysis ..... EFA
Individual and Collective Regulation of Learning ..... ERICA
Institutional Review Board ..... IRB
Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts ..... ICI-SRP
Intercultural Competence Scale for Upper elementary Students ..... ICSES
Intercultural competence ..... IC
Intercultural Development Inventory ..... IDI
Intercultural Sensitivity Scale ..... ISS
International Baccalaureate ..... IB
Junior Metacognitive Awareness Inventory ..... Jr. MAI
Learning and Study Strategies Inventory ..... LASSI
Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire ..... MSLQ
North American Montessori Teachers' Association ..... NAMTA
Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales ..... PALS
Perceived responsibility for learning scale ..... PRLS
Self-efficacy motivation factor ..... SEM
Self-efficacy regulation factor ..... SER
Self-efficacy ..... SE
Self-Regulated Learning ..... SRL
Self-Regulation of Learning Self-Report Scale ..... SRL-SRS
Self-Regulation Questionnaire ..... SRQ
Self-regulatory prompts ..... SRP
United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization ..... UNESCO
Univariate analysis of covariance ..... ANCOVA
Wuerzburg Intercultural Competence Inventory ..... WIKI-KJ

## Abstract

EXAMINING ELEMENTARY STUDENTS' DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE THROUGH SELF-REGULATORY PROMPTS

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George Mason University, 2022

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The purpose of the present quasi-experimental mixed-methods study was to examine the effects of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning, and to investigate the ways in which self-regulatory prompts (SRP) influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory strategies in intercultural learning. Twenty (*N*=20) Montessori elementary students from two Montessori schools participated in four sessions of an intercultural exercise, in which only the experimental group were given SRP. It was hypothesized that the experimental group's use of SRP would further enhance the participants' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning. Quantitative data collected from the ICI-SRP survey was analyzed by conducting a univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for each of its four subscales and was used to examine the

effects of SRP on the students' development of intercultural competence (IC) and self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning. Qualitative data collected from focus groups was analyzed using the constant comparative method to shed light on the ways in which SRP influence the students' activation of self-regulatory strategies in intercultural learning. Results from the ANCOVA did not support the hypothesis, as they showed non-statistically significant differences between the development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and the self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning in both groups. Results from the ANCOVA showed numerical increases in intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes in both groups, and numerical decreases in the self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning in both groups. Findings from the analysis of the focus group data were mostly aligned with the data from the ANCOVA. Data from the focus groups shed light on different types of IC knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and different types of planning and monitoring applied by participants of both groups. The overall findings of the present study suggest that it is likely for elementary aged students to develop IC through intercultural exercises, and that SRP may support that development under certain conditions. The findings of the study may contribute to the development of elementary students' intercultural learning methods and tools.

# Chapter One

The purpose of the present study was (a) to examine the effects of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary school students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning, and (b) to investigate the ways in which SRP influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory strategies in intercultural learning. The intervention was grounded in the social cognitive theory perspective.

## Background of the Topic

Pressing global changes make it more important now than ever to support students in developing intercultural competence (IC; e.g., Deardorff, 2009; Zhao, 2009, 2010), as well as in becoming self-regulated learners (e.g., Stoeger et al., 2015; Van Ewijk, 2011). Education has been perceived as a preparation for life (Montessori, 1974; Rathunde, 2001). According to Cabezudo et al. (2010), in the Council of Europe Global Education Guidelines, it is specifically "global education" that was described as a preparation for life. The Council of Europe's Barrett (2016) publication is intended to provide a model for educational systems which prepare learners for life as competent democratic citizens.

Students' preparation for life involves education for IC, which Deardorff (2011) describes as effective and appropriate communication in intercultural situations. Through

such education, students acquire the necessary knowledge, and develop the necessary skills, attitudes, and values which help them succeed in today's globalized world (Leo, 2010). The need for IC rises form the need to prepare students for studying abroad (Herrin, 2004; Spitzburg & Changnon, 2009), diversity in the workplace and having to manage working with people from diverse cultural backgrounds (Spitzburg & Changnon, 2009), opportunities for oversees employment, as more companies are doing business around the world and setting up offices and factories in multiple countries (Patriquin, 2016; Tung, 1987), the ability to represent one's culture in a positive way during intercultural interactions and, according to Leo (2010) "reflecting cultural and linguistic diversity for equity, equality and quality of life, and for peace, freedom, solidarity, democratic citizenship, human rights and sustainable development" (p. 12).

In addition to IC, students' preparation for life involves developing their ability to self-regulate their learning. Self-regulated learning (SRL) is described by Zimmerman (2008) as self-directive processes and self-beliefs that enable learners to transform their mental abilities into an academic performance skill. In the UNESCO et al.'s (2015) Education 2030 Incheon Declaration, quality education was described as one which not only ensures the acquisition of the foundational skills of literacy and numeracy, but also fosters creativity and knowledge, problem solving and other high-level cognitive, interpersonal and social skills, as well as develops the skills, values, and attitudes that enable citizens to lead healthy and fulfilled lives, make informed decisions, and respond to local and global challenges through education for sustainable development and global citizenship education. The purpose of the present study was (a) to examine the effects of

an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary school students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning, and (b) to investigate the ways in which SRP influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory strategies in intercultural learning. The intervention was grounded in the social cognitive theory perspective.

## Significance of the Topic

### *The Importance of Intercultural Competence*

Intercultural competence is a necessity presented by globalization in order to prepare future generations to meet the requirements of global citizenship. In an increasingly interconnected global society, education must prepare students to understand the complexity of global problems and to develop the ability to collaborate with others in their resolution (Cushner, 2008; Deardorff, 2009; Izzard & Ross, 2015; Odağ et al., 2016; Zhao, 2009). IC is important to effectively and appropriately interact with people from a variety of cultural backgrounds, and for the development of a global community (Fantini & Tirmizi, 2006; Hammer, 2015; Nagy, 2018). IC is also important for employability and professional success (Deardorff, 2014; Norviliene, 2012; Patriquin, 2016). As work environments become more diverse, people are often faced with situations in which they need to communicate, interact, and collaborate with people from different cultural backgrounds (Spitzburg & Changnon, 2009).

The different views of the importance of IC include Cushner's (2008) view, in which it is seen as necessary for preparing students to interact effectively with people

from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Cushner focuses on intercultural socialization and sees that it lies at the intersection of cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes. Tupas (2014) sees it as a preparation for the outside world. Deardorff (2009) sees the ultimate goal of intercultural pedagogy as promoting flexibility, empathy, adaptability, and an ethno-relative perspective among individuals in intercultural situations. Hunter et al. (2006) stress that the future of the US depends upon its ability to develop a citizen base that is globally competent. The UNESCO et al.'s (2015) list of what constitutes education for IC includes not only foundational skills of literacy and numeracy, but also creativity and knowledge, problem solving and other high-level cognitive, interpersonal and social skills, values, and attitudes that enable citizens to lead healthy and fulfilled lives, make informed decisions, and respond to local and global challenges through education for sustainable development and global citizenship education. This list encompasses factors which cover all of the above views of the importance and necessity of intercultural education.

***The Importance of Self-Regulation in the Development of Intercultural Competence***

In this study, the hypothesis was that elementary school students carrying out an intercultural exercise would show higher levels of development of intercultural knowledge, skills, attitudes, and self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning when supported with self-regulatory prompts (SRP). This could apply to learning in intercultural situations, as in studying abroad, or in planned classroom lessons or activities. There are similarities between Cushner's (2008) view of IC as lying at the intersection of cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes and Zimmerman's social

cognitive perspective on SRL, which entails metacognitive, affective, and behavioral processes. The development of IC is seen by some scholars as a cyclical process (e.g., Holmes & O'Neill, 2012; Strohmeier et al., 2017) in which the learner goes through three phases. During the first phase the learner sets learning goals and plans, then monitors the learning through the second phase, and finally self-reflects through the third phase (Strohmeier et al., 2017). The SRL process is also seen as a cyclical one (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004; Kitsantas & Zimmerman, 2002) in which the learner goes through three similar phases, the forethought phase, the performance phase, and the self-reflection phase (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009).

The rapid changes in our increasingly technologically advanced globalized world make it more important now than ever to ensure that students learn to self-regulate their learning (Stoeger et al., 2015; Van Ewijk, 2011). According to Strohmeier et al. (2017), a self-regulated learner keeps on learning in intercultural situations. There is substantial agreement that self-regulation of learning is a key determinant of academic success (e.g., Bembenutty et al., 2013; Berger & Brandmo, 2013; Cleary & Labuhn, 2013; Dent & Koenka, 2016; Pintrich, 2000; Van Ewijk, 2011; Whitebread et al., 2009; Winne, 1995; Winne & Perry, 2000; Zimmerman, 1990, 2008; Zuffianò et al., 2013). In addition to determining academic success, SRL enhances self-directed lifelong learning (Pirrie & Thoutenhoofd, 2013), which supports professional success (Santos & Mayoral, 2018). Being a lifelong learner is also identified by many IC scholars as a characteristic of an interculturally competent person (International Baccalaureate Organization, 2006). Self-regulated learners develop problem solving skills (Zsoldos-Marchis, 2014), which assist

in solving day-to-day life problems. Kochoska (2015) sees that being able to solve a problem through the understanding of ideas that reflect other people's cultures and provide various points of view could create stronger problem solutions. Problem solving skills are also helpful in adapting to new cultural environments and are identified by the Council of Europe in Barrett (2016) as one of the competences necessary for living peacefully with others in culturally diverse democratic societies.

The importance of SRL is highlighted by many researchers, and from several points of view. Schunk (1984) sees it as an effective means to improve achievement of students that range greatly in proficiency. Among the advantages of being self-regulated learners, Cleary (2015) points out that to successfully overcome challenging circumstances, individuals must be sufficiently motivated to reflect on and manage such situations. This is an important skill for IC in the cross-cultural interactions and travel situations that individuals may find challenging. SRL was found by Perry (1998) to play a statistically significant role in the independence and flexibility in writings of the second and third grade students in his study, and according to Cleary and Callan (2018), SRL is identified as a core 21st century learning skill. According to Pirrie and Thoutenhoofd (2013), SRL is also seen by the European Framework of Life-long Learning, European Commission (2006), as a key competence for life-long learning. Klug et al. (2011) also see SRL as a prerequisite for life-long learning, which is a trait of interculturally competent individuals. Fostering SRL in elementary school students supports the adoption of effective learning habits and beliefs early in the learner's life (Vandevelde et al., 2013).

Being intrinsically interested, adaptable, and seeking self-evaluation are three of the dimensions of SRL for which students can develop skills and learn strategies (Buckner et al., 2009; Zimmermann, 1998). Multiple researchers found that also among the main characteristics of interculturally competent individuals are being intrinsically interested (e.g., Arasaratnam & Doerfel, 2005; Fantini, 2000; Kealey, 1996; Norvilienė, 2012; Sue, 2001), adaptable (e.g., Bazgan & Popa, 2014; Bennett, 1993; Byram, 1997; Chen, 1992; Cots et al., 2016; Deardorff, 2006a, 2009; Fantini, 2000; Feng, 2016; Kelley & Meyers, 1995; Kim, 1991; Matsumoto & Hwang, 2013; Norvilienė, 2012; Olson & Kroeger, 2001; Ting-Toomey, 1993, 2010; Williams, 2005; Zhu et al., 2011), self-reflection (e.g., Buckner et al., 2009), and seeking self-evaluation (e.g., Deardorff, 2006a; Richards & Franco, 2006; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Self-regulation also supports the development of IC through social competence and the prevention of undesired behaviors (Hofmann et al., 2012; Tutkun & Tezel Sahin, 2019).

A pilot study was conducted by the author in an attempt to investigate the correlation between the IC and SRL regarding the three constructs of intrinsic interest, self-evaluation, and adaptability among a group of upper elementary students as components of IC and of SRL. Based on existing instruments, a questionnaire aimed at measuring the SRL and IC constructs of intrinsic interest, self-evaluation, and adaptability of elementary school students was developed. Cognitive interviews were conducted to provide cognitive validity of the developed questionnaire. There was high internal reliability for the overall questionnaire and all its subscales, except for the IC adaptability subscale. Therefore, the two adaptability subscales were dropped. Analysis

of the data from the study suggests moderate correlations between the overall measured SRL and IC, and between the SRL and IC constructs of intrinsic interest and self-evaluation among the participants.

**Self-Regulated Learning and Intercultural Competence in Elementary Students**

Contrary to former beliefs, IC and SRL skills can and should begin to be fostered in students at a young age in order to increase their effectiveness (Barrett, 2018; Cushner, 2008, 2015; Hernández-Bravo et al., 2017; Rader, 2018; Tutkun & Tezel Sahin, 2019; Vandevelde et al., 2013; Wagner et al., 2017). Tutkun and Tezel Sahin (2019) argue that the skills which young children develop in their early life help determine their future skills. It is important to foster skills during the critical ages for acquiring them. When elementary students receive instructional guidance on SRL strategy development, they have a higher chance of applying those strategies successfully when they move on to secondary school. During secondary school years students are less closely monitored and are expected to be more independent in managing academic requirements (Vandevelde et al., 2013).

Cushner (2008) mentioned that the ages eight to twelve are critical in developing IC. However, he did not rule out the possibility of IC being fostered in students younger than eight. Zhang and Lin (1999), for example, found that social perspective taking abilities show rapid growth between ages six and ten. Rader and Sittig (2003) addressed developing intercultural skills in elementary students as young as five and six. Cushner (2008) mentioned that there is much that can be done to prepare and support younger students in developing IC long before they display ethno-relative behaviors around the

age of eight and points out the importance of guidance and practice to aid the child in the process of decentering. This is a period during which the child transitions from what Piaget and Inhelder (1969) called the preoperational stage, from two to seven years of age, to the stage of concrete operations, from eight to twelve years of age, or from what Montessori (1995) called the first plane of development from zero to six years of age, when the child's mind can be described as an absorbent mind, to the second plane of development from six to twelve years of age, when the child's mind can be described as a reasoning mind.

Formal education which students receive at school is strongly linked to the development of their knowledge, beliefs, and feelings about their own nation and culture, and about other nations and cultures (Barrett, 2007). More specifically, school is a major source of geographical knowledge (Axia et al., 1998) and historical and cultural knowledge (Forrest & Barrett, 2001) of one's own nation and culture, as well as knowledge of foreign peoples (Barrett, 2007; Barrett & Short, 1992; Byram, 2014). Fostering elementary students' development of IC and SRL skills requires a high level of teacher awareness and instructional sophistication, which require adequate preparation for both pre-service and in-service teachers (Barrett, 2018). Teachers should gain experience and familiarity with different delivery methods to meet the different needs of students. However, there seems to be a need for better preparation of teachers to aid elementary students in developing IC and SRL skills, as many researchers find deficits in such preparation for IC (e.g., Cushner, 2008; Grey, 2013; Perry et al., 2015) and SRL (e.g., Bembenutty et al., 2013; Kramarski & Kohen, 2017; Peeters et al., 2014).

## Self-Regulatory Prompts

Self-regulatory prompts (SRP), sometimes referred to as metacognitive guidance or self-regulation prompts, are instructional procedures in which students are prompted to carry out specific SRL activities at specific times (Bannert & Reimann, 2012) and function as cues for learners to self-monitor and self-evaluate (Peters & Kitsantas, 2010a). SRP procedures are embedded within learning contexts and require students to plan, monitor, reflect on, and adapt their learning processes after comparing them to the desired learning goals (Azevedo & Hadwin, 2005; Bannert & Reimann, 2012; Berthold et al., 2007; Lin & Lehman, 1999; Muller & Seufert, 2018; Nuckles et al., 2009; Peters & Kitsantas, 2010a; Van den Boom et al., 2004). SRP are not used to teach new self-regulatory skills but support the learner in using the self-regulation skills which they already possess (Bannert & Reimann, 2012; Muller & Seufert, 2018). Berthold et al. (2007) see SRP as strategy activators which, according to Muller and Seufert (2018), guide learners to the appropriate learning strategies to use at different stages of the learning process. Improvement in learning performance has been attributed to SRP in several studies (e.g., Bannert et al., 2015; Berthold et al. 2007; Cazan, 2012; Devolder et al., 2012; Hübner et al., 2006; Kitsantas & Zimmerman, 2002; Kollar et al., 2007; Kramarski & Friedman, 2014; Panadero et al., 2012; Peters & Kitsantas, 2010a, 2010b).

## Purpose of the Study

Intercultural education is a necessity presented by globalization in order to prepare future generations to meet the requirements of global citizenship. Education must prepare students to understand the complexity of global problems and to develop the

ability to collaborate with others in their resolution (Deardorff, 2009; UNESCO et al., 2015). Contrary to former beliefs, intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes can and should begin to be fostered in students at a young age in order to increase their effectiveness (Barrett, 2018; Cushner, 2015; Rader, 2018; Rader & Sittig, 2003). They should be developed before adolescence, which is when international goodwill, according to Wiegand (1991), seems to get weaker due to adolescents' adoption of prevailing adult stereotypes.

For the past five decades, there has been an increased interest in studying intercultural competence in the fields of business and management, conflict, healthcare, and education (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). The largest body of research in the field of intercultural education focuses on developing IC in teachers and student teachers, especially foreign language teachers (e.g., Byram, 2014; He et al., 2017; Sercu, 2006; Suntharesan, 2013) and students in higher education (e.g., Patriquin, 2016), followed by secondary education (e.g., Walton et al., 2015), with the smallest body of research in IC focused on elementary students (e.g., Cushner, 2008; Mellizo, 2018). The rare research studies concerned with the development of IC in elementary students are mainly through foreign language curricula and rarely social studies curricula (Dehbozorgi et al., 2014). To maximize the development of IC in elementary students, researchers such as Driscoll and Simpson (2015) suggest developing long-term plans which clearly connect cultural learning objectives that can be interwoven into different subject curricula and school events. However, the translation of these suggestions into practice is usually poor (Álvarez Valdivia & González Montoto, 2018).

Existing intercultural training tools, which are mainly designed for adults, include, role plays, case studies, online tools, coaching, and group activities such as simulation games, discussions, and structured learning exercises. The existing tools do not necessarily fall within the parameters desired by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which include that tools work in a variety of settings around the world. Intercultural education through experiential learning, verses didactic, enables students to see things through the eyes of others. It is learner centered and allows the learner to manage and take responsibility of his/her own learning through phases in which s/he is engaged in the activity, reflects on and critically analyzes it, abstracts insights, and applies the results in practical situations (McCaffery, 1993). One of the rare examples of intercultural strategies and lesson plans provided for educators to integrate into existing elementary school curricula is that by Rader (2018).

Improvement in learning performance, self-regulatory efficacy, and intrinsic interest in tasks in general has been significantly correlated to the use of self-regulatory prompts (Bannert et al., 2015; Panadero et al., 2012; Peters & Kitsantas, 2010a). Self-regulatory prompts are instructional procedures embedded within learning contexts, which support the learner in activating the self-regulatory skills that they already possess (Muller & Seufert, 2018). Self-regulatory prompts engage learners in comparing current learning states with desired learning goals and evoke comprehension monitoring and planning of remedial strategies (Peters & Kitsantas, 2010a), which would subsequently guide the learner to select the learning processes that would lead to the desired outcomes (Bannert & Reimann, 2012). The purpose of the present study was (a) to examine the

effects of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary school students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning, and (b) to investigate the ways in which SRP influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory strategies in intercultural learning. The intervention was grounded in the social cognitive theory perspective.

## Theoretical Framework

This study was mainly focused on enhancing the development of IC in elementary students through lessons and activities. For the purpose of this study, which targets elementary aged students, the working definition of IC of elementary students is having the basic knowledge, skills, and attitudes towards people of different cultures, which equip them for the lifelong learning task of developing appropriate, effective, and peaceful intercultural communication and collaboration, for thriving and for solving world problems. This includes knowledge of culture in general, one's own culture, and basic knowledge of other nations and cultures. It also includes developing empathy and valuation of all humans, interest in engaging in cross-cultural experiences, adaptability to cultural changes, and the ability to take perspectives and interpret, experience, and reflect upon cultural differences. This definition was adapted from definitions of IC by Deardorff (2006b), Cushner (2008), and Izzard and Ross (2015) to better suit the target age group of the study. It is based on the premise that the components of IC are knowledge, skills, and attitudes/values (Barrett, 2013; Corbett, 2003; Deardorff, 2009; Hernandez-Bravo et al., 2017; Spitzberg & Shangnon, 2009).

The use of self-regulatory prompts was examined in this study as a tool used to support this development. Prompts, according to Muller and Seufert (2018), are used as an instructional method to foster self-regulated learning through activating strategies. The theoretical framework guiding the use of SRP for this study is embedded in Bandura's (1986, 1997, 2001) social cognitive theory, which is a general theory that stresses learning from the social environment in a reciprocal relationship between personal, behavioral, and environmental learning processes, and in Zimmerman's (2000) cyclical model of self-regulation, which is based on Bandura's social cognitive theory.

**Significance of the Study**

Considering the importance of elementary school students' development of IC, research is needed for providing educators with effective ways of supporting students in that development. There is much evidence to support the need to create the appropriate environments and plan lessons and activities to guide and scaffold elementary students through their development of IC, as it should not be expected to happen automatically (Cushner, 2015; Klak & Martin, 2003; Pascarella et al., 1996). When it comes to lessons and activities that teachers can use to support elementary students in their development of IC, efforts by UNESCO and the Council of Europe, among others, have resulted in publications rich with suggestions (Cabezudo et al., 2010; Leo, 2010). Self-regulated learning plays an important role in students' academic success (Bembenutty et al., 2013; Berger & Brandmo, 2013; Cleary & Labuhn, 2013; Dent & Koenka, 2016; Pintrich, 2000; Van Ewijk, 2011; Whitebread et al., 2009; Winne, 1995; Winne & Perry, 2000; Zimmerman, 1990, 2008; Zuffianò et al., 2013). This suggests that if students can self-

regulate their learning during activities designed to enhance their development of IC, they would be able to better develop it. Further, having and developing SRL skills can be enhanced through the use of SRP, since elementary students may not know how and when to put their SRL skills to use. Self-regulatory prompts support students in knowing when to use SRL strategies, and which specific strategy to use at a certain time.

There are examples of studying SRL in elementary students and the use of SRP to enhance that learning (e.g., Gidalevich, & Kramarski, 2019). However, these examples are few and leave a gap in the literature covering this topic. Examining the use of SRP in elementary students' development of IC is one way to provide data that may shed more light on whether elementary students self-regulate their learning, how successfully they do that, in which strategies specifically are they more or less likely to be successful, and where they are more likely to need support. Such information would add to the pool of knowledge of teaching SRL skills to elementary students in general.

There are studies that support the effectiveness of using SRP, more so than other instructional cues, such as concept mapping and conceptual scaffolding (e.g., Hsu et al., 2014). However, the reviewed literature addressing SRL and IC in elementary students reveals examples of the use of SRP in science and math but suggests a significant gap in studies examining the use of SRP in social studies specifically. In their meta-analysis of 38 reading-related studies in science education using SRL, Hsu et al. (2014) found metacognitive prompts to be significantly useful, even with a group of third and fourth graders. Specifically, Hsu et al. (2014) found that SRP for third and fourth graders improve inductive reasoning and critical evaluation, can let learners assume

responsibility for their own learning, identify gaps in their knowledge and study strategy immediately, and increase students' domain knowledge. Peters (2007) found in her study of the effect of nature of science metacognitive prompts on science students' content and nature of science knowledge, metacognition, and self-regulatory efficacy that there was a significantly higher gain in content knowledge and nature of science knowledge for the experimental group, which received embedded prompts, than there was in the control group among her eighth-grade participants. However, there was no statistically significant difference in the increase of self-efficacy or metacognition between the two groups in Peters' study. The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of using SRP to support elementary students in their development of IC, hence contributing to filling the research gap identified by scholars (e.g., Deardorff, 2015; Gidalevich & Kramarski, 2019).

**Research Questions**

The main research questions that guide this study are:

1. What is the impact of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning? The hypothesis was that students exposed to the SRP in the experimental group (intercultural exercises with SRP) would show higher levels of development of intercultural knowledge, skills, attitudes, and self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning than students in the comparison group (intercultural exercises with no SRP).

2. In what ways do self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning?

*Keywords*: intercultural competence, self-regulated learning, self-regulatory prompts, intercultural knowledge, intercultural skills, intercultural attitudes, self-efficacy

**Conceptual Definitions**

***Intercultural Competence of Elementary Students.*** Intercultural competence of elementary students is having the basic knowledge, skills, and attitudes towards people of different cultures, which equip them for the lifelong learning task of developing appropriate, effective, and peaceful intercultural communication and collaboration, for thriving and for solving world problems. This definition is adapted from other definitions of IC (e.g., Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Cushner, 2015; Deardorff, 2006b; Izzard & Ross, 2015; Strohmeier et al., 2017).

***Self-Regulated Learning.*** Self-regulated learning is self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals (Zimmerman, 2000).

***Self-regulatory Prompts.*** Self-regulatory prompts are strategy activators which guide learners to the appropriate learning strategies to use at different stages of the learning process (Muller & Seufert, 2018).

***Intercultural Knowledge.*** Intercultural knowledge can be culture-general, which includes knowledge of processes of cultural, societal, and individual interaction, or culture-specific, which includes knowledge of the perspectives, practices and products of particular cultural groups (e.g., Barrett, 2013; Richards & Franco, 2006).

***Intercultural Skills.*** Intercultural skills are skills which allow adaptation and effective communication in cross-cultural situations such as perspective taking, critical thinking, adapting to different cultural environments, cognitive flexibility, communication skills, and empathy (e.g., Fantini, 2000; Norvilienė, 2012; Orazbayeva, 2016).

