

instructor can provide additional reading materials for the students to study. For example, students enrolled in the University of Hawaii's Hilo Branch intercultural course, in addition to their regular text assignments, read two articles a week on some intercultural communication topic from specialty journals and communication texts.

Knowledge acquisition, however, is not the only worthy outcome of the intercultural course. The course's value is immeasurably enhanced with the development of skills and attitudes among the student enrollees.

Becoming Skillful

Skill development in the intercultural course is often overlooked, perhaps because such training is thought to be beneath the dignity of professorial instruction with its emphasis on cognitive learning and research, or, because it is thought to require specialized abilities such as coaching, evaluating participation in skill activities, and understanding the skills involved. Whatever the reasons, skills tend to be downplayed, overlooked, ignored, or relegated to a backseat.

In recent refinements of intercultural communication courses, several dozen methodological forms have emerged for instructional purposes. Useful learning activities are now available. Most of these are in print and available to the instructor and almost all are easily administered. The 29 in the textbook (and grouped together in this manual) provide varied skills exposure for the students. In addition, to fulfill the pleas of practical-minded instructors looking for useful class activities, manuals full of activities are on the market. Among them are these three: (1) *Intercultural Interactions: A Practical Guide* by Kenneth Cushner and Richard Brislin; Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 1996. It contains over 100 critical incidents, spread across 18 themes dealing with cross-cultural living experiences. The most popular of the manuals, its two editions have gone through dozens of printings. (2) *Cross-Cultural Dialogues* by Craig Storti; Yarmouth, Maine: Intercultural Press, 1994. This book consists of 74 dialogues—brief conversations between an American and a person from another culture. The other cultures are Middle Eastern, British, Chinese, French, German, Hispanic, Indian, Japanese, Mediterranean, and Russian. Within each dialogue is a breach of cultural norms which the student is challenged to uncover. The dialogues make for ideal role-playing exercises. (3) *Experiential Activities for Intercultural Learning* by H. Ned Seelye, Ed.; Yarmouth, Maine, 1996. This volume emphasizes the development of intercultural awareness and cross-cultural sensitivity through simulations, cases, role plays, critical incidents, and individual and group exercises. Noted earlier is the Hofstede, Pedersen, and Hofstede collection of 75 activities entitled *Exploring Culture* developed to build awareness, knowledge and skills.

Developing Attitudes

The intercultural communication course can modify attitudes detrimental to fruitful cross-cultural interaction. The textbook identifies these. Among them are ethnocentrism, stereotypical thinking, negative biases, prejudice—all of the cultural antipathy factors noted in the text. Similarly, other negative behaviors exhibited in intercultural encounters such as anxiety, uncertainty, feelings of injustice, among others, can be neutralized, mitigated, or annulled through training in the intercultural course's class activities.

THE CLASSROOM LECTURE

A university professor has defined the lecture as “an institutionalized extended holding of the floor to which one speaker imparts his or her views on a subject, these thoughts composing what can be called the ‘text.’” The professor goes on to say that the lecture’s style is serious and slightly impersonal, not given to entertainment, emotional impact, or immediate action. The purpose of the typical lecture is to voice the truth, and the truth appears as something to be cultivated and developed from a distance, as an end in itself. The listeners are the immediate audience, meaning to the professor that the audience is a set of individuals of varying numbers, usually seated together, who are permitted to stare at the lecturer as they hold his or her body in focus. The only way through which they can respond is feedback.

That professor’s erudite explanation serves as an appropriate means of describing the nature of the classroom lecture. In the classroom the teacher addresses a group of listeners, the students, whose numbers vary from class to class. Impersonal in manner, the teacher expresses the truth as he or she knows it. The students are supposed to look at the teacher, taking in what is said and responding only through nonverbal reaction or occasional questions.

The “truth” as expressed by the teacher is found in the subject matter, and it so strongly conforms to fact and reality that the listeners are carried away, not by the teacher’s antics but instead, by the enduring qualities of the message delivered. The students are supposed to find the teacher’s lectures so interesting and worthy of their attention that they will become so absorbed in the subject matter that the teacher will not have to resort to histrionics to capture and hold their attention.