***Intercultural Attitudes.*** Intercultural attitudes are having respect for other cultures, tolerance for ambiguity, curiosity about and interest in learning about other cultures, valuing other cultures, and valuing cultural diversity (e.g., Barrett, 2013; Fantini, 2000; Kang-Young, 2009; Norvilienė, 2012).

***Self-Efficacy.*** Self-efficacy refers to students' beliefs in their ability to perform a learning task under specified conditions (Bandura, 1986; Lau et al., 2018).

# Chapter Two

The literature review for this paper elaborates on the importance of IC in general, and on the possibility of developing it through SRP in elementary students in particular. Further connections between SRL and IC are discussed. The use of SRP and examples of interventions involving them are also discussed. There is a section on IC measurement, which includes information on assessing IC, examples and reviews of inventories developed for measuring IC in adults and children, and examples of items in those inventories which are relevant to the present study. There is also a section on SRL measurement, which includes information on assessing SRL, examples and reviews of inventories developed for measuring SRL in adults and children, and examples of items in those inventories which are relevant to the present study. The context of the intervention, which is elementary Montessori classrooms, is briefly described, as well as the topic used for the intervention.

## Literature Search

In searching for literature for this study, key search terms were inserted into websites such as PsycINFO (APA PsycNET), Education Research Complete, and Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), which are accessible through George Mason University (GMU) Libraries. Combinations of search terms such as self-regulated learning, self-regulation, intercultural competence, intercultural sensitivity, education, measurement, instruments, primary, and elementary were used. Names of researchers such as Martyn Barrett, Barry Zimmerman, Darla Deardorff, Anastasia Kitsantas, and

Kenneth Cushner were also used as search terms. Knowledge of some studies came through references to them in other more recent studies. The most important parameter for including or excluding literature was relevance to the purpose of the study. The relevance was decided first by the title of the study, and then by reading the abstract. Other parameters for including or excluding articles were being peer reviewed, year of publication, authors, and the number of times cited. Literature, such as chapters in books, that was identified during the search and met the search parameters but wasn't accessible through the GMU digital library was purchased. Examples are Handbook of Self-Regulation of Learning and Performance (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011) and Handbook of Self-Regulation of Learning and Performance 2nd Edition (Schunk & Greene, 2018), Applications of Self-Regulated Learning across Diverse Disciplines (Bembenutty et al., 2013), Handbook of Self-Regulation (Boekaerts et al., 2000), and The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence (Deardorff, 2009).

**Overview of Past and Present Intercultural Competence Research**

For the past five decades, according to Hammer (2015) and Spitzberg and Changnon (2009), scholars have been showing increased interest in studying intercultural competence (e.g., Arasarantam, 2014; Barnlund, 1998; Bryan et al., 1975; Martin, 1989; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). This interest has been accelerating due to increased connectedness through travel (Deardorff, 2015), global communication, and forced migration due to wars. UNESCO (2013) addressed IC in human-rights contexts and PISA (2018) has included global competence as a world-wide educational measure (Piacentini, 2017). This interest in IC has risen in multiple fields including business and management

(e.g., Finger & Kathoefer, 2005; Fisher & Hartel, 2003; Hofstede et al., 2010; Wang, 2019; Zhu & Valentine, 2001), conflict (e.g., Chornet, & Parr, 2017; Ting-Toomey, 2007), healthcare (e.g., Carlson et al., 2017; Derby & Everetts, 2014), and education (e.g., Barrett, 2007; Fantini, 1991; Feng, 2016; Orazbayeva, 2016). The focus of this study was on intercultural competence in education.

Researchers concerned with IC in education sometimes focus on its development in oneself, which is more likely to happen through informal learning opportunities (e.g., Deardorff, 2020), or, more commonly, on guiding its development in others through educational curriculum or planned experiential learning opportunities (e.g., Berardo & Deardorff, 2012; Byram, 1997; Canková & Gill, 2002; Deardorff, 2020; Rader, 2018; Savina, 2020). A large body of research focuses on developing IC of teachers and student teachers (e.g., Barnatt et al., 2020; He et al., 2017; Orazbayeva, 2016; Popescu & Iordachescu, 2015), especially foreign language teachers (e.g., Byram, 2014; Magosa & Simopoulosb, 2009; Moloney, 2009; Sercu, 2006; Suntharesan, 2013). Research concerned with developing IC in students covers students in elementary, secondary, or higher education (e.g., Marginson, 2016). However, the largest emphasis is on students in higher education (e.g., Patriquin, 2016; Tinkler et al., 2017; Williams, 2005), followed by secondary education (e.g., Karnyshev & Kostin, 2010; Straffon, 2003; Walton et al., 2015), leaving the smallest body of research in IC to elementary students (e.g., Cushner, 2008; Mellizo, 2018). Some studies cover a wide range of age groups, from pre-school to higher education (e.g., Barrett, 2018; Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011; Denson et al., 2017).

There is a large body of research concerned with students developing IC at their schools (in-classroom education) through English as a Second Language (ESL) curricula and is mainly focused on intercultural communicative competence (e.g., Arasaratnam, 2014; Avgousti, 2018; Byram, 1997; Byram & Morgan, 1994; Magosa & Simopoulosb, 2009; Moloney, 2009; Morell, 2011; Sercu, 2006) and through study abroad programs, which mainly target college students (e.g., Bennett, 2010; Williams, 2005). There are studies that look into students' development of IC through civic engagement programs (e.g., Porto et al., 2018; Shah-Gordon, 2016) and through service-learning programs (e.g., Rauschert & Byram, 2018; Tinkler et al., 2017), both of which mainly target students in higher education. Some studies address the cultural component in the development of IC through foreign language learning (e.g., Romanowski, 2018; Nugent, 2019). However, research concerned with the role of social studies curricula in the development of IC in students is rare (e.g., Dehbozorgi et al., 2014), especially when it comes to elementary students. The focus of this study is on the development of IC in elementary students through social studies curricula.

## Defining Culture and Intercultural Competence

### *Definitions of Culture*

In order to understand what is meant by IC, it is necessary to define culture. Culture is not limited to a geographic location, religion, or certain community. It has more to do with social groups, which makes it complicated to identify the culture of a certain person since, according to Strohmeier et al. (2017), each person belongs to different social groups simultaneously. Culture is seen as an onion-skinned concept with

many layers by Hofstede et al. (2010). In this view of culture, the outer layer is where the external attributes of culture, such as values, beliefs, rituals, and symbols, are noticeable. A different view of culture divides aspects of culture into big “C”, which are major cultural themes, and small “c”, which are minor cultural themes (Kang-Young, 2009; Paige & Mestenhauser, 1999; Peterson, 2004). There does not seem to be an agreement, however, between all involved researchers on which aspects constitute big “C” and which ones constitute small “c”. For example, values, norms, and beliefs belong to big “C”, according to Peterson (2004), and to small “c”, according to Kang-Young (2009). In his (2018) literature review, Moore-Jones lists and critiques several definitions of culture (e.g., Geertz, 1973; Holliday, 2004; Peterson, 2004). Moore-Jones supports Peterson’s (2004) definition of culture as “the relatively stable set of inner values and beliefs generally held by groups of people … and the noticeable impact those values and beliefs have on people’s outward behaviors and environment” (p. 17). Peterson also embraces Holliday’s (2005) note that culture is not a geographical place but “a social force which is evident wherever it emerges as being significant” (p. 23). Rader (2018) defines culture as a shared way of life that includes values, beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, languages, and customs, and is passed on from one generation to another. The view of culture adopted for this study is that by Barrett et al. (2014), who suggest that culture consists of material, social, and subjective aspects. The material aspect includes food and clothing, the social aspect includes language and religion, and the subjective aspect includes values, attitudes, beliefs, and practices.

### *Definitions of Intercultural Competence*

Definitions of IC are numerous (e.g., Bebenova-Nikolova, 2018; Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2004, 2006a; Hammer et al., 2003; Hernández-Bravo et al., 2017; Portalla & Chen, 2010). Some scholars focus on the social/personal side of IC (e.g., Cushner, 2008; Izzard & Ross, 2015), and other scholars focus on the professional side of IC (e.g., Odağ et al., 2016; Zhao, 2009). Definitions of IC often involve appropriate behavior and effective communication in intercultural settings (Deardorff, 2006b), or shifting cultural perspective across cultural differences (Hammer, 2012). The terms intercultural competence and intercultural sensitivity are occasionally used interchangeably. The difference between them is that intercultural sensitivity, according to Hammer et al. (2003) "is the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences… whereas IC is the ability to think and act in interculturally appropriate ways" (p. 422). Cushner (2015) sees IC as the application of intercultural sensitivity through the attainment of a wide repertoire of behaviors that are culturally appropriate to a certain time, place, and circumstance. Peterson (2004) defines cultural intelligence (CQ) as the "ability to engage in a set of behaviors that uses skills (e.g., language or interpersonal skills) and qualities (e.g., tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility) that are tuned appropriately to the culture-based values and attitudes of the people with whom one interacts" (p .89). Although this is a definition of CQ, it is similar to many definitions of IC. Hernandez-Bravo et al. (2017) define IC as "the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to communicate effectively and appropriately with peers of other cultures" (p. 25).

The term intercultural competence is also used interchangeably with terms such as intercultural competence (ICC), global competence, and international mindedness. Portalla and Chen (2010) defined ICC as “an individual’s ability to achieve their communication goal while effectively and appropriately utilizing communication behaviors to negotiate between the different identities present within a culturally diverse environment” (p. 21). Global competence was defined by Hunter et al. (2006) as “having an open mind while actively seeking to understand cultural norms and expectations of others, leveraging this gained knowledge to interact, communicate and work effectively outside one’s environment” (p. 270). International mindedness was defined in Hill (2012) as “an attitude of openness to, and curiosity about, the world and different cultures. It is concerned with developing a deep understanding of the complexity, diversity and motives that underpin human actions and interactions” (p. 256). In-spite of being used interchangeably, these terms each have a different focus, such as communication skills or understanding. Intercultural competence was chosen for this study because its wider coverage of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

For the purpose of this study, which targets elementary aged students, the working definition of IC of elementary students is having the basis for the lifelong learning task of developing appropriate and effective communication in intercultural situations. This includes knowledge of culture in general, one’s own culture, and basic knowledge of other nations and cultures. It also includes developing empathy and valuation of all humans, interest in engaging in cross-cultural experiences, adaptability to cultural changes, and the ability to take perspectives and interpret, experience, and reflect upon

cultural differences. This definition is adapted from other definitions of IC (e.g., Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Cushner, 2015; Deardorff, 2006b; Izzard & Ross, 2015; Strohmeier et al., 2017) in addition to responses of seven upper elementary students during cognitive interviews conducted as part of a pilot study by the author.

**Intercultural Competence Models**

The numerous contemporary models of acquiring IC have been listed, described, and classified in many studies (e.g., Aguiar et al., 2020; Arasaratnam, 2017; Barrett, 2013; Fantini, 2000; Nadeem et al., 2018; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). The exhaustive meta-analysis of IC research over the past five decades by Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) resulted in a five-type classification of models. This classification is supported by, referred to, reviewed, and critiqued by others (e.g., Barrett, 2013; Nadeem et al., 2018; Reid, 2013; Strohmeier et al., 2017). The five types of models are compositional models, co-orientational models, developmental models, adaptational models, and causal process models.

In *compositional models*, such as Deardorff's (2006b) Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence, lists of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors are made, which cover components of IC. This model, according to Hammer (2015), overlooks relationships between personal characteristics and culture-general patterns of difference. *Co-orientational models* focus on how interactors of different perspectives communicate, and how they adapt to each other's meanings and behaviors. An example of this model is Fantini's (2009) Intercultural Interlocutor Competence Model. Spitzberg and Shangnon (2009) argue that the compositional and co-orientational models are missing the

important element of time, which they believe should be considered in any ongoing relationship among representatives of different cultures. The element of time is, however, well recognized in developmental models.

The *developmental models* of intercultural progression, maturity and adjustment are the most widely used (Bennett, 1993; Feng, 2016; Hammer, 2015). In developmental models, the process of acquiring IC is described, and levels of competent interaction are identified. In Feng's (2016) Reflective Development Model there are four developmental stages: awareness, experience, reflection, and assessment. Her study suggests that it is possible for students to develop their IC within their classroom settings by reflecting on their personal experiences and reinforcing their reflective learning strategies through interactive classroom activities.

*Adaptational models* combine the previous models in the context of adaptation to a foreign country (Gallois et al., 1988). In adaptational models, adaptation is used in itself as a criterion for competence, which Spitzberg and Shangnon (2009) see as questionable. In Berry et al. (1989) Attitude Acculturation Model, there is awareness of the tension between attitudes towards adapting to another culture and maintaining one's own culture. The model identifies four possible outcomes of these different attitudes. The possible outcomes being assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization. In *causal path models*, IC components are seen as having causal relationships between them. They are claimed to be culture general models and can be used in different cultural contexts. Causal path models are relatively easy to adapt to research purposes, given their amenability to empirical tests as a result of representing IC as a theoretical linear (or

cyclical) system (Barrett, 2013; Nadeem et al., 2018; Spitzberg & Shangnon, 2009). One of the examples of causal path models is Deardorff's (2004) Process Model of Intercultural Competence. This model is described by Deardorff (2006b) as depicting the complexity of acquiring IC by representing the process that occurs between the various elements, while moving from the personal level to the interpersonal level. Developmental models of intercultural progression, maturity and adjustment are the most appropriate for the present study considering its developmental stages and the ability to use it in classroom settings.

**Components of Intercultural Competence**

There are a few main components of IC, which many researchers agree on (e.g., Corbett, 2003; Deardorff, 2006a, 2009; Hernandez-Bravo et al., 2017; Spitzberg & Shangnon, 2009). These main components are intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Some researchers (e.g., Barrett, 2013; Kang-Young, 2009) add other components, such as critical awareness and behaviors and/or values. Byram (2008) considers there to be two skills components, skills of interaction/discovery and skills of relating/interpreting. The intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired by a student can be culture-general, which are generalizable in nature and transferrable across cultures, or culture-specific, which are related to a particular cultural group or community (Kang-Young, 2009; Lange & Paige, 2003, Paige & Mestenhauser, 1999).

Culture-general knowledge includes knowledge of processes of cultural, societal, and individual interaction, while culture-specific knowledge includes knowledge of the perspectives, practices, and products of particular cultural groups (Barrett, 2013;

Richards & Franco, 2006). Intercultural attitudes, when explained by some researchers, sometimes include values as well. Intercultural attitudes are having respect for other cultures, tolerance for ambiguity, curiosity about and interest in learning about other cultures, valuing other cultures, and valuing cultural diversity (Barrett, 2013; Fantini, 2000; Kang-Young, 2009; Norvilienė, 2012). Intercultural skills seem to cover what some researchers identify as intercultural behaviors or intercultural behavioral skills, such as communicating effectively in cross-cultural situations (Barrett, 2013; Garrett-Rucks, 2012). Intercultural skills include perspective taking, critical thinking, adapting to different cultural environments, cognitive flexibility, communication skills, and empathy (Barrett, 2013; Fantini, 2000; Norvilienė, 2012; Orazbayeva, 2016; Richards & Franco, 2006). The relationship between these components of IC, according to Barrett (2013) has not yet been established, which leaves a gap in the literature.

**The Different Intercultural Competencies**

Characteristics and skills of an interculturally competent individual are often identified for purposes of program design as well as program and/or individual assessment. These characteristics and skills can serve as learning outcomes (Leo, 2010). Such characteristics and skills are sometimes considered subcomponents of IC, and are classified under the main components of IC, which are knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Norvilienė, 2012; Richards & Franco, 2006; Sinicrope et al., 2007), and in some studies are listed without being classified (Fantini, 2000).

Spitzberg and Shangnon (2009) made an extensive list of concept and factor labels associated with interpersonal, communicative, and intercultural competence. The

list covers intercultural competencies which are identified by many of the leading researchers in the field of IC (e.g., Deardorff, 2006a; Ezekiel, 1968; Gudykunst, 1993; Hunter et al., 2006; Hwang et al., 1980, 1985; Imahori & Lanigan, 1989; Kealey, 1996; Martin, 1986; Sue, 2001; Ting-Toomey, 1993; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). In addition to competencies which are considered intercultural, individual and personality characteristics such as optimism, openness, and extraversion may also be related to higher levels of intercultural competence (Barrett, 2013; Caligiuri et al., 2000). This study is concerned with elementary age students. Therefore, the focus was on intercultural competencies which are appropriate to that age group.

### *Elementary Age-Appropriate Intercultural Competencies*

The literature focused on the IC of elementary aged students (e.g., Aboud & Doyle, 1993; Barrett, 2007; Cushner, 2008; Mellizo, 2018; Rader & Sittig, 2003; Wiegand, 1991) suggests that the optimal age to start training students and supporting their development of IC is around seven or eight years old. The intercultural competencies of students that age, however, are not congruent to those of adult learners. There are developmental reasons for that, such as the elementary child's imperfect understanding of the idea of foreigner (Byram & Morgan, 1994; Wiegand, 1991). Those competencies still cover the three main components of IC, which are knowledge, skills, and attitudes. As far as knowledge, an interculturally competent elementary student would be in the process of acquiring knowledge of culture in general, his/her own culture, and basic knowledge of other nations and cultures. The skills which the student would have are empathy, adaptability to cultural changes, and the ability to take perspectives

and interpret, experience, and reflect upon cultural differences. As far as attitudes, the interculturally competent elementary student would be interested in engaging in cross-cultural experiences and would value all humans regardless of cultural background. The relationships between knowledge, skills, and attitudes are complex (Barrett & Short, 1992).

Some scholars argue that before children acquire understanding of their own culture, they should first be able to de-center and understand different perspectives (e.g., Byram & Morgan, 1994). This entails certain IC skills, such as perspective taking, which should be developed in students to support the understanding of one's own culture and other cultures. There are different ways of perceiving culture and cultural groups. Cultural groups are perceived by some as formed by people of a certain nationality. Many studies from the twentieth century adopt this view, such as Barrett and Short's (1992) study involving 215 five to ten-year-old English students. It suggests that children's acquisition of nationality concepts starts by understanding that there are different countries, and that people can be categorized according to the countries they live in or come from.

Aboud and Doyle (1993) name the process of cultural teaching, which parents, families, peers, and the rest of an ethnic community provide to children during childhood years, as enculturation, or ethnic socialization. They stress the importance of a person's ethnic identity, which includes the knowledge of belonging to and ethnic group and pride in that group. They argue that confidence in one's own ethnic identity allows him/her to respect others of different ethnic identities. Wiegand (1991) summarizes research on

elementary children's sense of their own national identity and divides the children in age groups six to eight, seven to nine, and nine to eleven. His summary presents children in the youngest age group as having no understanding of part-whole relationships (as in city, county, country), while the middle group has an imperfect understanding of those relationships, and the oldest group understanding them well. In his summary, all three groups preferred their own country over other countries. The children in the youngest age group preferred their country for no rational reason, while the middle group preferred it for family and social reasons, and the oldest group preferred it by reference to collective ideals and an understanding of the significance of national symbols. These results are consistent with some of the results from Aboud's (1988) study, showing that bias to one's own group appears around the age of four and decreases around the age of seven. Aboud attributes this decrease in bias to cognitive development.

Barrett and Short (1992) assessed an elementary student's knowledge of his/her own culture, although their study was mainly focused on the students' conceptions of people of other nationalities. Their study suggests a significant difference between the geographical knowledge of five to seven-year-old children of their own country, and that of the eight to ten-year-old children. Most of the participating five to seven-year-old children thought that their country, although large, was smaller than London, while most of the eight to ten-year-old children thought that their country, although small, was bigger than London. The aim of Barrett and Short (1992) was to understand how children's conceptions of foreigners are formed, their reaction to them, and whether it's possible to influence children's conceptions of foreigners. Their review of studies conducted in the

1950s-1970s (e.g., Lambert & Kleineberg, 1966; Tajfel et al., 1970) suggest that there may be an interaction between knowledge and affect of children's conceptions of foreigners. Byram and Morgan (1994) support this suggestion. Results from the Barrett and Short study suggest that the affective component of children's conceptions of foreigners may be acquired before acquiring factual information. However, understanding the relationship between knowledge and affect/attitude in primary children requires further investigation.

**Developing Intercultural Competence in Elementary Students**

International organizations, such as the United Nations and the European Union, have been strongly supporting the inclusion if IC in academic contexts in the past two decades (Muller et al., 2020). In Leo's (2010) UNESCO publication, quality education is defined as the "knowledge, values, competencies and behaviors needed for a globalized world, balancing local, national and global aspirations, reflecting cultural and linguistic diversity for equity, equality and quality of life, and for peace, freedom, solidarity, democratic citizenship, human rights and sustainable development" (p. 12). Intercultural competence is necessary for lifelong success and for meeting requirements of global citizenship (Deardorff, 2014; Fantini & Tirmizi, 2006; Hammer, 2015; Nagy, 2018; Norvilienė, 2012; Patriquin, 2016; Spitzburg & Changnon, 2009). Education must prepare students to understand the complexity of global problems and to develop the ability to collaborate with others in their resolution (Barrett, 2018; Cushner, 2008; Deardorff, 2009; Izzard & Ross, 2015; Odağ et al., 2016; Rader, 2015; Tavangar, 2017;

Zhao, 2009). Young people cannot be expected to develop IC without support and guidance (Barrett, 2013; Cushner, 2015; Klak & Martin, 2003; Pascarella et al., 1996).

Formal education has the potential of playing a crucial role in children's development of IC. In school, students can learn about their place in their communities and in the world. They can learn about how people of different cultures live. Teachers play a major role in maintaining multicultural environments (Polat, & Ogay Barka, 2014). Teachers can support students in their development of critical thinking and can teach them to effectively and responsibly use digital information to learn about, and connect with, others. Teachers can encourage intercultural sensitivity, appreciation, and respect for diversity within one's own culture and that of others by allowing students to engage in experiences that foster an appreciation for languages and cultural diversity (Bennett, 1993; Grey, 2013; Sinicrope et al., 2007). To maximize the development of IC, Driscoll and Simpson (2015) suggest developing long-term plans which clearly connect cultural learning objectives that can be interwoven into different subject curricula and school events. They give examples such as making direct links between art and architecture of certain societies and the learning of the languages they speak. Intercultural learning can also be enriched in the historic study and understanding of the changing ways of life and the changing beliefs of people over time, from the Stone Age onwards. Interpreting and reflecting open these cultural differences may also help in developing empathy towards others.

Although there is increasing acknowledgment from involved parties of the importance of formal education's support of students' development of IC, the translation

of the discourse into practice is usually poor (Hernández-Bravo et al., 2017; Valdivia & Montoto, 2018). This is even true in foreign language learning classes (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015). Supporting students in their development of IC is particularly important before adolescence, which is when international goodwill, according to Wiegand (1991), seems to get weaker. Wiegand attributes this to adolescents' adoption of prevailing adult stereotypes.

There are challenges specific to conducting intercultural education with young learners. Lau (2015) sees these challenges in the young students' emergent but conflicted understanding of other cultures. Other challenges are specific to professional development for practitioners and student teachers to develop their intercultural understanding and help them challenge issues which lead to stereotypes, prejudice, and racism. These challenges have been addressed through a number of interventions and tools for intercultural education. The existing tools used in formal education, however, do not fall within the parameters desired by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which include that tools work in a variety of settings around the world. Most of the existing tools and interventions are designed for adults, such as simulation games (BAFA' BAFA': Shirts, 1970; BARNGA: Thiagarajan & Thiagarajan, 2006; ECOTONOS: Saphiere, 1995). For the purpose of this study, only interventions and training tools appropriate for intercultural education of elementary students are discussed. It is noteworthy to mention that no single intervention or training experience is sufficient in developing IC. Rather, IC development is a life-long process (Deardorff, 2020)

The different types of intercultural training tools used in formal and informal educational settings, as well as their pros and cons, are discussed in Deardorff's (2020) Manual for Developing Intercultural Competencies. These tools include simulations (e.g., BARNGA: Thiagarajan & Thiagarajan, 2006), role plays, case studies, online tools (e.g., Cultural Detective: US Peace Corps interactive workbook), coaching, and group activities such as games, discussions, and structured learning exercises. Group activities seems to be the tool that is most appropriate for the present study which focuses on IC of elementary school children. The reasons are its potential to target particular aspects of IC, its appropriateness for formal educational settings, the students' engagement in face-to-face interaction, and allowing for guidance and feedback from a trained facilitator. According to Landis et al. (2004), intercultural training tools can be culture specific or culture general, experiential or didactic. They argue that the choice of the training methods and activities depends on whether the desired outcome is classified as knowledge, skills, or attitudes. Methods and activities for developing knowledge include readings, brainstorming, programmed instruction, debates, and field trips. Methods and activities for developing skills include role playing, games, case studies, and simulations. Methods and activities for developing attitudes include critical incidents, role playing, debates, games, case studies, self-analysis, and simulations.

Selby (2008) makes a comparison between didactic and experiential learning. He describes didactic instruction as effective for teaching about material culture, but not the best means to stimulate interactional, relational, or reflective thinking, while experiential learning enables one to see things through the eyes of others. The experiential approach

to intercultural training is learner centered. It allows the learner to manage and take responsibility of his/her own learning, along with the trainer. In this approach, the learner goes through phases in which s/he is engaged in the activity, reflects on and critically analyzes it, abstracts insights, and applies the results in practical situations (McCaffery, 1993). Experiential intercultural training activities that are elementary age appropriate include case studies, role plays, simulations, games, and skill practicing. The choice of the technique depends largely on the goal of the activity. The role of the trainer or facilitating teacher is very important with young learners, who often require more guidance that adults, especially in the reflection and analysis phase.

**Examples of Intercultural Training Activities, Tools, and Methods**

Story Circles is an example of an experiential learning methodology which connects participants while honing intercultural competencies. It was developed by UNESCO in 2013 for the purposes of developing a human rights-based approach to intercultural competencies. The Story Circles methodology was identified and adapted based on thorough research led by Darla Deardorff. Darla Deardorff (2020) presents a manual which puts forth Story Circles as a key tool for developing individuals' IC. The main IC aspects developed through this methodology are cultural self-awareness, listening, respect, other awareness, and empathy, with reflection at the core. Story Circles have been piloted in diverse cultural contexts in countries such as Thailand, Austria, and Tunisia. They are used in contexts such as teacher education, community development, and intercultural dialogue. Story Circles vary depending on the desired intercultural competencies to be developed. Story Circles involve the sharing of experiences within

gathering of three or more people. They have been successfully piloted with participants aged 12 – 70+, but not with elementary school aged students. Story Circles seem to require a higher level of maturity than that of the target age group for this study.

In her book, “Teaching and Learning for Intercultural Understanding”, Rader (2018) provides strategies and lesson plans for educators to use in support of intercultural understanding in children ages four to eleven. These strategies and lesson plans are based on research and are meant to enable educators to integrate teaching and learning for intercultural understanding into existing school curricula. Activities in this book are designed to support one or more intercultural educational components, such as knowledge, skills, attitudes, and engagement in positive action. An example of a lesson plan in this book which supports the development of knowledge and understanding of culture and cultural differences is based on Betty Reynolds’ book, “Tokyo friends”, which is about three children who explore a city and teach each other about their respective customs and cultures. There are many activities suggested for children to carry out after reading Tokyo Friends, including creating a class book in which there is a page for each child to share different customs and cultures. An example of a lesson plan in this book which supports the development of perspective taking, communication skills, critical thinking, and problem solving is based on Molly Bang’s book, “When Sophie’s Feeling are Really, Really Hurt”, which is about classroom children laughing at a girl’s drawing of a tree and their teacher helping see it from a different perspective. Most of the suggested activities for children to carry out after reading When Sophie’s Feeling are Really, Really Hurt are discussions of how people see difference and may laugh at it, and

how being observant can help in learning about people or cultures that are different. An example of a lesson plan in this book which supports the development of empathy, curiosity, and respect for diversity is based on Ilene Cooper's book, "The Golden Rule", which is about a grandfather teaching his grandson about the golden rule and how he can practice it. An example of a suggested activity for children to carry out after reading "The Golden Rule" is for students to generate a list of scenarios where the children can practice the golden rule, then act out those scenarios.

In their book, "From the Margins to the Mainstream: Enhancing Social Awareness in the Social Studies Classroom," Cushner and Dowdy (2014) present a collection of activities written by teachers and teacher educators for pre-service and in-service teachers to use with their k-12 students. The activities are hands-on and engage teachers in real-life and simulated experiences. The activities are designed to provide meaningful intercultural learning and awareness.

In their book, "Intercultural Activities," Gill and Cankova (2007) provide language teachers with lesson plans for intercultural activities that introduce cultural content. The book includes 30 lessons, eight of which are appropriate for elementary school aged children. Although these lessons are designed for use with English language learners they can be used, sometimes after making some adjustments, as part of intercultural learning. The elementary age-appropriate lessons in this book mostly support the development of the students' intercultural knowledge, such as clothes, foods, or superstitions of people in different countries. It also contains lessons that support the

development of the students' intercultural skills, such as practicing greetings of people in different countries.

In their book, "Building cultural competence: innovative activities and models," Berardo and Deardorff (2012) provide fifty-two intercultural training tools, models, and activities as well as guidance for designing effective intercultural learning experiences. Six of the tools and activities can be used with children, while the rest are for adults and teenagers. The first section of the book provides activities aimed at developing awareness of how culture forms and changes, and the importance of perspective switching. This section includes five of the six activities which can be used with children, and they support the "knowledge" aspect of intercultural learning, such as activities which introduce the idea of there being many right ways to do things across cultures and the concept of cultural conditioning. The following three sections of the book include activities that support intercultural attitudes and skills. There is one activity in those sections that can be used for children's development of the skill of conflict resolution.

Seelye (1995) presents 32 intercultural activities by different authors in his book, "Experiential Activities for Intercultural Learning." Although the activities are designed for adults, a few of them may be adapted or adjusted for use with elementary children. An example of an activity designed for developing intercultural knowledge is "Describing Cultures Through Their Proverbs" by Sandra Tjitendero. Adjustments such as choosing proverbs that are elementary age appropriate should not be too difficult to make. An example of an activity for developing intercultural skills is "Double-Loop Thinking: Seeing Two Perspectives" by Anne B. Pedersen. It is possible to use this activity with

older elementary children with much guidance and the choice of age and context appropriate incidents.

In their book, “Developing Intercultural Competence in Practice,” Byram et al. (2001) provide 17 examples of education for international understanding, 16 of which are in foreign language lessons. Most of the lessons in the book target middle school aged students to adults However, an example by Lynne Parmenter and Yuichi Tomita is from an elementary school lesson in Japan, which is intended for ages eight to ten. In addition to language learning component related to greetings, this lesson can help children develop an intercultural attitude by decentering and relativizing their own language and culture, and by developing empathy and a willingness to cross cultural communication. One teaching project in Byram et al.’s book by Francoise Vigneron is part of the geography curriculum in a French primary (elementary) school with children ages 9 - 10, and not a foreign language curriculum. In this approach, landscape is used as an element which constitutes a sense of identity, native and foreign. Students’ existing perceptions of landscapes in their native country and a different country is assessed and based on that, new knowledge about the different landscapes is transmitted. The goal of this approach is for students to decenter from their cultural knowledge and values which they had been considering undeniable and universal.

Some examples of intercultural training activities are found in environments where the Montessori method is applied. The Montessori method of education was established more than 100 years ago by the Italian physician Maria Montessori. Montessori’s cosmic curriculum, which is based on the interconnectedness of all things in

the universe, plays an important role in integrating all aspects of human life on the planet (Dempsey, 2017; Montessori, 1989). Montessori Elementary children develop an awareness and appreciation of the interconnectedness of all life and people through lessons and work with timelines, charts, and other hands-on activities. This, and other skills necessary for intercultural competence such as critical thinking, problem solving, adaptability, and appropriate communication, are recognized and nourished through Montessori education (Dempsey, 2017; Jensen, 2010). One of the main lessons, with all its variations and activities, which support the development of IC in elementary students is the study of the “Fundamental Needs of Humans”. Hall (2012) explains that in this lesson the universals of human "supra nature" are reflected in the common needs of humans in the categories of religion, art, transportation, defense, clothing, shelter, communication, nutrition, and social acceptance. The Fundamental Needs of Humans chart, in which the needs are classified as material and spiritual, is described by Jensen (2010) as defining culture. It does so by showing children that all humans have the same needs to satisfy, and it is in the different ways that humans satisfy those needs that we witness culture and cultural differences.

The integrated Montessori approach to history and geography provides a global perspective of the interdependency of life on earth as going forward with a high degree of implicit optimism as the individual approaches their collective task. Brunold-Conesa (2010) talks about a Montessori integrated history-geography curriculum that explores both ancient civilizations and contemporary cultures saying, Montessori’s “fundamental needs of humans” curriculum, as simple as it sounds, becomes the foundation for

understanding and appreciating cultural differences. The curriculum de-emphasizes nationalism and promotes an understanding of humanity as a global family. While this curriculum alone does not fully prepare children for future encounters, work, or other relationships with people of other cultures, it is a grounding work for the inception of intercultural awareness and understanding, which are the foundation of intercultural competence. Preparation for the study of the fundamental needs of humans starts by arousing children's curiosity to learn about other cultures and regularly seek opportunities to meet those from different cultures and interact with them through teaching geography starting as early as the age three or four, focusing on places as well as people, and showing similarities as well as differences. The Montessori lesson of the "fundamental needs of humans" was used for this study.

**Assessment of Intercultural Competence**

The effectiveness of an IC intervention, whether it is a method, tool, or lesson, aimed at supporting the development of IC in children can be assessed by measuring the participants' IC at different phases of that intervention. Research results suggest that, although difficult, it is possible to assess IC (Deardorff, 2011; Fantini, 2009). Generally, assessment methods which can be used for IC include surveys, interviews, diaries, reflection papers, critical incident analysis, trace logs, think-aloud methods, observations, simulations, longitudinal studies, artifacts, and microanalytic measures. It is necessary to use multi-methods and multi-perspectives when measuring IC, especially when participants are of a young age. That is due to its complex nature, as well as being personal and internal. IC researchers assert the importance of stronger focus on assessing

the processes communicating appropriately and effectively in cross-cultural situations, rather than assessing the results (Banta & Palomba, 2014; Deardorff & Edwards, 2012; Gordon & Deardorff, 2013).

The existing assessment tools are predominantly surveys. They are predominantly for adults. Surveys appropriate for young students are rare and mostly developed and validated for non-US students in languages other than English, if validated at all. Examples of surveys developed for young students for measuring IC are ICSES (Hernandez-Bravo & Cardona, 2007) developed for Spanish students and WIKI-KJ (Reinders et al., 2011) developed for German students. Measuring IC can provide information that can be used in developing successful educational programs, or improve existing ones, so that education can fulfil its purpose, which scholars (e.g., Driscoll & Simpson, 2015; Montessori, 1974; Orazbayeva, 2016; Rathunde, 2001) see as preparing students for life. The assessment of IC also provides information that may be the basis for making decisions such as designing or making changes in curricula to improve teaching and learning, or simply for evaluating programs.

Banta and Palomba (2014) highlight that the interest in assessment is focused on the cumulative effects of the educational process. The variation in assessment tools is related to the variation in the purposes, goals, and intended outcomes of each assessment process. Assessment should take into consideration the processes as well as the outcomes being measured. It should be planned, have clearly identified purpose, and involve the different stakeholders. Surveys are among the indirect assessment tools, along with interviews, focus groups, and observations. Banta and Palomba (2014) define surveying

as “the process of administering a set of predetermined questions to collect information from individuals in a target group about their characteristics, behaviors, attitudes, perceptions, and needs” (p. 121).

### *Measuring Intercultural Competence in Adults*

The numerous instruments designed to assess IC are used for different purposes. Mahon and Cushner (2014) mention self-awareness for self-improvement, selection purposes by organizations, and institutional evaluation and/or planning for training interventions as some of these purposes. Considering the complexity of IC, a multi-method approach should be used in assessing it (Deardorff, 2014; Graf & Harland, 2005; Schnabel et al., 2015). The assessment should involve the perspectives of more than one of the groups of stakeholders, such as students, teachers, administrators, and parents. The assessment of IC should include formative as well as summative perspectives. This helps form an understanding of the baseline cross-cultural awareness of students and the effects that educational practices have on the development of that awareness. Deardorff (2009) states that tests of IC are not as predictive of success in intercultural encounters as are IQ tests in the prediction of school performance. This may be due to IC assessment being relatively new, although it could also be due to the nature of IC itself. Although insufficient, questionnaires and inventories are valuable instruments that can be used in the assessment process.

Deardorff (2015) provides a list for international educators who engage in outcomes assessment, which helps in avoiding pitfalls that can impact the effectiveness of assessment efforts. Among that list, Deardorff includes defining the used terms, having

a developed assessment plan, tailoring the assessment plan to the specific mission, goals, objectives, and program parameters, collaborating, having a dialogue about learner success and learning outcomes, understanding the purpose of each tool and method, taking a multi-purpose multi-method approach, evaluating a limited number of objectives at a time, and evaluating how well the assessment plan worked.

One of the most commonly used instruments for measuring IC is the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), developed by Hammer et al. (2003). The IDI was constructed to measure the orientations of adults toward cultural differences described in Bennet's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). The DMIS orientations are (Denial, Defense, Minimization, Acceptance, Adaptation, Integration). The IDI is a 50-item (with 10 additional demographic items) paper-and-pencil measure of intercultural competence. IDI items were not easily accessible or available for analysis for this study. A sample IDI item is "Our schools should teach history of the world rather than our own nation."

Another instrument is the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS), developed by Chen and Starosta (2000). It measures the attitudinal aspects of intercultural sensitivity. The Behavioral Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence (BASIC), developed by Koester and Olebe (1988), can be used to measure behavior. The Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) was developed by Kelley and Meyers (1995) and "measures a person's ability to adapt to other cultures" (Perry & Southwell, 2011, p. 461). Fantini and Tirmizi (2006) developed the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC) instrument. The Inventory of Cross-Cultural Sensitivity (ICCS), developed by

Cushner (1986), and the revised version (ICCSv2), by Mahon and Cushner (2014), are used to raise people's awareness of issues to consider before intercultural interactions. All the above-mentioned instruments are self-report instruments. Neither of them was developed for use with upper elementary school students. Many of these instruments are designed for measuring the impact of study abroad programs, although the large majority of students do not travel abroad. (Deardorff, 2015).

***Measuring Intercultural Competence in Children***

Among the few IC questionnaires designed for young students is the Intercultural Competence Scale for Upper Elementary Students (ICSES; Hernandez-Bravo and Cardona, 2007). The ICSES is a 30-item four-point Likert-type scale designed for use with upper elementary students. The scale is composed of three components: knowledge (9 items), skills (9 items) and attitudes (12 items) towards peers from other cultures. It was designed for intercultural program assessment. Another questionnaire designed for use with young students is the Wuerzburg Intercultural Competence Inventory (WIKI-KJ; Reinders et al., 2011). It measures the intercultural competence dimensions of intercultural contact frequency, adaptivity of contact behaviors, openness to intercultural contact, and intercultural knowledge transfer. Zhu et al. (2011)'s questionnaire was also developed to be used with upper elementary school aged children. It was developed to examine the self-perceptions of sixteen 11-year-old UK children who took part in a project named intercultural 'Villages'.

## Definitions of Self-Regulated Learning

In a social cognitive approach (Bandura, 1991), SRL is understood as an interaction between personal, behavioral, and environmental processes. Definitions of self-regulated learning (SRL) are numerous, and they can vary depending on whether it is viewed as an aptitude or as an event (Berger & Brandmo, 2013). Defining SRL as an aptitude, which preceded defining it as an event, was based on viewing it as a stable individual characteristic (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005). Defining SRL as an event is based on viewing it as a set of dynamic context-dependent activities (Pintrich, 2000; Schunk & Greene, 2018; Zimmerman, 2008). For the purpose of this study, the SRL definition used was that by Zimmerman (2000), who defines it as "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals" (p. 14).

## Assessment of Self-Regulated Learning

### *Measuring Self-Regulated Learning in Adults*

Many methods have been used in creating instruments suitable for capturing the characteristics of SRL and for understanding how students take charge of their own learning processes. These methods differ depending on the SRL conceptualization they are based on (Berger & Brandmo, 2013; Boekaerts & Corno, 2005; Endedijk et al., 2016; Winne & Perry, 2000). Some of those methods are based on the definition of SRL as an aptitude, in which SRL is viewed as a stable individual characteristic. This is a traditional view of SRL, which results in de-contextualized trait-like measurements. All aptitude based SRL measurements are off-line. Other SRL instruments are based on the definition

of SRL as an event, in which regulation is described during a specific task. Unlike aptitude based SRL measurements, some event based SRL measurements are on-line, and others are off-line.

Methods of measuring SRL that are based on defining it as an aptitude include the Individual and Collective Regulation of Learning Scale (ERICA; Kaplan et al., 2017), Self-Regulated Online Learning Questionnaire (SOL-Q; Jansen et al., 2017), Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ; Brown et al., 1999), Academic self-regulated learning Scale, (A-SRL-S; Magno, 2010), Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI; Weinstein et al., 1987), Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ; Pintrich et al., 1993), Self-Regulated Learning Interview Scale (SRLIS; Zimmerman & Ponz, 1986, 1988), and Rating Student Self-Regulated Learning Outcomes: A Teacher Scale (RSSRL; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1988). Methods of measuring SRL that are based on defining it as an event include Traces (Winne, 1982), think-aloud measures (Ericsson & Simon, 1980), error detection tasks (Winne & Perry, 2000; Garner, 1987), and observations of Performance. According to Magno (2010), the most commonly used methods of measuring SRL are LASSI and MSLQ, which is due to the ease in their administration.

***Measuring Self-Regulated Learning in Children***

Instruments devised or adapted for assessing elementary school children's SRL are very limited. To measure SRL of upper elementary school students, researchers have been mostly using SRL measures, off-line and on-line, which were not specifically designed for use with upper elementary school children. Examples of methods used for

measuring upper elementary school students' SRL, but not specifically designed for that age group, include, questionnaires (e.g., Perels et al., 2005), observations (e.g., Perry, 1998; Whitebread et al., 2009), think-aloud methods (e.g., Jacobse & Harskamp, 2012), trace methodologies (Perry & Winne, 2006), structured interviews (e.g., Swanson, 1990; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986), and teacher rating (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1988).

Among the items of the above-mentioned SRL inventories, some are used for the measurement of the specific constructs of intrinsic interest, self-evaluation, and adaptability. Some of these items are grouped and named by the constructs and others are among all other items measuring SRL in general. Examples of SRL inventory items used for measuring intrinsic interest, self-evaluation, and adaptability in adults are presented in Appendix B. In that table, items measuring intrinsic interest are the fewest and are absent from some of the inventories, while ones measuring self-evaluation are the most and are found in all the chosen inventory examples. The items used for measuring intrinsic interest are all concerned with wanting to learn and finding what is being learned enjoyable, interesting, important, and useful. Adaptability items in Appendix B are all concerned with adjusting ways, methods, or strategies used for learning. Items used for measuring self-evaluation vary between process evaluation, which is evaluating ways and methods of doing things, product evaluation, which is evaluating effects and consequences of actions, and evaluating progress.

Several SRL self-report inventories have been developed specifically for use with younger learners but used for one time and rarely validated or compared to other

measures of young students' SRL (Sperling et al., 2002). There are rare examples of validated instruments that were devised or adapted for children including, Children's Perceived use of Self-Regulated Learning Inventory (CP-SRLI; Vandevelde et al., 2013), Perceived responsibility for learning scale (PRLS; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005), Self-Regulation of Learning Self-Report Scale (SRL-SRS; Toering et al., 2012) for adolescents, the Junior Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (Jr. MAI; Sperling et al., 2002), and Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (PALS; Midgley et al., 1998). Examples of SRL inventory items used for measuring intrinsic interest, adaptability, and reflectivity in children are presented in Appendix C. In that table there is only one item measuring adaptability and three measuring intrinsic interest. However, similar to SRL inventories for adults, items measuring self-evaluation are numerous and are found in all the chosen inventory examples. The items used for measuring intrinsic interest in Appendix C are not concerned with wanting to learn, but rather with doing best for school for being interesting and enjoyable. The adaptability item in Appendix C is about using different learning strategies depending on the task. Items used for measuring self-evaluation vary between process evaluation, which is evaluating experiences and methods of doing things, product evaluation, which is evaluating effects and results of actions, and evaluating feelings resulting from the actions.

## Self-Regulatory Prompts

### *Definitions of Self-Regulatory Prompts*

Definitions of SRP revolve around referring to them as being instructional procedures embedded within learning contexts, which support the learner in activating

the self-regulatory skills that they already possess. According to Peters and Kitsantas (2010a), SRP function as cues for learners to self-monitor and self-evaluate. Muller and Seufert (2018) describe them as recall and performance aids that appear in the form of questions or hints that indicate when and which learning strategies are appropriate for learners to use. Ifenthaler (2012) describes using SRP as an instructional method for guiding and supporting the regulation of the learner's problem-solving processes presented as simple questions, incomplete sentences, execution instructions, or pictures and graphics. Self-regulatory prompts engage learners in comparing current learning states with desired learning goals, which would subsequently guide the learner to select the learning processes that would lead to the desired outcomes (Bannert & Reimann 2012; Muller & Seufert, 2018). Learners may do that by reviewing their thoughts and understanding of the learning content or drawing back on prior knowledge.

***The Use of Self-Regulatory Prompts***

Self-regulatory prompts do not teach self-regulation. Rather, they support learners in choosing to use SRL skills that they already have (Muller & Seufert, 2018). Some studies suggest that SRP also lead learners to reflect on their skills and resources and increase their self-efficacy (Kramarski & Kohen, 2017; Muller & Seufert, 2018). The type of SRP and the timing they are presented depend on what they are intended for. If the intention is to inspire the learner to plan the approach to the problem-solving situation, then the SRP is presented before the learning sequence. If the intention is to activate the learner's monitoring of the problem-solving situation, then the SRP is presented during the learning sequence. If the intention is to activate the learner's self-

assessment of the problem-solving situation, then the SRP is presented after the learning sequence (Davis, 2003; Ifenthaler, 2012). When learners acquire the desired skills or concepts after a period of providing SRP, prompts should be faded or removed so learners can become autonomous in implementing these skills without scaffolds. This also improves the learners' long-term retention effect (Ge et al., 2012; Gidalevich & Kramarski, 2019). Improvement in learning performance has been attributed to SRP in several studies (Bannert et al., 2015; Berthold et al., 2007; Cazan, 2012; Devolder et al., 2012; Hübner et al., 2006; Kitsantas & Zimmerman, 2002; Kollar et al., 2007; Kramarski & Friedman, 2014; Panadero et al., 2012; Peters & Kitsantas, 2010a, 2010b).

Reflection is an important aspect in the self-regulation process and can be defined as observing one's own thoughts, actions, and achievements and it involves metacognition and sense-making (Davis, 2003; Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). Kramarski and Kohen (2017) explain that reflection affords comprehensive learning by thinking back and ahead along the cyclical self-regulation phases of learning, weather in autonomous or collaborative modes. They define reflective prompts as external stimuli that evoke strategy use with the objective of enhancing SRL. These external stimuli are usually in the form of self-questioning. Reflective SRP can be generic, also referred to as domain general, or directed, also referred to as context specific (Davis, 2003; Ifenthaler, 2012; Jansen et al., 2019; Kramarski & Kohen, 2017).

Davis (2003) explains that generic prompts represent a view that asking students to "stop and think" will encourage reflection while directed prompts represent a view that a generic request for reflection is insufficient, and that students should instead be

provided with hints guiding them to use of the appropriate strategies. Results of Davis' study involving 178 middle school science students suggest that students in the generic prompt condition develop more coherent understandings as they work on complex science projects while students in the directed prompt condition reflect unproductively more often.

In a (2019) meta-analysis of the effect of interventions on achievement in higher education, Jansen et al. found that domain-general SRP, asking students to reflect on their learning, are less effective for supporting students' SRL behavior than domain-specific prompts in which students, for instance, were asked how well they comprehended a specific concept within the domain. They also found that interventions such as prompting had higher effect sizes in elementary students than they did in secondary students, and in secondary students than they did in undergraduate students. They attribute that to possibly the older students having larger repertoires of SRL strategies, and therefore having less room for improvement. On the other hand, Dignath and Büttner (2018) found that SRP to be more effective with secondary students than with elementary students. They explain that elementary students benefit from instruction on what a planning is and how one should construct a plan, while students in secondary education already know what planning is but need to be stimulated to plan and monitor their progress.

Hsu et al. (2014) conducted a meta-analysis of 38 reading-related studies in science education using SRL. Eight of the 38 studies which covered different age groups, were concerned with elementary students. Their study suggests that metacognitive prompts are significantly useful, even with a group of third and fourth graders.

Specifically, Hsu et al. (2014) found that SRP for third and fourth graders improve their inductive reasoning ability in reading scientific texts and that asking them to identify knowledge gaps made them better able to critically evaluate scientific articles. They found that using SRP through cooperative learning and reciprocal teaching helped the students acquire procedural knowledge and strategies for processing narrative and expository texts. Hsu et al. (2014) also found that SRP for third and fourth graders were beneficial for increasing students' domain knowledge and for hypertext and digital learning.

## The Use of Self-Regulatory Prompts in the Development of Intercultural Competence

Self-regulatory prompts are activators of the SRL skills that a child may have (Muller & Seufert, 2018). There are many studies that suggest that having SRL skills alone enhances academic achievement in general (Bembenutty et al., 2013; Berger & Brandmo, 2013; Cleary & Labuhn, 2013; Dent & Koenka, 2016; Pintrich, 2000; Van Ewijk, 2011; Whitebread et al., 2009; Winne, 1995; Winne & Perry, 2000; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2014; Zimmerman, 1990, 2008; Zuffianò et al., 2013), and rare studies which suggest that SRL skills enhance the development of IC in particular (e.g., Strohmeier et al., 2017). This study examined elementary students' development of IC specifically through the use of SRP. Therefore, in addition to measuring the students' IC, SRL components, such as self-efficacy beliefs, of the study participants were examined.

**The Use of Self-Regulatory Prompts to Support the Development of Intercultural Competence in Elementary Students**

There is an emerging literature regarding teachers' use of SRL in their instruction and the factors that promote or inhibit it (e.g., Abd-El-Khalick & Akerson, 2009; Dignath & Büttner, 2018; Dignath-van Ewijk et al., 2013; Peeters et al., 2014; Smul et al., 2019; Spruce & Bol, 2014). Teachers' implementation of SRL in the classroom entails the instruction of learning strategies (Dignath & Büttner, 2018). This instruction can be implicit, by prompting or modeling strategic behavior, or explicit, by demonstrating and advising students on why and how to use certain strategies at certain times (Smul et al., 2019). Teachers can also support students' SRL by providing them with complex meaningful activities, allowing them more autonomy, and involving them in process of evaluating their own learning (Smul et al., 2019). In their (2009) study on the influence of metacognitive training on preservice elementary teachers' conceptions of nature of science (NOS), Abd-El-Khalick and Akerson found that teachers' use of metacognitive strategies, including SRP, is not likely to be perceived by science teacher educators or science teachers as an NOS specific add-on to their teaching agendas because training in these strategies, , and using them, is likely to achieve additional outcomes such as the enhancement of learners' metacognitive awareness and conceptual understanding and motivation.