Experts on lecturing would not claim, however, that most students, even though they may create an impression of intense interest, are regularly involved in the teacher’s text. Typically, students skip along, dipping in and out of the teacher’s thoughts, waiting for the special effects—interesting ideas, visual aids, enthusiastic delivery—to capture their interest and topple them momentarily into what is being said. Students are used to being entertained. They like the idea that, being bored, they can flip the switch and change the channel.

Teachers have a distinct advantage over other speakers. They have credibility by virtue of reputation or office, and they do not have to fight to gain the floor, at least at the beginning. Teachers benefit from this social norm. The students’ attention is theirs, automatically, because teachers are presumed to be knowledgeable and experienced in the subject matter. The floor is theirs—at least in the beginning.

Holding the floor and transmitting the “truth,” the teacher engages in a process called *explaining*—giving understanding to someone, to make plain or clear, render intelligible, make known in detail, to make understandable something not known or understandable. When the teacher explains something, he or she assigns a meaning to it to interpret or account for it. Explaining requires thought and preparation. It involves time and effort. Unlike the public speaker who either informs, persuades, or actuates, the teacher merely dispenses information when explaining and does not need to persuade.

To explain, the teacher can follow one or a combination of three forms: *interpretative*, *descriptive*, or *reason-giving*, approximating the questions *What? How? Why?* Other forms exist but these are the main ones.

Interpretative explanations deal with the central meaning—the “what” of a concept. What does it mean; what does it involve? *Descriptive explanations* try to reproduce the subject as accurately as possible—by citing specific details that are relevant and necessary—the “how”

of something using whatever amplifying and supporting materials necessary for clarity. *Reason-giving explanations* deal with the “why” something happened. The causes and motives are given.

The teacher’s attitude throughout the lecture is one of informing, passing on information for purposes of understanding. He or she presents the facts, the “truth,” but does not persuade or actuate. The teacher conveys information through the lecture.

The lecture has these requirements: (1) in the introduction, the thesis is identified—what is going to be explained; (2) the body centers on the explanation with the teacher taking into account the students and decides what kind of explanation is needed which the teacher fully provides. and (3) the summary statement briefly restates what was explained.⁴

What should students learn through the lectures in an intercultural course? Ordinarily the experienced teacher generally knows what subjects require explanation. In fact, the content of *I.C.E.* covers the subject content of the introductory intercultural course.

The previously explained course syllabus identifies the chapters in *I.C.E.* to be covered in a week-by-week format. The syllabus also notes what exercises should be discussed and when. Not all exercises require in-class discussion; some merely need to be turned in to be graded.

The previously noted sample syllabus lists fourteen lectures, one for each chapter in the text. A lecture could cover one or two class sessions depending upon the value of the subject matter in the development of the course. The remaining class session(s) should be filled with appropriate exercises, discussions, films, and exams.

The *I.C.E.* chapters are organized around specific topics. Thus, a lecture can be confined to a single chapter. Each chapter follows a logical pattern: subject introduction, amplification of the subject, and a concluding summary. In the introduction of each *I.C.E.* chapter, a preview of the chapter’s content states a set of objectives. This preview makes a fitting introduction when combined with a “lecture launcher”—what speakers term an “attention arouser,” an abundance of which are in the text.

A chapter’s subject matter may include more information than could be dealt with in the allotted time. Then the instructor chooses the essentials or those subjects that require detailed explanations to be understood. Self-explanatory material can be left for the student to comprehend on his or her own.

THE CLASS DISCUSSION

In addition to the lecture, another valuable learning technique is the class discussion, an instructional method some experts contend is a better learning process than the lecture. Students seem to absorb information faster and learn quicker when discussing a subject. The class members reap the benefit of sharing the subject matter with all the students. Each one is thrust into the learning process and the resulting pressure causes each student to mentally participate.

⁴ D.W. Klopff and R.E. Cambra, *Speaking Skills for Prospective Teachers*, 2nd ed. Englewood, CO: Morton, 1991, 51-56.

The *class* discussion process is not a *small group* discussion in which groups of three or four students examine a common subject. Class discussion involves the entire class with the teacher in charge, leading the discussion. He or she chooses the discussion subject, asks for comments, invites questions, seeks answers and occasionally supplies some, all accomplished without being an inquisitor intervening in the students' participation. Instead, the instructor creates an atmosphere of acceptance, is objective, stressing the subject rather than concentrating on personal feelings of individual students. The class discussion concentrates on comprehending the subject, not personal feelings about it.