Peeters et al., (2014) point out the importance of teachers' self-regulation, as it enables them to better understand the process of SRL development and promotion, affects the introduction of SRL classroom practices, and supports teachers' learning

processes that are required to efficiently adopt the new instructional knowledge and strategies. Results of Spruce and Bol's (2014) study, in which they examined ten elementary and middle school teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and classroom practice of self-regulated learning, suggest the need for continued teachers' professional development in SRL strategies and their application to practice. The teachers in Spruce and Bol's study frequently encouraged students' SRL during the monitoring phase of learning events in their classrooms and were able to explain how to encourage students' practice of metacognition in this phase but showed gaps in the planning and evaluation stages of learning events. Dignath-van Ewijk et al. (2013) presented an observation instrument to assess teachers' promotion of self-regulated learning (SRL), which captures teachers' instruction of self-regulation strategies as well as characteristics of the learning environment that should foster students' self-regulation. The study suggests that the instruction of metacognitive strategies and teachers' perceptions of fostering situated learning significantly predicts students' SRL.

Studies in the effectiveness of SRP in supporting students' academic success in math, science, and writing (e.g., Abd-El-Khalick & Akerson, 2009; Dignath & Büttner, 2018; Gidalevich & Kramarski, 2019; Hsu et al., 2014; Kramarski & Friedman, 2014; Peters, 2007) set grounds to explore their effectiveness in supporting elementary students' acquisition of IC. This exploration is supported by the results of the Strohmeier et al. (2017) study, in which an SRL model was applied to better understand the IC learning process of 188 university students. They see the IC learning process as a cyclical life-long process which is initiated during the forethought phase, monitored during the

performance phase, and evaluated during the self-reflection phase. Strohmeier et al. see constructs of the forethought phase of IC learning as intercultural self-efficacy, IC intrinsic interest, and setting learning goals for IC knowledge, IC skills, and IC attitudes. They see the constructs of the performance phase as self-monitoring, self-recording, and self-experimentation, and constructs of the self-reflection phase as self-evaluation, success attribution, and optimizing future learning. In an earlier study, Kitsantas and Talleyrand (2005) discussed the development of a four-phase (observation, emulation, self-control, and self-regulation) web-enhanced instructional model that incorporates principles of self-regulated learning from a social cognitive perspective and the multicultural competence components of knowledge, skills, and attitudes for training pre-service teachers. Even though Strohmeier et al. (2017) and Kitsantas and Talleyrand (2005) did not use SRP, and their participants were adults, their application of an SRL model to the IC learning process may still be helpful in exploring the use of SRP in supporting elementary students' development of IC.

**Research Questions**

The main research questions that guide this study are:

1. What is the impact of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning? The hypothesis was that students exposed to the SRP in the experimental group (intercultural exercises with SRP) would show higher levels of development of intercultural knowledge, skills, attitudes, and self-

efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning than students in the comparison group (intercultural exercises with no SRP).

**2.** In what ways do self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning?

# Chapter Three

The purpose of the present study was (a) to examine the effects of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary school students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning, and (b) to investigate the ways in which SRP influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory strategies in intercultural learning. The intervention was grounded in the social cognitive theory perspective. This chapter describes the research methodology including a description of the study participants and setting, research design, data collection instruments, data collection procedures, intervention (ICI-SRP), and data analysis procedures.

## Participants

Participants in the present study were second ($n$ = 10), third ($n$ = 8), and fourth ($n$ = 2) graders who ranged in age from 7 to 9, with a diversity of ethnicities represented. The students attended two private bilingual Montessori schools located in the US east coast. Purposeful selection was used in choosing the participating students. The students were divided into the experimental group (intercultural exercise with SRP) and the comparison group (intercultural exercises with no SRP) for this quasi-experimental mixed method study. Each group was composed of ten students ($n$ = 10) from the two participating bilingual Montessori schools. According to Maxwell (2012), purposeful selection is a participant selection strategy in which particular settings, persons, or activities are selected deliberately to provide information that is particularly relevant to

the research question and will provide better information than other choices would. For this study, participating students were purposefully selected from Montessori schools because they are expected to possess a level of SRL skills, which can be activated through SRP, and the Montessori method, according to Lillard (2011), supports the development of SRL. This support is through practices such as providing students with free choices and involving them in their own evaluation. Therefore, selecting participants who are students at Montessori schools is likely to provide reliable data.

The sample of students used for the intervention ($N$ = 20) was divided into the experimental group ($n$ = 10) and the comparison group ($n$ = 10). The participants were of middle and high-middle socio-economic status. All students ($N$ = 20) took part in the quantitative data collection using the ICI-SRP self-report survey. Prior to administering the ICI-SRP survey, cognitive interviews were conducted with four different participants ($n$ = 4) to examine whether the children's interpretations of the questionnaire items were consistent with the researchers' assumptions. Purposeful sampling was used in selecting four participants for the cognitive interviews. The cognitive interview participants represented the three participating grades, with one second grader ($n$ = 1), two third graders ($n$ = 2), and one fourth grader ($n$ = 1). For the qualitative data collection procedures, all students ($N$ = 20) took part in one of four focus groups.

Fifteen participants ($n$ = 15) were from the first bilingual Montessori school. They were five second graders ($n$ = 5) in the experimental group, five third graders ($n$ = 5) in the experimental group, and five second graders ($n$ = 5) in the comparison group. Five participants ($n$ = 5) were from the second bilingual Montessori school, and they were all

in the comparison group. Three of those participants ($n$ = 3) were third graders and two of them ($n$ = 2) were fourth graders. The ethnicities of students in the first school were European ($n$ = 5), Asian ($n$ = 4), American ($n$ = 5), and African ($n$ = 1). The students' genders in the first school were males ($n$ = 6) and females ($n$ = 9). The ethnicities of students in the second school were Asian/American ($n$ = 1), Asian ($n$ = 1), and African ($n$ = 3). The students' genders in the first school were males ($n$ = 2) and females ($n$ = 3).

**Setting**

The setting for the present study was two private bilingual Montessori schools located in the US east coast. Both schools follow the Montessori method of education, which was established in the early 1900s by the Italian physician, Maria Montessori. It is defined by the North American Montessori Teachers' Association (NAMTA) as a comprehensive educational approach from birth to adulthood based on the observation of the needs of children of a variety of races, cultures, and socio-economic backgrounds all around the world, for over fifty years. Montessori schools were chosen for their likelihood to support the development of SRL (Lillard, 2011). Rathunde and Csikszentmihalyi (2005) observed that Montessori learning environments were likely to cultivate self-regulative capacities because they are student-centered, rather than teacher directed.

The first school was a private bilingual (French/English) Montessori school and was established in 1986. It was a full member of the American Montessori Society (AMS). It had ten classrooms, ranging from infants to elementary levels. The second school was a private bilingual (Arabic/English) Montessori school and was established in

2016. It was a full member of the AMS. It had four classrooms, ranging from toddlers to elementary levels.

**Research Design**

This quasi-experimental mixed method research study is designed to examine the effects of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary school students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning, and to investigate the ways in which SRP influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning. Considering the complexity of IC, a mixed-methods approach was chosen for assessing it (Deardorff, 2014; Graf & Harland, 2005; Schnabel et al., 2015). This is particularly helpful when working with young children, as developmental issues may complicate getting reliable results from either quantitative or qualitative data by itself. The mixed method design provided the present study's young participants a chance to evaluate their own intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning and to describe their experience of the intervention in their own words. The qualitative data provided clarification and depth into the interpretation of the quantitative data. The present study also aimed at providing a new tool for intercultural training for elementary aged students, which links theory to practice and provides practitioners with a clear description of the process in which the tool is used, for which there is a dire need, according to Seelye (1995).

Participants in the intervention were second, third, and fourth grade students. They were assigned to either the experimental group, which received self-regulatory prompts, Appendix H, during the four sessions of an IC intervention, or to the comparison group, which did not receive self-regulatory prompts during the four sessions of the same IC intervention. Otherwise, the intervention was similar for both groups. All participating students filled a self-report survey, ICI-SRP Appendix D, before and after the intervention. The survey was adapted from pre-existing surveys, and cognitive interviews were conducted with four students to ensure that students' interpretation of the survey items were the intended interpretations. Focus groups were conducted at the end of the intervention to allow the students an opportunity to discuss their experiences. The purpose of the focus groups was to record the participants' perceptions of their experiences throughout the intervention and to shed light on the ways in which SRP influenced the participants' activation of self-regulatory strategies during the sessions.

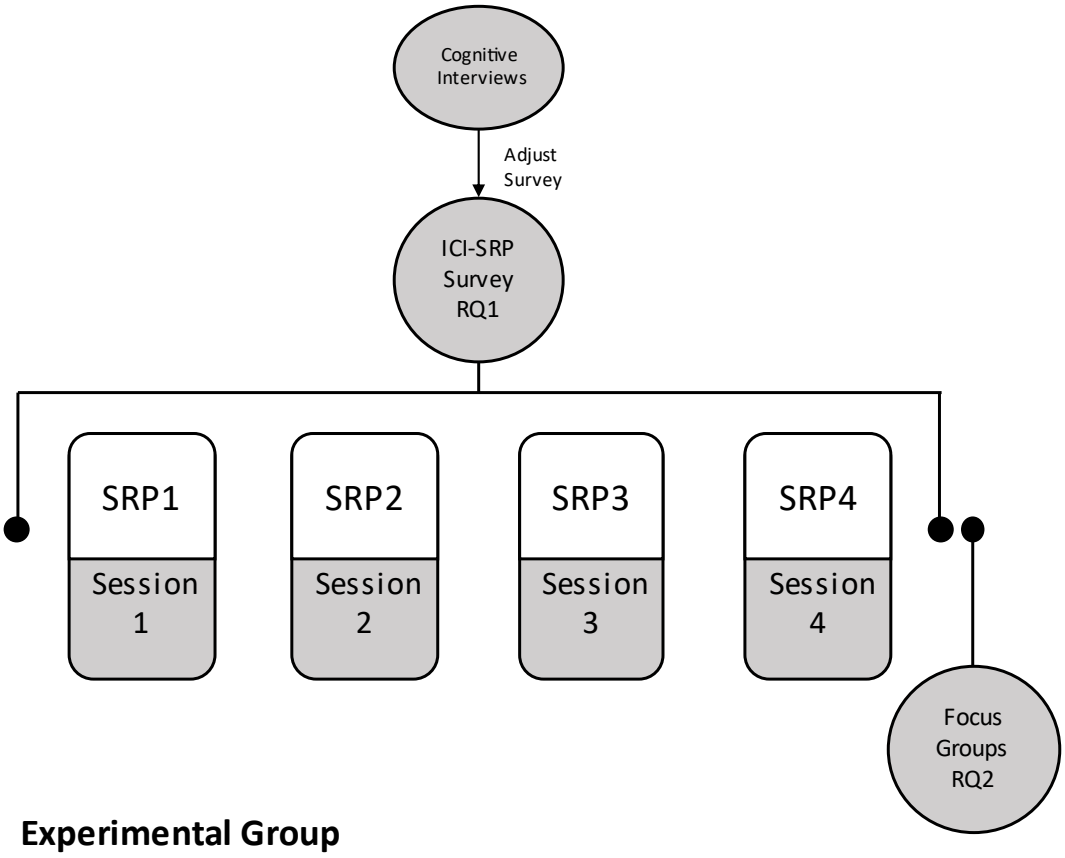
An approval for the study was sought from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at George Mason University before implementing the study. Once approval was granted, Appendix A, the research procedure began. Requests were made to the school directors of both participating schools. Subsequently, parent consent forms were distributed and signed by parents. Prior to the intervention, cognitive interviews were conducted with four students. Based on the cognitive interviews data, some changes were made to the ICI-SRP self-report survey. This intervention took place over a four-week period. There were four weekly sessions, each lasting approximately one to one and a half hours. This allowed enough time to go into the activity in depth, making it more likely to be effective

(Rader, 2018), and allowed for the development of the students' intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy for self-regulating their intercultural learning, since it is an important predictor of students' successful use of self-regulatory skills and strategies (Kitsantas et al., 2009; Vandevelde et al., 2013).

Before the first session, the researcher and each school director decided on an appropriate time and space for setting up and conducting the study. The researcher was familiar with both schools, as she had been a co-founder/director/teacher at one school and was teaching at the other school at the time of the study. The ICI-SRP survey was administered before and after the intervention. Focus groups were conducted after the intervention to record the participants' perceptions of their experiences throughout the sessions of the study. The purpose of the focus groups was to record the participants' perceptions of their experiences throughout the intervention and to shed light on the ways in which SRP influenced the participants' activation of self-regulatory strategies during the sessions.

The data collected for research question 1, "What is the impact of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning?" was through the student ICI-SRP self-report survey. cognitive interviews were conducted prior to administering the survey and were used to support the student self-report survey, ICI-SRP, by ensuring that student interpretation of the ICI-SRP survey items align with the researcher's assumptions. The ICI-SRP survey was administered before and after the intervention.

The data collected for research question 2, “In what ways do self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students’ activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning?” was through focus groups. The focus groups were held at the end of the intervention. The research design is shown in Figure 1.



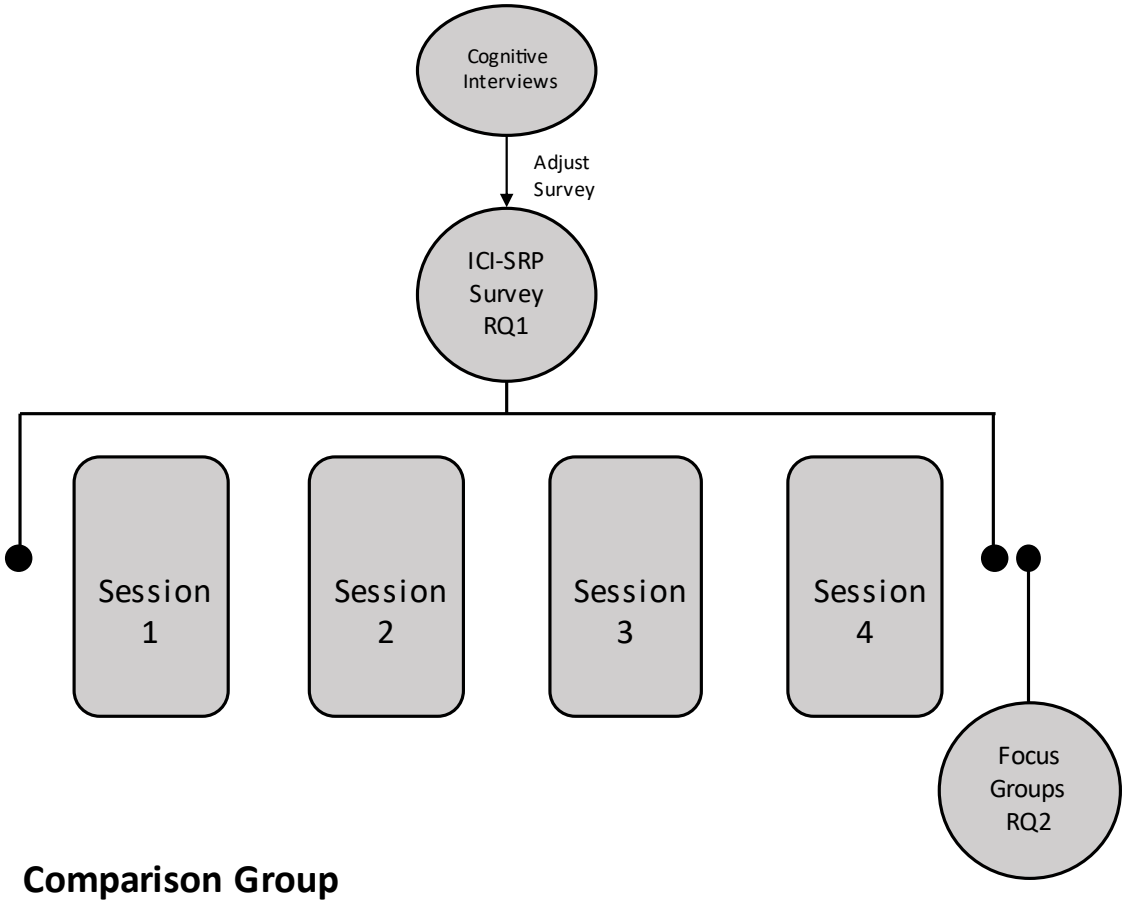



**Figure 1**

*Research Design*

### Data Collection Instruments

The main data collection instruments used for this study are the ICI-SRP self-report survey and focus groups, as seen in Table 1.

**Table 1**

*Data Collection Instruments*

| Research Question | Data Collection Instrument | Respondents/ Participants | Scoring/ Coding System | Data Analysis |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| RQ1.What is the impact of ICI-SRP on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning? | Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) Survey, which consists of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning sub-scales | All participating third and fourth grade students (N=20) | Apart from a few initial demographic questions, items on the ICI-SRP survey were scored on a five-point Likert-type scale, from very low to very high, where 1 meant "not at all true" and 5 meant "very true" | A univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted for each of the four ICI-SRP subscales. Each set of pretest values acted as a covariate to control for pretest differences. The ANCOVA tests determined the development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning within and between the experimental and comparison groups. |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| RQ2.In what ways do self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning? | Focus Groups | All participating second, third, and fourth grade students (*N*=20) took part in focus groups, and each focus group consisted of five students from either the experimental or the comparison group. | Focus group transcripts were coded, first by open coding, then comparisons were constantly made as more comments were coded. The codes were reduced through collapsing or elimination. This was followed by axial coding through which codes were organized into meaningful groups by integrating categories and their properties. | Data from focus groups was analyzed using the constant comparative method. A comparison was made between the focus group responses of participants in the experimental group and the comparison group. |

### *Quantitative Data Collection Instruments*

**Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) Survey.** The self-report student survey ICI-SRP, found in Appendix D, was adapted from the following two surveys, ICSES and CP-SRLI and was used to assess the development of the students' intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, as well as their self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning. ICI-SRP is composed of five components: demographic information (6 items), intercultural knowledge (6 items),

intercultural skills (5 items), intercultural attitudes (9 items) towards peers from cultures other than one's own culture, and self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning (10 items). An example of an intercultural knowledge item is, "I can identify traditional clothes from other countries". An example of an intercultural skills item is, "I respect cultural customs". An example of an intercultural attitudes item is, "I like listening to songs from other cultures". An example of a self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning item is, "I can say some words in other languages". With the exclusion of the six demographic items, the sum of 31-item scores were used, among other measures, to determine students' intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning at the different stages of the intervention.

***Intercultural Competence Scale for Elementary Students (ICSES; Hernández-Bravo & Cardona, 2007).*** An adapted version of ICSES, Appendix F, was used to assess students' intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes as part of the ICI-SRP survey. It was originally designed for the purpose of intercultural program assessment. The ICSES is a 30-item scale designed for use with mid and upper elementary students (grades 3-6). The scale is composed of three components: knowledge (9 items), skills (9 items) and attitudes (12 items) towards peers from cultures other than one's own culture. An example of an item on the knowledge sub-scale is, "I can locate other countries on a map". An example of an item on the skills sub-scale is, "I help avoid cultural conflicts". An example of an item on the attitudes sub-scale is, "I like listening to songs from other cultures". The sum of 30-item scores is used, among other measures, to determine

students' intercultural competence. ICSES is composed of 30 items and uses a four-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree). The validity of ICSES (Hernández-Bravo & Cardona, 2007) is described in detail in Hernández-Bravo et al. (2017). The alpha coefficient for the overall scale was .74 (.78 for knowledge, .70 for skills, and .74 for attitudes). The scale showed good content validity with a global CVI of .82 (.75, .92 and .80 for knowledge, skills, and attitudes, respectively). Construct validity was examined using an exploratory factor analysis and showed the presence of the three components of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

***Children's Perceived use of Self-Regulated Learning Inventory (CP-SRLI; Vandevelde et al., 2013).*** An adapted version of a CP-SRLI sub-scale Appendix G was used to assess students' self-efficacy regulation and self-efficacy motivation as part of the ICI-SRP survey. Vandevelde et al. (2013) developed and initially validated a comprehensive and coherent set of sub-scales, which can be applied to gain insight into upper primary school children's perceived use of self-regulatory learning strategies in academic homework contexts, and to triangulate with other types of SRL measures diagnosing self-regulatory strategies guiding remediation. They chose this topic after realizing the lack of self-report measures that can be used by elementary school children for guiding certain self-regulated learning research goals. Vandevelde et al. (2013) used Pintrich's (2000, 2004) conceptual framework, considering SRL as an interaction between cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational aspects, as the blueprint for developing the Children's Perceived use of Self-Regulated Learning Inventory (CP-SRLI) consisting of nine components. The nine components of the inventory are task

orientation, planning, motivation, self-efficacy for self-regulated learning, learning strategies, motivational strategies, monitoring, persistence, and self-evaluation.

Two samples of participants were used for the study. The first sample consisted of 504 fifth and 463 sixth graders and the second sample consisted of 409 fifth and 314 sixth graders. Initially, a questionnaire was created based on the conceptual framework of Pintrich (2000, 2004). The content of the questionnaire was reviewed by a panel of five SRL experts, and then the clarity of the items was reviewed by a panel of five primary school teachers to guarantee suitability for late primary school children. Cognitive interviews with 14 fifth and sixth graders were performed to examine whether the children's interpretations of the questionnaire items were consistent with the researchers' assumptions. These steps resulted in a 109-item questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to the first sample and an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed. Subsequently, the factor structure of each component was confirmed by confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using the second sample, leading to the questionnaire which is consisted of 75 items. Tests of measurement invariance were conducted to determine whether the factor structure is invariant across gender, and gender differences were explored, and internal consistency was computed. The factor structure of the different components was found to be invariant across boys and girls.

Regarding the components 'self-efficacy', the EFA showed a two-factor solution whereas the authors were expecting a one-factor solution. The self-efficacy motivation factor (SEM) examines the extent to which students feel competent in regulating motivational aspects. An example of a SEM item is, "I'm good at motivating myself to

finish my schoolwork". The self-efficacy regulation factor (SER) assesses the extent to which respondents feel competent in regulating their learning processes regarding cognitive and metacognitive aspects. An example of a SER item is, "I'm good at checking my schoolwork by myself". Results of the modified model show an acceptable model fit (YB v2 = 182.89, df = 63, p < .001, CFI = .93, TLI = .91, RMSEA= .05 with a 90% CI [.04,.06], SRMR= .04). Only CP-SRLI sub-scales SEM and SER, which are used to assess students' self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning, were used for this study.

### *Qualitative Data Collection Instruments*

**Focus Groups.** Focus groups were conducted at the end of the intervention to allow the students an opportunity to discuss their experiences and possibly inspire each other with more discussion points. The purpose of the focus groups is to record the participants' perceptions of their experiences throughout the intervention and to shed light on the ways in which SRP influenced the students' activation of self-regulatory skills during the sessions. The focus group protocol, Appendix E, contains semi-structured questions, to allow for flexibility in students' input. A sample question from the focus group protocol is, "Did you enjoy working with one country more than others? Which, and why?" and a sample question specific to Group A is, "Did the forms that you filled every week help you do your work better? How?". Focus group conversations were audio-taped and transcribed. The semi-structured nature of the focus groups allowed for including new or follow-up questions, based on themes that emerged as the researcher facilitated the discussions. The constant comparative method was used to analyze the

focus group data. The coding process went through open coding, code reduction, and then axial coding.

***Cognitive Interviews.*** Cognitive Interviews were conducted in order to provide data regarding how the students' level of reading comprehension and interpretation of the ICI-SRP survey items align with the researcher's assumptions. Developmental issues may complicate getting valid and reliable scores when constructing self-report instruments. Conducting cognitive interviews is a way to examine and advance the validity of items on children's self-report instruments (Vandevelde et al., 2013). The cognitive interviews were meant to help assess the cognitive validity of the self-report items of the ICI-SRP survey adapted from ICSES and the CP-SRLI, which was used for the study. The cognitive interviews were audio-taped and transcribed. Based on the cognitive interviews data, some changes were made to items on the ICI-SRP survey which was then used for the study. Misinterpretations or lack of understanding of specific items on the ICI-SRP survey were noted, and wording of a few items were adjusted accordingly. One item was eliminated. Difficulties in following the format of the survey, such as responding to an item in the wrong place, was noted.

## Data Collection Procedures

The sequence of the data collection procedures is presented in Table 2.

**Table 2**

*Intervention (ICI-SRP) Sequence*

| Time | Steps |
|---|---|
| Pre-Intervention | IRB Approval<br>Contact directors and Visit School Sites<br>Parent Consent forms<br>Cognitive Interviews Participant Assent forms<br>Cognitive Interviews |
| Week 1<br>1.5 hrs. | Study Participants Assent Forms<br>Student Survey 1 (ICI-SRP)<br>Vignette<br>SRP Form 1 (Experimental Group only)<br>Build Chart (Own Country)<br>SRP Form 2 (Experimental Group only)<br>Participant reads books and listens to songs<br>Participant Revises Chart<br>SRP Form 3 (Experimental Group only) |
| Week 2<br>1 hr. | SRP Form 1 (Experimental Group only)<br>Build Chart<br>SRP Form 2 (Experimental Group only)<br>Participant reads books and listens to songs<br>Participant Revises Chart<br>SRP Form 3 (Experimental Group only) |
| Week 3<br>1 hr. | SRP Form 1 (Experimental Group only)<br>Build Chart<br>SRP Form 2 (Experimental Group only)<br>Participant reads books and listens to songs<br>Participant Revises Chart<br>SRP Form 3 (Experimental Group only) |
| Week 4<br>1.5 hrs. | SRP Form 1 (Experimental Group only)<br>Build Chart<br>SRP Form 2 (Experimental Group only)<br>Participant reads books and listens to songs<br>Participant Revises Chart<br>SRP Form 3 (Experimental Group only)<br>Student Survey 2 (ICI-SRP) |

### *Quantitative Data Collection Procedures*

The self-report student survey Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) was adapted from the following two surveys, Intercultural Competence Scale for Elementary Students (ICSES; Hernández-Bravo & Cardona, 2007) and Children's Perceived use of Self-Regulated Learning Inventory (CP-SRLI; Vandevelde et al., 2013). ICI-SRP was used to assess the development of the students' intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning. After obtaining the approval of the IRB and school directors, consent forms were delivered to parents through the school for signing. At the beginning of the first session, the researcher explained the study briefly. She first asked the students to sign the assent form and fill the ICI-SRP for the first time. The second time the ICI-SRP survey was administered was at the fourth session, as the final part of the intervention, immediately before engaging in the focus group discussions.