OTHER METHODS

The lecture and discussion prove to be popular classroom learning methods. They entail virtually no extraordinary expense or personnel to implement and have proven effective in most classroom learning situations. However, with the growth of globalization in recent years, interculturalists have been turning to other methods for teaching intercultural courses, not only on university campuses but also in business and industry. The result has been the generation of new learning methods or the adaptation of methods from other disciplines.

In their analysis of intercultural training methods, Fowler and Blohm (writing in *Handbook of Intercultural Training*, 3rd ed., edited by Landis, Bennett and Bennett; Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2004) describe 20 methods for intercultural learning. They describe the methods treated in *I.C.E.*, specifically, the lecture, discussion, case studies/critical incidents, written materials such as textbooks, culture analysis like Exercise 1 in *I.C.E.*, and many others not noted in the text. They claim the academic intercultural field must be ready for new techniques and responsibilities, in facilitating mutually beneficial interactions among the various cultures in the world.

Direct student involvement in the learning process through some sort of classroom interaction is worthwhile and Fowler and Blohm are among those who advocate such interaction in intercultural learning situations. Through class involvement with others, students seem to learn more, and they seem to retain longer what they did learn. Because of the student's involvement, students feel a stronger sense of satisfaction with the learning process. Students feel a part of the process more so than when they just sit and listen.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TEXTBOOK EXERCISES

The twenty nine textbook exercises serve as aids in transmitting knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Not all need to be completed or analyzed in class. Some simply can be turned in to the instructor for review and grading purposes and returned to the student. Some relate to the subject matter of possible lectures and involve right/wrong answers that should be briefly critiqued in class. Eight contain case studies that are worth class time to discuss. Five require the students to match words and meanings. They should be scrutinized in class to confirm the correct meanings for all students. Some provide additional knowledge and could constitute test questions. On the sample schedule of exercises noted earlier, those considered vital for class time are marked with an asterisk. However, the instructor should choose those that best fit the content he or she covers.

To maintain the wholeness of the textbook for student resale purposes, the students should be instructed to complete their exercises on separate sheets of paper to turn in and to refrain from marking their books. Originally the exercises constituted a student workbook sold separately from the text. Completed exercises were torn out of the workbook and turned in for

grades. The workbook, thus, had no resale value. To eliminate the workbook expense, the *I.C.E.* exercises were included with the *I.C.E.* text.

A scoring system for the exercises was previously given. It awards points for correct work. The number of points given is optional. The more points given for an exercise, the easier it is to score, plus the students tend to believe the higher the points, the more important the exercise. For those exercises without definite right or wrong answers, the students receive all points if turned in on time, if late—50% of the points, and if not turned in—0 points.

THE *I.C.E.* EXERCISES

The twenty nine exercises follow. Special instructions or information is included when needed. For the exercises requiring answers, those are given.

Exercise 1: Cultural Resume

Instructor's Information. This is a semester-long project. Students should be told about it on the first day of class. The countries listed are suggestions. Note that Japan, Korea, and China are not included. The text contains considerable information about those cultures, and students could use it without doing independent research. The specifics of the exercise can be altered as the instructor desires.

Additional exercises relate to Exercise 1. Exercise 3 asks for the name of the country chosen. Exercise 10 calls for a description of the chosen country's worldview. Exercise 13 requires a list of stereotypes typical of the chosen country. Its social institutions are analyzed in Exercise 15. In Exercise 19 its language is described. As students complete these exercises, they are simultaneously finishing parts of Exercise 1.

Several class sessions at the semester's end could be devoted to students oral reports about their culture.

If Exercise 1 is completed several weeks before semester's end, it can be graded and returned.

Student's Instructions. A resumé is a summing up of something. Exercise 1 involves summing up a culture. The exercise requires that you prepare a resumé of a culture, following the instructions below. The Cultural Resumé is due on the date indicated, roughly at the end of the term, giving you sufficient time to complete one like the sample included.

Objectives. 1) To encourage you to become familiar with a specific culture as you summarize its unique customs, traditions, values, and lifestyles. 2) To help you develop a sensitivity toward the people of the culture you choose to study, enabling you to communicate better with people from that culture.

Reference. Chapter 1 of text.

Instructions

Completion time: (per instructor)

1. From the list below, choose a country to study.

Algeria	Finland	Mexico	Scotland
Argentina	France	Netherlands	Singapore
Australia	Germany	New Zealand	South Africa
Austria	Greece	Nigeria	Spain
Belgium	Hong Kong	Norway	Sri Lanka
Bolivia	Hungary	Pakistan	Sweden
Brazil	India	Paraguay	Switzerland
Bulgaria	Indonesia	Peru	Syria
Canada	Iran	Philippines	Tahiti
Chile	Ireland	Poland	Taiwan
Czechoslovakia	Israel	Portugal	Thailand
Denmark	Italy	Puerto Rico	Turkey
Egypt	Jordan	Romania	Wales
England	Kenya	Russia	Zaire
Ethiopia	Lebanon	Samoa	Zimbabwe
Fiji	Malaysia	Saudi Arabia	

2. Report the country and culture to the instructor.
3. Research the country and its culture. To obtain information, check the embassy of the country (most are located in Washington, DC; metropolitan cities in the United States may have a consulate office representing the country); school and other local libraries, Human Relation Area Files, and computer-aided research systems.
4. Organize useful answers for the following items, which should be covered in your Cultural Resumé.

A. Customs and Courtesies

Greetings	Gestures	Travel
Visiting	Personal appearance	Communicating
Eating	Group meetings	interpersonally

B. The People

General attitudes and values	Religion
Population	Holidays, religious and political
Language	

C. Lifestyle

Family	Work
Dating, courtship, and marriage	Recreation
Social and economic levels	Food

D. The Nation

History and government	Transportation and communication systems
Educational system	Health, sanitation, and medical facilities
Land and climate	Scale map of the country
Economy	

E. Communication Style

F. Bibliography

Exercise 2: Types of Intercultural Contact

Instructor's Instructions. Each of the five incidents in this exercise has four alternative solutions. The student indicates each choice with a letter designation. They are not expected to know the right or wrong answers to these five incidents and should not lose points for wrong answers. The exercise is designed to heighten their sensitivity to cultural differences.

Student's Instructions. Exercise 2 introduces you to the sorts of challenges that people can face when they come into intercultural contact. It also presents examples of the types of intercultural contact that people can have.

Objectives. To make you aware of the kinds of difficulties individuals might face in intercultural interactions.

Instructions

1. Read each incident. Note that four possible explanations are listed under each incident.
2. Read the explanations for the first incident and make a judgment regarding each explanation. Place a "C" in the blank for the explanation you think is the correct one. Place an "L" in the blank for the explanation that to you seems a likely possibility but is not necessarily correct. Place a "U" in the blank for the explanation that is unlikely to be correct. Place an "N" in the blank for the explanation you feel sure is not correct.
3. Do the same for the other incidents.
4. Prepare to discuss the incidents in class. The correct answers will be announced.

Instructor's Information:

The most probable answers are:

Incident 1: (1) U – most schools have visa procedures; (2) C – the student is of a higher social order than a secretary and the student's response is like one he would give in India; (3) U – there is no indication that he is upset about grades; (4) U – no evidence suggests this.

Incident 2: (1) U – Samoans are aware of the value of money; (2) L – but not correct; (3) C – it is the Samoan way; (4) U – Samoans are responsible for their debts.

Incident 3: (1) U – he probably had a choice; (2) N – Hawaii’s schools are desegregated, and he would have been reared in that atmosphere; (3) C – Hawaiians do not like to be identified with a culture other than their own; (4) U – the cause would have to be more compelling.

Incident 4: (1) U – this can happen anywhere but is not the cause here; (2) C – sitting outside is special and more expensive in many places; (3) N – it would create more problems; (4) N – overcharging is not endemic to Europe.

Incident 5: (1) L – but there is a better answer; (2) U – there is a better answer; (3) N – foreign students usually are the cream of their nation’s student population and they know it; therefore, he would feel equal to or superior; (4) C – the Thai would want to maintain harmony and would not assert his feelings.

The Five Cases

1. University Students Studying Overseas

The communication studies departmental secretary is well-liked and respected by students and faculty alike. She enjoys being of help to students who are working their way through departmental and university regulations. One day a student from India confronts her, demanding attention to problems he is having with his visa, low course grades, and master’s degree thesis advisor. Speaking gruffly and like a superior talking to subordinates, he gives orders to the secretary without so much as a “please” or “thank you.” The secretary tries to control her anger, finally going to the department chairperson to see if someone else can work with this student in the future. What do you think is the correct explanation for this incident?