### *Qualitative Data Collection Procedures*

After the fourth and final session of the intervention, four different focus groups were held with the study participants. The focus group protocol, Appendix E, contained semi-structured questions, to allow for flexibility in participants' input. The questions were similar for all groups, with the exception of the comparison group not being asked about the SRP, because they did not receive them. The focus group conversations were

audio-recorded and transcribed. The transcripts of the focus group audio recordings were analyzed using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 2010) to find patterns from the raw data. Each focus group was analyzed separately and then groups were compared later. First there was open coding, as a code was applied to each meaningful phrase in each transcript (Glaser & Strauss, 2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008; Maxwell, 2012; Saldana, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Comparisons were constantly made as more comments were coded. The codes were reduced through collapsing or elimination. This was followed by axial coding through which codes were organized into meaningful groups by integrating categories and their properties (Glaser & Strauss, 2010; Maxwell, 2012; Saldana, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Before the first session of the intervention, cognitive interview parent consent forms were distributed, signed, and collected, and four cognitive interviews were conducted. The cognitive interviews participants were second ($n$ = 1), third ($n$ = 2), and fourth ($n$ = 1) grade students. Each cognitive interview lasted approximately 15 minutes. Before conducting each interview, the process was explained to the participating student, and his/her signed assent was obtained. The cognitive interviews were audio recorded.

Cognitive interviews were used to examine and advance the validity of the items on the ICI-SRP survey. The cognitive interviews provided data about how the students' level of reading comprehension and interpretation of the questionnaire items aligned with the researcher's assumptions. As per recommendations in Woolley et al. (2004), each student was asked to read each question aloud, paraphrase the question or put it in his/her own words, pick the best answer to the question, and explain his/her answer. The

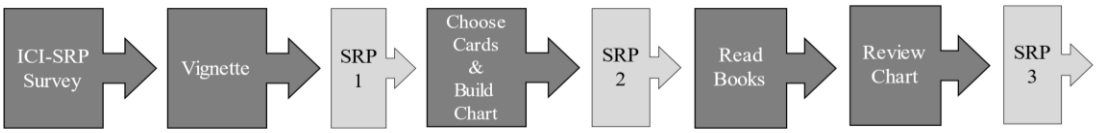
interviews were audio recorded and notes were taken during them and afterwards. Interviewee's responses were compared to the survey items' intended interpretation. Minor edits were made to the survey questions, based on misinterpretations or lack of understanding of specific items on the ICI-SRP survey, and wording of a few items were adjusted accordingly, such as replacing the word "cultures" with the word "countries". One item "I am good at connecting new things to what I already know" was eliminated after one cognitive interview participant said that she did not understand it.

**Intervention**

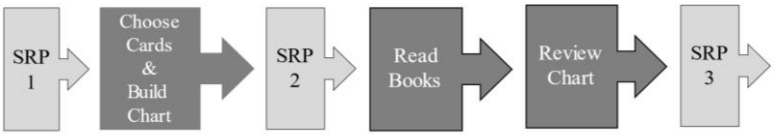
The intervention, Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP), consisted of four sessions. The intercultural exercise used for the intervention was based on the Montessori lesson "The Fundamental Needs of Humans". The specific goals of the task were to support students in gaining knowledge of how people of different cultures meet their fundamental human needs (i.e., intercultural knowledge), practice empathy and practice perspective taking (i.e., intercultural skills), become more interested in learning about different cultures and have respect for people from other cultures (i.e., intercultural attitudes), and gain self-efficacy in developing IC. In each session, students learned about how people of a certain culture meet their material and spiritual fundamental human needs (e.g., shelter, nutrition, clothing, defense, transportation, communication, artistic expression, love, philosophy/religion, social acceptance, self-adornment) through tasks that they carried out each week. The experimental group was provided with forms containing self-regulatory prompts, Appendix H, before, during, and after each task, while the comparison group was not

provided such forms. The prompts on each form aligned with elements of Zimmerman's (2002) three phases of self-regulation (forethought phase, performance phase, self-reflection phase). The first form was the "goal-setting" form. It was used during the forethought phase to help prepare the participants for carrying out the task. The form was the same for all sessions except for the first one, in which the task was different. The second form was the "self-monitoring" form for use during the performance phase. It was meant to help the participants with task strategies. This form was the same for all sessions except for the first one, in which the task was different. The third form was the "self-evaluation" form, for use during the self-reflection phase. This form was the same for all sessions except for the first one, in which the task was different. The steps of the task for the different sessions and the different groups are shown in Figure 2.

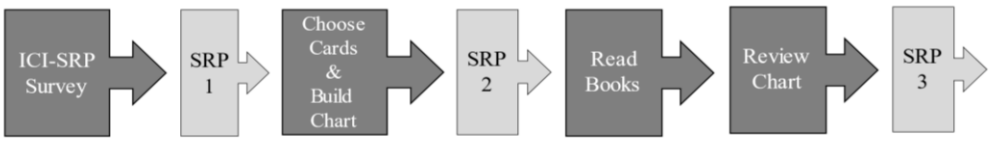
Session 1 (Experimental Group)



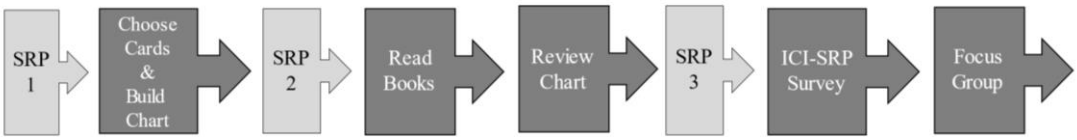

Session 2 (Experimental Group)



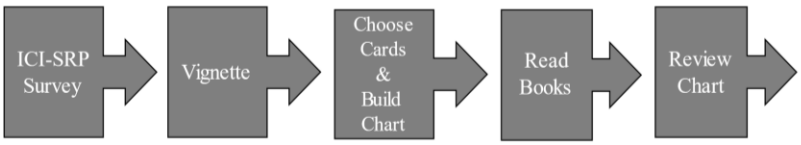

Session 3 (Experimental Group)




Session 4 (Experimental Group)




Session 1 (Comparison Group)



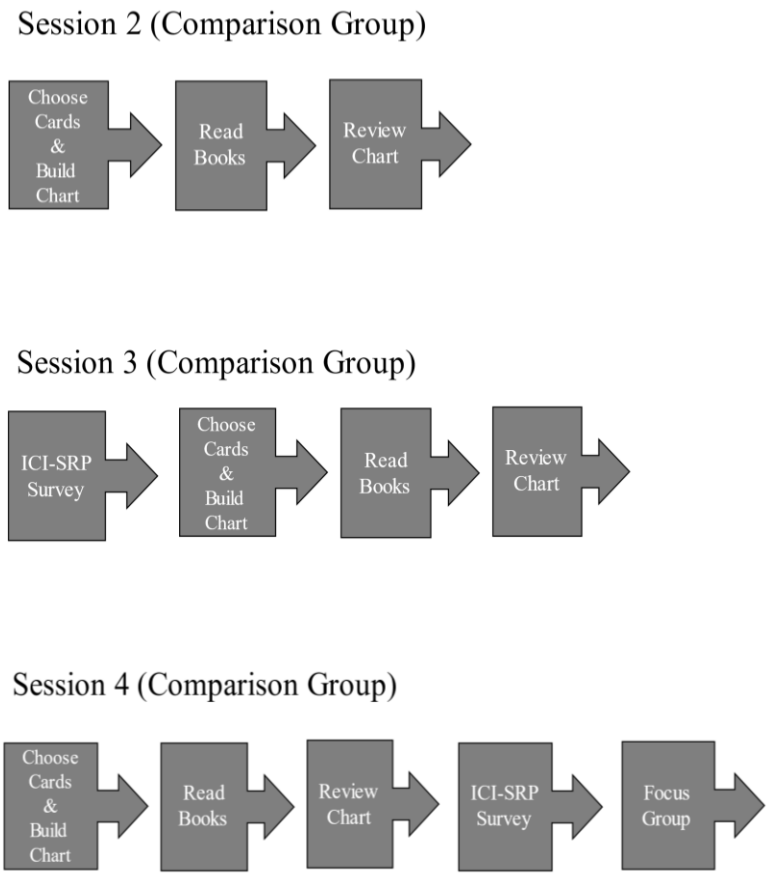



**Figure 2**

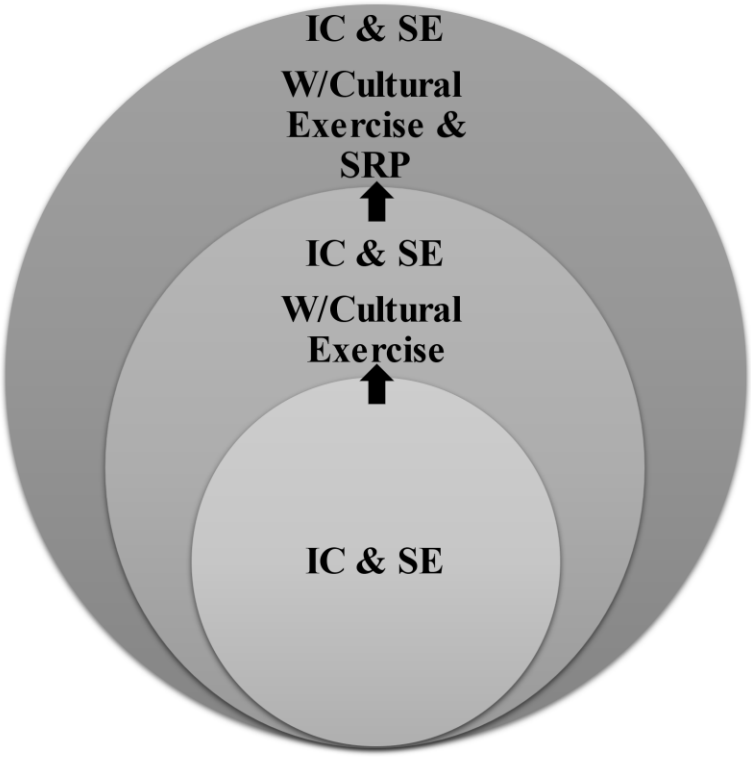
*Steps of the Intervention*

All students were first presented with the vignette, Appendix J. The task for the first session was for the participant to introduce his/her guest to their own culture in an attempt to make them feel welcome and comfortable. This task was to help the student reflect on the different ways that the fundamental human needs are met in his/her own culture. This was in the shape of a chart, which the participant created on a board by choosing the pictures s/he found appropriate from the materials s/he was provided. For

each of the other three sessions, the participant created other charts with pictures of gifts for their guest (refugee) to fulfil his/her fundamental human needs, and which the student found culturally appropriate. A prerequisite to carrying out the task was experience with the Montessori lesson “The Fundamental Needs of Humans”, which is taught in Montessori elementary programs. The lesson traditionally shows how people in different cultures across history have met their fundamental human needs. The difference in this task is that the cultures are all contemporary, and not historic. The participants were each provided with a set of materials, listed in Appendix I, to create their charts each session.

The intervention was designed to support the development of elementary school age-appropriate intercultural competencies, categorized under the three main components of IC, which are knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The intervention was also designed to support the growth of the students’ self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning. As far as gaining knowledge of culture in general, the participants saw, through this intervention, the effects of culture on the diverse ways in which humans in different countries meet their fundamental human needs. Gaining knowledge of the students’ own culture was supported through the task in session 1, in which each participant chose photos and built a chart to introduce his/her own culture to his/her guest. Basic knowledge of other nations and cultures was supported over the second, third, and fourth sessions, during which the participant focused on gaining knowledge about a specific country, in order to provide his/her guest with culturally appropriate gifts. The development of empathy, as a students’ intercultural skill, was supported through the idea of hosting and caring for the child refugee and thinking of ways to make him/her

comfortable and welcome. The skill of perspective taking was supported by trying to see, from the guest's perspective, what s/he would like to have as gifts. Reflecting on cultural differences was supported during the revision of the task after going through the books and re-evaluating gift choices. As far as the intercultural attitudes of interest in and respect for cultural diversity, and valuing all humans regardless of cultural background, this intervention was hypothesized to foster that attitude. The main hypothesis for this study was that, in addition to the intercultural exercise, the use of SRP with the experimental group would further enhance the support of the development of the students' intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning, through planning, self-monitoring, and self-reflecting. This hypothesis is presented in Figure 3.




IC = intercultural Competence, SE = self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning, SRP = Self-Regulatory Prompts

**Figure 3**

*Hypothesis for Research Question 1*

Considering the complexity of IC, a multi-method approach was used for assessing it (Deardorff, 2014; Graf & Harland, 2005; Schnabel et al., 2015). This was particularly necessary when working with young children, as developmental issues may complicate getting reliable results. Examining the impact of ICI-SRP on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and self-efficacy

for self-regulation of intercultural learning, was mainly through administering the ICI-SRP survey before and after the intervention and making a comparison between the extent of the development in the experimental group and the comparison group. Examining the ways in which self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning was done through focus groups that were held at the end of the study. Quantitative and qualitative data were discussed separately and integrated for triangulation.

### *Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures*

Quantitative data from the ICI-SRP survey was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 28.0 was used for this analysis. A univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted for each of the four ICI-SRP subscales. Each set of pretest values acted as a covariate to control for pretest differences. The ANCOVA tests determined the development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning within and between the experimental and comparison groups.

### *Qualitative Data Analysis Procedures*

Focus groups were used to allow students to discuss their individual and shared experiences and possibly inspire each other with conversation points. The questions for the focus groups, Appendix E, were semi-structured, to allow for flexibility in students' input. Data from the focus groups provided insight into the process of the students' IC development through carrying out the tasks and, in the case of the experimental group,

using the SRP. Focus group conversations were audio-recorded and transcribed. The semi-structured nature of the focus groups allowed for including new or follow-up questions. The transcripts of the focus group audio recordings were analyzed using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 2010) to find patterns from the raw data. Each focus group was analyzed separately and then groups were compared later. First there was open coding, as a code was applied to each meaningful phrase in each transcript (Glaser & Strauss, 2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008; Maxwell, 2012; Saldana, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Comparisons were constantly made as more comments were coded. The codes were reduced through collapsing or elimination. This was followed by axial coding through which codes were organized into meaningful groups by integrating categories and their properties (Glaser & Strauss, 2010; Maxwell, 2012; Saldana, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). A comparison was later made between the focus group responses of participants in the experimental group and the comparison group.

# Chapter Four

The main research questions that guide this study are:

1. What is the impact of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning?
2. In what ways do self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning?

## Data Analysis Approach

Regarding the impact of ICI-SRP on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning, it was hypothesized that students exposed to the SRP in the experimental group (intercultural exercises with SRP) would show higher levels of development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and stronger self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning than students in the comparison group (intercultural exercises with no SRP). Data were collected from 20 ($N$ = 20) elementary students, ages seven to nine, through the ICI-SRP survey at the beginning and at the end of the study, and through focus groups at the end of the study. There were ten students in the experimental group and ten students in the comparison group. The only difference between the two groups was that the experimental group participants filled SRP forms at the beginning, middle, and end of each of the four sessions.

Research question one was analyzed by conducting a univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for each of the four subscales IC Knowledge, IC Skills, IC Attitudes, and Self-Efficacy in Self-Regulation of Intercultural Learning. Each set of pretest values acted as a covariate to control for pretest differences. The ANCOVA tests determined the development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning within and between the experimental and comparison groups.

Research question two, addressing the ways in which self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning, was analyzed using the constant comparative method. A comparison was made between the focus group responses of participants in the experimental group and in the comparison group. The number of responses to each code was counted for each group, then the types of responses were noted and compared.

**Differences Within and Between Experimental and Comparison Groups**

An ANCOVA was conducted to determine if the mean values for each of the subscales differed between the experimental and the comparison groups while controlling for the pre-test. Homogeneity of variance was tested for each of the dependent variables using the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances. For IC Knowledge tm 1, the homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied [$F(1,18) = .97$, $p = .34$]. For IC Knowledge tm 2, the homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied [$F(1,18) = .60$, $p = .45$]. For IC Skills tm 1, the homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied [$F(1,18) = .44$, $p = .05$]. For IC Skills tm 2, the homogeneity of variance assumption was not

satisfied [$F(1,18) = 8.02$, $p = .01$]. However, according to Harwell (2003), violation of homogeneity is minimal when the groups of the independent variable are equal in size, as in the case of this study. For IC Attitudes tm 1, the homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied [$F(1,18) = 1.50$, $p = .24$]. For IC Attitudes tm 2, the homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied [$F(1,18) = 4.46$, $p = .05$]. For SESRICL tm 1, the homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied [$F(1,18) = .57$, $p = .46$]. For SESRICL tm 2, the homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied [$F(1,18) = .23$, $p = .64$].

The assumption of normality was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test, as well as skewness and kurtosis. The assumption of normality was met through the Shapiro-Wilk test for IC Knowledge tm 1 ($SW = .90$, $df = 20$, $p = .50$), IC Knowledge tm 2 ($SW = .95$, $df = 20$, $p = .36$), IC Skills tm 1 ($SW = .91$, $df = 20$, $p = .08$), SESRICL tm 1 ($SW = .93$, $df = 20$, $p = .15$), and SESRICL tm 2 ($SW = .92$, $df = 20$, $p = .08$). The assumption of normality was not met through the Shapiro-Wilk test for IC Skills tm 2 ($SW = .81$, $df = 20$, $p = .00$), IC Attitudes tm 1 ($SW = .90$, $df = 20$, $p = .04$), or IC Attitudes tm 2 ($SW = .80$, $df = 20$, $p = .00$). However, both skewness and kurtosis were within the absolute value of 2.0 for all variables, suggesting some evidence of normality, as seen in Table 3.

**Table 3**

*Pre-Test Post-Test Skewness, and Kurtosis for Intercultural Knowledge, Intercultural Skills, Intercultural Attitudes, and Self-Efficacy in Self-Regulation of Intercultural Learning*

| | | IC Knowledge | IC Skills | IC Attitudes | SE SR IC Learning |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-Test | Skewness | -0.47 | -0.89 | -0.52 | -0.65 |
| | Kurtosis | -0.35 | 0.04 | -1.02 | -0.46 |
| Post-Test | Skewness | -0.34 | -1.38 | -0.99 | -0.69 |
| | Kurtosis | -0.16 | 0.93 | -0.45 | -0.65 |

The results of the ANCOVA show the statistical significance of the differences between the value means of the treatment groups across each of the post-test subscales, controlling for the pre-test value means. The means and standard deviations for the ICI-SRP subscales for the experimental and comparison groups are provided in Table 4. The research question 1 hypothesis was partially supported by the results for the IC knowledge subscale, while it was not supported for the remaining three subscales. Figure 4 represents the changes in means of the ICI-SRP subscales from pre-test to post-test for the experimental group and Figure 5 represents the changes in means of the ICI-SRP subscales from pre-test to post-test for the comparison group.

**Table 4**

*Experimental and Comparison Groups' Pre-Test Post- Test Means and Standard Deviations for Intercultural Knowledge, Intercultural Skills, Intercultural Attitudes, and Self-Efficacy in Self-Regulation of Intercultural Learning*

| | | | IC Knowledge | IC Skills | IC Attitudes | SE SR IC Learning |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental Group | Pre-Test | M | 3.30 | 4.08 | 4.54 | 4.15 |
| | | SD | 0.50 | 0.57 | 0.48 | 0.69 |
| | Post-Test | M | 3.60 | 4.56 | 4.66 | 3.96 |
| | | SD | 1.04 | 0.46 | 0.40 | 1.10 |
| Comparison Group | Pre-Test | M | 3.13 | 3.42 | 3.90 | 3.39 |
| | | SD | 0.59 | 0.97 | 0.68 | 0.81 |
| | Post-Test | M | 3.30 | 3.96 | 4.48 | 2.98 |
| | | SD | 0.97 | 1.03 | 0.58 | 1.23 |

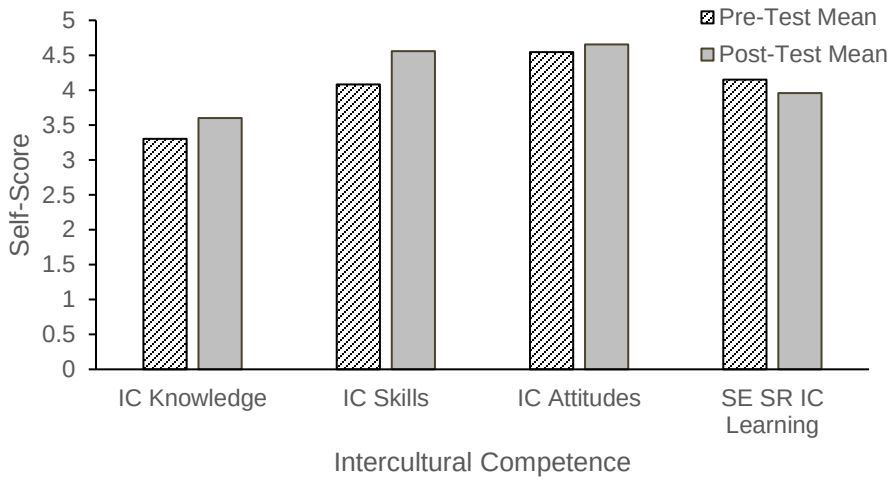



**Figure 4**

*Experimental Group Pre-Test Post-Test Means of Intercultural Knowledge, Intercultural Skills, Intercultural Attitudes, and Self-Efficacy in Self-Regulation of Intercultural Learning*

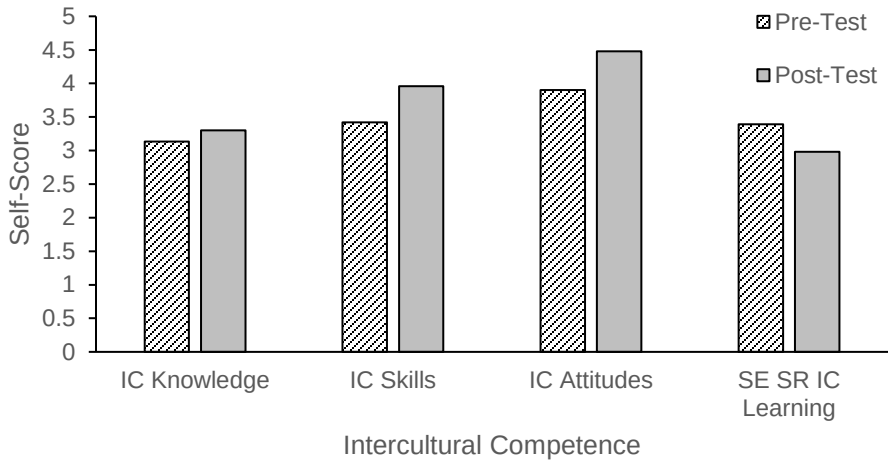



**Figure 5**

*Comparison Group Pre-Test Post-Test Means of Intercultural Knowledge, Intercultural Skills, Intercultural Attitudes, and Self-Efficacy in Self-Regulation of Intercultural Learning*

The pre-test IC knowledge means for the experimental group (*M* = 3.3, *SD* = .49) increased in the post-test to (*M* = 3.60, *SD* = 1.03) and for the comparison group (*M* = 3.13, *SD* = .58) increased in the post-test to (*M* = 3.30, *SD* = .97). These ANCOVA results suggest a non-statistically significant effect for SRP on the experimental group (*F* = .18; *df* = 1; *p* = .68). Figure 6 represents the difference between the experimental and comparison groups as far as changes in IC knowledge means from pre-test to post-test. Figure 6 shows a sharper increase in IC knowledge in the experimental group.

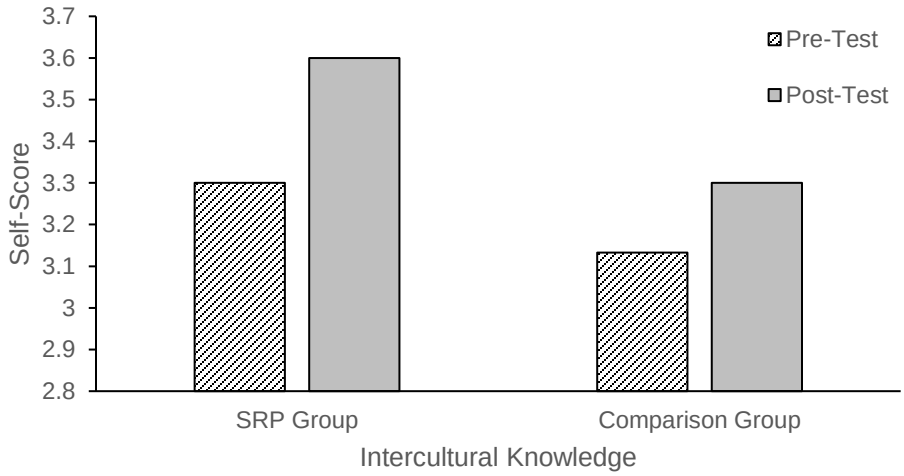



**Figure 6**

*Experimental and Comparison Groups' Changes in Intercultural Knowledge Means*

The pre-test IC skills means for the experimental group (*M* = 4.08, *SD* = .56) increased in the post-test to (*M* = 4.56, *SD* = .45) and for the comparison group (*M* = 3.42, *SD* = .97) increased in the post-test to (*M* = 3.96, *SD* = 1.03). Theses ANCOVA results suggest a non-statistically significant effect for SRP on the experimental group (*F* = .09; *df* = 1; *p* = .76). Figure 7 represents the difference between the experimental and comparison groups as far as changes in IC skills means from pre-test to post-test. Figure 7 shows a slightly sharper increase in IC skills in the comparison group, which does not support research question 1 hypothesis.

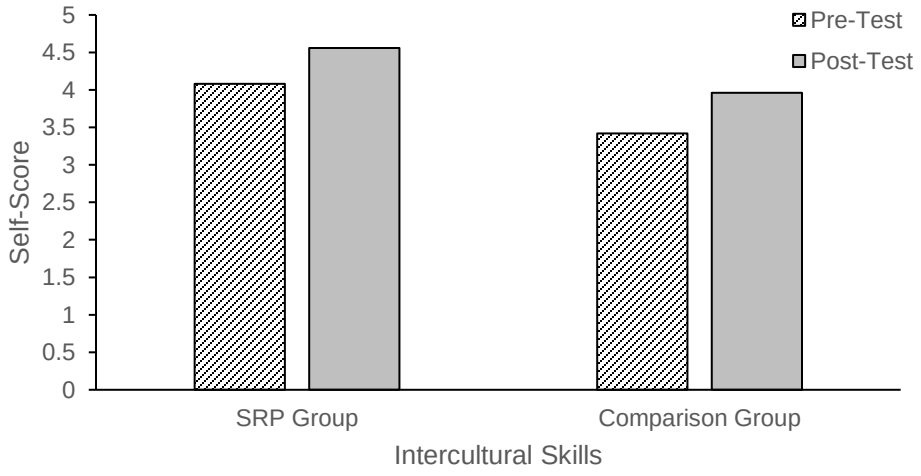



**Figure 7**

*Experimental and Comparison Groups' Changes in Intercultural Skills Means*

The pre-test IC attitudes means for the experimental group (*M* = 4.54, *SD* = .47) increased in the post-test to (*M* = 4.65, *SD* = .450) and for the comparison group (*M* = 3.90, *SD* = .967) increased in the post-test to (*M* = 4.47, *SD* = .58). These ANCOVA results suggest a non-statistically significant effect for SRP on the experimental group (*F* = .18; *df* = 1; *p* = .68). Figure 8 represents the difference between the experimental and comparison groups as far as changes in IC attitudes means from pre-test to post-test.

Figure 8 shows a sharper increase in IC attitudes in the comparison group, which does not support research question 1 hypothesis.

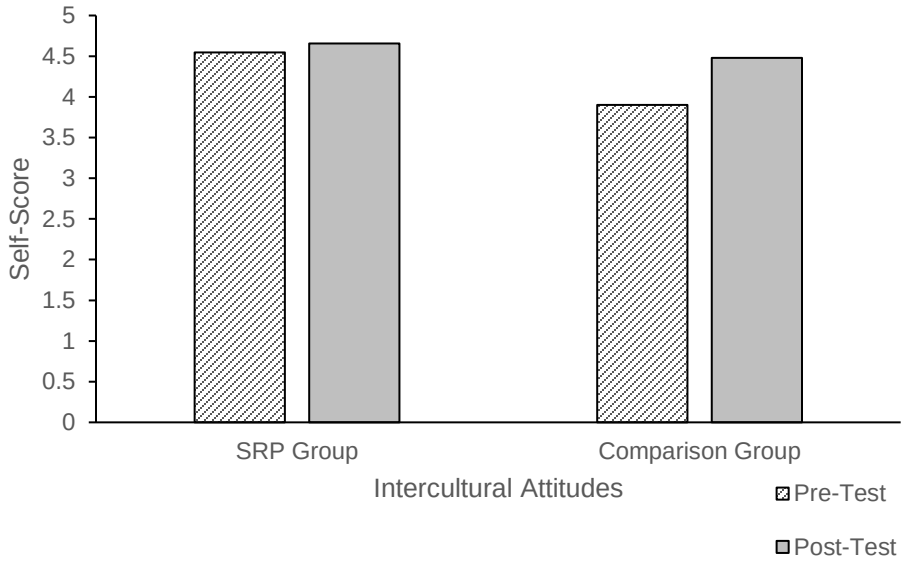



**Figure 8**

*Experimental and Comparison Groups' Changes in Intercultural Attitudes Means*

The pre-test self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulating intercultural learning means for the experimental group (*M* = 4.15, *SD* = .69) decreased in the post-test to (*M* = 3.96, *SD* = 1.10) and for the comparison group (*M* = 3.39, *SD* = .81) decreased in the post-test to (*M* = 2.98, *SD* = 1.23). These ANCOVA results suggest a non-statistically significant

effect for SRP on the experimental group ($F$ = .72; $df$ = 1; $p$ = .41). Figure 9 represents the difference between the experimental and comparison groups as far as changes in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning means from pre-test to post-test. While it was hypothesized that the experimental group would have a sharper increase in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning, both groups showed a numerical decrease instead, which does not support research question 1 hypothesis. However, as seen in Figure 9, there was a sharper decrease in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning in the comparison group.

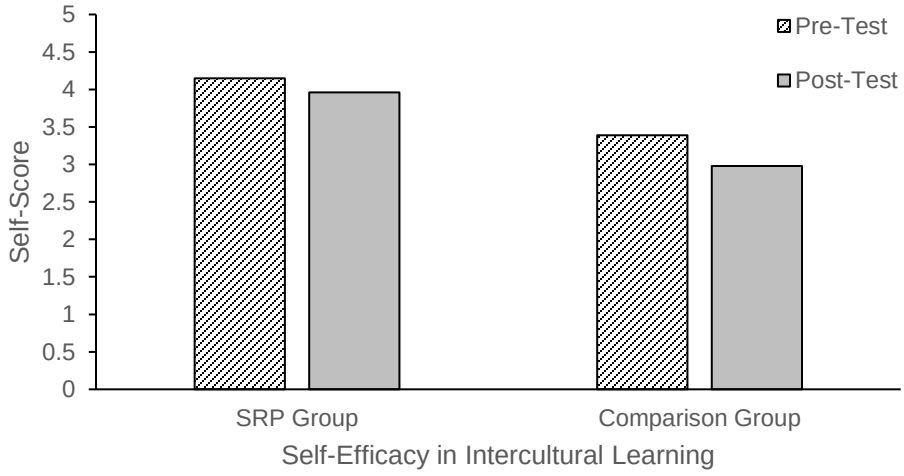



**Figure 9**

*Experimental and Comparison Groups' Changes in Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Self-Regulation of Intercultural Learning Means*

**Focus Groups Analysis**

Focus groups were conducted at the end of the intervention. Each of the overall twenty participants engaged in one of the four 15-30 minutes long focus groups, lasting a total of 1 hr, 23 min, and 16 s. Two focus groups were conducted for the experimental group, with five participants in each, and two focus groups were conducted for the comparison group, with five participants in each. Focus groups were audio recorded. The focus group protocol was designed to collect data for answering the second research question by investigating the ways in which self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning. The intercultural learning in this case refers to the development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes through an intercultural activity. The semi-structured focus group protocol comprised of identical open-ended questions for the experimental and comparison groups, with an additional question for the experimental group regarding the SRP forms that they filled in each session.

The transcripts of the focus group audio recordings were analyzed using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 2010) to find patterns from the raw data. Each focus group was analyzed separately and then groups were compared later. First there was open coding, as a code was applied to each meaningful phrase in each transcript (Glaser & Strauss, 2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008; Maxwell, 2012; Saldana, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Comparisons were constantly made as more comments

were coded. The codes were reduced through collapsing or elimination. This was followed by axial coding through which codes were organized into meaningful groups by integrating categories and their properties (Glaser & Strauss, 2010; Maxwell, 2012; Saldana, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). As a result of axial coding, ten codes were identified, as seen in Table 5, and were used to establish the codebook. The codes were examined for patterns of response, disconfirming responses, and additional information provided spontaneously by the participants, as in McKeown et al. (2019). Frequency (the number of times mentioned) and extensiveness (the number of people mentioning) of comments were counted. This was done to give a sense of support for concepts within the focus groups, as in Krueger (1999). Frequency and intensity provide a high-level view of the types of comments. However, they are not reliable representations of participants' ideas and feeling in focus group analysis according to McKeown et al. (2019). This was explained by the unlikelihood of participants to repeat a comment that someone has already shared, and that they agreed with.

**Table 5**

*Coding Decisions*

| Initial open coding | Collapsing and eliminating | Axial coding | Codes (●) and connected questions (○) |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Group E1 (experimental)** | ● Intercultural exercise general | **<u>Intercultural learning</u>**<br>● Intercultural knowledge | **<u>Intercultural learning</u>**<br>● Intercultural knowledge |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ● Intervention general feelings<br>● Intercultural attitudes<br>● Self-regulatory planning strategies<br>● Self-regulatory monitoring strategies<br>● Intervention changes in feelings<br>● Self-regulatory evaluation strategies<br>● Intercultural knowledge<br>● Self-regulatory prompts feedback<br>● Survey feedback<br>● Intercultural skills<br>● Intervention suggested changes | feelings/ suggested changes<br>● Attitudes towards intercultural learning<br>● Attitudes towards people of different cultures<br>● Self-regulatory planning strategies<br>● Self-regulatory monitoring strategies/ changes in feelings<br>● Self-evaluation of strategies<br>● Intercultural knowledge<br>● Self-regulatory prompts feedback<br>● Intercultural skills | ● Intercultural skills<br>● Intercultural attitudes/Intercultural learning<br>● Intercultural attitudes/ People of different cultures<br><br>**<u>Self-efficacy in Self-regulation of IC Learning</u>**<br>● Planning<br>● Monitoring<br>● Self-evaluation | ○ What did you find most exciting (or enjoyable) about this work? Why?<br>○ What is the most important thing you have learned from this work?<br>○ After going through the books, did you always make changes to your chart? Why?<br>○ Did you enjoy working with one country more than others? Which country, and why?<br>● Intercultural skills<br>○ Generally, how do you feel about the work that you have done?<br>○ What did you find most exciting (or enjoyable) about this work? Why?<br>○ What is the most important thing you have learned from this work?<br>● Intercultural attitudes/Intercultural learning<br>○ Generally, how do you feel about the work that you have done?<br>○ Before each session, how did you feel about doing the work?<br>○ What did you find most exciting (or enjoyable) about this work? Why? |
| **Group E2 (experimental)** | | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| ● Intervention general feelings<br>● Intercultural attitudes<br>● Forms feedback<br>● Intervention changes in feelings<br>● Self-regulatory planning strategies<br>● Self-regulatory self-evaluation strategies<br>● Intercultural attitudes<br>● Intercultural knowledge<br>● Self-regulatory prompts feedback<br>● Survey feedback<br>● Intercultural skills<br><br>**Group C1 (comparison)**<br>● Intervention general feelings | | ○ What did you not like about this work? Why?<br>○ What is the most important thing you have learned from this work?<br>○ Does anyone have something to add to this discussion?<br>● Intercultural attitudes/People of different cultures<br>○ After going through the books, did you always make changes to your chart? Why?<br>○ Did you enjoy working with one country more than others? Which country, and why?<br>○ What is the most important thing you have learned from this work?<br>○ What did you find most exciting (or enjoyable) about this work? Why?<br><br>**<u>Self-efficacy in Self-regulation of IC Learning</u>**<br>● Planning<br>○ Before starting to work/make a chart each week, did you set a plan?<br>● Monitoring<br>○ Did your feelings about doing the work change |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| ● Intercultural skills<br>● Intercultural attitudes<br>● Intervention changes in feelings<br>● Self-regulatory planning strategies<br>● Self-regulatory self-evaluation strategies<br>● Intercultural knowledge<br>● Intervention suggested changes<br><br>**Group C2 (comparison)**<br>● Intervention general feelings<br>● Intercultural attitudes<br>● Intervention changes in feelings<br>● Self-regulatory planning strategies<br>● Self-regulatory | | from one week to another?<br>○ After going through the books, did you always make changes to your chart? Why?<br>○ Did the forms that you filled every week help you do your work better? How? (Experimental group only)<br>● Self-evaluation<br>○ Generally, how do you feel about the work that you have done?<br>○ Did your feelings about doing the work change from one week to another?<br>○ After going through the books, did you always make changes to your chart? Why?<br>○ Did the forms that you filled every week help you do your work better? How? (Experimental group only)<br>○ If you get to choose to do this work differently, what would you change or add to it?<br>○ Does anyone have something to add to this discussion? |

| | |
|---|---|
| self-evaluation strategies<br>● Intercultural knowledge<br>● Intervention suggested changes | |

The focus group data represents a total of 1 hr, 23 min, and 16 s of participants expressing their thoughts and feelings toward their experiences during the cultural lesson and filling forms in response to the questions asked by the facilitator/researcher. The participants' responses are presented across two broad areas around which the focus group protocol was originally designed: (a) Intercultural learning (knowledge, skills, attitudes) and (b) Self-efficacy in self-regulation of intercultural learning, as seen in Table 5. Results for each code are presented, along with the related comments. To protect participants' privacy, experimental group participants were referred to as E1, E2, E3, etc. and comparison group participants were referred to as C1, C2, C3, etc.

***Intercultural Knowledge***

In response to some of the questions related to intercultural knowledge on the focus group protocol (see Table 5), seven participants in the experimental group and seven participants in the comparison group mentioned things that they had learned or learned about during the cultural lessons. All participants who responded to the questions

had positive responses. In the experimental group, five comments were made about learning new things about other countries in general:

> E5: Every time I pick a different thing, I get to learn like different things that I haven't known before.
>
> E3: When I was doing the stuff, when I was reading the book, and when I was like picking the stuff (cards) because I was thinking. And sometimes I was correct and most of the time I was wrong, so I was learning a lot of stuff.
>
> E9: I needed to make a few changes but sometimes I couldn't find the right pictures to make them. So… I would have a lot of time and read some of the books. So that helped me make the changes.
>
> E8: What I found interesting the most is when we read those books. There was a lot of stuff about India that I didn't know.

Four comments identified specific examples of what was learned, as seen below:

> E5 about the most important thing she's learned: I think the music!
>
> E3: So, what I learned is when it was my turn to do Brazil E5 told me that Brazil and Mexico speak the same language.
>
> E2: we learned like what…like what food and clothes and all the religion and stuff from the cards and picking them.
>
> E7: Since my mom is African American, I searched up Kenya…and I knew that the

art was…um…the Kenyan.

E10: I've been to Mexico a lot… and I've never actually knew the facts I learned from the books. I thought that was really really interesting…I loved learning about Mexico. Mexico had a revolution against Spain!

In the comparison group, four comments were made about learning new things about other countries in general, as seen below:

C2: I think it was all important. Just to know like what's going on at different places.

C6: I read the book and … it taught me some stuff that I didn't know from other…like continents or countries

C7 about the most important thing he's learned: The way of how other countries do things.

C8: I get to learn from other countries.

Three comments identified specific examples of what was learned, as seen below:

C3: The most important thing I learned like, which food um Japan has and which…like…what kind of thing they sleep on and…I learned a lot

C5: I've learned that… about like different things people eat from different countries and what their religions are

C10: I get to learn…like as in China, the government only allows you to have one kid and if you have another kid you have to pay for it because there's a lot of

people in China.

Intercultural knowledge showed in more of the participants' responses to the focus group questions than intercultural skills or self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning. While some of the knowledge mentioned can be classified as big "C", or of major cultural themes, most of it can be classified as small "c", or minor cultural themes. Although more comments regarding gaining intercultural knowledge were made by the experimental group participants, the differences in responses between the two groups was small. All responses related to gaining intercultural knowledge were positive.

***Intercultural Skills***

Participants had less to say about gaining skills through the cultural lesson. One participant in the experimental group mentioned learning a language spoken in a different country as a useful skill to gain:

> E5 about the most important thing she's learned: I think it was like the language that they were speaking cause one day maybe you could go to that place and speak that language.

There was one comment made in the experimental group that referred to knowing more about people in different countries as a useful skill to have:

> E7: It really gives you a step higher on world knowing stuff.

One participant in the comparison group mentioned learning a language spoken in a different country as a communication skill:

C2: I'm now really inspired what I would do in China. I learned a little bit of the communication so now I'm kind of learning Chinese.

One participant in the comparison group saw the cultural lesson as an exercise that helps with the skill of perspective taking.

C1: It was like I actually introduced someone. It made me feel like someone else

Participants' responses to the focus group questions did not include much about intercultural skills. The skills mentioned were language and perspective taking. Language learning was of practical use as a communication skill for two participants, while it was interesting and enjoyable to another. There were no apparent differences between responses from the experimental and comparison groups. The few responses related to gaining intercultural skills were positive.

***Intercultural Attitudes***

The data from the focus groups reflected attitudes towards three different things in response to the focus group questions. Some responses reflected the participants' attitudes towards the cultural lesson, some towards people of different cultures, and some towards working with the different countries themselves.

***Intercultural attitudes/Intercultural learning.*** Many participants in both groups mainly responded positively when asked about their feelings towards the intercultural exercise in general. Five participants in the experimental group answered as follows:

E7: Good and happy!

E10: Happy because I really like the work.

It was pretty fun. I enjoyed it.

E8: I feel happy and it's really fun!

E9: Well, I typically liked all of it. So there's nothing I don't like about it.

E4: I feel really good about it. It's really fun to figure out what…for example "clothing". We get to figure out what clothing they wear and all that stuff. It's really fun to do that.

One participant in the experimental group expressed being confused:

E5: I think it's very fun listening to the songs and all that but…it's kind of confusing cause we didn't learn all about these countries.

When asked about their least favorite thing about the cultural lessons, the response was mainly that it took too much time. Three participants from one of the experimental focus groups responded as follows:

E6: It takes a lot of time.

E7: The one part I didn't like is that it did take a lot of time.

E10: It was time consuming!

Surprisingly, when asked for suggestions for changes to the cultural lesson, two of the students who said it took too much time, and one more participant in the same group suggested adding more time or work to the lesson or raising its level of difficulty:

E7: I'd make it harder…I would add more time and more work to it.

E10: I would definitely make it harder. I would also like to make the books longer.

E8: we can make this a little harder and then in the books we can make them more facts and we can put more stuff and then they can in the end put what kind of foods and like in the end we can put who their enemies are, like in the war and stuff.

In the comparison group nine out of the ten participants responded positively, mainly with brief comments, when asked about their feelings in general about the cultural lesson, while the tenth participant did not comment:

C4: Good…fun…and I learned a lot of stuff.

C5: It was really fun and I got to learn about different cultures and religions.

C2: I think it was like fun.

C3: It was really really fun!

C7: Good…I guess… cause the cultural lessons were the second funnest lessons I had.

I like it because I get to learn more about other countries.

C8: It makes me feel good! It made me feel happy and I liked it because I get to learn from other countries.

C9: Make me feel happy…because I liked working.

C10: Good…because it helps me learn

C6: I feel happy

When asked about their least favorite thing about the cultural lessons, five participants responded. Their responses suggest that there was nothing that they didn't like about the lesson. It is worth mentioning here that the comparison group participants had less to do

than the experimental group participants, as the latter had extra forms to fill each session. This resulted in the comparison group sessions being shorter than the experimental group sessions. Comparison group responses were as follows:

C2: Nothing

C3: Nothing either, because I liked the first one, I liked the second one, I liked the third one. I liked the countries I chose.

C5: Nothing

C4: Nothing, and…and um…because who wouldn't like it.

C10: (didn't like about it) The only thing I didn't like was nothing. It was so beautiful.

In the comparison group, when asked for suggestions for changes to the cultural lesson, five participants responded as follows:

C2: If you could learn more words for the language and if you could listen to two songs.

C4: Exactly the same as what C2 said

C3: I like it (no changes)

C7: If I can add something new, I would add uh…um songs. A song to that country…a song to that state… a song to that country… a song to that state.

C10: I would add like, what kind of animals belong to this country, this

country…this country…that country.

***Intercultural attitudes/People of different cultures.*** In addition to participants' responses that reflected their attitudes towards intercultural learning and the intercultural exercise in general, one response in the experimental group and two responses in the comparison group reflected their attitudes towards people of cultures different than theirs.

In the experimental group:

E4: learn to accept other people when they're not from the same country.

In the comparison group:

C1: I learned that even if you're not from that one country and you don't really like what other people do in that country that you're not from, you can't judge them

C4: one of my friends are Christian but I don't judge them because they're still my friend and I don't judge them. I learned not to judge them. I learned that from my dad.

***Intercultural attitudes/Different countries.*** Some responses reflected attitudes towards learning about specific countries, especially when asked about whether they had enjoyed working with one country more than others. Reasons for those preferences varied between being already somewhat familiar with the country or its language, knowing someone from that country, having family ties to that country or to a neighboring one with much in common, or simply for finding it interesting.

In the experimental group, nine out of the ten participants expressed preferring working with one country (or two) more than others.

Experimental group comments on preferring a country because of familiarity with it or its language were:

> E4: It was France because… we've been learning French words …it was kind of easier than others because we've seen a lot of pictures with the families and stuff.
>
> E5: for me it was Mexico. They speak Spanish and at my old school like a lot of my schools, most schools teach Spanish and I've known a lot of Spanish and a lot of what they wear and I pick Mexico
>
> E10: And Russia! I really liked it because I know the language. It was not that hard really because I knew a lot of stuff about Russia.

Experimental group comments on preferring a country for having a friend or an acquaintance from it were:

> E3: Russia…because I was learning new things. You've told us a lot a lot a lot of stuff about Egypt and Alexander has … told us nothing about Russia, so I was learning new words and I was learning.
>
> E9: I think I like Egypt the most because that's where my teacher's from.

Experimental group comments on preferring a country for having family ties to that country or a neighboring one with much in common were:

> E7: My favorite was Mexico and Kenya. Same as you for E10. I love the books. I love everything else…Since I've been to Mexico I like it. I liked Kenya mostly because um my mom cooks a lot of African American food like beans and turkey

chicken. They're not really African American food but she makes them in her own African American way and I just like it. I like it because it's black…black roots (in an animated voice).

E8: Um…last week I liked India the most because my mom is from Nepal and then … India is close to Nepal and … mostly do everything as Nepal. And Nepal mostly do everything as India. And then… I enjoyed it because I knew a lot of stuff about it.

Experimental group comments on preferring a country for finding it interesting were:

E1: Italy…Cause I liked it…I liked the clothing …that's it

E2: I liked Australia because I just like their culture and stuff.

E10: I like Russia and Mexico. Mexico, it was really interesting. The books were really interesting.

In the comparison group, eight out of the ten participants expressed preferring working with one country more than others. Neither were for familiarity with the country or its language.

Comparison group comments on preferring a country for having a friend or an acquaintance from it were:

C4: I was also gonna… say China. It was really fun because some of my friends speak Chinese… Sometimes they speak… Chinese to each other and then I search up like what they said on Google and then it translates and then I'm "Oh my God"

and then what they say I think one thing and it translates to a whole other thing.

C10: South Korea…Because I have one friend that's from South Korea and she left this this country to meet her new doggy

The comparison group comment on preferring a country for having family ties to that country was:

C1: So I enjoyed Egypt a lot because I was born there and my family. So, my family was there and it was good to do it. It was fun

Comparison group comments on preferring a country for finding it interesting were:

C3: India, cause I liked the song.

C8: I enjoyed working on my last country (South Korea) um…because … It made me feel happy.

C7: I liked all the countries, but my favorite country … was Japan. I like ninjas, plus I hear some ninjas are in Japan plus I…I find Japan interesting.

C2: I enjoyed doing China, even though I'm from Egypt. I liked doing China more than others because I like the language a lot.

C6: My favorite country was China because it has the food "dumpling" and because it has like other…like some other stuff I have never tried. Some other food I have never tried before.

There were more responses related to intercultural attitudes than there were regarding intercultural knowledge, skills, or self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning. Participants' attitudes were expressed either towards the cultural lesson, people of different cultures, or working with specific countries. Participants in

both groups expressed liking the intercultural exercise and described it as “good” or “fun”. Their suggestions to improve it were mainly to make it harder and longer. Their attitudes towards people of different countries were expressed in a few statements and included acceptance and not judging. Attitudes towards learning about certain countries were reflected in many statements. The reasons for preferring to learn about specific countries varied between familiarity with the country or its language, knowing someone from that country, having family ties to that country or to a neighboring one with much in common, or simply for finding it interesting. There were no apparent differences between responses from the experimental and comparison groups.

***Planning***

Responses of participants, when asked about whether/how they planned their work, reflected different understandings of planning among the participants. While some participants said that they didn’t, and generally don’t, plan, some other participants talked about planning as prior choice of the country they’ll work on, researching a country before the lesson, setting strategies for making their choices of appropriate cards, or planning the layout of their work board.

In the experimental group, two participants said they don’t plan, one participant said that sometimes he plans and sometimes he doesn’t. Their responses were as follows:

E1: No (plan)

E5: I don’t really (plan)

E6: So…sometimes I plan a little bit but …sometimes I don’t plan it. I just think

about it while planning it.

Two participants in the experimental group talked about planning which countries they'll work on:

E10: A little bit because I did actually plan the countries that I was going to do.

E9: Sometimes I plan, like I plan what country …um…what country I do before the work. And sometimes I have it in my head for a long time and I do it when the lesson starts.

Two participants in the experimental group talked about researching the countries they'll work on prior to the lesson:

E10: I was doing some research at home about …about the countries I wanted to do. But yesterday I did Mexico, even though I wanted to do France. I did search up Mexico a little bit and today.

E7: Since my mom is African American, I searched up Kenya. I wanted to do Kenya.

And two participants in the experimental group described strategies for making their choices of appropriate cards:

E4: How I prepared was I thought of the country and…if I looked at the backgrounds of every picture, cause I know what kind of country I'm looking at, and if I see like a town or something, I can look at that and then look at the thing

that I'm supposed to be looking at…and then I just see what it's like to me…what I think it.