_____ The Indian student was upset because no well-developed procedures had been developed for handling visa problems.

_____ The secretary was not being attacked personally; she was being confronted because of her role as secretary.

_____ The Indian was upset because he was getting low grades even though he was an excellent student.

_____ Foreign students occasionally are accused of plagiarizing others’ work, and the Indian student believed he was so accused.

2. Immigrants Working in the Host Country

In the River Rouge plant of an American car maker, Jim works with several immigrants who arrived recently in the United States. Jim enjoys their company and has made friends with them. A Samoan spends a lot of his free time with Jim, and they drink together frequently. The friendship is becoming strained as far as Jim is concerned, though, because the Samoan borrows money from Jim regularly. The Samoan spends his wages long before the next payday arrives and then expects Jim to help him financially until payday. Jim thinks the Samoan should be more responsible and budget his money better. The Samoan laughs at Jim’s suggestions about budgeting, saying, “Why worry? Good friends like you will help me out.” Jim thinks the Samoan is being irresponsible and taking advantage of him. What do you think is the correct explanation for the Samoan’s attitude?

_____ Not having been brought up in a cash economy, the Samoan did not appreciate the value of money.

_____ The Samoan probably likes to drink, and he spends his money that way but won’t admit this to Jim.

_____ The Samoan way is to share possessions, including money.

_____ The Samoan plans to leave for home soon, leaving his debts behind.

3. **Students Attending Desegregated Schools**

Kimo, a high school student from Hawaii, is sent to San Francisco on a special scholarship for advanced students. He is enrolled in a desegregated school as part of the scholarship program. A tall, handsome, and proud Hawaiian, he comes from a family with strong unity and deep pride in its Hawaiian heritage. This is Kimo's first trip away from home and from the Islands.

No other Hawaiians are attending the school, but several Black girls take a liking to him and call him "brother." In subsequent weeks, Kimo's behavior becomes unsettled; he cuts class, tries to avoid the Black students, and generally does poorly in his work. His aunt and uncle, with whom he lives, become aware of his behavior and send him back home to Honolulu. What do you think is the correct explanation for Kimo's behavior?

_____ Kimo resented going to San Francisco because of his attachment to his family.

_____ Kimo did not like the desegregated atmosphere in the school.

_____ Kimo was upset at being identified with a culture group other than his own.

_____ Hawaiian teenagers misbehave once they are away from home.

4. **Student Tourists**

American university students Lisa and Jane are on their first visit to southern Europe. Their first morning in Spain they discover a little café near the hotel with friendly service and good food. They have a pleasant breakfast inside the café. The next morning they return for breakfast. Being a beautiful warm morning, they decide to sit at one of the outdoor tables. They have their breakfast and receive the bill only to discover that the cost has doubled for the same items they had the day before. They accuse the waiter of overcharging them. The waiter tries to explain in his inadequate English that they are sitting in a different place and must pay more. The two girls don't believe the explanation, slam down the money, and storm out of the serving area, feeling resentful for being exploited. What do you think is the correct explanation?

_____ They looked like suckers so the waiter "took" them.

_____ The waiter was stating a custom. Sitting outside costs more than sitting inside.

_____ They should refuse to pay and should call the police.

_____ These practices are common abroad, and the students should learn to accept them.

5. **Students Studying in the United States**

Ed, an outgoing, boisterous, talkative, but well-liked American, has a Thai roommate. They seem to get along well, and Ed is pleased because most of his former roommates did not like his company. About halfway through the semester, the Thai student announces he is moving out. Ed is puzzled and asks the Thai student why. The Thai student is reticent about answering, but under Ed's persistent questioning he finally replies that Ed is too noisy, plays loud music, is untidy, and has visitors at all hours. Ed wants to know why he hasn't been told before of his seemingly disconcerting behavior. The Thai student refuses to answer. Which explanation do you believe is the correct one?

_____ He didn't want to anger Ed.

_____ He was overwhelmed by Ed's boisterous behavior.

_____ As a foreigner, he felt inferior to Ed and didn't think he should complain.

_____ He was not assertive enough to confront Ed directly.