E5: Sometimes I just look at them…I spread them out like finding gloves and I'm picking out the right one, like trying to figure out the right one. I just like go through them and like think what I know about that country and I'd just think and then I…what I know about that country and then I just figure it out

Neither of the experimental group participants described planning the layout of their work board.

In the comparison group, three participants said they don't plan:

C4 : Um…no, not really (set a plan), but I was thinking about it, but then I'm like "no"

C2: I didn't know exactly what we were going to do so I didn't set a plan. To be honest though, I don't really set plans that much…I probably wouldn't set a plan even if I knew what we were doing.

C7: I don't really have a plan before working but the last time we did it I had…I um…I didn't know where to put transportation so I put it in the middle.

Three participants in the comparison group described planning the layout of their work board.

C3: I had a plan like…um… I'd done this before, I remembered it and I knew like everything I would do like nutrition, religion. I knew which one I'm going to do for

all of them because I've done it before

C8: So, like yeh. So, like my plan was like um…just to let people know that …that this goes on spiritual needs and material needs. I…I um…like lined them up with whatever I wanted and then draw lines from picture to the label

C6: Yes, I have the idea to at least put…put the material needs on the materials need side and I put the spiritual needs stuff on the other side and like make some space in the middle for it.

One student in the comparison group said that he did set a plan but chose to not explain what it was.

C9: Um…yeh (set a plan)

Neither of the comparison group participants described planning as setting strategies for making their choices of appropriate cards:

***Monitoring***

Participants were asked to reflect on monitoring their progress through the sessions of the cultural lesson. Their responses varied between there being no change over the sessions and the sessions getting easier and more fun by time. Some participants expressed having some anxiety about the lesson before it started but those feelings being replaced with joy after they started working on the lesson.

When asked about whether their feelings about the work changed from one week to another, three participants in the experimental group said that their feelings didn't change:

E1: No

E3: It did not change for me.

E7: It did not change from one week to another

Five participants in the experimental group expressed feeling nervous or feeling like the work is important and would be too hard, or too easy in one case, but realized afterwards that it was easy and enjoyable:

E8: When I started the work, I thought that I was doing something important. I thought like I should, I would be happy to do this. I figured out it was easy to do for me and then sometimes I get distracted. On the second time I felt like I can enjoy this more and the third time it became more fun for me for some reason. It was getting more fun more fun more fun more fun, especially when we got to use the white and the grey pouches.

`E6: When I start the work, I think it's going to be too hard or too easy and then when I think it's too hard it's too easy and when I think…um it's too easy it's um… kind of medium.

E10: For the first week I felt really nervous, what if I'm not going to get this right? But when I started doing it, it was a little hard but I did it. And then I started liking it. And for the second week it kind of became my passion. I liked the cultural

lessons. The third week I enjoyed it a lot. And yesterday, which was the last time we're doing it, I was upset but also happy because I did a lot of work.

E9: At first, I thought the work was going to be hard but then I figured out it was like fun and easy and I liked it... First, I was nervous and then the second time it was really fun and the third time the same.

E5: It changed…every time I pick a different thing, I get to learn like different things that I haven't known before, and that's how it changes

When asked about whether their feelings about the work changed from one week to another, two participants in the comparison group said that they first felt it was fun and then they felt it was more fun in the following weeks:

C2: So when we all did America at first, when it was our first session, I first didn't know if it was going to be like that in every session. Like, I still felt like it was fun in the first session. Then in the second session I felt like different because we got to like pick our thing and listen to songs and stuff, so yeah, I felt different I guess between the first week and the rest of the weeks.

C4: So yes, same as C2 but then it got really fun

One participant in the comparison group before the first week thought it would be boring then enjoyed it:

C1: The first day when I was coming here, I thought, "maybe it will be boring" and

> the rest of the time I'm coming back here at the school and I'm seeing my friends. I had a lot of fun and I enjoyed it a lot.

One participant in the comparison group felt like the lesson was fun and hoped it would be longer but didn't really explain how his feelings towards the lesson changed.

> C3: The first day I came here I was like, "this is fun. I like doing this. I hope that.." I thought it would be a little longer and I wanted to stay here more.

One participant in the comparison group talked about how he felt that the lesson was first a little hard then got really easy:

> C7: Well, it was a little hard at first but then…it was pretty easy at first but a little hard and it got really easy

***Self-Evaluation***

There was no question in the focus group protocol targeting self-evaluation specifically, rather, an evaluation of the lesson and suggestions for changes to it. The main self-evaluation that was carried out by participants in this study was the ICI-SRP survey. However, some participants talked about how hard or easy the work was to them. One participant in the comparison group talked about not liking his and his friend's behavior during the lesson:

> C1: I hated one part. There was something that I didn't like. Me and C3 being too crazy in this place…Because we were excited that we were back at our school.

***Self-Regulatory Prompts***

Participants in the experimental group were asked about whether they found the self-regulatory prompts forms, which they filled before, during, and after each session, helpful. Responses varied from not finding the prompts helpful, finding them a little helpful, gaining confidence by filling them, and the prompts making the work easier by allowing the participant to express her feelings and how she's supposed to do the work. Three participants in the experimental group said that filling the SRP forms did not help:

> E1: No
>
> E5: Not really!
>
> E10: No, but I did like filling them out. I was going, "cool, I get to fill out the forms".

One participant in the experimental group said that filling the SRP forms helped, but did not explain how:

> E6: So, they helped me like a lot but not like 100%.

Three participants in the experimental group said that filling the SRP forms did help, and explained how:

> E8: Well, the first one made me feel good about doing the work …there are questions that make me confident and stuff
>
> E9: Um…yes, they kind of did because they kind of made me more confident to finish my work, and sometimes I researched things at home

E4: Yes, it actually did, umm…because when I fill the form we get to see, we get to tell about how we felt about it, how we were supposed to do it and so it made it kind of easier.

Participants' responses did not reflect an overall good understanding of the self-regulated learning process or the possession of strong self-regulated learning skills. Only a few responses from the experimental group involved use of planning strategies. A few responses from each group were about reflecting on the changes in how the participants felt towards the difficulty of the exercise. Participants who, before starting, thought the intercultural exercise would be difficult expressed finding it easier later. The differences between the responses from the experimental and comparison groups were minor, with the experimental group applying some planning strategies.

**Overall Quantitative and Qualitative Results of the Study**

Twenty Montessori elementary students participated in this quasi-experimental mixed-methods study which examined the effects of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning, and to investigate the influence of SRP on activating self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning. All participants took part in an intercultural exercise and only the experimental group was given SRP.

The results of the ANCOVA suggest a non-statistically significant effect within all four ICI-SRP subscales for the experimental group and for the comparison group.

However, it shows a numerical increase in the IC knowledge in both groups, with a sharper increase in the experimental group. This is well reflected in the qualitative data, collected from the focus groups, in which responses from both treatment groups were all positive. There was an equal number of responders from both groups, and a couple more responses given by participants in the experimental group, which shows a slightly higher frequency of positive responses in the experimental group.

The results of the ANCOVA suggest a non-statistically significant increase in intercultural skills in both groups, with a slightly sharper increase in IC skills in the comparison group, which does not support research question 1 hypothesis. Similar results are seen in the collected qualitative data. In the experimental group, one participant mentioned learning a language spoken in a different country as a useful skill to gain and one participant referred to knowing more about people in different countries as a useful skill to have. In the comparison group, one participant mentioned learning a language spoken in a different country as a communication skill, while another participant saw the cultural lesson as an exercise that helps with the skill of perspective taking.

The results of the ANCOVA suggest a sharper numerical increase in IC attitudes among the comparison group participants, which does not support the research question 1 hypothesis. The qualitative data addressing IC attitudes was split into IC attitudes towards intercultural learning, towards people from other countries, and towards different countries. Many participants in both groups mainly responded positively when asked about their feelings towards the intercultural exercise in general. However, there were more positive responses in the comparison group than in the experimental group, which is

consistent with the ANCOVA results for the IC attitudes sub-scale. There were also three participants in the experimental group who talked about the lessons being too long while no one in the comparison group had any complaints. It is worth mentioning here that the experimental group participants had extra forms to fill each session. This resulted in the experimental group sessions being longer than the comparison group sessions.

IC attitudes towards people from other countries were expressed in one response in the experimental group, in which the participant mentioned acceptance of people from different countries, while it was expressed in two responses in the comparison group, in which participants talked about not judging people of different religions or people who do things that you do not really like. IC Attitudes towards different countries showed only in a positive way, in which participants preferred working with specific countries. Reasons for those preferences varied between being already somewhat familiar with the country or its language, knowing someone from that country, having family ties to that country or to a neighboring one with much in common, or simply for finding it interesting. In the experimental group, the four reasons listed above were mentioned, while in the comparison group three reasons were mentioned, as no one in the comparison group expressed preferring working with one country more than others for familiarity with the country or its language, and most were for simply finding it interesting.

The results of the ANCOVA suggest a non-statistically significant effect for SRP on the experimental group's self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulating intercultural learning. Both treatment groups showed a decrease in self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulating

intercultural learning, which does not support research question 1 hypothesis that the experimental group would have a sharper increase in self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulating intercultural learning. However, there was a sharper decrease in self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulating intercultural learning in the comparison group. The qualitative data addressing self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulating intercultural learning was split into planning, monitoring, self-evaluation, and information regarding the self-regulatory prompts.

Responses of participants, when asked about whether/how they planned their work, reflected different understandings of planning among the participants. While some participants said that they didn't, and generally don't, plan, some other participants talked about planning as prior choice of the country they'll work on, researching a country before the lesson, setting strategies for making their choices of appropriate cards, or planning the layout of their work board. In the experimental group, two participants said they don't plan, and one participant said that sometimes he plans and sometimes he doesn't plan. Two participants in the experimental group talked about planning which countries they'll work on, two talked about researching the countries they'll work on prior to the lesson, and two described strategies for making their choices of appropriate cards. Neither of the experimental group participants described planning the layout of their work board. In the comparison group, three participants said they don't plan, three participants described planning the layout of their work board, and one participant said that he did set a plan but chose to not explain what it was. Neither of the comparison

group participants described planning as setting strategies for making their choices of appropriate cards

Participants were asked to reflect on monitoring their progress through the sessions of the cultural lesson. Their responses varied between there being no change over the sessions and the sessions getting easier and more fun by time. Some participants expressed having some anxiety about the lesson before it started but those feelings being replaced with joy after they started working on the lesson. When asked about whether their feelings about the work changed from one week to another, in the experimental group three participants said that their feelings didn't change, and five participants expressed feeling nervous or feeling like the work is important and would be too hard or too easy but realized afterwards that it was easy and enjoyable. In the comparison group, two participants responded to the same question saying that they first felt it was fun and then they felt it was more fun in the following weeks. One participant in the comparison group before the first week thought it would be boring then enjoyed it, one participant felt like the lesson was fun and hoped it would be longer but didn't really explain how his feelings towards the lesson changed, and one participant talked about how he felt that the lesson was first a little hard then got very easy.

There was no question in the focus group protocol targeting self-evaluation specifically, rather, an evaluation of the cultural lesson and suggestions for changes to it. The main self-evaluation that was carried out by participants in this study was the ICI-SRP survey. However, some participants talked about how hard or easy the work was to

them. The only negative response to that was from one participant in the comparison group, who talked about not liking his and his friend's behavior during the lesson.

Participants in the experimental group were asked about whether they found the self-regulatory prompts forms, which they filled before, during, and after each session, helpful. Responses varied from not finding the prompts helpful, finding them a little helpful, gaining confidence by filling them, and the prompts making the work easier by allowing the participant to express her feelings and how she's supposed to do the work.

**Summary of the Findings**

The hypothesis of research question 1, regarding the impact of ICI-SRP on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning was partially supported by the results of the ANCOVA. It was hypothesized that students exposed to the SRP in the experimental group would show higher levels of development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and stronger self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning than students in the comparison group. Although there was a non-statistically significant increase in the intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes of both groups, only the increase in intercultural knowledge was sharper in the experimental group. As for the self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning, there was a non-statistically significant decrease in both groups, which does not support research question 1 hypothesis, which was that the experimental group would have a sharper increase in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning. However, there

was a sharper numerical decrease in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning in the comparison group.

Research question 2, regarding the ways in which self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning, was analyzed using the constant comparative method. A comparison was made between the focus group responses of participants in the experimental group and the comparison group. The qualitative data addressing self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning was split into planning, monitoring, self-evaluation, and information regarding the self-regulatory prompts. Results suggest minor differences between the two groups as far as activation of self-regulatory skills during the study. When talking about planning, participants from the experimental group talked about researching countries to prepare themselves for the sessions and using strategies to carry out their work, while participants from the comparison group talked about planning the layout of their boards. When talking about monitoring their progress, there were more responses from participants in the experimental group, and their responses were mostly that they worried that the work would be too hard or too easy but realized afterwards that it was easy and enjoyable. Responses among participants in the comparison group, regarding monitoring progress, were fewer and with a wider variety, including providing a response that does not address monitoring.

There was not much self-evaluation reflected in responses of either group's participants. Some participants talked about how hard or easy the work was to them. Some evaluated the cultural lesson itself and made suggestions for changes to it. Most

responses were positive. The only negative response to that was from one participant in the comparison group, who talked about not liking his and his friend's behavior during the lesson. Responses regarding the self-regulatory prompts varied from not finding the prompts helpful, finding them a little helpful, gaining confidence by filling them, and the prompts making the work easier by allowing the participant to express her feelings and how she's supposed to do the work.

# Chapter Five

The purpose of this dissertation research was to (1) examine the effects of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning, and to (2) investigate the ways in which SRP influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning. Twenty elementary students from two bilingual Montessori schools participated in this quasi-experimental mixed-methods study over a period of four weeks. All participants took part in four sessions of an intercultural exercise and only the experimental group was given SRP each session. All participants completed the ICI-SRP survey at the beginning and at the end of the study and participated in focus groups at the end of the study.

The first section of this chapter provides a synopsis of the findings for each research question. The following sections provide a discussion of the results relative to prior research for the effects of self-regulatory prompts on the development of intercultural knowledge, intercultural skills, intercultural attitudes, and self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning and the ways in which those prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning. Finally, the overall findings, strengths, limitations, future research, and educational implications for intercultural learning are presented.

## A Synopsis of the Findings

Two main research questions guide this study. Research question 1 was "What is the impact of an Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) on elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and on their self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning?" Research question 2 was "In what ways do self-regulatory prompts influence elementary students' activation of self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning?" The findings generally reflect a bigger effect of the intervention on both groups' participants' intercultural knowledge than on their intercultural skills, attitudes, or self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating their intercultural learning.

For research question 1, findings from the ANCOVA partially supported the hypothesis, which was that the participants in the experimental group receiving the self-regulatory prompts would show higher levels of development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and stronger self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning than students in the comparison group. Results from the ANCOVA showed a non-statistically significant increase in the intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes of both groups. Only the increase in intercultural knowledge was sharper in the experimental group. As for the self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning, there was a non-statistically significant numerical decrease in both groups, with a sharper numerical decrease in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulating intercultural learning in the comparison group.

For research question 2, findings from the analysis of the focus group data using the constant comparison method were mostly aligned with the data from the ANCOVA. However, data from the focus groups shed light on different types of IC knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and different types of planning and monitoring applied by participants of both groups, thereby delving more deeply into each of them. The differences between the experimental and comparison groups seemed mild. Both groups felt positively about the intercultural exercise in general, people from other countries, and about learning about other countries. The experimental group responses regarding the self-regulatory prompts varied from not finding the prompts helpful, finding them a little helpful, gaining confidence by filling them, and the prompts making the work easier.

**The Effects of Self-Regulatory Prompts on the Development of Intercultural Knowledge**

The research question 1 hypothesis was partially supported only by data from the intercultural knowledge ICI-SRP subscale in this study, and not by the remaining three subscales. Possible explanations are discussed below. There was a non-statistically significant increase in the intercultural knowledge of both participating groups, with a sharper increase among the experimental group participants. The difference in the increase of IC knowledge between the experimental and the comparison groups was non-statistically significant. A possible explanation for this is that SRP are only activators to already existing strategies (Berthold et al., 2007), which might not have been developed in the participants yet. Participants should first be taught the appropriate strategies which,

according to Muller and Seufert (2018), the SRP would activate at different stages of the learning process.

Data from the focus groups suggests that the participants' increased intercultural knowledge was the type that is culture-specific and is mainly of practices and products of particular cultural groups. This may be attributed to the nature of the intercultural exercise, which doesn't go far beyond knowledge of the aspects of culture, sometimes referred to as the "Five Fs", food, festivals, famous people, fashion, and flags. The five Fs approach to studying cultures is dismissed by some as superficial (e.g., Carber, 2009; Hacking et al., 2018; Meyer & Rhoades, 2006; Skelton et al., 2002). While others see it as fundamental to the beginning stages of understanding other cultures (e.g., Fisher, 2014). Bunnell (2019) sees the Fs as multidimensional and points out the existence of additional Fs, such as faith and folklore, making it a "Numerous Fs" approach, which he sees as adding substance to their importance. The goal of the design of the current intercultural exercise was to provide the young participants with basic information about some countries, and how people in those countries meet their fundamental human needs, as a way to realize the shared humanity between them and to spike interest in gaining more knowledge about them and respect for them. Intercultural knowledge is believed to positively influences awareness in the development of intercultural competencies (Aguiar et al., 2020; Barrett, 2013). The current intercultural exercise was meant as an age-appropriate foundation for developing intercultural competence in elementary students.

An example of the culture-specific knowledge gained by a participant in the experimental group is, "we learned…like what food and clothes and all the religion and

stuff from the cards and picking them". In the comparison group, one participant responded to the question about the most important thing they've learned from this cultural lesson saying, "The way…of how other countries do things". There was no evidence in the participants' responses to the focus group questions of an increase in culture-general knowledge, which is described by Hammer et al. (2003) as "identifying how cultural differences in general operate in a wide range of human interactions" (p. 425). There was also no evidence in the participants' responses of the development of culture-specific knowledge of the perspectives of particular cultural groups as described in (Barrett, 2013). Such evidence could be the mention of learning about and interpreting other people's cultural perspectives and relating them to one's own.

**The Effects of Self-Regulatory Prompts on the Development of Intercultural Skills**

The research question 1 hypothesis was not supported by data from the intercultural skills ICI-SRP subscale in this study. There was a non-statistically significant increase in the intercultural skills of both participating groups, with a non-statistically significant sharper increase among the comparison group participants. The types of intercultural skills mentioned in the focus groups were language skills, perspective taking, and empathy. The fact that the increase in intercultural skills for both groups was non-statistically significant could be attributed to that it takes much longer than four weeks to develop an intercultural skill. Language acquisition, for example, takes time (Hartshorne et al., 2018). According to Bialystok (2018) and Tschirner (2018), it takes students several years to reach levels of foreign language proficiency that are desired for success in school. The intercultural exercise developed for the present study

aimed at only arousing an interest in learning different languages through the introduction of common phrases, since it is not realistic to try to teach participants a foreign language as part of a single session of an exercise. One response which suggests the accomplishment of this goal was that of participant E5 in the experimental group, who when asked about the most important thing they've learned from this work said, "I think it was like the language that they were speaking cause one day maybe you could go to that place and speak that language". A response from participant C2 in the comparison group, which also suggests the success of arousing an interest in learning different languages through the introduction of common phrases, was, "I'm now really inspired what I would do in China. I learned a little bit of the communication, so now I'm kind of learning Chinese". The same participant added later, "I love the Chinese language. Oh my God! Thank you so much! Especially the language part because it's so weird and I really like that!".

The development of perspective taking in elementary students also takes time. Lengths of studies investigating the effects of interventions on the development of perspective taking in elementary students usually last as long as a year (Wolgast et al., 2018; Savina, 2020). The four-week duration of the present study might have been insufficient to notice the development of perspective taking, as an intercultural skill, or for the effect of SRP on that development. The level of perspective taking of the present study's participants, who attend bilingual schools, was expected to be higher than that of students who attend monolingual schools. This is based on studies such as that of Gasiorek et al. (2022), who argue that bilingual students have increased levels of

perspective taking, and that of Hsin and Snow (2017), who argue that language- minority students are more likely to surpass English-only students when it comes to the skill of perspective taking. This assumed higher level of perspective taking in the study participants may have made the effect of the intervention less significant. As for empathy, as an intercultural skill, the numerical increase for both groups may not have been statistically significant because all the participants attend Montessori schools, in which the teaching of empathy as a skill is typically incorporated. Some studies suggest that peace education and the study of human history through the fundamental human needs support the development of empathy in students (e.g., Brunold-Conesa, 2008; Purnell, 2018).

**The Effects of Self-Regulatory Prompts on the Development of Intercultural Attitudes**

The research question 1 hypothesis was not supported by data from the intercultural attitudes ICI-SRP subscale in this study. There was a non-statistically significant increase in intercultural attitudes of both participating groups, with a non-statistically significant sharper increase in IC attitudes in the comparison group. The types of IC attitudes that emerged from the qualitative data were IC attitudes towards intercultural learning, towards people from other countries, and towards different countries. The three types of IC attitudes were reflected positively in the responses of participants in both the experimental and the comparison groups, apart from three comments from the experimental group participants about the intercultural exercises

being too long. It is worth mentioning here that sessions were longer for the experimental group participants because they had extra forms to fill each session.

The fact that the increase in intercultural attitudes was non-statistically significant for both groups could be attributed to that the attitudes of the participants of both groups towards people of different cultures may have been positive before the present study, considering the type of schools being Montessori (Brunold-Conesa, 2010; Huneke-Stone, 2015; Purnell, 2018). According to Brunold-Conesa (2010), Montessori programs claim to promote values associated with global citizenship. Brunold-Conesa (2008) describes her experience as a practitioner, during which she found that "Children who are educated in an environment where Montessori principles are consistently applied develop sensitivity to and appreciation for different cultures, resulting in a worldview conducive to understanding and working with, rather than against, people of other lands" (p. 44). The Montessori cosmic curriculum is based on the interconnectedness of all things in the universe and plays an important role in integrating all aspects of human life on the planet (Dempsey, 2017; Montessori, 1989).

Contact with individuals from different countries may have also played a role in the intercultural attitudes of participants. The study took place within a Northern Virginia community whose population, according to the U.S. Census Bureau QuickFacts: Virginia 2015-2019 five-year estimate, was 31.3% foreign born. This is considered a highly culturally diverse community compared to 13.6% of the population nationwide being foreign born during that same period. Children's contact with individuals of different cultural backgrounds can help foster their development of intercultural competence

(Barrett, 2018; Bennett, 2009; Roh, 2014). The frequent contact of the study participants may have positively contributed to their intercultural competence in general, and their intercultural attitudes in particular.

Another possible explanation for the results, which support the idea of the attitudes of participants of both groups towards people of different cultures and other countries, is that they attended bilingual Montessori schools. Bilingual education programs have a potentially positive impact on students' intercultural skills and attitudes (Gasiorek et al., 2022; Hsin & Snow, 2017). There are different approaches taken in bilingual education, and the approach observed in the two participating schools is translanguaging. According to García (2011), translanguaging is an approach to bilingualism that is centered on the observable communicative practices of bilinguals and includes shifting between two languages. In Lau (2015), a bilingual children's rights project with elementary students showed that, through translanguaging practices, the students came to appreciate diversity in languages and gradually lost the fear of using another language or becoming familiar with those of a different culture.

Seldin (1999) considered learning foreign languages as one of the areas that lead to cultural sensitivity and awareness of people of other cultures. Therefore, students in bilingual programs are more likely to have higher cultural awareness and more positive attitudes towards people of other cultures. The study participants were attending bilingual programs, but their mastery of foreign language varied between participants who had only been attending the school for months and had limited knowledge of the foreign language at the school, and participants who mastered both languages taught at the school

in addition to a third foreign language. The variation in the participants' knowledge of foreign languages may be a factor in the variation of their cultural awareness and attitudes towards people of other cultures.

**The Effects of Self-Regulatory Prompts on Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Self-Regulation of Intercultural Learning**

While it was hypothesized that the experimental group would have a sharper increase in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning, both groups' responses to the ICI-SRP survey showed a numerical decrease in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning. However, there was a sharper decrease in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning in the comparison group. This hypothesis was based on studies (Kramarski & Kohen, 2017; Muller & Seufert, 2018) which suggest that SRP lead learners to reflect on their skills and resources and increase their self-efficacy. This decrease in self-efficacy beliefs does not necessarily indicate a decrease in the self-regulation of intercultural learning. Rather, it indicates a decrease in the participants' perception of that decrease. A possible explanation for the decrease in SE beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning for both groups may be the heightened awareness of SRL strategies through self-reflection while answering items on the ICI-SRP scale and one group filling SRP forms over the sessions. This may be attributed to the Dunning Kruger Effect (1999) in which a person who is unskilled in certain domains overestimates his/her ability and is unaware of it. Misalignment between students' self-efficacy believes and abilities shows in several studies in which higher achieving students report lower self-efficacy than lower achieving students (e.g., Talsma et al., 2019). According to

Christopher and Herbert (2021), the overestimation of one's abilities may result from the inability to accurately predict, or precisely estimate, one's performance, which may lead to the amplification of one's abilities. A replication of this study with more sessions may provide different results, as the participants abilities may grow and their estimation of those abilities become more accurate. Different studies which involve the development of SRL skills and strategies last longer than the present study, such as the Tavakolizadeh and Qavam (2011) study with second year junior-high boy students, which involved 18 one-hour sessions.

A possible explanation for the non-statistically significant difference between the results of the experimental and the comparison groups is that perhaps the participants had not yet developed the self-regulated learning strategies well enough to be activated by the SRP. Self-regulatory prompts do not teach SRL strategies, rather, they engage learners in comparing current learning states with desired learning goals, which subsequently guides the learner to select the learning processes that could lead to the desired outcomes (Bannert & Reimann, 2012; Muller & Seufert, 2018). The decrease in self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of intercultural learning does not support results from the Wang (2004) dissertation study, in which he investigated elementary school children's self-efficacy beliefs and their use of SRL strategies in the process of learning English as a second language. Among the factors that the participants' self-efficacy beliefs were associated with, were their expertise in the content area, interest, and attitude toward the content being learned. Participants of the present study have increased expertise in the

content area, interest, and attitude toward intercultural learning, yet have self-reported lower self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulation of intercultural learning.

**Overall Findings**

The overall findings of the present study suggest that it is likely for elementary aged students to develop intercultural competence through intercultural exercises, and that intercultural knowledge is likely to develop sooner than intercultural skills and attitudes. The overall findings also suggest that SRP may support elementary aged students' development of intercultural competence under certain conditions, such as intentionally teaching the students self-regulatory skills prior to providing the SRP. This suggestion is in line with some recent research studies (e.g., Barrett, 2018; Cushner, 2008, 2015; Moloney, 2009; Ordones, 2021; Tutkun & Tezel Sahin, 2019; Vandevelde et al., 2013), which go against former beliefs in that elementary students are too young to develop IC (Piaget & Weil, 1951). Even though the numerical increase in IC for participants of both groups was non-statistically significant, the qualitative data from the focus groups does reflect an increase in their IC. Therefore, exercises such as the one used for the current study could help fulfill the role that formal education, according to Muller et al. (2020), should play in children's development of IC. Another explanation for the numerical increase in IC for participants of both groups being non-statistically significant may be that no single intervention or training experience is sufficient in developing IC. Rather, IC development is a life-long process (Deardorff, 2020).

The study also suggests that supporting elementary students in developing self-regulated learning skills is more effective when it is deliberate. Despite the participants

being chosen from schools in which the Montessori method is applied, which according to Lillard (2011) supports the development of SRL, the hypothesis that the use of SRP with elementary students would lead to increased development of IC and self-efficacy in the self-regulation of intercultural learning was not supported. Possible explanations of not supporting that hypothesis are that the study was not long enough and that the participants' SRL skills were not strong enough. For SRP to activate students' SRL skills, the students should have those skills to begin with (Muller & Seufert, 2018). Deliberation in teaching SRL skills might produce different results in future similar studies.

**Strengths of the Study**

This quasi-experimental mixed method intervention research study sheds some light onto an under researched age group in the areas of intercultural learning and the use of self-regulatory prompts. It supports claims by researchers (e.g., Barrett, 2018; Cushner, 2015; Vandevelde et al., 2013) that IC skills can and should begin to be fostered in students at a young age in order to increase their effectiveness, in which they contradict some former beliefs. The study shows that IC exercises can be part of the elementary aged student's formal education and be included in the regular school day. This is in line with recommendations by organizations, such as the United Nations and the European Union, which have been strongly supporting the inclusion if IC in academic contexts over the past two decades. The study is also in line with the recommendation that IC exercises should be integrated into existing school curricula (e.g., Rader, 2018), which in this case is Social Studies.

Since IC development is a life-long process, and no single intervention or training experience is sufficient in developing it (Deardorff, 2020), IC lessons and exercises should be ongoing throughout a child's formal learning experience. However, there is currently a relatively small pool of intercultural exercises for young learners. This study provides an intercultural exercise, which is a variation on an existing Montessori lesson, which can be used with elementary students. This exercise can be added to that small pool of intercultural exercises. Examples of those exercises are ones collected in sources such as the Rader (2018) book, "Teaching and Learning for Intercultural Understanding", in which the author provides a collection of strategies and lesson plans for educators to use in support of intercultural understanding with children ages four to eleven.

**Limitations of the Study**

The sample size, which was limited to 20 participants due to restrictions related to the COVID-19 pandemic, was a limitation of the study. The sample of participants was a convenient sample drawn from only two schools from a particular region of the United States. Therefore, caution should be taken with any attempt to generalize findings to students of other age or geographical regions. There are some limitations of using self-report surveys such the ICI-SRP survey used for the present study. Examples of these limitations are the possibility of providing invalid answers because of social desirability bias, or response bias, which is an individual's tendency to respond in a certain way (always yes or always no) regardless of the question (Demetriou et al., 2015). Developmental concerns regarding the young age of the participants could also be a limitation to the reliability of the study, considering how elementary students, ages seven

to nine, were the source of all the collected data, despite conducting cognitive interviews prior to the administration of the survey (Demetriou et al., 2015).

The quantitative data collection instrument used for this study, ICI-SRP survey, was adapted from the surveys (ICSES; Hernández-Bravo & Cardona, 2007; CP-SRLI; Vandevelde et al., 2013), which have been validated for use in different contexts. The ICI-SRP survey in its current form has not yet been validated. Future administration of the survey on a larger scale is suggested for exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Additionally, ICI-SRP proved to have weaknesses. The weaknesses showed in some items that were not highlighted by the cognitive interview participants, but rather by study participants during the cognitive interviews. For example, item 14, "I do class work with these friends", which followed item 13, "Some of my friends are from other countries" was described by a participant as "confusing".

The volume of prior research in the areas of intercultural learning and the use of self-regulatory prompts with elementary school students was not enough to create a well-informed study design. There has been, however, an increase in the number of research studies in the last decade that is starting to fill this gap in literature (e.g., Gidalevich & Kramarski, 2019; Mellizo, 2018; Vandevelde et al., 2013). Another limitation to the study is the fact that the researcher was the classroom teacher of 19 out of the 20 participants either prior to or during the study.

**Future Research**

The present intervention could be improved by increasing the number of sessions of the IC exercise. This is likely to result in a higher level of development of IC,

especially intercultural skills and attitudes, which require longer time to develop than the current intervention may have allowed. Some of the additional study sessions can involve different activities, such as virtually communicating with children who live in the countries included in the study. It is recommended to increase the number of participants in the study in general, or at least in the survey and intercultural exercise, which would provide more accurate mean values. Future research could involve repetition of the current study in different educational contexts, such as non-Montessori school contexts, Montessori school contexts within different cultures, or non-bilingual Montessori schools. Perhaps a comparison between the different types of school could be made and analyzed with the aim of getting a better understanding of possible effects of educational contexts on the development of elementary students' IC, and the role SRP can play in that. Another recommendation, when repeating the study, is to precede it by intentional instruction in SRL strategies. This is likely to result in higher effectiveness of the self-regulatory prompts, as the participants would have the SRL skills that the SRP would support them in activating.

**Educational Implications for Intercultural Learning**

Key recommendations for educators, based on the present study, involve ways in which they can support the development of elementary students IC and raise their self-efficacy in self-regulating their intercultural learning. This study provides one of the intercultural exercises that can be used for supporting the development of IC in elementary students. The current intercultural exercise can be improved on by increasing its number of sessions, as well as adding elements to it that would further enhance the

students' intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes such as virtually communicating with children who live in the countries included in the study and/or including artifacts with the books of each country. The present study shows that using self-regulatory prompts with elementary students as part of the intercultural learning sessions may provide extra support for the development of intercultural knowledge. It is possible that self-regulatory prompts may also provide extra support for the development of intercultural skills and attitudes after some changes are implemented.

Even though all the study participants attended Montessori schools, which are interactive learning environments and are effective for implementing SRL instruction (Kramarski et al., 2013), the use of SRP did not result in statistically significant differences between the experimental and the comparison groups. The participants did seem to have some SRL skills, which were a result of practices such as being allowed to make choices, planning their time though the use of workplans, monitoring their own progress, and reflecting on their work. However, their SRL skills and their development of SRL strategies might not have yet been mature enough. Therefore, implementing the intercultural exercise should be preceded by the explicit teaching and intensive practice of self-regulated learning strategies, which have been proven to be teachable to elementary students (Azevedo & Cromley, 2004; Schraw et al., 2006). This should be done by teaching each strategy by name, explaining what it is, why it is used, and how to use it, as well as modelling the application of the strategy (Kramarski et al., 2013; Schraw et al., 2006; Veenman et al., 2006).

Key recommendations for elementary school administrators, based on the present study, are to support educators in integrating the teaching of SRL skills and intercultural exercises into the school day, provide teachers with professional development for preparing them to teach SRL skills and intercultural exercises, and provide the time, space, and materials necessary for that teaching. Elementary school administrators can also arrange parent-educational materials and events to discuss the importance of students' acquisition of SRL skills and IC. The cooperation of educators, administrators, and parents, based on empirical research, increases the chances of reaching the goal of educating students in SRL and IC, which helps enhance their learning in general (Gidalevich, & Kramarski, 2019), supports their intercultural learning (Strohmeier et al., 2017), and helps prepare them to meet the requirements of global citizenship (Deardorff, 2009; UNESCO et al., 2015).

**Conclusion**

This study is one of the few studies that support developing intercultural learning in elementary students and the use of self-regulatory prompts to aid in that learning. In this study, there was an investigation of the effects of an intercultural exercise with SRP on a group of elementary students' development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes and their self-efficacy beliefs in intercultural learning, as well as the influence of SRP on activating self-regulatory skills in intercultural learning. Results of this study suggest that the intercultural exercise developed and used for this study seems to support the development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the participating elementary students in general. The use of SRP seemed to positively affect the

development of intercultural knowledge specifically, rather than IC skills, IC attitudes, and the SE beliefs in self-regulation of IC learning. Possible explanations for this may be the nature of the exercise and/or the fact that the development of skills, attitudes, and self-efficacy require a longer time to develop than the acquisition of knowledge does. Possible explanations for the decrease in SE beliefs in self-regulation of intercultural learning for both groups may be heightened awareness of SRL strategies, that the participants had not yet developed the self-regulatory skills that the SRP would activate, or the short length of the study.

# Appendix A

## IRBNet Board Action

**Kim Paul** <no-reply@irbnet.org> Mon, Sep 21, 2020 at 10:40 AM
Reply-To: Kim Paul <kpaul4@gmu.edu>
To: Heba Elsherbeeny <helsherb@gmu.edu>, Anastasia Kitsantas <akitsant@gmu.edu>

Please note that George Mason University IRB has taken the following action on IRBNet:

Project Title: [1648846-1] Examining Elementary Students' Development of Intercultural Competence Through Self-Regulatory Prompts
Principal Investigator: Anastasia Kitsantas

Submission Type: New Project
Date Submitted: August 23, 2020

Action: APPROVED
Effective Date: September 21, 2020
Review Type: Expedited Review

Should you have any questions you may contact Kim Paul at kpaul4@gmu.edu.

Thank you,
The IRBNet Support Team

http://secure-web.cisco.com/1kcmh4dhX_hJTsHV8dz0iuiOWBsKIeGjuOTRAR9JCftxG2kwukT0v4Y3dW49uJNAN_-3MJ7rVrOpVn-Ulgy7Xy5egWeYHsFamcTCRTqxK8Six6K3Ae2nuWlbFlIY03In5lqXsTmdJsSkFL21Yfd3RwNoh64j3PorO4uclDpUvwgZtW7XSEcjWRR6YRRZW3_E3JUeYNvmax7xMYPcjoYydMQ511m-R8bVzidKY6yID23EcjJUx7WFsEd2Eya1FGjXCHqCSzyyLMVu2P85Co6ETuuuSWKplOCJKg_hIyuG4j_hJP3KmSXAB4Am0R7DABLil4okY2EHs4ehN41CUmtSDQx7wpMks-jmTHxS3qPa_EDO8sGSln-Jx3ygK1Vb2HNklnnDqcXkwOxAb5IVY6egppwsLIEMFysnv-W48srMX20E/http%3A%2F%2Fwww.irbnet.org

## Appendix B

Examples of SRL Inventory Items for Adults, Used for Measuring Intrinsic Interest, Adaptability, and Reflectivity

| SRL Inventory | Intrinsic Interest Items | Adaptability Items | Reflectivity Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| A-SRL-S, Magno, 2010 | • I prefer class work that is challenging so I can learn new things.<br>• It is important for me to learn what is being taught in this class.<br>• I like what I am learning in this class.<br>• I often choose paper topics I will learn something from even if they require more work.<br>• I think that what I am learning in this class is useful for me to know.<br>• I think that what we are learning in this class is interesting.<br>• Understanding this subject is important to me. | | • I evaluate my accomplishments at the end of each study session.<br>• I take note of the improvements on what I do.<br>• I browse through my past outputs to see my progress. |
| ERICA, Kaplan et al., 2017 | | • I sometimes decide to adjust the methods I use for learning<br>• I sometimes change the method I use to learn when I reckon it will be more effective | • I sometimes question my learning method<br>• I sometimes ask myself what it is I could do to improve my way of learning<br>• I stop to think about the method I use for learning |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Self-Regulated Online Learning Questionnaire, Jansen et al., 2017 | • I change strategies when I do not make progress while learning for this online course. | • I think about what I have learned after I finish working on this online course.<br>• I ask myself how well I accomplished my goals once I'm finished working on this online course.<br>• I ask myself if there were other ways to do things after I finish learning for this online |
| SRQ, Brown et al., 1999 | • I change the way I do things when I see a problem with how things are going.<br>• I am willing to consider other ways of doing things.<br>• I enjoy a routine, and like things to stay the same.<br>• I am set in my ways.<br>• There is usually more than one way to accomplish something.<br>• I can usually find several different possibilities when I want to change something.<br>• I have rules that I stick by no matter what. | • I don't notice the effects of my actions until it's too late.<br>• I don't seem to learn from my mistakes<br>• I usually only have to make a mistake one time in order to learn from it.<br>• I usually judge what I'm doing by the consequences of my actions.<br>• I tend to keep doing the same thing, even when it doesn't work.<br>• I think a lot about how I'm doing.<br>• Usually I see the need to change before others do.<br>• I learn from my mistakes. |

## Appendix C

Examples of SRL inventory items for children, used for measuring intrinsic interest, adaptability, and reflectivity

| SRL Inventory | Intrinsic Interest Items | Adaptability Items | Reflectivity Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| CP-SRLI, Vandevelde et al., 2013 | I do my best for school, …<br>• because I find it very interesting.<br>• because I like doing it.<br>• because I enjoy doing it. | | • After finishing my schoolwork, ...<br>• I go over my answers again.<br>• I check that I haven't forgotten anything.<br>• I check if I have done everything that was asked for.<br>• I ask myself: 'Have I done it the right way?'<br>• I ask myself: 'Will I use a similar approach next time, or should I choose a different approach?'<br>• I ask myself: 'Did that way of doing it worked well?'<br>• I ask myself: 'How did I feel about it? (fun, difficult, boring, interesting, ...)?' |
| Jr. MAI, Sperling et al., 2002 | | • I use different learning strategies depending on the task | • When I am done with my schoolwork, I ask myself if I learned what I wanted to learn.<br>• I ask myself if there was an easier way to do things after I finish a task. |
| SRL-SRS, Toering et al., 2012 | | | **Evaluation**<br>18. I look back and check if what I did was right. |

| | |
|---|---|
| | 21. I look back to see if I did the correct procedures.<br>23. I look back at the problem to see if my answer makes sense.<br>24. I stop and rethink a step I have already done.<br>**Reflection**<br>26. I reappraise my experiences so I can learn from them.<br>27. I try to think about my strengths and weaknesses.<br>28. I think about my actions to see whether I can improve them.<br>29. I think about my past experiences to understand new ideas. |

## Appendix D

Intercultural Competence Intervention with Self-Regulatory Prompts (ICI-SRP) Survey
Please circle the number that represents your answer:
Demographics

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Name: | | | | |
| 2. | Age: | | | | |
| 3. | I am a | 1 | 2 | | |
| | | Girl | Boy | | |
| 4. | In what country were you born? | | | | |
| 5. | How many languages do you speak? | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | I have travelled to other countries. | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | | |
| | | Yes | No | | |

Intercultural Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes
Knowledge

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. | I can locate other countries on a map. | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |
| 8. | I can identify typical objects from other countries. | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |
| 9. | I can identify traditional clothes from other countries. | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |
| 10. | I can identify popular foods from other countries. | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |
| 11. | I can say some words in other languages. | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |
| 12. | I know songs from other countries. | | | | |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

Skills

13. Some of my friends belong to other countries.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

14. I do class work with these friends.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

15. I interact with them.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

16. I share knowledge with them.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

17. I respect cultural customs (things that groups of people do differently).

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

Attitudes

18. I like having friends from other countries.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

19. My family accepts that I interact with them.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

20. I like listening to songs from other countries.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

21. I like learning words from other languages.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

22. I like reading tales from other countries.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

23. I respect the views of other children.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

24. I accept my friends regardless of the countries they come from.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

25. I hate to be rude to classmates who are from other countries.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

26. All people should have equal rights.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

Self-efficacy for self-regulation of intercultural learning

27. I am good at thinking at first about how I will start my work.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

28. I am good at planning the timing of my work before I start doing it.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

29. I am good at motivating myself to start doing my work.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

30. I am good at motivating myself to finish my work.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

31. I am good at doing my work, even if I find it boring or difficult.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

32. I am good at paying attention when working.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

33. I am good at knowing what is important and less important when working.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

34. I am good at making a plan when working

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

35. I am good at changing my strategy when it does not work out.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

36. I am good at checking my work by myself.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOT AT ALL TRUE | | SOMEWHAT TRUE | | VERY TRUE |

## Appendix E

### Focus Group Protocol (Experimental Group)

Thank you for joining us for this discussion. This will help us understand more about the work you have been doing over the past four weeks. I have a few questions to ask you. I am going to ask one question at a time. Please listen to the question and then raise your hand if you would like to answer it. Everyone will get a chance to share their thoughts, but only one person at a time. Please lower your hand when someone else is having his/her turn, and do not interrupt others while they talk. I know sometimes people will say something that reminds you of something you would like to say. Save any thoughts you get until it is your turn please.

1. How do you feel about the work that you have done?
2. Before each session, how did you feel about doing the work?
3. Did your feelings about doing the work change from one week to another?
4. Before starting to make a chart each week, did you set a plan?
5. After going through the books, did you always make changes to your chart? Why?
6. Did the forms that you filled every week help you do your work better? How? (Group A only)
7. Did you enjoy working with one country more than others? Which country, and why?
8. What did you find most exciting (or enjoyable) about this work? Why?
9. What did you not like about this work? Why?

10. What is the most important thing you have learned from this work?
11. If you get to choose to do this work differently, what would you change or add to it?
12. Does anyone have something to add to this discussion?

## Appendix F

ICSES, Hernandez-Bravo & Cardona, 2007
(From Hernández-Bravoa, Cardona-Moltób, and Hernández-Bravoa, 2017)
The ICSES is a self-report 30-item scale created for use with elementary school children. It is composed of three components: knowledge (9 items), skills (9 items) and attitudes (12 items) towards peers from cultures other than one's own. It uses a four-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree). The total score in this scale was the sum of the 30 items.

| | **Knowledge** | **SD** | **D** | **A** | **SA** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I can locate other countries on a map | | | | |
| 2. | I can identify typical objects from other countries | | | | |
| 3. | I learn the name of these objects | | | | |
| 4. | I can write some words in other languages | | | | |
| 5. | I know tales from other countries | | | | |
| 6. | I can recognize physical characteristics | | | | |
| 7. | I know songs from other countries | | | | |
| 8. | I can identify instruments | | | | |
| 9. | I can recognize cultural stereotypes | | | | |

| | **Skills** | **SD** | **D** | **A** | **SA** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | My friends belong to other cultures | | | | |
| 2. | I do class work with these children | | | | |
| 3. | I interact with them | | | | |
| 4. | I share knowledge | | | | |
| 5. | I ridicule other cultural behaviors | | | | |
| 6. | I help avoid cultural conflicts | | | | |
| 7. | I share concerns | | | | |
| 8. | I criticize racist behavior | | | | |
| 9. | I respect other cultural customs | | | | |

| | **Attitudes** | **SD** | **D** | **A** | **SA** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I like learning words from other languages | | | | |
| 2. | I like reading tales from other cultures | | | | |
| 3. | I like listening songs from other cultures | | | | |
| 4. | I do not mind sharing spaces | | | | |
| 5. | I sit close to children from other cultures | | | | |
| 6. | I like having friends from other cultures | | | | |
| 7. | I am lucky to be born in my country | | | | |
| 8. | I take the views of other children into consideration | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. | I accept my friends regardless of their cultural background | | | | |
| 10. | I hate to be rude with immigrant peers | | | | |
| 11. | All people should have equal rights | | | | |
| 12. | My family accepts that I interact with them | | | | |

## Appendix G

Self-efficacy regulation and self-efficacy motivation sub-scales of Children's Perceived use of Self-Regulated Learning Inventory (CP-SRLI), Vandevelde et al. (2013)

The CP-SRLI is a 75 items self-report survey created for use with upper primary school children. The complete survey is composed of nine sub-scales (task orientation, planning, motivation, self-efficacy for self-regulated learning, learning strategies, motivational strategies, monitoring, persistence, and self-evaluation). The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 5.

I'm good at…

| | |
|---|---|
| SER1 | thinking at first about how I will approach my schoolwork. |
| SER2 | planning the timing of my schoolwork before I start making it. |
| SEM1 | motivating myself to start making on my schoolwork. |
| SEM2 | motivating myself to finish my schoolwork. |
| SEM3 | making my schoolwork, even if I find it boring or difficult. |
| SER3 | working with consistent attention during my schoolwork. |
| SEM4 | holding onto my schoolwork. |
| SER4 | knowing what is important and less important when studying. |
| SER5 | pointing out the information that is important when studying. |
| SER6 | Connecting new things to what I already know. |
| SER7 | making a scheme or mind map when studying. |
| SER8 | changing my strategy when it doesn't work out during my schoolwork. |
| SER9 | checking my schoolwork by myself. |

SER = self-efficacy regulation, SEM = self-efficacy motivation.

## Appendix H

Self-Regulatory Prompts (Form 1) Session 1

(Forethought Phase)

Please write your answers in the shaded boxes.

Do you think it is important to make your guest feel welcome and comfortable? Why?

Do you think it will be helpful for your guest to know about your culture?

What things about your culture do you plan on introducing your guest to?

Self-Regulatory Prompts (Form 1) Sessions 2 - 4

(Forethought Phase)

Please write your answers in the shaded boxes.

Do you think it is important to make your guest feel welcome and comfortable? Why?

If you were in the same situation as your guest, what gifts would you like to receive?

How do you plan on choosing gifts to provide for your guest?

Self-Regulatory Prompts (Form 2) Session 1

(Self-Monitoring Phase)

Write your answers in the shaded boxes.

Was it easy to choose pictures of what you want to introduce to your guest?

Did you expect this activity to be easier or harder?

Was the time enough for you to do your work?

Did you feel like you know a lot of things about your own culture?

Self-Regulatory Prompts (Form 2) Sessions 2 - 4

(Self-Monitoring Phase)

Write your answers in the shaded boxes.

Was it easy to choose gifts for your guest?

Did you expect this activity to be easier or harder?

Was the time enough for you to do your work?

Self-Regulatory Prompts (Form 3) Session 1

(Self-Reflection Phase)

Write your answers in the shaded boxes.

Did you enjoy the activity?

How do you feel about doing this to make your guest feel welcome?

How do you think your guest will feel about this?

Is there something that you would like to do differently in the future to make this task better?

Self-Regulatory Prompts (Form 3) Sessions 2 - 4

(Self-Reflection Phase)

Write your answers in the shaded boxes.

Did you enjoy the activity?

Did you find the books helpful in revising your choices of gifts?

How do you think your guest will feel about the gifts you have provided him/her?

Is there something that you would like to do differently in the future to make this task better?

## Appendix I

### Materials

- Lightweight magnetic dry-erase boards 18’ x 24’ and dry-erase markers.
- Pictures of the refugees/guests and the flags of their countries.
- Labels with the names of the refugees/guests and their countries.
- Labels of the different fundamental needs of humans.
- Cards with flags of the countries and a map locating each of them in the world.
- Baskets with labeled color-coded pouches for cards of each of the fundamental needs.
- Sets of pictures (backed with magnetics) of examples of ways the fundamental needs of humans are met in different countries.
- Books about lives of children in different countries (e.g., Country Explorers, Kids’ Travel Guide, If you were me and lived in…, A Ticket to…, Spotlight on…, We’re from…, AtoZ … series)
- MP3 players with songs from the different countries.
- Headphones.



Envelopes w/books for each country

Pouches with cards, Mp3, headphones


Magnetic dry-erase board, marker and eraser, colored pouches, magnet-backed color-coded pictures, labels, Mp3 Players, and headphones

## Appendix J

## Vignette

I'll tell you a story. It is not a real story, but it is about you. You and your family have been hearing in the news about some children living where there is conflict/fighting who lose their homes, are separated from their families, or even have to leave their countries. Some of these children seek refuge/help in countries like the country we live in (here, the US). Sometimes they come alone and have nothing that would help them fulfill their fundamental human needs. Your family decides to host one of these children. She is a girl who is about your age. You offer to help choose the things your family will provide for her, so her fundamental human needs are met. Do you remember the material and spiritual human needs that you learned about? What are they? The girl you will be hosting (your guest) spent her life in a different cultural environment. You try to choose things to meet her needs that are from that culture and are familiar to her and would make her feel comfortable, accepted, and not overwhelmed by all the changes she has been experiencing.

Let us form groups of two to work on this together. Today, each group will make a chart of fundamental needs of humans and choose pictures that represent ways people here in the US meet their fundamental needs. This will help your guest see how some things here may be different than where s/he comes from. This will also help make him/her more familiar with this environment. For the next three weeks, each group will choose one of the countries from which your guest comes and make a chart using pictures

which represent your guest's culture. I shall assign each group a board where you can work. Now start making your own "Fundamental Needs of Humans" chart using dry-erase markers and pictures. Use pictures from the different boxes (or pouches) near your board. You may draw pictures if you choose to.

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## Biography

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